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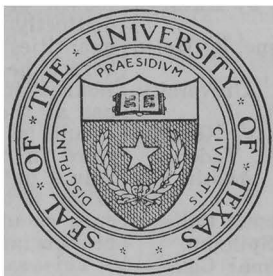
University of Texas Bulletin

No. 2208: February 22, 1922

University of Texas
Publications

Latin Leaflet

No. 2: February, 1922



PUBLISHED BY THE UNIVERSITY FOUR TIMES A MONTH, AND ENTERED AS
SECOND-CLASS MATTER AT THE POSTOFFICE AT AUSTIN, TEXAS,
UNDER THE ACT OF AUGUST 24, 1912

The *Latin Leaflet* issued by the Department of Classical Languages in the interest of Latin teaching in the high schools of Texas.

ROBERTA F. LAVENDER,
Editor.

SUMMER COURSES IN TEACHING LATIN

To the Latin Teachers of Texas:

At the meeting of the Classical Section of the State Teachers' Association last November it was the consensus of opinion that the growing enthusiasm for the study of Latin and for progressive methods of teaching it could best be fostered by bringing together in the various summer schools of the state as large numbers as possible of Latin teachers, thus arousing new inspiration and securing greater unity of purpose. A committee was appointed to make investigation and to help to disseminate information as to special method courses in the teaching of Latin offered in the summer session of 1922. Accordingly, letters were sent out to all the colleges of the state, and replies have so far been received from those listed below. The name of the instructor for the special method course is given in each case.

Baylor College, Belton, by Kathryn Bowen.

Simmons College, Abilene, by Helen Dow.

Southern Methodist University, Dallas, by J. S. McIntosh.

Southwestern University, Georgetown, (probably) by W. C. Vaden.

University of Texas, Austin, by Roberta F. Lavender.

North Texas State Normal College, Denton, by Mignonette Spilman.

East Texas State Normal College, Commerce, by Burney Flaniken and Ruby Terrill.

Sam Houston Normal Institute, Huntsville, by William Longino.

Southwest Texas State Normal College, San Marcos, by E. O. Tanner.

In all of these institutions, other valuable courses in Latin are offered, information concerning which may be secured by writing the registrar for a summer school bulletin.

RUBY TERRILL, Chairman.
February 15, 1922.

BEGINNERS' GREEK

I want to take a course in Beginners' Greek (No. 21) this summer. Are you interested? If so write to Dr. W. J. Battle, University of Texas, Austin.

We can have it, if we ask for it in sufficiently large numbers. Two-thirds of Greek 21 the first term, and one-third the second term is the slogan.

EMMA LEE SNUGGS.
Senior, June, 1922.

SOPHOMORE LATIN COM- POSITION

I want Latin 104 the second term of summer school. If you readers are interested let us join our interests in requesting it. We can have it, if enough of us want it. Write to Dr. Battle.

EMMA LEE SNUGGS.
ON TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

Experience has fully convinced the writer of this item that the best and quickest way to teach the accurate pronunciation of Latin words is by imitation. That is to say, the first-year Latin pupil should hear each new word, and each new form of an old word, met with during the first month or six weeks, carefully and distinctly pronounced, as to vowel quantities and accent, by the teacher, before he himself attempts to pronounce it. Then immediately, and not at the next recitation, the class should be called on to pronounce the word in concert, and next the individual pupil, or several pupils in rotation if the word is sufficiently difficult, should be required to give the pronunciation.

This same procedure can be well applied to the pronunciation of the words in a paradigm. For example, if the lesson for tomorrow includes the declension of *vir* or the conjugation of *porto* in the imperfect indicative, the teacher can insure success and create confidence for her pupils by devoting five minutes *today* to (1) the pronunciation of the entire paradigm by herself, the pupils looking at the printed words as she pronounces them, followed by (2) the pronunciation of the same paradigm by the class in concert, and finally tested by (3) having individual pupils give the pronunciation. In drilling on the paradigm next day, the concert recitation is a refreshing variation from the usual method.

A similar plan should be followed in the reading of Latin sentences preparatory to translating them. It is

idle to object that such methods take too much time, for the whole procedure, with its three stages, will consume considerably less time than does the halting, timid, error-forming mispronunciation given by the average pupil when unguided. Furthermore, the second step, viz., concert pronunciation, may soon be dispensed with in the reading of sentences.

Besides leading quickly to an accurate and confident pronunciation of Latin by the beginner, the plan outlined above keeps the class exercises from dragging. It develops the feeling that the recitation is, first, a co-operative enterprise between teacher and pupils, second, a group enterprise, and third, an enterprise that generates speed and momentum.

A class that has thus learned by imitation to pronounce correctly two or three hundred Latin words is then ready to learn inductively the rules for pronunciation. In fact the brighter pupils will have discovered for themselves many of the general principles involved, and the class as a whole will, under the teacher's guidance, now comprehend readily rules which six weeks before they had no basis for understanding or applying. After this the deductive method of teaching pronunciation will have at least a chance to succeed; whereas, if relied upon at the outset, it is almost doomed to fail.

E. O. TANNER,
Southwest Texas Normal.

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS

Almost every teacher fails in the first year to give enough time to the teaching of principal parts of verbs, and teachers are rare who develop verbs by systems. Hours given to these two points early enough will save days later on, and much discouragement. Let the student know definitely the forms made on the contemporaneous infinitive, and then let him practice on paper and on the board till he masters this group. Likewise for the group built on the perfect indicative and also on the fourth principal part, the antecedent participle.

It is well to work back from the English. Therefore, in assigning the principal parts of verbs the teacher should help the student to get an English word for the first and the fourth principal parts of the verb:

Stagnare (stagnant)—stagnatus (stagnation)

vacare (vacant)—vacatus (vacation)
persuadere (persuade)—persuasus (persuasion)
respondere (respond)—responsus (response)
ridere (deride)—risus (derision)
videre (provide)—visus (provision)
venire (convene)—ventus (convention)
ducere (introduce)—ductus (introduction)
struere (construe)—structus (construction)
extinguere (extinguish)—extinctus (extinct, extinction)
fundere (refund)—fusus (refuse)
tangere (tangent)—tactus (tact)
secare (secant)—sectus (sect)
pellere (expel)—pulsus (expulsion)
scribere (inscribe)—scriptus (inscription)
defendere (defend)—defensus (defense)
mittere (commit)—missus (commission)
ferre (offer)—latus (oblation)
volvere (revolve)—volutus (revolution)
petere (compete)—petitus (competition)
vincere (convince)—victus (conviction)
ludere (elude)—lusus (elusive, allusion)
stringere (stringent)—strictus (strict, district)

WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO CON-STRUE?

The word construe (from *cum* and *struere*) means to arrange together. To give a construction is exactly the same thing as to give the syntax. Syntax is from Greek, construe and construction from Latin. Therefore, when a teacher says construe a word, she desires that the student give (1) its form, (2) its relation in the sentence. A construction should be put in tabular form to cover usually one line, never more than two lines.

To illustrate, take this Latin: *Argonautae hoc facto eis gratias libenter egerunt, quorum auxilio e tanto periculo erepti essent; bene enim sciebant non sine auxilio deorum rem tam feliciter evenisse.* Construe the words in *italics*.

1. *Hoc facto*—egerunt: antecedent participle, ablative case; ablative absolute, antecedent time.
2. *Erepti e periculo*: noun, ablative; separation.
3. *quorum* (=cum eorum) auxilio

erepti essent: pluperfect subjunctive; cause.

4. *sciebant*—*rem evenisse*: antecedent active infinitive; indirect statement, object.

Note that only enough words are set down to give clearly the relation. The word to be construed is underscored. The governing word is given. The form is stated, and then the relation. No repetition is allowed. Students should be taught to express concisely what they mean.

Teachers should give daily drills at the board to cover the key words in the passage assigned for reading. Ten words to be construed is a splendid assignment for home work and a task easily read by the teacher.

CONSONANT CHANGES

Late in the third century A.D., there was an interchange between intervocalic *v* and *b*; e.g. *taberna*=*taverna* (English tavern). This will help the student to see how *Danuvius* becomes in English Danube. It will show how *prove* and *probe* have the same origin.

Early Latin loan words in Teutonic languages show *w* for Latin *v*. So we have wall from *vallum*; wine from *vinum*; wick (Cheswick, Brunswick, etc.) from *vicus*.

There was early a tendency to drop an intervocalic *v*; e.g. *bovum*=*boum*; *bovibus*=*bobus*; *sivis*=*sis*.

As early as the third century B.C. the common people had a habit of dropping initial *h*. Note this list: *arena*, *arundo*, *Aedui*, *erus*, *umerus*, Cicero strove to fix the *h* in polite speech. St. Augustine (Lindsay's *The Latin Language*, from which these notes are taken) playfully remarks that the dropping of an *h* was generally regarded as a more heinous sin than an offense against the law of Christian charity.

Likewise intervocalic *h* was often dropped. Quintilian says that *deprendere* and not *deprehendere* was the form in his day. Gellius (second century A.D.) speaks of these forms as obsolete: *sepulchrum*, *lachruma*, *vehemens*, *incohare*.

Perhaps these explanations will serve to fasten in the mind of the student the origin and meaning of the verb *debere* (*de*+*habere*) and *praebere* (*prae*+*habere*).

RELATIVE CLAUSES

The relative clause may be introduced by:

1. The relative pronoun (in all its genders and cases both singular and plural). This relation (*re*+*fero*) refers to a preceding noun or pronoun called its antecedent (*ante*+*cedere*=to go before).

2. The three relative adjectives each with its own antecedent: *tantus*—*quantus*; *talis*—*qualis*; *tot*—*quot*.

3. The relative adverbs: *ubi* (=locus in quo); *unde* (=locus ex quo); *quo* (=locus ad quem); *cur* (=causa ex qua).

When the relative clause employs the indicative mood (direct discourse), it is considered as adjectival and is made to modify a substantive with which it agrees in gender and number but not in case. This is by far the largest group of relatives and the one with which the students should become most familiar.

There are four kinds of relative clauses that are adverbial. These take the subjunctive. Before attempting to construe or to diagram, these relatives should be split as follows:

a. *qui*+subjunctive for cause=*cum* is+subjunctive.

b. *qui*+subjunctive for concession=*cum* is+subjunctive.

c. *qui*+subjunctive for purpose=*ut* is+subjunctive.

d. *qui*+subjunctive for result=*ut* is+subjunctive.

The form of *is* (as to gender, number, and case) is exactly what the form of *qui* was, e.g., *qui*=*cum* is, *quae*=*cum* ea; *quod*=*cum* id, *cuius*=*cum* eius; *quorum*=*cum* eorum, etc.

Causal clauses introduced by *qui* have such adjectives as these preceding: *felix*, *miser*. The *cum* clause, therefore, modifies the adjective. The *qui* clause of purpose is readily recognized and of frequent occurrence. There are very few clauses of concession introduced by *qui*. It seems best to give a longer explanation of the relative called characteristic.

THE CHARACTERISTIC RELATIVE

The clause called characteristic greatly disturbs children of this generation. There are very few of these relatives and yet they seem to frighten and to stand out on every page—a veritable bugaboo. Pupils

try to construe every plain innocent relative clause as a characteristic.

Perhaps this scheme will help to make the matter clearer. Adverbial result clauses are introduced by *ut* and by *qui*. Clauses that have *ut* have in the preceding main clause such words as these: *ita*, *sic*, *adeo*, *talis*, *tot*, *tantus*, *is* (= *eius modi*) and *tam*+positive adjectives (*tam fortis*, *tam dulcis*, etc.), and *tam*+positive adverbs (*tam fortiter*, *tam libenter*, etc.). Such clauses as these seldom give trouble. Adverbial result clauses that are introduced by *qui* have these same "sign words" (if not expressed, they are to be supplied), e.g., *nemo est tam senex qui non putet se victurum esse unum annum* (Cic. *De Senectute*). The clause of result that is introduced by *qui* is called characteristic.

These words that precede serve to caution the student to look out for adverbial result, for *qui* and the subjunctive:

1. Negative antecedent: *nemo est qui*; *nihil est quod*.
2. Question antecedent: *quis est qui*; *quid est quod*.
3. Indefinite antecedent: *aliquis*, *aliquid*, *quidam*, etc.
4. Omitted antecedent: *Sunt qui*.
5. Number antecedent: *Duo sunt qui*.
6. Special words antecedent: *Dignus*, *indignus*, *idoneus est qui*.

The problem for the teacher is to devise a scheme to cause the pupil to detect the special antecedent that calls for *qui* and not for *ut*, and to get him to supply the special words if they are not in the text. After he has done this and has diagrammed the clause a dozen times he should understand.

Try these English sentences as illustrations:

1. Do you know any boy who would strike his mother? (so cruel that—*tam crudelis*).
2. There isn't a girl in this room that would cheat (*tam improba*).
3. I know three boys who promised to burn their neighbor's house (*tam depravi*).
4. These boys are worthy to be sent to prison (*digni*).
5. I know a man who can not count his money (*tam dives*).

A PLEA FOR DIAGRAMMING

A diagram is a graphic method for construing. Some simple scheme, agreed upon, saves time for teacher

and pupil, and helps to clarify a sentence which often seems a puzzle. The scheme used in Reed & Kellogg's English Grammar can be adapted readily to Latin.

Grammatical nomenclature is itself an argument for diagramming; e.g., *preposition* means a putting before, a thing put before; *apposition*, a putting near, a thing put near; *conjunction*, a joining together; *adjective*, thrown to; *adverb*, next to the verb; *co-ordinate*, arranged alongside; *sub-ordinate*, arranged under.

Some who do not believe in diagramming say it seems unnecessary. Why then have figures for theorems in geometry? Why have students work problems in arithmetic or algebra? Some also argue that a student may be able to diagram and yet not know the real meaning of the sentence. We could as well argue that the child could work out his problem and yet not understand what he had done.

Those who advocate diagramming do so because they believe it forces a student to exact thinking and because they think it saves time in class. Every student in a large class may have an opportunity to recite by this method and the class is held to excellent team work, and, best of all, students (old as well as young) like to diagram. Texas teachers are urged to try the method and to begin with first-year students. The diagram scheme fits in well with the Question and Answer method (illustrated in the lesson on the ablative of means in *Latin Leaflet No. 1*).

Take for example the passage quoted under *What Does It Mean to Construe*. These questions and answers assist the student in deciding where a word, phrase, or clause belongs:

1. *Qui gratias dederunt?* Argonautae . . . dederunt.
2. *Quando A. gratias dederunt?* Hoc facto Argonautae . . . dederunt.
3. *Quo modo A. gratias dederunt?* Libenter Argonautae dederunt.
4. *Qua re A. gratias dederunt?* Cum erepti essent (=servati essent).
5. *Unde A. servati erant?* E periculo servati erant.
6. *Quali e periculo servati erant?* Tanto e periculo . . .
7. *Cur etiam gratias egerunt?* Quod sciebant, etc. (sciebant enim = coordinate causal clause).
8. *Quid sciebant?* Rem auxilio deorum evenisse sciebant.

Diagram A will explain the posi-

tions in the simple sentence: 1. subject; 2. predicate; 3. direct object; 4. predicate nominative (attribute complement); 5. second accusative (factive objective); 6. adjective or genitive; 7. participle; 8. preposition; 9. accusative phrase, ablative, or dative; 10. adverb.

Diagram B will explain the seven subordinate adverbial clauses. These clauses are joined to the main clause by a dotted line, the conjunction (11) being placed about half-way the line. Note that this dotted line joins the two predicates for temporal, conditional, purpose, concessive, and most causal clauses. Note that clauses of result and comparison (comparison of equality and of inequality) are governed by an adjective or an adverb. Let the dotted line therefore, be drawn from the governing word (adjective or adverb) to the verb of the result clause and to the verb, adjective or adverb of the comparative clause.

E.g. 1. Ut sensi—sic dixi. Sic modifies dixi, ut joins from sic to sensi (often written as one conjunction sicut).

2. Quot homines, tot sententiae. The line is drawn from tot to quot. So also for talis-qualis; tantus-quantus.

3. Ille est tam fortis quam leo (est fortis). The line is drawn from fortis to fortis and on this line tam-quam (as) is placed.

4. Ille est fortior quam leo (est fortior). The line is drawn from fortior to fortior and on the line quam (than) is placed.

There are five noun clauses: indirect statement, indirect question, indirect command, quod-the-fact-that clauses, and substantive result (Diagram C). Each of these groups of clauses is governed by a special type of verb. If these verbs are active, the clauses are objects; if passive, the clauses are subjects; if there is a demonstrative pronoun (usually hoc, illud or haec, illa) preceding, the clauses are in apposition. In every case the noun clause is diagrammed as a separate sentence on a line above and joined by an upright to the line of its governing verb. A noun clause may also be a predicate nominative or a second accusative (=factive objective). A participle or an infinitive of a verb may govern whatever the verb in its finite form calls for; for this reason, a noun clause may be the direct object of an active participle or infinitive, and the second

accusative (of verbs that govern two accusatives, one of the person, one of the thing).

Diagram D explains the ablative absolute. The ablative absolute is not well named. No phrase can stand apart. This phrase for the most part is an alternate construction for the adverbial clauses of time, cause, concession, condition, and should be diagrammed in the same way; the substantive is the quasi-subject; the participle the quasi-predicate. The dotted line is drawn from the governing verb to the participle, and a parenthesis encloses the phrase.

Diagram E explains the relative clause which takes the indicative mood. This relative is adjectival and goes below a substantive. The dotted line should be drawn after every word in the clause has been placed, for the relative may go in every place indicated by the figures in Diagram C (taking 6 as a genitive).

Bear this in mind:

1. An infinitive is a noun (verbal noun) and may be diagrammed in the direct discourse like any other noun, except that it should be set up above the line (12) to allow for object or modifier. The cotemporaneous active infinitive is the form commonly found as a substantive. The accusative and infinitive are diagrammed as 1 and 2 in the noun clause group.

2. A gerund is a neuter verbal noun—the oblique cases of the cotemporaneous active infinitive. Therefore a gerund is diagrammed as a noun for ablative, 9; for ad+accusative, 8 and 9.

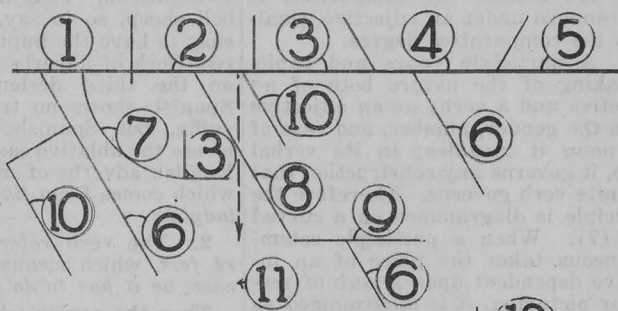
3. A gerundive is an adjective, a passive verbal adjective made from a transitive verb, and is diagrammed like any other adjective. The chief gerundive phrase is diagrammed like 9 and 6 in the diagram plate.

4. Phrases modify verbs. A few phrases modify nouns made from verbs: hoc sensi de senectute, or haec est mea sententia de senectute. The gerund and gerundive phrase (ad+accusative) modify verbs for the most part, but also such adjectives as these: paratus, pronus, propensus, acer, alacer, satis.

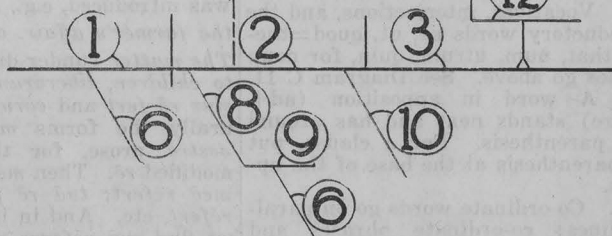
5. A genitive usually modifies a substantive. A few genitives are governed by verbs. In such cases they are diagrammed under verbs. An ablative of description, as an alternate for the genitive of description, modifies a substantive.

6. All cases except genitives are governed by verbs or by adjectives.

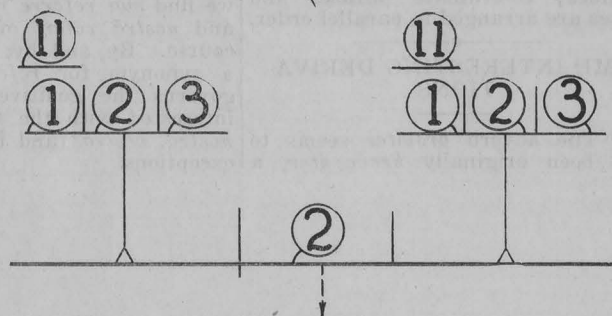
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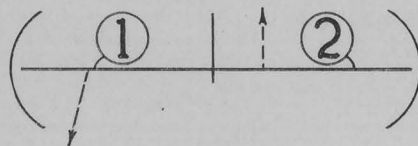
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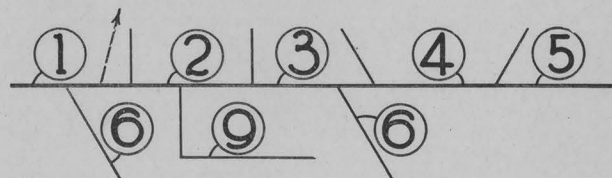
C



D



E



a. An ablative of specification is diagrammed under an adjective usually in the positive degree.

b. An ablative of comparison is diagrammed under an adjective usually in the comparative degree.

7. A participle (*pars* and *capiō*, partaking of the nature both of an adjective and a verb) as an adjective takes the gender, number, and case of the noun it modifies; in its verbal force, it governs any construction that its finite verb governs. Therefore the participle is diagrammed on a curved line (7). When a participle cotemporaneous takes the place of an infinitive dependent upon a verb of seeing or picturing, it is diagrammed as an infinitive (accusative+infinitive).

8. Vocatives, interjections, and the introductory words *ne*, *ut*, *quod*=the-fact-that, *num*, *utrum*, *quin*, for noun clauses go above. See Diagram C 11.

9. A word in apposition (*ad*+*ponere*) stands next and has around it a parenthesis. For a clause, put the parenthesis at the base of the upright.

10. Co-ordinate words go on parallel lines; co-ordinate phrases and clauses are arranged in parallel order.

SOME INTERESTING DERIVATIONS

1. The adverb *breviter* seems to have been originally *breve iter*, a

short road, or as we say a *short cut*. Then the two words became a compound *breviter*, like the English *straightway*. Take this adverb as the bell sheep, so to say, and it becomes easy to have the pupils gather the entire flock of adverbs of manner made on the third declension adjectives. Spanish shows no traces of the *iter* suffix, but Spanish adverbs end in *mente* the ablative case of Latin *mens*. English adverbs of manner end in *ly*, which comes from *like*, e.g., *womanly*, *ladylike*.

2. The verb *rēfert* is made from *rē fert*, which means *it bears on the case*, or *it has to do with the matter*.

Then the person whom it concerned was introduced, e.g., *It has to do with the farmer's affair*, *agricolae rē fert*. The matter (under discussion) relates to children, *liberorum rē fert*. Then *eius rē fert* and *eorum rē fert*. Naturally the forms *meā*, *nostrā*, *tuā*, *vestrā* arose, for these possessives modified *rē*. Then *meā rē fert* became *meā rēfert*; *tuā rē fert*, became *tuā rēfert*, etc. And in indirect discourse we find *suā rēferre* representing *meā* and *nostrā rēfert* of the direct discourse. By and by, *interest* became a synonym for *rēfert* and likewise governs the genitive of the person interested with the forms *meā*, *tuā*, *nostrā*, *vestrā* (and in O. O. *suā*) as exceptions.