CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY, NORTHRIDGE

A PROJECT TO REMEDIATE CERTAIN ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS SKILLS DEFICIENCIES THROUGH INSTRUCTION IN LATIN

A thesis submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Education
Secondary Reading
by
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ABSTRACT

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Remedial readers, especially those of certain minorities, exhibit specific deficiencies in language arts skills. These have been identified as imprecise listening and corresponding low auditory discrimination, a tendency to drop ending syllables of words which may interrupt correct and swift sound-grapheme identification in reading and spelling, insufficient repertoire of vocabulary skills, and lack of structural analysis skills to facilitate efficient reading comprehension.

The solution set forth in this project suggests that the study of Latin can ameliorate the deficiencies listed. Latin's inflectional system for signalling meaning forces clear and complete listening and enunciation. Its lexicon survives in roughly seventy per
cent of literate English derivatives. Its structures and grammatical relationships are static and can be studied in a systematic way in order to arrive at structural generalizations.

This solution is based primarily on two psychological principles of learning theory -- the need for generalization practice during the appropriate developmental stage, early adolescence (Piaget), and the transfer of learning through contrastive analysis (Hunter). Its final contribution to improving the skills of deficient readers is an affective one. Because it is a non-threatening language, in the sense that no one speaks it, the successes in manipulating it help to enhance the self-image of its students.

The materials are designed to reinforce the language arts skills of Latin, and produce the greatest amount of transfer of these skills to English. They have been chosen to interest secondary students and attempt to duplicate the success other school districts have had with elementary students.
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Identification of the Problem

Reading is a language skill that is placed third in the hierarchy of the language arts skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In the United States, reading instruction in the formal sense -- readiness, decoding, structural analysis, vocabulary development, comprehension, critical and purposeful reading -- begins in kindergarten.

For the first three to four years of school, instruction emphasizes decoding, vocabulary development and expansion; but it depends on decoding ability. Developmental reading continues the instructional continuum and tends to assume that decoding skills have been mastered to grade level and maturational expectations.

Background of the Problem

Reading achievement test scores, given under legislative mandate in California, have indicated that reading ability in decoding, vocabulary proficiency, comprehension, and structural analysis is below levels considered desirable by a literate society. Analyses of impediments to proficiency in reading have revealed deficiencies in
reading skills, per se, and related language arts skills of listening, speaking (pronunciation and enunciation), vocabulary recognition and use, orthography, and standard usage in speech and writing. These impediments seem especially apparent in minority students.

Minority students exhibit reading deficiencies to a greater degree than non-minority students in school achievement and in self-esteem. The students are secondary, remedial readers -- from two to four years deficient in reading as identified by a standardized achievement test -- from minority groups which exhibit certain, identifiable, attendant language arts deficiencies.

The problem that will be treated is remedial readers at the secondary level from minorities, Black and Chicano, exhibit certain tendencies that interfere with efficient reading: imprecise listening ability and corresponding, habitual, low level of auditory discrimination; a tendency to drop ending syllables which may interrupt correct, immediate sound/symbol grapheme identification in reading and spelling; insufficient repertoire of vocabulary bases and affixes; lack of comprehension; and an attitude of expectation of failure that is a self-fulfilling, vicious cycle.
**Definition of Terms**

Listening is the ability to discriminate initial, medial, and terminal phonemes in words.

Oral precision is the ability to utter initial, medial and terminal phonemes in words and sentences with correct accent, intonation, juncture and fluency for communication.

Reading is the ability to gain information from printed symbols as evidenced by some behavioral response, such as answering questions on reading material that display understanding.

**Purpose for the Project**

This project has for its purpose to provide English language-arts skill reinforcement through the study of Latin. The instructional program includes these goals:

1. improvement in skills of listening and speaking;
2. improvement in reading comprehension in literary, critical, and interpretive modes;
3. increase in the positive self-image and esteem through success in manipulating a set of language symbols.

The details for implementing these goals will be discussed in Chapter III, "The Solution."
Rationale

This study is based on the following theories:

1. Piagetian developmental schema
2. Transfer of learning
3. Similarity and Contrast Analyses in foreign language learning
4. Attitudinal effect of foreign language study

The following theories of psychological and educational research are offered as bases for the possibility of the relationship between Latin and English:

1. Piaget ascribes to adolescents the ability to generalize; i.e., the power to conceptualize the form of things as form, not determined by concrete reality. This ability to generalize is necessary to understand the structure of language in a sophisticated way and to use the structure in a mature fashion.

2. Transfer of learning functions operationally during generalization; generalizations of language principles are appropriate for this transfer by two techniques -- similarity comparison and contrast analysis.

3. Teaching in a carefully structured sequence one language skill is effective on the development of a corresponding, equivalent, or con-
secutive skill in the same language or in another.

4. Language requires skill in three domains: motor, intellectual, attitudinal, in that the language user must physically produce or interpret sound, develop linguistic concepts intellectually, must use language as the medium for expressing his inner-most images, feelings, and attitudes.

Summary

Secondary, remedial reading students exhibit certain deficiencies in language arts skills. Using Piagetian theory of language generalization as a base, this project offers Latin as a contrastive medium to achieve language proficiency.
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The related literature is divided into four sections:
1. the literature dealing with the theories upon which the rationale is based;
2. literature about the specific language arts deficiencies exhibited by minority students;
3. literature relating to the affective results of foreign language study;
4. literature that describes the empirical research that has preceded this study.

Piaget ascribes to adolescents, between eleven and fifteen years, the ability to generalize; i.e., the power to conceptualize the form of things as form and not determined by concrete reality; this ability to generalize is necessary to understand the structure of language in a sophisticated way, and use the structure in a mature fashion.1

Generalization building depends on the identification and understanding of the key elements, major points, or discriminators, important features or ideas, and processes from where the generalization is derived. After identification and understanding are evident,
generalization must be successfully applied by learners to highly similar situations to insure internalization and subsequent formalized operational manipulation.

In Phillip's explanation of Piaget's theory, he states that at the Piagetian developmental level of formal operations, from ages eleven to fifteen and beyond, students can begin to generalize existing structures to new content. One possible educational implication from this theory of "formal operations" is that the student be given experiences in generalization at precisely the stage where he is able to perform the task. Manipulation of language, of course, is evident before adolescence; however, the formalization of the grammatical, inner-logical structure and conceptualizations of the language occurs most readily at the developmental stage of formal operations.

The learning of generalizations provides powerful transfer to other learnings; e.g., the generalization of the function of certain structure in Latin -- the ending morpheme to signal plural -- reinforces the teaching of the accompanying generalization of the terminal plural endings -- s, es, z -- in English for similar classes of words, nouns. In Teaching for Transfer, Madeline Hunter suggests that teachers use the following strategies to facilitate transfer learning:
1. categorize; i.e., group by certain properties;
2. identify critical properties;
3. deal sequentially with complexities;
4. operate from generalizations;
5. make explicit and label attributes which guide in each of the preceding.³

Further, Metfessel, in "Correlates with School Success and Failure," has identified low achievers as being crippled in the fundamental concept that objects have names, that is desirable to label or name all things.⁴ This desirable and important skill can be accomplished to reasonable and practical levels in Latin learning because: first, it is not considered to be a viable language -- its structure is static and not subject generally to further change; second, in Latin all words are labeled, the familiar Latinate scheme (the bane of linguists working in English); functions or words are named, a panoply of terms; relationships among words are labeled; all these structures remain in their categories and can be identified by regular signals in the language. These structural properties or similarities in function carry over to English conceptually, linguistic labeling notwithstanding. Nouns and pronouns label; adjectives and adverbs describe qualities or modify; verbs state action or state of being; prepositions act as relationship
words of time, space, direction, agency, etc.; conjunctions join elements together in one sense or another. This aspect of Latin at the crucial formalizing stage focuses on the deficiencies that Metfessel has described.

Hunter further enumerates four factors which generate transfer:

1. similarity of the two learning situations;
2. student's association of the learnings;
3. degree of effectiveness of original learning;
4. perception of essential or unvarying elements of both learnings.

In each case, the application of similarity analysis of contrast analysis would provide opportunity for learning by transfer.

Listening is the first skill in learning a language. Secondary students who do not function well in a language are not babies; therefore, it is not a teaching task to instill listening patterns in them, but to ameliorate the habits of bad listening. Kenneth Johnson gives evidence to support the observation that minority youngsters have learned to shut out noise to survive in the highly stimulating environment of the street. This habit carries over to the instructional environment and affects their ability to distinguish meaningful sounds in a school language setting.
In "Interrelating Listening and Reading," Hollingsworth lists certain common elements between the two skills: vocabulary, sentence patterns, organization of ideas, adjustment to function of language. Listening comprehension is positively related to reading comprehension; given the premise of transfer, it may be concluded that effective training in listening supports training in reading comprehension.

Oral speech follows listening; it is, further, the most common mode of communication among people; its degree of competency and flexibility in appropriate use is used to characterize people.

Mark Seng, in "Learning Theories and Intellectual Development," makes a comment on the need for extensive vocabulary; "the larger the number of words, the higher is the probability of establishing new relationships among concepts." An efficient, mature reader needs to have in his instantly recognizable repertoire thousands more words than he will normally use in listening, speech, or writing.

In studies (spanning the past fifty years) completed in 1973 by the Human Engineering Laboratory and Johnson O'Connor Research Foundation, there has been a continuous drop in vocabulary scores. Even accounting for regional differences in vocabulary ability, the national
average is declining and the nation seems to be witnessing a crisis in verbal proficiency. Individuals who exhibit minimal control of language tend to have greater problems in dealing with stressful situations constructively. There seems to be a relationship between low vocabulary and violence. People who have few verbal skills, tend to express their frustrations physically rather than verbally, often with violent results. In studies done on inner city children and adults rehabilitating from drug addiction, there is a common thread; an extremely low level of vocabulary.9

Structural analysis is used in reading as a tool to facilitate efficiency in comprehension; another way to state this is to say that teaching students structural analysis in a language, those patterns in which words are placed to mean, helps the student to establish criterial sets of features that have functional equivalency.

Barmuth offers an operational definition of the concept of comprehension in "Operational Definition of Comprehension Instruction," when he describes it as "a set of generalized knowledge acquisition skills which permit people to acquire and exhibit information as a result of reading."10 Again there is the inclusion of the word, "generalized." Goodman further states that reading is a receptive phase of language in which one works backward
from surface structure, first deriving rules and, subsequently, the deep structure. One must discover grammatical relationships to determine semantic interpretation. The grammatical relationships in Latin, because they are static, can be conceptualized; careful instruction through constrative analysis provides the impetus for transfer to English grammatical relationships, alive and more fluid. For a student to generalize about the structural connections of one language that signal meaning is to help him make generalizations about the structure and consequent meaning in another.

Seng states further that learning has three categories of skills: intellectual, motor, attitudinal. Language learning requires all three in that the learner must develop linguistic concepts, produce sounds through his physical equipment, and have the desire to communicate something, to reflect some attitude.

In the affective domain, too, the failure syndrome has often been responsible for the blocking of motivation to and ease of reaching formal operational development levels and has blocked transfer in language learning, especially in remedial reading students. Dr. Paul Brardwein, in an address to curriculum specialists on March 5, 1974, in Los Angeles, related an anecdote about a group of Puerto Rican dropouts he had been handed to teach. They were failure orientated, highly unskilled,
not motivated to learning, and deficient in language skills. He decided to teach them German for these reasons: it would have no built in, unpleasant connotations from previous failure; it would teach them the manipulation of a set of language symbols; no one would be able to label them failures since no one knew German among their peers; there was to be a certain amount of prestige in the ability to speak a language no one else knew better. His results were not surprising; the self-image of the students became more positive in the learning and use of the new skill; they experienced success in learning another language; the transfer to other learning commenced.

Mark Seng makes a similar point in "Correlates with School Success and Failure," in that since language repertoire reflects the innermost self and the cultural attitudes, it requires positive attitudes. Positive attitudes toward language occur when the success in using language in varying circumstances is evident.

There have been three extensive experiments in the United States using Latin to improve reading skills of students. They have been in effect in the elementary schools, in grades five and six in Philadelphia, Pa, Washington, D.C., and Indianapolis, Indiana.

In Philadelphia for the school year 1970-1971, three
major findings of the district evaluation were:

1. Performances of Latin pupils on the Iowa Vocabulary subtest was one full year higher than the performance of matched control pupils.

2. Latin pupils achieved mastery of the course content in Latin language skills, knowledge of classical culture, and English vocabulary.

3. The survey of pupils, parents, principals, and classroom teachers of pupils where the Latin teachers served (the FLES teachers were itinerant) showed that the Latin Program had wide acceptance and support.15

In Washington, D.C., the results of a study of the effect of Latin instruction on English reading skills of sixth grade students, school year 1970-71, reveal that one year instruction in Latin was effective in raising achievement levels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Comprehension</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>1.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fr.-Sp.-Gr.</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td>6.68</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No F.L.</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is to be noted that the children in French and Spanish control groups had four years of foreign language instruction as compared to one year instruction in Latin.16
For the school year, 1973-74, in Indianapolis, the intermediate Metropolitan Achievement Test, Forms H, pretest, Oct. 1973, and F, posttest, March, 1974, reveals these results on subtests for the experimental group receiving Latin instruction:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtest</th>
<th>Gain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word Knowledge</td>
<td>8 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>10 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>11 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>4 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math Computation</td>
<td>7 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math Concepts</td>
<td>8 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>5 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td>7 months</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In comparison of grand mean gains with the control groups, the results are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subtest</th>
<th>Experimental</th>
<th>Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word Knowledge</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spelling</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math Computation</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math Concepts</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math Problem Solving</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Studies</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Summary

Piagetian developmental psychology forms the basis for language transfer training. This training is needed because of identified deficiencies in language arts skills in disadvantaged students. Language study has increased language arts proficiency and has shown affective results in studies from the Philadelphia, Washington, D.C., and Indianapolis school districts.
Footnotes

1 Piaget, Jean, The Psychology of Intelligence, pp. 100-104.


3 Hunter, Madeline, Teaching for Transfer, p. 64, ff.

4 Metfessel, Newton, and Seng, Mark W., "Correlates with School Success and Failures," pp. 76-78.

5 Hunter, op. cit., p. 9.


7 Hollingsworth, Paul M., "Interrelating Listening and Reading," p. 63.


11 Goodman, Kenneth S., "Words and Morpheme in Reading," p. 28.

12 Seng, op. cit., p. 100.


14 Seng, op. cit., p. 110.


16 LeBovit, Judith, Director, A Study of the Effect of Latin Instruction on English Reading Skills of Sixth Grade Students in the Public Schools of the District of Columbia, School Year 1970-71, pp. 63-72.
CHAPTER III
SOLUTION

A carefully sequenced instructional program in Latin can provide opportunities for the amelioration of language skill deficiencies of remedial readers at the secondary level. For aural-oral skills, Latin exhibits a regularity not found in English that helps phonetic mastery. Because of its inflection structure, it demands attentive listening and precise pronunciation.

Latin is a phonetically regular language: each vowel exhibits only one sound, this difference is one of length, not signalled except in the graphic system by the presence or absence of a macron. Its consonants exhibit one sound each; diagraphs and blends are highly regular; there are five diphthongs; word accent is dependent on a totally regular set of rules; Latin has no silent letters, except in foreign borrowings; each syllable needs a vowel or diphthong for its sound; every letter is sounded. Since the functional meaning of Latin words is found within the form of the word itself, it is necessary to hear the entire word to gain its sense in an utterance, a powerful motivating device for careful listening and careful pronunciation. The morphemic changes in Latin words occur more frequently toward the end of the word;
this feature can help students habituated to drop the ends of words to state the entire word.

In reading skills, Latin provides for an increase of the vocabulary repertoire, grammatical relationships and structures, orthographical rules and syntactical processing.

One feature of Latin instruction for secondary remedial reading students is that vocabulary extension is an almost natural result. The transfer of Latin words and affixes to the literate English lexicon accounts for up to seventy percent of English words. Instruction will emphasize the facts that: Latin prepositions normally become English prefixes with minimal meaning change; Latin nouns and adjectives, in the nominative and stem forms are the lexical bases of many English nouns and adjectives; Latin verbs which signal meaning variations by internal changes in spelling retain a basic meaning, though in rather variant forms, in English verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Although the pronunciation system, accents, and dialects have changed the pronunciation of English words derived from Latin, much of the Latin root word remains in the graphic representation, a fact that would speed reading identification.

The relationships of words in an utterance is a simplistic definition of grammar. Skill in grammatical
conceptualization, though not an end in itself in language study, is an important means to generalizing about function/meaning in language statements. Latin provides for grammar understanding since it is not considered to be a viable language. In its structure it is static and not subject generally to further change. In Latin all words are labeled, functions of words are named, relationships among words are labeled; all these structures remain in their categories and can be identified by commonalities; these properties carry over to English as well conceptually, linguistic labeling notwithstanding.

Since the grammatical relationships among words in Latin are highly structured and regular, the generalizations about these relationships can be transferred. The contrast is most evident in the signalling devices—Latin uses inflections in words to send meaning; English uses order.

One must discover grammatical relationships to determine semantic interpretation. Latin grammatical relations, because they are static, can be conceptualized; careful instruction through contrastive analysis provides the impetus for transfer to English grammar, alive and more fluid. For a student to generalize about the structural connections of a language that signal meaning is to help him make generalizations about the structure and consequent meaning of the other.
Latin and English parts of speech share common functions for meaning.

**Nouns**

Nouns label and name. Nouns change form for different functions. These changes are regular in groups of nouns; the functional categories are named cases. In Latin, there are five most common, nominative, accusative, ablative, dative, and genitive. These cases represent separate meanings, and except for terminology, mean the same in English.

In Latin and English, the nominative case labels nouns and pronouns when they function as doers of action or receivers of passive action, subjective completers after copulative linking verbs.

In Latin, the accusative case inflection identifies a word when it functions as the direct receiver of a verb action, or as the object of certain prepositions (relationship words) that implicitly express action.

Latin ablative case inflection identifies a word when it functions as the object of a proposition that implies rest or place where, accompaniment, means.

The Latin dative case inflection labels a special function of a noun, the recipient of the direct object. This function in Latin and English requires the presence of certain verbs with certain double meaning, such as
give and entrust.

These three distinct and separate cases in Latin, dative, accusative, ablative, combine into one case in English, the objective. However, the functions remain distinct and discrete. The difference in inflection in Latin will help to discriminate the functions very often undistinguished in English. The signalling in Latin is much clearer.

The Latin genitive case signals possession; English uses three signals for this function — apostrophe plus s, s plus apostrophe, prepositional phrase of the noun.

The Latin vocative form, only occurring as a different inflection in two types of nouns -us and -ius nouns, nominative singular, signals the object of direct address. English in speech depends on an oral pause; in writing the addressee is signalled by a comma.

Pronouns

Pronouns take the place of nouns. There are different types: personal, interrogative, relative and reflexive, to signal different relationships. They are inflected and so occur in all cases, except reflexive, which are defective in the nominative case.

Adjectives

These describe, modify certain kinds of words; nouns and pronouns. There is agreement of gender (a
grammatical one), case, and number in inflectional endings. They can be compared and signal degree by medial inflectional changes.

**Adverbs**

These are describers and modifiers of verbs, adjectives and other adverbs. They can be compared through medial inflections. Their functions parallel English adverbial functions.

**Verbs**

Verbs in Latin, like English, express action or state of being. They occur in six tenses: present, imperfect, future, perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect. They express three person subjects, singular and plural number, active and passive voice, and three moods—indicative, imperative, and subjunctive. These various aspects of meaning are signalled by changes within the verb form. These signals are regular for the categories of verbs and occur towards the end of the verb form. Since the verb is complete in itself in indicating meaning, its position in the sentence is flexible, as is all Latin word order. Style or emphasis directs order, not meaning. The verb agrees with the subject in person and number.
Conjunctions

Conjunctions in both Latin and English are joiner words. They can be coordinate-connecting words or word groups equal in structure, position or semantic importance; or subordinate-joining words or word groups in a dependent relationship of time, direction, cause, et cetera.

Interjections

Interjections, as in English are emotional expressions and are unconnected to the structure of the sentence.

In spelling, an aspect of English that seems to have the least regular relationship with the component of the phonetic system, there is a Latin constancy of lexical morphemes maintained in the graphic system. Even though the spoken words sound dissimilar through accent or pronunciation, the written forms will contain a root that retains essential meaning and will aid in cueing the necessary elements for identification and generalization of English related words.

To become adept at processing the syntactic patterns of language, a student needs to recognize the various signals the language uses to convey meaning. The user of a language learns to expect certain kinds of words, given other clues in an utterance; e.g., The sailor
swept the ____ after the storm. Few native speakers would not choose deck or a synonym. The linguistic knowledge in play in the choice of deck is that after a verb, swept, and a determiner, the, the only kind of suitable word would be a noun; semantic knowledge at work would choose a word related to a ship because of the context clue of sailor.

Latin is a language very precise in its signaling. Inflectional changes in words happen for a reason, a signal for semantic or syntactic change, no matter the position of the word in the sentence; for example, magistra multos in aula docet. The logical choice is discipulós for the following reasons: syntactically the word is a noun in the accusative case because of the pattern indicated by a nominative, verb, accusative determiner that is masculine plural. Semantically, discipulos is a logical choice because of the lexical meaning of magistra-teacher, docet-teaches, aula-classroom. Multos, the adjective is the strongest clue because of the agreement rules governing adjective-noun phrases.

Practices that focus on syntactic processing in Latin provide for analogous practice, by transfer, in processing statements in reading English. The student in Latin becomes extremely conscious of the signals and
relationships among words in the sentence because of the regularity of the grammar. This unvarying aspect of Latin is the basis for contrastive analysis of English structural relationships that convey meaning.

Summary

Since Latin is a static language and its forms, structures, and relationships are unchanging, it acts as an ideal vehicle for grammatical conceptualization, a skill needed by the proficient reader. Much of the vocabulary base for English derives from Latin; this extends another skill needed by the competent reader.
CHAPTER IV
DESCRIPTION OF THE MATERIALS

The Latin materials are designed for manipulation in aural-oral-visual modes initially. Through various language techniques they will hear words, commands, and utterances, interpret the meaning, and respond to questions and commands orally. The reading of the material proceeds after certain degree of mastery aurally-orally. By focusing on structural kinds of questions, the students will analyze the grammatical relationships in the sentences. The final step in the Latin is to generate parts of the sentence, using the cloze method, to apply the syntactic processing skills.

The English extension materials focus on Latin morphemes as they occur in English words. This is mainly vocabulary manipulation using skills of structural analysis for Latin derived bases and affixes.

The Latin vocabulary used is based primarily on English vocabulary prevalent in secondary reading texts and workbooks. Some of the vocabulary has less English carryover because the words are function words, such as structural question words. All vocabulary entry forms have to be memorized to form a basic sight and sound repertoire. All cases of nouns, adjectives and pronouns
will be used; normally in verbs, third person will be most common. Other words do not change form. All lexical bases will be underlined.

The vocabulary entries list the following information:

- **Nouns**
  - nominative singular form
  - accusative singular form
  - gender
  - meaning

- **Adjectives**
  - nominative singular form for masculine, feminine, masculine meaning

- **Pronouns**
  - nominative singular form
  - accusative singular form
  - meaning

- **Verbs**
  - present infinitive
  - perfect stem
  - participal stem

The brief reading selections have been edited from available Latin about topics of interest to secondary students, mythology, Roman life, jokes, translated nursery rhymes.

Objectives for each kind of activity are written; the standards of achievement are listed.

The materials are designed to be used daily for fifteen to thirty minutes a day, four to five days a week.
One possible procedure would be:

Greeting

Oral Work - Conversation, Questions and Answers, Songs, Oral Reading

Introduction of new concept or dialogue sentence

Reading in Latin or Vocabulary Extension
Pronunciation Guide

The alphabet is like English, except that it has no j or w. Vowels are pronounced like the following:

\[\begin{align*}
\bar{a} & \text{ like in father} & a & \text{ like in idea} \\
\bar{e} & \text{ like in obey} & e & \text{ like in bet} \\
\bar{I} & \text{ like in machine} & i & \text{ like in sit} \\
\bar{o} & \text{ like in note} & o & \text{ like in omit} \\
\bar{u} & \text{ like in rule} & u & \text{ like in put}
\end{align*}\]

Diphthongs are combinations of two vowels to make one new sound. They are pronounced like the following:

\[\begin{align*}
ae & \text{ like in aye} & eu & \text{ like ay-oo said as one} \\
au & \text{ like ow in now} & oe & \text{ like oy in joy} \\
ei & \text{ as in neighbor} & ui & \text{ like uee in queen}
\end{align*}\]

Consonants are pronounced as in English with these few exceptions:

\[\begin{align*}
c & \text{ is always hard as in came} \\
ch & \text{ like in character} \\
g & \text{ like in go} \\
gu & \text{ like in anguish} \\
i & \text{ as a consonant like y in youth} \\
s & \text{ as in sit, never the z as in busy} \\
su & \text{ before a vowel like sw as in suave} \\
th & \text{ like in think} \\
v & \text{ is pronounced like w} \\
z & \text{ is like dz as in adze}
\end{align*}\]
### STRUCTURE CHART—NOUNS AND PRONOUNS—INFLECTIONAL ENDINGS

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<th>DEC. I</th>
<th>DEC. II</th>
<th>DEC. III</th>
<th>DEC. IV</th>
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<td>cuius, quorum</td>
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<td>-ne on first word</td>
<td>adjective response</td>
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<td>num</td>
<td>yes or no response</td>
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<td>nonne</td>
<td>negative response</td>
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<td>positive response</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
CLASSROOM COMMANDS

salvē, salvēte  hello, greetings
valē, valēte  good-bye
surge, surgite  stand up
sedē, sedēte  sit down
loquere, loquīminī  speak, talk
tacē, tacēte  be quiet
patē librum, patēte librōs  close your book
aperī librum, aperīte librōs  open your book
scribe, scribite  write
lege, legite  read
audī, audīte  listen
responde, respondite  answer
quaere, quaerite  ask
repete, repetite  repeat
recitā, recitāte  recite
sī tibi placet, sī vōbīs placet  please
tibī gratiās aɡō, vōbīs gratiās aɡō  thank you
STRUCTURAL EXERCISES

Subject-Verb Pattern; Subject Modified-Verb

1. Pater legit.
   Pater doctus legit.
   Patres legunt.
   Patres docti legunt.

1a. Quis legit?
   b. Qualis pater legit?
   c. Quid pater doctus agit?

   Mater pulchra sedet.
   Matres sedent.
   Matres pulchrael sedent.

2a. Qualis mater est?
   b. Quid mater agit?
   c. Quis sedet?

3. Puer ludit.
   Puer parvus ludit.
   Pueri ludit.
   Pueri parvi ludunt.

3a. Quis ludit?
   b. Qualis puer ludit?
   c. Quid puer agit?
4. Lux ardet.
   Lux magna ardet.
   Luces ardent.
   Luces magnae ardent.
4a. Quis ardet?
   b. Qualis lux ardet?
   c. Quid lux agit?

Subject-Verb-Subject Complement

1. Amīca Julia est.
   1a. Quis amīca est?
   b. Estne Julia amīca?
   c. Quis Julia est?
2. Civis servus nōn est.
   2a. Quis est civis?
   b. Estne civis servus?
   c. Num servus civis est?
3. Meum nomen est Marcus.
   3a. Quid est nomen?
   b. Estne nomen Marcus?
   c. Quis est Marcus?
4. Canis fēles nōn est.
   4a. Quis non est canis?
   b. Quis non est fēles?
   c. Estne canis fēles?
Subject-Verb-Direct Object

1. Puer equum videt.
   a. Quis videt?
   b. Quid puer videt?
   c. Quid puer agit?

2. Discipulus librōs legit.
   a. Quid discipulus legit?
   b. Quis legit?
   c. Quid discipulus agit?

3. Magister classem spectat.
   a. Quis spectat?
   b. Quem magister spectat?
   c. Quid magister agit?

4. Pater vīnum bibit.
   a. Quid pater bibit?
   b. Quis bibit?
   c. Bibitne pater vīnum?

Subject-Verb-Indirect Object-Direct Object

1. Domīnus civī jura dēdit.
   a. Quis dēdit jura?
   b. Cuī domīnus jura dēdit?
   c. Quid domīnus agit?
2. Discipulō librum magister dat.
   2a. Quis librum dat?
       b. Cuī magister librum dat?
       c. Quid magister dat?

3. Sōl mundī lucem dat.
   3a. Quis lucem dat?
       b. Cuī sōl lucem dat?
       c. Quem sol mundī dat?

   a. Cuī mater donum dat?
   b. Quid mater dat?
   c. Quis donum dat?

Subject-Verb-Prepositional Phrase Completer

1. In viā puer ambūlat.
   1a. Quis ambūlat?
       b. Úbi ambūlat?
       c. Quid puer agit?

2. Canis cum puero currit.
   2a. Quis currit?
       b. Quōcum canis est?
       c. Quid canis agit?

3a. Quis docet?
   b. Quō modō magīster docet?
   c. Quid magīster agit?

4. Pōpulus villam cum curā aedificat.

4a. Quid pōpulus aedificat?
   b. Quō modō pōpulus aedificat?
   c. Quis aedificat?

Mixed Patterns—Singular and Plural

1. Puer cum amīcis ludit.

1a. Quot puere sunt?
   b. Quot amīci sunt?
   c. Quis ludit?


2a. Amantne matrēs infantēs?
   b. Quot infantēs sunt?
   c. Quis infantēs amat?


3a. Quis lavat manum?
   b. Quot manūs sunt?
   c. Quid manus lavat?

4. In urbe templae, aedificia, viae, casae sunt.

4a. Suntne viae in urbe?
   b. Quot urbēs sunt?
   c. Quot aedificia sunt?
CONVERSATIONAL DIALOGUES

I. Salve

Greetings

Salve

Hi

Quid nomen tibi est?

What's your name?

Mihī nomen est ___.

My name is ___.

Quid tibi nomen est?

What's yours?

Mihī nomen est ___.

Mine is ___.

Ubī habitās?

Where do you live?

Habito in case cum familīa meā. Et tū?

I live in a house with my family. What about you?

Cum matre sōlā habitō.

I live with my mother only.

Valē

Good bye.

Valē

So long.

II. Salve

Hi

Salve

Hello

Suntne tibi sorores?

Do you have sisters?

Ita, tēs sorores mihī sunt.

Yes, three of them.

Suntne tibi fratres?

Any brothers?

Non, in familīa sōlus puer sum. Et tū?

No, I'm the only boy in my family? And you?

Mihī una soro et duo fratres sunt. Valē.

I have one sister and two brothers. Bye.

Valē

Good bye.
III. Estne tibī canis est? Do you have a dog?
Canis mīhi (nōn) est. Yes or No.
Estne tibī feles est? Any cats?
Feles mīhi (nōn) est. Yes or No.
Quot canēs sunt? How many dogs?
____ canēs mīhi sunt. I have ____ dogs.
Quot feles sunt? How many cats?
____ feles mīhi sunt. I have ____ cats.
Tibīne anīmalia alia sunt? Any other animals?
Īta or nōn. Yes or No.

IV. Salve Greetings
Quid spectās? What are you watching?
Puerum spectō. I'm watching that boy.
Quid puer agit? What's he doing?
Puer librum legit. He is reading a book.
Quid nunc agit? What's he doing now?
Puer litterās scribit. He is writing a letter.
Quid nunc agit? Now what is he doing?
Puer faciem lavat. He is washing his face.
Quid nunc agit? Now what?
Puer canem temptat. The boy is teasing the dog.
V. Quid pater et mater agunt?

Vīnum bibunt.

Quid nunc agunt?

Lūdōs spectant.

Quid nunc agunt?

LĪberōs docent.

Quid nunc agunt?

Cēnam edunt.

VI. Quando tinniat?

Tinniat unā horā.

Ubi magīster scribit?

In tabellā scribit.

Ubi librī sunt?

Librī in mensā sunt.

Quō modo discīpulus scribit?

Discīpulus stylō scribit.

Quōcum discīpulus ludit?

Cum amicīs ludit.

What are the mother and father doing?

Drinking wine.

Now what are they doing?

They are watching the games.

Now what?

They are teaching their children.

Now what?

They are eating dinner.

When does the bell ring?

In one hour.

Where does the teacher write?

In the board.

Where are the books?

The books are on the desk.

How does the student write?

The student writes with a pencil.

With whom does the student play?

He plays with his friends.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ubī discīpulī exercent?</td>
<td>Where do students exercise?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In gymnasiō exercent.</td>
<td>In the gym.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ubī discīpulī discunt?</td>
<td>Where do students learn?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In aulā discunt.</td>
<td>They learn in the class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quō modō discunt?</td>
<td>How do they learn?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ā magistrō aut librīs discunt.</td>
<td>They learn from the teacher or from books.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MOTTOES AND SHORT READINGS

America
Te canō, Patria,
Pulchra et libera:
Te referet
Portus et exsulum
Et tumulus senum
Libera montium
Vox resonet.

Age quod agis.
Umbra monet umbram.

Homo locum ornat, non hominem locus.

Manus manum lavat.

Verae amicitiae sempiternae sunt.

Transit hora, manent opera.

Caseus ante cibum cibus est, sed, post, medicīna.

A fonte purō pura defluīt aqua.

Ignis de fumo adflammam prōcēdit.

Fructū non folīs arborem aestimā.
Cogito, ergo sum. I think, therefore I am.
Ignis non exstinguitur igne. Fire is not put out by fire.
Natura iter homini ostendit. Nature shows the way to man.
Nullus liber est qui corpori servit. No one is free who is a slave to his body.
Veni, vidi, vici. I came, I saw, I conquered.
Ego verum amo; verum volo mihi dicí. I love the truth; I want the truth to be spoken to me.
Vox audita perit, littera scripta manet. A voice that's been heard perishes; the written letter remains.

Vulpes et Corvus
Quando de fenestra corvus raptum caseum edere volebat, et alta in arbore sedebat, hunc vidi vulpes. Deinde sic incipit loqui, "O qualis taurum pennarum, corve, est nitor! Quantum pulchritudinis corpore et vultu geris! Habesne vocem dulcem? Estne melior vox ullís vocibus?"
At ille stultus, dum vult vocem ostendere, emissit ore caseum; quem celeriter dolosa vulpes avidís rapuit dentibus.

Gaudeamus Igitur
Gaudeamus igítur
Iuvenes dūm sumus
Post iucundam iuventutem
Post molestam senectutem
Nōs habēbit humus
Nōs habēbit humus.
LATIN EXPRESSIONS ENCOUNTERED IN ENGLISH

A. D., Anno Domini, in the year of the Lord

a. m., ante meridiem, in the morning, before noon

et al., et alia, and others

etc., et cetera, and the rest

e. g., exempli gratia, for example

i. e., id est, that is

N. B., nota bene, pay attention, notice

p. m., post meridiem, in the afternoon

P. S., post scriptum, written afterwards

pro and con, pro et contra, for and against

pro tempore, pro tempore, for the time being

vs., versus, against

ad hoc, for this (particular purpose)

ad infinitum, to eternity, i.e., endlessly

ad nauseam, to nausea, i.e., to the point of disgust

alias, otherwise (named)

alibi, elsewhere, i.e., evidence of being some place else

alma mater, foster mother or nurse (used of a school)

ante bellum, before the war, (used in the South, es-

pecially of the War between the States)

ars gratia artis, art for the sake of art (alone)

bona fide, in good faith, i.e., real, without deceit

cum laude, with praise (of academic distinctions)
cum laude, with praise (of academic distinctions)
data, things given (as basis for proof or investigation)
de factō, on the basis of fact, i.e., in reality
de jure, on the basis of right, i.e., legally
Dramatis Persōnae, masks of the drama, i.e., characters
in a play
E pluribus unum, one from many (used, in an ancient
    poem, of the ingredients of a stew)
emeritus, discharged, i.e., retired
ex post factō, on the basis of something done afterwards,
    i.e., retroactive
exit, he goes out, (a stage direction)
fiat, let it be done (a term for an absolute command)
non compōs mentis, not sound of mind
non sequitur, it does not follow (used of an illogicality)
per annum, by the year, annually
per capita, by heads, i.e., for each individual
per diem, by the day, each day
per se, in itself, intrinsically
post mortem, after death (used to denote an autopsy)
prima facie, by first appearance, i.e., obvious on the
    face of it
quid pro quo, something for something, i.e., tit for tat
quod erat demonstrandum, which was to be demonstrated
    (used at the end of a logical proof)
q.e.f., quod erat faciendum, which was to be done (used at the end of a geometric construction)
sine qua non, without which not, i.e., and indispensable condition, a necessity
sub rosa, under the rose, i.e., secretly, privately (the rose being a symbol of secrecy)
sui generis, of its own kind (and no others), i.e., unique
summum bonum, the highest good
tempus fugit, time flies
terra firma, solid earth
verbatim, word by word, i.e., in the same words
vice versa, the order having been changed, i.e., conversely
vox populi, the voice of the people
CLOZURE PRACTICES

Nominative-number agreement

Fill in the blank with the word from the choices at the bottom that fits the meaning and the structural frame.

1. _______ parvus in campo currit.

2. In mensa multi _______ sunt.

3. _______ cum me et familia edit.

4. Manum _______ lavat.

5. _______ feles non amant.

canis hospes manus liber puer
canes hospites manūs librī puerī
Accusative-number and adjectival agreement

Fill in the blank with the word from the choices at the bottom that fits the meaning and the structural frame.

1. Puerī _______ amant.
3. Familia _______ bibit.
4. Felēs _______ timent.
5. Schōla _______ multās habet.

canem infantem puellam vīnum aulam

canēs infantēs purllās vīna aulās
CLOZURE PRACTICES

Prepositional Phrases—ablative and accusative
Fill in the blank with the word from the choices at the bottom that fits the meaning and the structural frame.

1. Agricola in _______ unō laborat.

2. Puer cum _______ multīs pugnat.

3. Navis ad _______ alīam pugnat.

4. Discīpulus e _______ multīs discit.

5. Rōmānī fabūlās de _______ crēdīderunt.

agrō lībrō hisīriam iīmīco navem
agrīs lībrīs hisīria iīmīcis navēs
**WORD PUZZLES--WORD SEARCHES**

Parts of the Body: Find and circle the Latin words for parts of the body. They are arranged vertically, horizontally, and diagonally. Then write an English derivative next to the word in the list.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>English Derivative</th>
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<td>oculus</td>
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<tr>
<td>digitus</td>
<td>finger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>manus</td>
<td>hand</td>
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<tr>
<td>pes</td>
<td>foot</td>
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<tr>
<td>tergum</td>
<td>back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cervix</td>
<td>neck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caput</td>
<td>head</td>
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<tr>
<td>nasus</td>
<td>nose</td>
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axpksnilm b
lccebhpjkdn
yoslirqofmu
fesoeculus
hzwmthjgf
igyaigijih
jkcxzkrqcc
gfcbslbpap
mcapillapd
awtabilia
nymucdortn
uarefghsj
svxzirstit
abbrbygunrf
ctrandviqxm
dewsqpgtwg
mrycxfpzua
ogxneoykos
wuzanutpih
qmcswabmqj
dbtucvrsni
anzmierviz
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WORD PUZZLES--WORD SEARCHES

Numbers: Find and circle the Latin words for the numbers one to ten. They are arranged vertically, horizontally, and diagonally. Then write an English derivative next to the word on the list.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>unus</th>
<th>one</th>
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<td>tres</td>
<td>three</td>
<td>octo</td>
<td>eight</td>
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<td>quinque</td>
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<td>decem</td>
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VOCABULARY

This vocabulary provides the following information:

Nouns are shown in nominative and accusative forms; the lexical morpheme is underlined in the accusative; genders, meanings, and one English related word, if appropriate.

Adjectives are shown in the nominative singular form for masculine, feminine, and neuter genders; the lexical morpheme is underlined, related English derivative is listed after the meaning.

Verbs are shown in the present, third, singular form, the perfect, third, singular form, and the perfect passive participial stem; derivatives are listed in respective order after the meaning.

Adverbs, Pronouns, Prepositions give meanings and any English derivatives.

These words are taken from English words derived from Latin that are found in the reading textbooks and workbooks in common use in Reading classrooms. They will be the basis for analogous practices and exercises in the Latin segment of the class.
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<td>ager, agrum, m.</td>
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<td>with, together</td>
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essence, future
edible
exit
extraneous
formal
final
infinite
infer
manufacture
fluent
firm
fidelity
fortify
frequent
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J
jus, jurem, f.  law, right  jury
jacet, jacuit, jactūr-  lie, extend  adjacent

L
lapis, lapem, m.  stone  lapidary
laborat, laboravit,  work  labor
laborat-
latet, latuit, ---  hide  latent
legit, ēgit, lect-
liberat, liberavit,  free  liberate
līnea, līneam, f.  line  linear
littera, litteram, f.  letter  literate
loquitur, locūtus est  speak  loquacious
lumen, luminis, n.  light  luminous
lucrum, lucrum, n.  riches  lucrative
lux, lucis, f.  light  translucent
ludus, ludum, m.  game, school  ludicrous
longus, longa, longum  long  longitude
līberus, lībera, līberum  free  liberty

M
manus, manum, f.  hand  manual
mare, mare, n.  sea  marine
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<td>mittit, misit, miss-</td>
<td>send</td>
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<td>prō</td>
<td>on behalf of</td>
<td>proponent</td>
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Q
| quiēs, quietem, f. | peace | quiet |
| quaerit, quaesīvit, | seek, ask | inquire |
| quaesīt- | |
| quis, quid | who, what (interr.) | quiddity |

R
| ratiō, rationem, f. | reason | rational |
| rūs, rurem, f. | farmland | rural |
| rapit, rapuit, rapt- | take, seize | rape, rapture |
rogat, rogavit, rogat-  
ask, question  
interrogation

re  
back, again  
reply, regain

retrō  
backwards  
retroactive

S

schola, scholam, f.  
school  
scholastic

signum, signum, n.  
sign  
signal

scribit, scripsit, script-  
write  
inscribe, script

sentit, sentīvit, sens-  
think, feel  
sensual

scit, scīvit, scīt-  
know  
conscious

simulat, simulāvit,  
simulāt-  
pretend  
simulation

spectat, spectāvit,  
spectat-  
watch, look at  
spectacle

stat, stātit, stat-  
stand  
constant

sequitur, secūtus est,---  
follow  
sequel

similis, simile  
alike  
similar

sōlus, sōla, sōlum  
alone, only  
solo

sub  
under, near  
submarine, suburb

super  
beyond, above  
superman

T

tempus, temporis, n.  
time  
temporal

tenet, tenuit, tent-  
hold, have  
retention
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<td>unda, undam, f.</td>
<td>wave</td>
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<td>via, viam, f.</td>
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