

TCL

TEACHING CLASSICAL LANGUAGES

An Online Journal of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South

In This Issue:

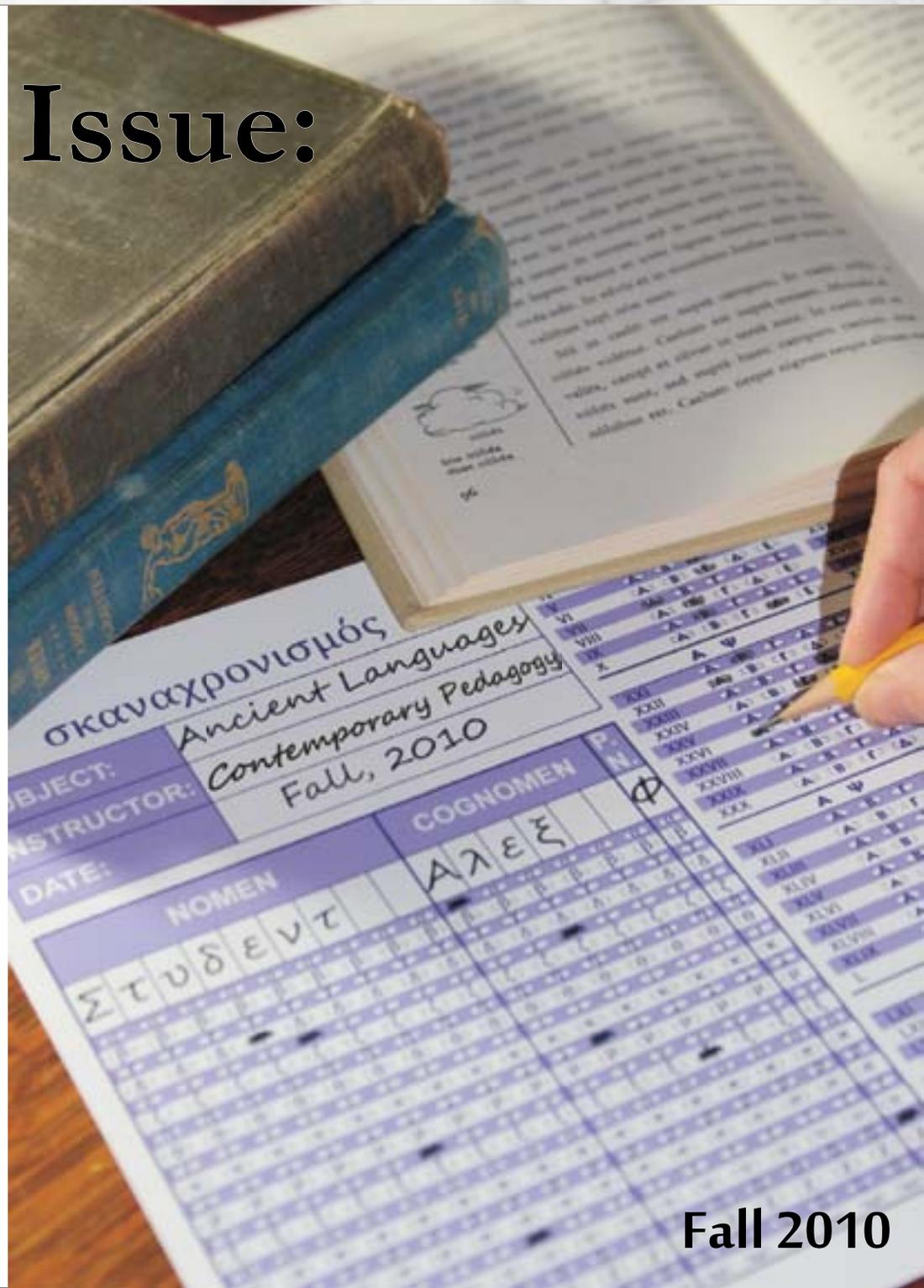
Exercises for
Developing
Prediction Skills
in Reading
Latin Sentences



Form-Focused
Teaching
for the Intermediate
Latin Teacher



The 2010
College
Greek Exam



Volume 2, Issue 1

Fall 2010

Table of Contents

Editor's Introduction	iii
Exercises for Developing Prediction Skills in Reading Latin Sentences Rebecca R. Harrison	1
Form-Focused Teaching for the Intermediate Latin Teacher Peter Anderson and Mark Beckwith	31
The 2010 College Greek Exam Albert Watanabe	53

Cover illustration by Meghan Yamanishi; photograph by David and Meghan Yamanishi.

Editorial Board

Edward Gaffney	Montgomery Bell Academy, Nashville, Tennessee
Carin M.C. Green	Classics, University of Iowa
Dexter Hoyos	Classics & Ancient History, University of Sydney (Australia)
Ginny Lindzey	Dripping Springs High School, Dripping Springs, Texas
Sherwin D. Little	Indian Hill High School, Cincinnati, Ohio
Daniel V. McCaffrey	Classics, Randolph-Macon College
Rose Williams	Emerita, Abilene Public Schools, McMurry University

Editor

John Gruber-Miller, Classical and Modern Languages, Cornell College
600 First St SW, Mount Vernon, IA 52314
jgruber-miller@cornellcollege.edu

Assistant Editor

Meghan Yamanishi
myamanishi@cornellcollege.edu

Teaching Classical Languages welcome articles offering innovative practice and methods, advocating new theoretical approaches, or reporting on empirical research in teaching and learning Latin and Greek.

Guidelines for submission may be found at <http://www.tcl.camws.org/guidelines.pdf>.

Editor's Introduction

John Gruber-Miller

It is surely no coincidence that the three articles in this issue of *Teaching Classical Languages* address hot topics in both classical and modern language education: reading, bridging the gap between beginning and advanced level courses, and assessment. After many years focusing almost exclusively on oral communication, some modern language educators have realized that the pendulum may have swung too far and that their students have not been afforded the opportunity to receive authentic cultural discourse through the written word. In the last decade, Richard Kern, Hiram Maxim, Janet Swaffar and Katherine Arens have written key works that stress the importance of reading as a crucial component of language acquisition. Reading, they argue, is an excellent way to introduce language learners to authentic cultural discourse and to increase the range and quality of input they may receive from exclusively oral sources. Moreover, reading authentic texts is possible even in beginning language courses and does not need to be postponed until intermediate or advanced levels.

For Classicists, it may be only too easy to respond to this swing of the pendulum by saying, "I told you so." Latin and Greek teachers have long advocated reading as the primary goal for their students. But have we done a good job teaching our students to read the sophisticated texts that have been preserved for us in medieval libraries? In "Exercises for Developing Prediction Skills in Reading Latin Sentences," Rebecca Harrison offers a thought-provoking article that encourages Latin (and Greek) teachers to rethink how we teach grammatical concepts in elementary Latin. Many of us, she argues, unconsciously teach Latin grammar through English word order rather than teaching new concepts through Latin word order from the earliest stages of learning the language. Offering more than twenty different exercises, she provides Latin teachers a wealth of strategies to help students to read in Latin word order and to utilize what comes early in the sentence to predict what types of grammatical constructions are likely to come as the sentence unfolds.

A second topic that has long been an issue for language educators is the bifurcation of the language curriculum between elementary classes that emphasize grammar instruction and advanced level courses that focus on the interpretation of texts. Recently, the MLA (Report on Foreign Languages and Higher Education), Heidi Byrnes and others have deplored this divide between "skills" and "content," between "language" and "literature." In "Form-Focused Teaching for the Intermediate Latin Teacher," Peter Anderson and his student Mark Beckwith report on experiencing this same divide in the Latin curriculum at Grand Valley State University. Beckwith writes, "It was as if we could guess what the text was saying, but had forgotten why – when the meaning was obscure we did not have the resources to elicit meaning through grammar immediately at hand. By focusing on interpretation it seemed that a certain amount of grammar was lost." In order to find a balance between grammar and interpretation, the two authors developed exercises for intermediate Latin students that provide a proactive review of specific grammar and then integrate grammar within the context of reading and interpreting texts from Seneca, Catullus, and Caesar.

Finally, as pressure from the U.S. Department of Education to assess our students' progress filters down to the Higher Learning Commission and state and local school boards, we all reluctantly follow the lead of administrators and wonder whether all this culture of assessment will lead

to better teaching or learning. Exams such as the College Greek Exam, however, offer college and university Classics departments a tool for assessing their students' progress across institutional boundaries. In "The 2010 College Greek Exam," Albert Watanabe offers readers of *Teaching Classical Languages* a snapshot of what our students are capable of doing at the end of the first year of Greek, analyzing their strengths and weaknesses. More importantly, an exam like the College Greek Exam may also give some indication of what structures students are likely to master first and provide reassurance to learners and instructors that certain more difficult structures will develop later in their study of Greek. In short, we should not always cast the evil eye on assessment; tools like the College Greek Exam may be able to offer us insights into our own programs as well as typical patterns of progress across institutions.

WORKS CITED

- Byrnes, Heidi, ed. Perspectives: Interrogating Communicative Competence as a Framework for Collegiate Foreign Language Study. *Modern Language Journal* 90 (2006): 244-66.
- Byrnes, Heidi, Hiram Maxim, and John Norris. Realizing Advanced Foreign Language Writing Development in Collegiate Education: Curricular Design, Pedagogy, Assessment. Supplement. *Modern Language Journal* 94 (2010).
- Kern, Richard. *Literacy and Language Teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press, 2000.
- Maxim, Hiram H. "Integrating Textual Thinking into the Introductory College-Level Foreign Language Classroom." *Modern Language Journal* 90 (2006): 19-32.
- Modern Language Association Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages. "[Foreign Languages and Higher Education: New Structures for a Changed World](#)." *Profession* (2007): 234-45.
- Swaffar, Janet, and Katherine Arens. *Remapping the Foreign Language Curriculum: An Approach through Multiple Literacies*. New York: The Modern Language Association, 2005.

Teaching Classical Languages Mission Statement

Teaching Classical Languages is the only peer-reviewed electronic journal dedicated to the teaching and learning of Latin and ancient Greek. It addresses the interests of all Latin and Greek teachers, graduate students, coordinators, and administrators. *Teaching Classical Languages* welcome articles offering innovative practice and methods, advocating new theoretical approaches, or reporting on empirical research in teaching and learning Latin and Greek. As an electronic journal, *Teaching Classical Languages* has a unique global outreach. It offers authors and readers a multimedia format that more fully illustrates the topics discussed, and provides hypermedia links to related information and websites. Articles not only contribute to successful Latin and Greek pedagogy, but draw on relevant literature in language education, applied linguistics, and second language acquisition for an ongoing dialogue with modern language educators.

Exercises for Developing Prediction Skills in Reading Latin Sentences

Rebecca R. Harrison
Truman State University

ABSTRACT

Grammar exercises in Latin textbooks, even those using the reading method, do not always give students the most effective practice in developing the skills needed for reading Latin sentences. A growing trend in Latin pedagogy is an emphasis on reading in Latin word order in order to form understanding and make appropriate predictions as one reads. This requires a shift in focus from what we want students to know to what we want students to be able to do. The basis for this more functional perspective on grammar and its interdependent relationship with meaning and vocabulary is provided by research on the process of reading and on second language learning. The following article analyzes examples of typical textbook exercises and presents some alternative types of exercises that develop these predictive reading skills. I also give some guidelines for evaluating and sometimes adapting existing exercises in textbooks or creating new ones.

Keywords: grammar; second language learning; reading process; pedagogical theory and teaching practice; expectations; novice and expert; Subject-Object-Verb languages

INTRODUCTION

If the primary goal of learning Latin is to read it fluently, how should textbook authors (and teachers) design exercises that prepare students to develop the necessary skills for reading? Some exercises, even in reading method textbooks, follow traditional patterns, which are often based, in fact, on English word order and English sentence patterns rather than Latin. Let's look at a typical exercise designed to practice prepositions, in particular *in* with the ablative and accusative (Balme and Morwood 1996, 117: Exercise 5.6):

Fill in the blanks and translate.

1. Flaccus et filius in agr_____ labōrant.
2. puellae in vi__ lūdunt; Scintilla eās in cas___ vocat.

In both sentences, students are given the preposition and the verb and are asked to fill in the ending on the noun object. What is this exercise asking students to do? Note the position of the blanks in these exercises: they are not at the end of the sentence. Because one needs information one does not yet have, they require the student to read on ahead to the verb and then to backtrack to fill in the ending on the noun object of the preposition. In fact, what the exercise does is reinforce English thought patterns of using the meaning of the verb (motion or rest) (and the context of the first clause in number 2) to interpret the meaning of the preposition (location or movement across a boundary). Thus, it reinforces a “reading” method of jumping around to seek and find the words in English word order—what Hoyos calls a “decoding” type of translation rather than actually

reading for meaning in Latin word order (Hoyos, esp. 126-127). In short, this type of exercise does not develop in students the ability to create meaning and predict as one reads; instead, it reinforces student behavior to read in English word order. It is essentially asking the wrong question for reading Latin.

Instead of asking students to fill in the noun object ending, then, one can give the complete prepositional phrase and ask them to choose the kind of verb that meets their expectation and completes the meaning of the sentence.

Exercise 1

in casam _____	A) iacet	B) festinant
in hortō _____	A) sum	B) veniō
in casā _____	A) sedēs	B) redit
in agrō _____	A) est	B) intrō
in agrum _____	A) manēmus	B) festināmus

In Exercise 1, the first example, *in casam*, requires a verb of motion, whereas the second, *in horto*, requires a stationary verb. Students cannot answer this exercise correctly by just translating meanings of the words; they have to process the case forms and use this information to form a prediction, as they would do in reading Latin. In fact, this word order—prepositional phrase before the verb—occurs 87% of the time.¹ Consequently, new readers of Latin need to experience this word order in order to process, interpret, and read Latin sentences in order. For example (Caesar *B.G.* V.38.1):

hac victoria sublatus, Ambiorix statim cum equitatu in Aduatucos, qui erant eius regno finitimi, proficiscitur.

The prepositional phrase (*in Aduatucos*) comes before the verb (of motion: *proficiscitur*), which comes at the end of the sentence. This sentence, with its intervening relative clause governed by a stative verb (*erant*), can confuse those students who follow the “look ahead for the verb” translation method. What students need to be able to do in reading sentences like this is to associate the accusative form of the object of *in* with movement (“into”) and to predict a verb of motion accordingly. The fact that Latin sometimes omits the verb (of motion) altogether in this context—where there is *in* plus an accusative object—demonstrates that this is exactly what Latin readers did: anticipate the kind of verb, namely a verb of motion (for omission of the verb, see Guiraud 345; Furneaux 53).

Similarly, an ablative object requires an association with location (“in”) and prediction of an appropriate kind of stative verb. For example (Caesar *B.G.* I. 24.3):

sed in summo iugo duas legiones quas in Gallia citeriore proxime conscriperat et omnia auxilia collocari, ac totum montem hominibus compleri, et interea sarcinas in unum locum conferri, et eum ab eis qui in superiore acie constiterant muniri iussit.

¹ In a sample using Caesar *B.G.* VI, *in* + accusative came before the verb 91% of the time and *in* + ablative 81%.

Note that in this case the “verb” is actually an infinitive, twelve words later (but not at the end of the sentence) with an intervening relative clause again, making it difficult for those hunting for the verb. Given that these two constructions (infinitive + accusative and infinitive + ablative) are pretty evenly split in Latin,² there is no “default” that students can assume. If anything, students will tend to assume “in” (location) as the default because the Latin word “in” appears similar to English “in” and is often the first translation given in textbooks. Therefore, the preposition *in* with the accusative needs particular practice. Note that Exercise 1 above, giving a prepositional phrase and asking for a verb, also helps form the association of prepositional phrases as adverbial phrases with verbs rather than as adjectival phrases with nouns, as is sometimes the case in English. That is, a prepositional phrase in Latin usually predicts a verb, and one should translate it with the verb in Latin, not with a preceding noun, e.g. “the girl in the garden,” as one might do in English.³

As we saw above, grammar exercises in Latin textbooks, even those using the reading method, do not always give students the most effective practice in developing the skills needed for reading Latin sentences in order. Yet an emphasis on reading in Latin word order helps those learning Latin make appropriate predictions as they read and comprehend the text more efficiently. But teaching students to read this way requires a shift in focus from what we want students to know to what we want students to be able to do. After offering several more ways to predict verbs of motion or location, I explore the basis for this more functional perspective on grammar and its interdependent relationship with meaning and vocabulary by reviewing the relevant research on the process of reading and on second language learning. In the second half of the article, I analyze typical unsuccessful reading strategies and present concrete examples that will help teachers and students develop these predictive reading skills. I also give some guidelines for evaluating and sometimes adapting existing exercises in textbooks or creating new ones.

ADDITIONAL EXERCISES PREDICTING MOTION OR LOCATION

Associating form and function

As we saw in the introduction, students need to have an understanding of the concept of motion or location associated with each form, accusative and ablative, in order to predict what type of verb will follow. An effective way of practicing this association is through exercises using pictures that require matching the prepositional phrases with their respective concepts of motion or location.

2 The accusative in fact was slightly more common in the same sample: 56% accusative and 44% ablative.

3 My thanks to Glenn Knudsvig (at the National-Louis University and Illinois Classical Conference Latin Pedagogy Workshop) for giving me the explicit explanation for what I had learned intuitively.

Exercise 2⁴

Choose the picture that matches each phrase.

1. in agrum _____ in agrō _____

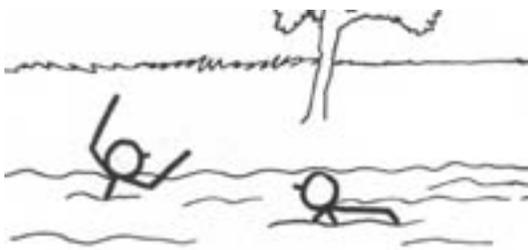


A.



B.

2. in aquā _____ in aquam _



A.



B.

3. in casam _____ in casā _____



A.



B.

4 Pictures for IIA and IIB from Wright 113 and 82; IIIA from Balme and Morwood 1990, 7; IIIB adapted from Traupman 1989, 89. I used the first edition of the *OLC* because those illustrations are black and white. Black and white line drawings (in .gif rather than .jpg format) are often better than color pictures for focusing on specific aspects. Wright's book has a good collection of pictures (which can be used for educational purposes) designed for foreign language teachers. Traupman's *Latin Is Fun* also has good pictures; see 85-86, 88-91 for prepositions. See also Ørberg and Ur. Ur includes some pages of materials that can be reproduced for classroom use; most of the activities are designed more for active production of forms.

One can show the actual movement (or rest) with a SMART board (a SMART board file is available on the *TCL* website) or using American Sign Language. One can make separate picture and prepositional phrase cards and use them to play a matching game or create a SMART Notebook activity version. One can also ask “yes/no” or alternative questions about a picture (e.g. I.1 and 2 above) or based on a reading. For example:

ambulatne in agrō? (an in agrum?)

These short questions give students lots of concentrated practice on the desired grammar point. The ease in grading allows quick and ample feedback, whether by answer keys, in-class correction, self-correcting on-line exercises, or teacher corrected homework. Note that the exercises focus on one concept and that the correct answer depends on the proper interpretation of the grammar. They do not allow students to “guess” using meaning clues from word meanings alone or other parts of the sentence, which defeats the purpose of predicting. The exercises above focus attention on the form and the direct association of the form with the concept in a way that does not require translation or grammatical terms. English translations may be ambiguous, especially in this example, since “in” is often used for “into.” While knowledge of grammatical terms is important for discussing grammar and using reference books, these terms are often better used after the concept has been understood and the association of the form with the concept has been achieved. Trying to add an intermediate step of identification of a grammar term not fully understood by some students in addition to a new Latin form can be another hurdle for some students, while other students can treat the term identification as an isolated mechanical exercise. The use of pictures is also helpful in developing conceptual understandings that move beyond memorized translations and provide practice in requiring making appropriate choices (the equivalent of “in” vs. “into”). Because of this, the prediction and picture matching exercises enable the teacher (and students) to determine, in a way that one cannot always do from grammatical labels or ambiguous translations, whether the students really understand the concept. In a similar way, students can translate *ab* and *ex* and *dē* as “from” without really understanding the difference.

As another type of exercise developing prediction skills, one can have matching question and answer sets or multiple choice answers. For example:

Exercise 3

Match each question with the appropriate answer.

Ubi iacent rosae? _____	A. in templa
Unde festinant? _____	B. in viā
Quō festinant? _____	C. ē turbā

Note that this exercise reinforces the importance of the concept of motion vs. location in that Latin also has different interrogatives (*ubi* vs. *quo*) for the different concepts, with the added

distinction here of motion “from” (*unde*) vs. “(in)to” a place. English tends to just use “where” for all three; the older “whither” and “whence” have pretty much dropped out of use. If the students have not had all the different Latin interrogatives yet, the teacher can provide the meanings orally or in writing. Again, the exercise requires attention to and use of the case endings and cannot be answered by just translating the phrases, since, for example, either “in the temple” or “in the road” seems to make sense for the first exercise question above.⁵

Exercises requiring the production of forms

Research indicates that exercises that require students to process forms in meaningful contexts, that is, do something with a given text (like those suggested above), rather than actively produce new forms (like the fill in the ending), yield better results when students are tested later for interpreting the meaning of texts and equal results when tested for the production of forms (Lee and VanPatten 94-95, 102-103, 107-108). Thus, exercises with pictures or choosing correct answers, which involve associating the given form directly with the concept, are a good practice kind of exercise for students in the learning stages of forming connections between morphological form and meaning. Textbooks, however, often include exercises on new material that require students to actively produce the new forms. Lee and VanPatten describe the early use of such production exercises as “putting the cart before the horse” (95). Exercises of this kind, such as translation from the first to second language or fill in the blank, requiring the production of the forms are better for a somewhat later stage, ideally after the concept is well understood. Production exercises at this later stage that allow students to actively practice the material in meaningful contexts facilitate the process of testing mastery of the material and moving it from working memory into long-term memory.

The typical form production exercises, besides the kind of fill in the blank noun ending exercises discussed above and drill exercises, are translation from English to Latin. For example: (Balme and Morwood 1996, 117: Exercise 5.7):

Translate into Latin.

The farmer calls the boys into the field.

The use of “into” may itself be artificial, however, since “in” is often used for “into” in English and is (re-)interpreted based on the context. Thus, the English sentences for translation require the use of “into” vs. “in” or other context (such as a previous sentence in *OLC*, Ex. 5.6 #2 above) in order to clarify the concept desired. Thus, these exercises do not help “relearn” “in” as sometimes associated with the concept of motion as effectively as the other kinds of non-English exercises do. Translation of complete sentences, moreover, does not focus on one aspect of grammar or syntax, and so there is less practice on the target topic.

5 One can make up these kinds of predictive exercises by going through the texts in the book and picking out the prepositional phrases and the verbs; then add an alternate choice of the opposite kind of verb. See Appendix 1 for a list of sample places and verbs by type that can be used to create exercises like this. One can also take exercises in the textbook like the first example from the *OLC* above and fill in the ending on the noun object and give choices of verbs. If necessary, one can mix the places and verbs from other sentences (so that the students do not get the answer from the original exercise).

One can avoid these problems and can keep the focus on Latin by having students write their own answers to questions (using pictures or based on a reading or more personal interest if desired), for example:

Exercise 4

Ubi ambulat?



Ubi fēmina labōrat?



Quō intrat?



Ubi habitās? (e.g. īnsula; deversorium [*dormitory*]; casa)

Quō īvistī? (ībis? īre vīs?)

These kinds of questions can be used as good review exercises in association with related topics. For example, one could practice new material, such as the verb *eō* (as in the last sentence of Exercise 4) or time constructions, using the new material in the question, but asking for the answer in Latin of the older material.

THEORY: PREDICTION AND THE READING PROCESS

The reason for using these kinds of exercises—emphasizing the association of a grammatical form with its meaning by focusing on a particular form in a limited but meaningful context—is based on research on the process of reading and on second language learning. Reading is a process involving several aspects. The first is the recognition of individual words and forms. These must be interpreted and grouped together into meaningful units, such as noun phrases or prepositional phrases, a process that is done sub-consciously, as one reads in order, even before the end of the sentence (see e.g. Johnson 19; Grabe 200-206). That is, text is comprehended in meaningful chunks as one reads, and correctly reading individual words does not automatically lead to meaning (Smith 96-99, 33-34). It is grammar and syntax that enable the reader to know how to interpret the individual words and to integrate them to form meaning (Grabe 200-206). Thus, as Koda points out, knowledge of forms (i.e. recognition and even identification) is not the same thing as knowing how to use this knowledge (9-10). Traditional grammar drill exercises often emphasize the first step, recognizing (and producing) and identifying forms, often in isolation. Thus, students can learn to treat these isolated grammar drill exercises as mechanical and as an end in themselves rather than as a means to comprehension. Recent studies emphasize the need to practice the process of associating the form directly with its meaning (in meaningful context), until the connection becomes automatic (e.g. Larsen-Freeman 258-260, McCaffrey 2006, 115-116 and 124-125).

The problem with overemphasis on the first aspect, especially identifying forms in isolation, without enough practice of the second skill (associating form with meaning) is illustrated by my discovery that some of the intermediate Latin students in my class could give paradigms of forms, but could not identify the case names of the forms or their functions and they could not apply this knowledge in translating. Since then, I have at least asked the students to label the cases and/or their possible functions (or give an example of its use) for nouns or translate conjugated verb forms. Similarly, many of us have probably had students correctly identify the function of an underlined word in a passage as, e.g. a direct object, but not translate it as such in their translation of the passage. It is possible to recognize the student who translates a sentence, then identifies the function of a particular word based on how they had translated it, and as a result identifies it as the case with that function, even when that ending did not match their correctly labeled paradigm earlier in the test. They did the process backwards, or rather, they did what they have learned to do in English, where the identification of the part of speech and function of a word may depend on how the word is used in that sentence. Larsen-Freeman calls such knowledge that can be recalled, as on quizzes, but cannot be transferred and applied as “inert” knowledge (Larsen-Freeman 258). This kind of knowledge alone can also result in such things as putting noun endings on verb stems or vice versa.

Grammar is relational

This understanding of the reading process leads to a new perspective on grammar and syntax. Grammar is often thought of in descriptive terms that emphasize identifying and categorizing things into separate boxes, e.g. noun, accusative, direct object. Many grammatical definitions are themselves descriptive, e.g. a noun names a person, place, thing, or idea.⁶ When viewed in terms of the reading process, grammar and syntax are better viewed in terms of indicating

6 Cf. Donatus *Ars Minor* (Keil v. 4, p. 355): “pars orationis cum casu corpus aut rem proprie communiterve significans.”

relational functions, relating words and ideas, rather than separating things. Grammar shows how the different words in the sentence relate to each other to create meaning. It is “the glue that holds sentences and texts together and specifies how the content is to be understood” (Grabe 37). Thus, grammar is more than memorizing and identifying forms, and teaching reading involves teaching the skill of interpreting and using the grammatical information in meaningful contexts (Larsen-Freeman 255). Another way of thinking about it is to think in terms of what one wants students to be able to do, rather than to know. A better definition of a noun, then, for reading is a functional definition: a noun is a word that can be used as the subject or object (or other “noun” function) in a sentence (compare Knudsvig and Ross 28-29). This functional kind of definition helps students deal with such things as infinitives and gerunds. Compare Ruebel’s adverbial functional approach to ablatives (especially 58-61) and Appendix 2 giving a graphic presentation of the parts of speech.⁷

One reads, then, using grammar and syntax to interpret and create meaning as one goes, in order to predict what will come next, and one uses these predictions as an aid in reading, i.e. understanding, what comes next, including interpreting ambiguities, which are a natural part of language (Knudsvig and Ross 33-34). For example, in this context, if one saw “lead,” one would probably think of the verb rather than the chemical element. Similarly, when reading a narrative passage of Caesar, one would probably interpret *vīs* as the noun, rather than the second person form of *volo*. Because of the ambiguities in language, meaning is more than the sum of the individual words (Smith 29-31, 36-40). One uses the cumulative previous meaning and predictions from these to help resolve subsequent ambiguities, such as the form *fēminae*. That is, prediction based on grouping words to create meaning tells the reader what to expect and what one needs to look for to help resolve ambiguities (Smith 81, 101-102).

Characteristics of expert readers

In light of such understanding of the process of reading, several recent publications have emphasized the need to teach students to read Latin in Latin word order and form predictions accordingly (e.g. McCaffrey 2006 and 2009, Markus and Ross, Hansen, and Hoyos). As McCaffrey points out, reading in order is actually easier because it helps resolve ambiguities, such as *-ēs* or *-a* nominative/accusative forms (2009, 62, 64-65). Active predictive reading helps eliminate possibilities, some of which are often not even considered in a particular context (as with *lead* or *vīs*, or *fēminae* as a nominative when there is only one woman in the context), thereby minimizing ambiguity and avoiding overload from trying to hold on to too many ambiguities (Smith 81, 101-102). This ability to select and to eliminate possibilities or reduce the amount of information to be processed is a characteristic of experts as opposed to novices in approaching problems. Experts, as shown by the classic study of chess playing, are better judges of what to focus on and how to evaluate what information is most important and relevant (Haider and Frensch 306-307, 334-335). The goal is to arrive at the one best choice—of action, in chess, or interpretation, in reading. Exercises such as parsing, however, especially of isolated words, reinforce novice behavior by asking for all possibilities (including improbable possibilities such as datives of things or plurals of proper names). They encourage students to apply the same principle when translating by identifying all

⁷ Subordinate clauses have had the front end damaged (with the addition of a subordinating conjunction) and can no longer run on their own, but have to be towed by a main clause.

the possible forms of each word, treating each one as a separate entity to be juggled together when one gets all done. For example (Shelmerdine 24 Ex. 20.4):

dī turbae imperium mōnstrant.

Parsing these would give: *dī* (genitive singular *of the god*; nominative pl. *the gods*) *turbae* (genitive singular *of the crowd*; dative singular *to the crowd*; nominative plural *the crowds*) *imperium* (nominative singular *power*; accusative singular “_____ *s power*”). One should not be surprised if students then become overwhelmed and give up trying to use grammatical analysis or come up with a translation such as “The crowds show the power of the god.” Reading in the original word order and processing as one reads accesses the information in the order that was intended and that is needed for understanding, aiding in grouping the right words together; it “makes sense.” Exercises should, therefore, teach reducing improbables and seek to develop probable expectations and to develop interpretation skills to fit particular contexts, as in some of the exercises below.

Working in Latin word order also relates to training eye movement and focus, a key factor in expert vs. novice behavior (Haider and Frensch 307). For example, the eye will most often have to look back to find the antecedent of a relative pronoun. If the relative is at the beginning of the sentence and there is not an antecedent back there, it will probably have to be supplied (e.g. *Quī* – *the one(s) who*) or it is a connecting relative. Here is an example of a traditional exercise (Jones and Sidwell 232: Reading Latin, 4C):

Say which noun is the antecedent of the given relative.

quem: *fēminam, mulieris, uirōs, seruus*

This exercise can be made more effective simply by changing the format. Rearrange the order and put the list of antecedents before the relative, where it is likely to occur:

Exercise 5

Say which noun is the antecedent of the given relative.

fēminam, mulieris, uirōs, seruus quem

The more the eye practices and develops the habit of looking in the right direction, especially when the order is different than in English, the better one will be able to predict where to find the needed information. One will become an expert. The same idea can be applied to such things as noun-adjective phrases and genitive noun phrases and the enclitic conjunction *-que*. For example, one can practice by giving lists of phrases in normal Latin prose order to develop probable eye movement. One should also be sensitive to the order in which noun-adjective pairs are given, for example, in writing a sentence or declining a noun-adjective pair. This is not to say they should always be in “normal” order, but the idea is to develop expectations. This makes reading easier, and it enables one to be able to analyze other word orders for stylistic purposes or for determining predicate adjectives vs. attributive, etc. The importance of the eye movement and typical word order is why I also prefer presenting noun paradigms horizontally across rather than vertically down. In this way, the eyes are trained to develop expectations about where the different forms are apt to

occur in reading. It also gives more the impression of reading an actual sentence, rather than just listing isolated forms.

Overcoming the fear of a different word order

The shift from reliance on word order for syntactic function and from the assumed need for verbs in reading to using other information, especially inflected forms, requires a leap of faith as well as understanding of the grammatical concepts. The willingness to empathize and accept differences in languages is an important factor in second language success (Odlin 130-31). One way to reduce resistance and frustration and to alleviate such fear is through the use of analogies. For example, one can present a version of the following:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	R	H	E
0	1	0	2	0	0	1	3	1	8	3	0
3	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	7	7	3

Students can figure out that it is a baseball box score and can see how much they can understand about the game (from the number of errors, key innings, etc.) without knowing the names of the teams and players. They can make predictions about the game. In the same way, one can use grammar and syntax to make predictions about the structure of a sentence without the meanings of all the words. One can also give students the beginning of a sentence in English or one word at a time and have them predict what will come next. One can give them Lewis Carroll's "Jabberwocky" in English or a "fake" Latin sentence (e.g. the following inspired by "Jabberwocky") to show them how much they can tell about what is going on in a sentence by using the grammar endings and a few key short, often non-cognate, "function" words without knowing the meanings of all the other words:

*Tovus Wēbum Borogovumque ad Zebulonium ptuxit.
mimsēs pnugmōs slīthē grupsiēbat.*

If students can learn to predict the kind of verb (e.g. motion) and, more importantly, believe that they can predict the verb, they are better able to wait for the verb, rather than adding verbs (such as "is," which happens sometimes even with *in* + accusative), or turning nouns like "*pugna*" or participles, etc. into finite verbs.

For those students who like to understand "why," explaining that Subject-Verb-Object is just one "normal" order for words may help. Other languages have other "normal" patterns. For example, Hebrew and Aramaic favor Verb-Subject-Object; the influence of this can be seen in some, especially older, translations of the Bible. 44% of languages prefer Subject-Object-Verb (like Latin). In fact, there are more Subject-Object-Verb languages than Subject-Verb-Object (Clark and Clark 546-47). Germans regularly understand subordinate clauses with verbs last. Latin is a language that can and should be read as a language, not viewed as a puzzle of coded English to be turned back into English. The use of meaningful exercises involving context helps reinforce this. This is also one of the reasons that I sometimes include some pictures of "modern" rather than classical people or use exercises based on current student experiences. It helps students see Latin as a living language that real people can use. It is also a reminder that Latin did not die with

the “fall” of the (western) Roman Empire, and one can find Latin vocabulary for “modern” things from, e.g. the Renaissance, when Latin was the language of the universities and scholarship.

Working memory and overload

There is one additional reason for reading in Latin word order: reducing memory overload. Acquiring a deep knowledge of vocabulary—meaning, form, and function—is important for keeping working memory free when reading. As described above, readers build up from smaller to larger sense units. Once meaning has been gained in reading, the meaning concept, rather than the individual words, is stored in the memory, freeing the brain to use its limited working memory resources to continue to form and add new meanings (Clark and Clark 175; Smith 96-99). When the limits of working memory are overloaded before the interpretation of meaning is achieved, blocks in reading can occur (Brisbois 566-567, 576-577, 580-581).⁸ Overload can be caused by problems in grammar or syntax or too many unresolved ambiguities or when too many words or key words are not known; sense units cannot be identified nor predictions formed. When students reach a point of overload, their brain “short circuits.” As a result, students give up using the grammar that they do know and resort to less effective strategies and “poor reading behaviors” (Jarvis and Jensen 18; Clarke 206-207). I use the analogy of a ship (see Appendix 3). Grammar is the helm that steers the ship; the ship itself is vocabulary.⁹ If there are too many holes (gaps in vocabulary) in the ship, it will sink. But without grammar, the ship may just go around in circles in the middle of the ocean or it may even travel in the wrong direction entirely. Emphasizing to students that vocabulary and syntax work together to form and predict comprehension (i.e. meaning) is important.

UNSUCCESSFUL SECOND LANGUAGE READING STRATEGIES

Relying on English word order

One particular source of problems in syntactic processing in reading Latin is that beginning language students tend to rely on their knowledge of their first language and how it works when reading in the second language, the more so the less they know the second language (Larsen-Freeman 255-256). As noted above, English relies on word order for function, and the part of speech of a word in English may vary and may depend on how the word is used in a particular sentence; Latin, however, usually has different forms (e.g. *post/posteā/postquam*) for different parts of speech, and the form itself determines the part of speech and how it functions. English also puts a lot of weight on the verb to form predictions about the meaning of the sentence. Latin often does the opposite, using words or phrases, such as prepositional phrases indicating motion, to predict the kind of verb.

It is interesting to note, and not, I think, coincidental that languages, like Latin, German, American Sign Language, and (older) English, that have or can have verbs in final position share the distinction in having different words and/or constructions for different kinds of motion. “Normal” word order patterns, such as Subject-Object-Verb, vs. Subject-Verb-Object are not just rear-

⁸ Vocabulary learning is another important topic. Coady and Huckin’s book is especially useful, as is Wright (especially 11).

⁹ The third element is cultural background knowledge (the crow’s nest perspective), which helps determine whether the reader has landed in the New World or India and has understood the significance of weather signs, e.g. See Appendix 3 for the diagram.

rangements in the order of words; the different patterns are related to differences in what information is given and the way the language sets up context to create meaning and allow predictions. Thus, for example, verb final languages must provide clear indicators of kinds of motion or rest using other words before the verb. In addition, because the appropriate meaning and use of verbs can be interpreted from other sources by the time one reaches the verb, Latin verbs (e.g. *agō*, *constitit*, *legō*, *dēbeō*) can have a variety of meanings or tense aspects (e.g. simple past/present perfect). “Jumping” around to find the verb in Latin before getting there in the sentence to try to translate in English word order will only make it harder, because one won’t have the necessary context to appropriately interpret (or translate) the verb. Rather than using the verb to resolve ambiguities, one should use the previous context in Latin to resolve ambiguities in the Latin verb. Latin, as is normal for SOV languages, also often omits (or “gaps”) the verb in the first (or more) of (two) parallel clauses when the verb is in final position, whereas English, as is normal for SVO languages, omits the verb in the second clause (Panhuis “Gapping” 229-232, Markus 106-107). To help students learn to think in different word orders, Hansen suggests having students rewrite or rephrase English sentences in different word orders (while keeping the meaning the same) (176-177).

Relying on lexical meaning over form

Another common strategy of foreign language students that presents a problem in reading is the preference to construct reading content and create meaning based on processing only the lexical meaning of words when possible, without processing the morphological meaning (Lee and VanPatten 96-99). The weaker the student’s grammar, the more they rely on lexical meaning and context (Markus and Ross 85 with n. 23). In exercises or reading, it is easy for teachers to assume that if an exercise or text contains a particular practice form or certain grammatical material, students are using the form and getting practice in that form, but this may not be true (Lee and VanPatten 97-98). What is needed is to limit the exercise to focus on one or two related forms and to require the use of the meaning of the form in order to do the exercise (Lee and VanPatten 99, 104-105); this may require working with phrases or small units of text and taking out larger context and lexical clues (Larsen-Freeman 258). It does not mean isolating the form from meaning, but separating it from a context that provides the meaning without requiring attention to the form. Thus, for example, the picture exercises above (Exercise 2) isolate the prepositional phrases to form an association of the form with the concept of motion across a boundary or within a fixed location. The multiple choice prediction exercises above (Exercises 1 and 3) take this a step further in teaching the skill of developing expectations and making predictions based on the meaning of the form. The idea is to develop an automatic association of the form with the meaning, so that working memory is freed to work on other aspects of reading. While passages of complete text provide necessary reading experience, the goal of practice exercises is to help students develop the skills to better predict what is coming in the process of reading, and thus, to become better readers. It is important to develop these basic skills so that they can handle larger units and more complex sentences later, especially in reading original unadapted texts.

This reliance on lexical meaning and avoidance of using endings and forms is one reason that I went from traditional vocabulary testing by giving lexical entry forms and asking for the basic meanings to giving forms in the context of a phrase and asking for a translation of the particular form. For example:¹⁰

10 For grading, each word is usually worth two points. I give one point for the meaning and one for the translation of the form, as applicable. I usually only take off one half point for singular/plural nouns or tense of a verb, depending on what tenses they have had.

Exercise 6

Translate the underlined in context

agricolam iuvat _____
iacēre dēbēs _____
fortūnam superant _____

Traditional testing reinforces the habit of processing only lexical meaning; asking for the translation of forms in context reinforces that lexical meaning is only part of the information and that morphology and context are also important for interpreting meaning. Thus, note that the subject “s/he” must be included in the translation of the first one (and shows that the student recognizes that the farmer is not the subject). Some words, such as *dēbeō*, have different translations (“ought” vs. “owe”) depending on the context, so students need to be able to predict and to use an appropriate translation accordingly. To indicate the direct object in the last one, one can include the verb (plus subject) or students can use an arrow pointing from the verb to the Latin direct object, or use blanks (“____ *s fortune*”) or diagramming (____|____|fortune) or some other indicator. Requiring translation (including the form) and an appropriate choice of meaning helps develop predictive skills and encourages moving beyond just memorizing and regurgitating the first dictionary meaning given. Seeing and having to recognize vocabulary in forms other than in the lexical entry form(s) is also important because, for inflected words, the first vocabulary form given is almost always not the most commonly used.

First noun as agent

A particular problem for English speaking students learning Latin when relying on lexical meaning over the form of nouns is initial non-subject nouns, such as direct objects. It is a common tendency of second language students to interpret the first noun in a sentence as the (active) agent subject (Lee and VanPatten 96-99). This problem is also related to the tendency noted above to use English strategies of relying on word order to determine function. Thus, students especially need practice in learning how to recognize and correctly interpret non-subject nouns before the verb.¹¹

As indicated above, in order to be effective, exercises to practice this concept of pre-verb non-subject nouns must be devised in such a way that students cannot “make sense” using only the lexical meanings without having to use the endings. For example, in “vir librum legit,” students do not have to use the endings to figure out the sentence. Even if it is rearranged to “librum vir legit,” or “librum legit vir,” students will “guess” it correctly (or change it to passive, which conveys the same meaning but does not work when the subject carries over to the next sentence) using common sense without using the endings. However, if one gives them the picture and make them match the sentence, they must use the endings. For example (Wright 91; Ørberg 155; Wright 85, 97, 85 adapted; Balme and Morwood 1990, 18; Ørberg 35):

¹¹ See Maxim for a means of helping students observe and learn direct object forms in context as part of a method of integrating extended literary reading into lower level language classes. I use color coding for the different cases. I use red for accusative because it is a primary color and, as direct object, is often a core part of the sentence, and red indicates “stop” and think.

Exercise 7

For each of the following, choose the sentence that matches the picture.



1.

- A) virum legit.
- B) librum legit.
- C) liber legit.



2.

- A) vir puerum portat.
- B) virum puer portat.



3.

- A) puellam optat
- B) cuniculum optat.



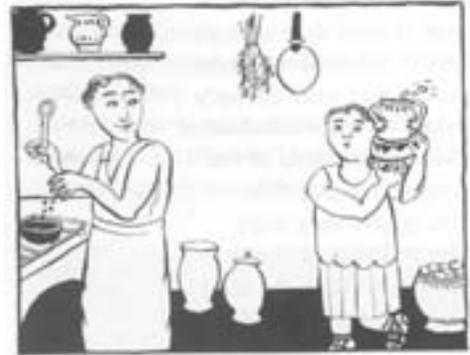
4.

- A) larva timet.
- B) larvam timet.



5.

- A) fēminam puer vocat.
- B) puerum vocat fēmina.



6.

- A) puella fēminam iuvat.
- B) fēmina puellam iuvat.



7.

- A) fēmina rosās dat.
- B) fēminae rosās dat.
- C) fēminae rosās dant.

Verbs, such as *timeo* (see #4), that can be transitive or intransitive are especially easy to work with when they are transitive in Latin but can be mistakenly interpreted as intransitive in English. See a list of some common verbs in Appendix 1. I have intentionally not always used subject-object-verb word order. This prevents students from using just predicted new word order patterns rather than endings, and it reflects the fact that Latin does not always follow subject-object-verb word order. This provides an opportunity to discuss word order in Latin and explain that there is more than one factor in word order. For #5, this sentence could easily be part of a story about a boy, Marcus. He hides behind a bush. The next sentence would thus begin with the boy (using a synonym rather than his name) as old information (the direct object), then what happens (the verb) to him, then the new information being the subject of who is doing it to him. For this communicative aspect of Latin word order, see, for example, Panhuis (*Latin Grammar*, 185-187) or Knudsvig and Ross (32-34). One can substitute *mater*, if students have had the word, or a proper

name (e.g. Scintilla) to make it more realistic. #7 is a good example of how context helps disambiguate forms. There is only one woman, so the nominative plural does not make sense. One could even give students a previous sentence: *Iūlia rosās carpit* (as in Ørberg 35). This also illustrates the prediction of the same subject until one is told otherwise. That is, given an initial direct object that is not referring to the subject of the previous sentence, one can predict that the subject will be the same as the subject of the previous sentence. I use the analogy of speed limits. Once given a subject in Latin, assume that the subject (speed limit) of the main clause will stay the same until told otherwise. The reader will periodically get confirmatory signs, often by the use of a synonym and often not in sentence first position, of a continuing same subject (speed limit). This is an important factor in predicting, but it extends beyond the sentence level, and, thus, the scope of this paper.

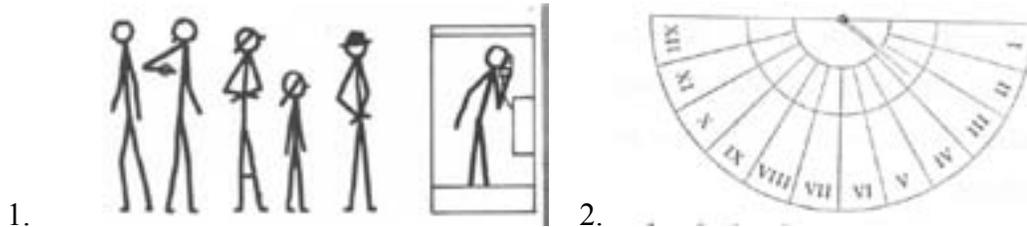
EXERCISES THAT DEAL WITH MORPHOLOGY, GENDER, PART OF SPEECH, OR WORDS WITH AMBIGUOUS MEANINGS

Morphology

The same kinds of exercises, i.e., those that do not make sense using only the lexical meanings, can be used for ablative vs. accusative of time, and for other basic functions and syntax, including datives (as in #7 above), genitives, and even infinitives. For a list of common expectations, compare Markus and Ross (93). For verbs that can be used to create such exercises, see Appendix 1. For example:

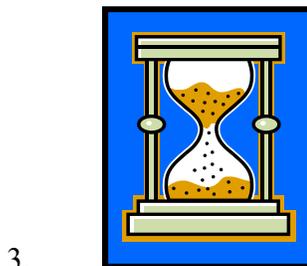
Exercise 8

Choose the expression which fits each picture(s).¹²



- A) *duās hōrās* (loquēbātur)
B) *duābus hōrīs* (loquēbātur)

- A) *trēs hōrās*
B) *tertiā hōrā*



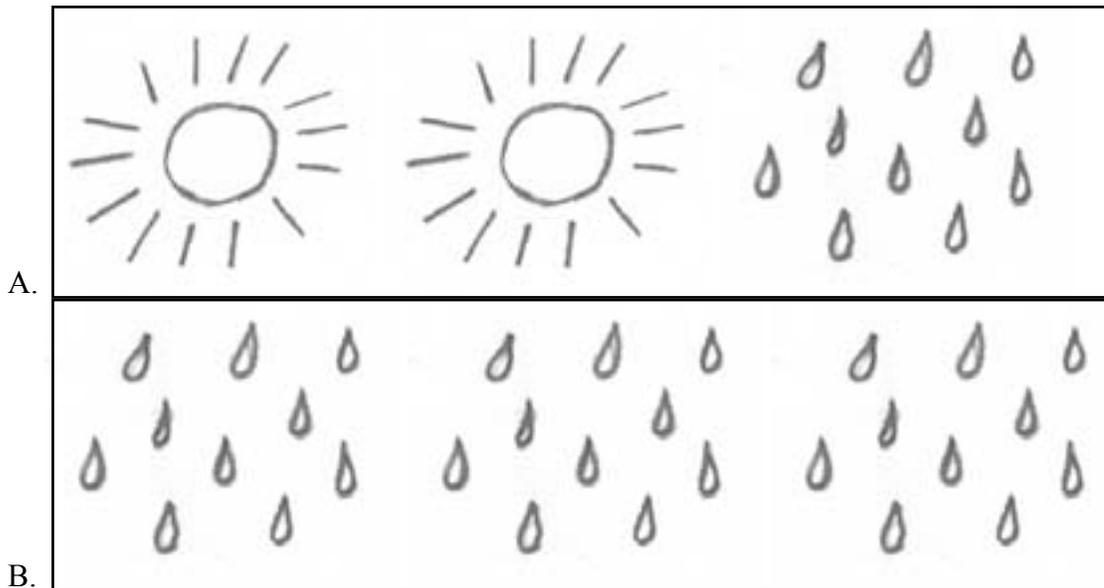
- A) *trēs hōrās*
B) *tribus hōrīs*
C) *tertiā hōrā* (discēdent/parāta erit)

12 #1 Wright, 112, #2 Ørberg, 96, #3 Microsoft Word Clip Art.

Exercise 9

Choose the picture below that matches each sentence.

1. trēs diēs pluit _____
2. tertiō diē pluit _____

**Exercise 10**

Choose the word that best meets your expectation.

fābulam	A) nārrat	B) placet	(direct object > transitive verb)
festīnāre	A) dēbēmus	B) puella	(infinitive > verb + inf.)
puerīs	A) ambulat	B) placet	(person: dative)
duās hōrās	A) legēbāmus	B) finiam	(duration of time)
fīlium	A) dormit	B) mittet	(direct object)
mihi	A) amat	B) dīcit	(person: indirect object)
patris	A) verba	B) videt	(genitive > noun)
vincere	A) mīles	B) poterat	(infinitive > verb + inf.)
puer	A) vocās	B) venit	(subject > intransitive verb)
eum nōmine	A) dedit	B) vocāvit	(direct object and ablative of means)

These exercises again isolate the grammar and require the use of endings, not just lexical meanings or a way to guess the meaning from the context. For example, in the first multiple choice one above, a translation of “the story is pleasing” makes sense, but “placet” is not the correct choice. Note that the exercise also again requires prediction based on Latin word order, not English. Thus, it reinforces, e.g. that when a dative is encountered (and it is necessary to look at the ending to identify it as such), it is reasonable to expect a certain kind of verb or other dative “marker” word (e.g. *similis*). It still requires knowledge of what kinds of words can take a dative, but it does not ask students (as Shelmerdine [22] says) to “expect” a dative when they see certain verbs (as if the verb will come first) or to “predict” by putting the dative end-

ing on a noun. It also tests the understanding of the concept, e.g. of indirect object, better than just directly translating “to,” which in English can also express motion or is used by some for noting the direct object.

The previous section on morphology (and infinitives) asked students to pay attention to case endings and non-finite verbs in order to predict what words may come next in a sentence. Yet case endings and infinitives are not always sufficient to predict what will come next. Students also need to become sensitive to gender, the part of speech (especially prepositions, adverbs, and connectives), and words with multiple meanings, such as *cum* (“with” or “when”) or *de* (“from” or “about”).

Gender

Another example of the importance of form and not just lexical meaning for predictive reading meaning is gender endings. The gender of an adjective or participle can be an important predictor of a subject. For example, after Orpheus’ address to Hades and Persephone, there follows a description of the reaction of those in Tartarus listening to him. When the narrative resumes, Ovid writes:

. . . *Nec regia coniunx*
sustinet oranti, nec qui regit ima, negare,
Eurydicenque vocant. (Metamorphoses 10.46-48)

In this sentence, the feminine ending of the adjective *regia* predicts a change of subject and the gender identifies which *coniunx* is meant. Similarly, the relative *qui* makes clear that the other *coniunx* is meant. One can create exercises that involve matching phrases or sentences by gender with a picture or name of a person or thing or asking questions about a sentence.¹³ For example:

Exercise 11

Which of the following could describe Iulia?

laetum est.

laetus est.

laeta est.

Prepositional phrases

Prepositional phrases, while generally similar to English, can also have different word orders than English and prepositions require predicting an object with a certain case ending, especially when there is a genitive as part of the phrase. Latin regularly puts the dependent genitives between the preposition and the noun object. In order to correctly identify the phrase to form meaning as reading, students need to be able to predict what kind of object (ending) they are looking for and to interpret which word is the object and how other words fit in. After practicing with isolated phrases or identifying phrase groupings in clauses, one can practice object expectations by giving students a preposition and a word (without the rest of the sentence, forcing them to use the form analysis) and asking whether they have a complete unit or not. For example:

¹³ For some paired pictures of different genders, see, e.g. Ur 246-247.

Exercise 12

Does each phrase form a complete unit?

ad amīcī A) yes B) no
 ab eō A) yes B) no

or asking what would fulfill their expectation (using multiple choice possibilities):

Exercise 13

Which would best fulfill your expectation?

ad amīcī A) casam B) currit
 ab eō A) casam B) currit

I often build these exercises from sentences they will have in the reading, as a sort of pre-reading exercise (or post-reading review/test). Searching texts on-line using [The Latin Library](#) or [Perseus](#) is also an easy way to find examples.¹⁴ Thus, instructors don't always have to come up with them completely on their own. I do try to emphasize information that students will have to deal with, such as genitives, as opposed to nominatives or ablative vs. accusative, with *ab* and *ad*.

Cum

Such expectations regarding objects of prepositions become especially important, for example, when students have to predict the use of *cum* as a preposition vs. a subordinating conjunction. Readers should be able to predict by the presence of an ablative or nominative, e.g., by the first or second word after the *cum*. For example:

Exercise 14

*Give the appropriate translation for "cum" in each of the following.*¹⁵

cum enim adventū
 cum labōre
 cum tū
 cum ad silvam
 cum eius filiō
 cum iūra
 cum cūrā
 cum lacrimīs
 cum hic senex
 cum autem iter
 magnō cum

14 Use "Edit>Find" to search. Adding a space (before and) after the word helps eliminate prefixes when searching for prepositions.

15 For *cum* as a subordinating conjunction, distinguishing *when* vs. *since* vs. *although* requires more context information, including word order, and works better in these larger contexts.

Note that postpositives, such as *enim* and *autem*, may separate the preposition and its object, and the last one predicts a following noun object in an ablative of manner phrase.

Words with ambiguous meanings

For some words with ambiguous meanings, knowledge of the semantic meaning of other words in context can also be required in order to interpret and create meaning and form predictions. For example, the preposition *dē* has different meanings depending on the context, which can be predicted from the kind of object, whether a physical place or an abstract concept or as a partitive with a number.¹⁶ For example:

Exercise 15

Give the most likely translation for “*dē*” (“down from/about, concerning/of”) in each of the following.

dē monte
dē linguā Latīnā
dē caelō
dē bellō Gallicō
dē moenibus
dē nōminibus
ūnus dē multīs

Alternatively:

Choose the verb that best meets your expectation.

dē linguā Latīnā A) *scrīpsit* B) *cadit*

Note that there are certain contexts, such as *dē monte*, in which either translation of *dē* would work, so it is harder to come up with verb choices with “a right” answer; one can only ask for a most likely sometimes. In this case, the translation exercise seems to work better. One could create a similar exercise for the relative conjunction *ubi* in predicting *when* vs. *where*.

Animate and inanimate nouns

Another example of the interdependence of vocabulary meaning and grammar is the distinction between animate and inanimate nouns, which is an important recurring concept in Latin. The distinction is important in Latin as a strong means of predicting such things as the different meanings of *a/ab* and the functions of ambiguous dative versus ablative forms. Given that many textbooks give “by/with/from” translations in paradigms and parsing for ablatives even of animate nouns, the concept of “people need prepositions” (except for ablative absolute) and the different uses of *a/ab* must especially be drilled. For example:

¹⁶ Compare the predictive nature of concrete nouns for ablative of means vs. abstract nouns with the preposition *cum* or an adjective for ablative of manner vs. abstract noun, especially an emotion, and often just the noun, for ablative of cause vs. nouns expressing time or proper nouns of place.

Exercise 16

Choose the most likely translation for each of the following.

ā fēminā	A) to the woman	B) by the woman
	C) of the woman	D) the woman
ā campō	A) by the field	B) to the field
	C) at the field	D) away from the field
amīcīs	A) for (their) friends	B) by (their) friends
	C) from (their) friends	D) with (their) friends
ab uxōre	A) to (his) wife	B) for (his) wife
	C) (his) wife	D) by (his) wife
manibus	A) to (her) hands	B) (her) hands
	C) with (her) hands	D) of (her) hands
ā nōmine	A) by the name	B) from the name
	C) to the name	D) of the name

Exercise 17

Choose the word that best meets your expectation.

amīcō	A) ostendit	B) videt	C) vīsus est	D) frātre
ad amīcum	A) dīcit	B) ambulat	C) videt	D) frātre
mīlitibus	A) imperat	B) captī sunt		
eī	A) dedit	B) vocāvit		
sorōribus	A) inventus	B) inventīs	C) invēnērunt	

I try to create exercises that develop expectations according to likelihood, giving the number of each possibility proportionate to what would tend to occur in Latin. Here again, sometimes more than one interpretation is possible depending on context. Thus, in the multiple choice exercises above, I omitted “from” as a possible option for most of the examples of people with *a/ab* to try to develop predictions of the most likely interpretation and what is often the new meaning.

Part of speech

Knowledge of vocabulary words is more than knowing just the translation of the word. Just as we saw with prepositions above, knowledge of vocabulary and grammar also involves knowing the part of speech of words, which predicts their function in Latin. This is especially important for words such as *nam* (conjunction, not preposition) and *tam*, when the part of speech of the English translation may vary in English.¹⁷ Translation alone does not ensure understanding of this, unless other words are included. For example:

¹⁷ Compare the multiple choice exercise asking which Latin word would be used to translate the italicized word in an English sentence in Freundlich (223 Ex. B), requiring students to distinguish parts of speech and/or homonyms.

Exercise 18

Translate the underlined in the following.

nam pater clamābat. _____

The translation of *pater* as the subject, rather than as an object of a preposition “for” would distinguish the use here. Prediction exercises can also be used.

Exercise 19

Choose the word that best meets your expectation:

tam	A) fortis	B) pugnāvērunt
tam	A) celeriter	B) discēssit
nam	A) patriam	B) dormiēbat
nam	A) frātrī	B) captus erat

Exercise 20

Match each word with the word that it would modify.

1.	pulchrē	_____	A) dīxistī
	pulchra	_____	B) urbs
2.	fortēs	_____	A) tulit
	fortiter	_____	B) lēgātī
3.	bene	_____	A) gessit
	bona	_____	B) vīta

Connectives

Predicting also goes beyond the sentence level, which is another topic, that of discourse analysis. An aspect of this can be seen, however, within the sentence. Connectives (conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs) are especially useful in predicting the general direction of a sentence. Besides structural indicators (*non modo . . . sed etiam; primum, deinde, etc.*), exercises can be used to illustrate the predictive power of some of the short, troublesome, non-cognate connecting words. For example:

Exercise 21

Given the following sentence, choose the sentence that you would expect to come next in each instance based on the word given below introducing a possible next sentence.

“The apples had brown spots.”

Beginning of next sentence

itaque _____

nam _____

(_____) tamen _____

(_____) autem _____

Possible rest of next sentences:

A. They had been dropped.

B. I put them in the compost.

C. The bananas were fine.

D. I cut the spots out and ate the apples anyway.

These can show students that such connectives can, in fact, help predict where the sentence is going.

Complex sentences

As we have seen, meaning is created by forming meaningful units or chunks as one reads sentences. The shortest and simplest units are phrases. These phrases are combined to form larger phrases and clauses, and sometimes clauses are combined to form compound/complex sentences. Reading speed is dependent on the size of the unit that can be processed at one fixation. The larger the size unit that one can process, the faster (and better) one can read (Smith 79). The intermediate level in reading this more complex material involves such things as distinguishing, that is, predicting, kinds of *ut* clauses. For this I use leading questions (i.e. hints) with an assigned passage to help students focus on predictive clues, such as a verb of ordering (for indirect command) or a “set-up” word such as *ita* (for result clause). Sometimes I ask what a particular word predicts about, for example, the kind of *ut* clause. After several instances of that, I use a more advanced question, asking them what word enables them to predict what kind of *ut* clause it is. For some things, like adverbial *ut* clauses, lots of examples together help one develop the expectations that I have found I do intuitively. Some, such as the short length of the clause and the use of editorial commas, are easier to note. Sometimes it is only in trying to explain to the students why I expect something that I consciously identify what my clues were, such as an adverbial *ut* (*as*) clause interrupting another clause.

CONCLUSION

Predicting helps keep working memory free to hold incomplete or ambiguous parts until they are resolved and to integrate longer units. I compare this with reading the first parts of articles on the front page of the newspaper (or webpage) and having to hold them in memory until their continuation on another page. Sometimes one can anticipate where students will have a problem; other times one must isolate what the problem is that students are having—where is it that they are getting stuck. Once the problem has been identified, one can think about what kinds of information (whether form, word order, meaning such as person/thing, or a combination) enable the proficient reader to be able to interpret what is given and form meaning and predict accordingly. Then similar examples can be found (and key indicators highlighted with bold face as needed) and exercises

developed to practice the predictive skill needed in meaningful contexts. Sometimes a review of basic grammar is needed.

To summarize, several key concepts are involved in grammar exercises to develop predictive reading skills. One is the importance of having students build meaning from units (phrases and clauses) as they read and using these to predict and build expectations; thus, exercises must often be limited to the amount of information required to make predictions. They should be based on processing syntactic information from forms rather than being able to rely only on lexical meaning. On the other hand, exercises should focus on using expectations to reduce or eliminate alternative possibilities of ambiguous forms or meanings, including the meanings of (other) words, as appropriate. Students should use Latin (rather than English) as much as possible and work with material based on Latin word order to create expectations for reading Latin, especially where the word order is different from English or different from student-expected patterns. Lots of practice using the material in context is needed for long term memory and automatic (and sub-conscious) recall. Psychology and the tolerance for difference in languages also play a role. Thus, exercises must be meaningful, not just mechanical, and should have a sense of relevance and purpose for the students. The basic goal for exercises is, therefore, keeping in mind the objective of the end goal of doing, that is, comprehension and prediction of meaning in reading as one reads in Latin word order.

WORKS CITED

- Balme, Maurice, and James Morwood. *Oxford Latin Course, Part I*. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1990.
- . *Oxford Latin Course, Part I*. 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 1996.
- Brisbois, Judith E. "Connections between First- and Second- Language Reading." *Journal of Reading Behavior* 27 (1995): 565-584.
- Clark, Herbert H., and Eve V. Clark. *Psychology and Language: An Introduction to Psycholinguistics*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1977.
- Clarke, Mark A. "The Short Circuit Hypothesis of ESL Reading -- or When Language Competence Interferes with Reading Performance." *Modern Language Journal* 64 (1980): 203-209.
- Coady, James, and Thomas Huckin. *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition: A Rationale for Pedagogy*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1997.
- Freundlich, Charles I. *Review Text in Latin Three and Four Years: (Prose and Poetry)*. New York, NY: Amsco, 1967.
- Furneaux, Henry, ed. *The Annals of Tacitus*. Vol. 1. 2nd ed. 1896; rpt. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1968.
- Grabe, William. *Reading in a Second Language: Moving from Theory to Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 2009.

- Guiraud, Charles. "Est-il possible d'attribuer à la phrase nominale un domaine linguistique?" in *New Studies in Latin Linguistics*. Ed. Robert Coleman. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1991. 341-347.
- Haider, Hilde, and Peter A. Frensch. "The Role of Information Reduction in Skill Acquisition." *Cognitive Psychology* 30 (1996): 304-337.
- Hansen, Wells S. "Teaching Latin Word Order for Reading Competence." *Classical Journal* 95 (1999): 173-180.
- Hoyos, B. Dexter. "Decoding or Sight-Reading? Problems with Understanding Latin." *Classical Outlook* 70 (1993): 126-130.
- Jarvis, Donald K., and Don C. Jensen. "The Effect of Parallel Translations on Second Language Reading and Syntax Acquisition." *Modern Language Journal* 66 (1982): 18-23.
- Johnson, Ronald E. "Recall of Prose as a Function of the Structural Importance of the Linguistic Units." *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior* 9 (1970): 12-20.
- Jones, Peter V., and Keith C. Sidwell. *Reading Latin: Grammar, Vocabulary and Exercises*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1986.
- Knudsvig, Glenn M., and Deborah Pennell Ross. "What is a 'Linguistic Perspective'?" In *Latin for the 21st Century: From Concept to Classroom*. Ed. Richard A. LaFleur. Glenview, Illinois: Scott Foresman-Addison Wesley, 1998. 25-35.
- Koda, Keiko. *Insights into Second Language Reading: A Cross-Linguistic Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 2005.
- Larsen-Freeman, Diane. "Teaching Grammar." In *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. 3rd ed. Ed. Marianne Celce-Murcia. Boston: Heinle & Heinle. 2001. 251-266.
- Lee, James F., and Bill VanPatten. *Making Communicative Language Teaching Happen*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1995.
- Markus, Donka. "The Gap in the Latin Curriculum." *Classical Outlook* 81 (2004): 106-109.
- Markus, Donka D., and Deborah Pennell Ross. "Reading proficiency in Latin through Expectations and Visualization." *Classical World* 98 (2004): 79-93.
- Maxim, Hiram H. "Integrating Textual Thinking into the Introductory College-Level Foreign Language Classroom." *Modern Language Journal* 90 (2006): 19-32.
- McCaffrey, Daniel V. "Reading Latin Efficiently and the Need for Cognitive Strategies." In *When Dead Tongues Speak: Teaching Beginning Greek and Latin*. Ed. John Gruber-Miller. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press, 2006. 113-133.

------. "When Reading Latin, Read as the Romans Did." *Classical Outlook* 86 (2009): 62-67.

Odlin, Terence. *Language Transfer: Cross-linguistic Influence in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1989.

Ørberg, Hans H. *Lingua Latina per se Illustrata Pars I: Familia Romana*. Grenaa [Denmark]: Domus Latina, 2002.

Panhuis, Dirk. "Gapping in Latin." *Classical Journal* 75 (1980): 229-241.

------. *Latin Grammar*. Ann Arbor: Univ. of Michigan Press, 2006.

Ruebel, James S. "The Ablative as Adverb: Practical Linguistics and Practical Pedagogy." *The Classical Journal* 92 (1996): 57-63.

Shelmerdine, Susan C. *Introduction to Latin*. Rev. 1st ed. Newburyport, Mass.: Focus Publishing, 2007.

Smith, Frank. *Understanding Reading: A Psycholinguistic Analysis of Reading and Learning to Read*. 5th ed. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1994.

Traupman, John C. *Latin Is Fun*. Book I. New York: Amsco, 1989.

------. *The New College Latin & English Dictionary*. Rev. ed. New York: Bantam Books, 1995.

Ur, Penny. *Grammar Practice Activities: A Practical Guide for Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press, 1988.

Wright, Andrew. *1000 Pictures for Teachers to Copy*. Menlo Park, Cal.: Addison-Wesley, 1985.

APPENDIX 1. COMMON VOCABULARY FOR EXERCISES

Places: casa, silva, locus, hortus, via, ager, mōns

Verbs of motion (in + accusative/place to): ambulō, currō, eō, veniō, festīnō, DO + portō; redeō, (DO +) mittō; nāvigō; intrō; fugiō, errō

Stative verbs (in + ablative/): sum; stō; maneō; labōrō; sedeō; iaceō; cēnō, dormiō

(accusative duration of time): (see also stative verbs); habitō; ambulō; legō

(ablative point of time): discēdō; veniō; parō/parātus sum; finiō

Latin transitive verbs (which can be interpreted as intransitive in English):¹⁸ videō; audiō; iuvō; cēlō; vertō; timeō (Lat. tr/it); vocō; legō; moveō; pugnō (+ DO “battle,” etc.; cum + person)

18 For checking whether Latin verbs are transitive or intransitive, Traupman (1995) is useful.

APPENDIX 2. THE PARTS OF SPEECH

Adjective → Adverb →

Verb

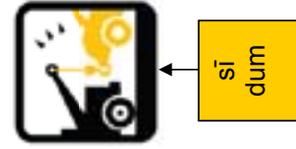
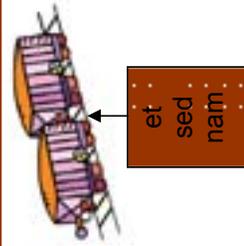
Noun
(Pronoun)

acc + abl

PRE-POSITION

Parts of Speech

Coordinating Conjunction



phrase

APPENDIX 3. THE SHIP OF LANGUAGE

C
 U
 L G
 T * R
 U R A
 R A M
 E M
 V O C A B U L A R Y * R O O T S * P R E
 F I X E S * S U F F I X E S * S I *
 * T U * V E R B A * S C I E S *
 N A V I S * T U A * N O N *
 ~~~~~S U M M E R G E T U R \* ~~~~~  
 ~~~~~

Vocabulary: to keep you afloat
 Grammar: to steer you and keep you moving and on course
 Culture: to tell you where you are and help you identify and understand what you see
 (India or New World?)

Form-focused Teaching for the Intermediate Latin Student

Peter Anderson and Mark Beckwith
Grand Valley State University

ABSTRACT

Form-focused teaching methods (derived from Focus-on-Form theory and methodologies) incorporate proactive interventions as well as exercises and activities that might be more familiar to grammar-based instructors. Form-focused methods attempt to direct the attentional (cognitive) resources of the student to a specific point of grammar within a specific communicative context. Adopting a form-focused mentality will not be difficult for most teachers and students; the adjustment lies in the perspective one adopts concerning these activities and when they are used during the lessons. There are many Focus-on-Form and form-focused methods, both reactive and proactive. Of those we have investigated, visual highlighting, or enhanced input, and indirect corrective feedback with recasting offer a set of intriguing possibilities for the intermediate Latin classroom, where the conflict between the demands of reading and interpreting complex texts and the constraints of students' cognitive resources becomes most apparent.¹

INTRODUCTION

Some of the complexity of learning a language comes from the nature of the language itself, and some from the cognitive processes of how the brain learns and works. This cognitive component is not only very subtle; it is frustratingly difficult to describe, assess or anticipate. But the set of cognitive resources and limitations unique to each student (which cognitive psychologists term “individual difference”) are essential to language acquisition. We can't change the difficulty of an inflected language such as Latin, and we can't really change our students' basic cognitive resources. But thinking about what our students *can do* in cognitive terms could shape what we ask our students *to do*. A well-studied theory of language pedagogy called Focus-on-Form (FonF) addresses some aspects of cognition and language acquisition by leveraging a specific set of cognitive resources in the classroom context. FonF theory suggests that when students bring their attentional resources to bear on language input in specific ways, language acquisition is enhanced and more durable. The purpose of this paper is to present in brief outline the theoretical aspects of FonF but especially a related pedagogical approach called “form-focused teaching,” to discuss particular applications of a form-focused strategy, and to offer several lesson plans that employ this strategy, two of which use texts that are part of the AP Syllabus. The discussion, these lesson plans, and the passages chosen are explicitly aimed at intermediate readers (those past initial grammar study) in college or high school. Our examples and reflections are pulled from the college level classroom, but will not be unfamiliar to those who teach high school. We feel that this critical stage, moving from “lower” level classes to “upper” level classes, presents common challenges for both teacher

1 We would like to extend our deep gratitude to Dr. John Gruber-Miller for giving us the benefit of his very considerable expertise and knowledge, as well as to the two anonymous readers for their insightful and helpful comments. This is a much, much better article than it was when we started, and we hope that it will prove useful and thought-provoking to our colleagues in schools and colleges.

and student in any classroom context as we negotiate, as we might Scylla and Charybdis, the importance of syntax and the desire for meaning. Mark's experience, perhaps, is a familiar one for many students, and Peter's observations may resonate with teachers. After giving voice to each author separately, the article continues with a discussion of our shared research findings. The exercises appended to the article were developed by Mark as part of an Honor's Senior Thesis at Grand Valley State University.

MARK SPEAKS ABOUT HIS EXPERIENCE AS A STUDENT

In my studies of Latin (and Greek) at Grand Valley State University, I have experienced a range of instructional methods. While the content and the preferences of the instructors have made each class unique, there seems to have been a general trajectory in teaching methods: in the early stages of language study there was a heavy focus on grammatical forms, while in the later years, especially from the third year forward, the focus shifted from the grammar to the meaning of the text. This is not a surprising pattern, since one must first learn the grammar before one can properly approach a text, and in the upper level courses interpretation of the text becomes the dominant task, leaving less time in class for a focus on the grammar.

It can be difficult to move from such a grammar focused classroom into one that is more focused on interpretation in later years of study. The difficulty for me came from transferring the isolated grammar from the previous years of study to the actual text. The relatively straightforward grammar of the text proved to be more troublesome than it should have been: even though the grammar was right in front of my eyes, it was odd to see it in a form other than a drill exercise. This was particularly acute in my third semester Latin course, when we read unaltered Latin prose (Cicero and Seneca), although the disjunction was lessened because of the structure of the course and a focused grammar review (after two weeks intense review, the class was given authentic Latin texts and asked to write a grammatical commentary).² While this continued focus on grammar allowed for the translation of the text to go fairly smoothly, I ended up making the text and the commentary two separate tasks. That is, while focusing on the grammar and the commentary I approached the text almost like something to be dissected bit by bit. It was not until I had all of the grammar in place and explained that I began to consider the meaning of the text. I began to see the grammar and the interpretation of the text as mutually exclusive tasks, when in fact I should have seen that they complement each other. As a result, while learning the grammar in an essentially isolated way made for effective learning of the grammar, it became difficult for me to take that isolated grammar and move it into an interpretation-focused context.

By the time I reached my third and fourth year of Latin, there was a clear shift towards focusing on the interpretation and translation of the text. In these classes there was usually one main text being dealt with throughout the semester, and the goal of each day was to translate a little more of that text and talk about what it meant. Grammar was dealt with on a sentence by sentence basis, and usually only if there was some trouble translating. But if the class (or at least the student translating) seemed to have a grasp on the meaning of the sentence, the grammar of the section was not dealt with. In the times when grammar needed to be addressed, it was usually done by stating the name of the rule but not necessarily explaining the rule, thus leaving it up to individual students to review it on their own time. Only in cases of extreme confusion or difficulty did the focus of the class shift entirely towards grammar. Grammar did appear on some tests (depending

2 See the methodology outlined in P. Anderson.

on the instructor), but usually it was much less emphasized than the translation and interpretive essay portions of the test.

The biggest advantage of focusing on interpretation like this is that the classes and the language become much more interesting. When the class was dealing with an authentic text, suddenly there was a use for all of the rules that once seemed meticulous and arbitrary, and the class became about more than language. History, anthropology, philosophy, religion, and many more topics became a part of the discussion. The result, in my opinion, was much livelier and interesting class discussions and a higher level of involvement from the students. While not all may be interested in how an ablative absolute works, most might be interested in the cultural context and the ideas articulated in a text. But, while the third and fourth year language classes were more enjoyable because of the focus on interpretation, meaning took over at times to the point that grammar slipped into the background, only specifically addressed when a problem became apparent in class. The result of this limited focus on grammar was that we started to forget the grammar out of which meaning arises, or at least paid less attention to it. It became possible, for instance, to gloss over a strange dative phrase, so long as the translation was acceptable enough to keep the class going – whether or not we actually understood what was going on. It was as if we could guess what the text was saying, but had forgotten why – when the meaning was obscure we did not have the resources to elicit meaning through grammar immediately at hand. By focusing on interpretation it seemed that a certain amount of grammar was lost.

One Latin class which I took at Grand Valley State did find a balance between grammar instruction and a focus on meaning, and this class was Latin prose composition. For Prose Comp, students were asked to write weekly journal entries in Latin while reviewing grammar and encountering the same grammar in authentic Latin texts (*colloquia* from the Renaissance, in this case). The first part of the week was spent reviewing a particular grammar topic. After reviewing the topic, a text that used the grammar was discussed and translated, offering a model for students on how to use the particular aspect of grammar in question. During the second part of each week students were asked to write a journal entry that used the grammar that was reviewed earlier in the week. The students brought their Latin to class and were given feedback by the professor. With this feedback students could correct their mistakes. All of this built up to a final project in which students created an extended dialogue using their knowledge of certain grammar rules and idioms, as well as Roman cultural and historical information. The prose composition class stands out for me because it was at this point that I began to feel the gap between my knowledge of grammar and my reading of Latin texts shrink. I was able to review the grammar I had been taught in my first year, see it in a context similar to what I was encountering in my more advanced Latin classes, and experiment with the rules of the grammar by creating my own Latin and learning from mistakes. The result of all of this was a better understanding of grammar while reading texts in my other Latin classes. After taking the prose composition class, I found that I was able to encounter an *ut* clause without stopping to refer to my first year textbook, and I no longer had to take time to consider what kind of subjunctive was being used. For me, this class helped me find a way to reconcile the differences between focuses that were either too heavy on grammar or too heavy on meaning and translation; in a sense I found a middle ground between the two. The Prose Comp class had in fact been designed around a second language instruction theory called “Focus on Form” and used form-focused methods.

PETER'S OBSERVATIONS AS A TEACHER

It seems clear from Mark's experience that the shift from "lower division" courses to "upper division" courses, from a grammar focus to an interpretative focus, created the perception of a rift between grammar and meaning. The kind of FonF activity carried out in the Prose Comp class was "active" (i.e. production oriented). Mark's senior project – the fruit of which contributes to this paper and is the basis for Lessons Two and Three below – sought to research and present methods for applying FonF theory to "passive" language activities (i.e. reading). This kind of pedagogical framework in the critical intermediate years carries the potential to springboard students into greater comprehension without jeopardizing secure knowledge of syntax. As we push students who are intellectually ready and eager to grapple with the concepts and ideas embedded in the linguistic structures of Latin, are we pushing them away from the grammar too soon, before it is properly acquired?

John Anderson argues for three stages of language acquisition that he calls 1) declarative, 2) procedural and 3) automatized. Declarative knowledge is factual. At the declarative stage the Latin student will know and be able to relate certain pieces of information: for example, that 3rd person singular active verbs end in *-t*. Procedural knowledge is more implicit: for example, a student at this stage will be able to transform a verb into 3rd sg. When Procedural knowledge is automatized the student no longer consciously thinks about the rule or form. Students at this stage may actually lose declarative knowledge (DeKeyser). This automatization stage is a critical point for the Latin student, since it is at this point that she is approaching competent use of the language. And, obviously, to develop skilled users of Latin we want to get students to the automatized stage – for by automatizing as much knowledge as possible, students then free up cognitive resources for other tasks. The shift to automatization, in my experience, can take a student far longer than the shift from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge. When that shift begins to occur, however, it may be that demanding declarative knowledge from a student who has automatized knowledge could be as unrealistic and unfair as expecting students still mostly in the procedural phase to perform tasks that require a high degree of automatization. Indeed, a student may exhibit different levels of acquisition for (or propensities for acquiring) different kinds of knowledge at any one time. I asked above whether we might be pushing students away from grammar before it is properly acquired. Could we likewise be holding students back from fluency by emphasizing grammatical knowledge in upper level reading courses?

These questions are intended to provoke; the answers are not obvious. But teachers of language, I fear, are at great risk of being oblivious to this important difference in achievement between procedural and automatized skills. Since we live with one foot in all stages (by constant exposure to beginning users although we are expert), we tend to constantly assess students on the basis of declarative knowledge when we would most likely say that automatized knowledge is in fact the goal of our pedagogical efforts, and a necessary cognitive step in effective language processing. What is the future passive infinitive of *amāre*, anyway? Would Cicero know what kind of ablative that is? Or care?

Most textbooks, if not all, encourage learners to learn (declarative) and use (procedural) one or two linguistic rules per chapter and then to synthesize the parts for use in communication (automatized), either reading or writing, in the following chapters; Wilkins called this the synthetic approach to syllabus design.³ Synthetic syllabi (lexical, structural, and notional-functional, for

3 For a brief overview of types of syllabus design, see Rabbini.

example), are accompanied by synthetic “methods” (Grammar/Translation, ALM, Audio-Visual Method, Silent Way, Noisy Method, TPR, etc.), and by the synthetic classroom devices and practices commonly associated with them (e.g., explicit grammar rules, repetition of models, memorization of short dialogs, linguistically “simplified” texts, transformation exercises, explicit negative feedback, so-called “error correction,” and display questions). In this grammar-focused model, the best role Latin teachers in the classroom can expect to play is that of clarifier and negotiator of meaning *on behalf* of the ancient author, while also dragging students, sometimes grudgingly, towards accuracy. It is often, I feel, a battle of principle against not simply the students’ drive to construct sense but rather the reality of their cognitive resources.⁴ And it is sometimes wearying, both for students and teachers.

MARK AND PETER DISCUSS FOCUS-ON-FORM (FONF) AND FORM-FOCUSED TEACHING

Focus-on-Form⁵ is a theoretical and practical extension of cognitive research directed at second language acquisition. FonF refers “to how the learner’s attentional resources are allocated at a particular moment” (Long and Robinson 24). In contrast to models of instruction that deal with linguistic elements in isolation⁶ – i.e., grammar based methods that present forms divorced from meaningful content – FonF “overtly draws students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding goal is meaning or communication” (Long 45-46). This model of learning is often reactive, with little or no planned intervention: the learner is encouraged to pay attention to a linguistic form in the course of communicating. While interesting and exceptionally successful in elementary school ESL contexts, for instance, the approach to teaching is unworkable in our modern college or high school Latin classrooms because very few teachers are willing or have the training to teach Latin with a purely communicative model.

We do not think this needs to be an all or nothing proposition, and there are ways in which teaching practices can be enriched by employing some of the theory behind Focus-on-Form methods without embracing a fully communicative model. As Nassaji points out,

“A number of [...] empirical studies on the role of form-focused instruction have revealed that a focus on form can successfully promote second language development far beyond that achieved by unfocused approaches (Doughty, 1991; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Harley, 1998; Lightbown, 1991). However, although research suggests that it is useful to include some kind of form-focused activity in communicative contexts, this suggestion may be of little use if teachers do not know how to do so.” (Nassaji 389)

This middle path—variously described as “form-focused teaching,” “proactive focus on form” (Ellis, “Introduction”), or “planned focus on form” (Grim)—suggests that any use of an in-

4 For an interesting discussion of successful communication even though syntax is compromised, see Skehan and Foster.

5 See Long for the classic definition of FonF. For a recent critique of the question with a great deal of background literature, see Poole.

6 This method is overwhelmingly employed in standard textbooks for Latin, where learning a linguistic element (new forms, grammatical concepts) is the primary syllabus activity, supplemented or complemented by readings, oral practice, or composition. This is true even of inductive approaches, although the grammar is slightly delayed.

structional activity that draws students' attention to linguistic forms (e.g. grammar or morphology) during the communicative process will promote language acquisition.⁷ In fact, it is quite likely that every Latin teacher at any level employs, knowingly or not, some of the elements of Focus-on-Form and form-focused theory. For instance, one key element of FonF is the need for instructors and students to notice gaps in language acquisition and to address such problems immediately through techniques such as recasting and indirect corrective feedback (Long and Robinson). Indirect corrective feedback occurs when the instructor indicates that there is an error in the student's utterance and then asks that the grammar of the utterance be corrected while still maintaining the original meaning. This process of grammatical correction is known as recasting. In order for such feedback and recasting to occur, the instructor must be paying attention to students and noticing whenever there appears to be a systematic and pervasive error in communication. Once the error is noticed, the correct form of feedback and recasting can be employed. Negative feedback and recasting are two of the ways that FonF can mediate the need for grammatical precision in a communicative context. Proactive or planned form-focused teaching anticipates a range of interventions without sacrificing the basic purpose of FonF: to direct the (cognitive) attention of students to maximum effect. Many FonF methods have been the subject of classroom-based research, and there has been some attempt to produce research around form-focused methods also (e.g. Grim). Of the FonF methods we have investigated, visual highlighting, or enhanced input, and indirect corrective feedback with recasting offer a set of intriguing possibilities for proactive or planned form-focused activities. In what follows we discuss each method and how they might be deployed in class as a form-focused activity.

ENHANCED INPUT AND INDIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK WITH RECASTING

Enhanced input is a common name for visually highlighting certain elements, such as grammatical constructions that have just been reviewed. As White describes it, this involves techniques such as bolding, italics, and underlining in order to increase the likelihood that students' attention will be drawn to certain grammatical forms.⁸ This will help students use their attentional resources efficiently because it causes them to focus on the grammar that the instructor has pre-determined needs their attention most of all. If, for example, indirect speech were recently reviewed in class, and the text were enhanced in such a way that indirect speech was more noticeable, students would be able to conserve attentional resources because they would see the indirect discourse more readily than if they suddenly encountered a "stray" infinitive. However, as White notes, it is important that the text not become so visually altered that it would cause distraction during reading; thus only simple highlighting techniques should be used. Another possible way of enhancing the text could be to break the sentence down into thematic or grammatical sections, as Harrison proposes. If students are reading prose, the sentences could be separated into different clauses, or, if students are reading verse, then an extra space could be inserted between lines where there is a potentially difficult shift in tone, subject, or voice. Such techniques allow intermediate level students to more readily see different sense units in a text and decrease the likelihood that they will spend time and attention working out, for example, where clauses start and end but instead spend that cognitive

7 Grim's article has a full and up to date list of works pertaining to form-focused research.

8 Although White was ultimately unable to say whether or not other factors affected the study, there was a clear improvement in student performance and attention to form after the text had been visually enhanced. For Latin-specific work in this vein, see Harrison, and Markus and Ross.

resource discerning which kind of clause they are encountering. Something as simple as enhancing the text in a way that makes grammatical and thematic points more visually salient to the students provides a way for the instructor to effectively draw students' attention where she or he wants it to be. Coupled with review and preparation before class (another proactive element to this method), visual enhancement can be a powerful and empowering method for sight reading and reading comprehension exercises in intermediate classes: a student might encounter the Latin text in class for the first time, but has already reviewed grammar and vocabulary essential for that passage.

Indeed, visual enhancement of a text is especially useful when students have already called to mind key vocabulary and grammar before class takes place. In any text the students read, there are likely to be certain vocabulary items which could cause difficulty in interpretation if the meaning in that context is not common or familiar, or if the word is easily confused with another. Similarly, certain grammatical concepts are likely to arise with which students are not familiar or which are relatively infrequent; attention thus becomes split between the Latin text being read and turning to grammar books and dictionaries. Such semantic and syntactic confusions use up students' attentional resources, and if that effort could be avoided then students would be more able to focus on the interpretation of the text *as they are reading it*. Providing some sort of review of key grammar and vocabulary for a lesson beforehand could reduce the load on cognitive attention. One way to provide such review is to give the students a vocabulary list and a worksheet that reviews the salient grammatical concepts of the text. Such a worksheet would be completed and discussed before the text was encountered. Once students approach the text, the necessary vocabulary and grammar should be fresh in their minds, and they can focus their attention on interpreting while also reading the text. Of course, worksheets and vocabulary lists are only one way to draw students' attention to such key elements. The main point is that this form-focused approach enables intermediate students to have the necessary grammatical and lexical tools in mind before approaching a text; in a sense, this method offers students a way to practice or mimic the automatized stage of language acquisition.

Corrective feedback is a necessary part of learning a language, especially in a FonF model. Students are not able to learn from their mistakes if those mistakes are not pointed out to them or if they are not given the tools to correct them. However, not just any type of feedback will suffice. Ellis suggests that different types of corrective feedback, two of the primary forms being direct feedback and indirect feedback, have different effects on the learner ("Typology"). *Direct corrective feedback* refers to when the instructor indicates where a mistake has been made and immediately provides the correct answer for students. Such feedback has the benefit of being relatively quick because there is no delay as the student forms the correct answer. This kind of feedback has been shown to be effective in lower-level language courses and with younger students. *Indirect corrective feedback* occurs when the instructor indicates that there has been a mistake but does not give the student the correct answer. Instead, the student must develop the correction on her own. This form of feedback is helpful in long-term acquisition of grammar and concepts, and it also creates a problem-solving environment in the classroom. Because of the more involved nature of indirect feedback, it may be more suitable for intermediate language classes with older students. Indirect corrective feedback does have the advantage from form-focused teaching perspective because it offers students the opportunity to recast their work (i.e. to formulate a grammatically correct version of a prior attempt at communication). Indirect corrective feedback paired with recasting can be a powerful and attention focusing activity.

PROACTIVE/PLANNED AND REACTIVE LESSON PLANS FOR A FORM-FOCUSED TEACHER

The practical extension of FonF and form-focused theory is to pedagogical design, and it is with this that we shall conclude our article, through examples. A reactive application of form-focused methods is precipitated by the learner's mistake. This reactive approach, although it is in fact more closely connected to FonF methods, may still be coupled with proactive tasks. For instance, a student makes two mistakes while reading/translating a sentence. While a FonF teacher might give indirect corrective feedback and ask for a recasting, perhaps with a quick review of the linguistic rules that were misidentified or missed altogether, a form-focused teacher might choose to devote time (and the student's attention) only to a mistake and recasting that reinforces a review of a grammar rule studied in the class immediately prior, or in an exercise preparatory for the classroom assignment. The reactive FonF model is advantageous in that it allows the learner to generate the issue, and it involves little preparation. What's more, having the student "recast" their mistake is an extremely effective learning technique. But the range of learner abilities in any given classroom will be very great, and it is sometimes very difficult to decide on the spot what might be worth an interruption. That is, will a review of the function of the dative case in combined 3/4/AP class really benefit all or most students? Will we be as effective in the classroom as we can be by using only a reactive model in a classroom with more than one student?

A second possible scenario, in the same situation, is proactive or planned, and is task-based. That is, tasks are designed and performed ahead of time to review potentially problematic linguistic features of a particular reading students will encounter in class. The proactive form-focused teacher will have anticipated that a linguistic feature will present a problem for students, or will be beneficial for them to review it in a meaningful context. In this case the review of the linguistic feature *prior to the analysis of the meaningful text* is the goal of the form-focused task and also provides a more or less immediate exemplar for any necessary reactive intervention during in-class interpretation.

HOW ENHANCED INPUT AND INDIRECT CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK WITH RECASTING FUNCTION IN PLANNED FORM-FOCUSED ACTIVITIES

The purpose of enhanced input and indirect corrective feedback with recasting in a planned form-focused activity is to draw a student's attention to a specific point of grammar prepared by proactive techniques. For enhanced input, students are alerted to a construction in a meaningful context. For indirect corrective feedback students are alerted to an error concerning the prepared rule and provided with the opportunity to correct it. Both methods allow students to further internalize a rule under review. Recasting after feedback does not have to be a complex effort – it can be as simple as changing a multiple choice answer after the instructor has indicated that there is a problem with the initial answer. Once again, it will be the instructor's role to determine what form recasting will take in a particular classroom setting. Though recasting is a relatively simple idea, the challenge for most traditional Latin teachers, who fall naturally into a reactive mode of teaching, lies in coupling this reactive technique with proactive elements of the lesson plan.

At the intermediate level, in our experience, there must be a consistent focus on and review of linguistic code, forms, and syntax, even as we begin to push students towards automatization of some of the more complex language tasks. Form-focused teaching methods at this stage of acquisition offer a bridge between procedural, declarative, and automatized knowledge as described in Anderson ("Developing Expertise"). The cognitive constraints on focus and the limits of atten-

tional resources in a sense set boundaries for student achievement – form-focused methods and techniques can help overcome some of these boundaries. There is, after all, only so much a brain can keep in focus at one time and only so many cognitive resources available to each student. Without fully automatized higher-level linguistic tasks, it would be hard to imagine true fluency.

The lessons and assignments that follow provide samples of how the pedagogical techniques described above (reactive vs. proactive form-focused instruction, visual enhancement, and indirect corrective feedback with recasting) can be used to implement form-focused lessons. While Lesson One offers a sample with a contrast as to how reactive and proactive methods might be employed on the same text. Lessons Two and Three offer complete planned form-focused approaches to texts like those students might encounter at the upper level in high school or college classrooms. Each of the texts in Lessons Two and Three has been enhanced in the general manner described above, but with slight variations due to the nature or focus of the assignments. Along with the enhanced text, students' attention will be focused in these lessons by means of worksheets that call to mind the essential vocabulary and grammar of each text, with an emphasis on reviewing one or two syntax rules that occur often in the chosen text. These worksheets are intended to be completed *before* students encounter the given text. Recasting occurs at different times for each lesson. In Lesson Two students are asked to recast the verbs in Catullus VIII, and in Lesson Three the opportunity for recasting lies in the multiple choice questions on the grammar worksheet. Included with each text is a list of possible comprehension questions. These questions provide a model of how an instructor could conduct class in a manner that does not focus entirely on grammar or translation, but rather moves students through the text in a way that allows them to formulate interpretation and see how the grammar informs that interpretation.

CONCLUSIONS

We suggest that even limited use of proactive form-focused methods will be extremely beneficial and make optimal use of intermediate level students' cognitive resources. For example, proactive tasks such as those described below are designed to dredge a piece of knowledge out of the depths of long-term memory into short-term memory before this cognitive activity is required by the target text itself; student attention is directed meaningfully with less cost to their resources and more resources may be left for interpretation. It is our conviction that the more this kind of task is performed, the sooner this knowledge is automatized, in the same way that the more often one dials a phone number the sooner it is memorized. Because reading is a much more complex cognitive task than dialing, attentional resources can be directed, through worksheets and exercises, at particular pieces of knowledge. Over time, intermediate students will read enough different texts with exercises aimed at enough different constructions to result in faster and more competent reading. In addition, this is a strategy that encourages students to encounter grammar and meaning together, forcing them to make connections between the two in a significant, targeted way in order to generate accurate interpretation. Given the limitations of cognitive resources, and given that students will often privilege meaning over grammatical accuracy – and given that Latin cannot be comprehended without accuracy – this kind of pedagogical method can be an excellent strategy for encouraging students to separate the processes of building grammatical accuracy and building good reading habits at a critical stage in their development. Form-focused instruction provides a method for the Latin classroom through which students can enjoy the benefits of reading ancient texts while still gaining an understanding of the grammar as a part of the interpretation of the text rather than as a set of paradigms and rules to be conquered.

WORKS CITED

- Anderson, J. R. "Acquisition of Cognitive Skill." *Psychological Review* 89 (1982): 369-406.
- Anderson, J. R. "Developing expertise." *Cognitive psychology and its implications*. 4th ed. Ed. J. R. Anderson. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company, 1995. 272-304.
- Anderson, Peter. "Next Year?: Evaluating a Model for Second-Year College Latin." *Classical Journal* 99.4 (2004): 433-38.
- DeKeyser, Robert. "Cognitive Perspectives on Learning and Practicing Second Language Grammar." *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*. Ed. Catherine Doughty and Jessica Williams. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998. 42-63.
- Ellis, Rod. "A typology of written corrective feedback types." *ELT Journal*, 63.2 (2009): 97-107.
- , "Introduction: Investigating form-focused instruction." *Language Learning* 51 (2001): 1-46.
- Grim, F. "Integrating Focus on Form in L2 Content-Enriched Instruction Lessons." *Foreign Language Annals* 41.2 (2008): 321-46.
- Harrison, R. "A Structural Arrangement of Text to Facilitate Reading." *Classical Journal* 102.3 (2007): 291-303.
- Long, M. "Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology." *Foreign Language Research in Cross-cultural Perspective*. Ed. K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg, & C. Kramsch. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1991. 39-52.
- Long, Michael H. and Peter Robinson. "Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice." *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*. Ed. Catherine Doughty and Jessica Williams. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998. 15-41.
- Markus, D. and D. P. Ross. "Reading Proficiency in Latin through Expectations and Visualization." *Classical World* 98.1 (2004): 79-93
- Nassaji, H. "Towards integrating form-focused instruction and communicative interaction in the second language classroom: some pedagogical possibilities." *Canadian Modern Language Review* 55.3 (1999): 385-402.
- Poole, A. "Focus on Form Instruction: Foundations, Applications, and Criticisms." *The Reading Matrix* 5.1 (April 2005): 47-56.
- Rabbini, Roberto. "[An Introduction to Syllabus Design and Evaluation](#)." *The Internet ESL Journal* 8.5 (2002). Web. 15 March 2011.
- Skehan, P., and P. Foster. "Cognition and tasks." *Cognition and Second Language Instruction*. Ed. P. Robinson. New York: Cambridge University Press, 2001. 183-205.

White, Joanna. "Getting the learners' attention: A typographical input enhancement study." *Focus on Form in Classroom Second Language Acquisition*. Ed. Catherine Doughty and Jessica Williams. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998. 85-113

Wilkins, D.A. *Notional Syllabuses*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1976.

APPENDIX 1. LESSON ONE (SEN. EP. 41.1)

Facis rem optimam et tibi salutarem si, ut scribis, perseveras ire ad bonam mentem, quam stultum est optare cum possis a te impetrare. Non sunt ad caelum elevandae manus nec exorandus aedituus ut nos ad aurem simulacri, quasi magis exaudiri possimus, admittat: prope est a te deus, tecum est, intus est.

Method	Comments
<p>PROACTIVE: in the class or in the home-work assignment prior to the assigned reading, review and construct syntax exercises on: 1) present general conditions, 2) purposive infinitive, 3) passive periphrastic, and 4) purpose clause vs. <i>ut</i> + indicative.</p> <p>Give a dictionary assignment on <i>optare</i> and <i>impetrare</i>, discuss the interesting difference between English and Latin points of reference from physical space using <i>prope est a te deus</i>.</p> <p>Have a vocabulary list for infrequent or possibly misconstrued words (e.g. <i>salutare</i>, <i>aedituus</i>), linking them with their roots.</p>	<p>Translation in class may not be necessary; consider giving a comprehension quiz instead (e.g. “Draw a picture showing where Seneca thinks <i>deus</i> is in relation to his reader”). One might now be able to concentrate on stylistic issues or contextual questions as well as focus on how style might affect reading strategies (e.g. parallel structures). Although the review process will be substantial and could affect class time, it may be possible to read (not translate) much larger sections of Latin at one time, while being fairly confident that all students will be “on the same page” in grammatical terms.</p>
<p>REACTIVE: When or if a student misconstrues 1) present general conditions, 2) purposive infinitive, 3) passive periphrastic, or 4) purpose clause, review on the spot by asking for the syntax rule and a recasting of the translation.</p> <p>Students will likely translate <i>prope est a te</i> too literally, impeding sense and the point of Seneca’s comment. This will provide an opportunity for discussion of meaning and the interesting difference between English and Latin points of reference from physical space using <i>prope est a te deus</i>. See <i>OLD</i> (s.v. <i>prope</i> A.1.) or <i>L&S</i> (s.v. <i>prope</i> I.A.2).</p>	<p>Direct translation will probably be necessary to check student comprehension and to generate syntax issues for discussion and clarification. One might now be able to concentrate on each student’s particular weaknesses, forcing “recasting” as a pedagogical strategy. Note that the student who failed to identify the syntax issue will be very unlikely to be able to provide the “rule”; you will probably always rely on the top tier of students for answers. Each class will be spent translating and discussing syntax and content. The review process and reading comprehension may compete for students’ attention. Students encounter similar amounts of Latin each class; each class comprises similar activities. One can be fairly confident that all students are “on the same page” in grammatical terms by the end of the session.</p>

APPENDIX 2. LESSON TWO (CATULLUS VIII)

Class Day A

- Assign the grammar and vocabulary handout as homework two days before the lesson is to take place. Correct the handout in class the day before the lesson, and assign the students to review the corrected handout before Class Day B (see table).
- This lesson assumes students are familiar with syllable quantity and meter, specifically hendecasyllabic, and forms of the personal and interrogative pronoun.

Homework for Class Day A	Class Day A	Homework for Class Day B	Class Day B
Students prepare the handout on imperatives and review personal and interrogative pronouns	Review any questions students may have concerning handout.	Students review the handout with the corrected answers and information.	Students use the information reviewed in the handout to read and interpret Catullus 8.

Class Day B

- Hand out Catullus VIII at the beginning of class.
- Mention that the poem is in scazons, and model reading the poem in meter. Then have a few students read through the poem, thus helping the class to notice certain long and short syllables as well as to gain a sense of context for the poem.
- Work through the meaning of the poem without doing a line-by-line translation. This can be done by asking students prompting questions concerning areas of the poem where the grammar may be more difficult.
- Ask students to break into groups of two or three and recast a few lines so that they replace second person with third person, thus requiring the students to identify the verbs (and pronouns) and create the new, correct form. By imagining the subject *ille Catullus* in place of *tu, Catulle* and *illa Lesbia* in place of *tu, Lesbia*, the students will in effect de-personalize the poem and come to a greater awareness of how the use of the second person makes the poem more personal and emotionally intense.
- Ask the groups to each write one of their recasts on the board.
- Provide indirect corrective feedback by identifying where there are mistakes and asking the students to correct them.

Catullus VIII Review of Commands in Latin

Note: Before beginning this exercise, review the forms of the imperative and the uses of the jussive subjunctive.

1. Fill in the proper ending as indicated by the person, number, and mood.

_____ (2nd pl. imperative, amō) _____ (2nd sg. subjunctive, scribō)

_____ (1st sg. subjunctive, maneō) _____ (2nd sg. imperative, videō)

_____ (3rd pl. imperative, vincō) _____ (2nd pl. subjunctive, superō)

_____ (3rd sg. imperative, audeo) _____ (3rd sg. subjunctive, sciō)

2. Underline and identify which form of command (subjunctive or imperative) is used.

Audeant illī virī esse fortēs.

Vocāte puellās ex domo.

Nē id faciāmus.

Laudēs bonōs librōs.

Fīliam fabulam docē.

3. Translate the following into Latin, using the form of command specified.

Announce the message to the king. (2nd sg. imperative)

Let us stop the man in the market. (1st pl. subjunctive)

Finish your job (*commercium*, -ī) tonight. (2nd sg. subjunctive)

Let him call the boys to dinner (use *ad* + accusative). (3rd sg. subjunctive)

Learn the teacher's customs (*mōs*, *mōris*). (2nd pl. imperative)

Catullus VIII Vocabulary Worksheet

1. Define the following terms:

dēsīnō, -ere
fulgēō, -gēre, fulsī
sōl, sōlis, m.
nōlō, nōlle, nōluī
volō, velle, voluī
invītus, -a, -um
adeō, -īre
dēstinātus, -a, -um
perferō, perferre
scelestus, -a, -um

2. Provide the lexical entry and definition.

ineptīre
perisse
ventitābās
sectare
dolebis
mordēbis
rogābit

3. Guess what the following words likely mean.

iocōsa (Hint: i's often become j's when entering into English)
impotēns
obdūrā (Hint: it's a verb, ob-dūrā)

Catullus VIII Visually Enhanced Text

Miser Catulle, **desinas** ineptire,
et quod uides perisse perditum **ducas**.

fulsere quondam candidi *tibi* soles,
cum uentitabas quo puella ducebat
amata *nobis* quantum amabitur nulla.
ibi illa multa cum iocosa fiebant,
quae *tu* uolebas nec puella nolebat,
fulsere uere candidi *tibi* soles.

nunc iam illa non uult: *tu* quoque impotens **noli**,
nec quae fugit sectare, nec miser **uiue**,
sed obstinata mente **perfer**, **obdura**.
uale puella, iam Catullus obdurat,
nec *te* requiret nec rogabit inuitam.
at *tu* dolebis, cum rogaberis nulla.

scelesta, uae *te*, quae *tibi* manet uita?
quis nunc te adibit? *cui* uideberis bella?
quem nunc amabis? *cuius* esse diceris?
quem basiabis? *cui* labella mordebis?
at *tu*, Catulle, destinatus **obdura**.

Catullus VIII Sample Comprehension Questions

- To whom is Catullus speaking in the opening line?
What is another way to translate *dūcās* in line 2 besides “lead”?
What grammatical construction would follow this that includes an accusative and infinitive?
Where does the relative clause initiated by *quod* end?
What word is “missing” after *perditum*?
Parse *fulsēre*.
What kind of ablative is *quō* in line 4?
What kind of dative is *nōbīs* in line 5?
Who is the subject of *amābitur*?
What is the subject of *fiēbant*?
How is *cum* best translated in line 6?
What are the different attitudes between Catullus and the girl in line 7?
What is now different in line 9?
Who is the subject of *fugit*?
What construction is *obstinātā mente* an example of?
How has Catullus’ attitude towards Lesbia changed in 12-14, and how do we know this?
What is *nūlla* doing in line 14?
What is the subject of *manet*?
How is the *cui* in “*cui videberis bella*” similar to *nobis* in line 5?
Why is *esse* in the infinitive?
What kind of dative is *cui* in line 18?
How is the *at tū* in the final line different than in line 14?

APPENDIX 3. LESSON THREE (CAESAR, *DE BELLO GALLICO*, BK. 2.1.1-4)

Class Day A

- Assign the grammar and vocabulary handout as homework two days before the lesson is to take place. Correct the handout in class the day before the lesson, and assign the students to review the corrected handout before the lesson (see table)
- For the grammar worksheet, go over each question in class, asking the students to share their multiple choice answers. If students chose the incorrect answer, ask them to consider why they chose that answer and correct their mistake by choosing a new answer.
- For the extended sentence, ask students to break into groups and compare their marking of the sentence. Then ask a representative from each group to put their answer on the board. Provide corrective feedback, and allow the students to recast their work where necessary.

Homework for Class Day A	Class Day A	Homework for Class Day B	Class Day B
Students prepare the handout on indirect statement and sequence of tenses.	Review any questions students may have concerning handout.	Students review the handout with the corrected answers and information.	Students use the information reviewed in the handout to translate Caesar.

Class Day B

- Hand out Caesar text at the beginning of class.
- Work through the meaning of the text without doing word-by-word translation. This can be done by asking students prompting questions concerning areas of the poem where the grammar may be more difficult.

Caesar Indirect Discourse and Sequence of Tenses Review Sheet

Note: Before doing this worksheet, review indirect discourse, paying special attention to the uses of the infinitive, indicative, and subjunctive, as well as the sequence of tenses rule for the subjunctive.

Read the sentence (DO NOT TRANSLATE), and determine if the action of the infinitive is happening before, after, or at the same time as the main verb.

1. Nōn arbitror tē ita sentīre.
 - a. Before
 - b. Same
 - c. After
2. Vidēmur enim quiētūrī fuisse.
 - a. Before
 - b. Same
 - c. After
3. Rēs ipsa monēbat tempus esse.
 - a. Before
 - b. Same
 - c. After

Read the sentence (DO NOT TRANSLATE), and determine if the main verb is primary or secondary sequence and if the subjunctive verb indicates complete or incomplete action.

1. Rogō quid faciās.
 - a. Primary, complete
 - b. Primary, incomplete
 - c. Secondary, complete
 - d. Secondary, incomplete
2. Rogāvī quid facerēs.
 - a. Primary, complete
 - b. Primary, incomplete
 - c. Secondary, complete
 - d. Secondary, incomplete
3. Rogābō quid fēceris.
 - a. Primary, complete
 - b. Primary, incomplete
 - c. Secondary, complete
 - d. Secondary, incomplete
4. Rogāvī quid fēcissēs.
 - a. Primary, complete
 - b. Primary, incomplete
 - c. Secondary, complete
 - d. Secondary, incomplete

Read the following sentence (again, DO NOT TRANSLATE). Identify the verbs and break the sentence into its different clauses (i.e. main clause, indirect Discourse, Subordinate Clauses)

Quis neget haec omnia quae vidēmus deōrum potestāte administrārī?

Caesar Vocabulary Worksheet

1. Define the following terms:

citerior, -ius
crēber, -bra, -brum
conīurō, -āre
obses, obsidis
partim (adv)
nōlō, nōlle, nōluī
inveterāscō, -ere
mōbilitās, -tātis
condūcō, -ere

2. Provide the lexical entry and definition.

adferēbantur
verērentur
pācatā
sollicitārentur
versārī
studēbant
cōnsequī

3. Guess what the following words likely mean.

rūmorēs
litterīs (HINT: Change the first i to an e)
addūcerētur (HINT: Separate the preposition and the verb)
diūtius
hiemāre (HINT: Consider this a “verbing” of a noun)
facultātēs
occupābantur

Caesar Passage Visually Enhanced

Cum esset Caesar in citeriore Gallia [in hibernis],
ita uti supra demonstravimus,
crebri ad eum rumores adferebantur litterisque item Labieni certior fiebat

omnes Belgas, quam tertiam esse Galliae partem dixeramus, **contra populum Romanum**
coniurare obsidesque inter se dare.

Coniurandi has esse causas:

primum quod vererentur

ne, omni pacata Gallia, ad eos exercitus noster adduceretur;

deinde quod ab non nullis Gallis sollicitarentur,

partim qui,

ut Germanos diutius in Gallia versari noluerant,

ita populi Romani exercitum hiemare atque inveterascere in Gallia moleste
ferebant,

partim qui mobilitate et levitate animi novis imperiis studebant;

ab non nullis *etiam quod* in Gallia a potentioribus atque iis

qui ad conducendos homines facultates habebant

vulgo regna occupabantur;

qui minus facile eam rem imperio nostro consequi poterant.

Caesar Passage Sample Comprehension Questions

Where is Caesar, and where have we this description of this region before?

Who is *eum*?

Why is *litteris* not accusative?

What is *quam* referring to and what is its function in the relative clause?

What two things are the *Belgas* said to have done?

Why is *esse* infinitive?

What part of speech is *coniurandi*? What case is it in and why?

What “condition” exists for the *Belgae* to be afraid?

What do they fear?

Who is the grammatical agent of *sollicitarentur*?

What do the Germans not want to do?

What are the two results of the Germans’ reluctance?

What kind of ablatives are *mobilitate* and *levitate*?

Why is *novis imperiis* in the dative?

What kind of adjective is *potentioribus*?

What is the antecedent of *qui*?

What use of *ad* is this?

Homines and *facultates* are both accusative plural, what is each the direct object of?

Who is doing the action of *occupabantur*?

Parse *consequi*.

What is *minus* modifying?

The 2010 College Greek Exam

Albert Watanabe
Louisiana State University

ABSTRACT

This article reports on the second annual College Greek Exam (CGE), a national exam for students of ancient Greek, usually given in the second semester of a college sequence. The report begins with a brief description of the origins and development of the CGE, explaining the philosophy behind the exam's syllabus. The format of the CGE is then presented, followed by an analysis of the questions by grammatical category. The results of the 2010 exam are then compared with 2009 CGE. The report concludes with an assessment of the strengths and areas for improvement for Greek students. The report also evaluates the exam itself; the main suggestion is to include more comprehension questions. There are two appendices: (1) a copy of the 2010 CGE, including the percentages of the students who marked each answer; (2) a copy of the syllabus for the CGE.¹

In March 2010, 239 students from 24 colleges and universities took the second annual College Greek Exam (CGE), a national exam for students of ancient Greek, typically in their second semester of a college sequence. This article gives a brief description of the exam's origins and development, as well as analysis of the results of the 2010 exam compared to those for the 2009 exam. It concludes with an assessment of strengths and areas for improvement for Greek students as well as an evaluation of the exam.

DEVELOPMENT AND PHILOSOPHY OF THE COLLEGE GREEK EXAM

The origins of the CGE arose from the desire to institute a separate national exam for college and university students of ancient Greek, parallel to the National Greek Exam (NGE) for high school students. The CGE generally follows the format of exams such as the NGE and the NLE but has a syllabus, vocabulary lists and expectations geared specifically for students at the college level. Given the great diversity of pedagogical approaches and order of presentation of grammatical material found in Greek textbooks, the CGE does not follow any one textbook. Through computer searches, it is now possible to quantify the forms and vocabulary that students are most likely to encounter in reading ancient Greek texts. Rather than adhere to a particular approach, presentation, textbook or type of textbook, the syllabus for the CGE bases the inclusion of grammatical material (Mahoney) and vocabulary (Major) on frequency. For a more detailed exposition of the philosophical background for the CGE, see Major-Watanabe (this article also includes copies of the pilot and 2009 CGE). A copy of the syllabus has been appended to this article.

FORMAT AND ANALYSIS OF THE 2010 COLLEGE GREEK EXAM

The exam consisted of 40 multiple-choice questions, the last ten of which analyzed a short Greek passage in which a dog and sheep debate their roles and value to a shepherd. For the first time since the inception of the Exam, there were two perfect scores of 40. The overall average was 25.83 (64.58%); the median score was 26 (65%). In what follows, the results of the exam are

1 I wish to thank the Editor of TCL and the anonymous readers for their many helpful suggestions.

analyzed according to grammatical categories. For reference, a copy of the 2010 exam has been included as an appendix. The percentage of students marking each answer is given in parentheses after that answer.

Nouns, adjectives and pronouns

Two questions on nouns asked for specific cases of a noun. Q(uestion)19 asked for the dative plural of βασιλεύς and Q23 for the same case and number of πρᾶγμα. For both questions, 77.4% of the students answered correctly.

There were also two questions on the agreement of the article with a noun. In Q1 only 8.4% correctly identified τὰ as the article agreeing with γένη. The majority (86.6%) chose ἡ, not recognizing that γένη is the neuter plural of τὸ γένος. Similarly in Q24 only 39.7% recognized τοῦ as the correct article for ἀνδρός. Again most of the students (51.9%) took the noun as a nominative singular and chose ὁ as the answer.

Questions on adjectives centered on agreement. For Q5, 86.2% of the students saw that κακῶν agreed with τῶν γλωττῶν. In Q25, however, only 28% saw that κακῆς went with πόλεως. The largest group of students (39.7%) chose κακοῦ as the answer; 26.4% chose κακῶς; 5.9% picked κακῶν. In this case students seemed unsure about the gender of πόλις. A significant number appear simply to have matched up the endings (πόλεως and κακῶς). As noted above on nos. 1 and 24, the agreement of articles/adjectives and nouns of different declensions proved to be problematic for students.

Q12 posed a question about comparison. Students were asked to fill in the blank in the sentence: ὁ Σωκράτης ἐστὶ σοφώτερος ἢ _____. Only 41% correctly saw that the nominative ὁ Εὐριπίδης should be placed in the blank. The rest of the students were divided fairly evenly over the other answers: 21.3% for τῶν ἄλλων ἀνδρῶν; 20.9% for τοῖς ἄλλοις ἀνδράσι; and 16.7% for τοῦ Εὐριπίδου. Here the students seemed uncertain about what case should follow the comparative plus ἢ.

Four questions dealt with pronouns. Nos. 14 and 35 (on the passage) asked about the case of the pronoun. In Q14, 60.7% correctly identified ἡμῖν as dative. For Q35 (on the passage), 79.1% of the students saw that σοι was dative and that its function was as the indirect object of παρέχει. In Q16, 96.7% saw that τοῦτο derived from οὗτος. Q32 (on the passage) posed a question about relative pronouns; only 29.3% of the students understood that ὅς referred back to δεσπότην. Most (60.3%) thought that its antecedent was the adverbial adjective Δεινόν.

There were five questions about the translation of noun phrases, both from Greek to English and from English to Greek. Often these questions dealt with the attributive or predicative positions of adjectives and pronouns. All the questions began with “The best translation of (for) _____ is.” Q3 asked for the best translation of τὸ τοῦ πολίτου δῶρον ἄριστον, an example of the predicative position. Here 79.1% of the students correctly chose the phrase “the citizen’s gift is best.” For Q6, when students were asked the best translation of “the same hope,” 77.4% chose ἡ αὐτὴ ἐλπίς, recognizing that αὐτός in the attributive position means “the same.” In Q7, 72.4% correctly answered that κατὰ νόμον was best translated by “according to the law.” For Q28, students were asked to render the phrase “these soldiers” into Greek. Here 66.5% chose οὗτοι οἱ στρατιῶται, correctly recognizing that demonstrative adjectives regularly occur in the predicative position. Finally in Q30, 64% correctly translated “all the letters” with πάντα τὰ γράμματα. Another 24.3% chose ἡ πᾶσα ἐπιστολή. Whether translating from Greek to English or English to Greek, the students seemed to fare about the same.

Finally, Q13 asked about the translation of the superlative adverb ἀληθέστατα. In this case 82% translated it as “most truly.”

Verbs

Now we turn to questions on verbal forms. Questions on finite verbal forms asked about the person, number, tense and mood. Students were not asked to parse the voice of finite verbal forms (for questions on translating middle/deponent forms, see below).

For Q34 (on the passage), 68.2% correctly identified δίδως as second person singular. For Q29, students had to find the second singular imperfect indicative of ἄρχω. Students did well with 80.8% giving ἤρχεσ as the correct answer. On Q22, 90% were able to convert ζητεῖ (a contract verb) to the plural. On Q9, 84.5% correctly identified γράψετε as a future. In Q27, students had more difficulty in identifying the tense of ἔθηκε. Here only 42.7% saw that it was aorist, 32.6% thought that it was perfect, while 19.7% took it as imperfect. Students unfamiliar with -μι verbs, but familiar with the perfect tense, may have noticed the kappa in the ending and guessed that the verb was perfect, even though there was not reduplication. This question and Q34 above were the only ones about -μι verbs. Finally, for Q11, slightly over half of the students (56.5%) saw that ἦνεγκον derived from φέρω.

Several questions asked students for the mood of a verbal form. Q31 (on the passage) asked about the mood of εἶπεν. On this question, 84.5% correctly answered that it was indicative. Q2 (the only question on an imperative) was difficult for students. Only 42.7% saw that ἄκουσον was aorist imperative; 30.1% guessed that it was future indicative, another 20.5% that it was aorist indicative and the remainder (6.7%) thought that it was present imperative.

On infinitives, Q26 asked about the tense and mood of πεπαιδευκέναι; 73.2% recognized it as the perfect infinitive. This was the only question on a perfect. For Q40 (on the passage), students had difficulty identifying the form of ἀποθανεῖν. Only 37.7% recognized it as aorist, while over half (51.5%) took it as a present infinitive. Here students seemed unfamiliar with this second aorist form.

Now let us turn to the questions on participles. Q21 asked students to convert the middle participle γραψάμενοι to the active. Here 64% correctly chose γράψαντες, while 31.8% opted for the present participle γράψοντες. The remaining questions were on the passage. On Q33 87.4% recognized the case and number of παρεχούσαις as dative plural. For Q39 on the last sentence of the reading passage (εἰ δ' ἐγὼ οὐ φυλάττω ὑμᾶς, οὐ νέμεσθαι δύνασθε, φοβούμεναι ἀποθανεῖν), 76.2% saw that φοβούμεναι agreed with the ewes implied in the 2nd person plural verb δύνασθε.

Students were also asked to translate finite verbs, infinitives and participles. These questions usually took the form: “The best translation of (for) _____ is.” For Q10, only 44.8% of the students translated φαίνεται as “it seems;” another 39.3% translated it as “he shows.” Here they were not clearly distinguishing between the active and middle. In Q17, the students also had difficulty in recognizing the 2nd singular middle-deponent form, where only 39.3% correctly translated ἔρχη as “you come;” 28.9% took it to mean “may he come;” 16.7% “may he rule;” and 15.1% “you ruled.” Q15 tested students on the supplementary participle in the phrase τυγχάνω ὄν. Here 61.9% correctly translated “I happen to be.” Finally, in nos. 36-37 (from the reading passage) students were asked to show their comprehension of the sentence τὸν κύνα οὖν ἀκούσαντα φασὶν εἰπεῖν. Q36 asked about the best translation of the aorist participle ἀκούσαντα. Here 82.4% did well in translating the circumstantial participle as a temporal clause “when he had heard.” For Q37 students were also asked to translate the indirect statement τὸν κύνα οὖν ἀκούσαντα φασὶν

εἰπεῖν. On this question 58.6% correctly chose “they say that when the dog heard he said;” 27.2% translated “the dog listened and said.”

Other types of questions

There were two questions on transcription and English derivatives. For Q20, 84.1% were able to transcribe “Homer” from English into Greek. In Q4, 97.5% clearly saw that the word “politics” derived from πόλις.

The only historical question (Q8) asked who was the most important woman poet from ancient Greece. Here 73.2% of the students answered Sappho (written out in Greek).

There was also one question on the recessive accent. For Q18, 72.8% of the students identified ἔλιπον as the relevant example.

Q38 was the only comprehension question on the exam, asking what the dog in the passage claimed. The majority of students (62.3%) answered that the dog “protects the ewes from men and wolves.”

COMPARISON WITH THE 2009 CGE

Overall students did slightly better on the 2010 exam than on the 2009 exam. As noted above, 239 students from 24 institutions took the 2010 exam; there were 311 students from 35 institutions taking the 2009 exam. The 2010 students scored a mean of 65.76%, while 62.06% was the mean for 2009. For the first time two students (from the same school) had perfect scores of 40, while in 2009 five students scored the peak score of 38 (95%). The low score was a 10 (25%) for 2010; for 2009 this was an 11 (28%).

Only one question appeared on both exams. Q8 (2009) and Q27 (2010) asked about the tense of ἔθηκε. There was a slight decrease in the score here: 47.3% chose the correct answer in 2009 compared to 42.7% in 2010. The same answers were provided: (a) present; (b) imperfect; (c) aorist; (d) perfect. The scores for both exams generally followed the same pattern. For 2009 the scores were as follows: (a) 2.3%; (b) 17.7%; (c) 47.3%; (d) 32.8%. For 2010 the percentages were: (a) 5%; (b) 19.7%; (c) 42.7%; (d) 32.6%. In both years, it is interesting that after the correct answer c, the next highest percentage was for answer d (perfect).

Between the two exams, several questions were similar in content but differed in question format (e.g. most significantly whether the students translated from Greek to English or English to Greek). These questions are examined by grammatical category below.

Q30 (2009) and Q3 (2010) dealt with the predicative position of the adjective. The question for 2009 asked, “Which shows an adjective in the predicative position?” Only 45.3% chose ἡ φύσις ἀρίστη. The 2010 students were asked to give the best translation of τὸ τοῦ πολίτου δῶρον ἄριστον; here 79.1% answered correctly, “the citizen’s gift is best.” Students on the 2010 seemed to have less difficulty, insofar as they were only asked to translate the phrase; this required at best a passive knowledge of the predicative position.

There were two similar questions on pronouns. For 2009, 68.2% correctly chose the dative pl. of ἐγώ (Q15); for Q14 in the 2010 exam students were asked about the inverse process of identifying the case of ἡμῖν. Here 60.7% gave the correct form. On Q11 of the 2009 exam, 62.4% understood that ταῦτα derived from οὗτος. For 2010 on Q16, 96.7% correctly answered that τοῦτο derived from οὗτος.

The 2010 students did significantly better than the 2009 group on the superlative adverb. For the 2010 exam students were asked in Q13 for the best translation of ἀληθέστατα and 82%

answered “most truly”; the 2009 students had a more difficult time answering Q16: “Which is the superlative adverb of *χαλεπός*?” with only 45.3% answering *χαλεπώτατα*. Here again students found it easier to translate the superlative adverb (2010) than to produce the form (2009).

Three questions on verbal forms were similar. Q19 (2009) and Q2 (2010) focused on the imperative. In 2009 only 29.6% gave the right answer, *ἄκουσον*, when asked “Which of the following gives the command ‘Listen!’” Many of the students (39.2%) chose the aorist indicative form *ἤκουσε*; 25.4% picked *ἀκούση* (which could be interpreted as a 2nd singular future middle, aorist subjunctive middle, or a 3rd singular aorist subjunctive active), while 5.8% opted for the imperfect indicative. Here many students chose the aorist indicative, misidentifying the epsilon as the 2nd singular ending and forgetting that the augment does not appear in the imperative. About a quarter of them, after eliminating the answers with augments, guessed that the answer was *ἀκούση* instead of *ἄκουσον*. The 2010 exam, instead of asking students to produce the correct Greek, asked students to identify the tense and mood. For 2010, 42.7% correctly gave the tense and mood of *ἄκουσον*. The other responses were future indicative (30.1%), aorist indicative (20.5%) and present imperative (6.7%). Students clearly saw that *ἄκουσον* (with its sigma) must be either future or aorist. Although the 2010 students fared better, the imperative continues to pose a challenge for students.

Q28 (2009) and Q26 (2010) dealt with perfect forms. In 2009 students were asked to complete the sentence “*κεκρύφασιν* is”. Here 57.6% answered correctly, but 22.2% took it for a dative, 15.8% as a pluperfect, and 4.2% as an accusative. Not given any indication in the question whether *κεκρύφασιν* was a noun or a verb, a number of the students were distracted by the answer “dative.” The 2010 students did fairly well (73.2%) in identifying the tense and mood of the perfect infinitive *πεπαιδευκέναι*. The other answers were pluperfect infinitive (13%), perfect indicative (8.8%) and pluperfect indicative (5%). Here students were helped by the fact that the question definitely indicated that the form was a verb.

There was also a question on both exams involving the aorist middle participle. For 2009 (Q13), 81.4% chose the correct form of the aorist middle participle of *βλάπτω*; for Q21 on the 2010 exam 64% were able to convert the middle participle *γραψάμενοι* into the active. The latter process was clearly more challenging for the 2010 students.

Q17 of the 2009 exam asked for an example of the fixed accent among four verbal forms; only 32.2% chose the right example, the perfect participle *ἠύρημένοι*. For Q18 on the 2010 exam, students were asked to find an example of a recessive accent; 72.8% correctly answered *ἔλιπον*.

Q38 was the only comprehension question on the 2010 exam. Here 62.3% gave the right answer. In 2009, there were five reading comprehension questions about the passage, a legend about sailors meeting Alexander’s sister, a mermaid, on the high seas. In four of them—Q32 (55.9%), Q33 (57.2%), Q35 (53.7%), Q38 (71.4%)—the majority of students answered correctly. However, in Q40, when students were asked what the passage said about the mermaid, only 27.7% gave the correct answer, “she carries the implements of war.” It is difficult to compare these questions since they are closely tied to the passages being analyzed. Given that the students have already answered grammatical questions in the first part of the exam, it would be worthwhile for the writers of the test to include more reading comprehension questions on the passage, as such questions would test students on another level of knowledge—their ability to comprehend a continuous passage of Greek in context.

Finally questions about transliteration were raised in Q1 (2009) and Q20 (2010). For 2009, 63.3% were able to transliterate “Hyperbolus” into Greek, while in 2010, 84.1% correctly con-

verted “Homer.” Students did better in 2010 in seeing that the “H” in transliteration arose from the rough breathing. The omicron with rough breathing at the beginning of Homer was easier to handle than the upsilon of Hyperbolus. The familiarity of the name Homer probably also helped the 2010 students.

CONCLUSION

Students performed fairly well to very well on producing noun cases, matching 2nd declension adjectives with 2nd declension nouns, translation of noun phrases, the superlative adverb, parsing -ω verbs, translating the supplementary and circumstantial participle, transliteration, English derivatives, and on the historical question.

Areas for improvement include the agreement of adjectives (articles) and nouns of different declensions (Q1: 8.4%; Q24: 39.7%; Q25: 28%), comparison (Q12: 41%), the imperative (Q2: 42.7%), and middle/deponent forms (Q10 φαίνεταί: 44.8%; Q17 ἔρχη: 39.3%).

The writers of the exam offered a variety of questions and an interesting passage. They did well to introduce for the first time this year questions on comparison and supplementary participles. The major weak point of the exam is the lack of comprehension questions on the passage. Questions should test the ability of students to translate and comprehend larger units than the individual words and phrases tested in the first part. Additionally, too many question asking students to translate from Greek to English may make the exam less challenging for students. I do not see this as a major problem on this exam but a balance of Greek to English and English to Greek questions is something that should be carefully preserved on future exams.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The committee for the College Greek Exam wishes to thank all the students and teachers who took part in the 2010 exam, as well as the many people who helped in making the exam possible. We hope that those who participated in previous years will continue to participate. The 2011 CGE Exam is once again scheduled to be administered in mid-March. Those interested in participating should contact Wilfred Major (wmajor@lsu.edu), the chair of the CGE Committee, to register. As in previous years, there will be certificates and other awards for students taking the exam. Also once again, thanks to the support of the American Classical League, Eta Sigma Phi, Louisiana State University, and the Committee for the Promotion of Greek, there will be no charge for taking the exam. The committee welcomes questions, corrections, and suggestions about any or all aspects of the CGE.

WORKS CITED

- Mahoney, Anne. “The Forms You Really Need to Know.” *Classical Outlook* 81 (2004): 101-105.
- Major, Wilfred E. “[It’s Not the Size, It’s the Frequency: The Value of Using a Core Vocabulary in Beginning and Intermediate Greek.](#)” *CPL Online* 4.1 (2008). Web.
- Major, Wilfred E., and Albert Watanabe. “The College Greek Exam.” *Classical Outlook* 87 (2009): 28-38.

APPENDIX 1. SECOND ANNUAL COLLEGE GREEK EXAM (2010)

TIME: 50 MINUTES

DO NOT USE A DICTIONARY

Write YOUR NAME at the top left-hand portion of your answer sheet. Write YOUR LAST NAME FIRST. Be sure to FILL IN THE BUBBLES under your name. DO NOT change the identification number on the sheet nor add any additional information.

Mark the correct choice ON YOUR ANSWER SHEET. There is only one correct answer/choice for each question. Choose the BEST POSSIBLE ANSWER.

1. The correct article for the noun γένη is

a. ἡ (86.6%)	c. τό (4.2%)
b. αἱ (0.8%)	d. τά (8.4%)

2. The tense and mood of ἄκουσον are

a. present imperative (6.7%)	c. aorist imperative (42.7%)
b. aorist indicative (20.5%)	d. future indicative (30.1%)

3. The best translation of the words τὸ τοῦ πολίτου δῶρον ἄριστον is
 - a. the best gift is for the citizen (16.3%)
 - b. the citizen's gift is best (79.1%)
 - c. the gift is better than the citizen (4.2%)
 - d. it is best for the citizen to have a gift (0.4%)

4. An English word that is derived from πόλις is

a. polish (0.0%)	c. politics (97.5%)
b. polite (1.3%)	d. polychrome (1.3%)

5. The adjective that agrees with the noun τῶν γλωττῶν is

a. εὐδαίμων (7.1%)	c. κακῶν (86.2%)
b. εὐδαίμονος (1.7%)	d. κακῶς (5.0%)

6. The best translation into Greek of the words *the same hope* is

a. ἡ ταύτης ἐλπίς (9.2%)	c. ἡ αὐτῆ ἐλπίς (77.4%)
b. τίς ἡ ἐλπίς (1.7%)	d. αὕτη ἡ ἐλπίς (11.7%)

7. The best translation of the words κατὰ νόμον is

a. according to law (72.4%)	c. down from the law (15.1%)
b. after the law (4.6%)	d. with the law (7.5%)

8. The most important woman poet from ancient Greece is

a. Ἀθῆναι (13.8%)	c. Ἄρτεμις (7.5%)
b. Σαπφώ (73.2%)	d. Σοφοκλῆς (5.4%)

9. What is the tense of γράψετε?
- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| a. perfect (1.7%) | c. future (84.5%) |
| b. aorist (5.0%) | d. present (8.8%) |
10. The best translation for φαίνεται is
- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| a. he shows (39.3%) | c. it seems (44.8%) |
| b. we appear (2.5%) | d. they show (12.6%) |
11. ἦνεγκον is a form of which verb?
- | | |
|--------------------|------------------|
| a. νομίζω (9.2%) | c. νικάω (15.1%) |
| b. ἀγγέλλω (19.2%) | d. φέρω (56.5%) |
12. Fill in the blank: ὁ Σωκράτης ἐστὶ σοφώτερος ἢ _____.
- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| a. ὁ Ευριπίδης (41.0%) | c. τοῦ Ευριπίδου (16.7%) |
| b. τῶν ἄλλων ἀνδρῶν (21.3%) | d. τοῖς ἄλλοις ἀνδράσι (20.9%) |
13. The best translation for ἀληθέστατα is
- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------|
| a. truer (13.0%) | c. true (3.8%) |
| b. truly (1.3%) | d. most truly (82.0%) |
14. The case of ἡμῖν is
- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| a. nominative (11.3%) | c. dative (60.7%) |
| b. genitive (4.6%) | d. accusative (23.4%) |
15. The best translation for τυγχάνω ὧν is
- | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a. I hit them (5.4%) | c. I happen to be (61.9%) |
| b. I am meeting them (18.0%) | d. therefore I happen (14.2%) |
16. τοῦτο is a form of which word?
- | | |
|-----------------|------------------|
| a. ταχύς (1.3%) | c. οὗτος (96.7%) |
| b. τόπος (0.8%) | d. οὐδεὶς (1.3%) |
17. The best translation for ἔρχη is
- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| a. you come (39.3%) | c. may he rule (16.7%) |
| b. may he come (28.9%) | d. you ruled (15.1%) |
18. Which of the following is an example of the recessive accent?
- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| a. λιπεῖν (7.1%) | c. χρηστός (8.8%) |
| b. λιπόντος (10.9%) | d. ἔλιπον (72.8%) |
19. The dative plural of βασιλεύς is
- | | |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| a. βασιλέα (4.6%) | c. βασιλεῦσι (77.4%) |
| b. βασιλεῖ (10.0%) | d. βασιλέως (7.5%) |

20. The name of the epic poet Homer is written in Greek as
 a. Ἡόμηρος (1.3%)
 b. Ὅμηρος (11.3%)
 c. Ὅμηρος (84.1%)
 d. Ἡόμηρος (3.3%)
21. The active participle that corresponds to the middle participle γραψάμενοι is
 a. γράψαντες (64.0%)
 b. γράψοντες (31.8%)
 c. γραψόμενοι (2.5%)
 d. γραφόμενοι (1.7%)
22. Making the person of ζητεῖ plural yields the form
 a. ζητοῦμεν (1.7%)
 b. ζητοῦσιν (90.0%)
 c. ζητῶ (2.5%)
 d. ζητεῖν (5.9%)
23. The dative plural of πράγμα is
 a. πράματος (2.5%)
 b. πράματι (15.5%)
 c. πράμασι (77.4%)
 d. πράματα (4.6%)
24. The form of the definite article that agrees with ἀνδρός is
 a. ὁ (51.9%)
 b. τό (3.3%)
 c. τοῦς (4.6%)
 d. τοῦ (39.7%)
25. The form which agrees with (modifies) πόλεως is
 a. κακῆς (28.0%)
 b. κακοῦ (39.7%)
 c. κακῶς (26.4%)
 d. κακῶν (5.9%)
26. The tense and mood of πεπαιδευκέναι are
 a. pluperfect infinitive (13.0%)
 b. perfect infinitive (73.2%)
 c. pluperfect indicative (5.0%)
 d. perfect indicative (8.8%)
27. The tense of ἔθηκε is
 a. present (5.0%)
 b. imperfect (19.7%)
 c. aorist (42.7%)
 d. perfect (32.6%)
28. The best translation into Greek of the words *these soldiers* is
 a. οἱ στρατιῶται αὐτοί (7.5%)
 b. οἱ στρατιῶται οὕτως (7.1%)
 c. οἱ αὐτοὶ στρατιῶται (18.4%)
 d. οὗτοι οἱ στρατιῶται (66.5%)
29. The 2nd person singular imperfect indicative of ἄρχω is
 a. ἤρχες (80.8%)
 b. ἄρχε (4.2%)
 c. ἤρξες (10.0%)
 d. ἄρχεις (4.6%)
30. The best translation into Greek of the words *all the letters* is
 a. ἡ πᾶσα ἐπιστολή (24.3%)
 b. πάντα τὰ γράμματα (64.0%)
 c. πᾶν γράμμα (2.1%)
 d. πᾶσα ἐπιστολή (9.6%)

Answer questions 31-40 based on the passage below. This fable has a dog and sheep debating their roles and value to a shepherd.

ὄτε φωναὶ τοῖς ζώοις ἦσαν, ἢ ὅς πρὸς τὸν δεσπότην εἶπεν
 «Δεινὸν ποιεῖς, ὃς ἡμῖν μὲν ταῖς καὶ ἄρνας καὶ τυρὸν παρεχούσαις οὐδὲν
 δίδως, τῷ δὲ κυνί, ὃς οὐδὲν ἀγαθὸν σοι παρέχει, μεγάλην
 δόξαν δίδως.» τὸν κύνα οὖν ἀκούσαντα φασὶν εἰπεῖν «ναὶ μὰ Δί’,
 ἐγὼ γὰρ εἰμι ὁ καὶ ὑμᾶς σώζων, καὶ δι’ ἐμὲ οὐθ’ οἱ ἄνθρωποι
 ὑμᾶς κλέπτουσιν οὐθ’ ἀρπάζουσιν οἱ λύκοι. εἰ δ’ ἐγὼ οὐ φυλάττω ὑμᾶς,
 οὐ νέμεσθαι δύνασθε, φοβούμεναι ἀποθανεῖν.»

5

οἱ ἄρνες lambs, sheep

ζῷον -ου τό animal

κύων, κυνός ὁ dog

λύκος -ου ὁ wolf

ναὶ μὰ Δία yes, by Zeus (used in invocations)

νέμομαι go to pasture, graze

ὄτε when

ἄρνη, ἄρνη ἢ ewe (female sheep)

παρέχω provide

τυρός -ου ὁ cheese

φοβοῦμαι fear

31. The mood of εἶπεν (line 1) is
 a. infinitive (6.7%)
 b. indicative (84.5%)
 c. participle (6.7%)
 d. imperative (1.7%)
32. ὃς (line 2) refers to
 a. δεσπότην (line 2) (29.3%)
 b. Δεινόν (line 1) (60.3%)
 c. τυρόν (line 2) (5.9%)
 d. τῷ κυνί (line 3) (3.8%)
33. The case and number of παρεχούσαις (line 2) are
 a. nominative singular (0.4%)
 b. dative singular (2.1%)
 c. dative plural (87.4%)
 d. accusative plural (9.6%)
34. The person and number of δίδως (line 3) are
 a. first person plural (10.5%)
 b. second person singular (68.2%)
 c. second person plural (11.7%)
 d. third person plural (9.2%)
35. The case and function of σοι (line 3) are
 a. dative, in apposition to τῷ κυνί (line 3) (8.8%)
 b. dative, indirect object to παρέχει (line 3) (79.1%)
 c. nominative, subject of δίδως (line 3) (6.7%)
 d. nominative, modifying ὃς (line 3) (4.6%)

36. The best translation for ἀκούσαντα (line 4) is
- a. “when he had heard” (82.4%)
 - b. “the things he had heard” (8.8%)
 - c. “listen!” (2.9%)
 - d. “when he will listen” (5.4%)
37. In line 4, the best translation of the words τὸν κύνα.... εἶπεῖν is
- a. “the dog listened and said” (27.2%)
 - b. “they say that when the dog heard he said” (58.6%)
 - c. “the dog said that he had heard and spoken” (9.6%)
 - d. “they say that dogs listen and speak” (4.2%)
38. In lines 5-7 the dog claims that
- a. he protects the ewes from men and wolves (62.3%)
 - b. the ewes fear that the dog will hand them over to thieves or wolves (10.0%)
 - c. the master will kill both the ewes and the dog (4.6%)
 - d. even if he protects the ewes, they can still be stolen by men (22.6%)
39. The participle φοβούμεναι (line 7) agrees with which noun?
- a. the dogs (7.5%)
 - b. the master (9.2%)
 - c. the ewes (76.2%)
 - d. the wolves (6.7%)
40. What form is ἀποθανεῖν (line 7)?
- a. present infinitive active (51.5%)
 - b. perfect infinitive active (4.6%)
 - c. aorist infinitive active (37.7%)
 - d. aorist infinitive middle (5.9%)

ΤΕΛΟΣ

The End

APPENDIX 2. COLLEGE GREEK EXAM SYLLABUS

Third Annual Exam (2011)

All questions ask the student to choose the best from four different answers. The first thirty (30) questions test the material listed below. The last ten questions test comprehension of a brief simple passage of adapted Attic Greek prose.

A. FORMS

- a. **VERBS:** ω-verbs (including contract verbs) in (1) all persons (2) singular and plural (3) present, imperfect, future, aorist and perfect tenses (4) indicative, infinitive, participle, imperative (present and aorist active only) (5) active and middle voices. See vocabulary list of regular verbs for which students should know definitions and for μι-verbs.
One question will ask students to recognize the correct form of a verb accented recessively.
 - b. **NOUNS:**
1st Declension (νίκη, χώρα, μοῖρα, γλῶττα, πολίτης types)
2nd Declension (ἵππος, δῶρον types)
3rd Declension (ἐλπής, σῶμα, γένος, πόλις types)
See vocabulary for a full list of nouns.
+ the definite article ὁ, ἡ, τό
 - c. **ADJECTIVES:** ἀγαθός, ἄξιος, εὐδαίμων, ἀληθής, ἡδύς types
See vocabulary for a full list of adjectives. Regular formations of the comparative and superlative degrees.
 - d. **PRONOUNS:** αὐτός -ή -ό; ἐγώ; ἐκεῖνος -η -ο; ὅς, ἦ, ὅ; οὐδεὶς, οὐδεμία, οὐδέν; οὗτος, αὕτη, τοῦτο; σύ; τις, τι; τίς, τί
 - e. **CONJUNCTIONS:** ἀλλά, γάρ, δέ, ἐάν/εἰ, ἦ, καί, μέν, ὅτι, οὖν, οὔτε, τε, ὡς
 - f. **PREPOSITIONS:** ἀν(ά), ἀπ(ό), δι(ά), εἰς, ἐκ/ἐξ, ἐν, ἐπ(ί), κατ(ά), μετ(ά), παρ(ά), περί, πρός, ὑπ(ό)
 - g. **ADVERBS:** γε, δή, ἔτι, μή, νῦν, οὐ/οὐκ/οὐχ, οὕτως, ὡς
Regular formations of the positive, comparative and superlative degrees.
 - h. **GRAMMAR and SYNTAX**
 - i. Predicate and attributive positions
 - ii. Case Usage: Nominative (subject, predicate), Genitive (possession), Dative (indirect object, means), Accusative (direct object), Vocative (direct address).
 - iii. Mood Usage: participle (used in comprehension questions but questions do not ask to name a type of use), infinitive (complementary), imperative (command), indirect statement with infinitive or ὅτι/ ὡς.
- B. VOCABULARY:** The attached vocabulary lists verbs, nouns and adjectives for which students are responsible.
- a. In the reading passage, words of regular formation and analogous to (or compounds of) those in the vocabulary will be glossed with a vocabulary entry. For example, if ἐκφέρομεν appears, the gloss will appear as “ἐκφέρω carry out.”
 - b. Words using constructions or forms for which students are not responsible will be glossed with a translation, for example: “ἴνα...φεύγοιμεν so that ...we would escape.”

C. CULTURE

- a. Students should know the following names and places. The questions will be basic in content but require the student to recognize the names in the original Greek.

Homer, Sappho, Aesop, Sophocles, Euripides, Herodotus, Thucydides, Pericles, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Xenophon, Alexander, the Olympian gods, Hercules, Perseus, Achilles, Agamemnon, Helen, Hector, Odysseus, Athens, Sparta, Thebes, Corinth, Mycenae, Marathon, Thermopylae.

Example: Who wrote the tragedy Οιδίπους Τύραννος? (a) ὁ Σωκράτης (b) ἡ Σαπφώ (c) ὁ Περικλῆς (d) ὁ Σοφοκλῆς

D. TRANSLITERATION and DERIVATIVES

Example: The English word “cycle” is derived from the Greek word (a) γύγλος (b) κύκλος (c) γοῦγλος (d) κοῦκλος

VOCABULARY
for the
COLLEGE GREEK EXAM (CGE)

This list contains 250 words for which students are expected to know basic definitions when taking the CGE. It contains 100 verbs, 100 nouns and 50 adjectives. This list supplements the words listed on the main syllabus. Any words used on the exam which are not on this list will be glossed.

VERBS

ἀγγέλλω announce	δράω do
ἄγω lead, bring	δύναμαι be able, can
αἰρέω take (mid: choose)	ἐθέλω wish
αἰτέω ask	εἰμί be
ἀκούω hear	εἶμι go (future only)
ἀμαρτάνω make a mistake, miss the target	εἶπον say (aorist only)
ἀποθνήσκω die	ἐλαύνω drive
ἀρπάζω snatch	ἔρχομαι come, go (present only)
ἄρχω rule	ἐσθίω eat
βαίνω walk	εὕρισκω find
βάλλω throw	ἔχω have, hold
βλάπτω hurt	ζάω live
βλέπω see	ζητέω seek
βουλεύω deliberate	θεραπεύω serve
βούλομαι want, wish	ἵστημι stand
γαμέω marry	καλέω call
γελάω laugh	κελεύω order
γίγνομαι become, be	κινδυνεύω risk
γινώσκω come to know, learn	κινέω move
γράφω write	κλέπτω steal
δεῖ it is necessary	κόπτω cut
δείκνυμι show	κρίνω judge, decide
δέχομαι welcome	κρύπτω hide
δηλόω show	κτείνω kill
διδάσκω teach	κωλύω prevent
δίδωμι give	λαγχάνω obtain by a lottery
διώκω pursue	λαλέω talk, babble
δοκεῖ it seems	λαμβάνω take

λανθάνω do without being noticed
 λέγω say, speak
 λείπω leave
 λύω loosen, destroy
 μανθάνω learn
 μέλλω intend, going to
 μένω stay
 μισέω hate
 νικάω conquer, win
 νομίζω consider
 οἶδα know (perfect only)
 ὀράω see
 ὀφείλω owe
 παιδεύω educate
 πάσχω suffer, experience
 παύω stop
 πείθω persuade
 πέμπω send
 πίπτω fall
 πιστεύω trust
 ποιέω make
 πράττω do
 σκοπέω look at
 στέλλω send
 τέμνω cut
 τίθημι put
 τίκτω give birth
 τιμάω honor
 τρέπω turn
 τρέφω nourish
 τρέχω run
 τυγχάνω happen (+ *part.*) hit, meet, have (+ *gen.*)
 φαίνω show, appear
 φέρω carry
 φεύγω flee, run away
 φημί say
 φιλέω love
 φρονέω think
 φυλάττω guard
 φύω produce
 χρή it is fated, necessary
 χωρέω move
 ψεύδω lie, cheat
 ὠφελέω help

NOUNS

νίκη type 17
 ἀγάπη –ης, ἡ love, charity
 ἀνάγκη –ης, ἡ necessity
 ἀρετή –ῆς, ἡ excellence
 ἄτη –ης, ἡ blindness, destruction
 γνώμη –ης, ἡ thought, intelligence, opinion
 δίκη –ης, ἡ justice, lawsuit

εἰρήνη –ης, ἡ peace
 ἐπιστολή –ῆς, ἡ message, letter
 ἡδονή –ῆς, ἡ pleasure
 μάχη –ης, ἡ battle
 μηχανή –ῆς, ἡ device
 νίκη –ης, ἡ victory
 τέχνη –ης, ἡ art, skill
 τιμή –ῆς, ἡ value
 τύχη –ης, ἡ luck
 φωνή –ῆς, ἡ sound, voice
 ψυχή –ῆς, ἡ breath, soul

χώρα type 7

ἀγορά, –ᾶς, ἡ market place
 αἰτία –ας, ἡ cause
 βία –ας, ἡ force
 ἐκκλησία –ας, ἡ assembly
 ἡμέρα –ας, ἡ day
 θεά –ᾶς, ἡ goddess
 χώρα –ας, ἡ country
 ὥρα –ας, ἡ season

γλῶττα type 3

γλῶττα –ης, ἡ tongue, language
 δόξα –ης, ἡ glory, opinion
 θάλαττα –ης, ἡ sea

μοῖρα type 2

γαῖα –ας, ἡ earth
 μοῖρα –ας, ἡ fate

πολίτης type 4

δεσπότης –ου, ὁ master
 ποιητής –ου, ὁ creator, poet
 πολίτης –ου, ὁ citizen
 στρατιώτης –ου, ὁ soldier

ἵππος type 32+2

ἄγγελος –ου, ὁ messenger, angel
 ἄνθρωπος –ου, ὁ/ἡ human being
 βίος –ου, ὁ life
 δῆμος –ου, ὁ people
 δοῦλος –ου, ὁ slave
 ἐταῖρος –ου, ὁ companion
 ἥλιος –ου, ὁ sun
 θάνατος –ου, ὁ death
 θεός –ου, ὁ god
 θυμός –ου, ὁ soul, spirit
 ἰατρός –ου, ὁ doctor
 ἵππος –ου, ὁ horse
 κόσμος –ου, ὁ order
 κύκλος –ου, ὁ circle
 κύριος –ου, ὁ lord, master
 λόγος –ου, ὁ word

μῦθος –ου, ὁ story
 νόμος –ου, ὁ custom, law
 ξένος –ου, ὁ foreigner, stranger
 οἶκος –ου, ὁ house
 οὐρανός –οῦ, ὁ sky, heaven
 πόλεμος –ου, ὁ war
 ποταμός –οῦ, ὁ river
 ρυθμός –οῦ, ὁ rhythm
 στρατηγός –οῦ, ὁ general
 τόπος –ου, ὁ place, topic
 τύραννος –ου, ὁ ruler, tyrant
 υἱός –οῦ, ὁ son
 ὕπνος –ου, ὁ sleep
 φόβος –ου, ὁ fear
 χρόνος –ου, ὁ time

βίβλος –ου, ἡ book
 ὁδός –οῦ, ἡ road
 παρθένος –ου, ἡ girl

δῶρον type 7

δεῖπνον –ου, τό feast
 δένδρον –ου, τό tree
 δῶρον –ου, τό gift
 ἔργον –ου, τό work
 ἱερόν –οῦ, τό temple
 πρόσωπον –ου, τό face
 τέκνον –ου, τό child

ἐλπίς type 2

ἐλπίς –ίδος, ἡ hope
 ἔρωσ –ωτος, ὁ love

σῶμα type 5

γράμμα –ατος, τό letter
 εἰκός, εἰκότος, τό proper, probable
 πρᾶγμα –ατος, τό thing
 σῶμα –ατος, τό body
 χρῆμα –ατος, τό thing, (pl.) money

γένος type 7

γένος –ους, τό race, family
 ἔθνος –ους, τό nation
 ἔθος, –ους, τό custom, character
 εἶδος –ους, τό form
 ἔτος –ους, τό year
 κλέος –ους, τό glory
 τέλος –ους, τό end

πόλις type 4

πίστις, –εως, ἡ trust
 πόλις, –εως, ἡ a city
 ὕβρις –εως, ἡ offense, disrespect, arrogance
 φύσις –εως, ἡ nature

other types 4

ἄρχων –οντος, ὁ ruler, archon
 βασιλεύς, βασιλέως, ὁ king
 δαίμων –ονος, ὁ spirit, god, demon
 κῆρυξ –υκος, ὁ messenger

irregular 4

ἄνθρωπος, ἄνδρός, ὁ man
 γυνή, γυναικός, ἡ woman
 μήτηρ, μητρός, ἡ mother
 πατήρ, πατρός, ὁ father

ἀγαθός type 16

ἀγαθός –ή –όν good
 ἄλλος –η –ον other
 ἄριστος –η –ον best
 δεινός –ή –όν awesome
 δῆλος –η –ον clear
 ἕκαστος –η –ον each
 ἐμός –ή –όν my, mine
 κακός –ή –όν bad
 καλός –ή –όν beautiful
 μόνος –η –ον alone, single
 πρῶτος –η –ον first
 σός –ή –όν your, yours
 σοφός –ή –όν wise
 φίλος –η –ον beloved, dear
 χαλεπός –ή –όν difficult
 χρηστός –ή –όν useful

ἄξιος type 15

ἄξιος –α –ον worthy
 βάρβαρος –ον foreign, barbarous
 δεῦτερος –α –ον second
 ἑκάτερος –α –ον each of two
 ἐλεύθερος –α –ον free
 ἕτερος –α –ον other
 ἐχθρός –ά –όν hated
 ἡμέτερος –α –ον our
 μακρός –ά –όν long
 μικρός –ά –όν small
 μυρίος –α –ον countless
 ποῖος –α –ον what sort of?
 πονηρός –α –ον evil, painful
 πότερος –α –ον which of the two?
 ῥάδιος –α –ον easy

εὐδαίμων type 7

ἀμείνων –ον better
 βελτίων –ον better
 ἐλάσσων –ον smaller, less
 εὐδαίμων –ον happy, lucky, blessed
 ἥσσων –ον less, weaker

κρείσσων -ον stronger
πλείων, πλέον/πλείον more

ἀληθής type 3
ἀληθής -ές true
σαφής -ές clear
ψευδής -ές false

ἥδύς type 6
βαρύς -εῖα -ύ heavy
βραχύς -εῖα -ύ short

εὐθύς -εῖα -ύ straight
ἡδύς -εῖα, -ύ sweet
ὀξύς -εῖα -ύ sharp
ταχύς -εῖα -ύ quick

irregular 3
μέγας μεγάλη μέγα big
πᾶς πᾶσα πᾶν all
πολύς πολλή πολύ many