

Exercises for Developing Prediction Skills in Reading Latin Sentences

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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 hortō*, 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 _____

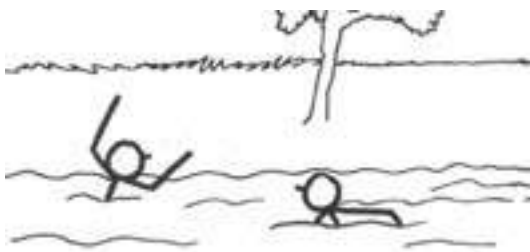


A.



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 *volō*. 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.

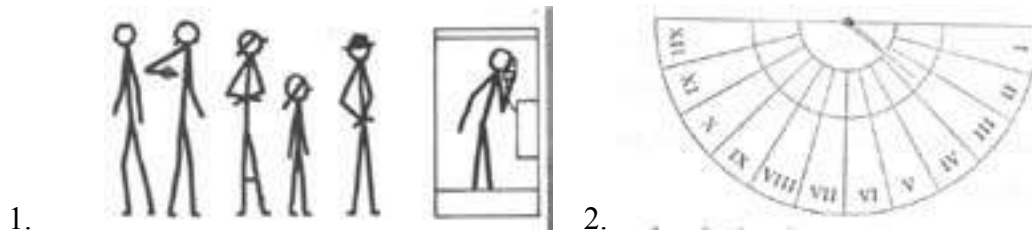
EXERCISES THAT DEAL WITH MORPHOLOGY, GENDER, PART OF SPEECH, OR WORDS WITH AMBIGUOUS MEANINGS

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:

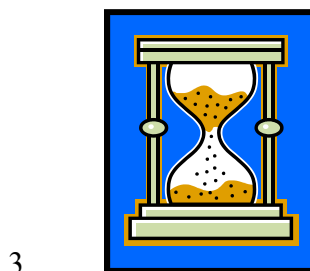
Exercise 8

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



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

- A) *trēs hōrās*
B) *tertiā hōrā*



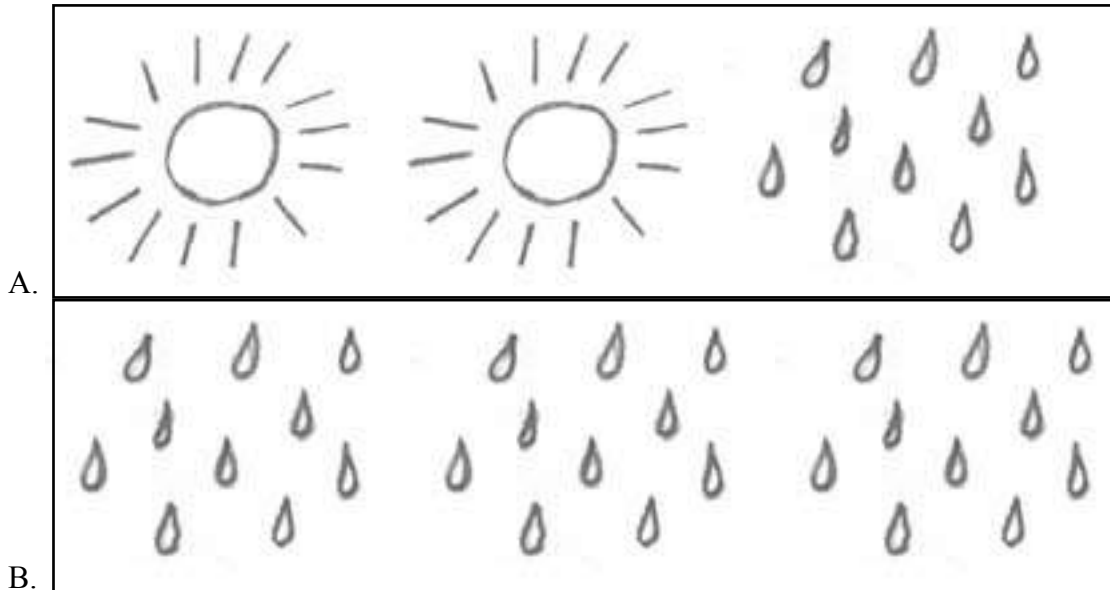
- A) *trēs hōrās*
B) *tribus hōrīs*
C) *tertiā hōrā* (*discēdent/parāta erit*)

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.

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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

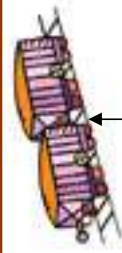
PRE-POSITION

Parts of Speech

Coordinating
Conjunction



si
dum



et
sed
nam

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?)