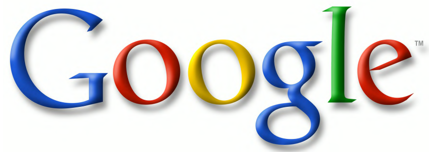

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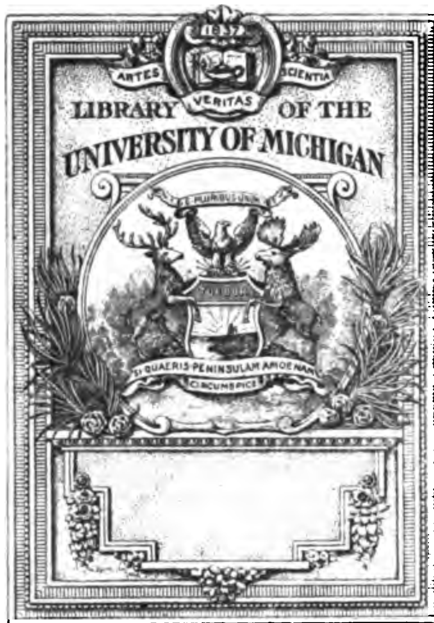
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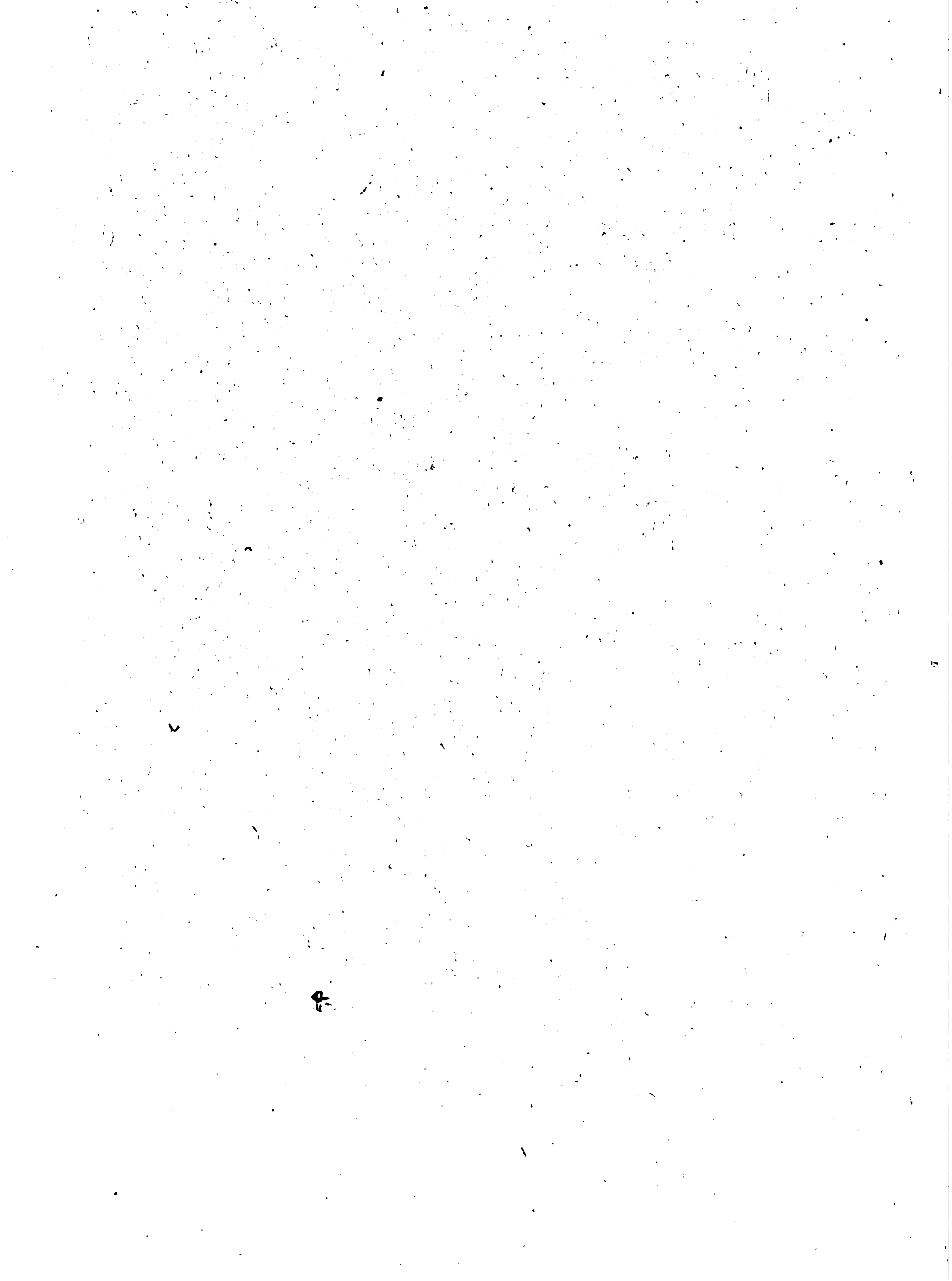

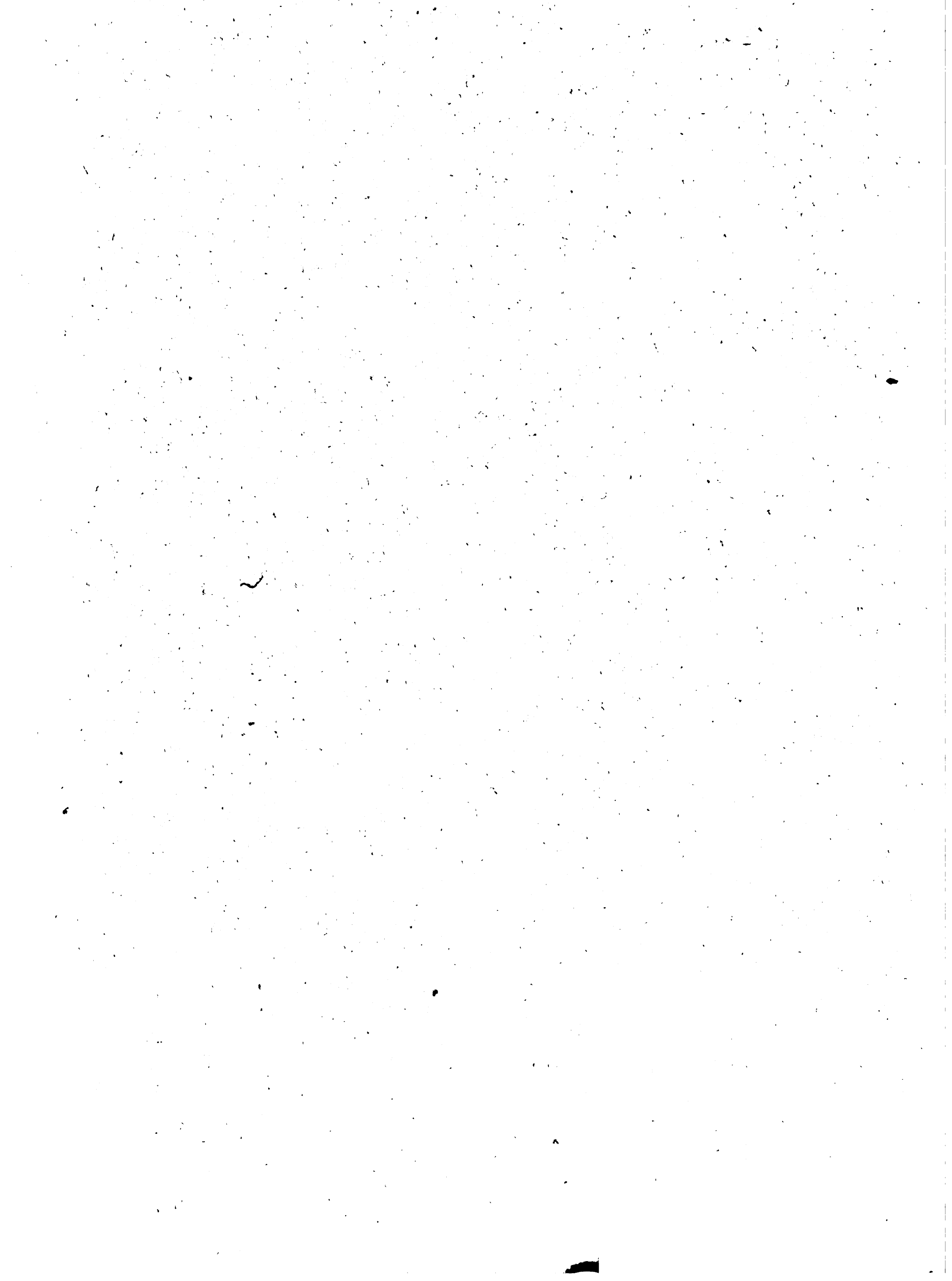

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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VOL. III NEW YORK, OCTOBER 2, 1909 No. 1

At the meeting of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States held in Haverford in April last, Professor Edward Capps of Princeton University was elected President of the Association. Professor Capps was not present at the meeting. After careful consideration, Professor Capps notified the Secretary-Treasurer of the Association that press of work made it impossible for him to accept the Presidency and to discharge its duties in a manner acceptable to himself. He therefore resigned. The President and the Executive Committee, with great regret, accepted the resignation.

By action of the Executive Committee, Professor Mitchell Carroll of George Washington University, Washington, D. C., was elected to fill the vacancy. It is a pleasure to state that Professor Carroll has accepted the office and is entering vigorously upon his duties.

Professor C. Macksey, S. J., of Georgetown University, President of the Washington Classical Club, was elected Vice-President for the District of Columbia. Professor Macksey has, however, been transferred to St. Francis Xavier College in New York City and so has been obliged to resign. This vacancy will be filled some time in October.

Readers of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY are aware of the agitation that has been going on for some time with a view to bringing about uniform requirements for entrance to college in Latin. The matter has progressed so far that there is a prospect of definite action in the near future. The American Philological Association at its meeting in Toronto in December last authorized the appointment of a committee of fifteen members representing different parts of the country, both college and school teachers, to consider the question. This committee is as follows:

Walter Dennison, University of Michigan,
W. G. Hale, University of Chicago,
M. M. Hart, High School, St. Louis,
J. W. D. Ingersoll, Yale University,
J. C. Kirtland, Phillips Exeter Academy,
Gonzales Lodge, Teachers College, Columbia University,
D. W. Lothman, East High School, Cleveland,
B. W. Mitchell, Central High School, Philadelphia,
C. H. Moore, Harvard University,
F. P. Moulton, High School, Hartford,
J. J. Schlicher, State Normal School, Terre Haute,
R. B. Steele, Vanderbilt University,
D. R. Stuart, Princeton University,
William Tappan, Jefferson School, Baltimore,
A. T. Walker, University of Kansas.

It will be at once evident that, if we are to have a representative and thorough discussion of college entrance requirements, no committee could be better adapted for such a purpose than this, inasmuch as it has behind it the authorization of the most dignified association of classical scholars in the country, while at the same time it represents all shades of opinion and all varieties of experience.

The importance of the question itself is not to be overestimated. We teachers of Latin are confronted with the fact that a large number of people who have been trained in Latin are convinced that their work in it was practically useless. A still larger number fail to discover any advantages to be gained from it. The students themselves are the subject of the severest criticism on the part of the examiners. High School teachers complain that not only are the present requirements, while essentially uniform, marred by vexatious details insisted upon by various colleges, but that they themselves are not all convinced of the complete wisdom of the requirements. The public is clamoring for increased expenditure for scientific subjects, which involves a decreased expenditure for such things as Latin. Greek has practically disappeared from the high school; many high school principals say that Latin will do the same in a few years.

Our methods of instruction at the present time are practically the same as they have been for centuries. New branches of learning have come up with correspondingly new methods. Mathematics and history have developed amazingly in the method of presentation. In Classics we still ask the boy to get out the translation of a certain number of lines by means of a pony. We go through the form of drilling him in syntax and the knowledge of inflections but we admit him to college without any knowledge of these things. We continually say that such knowledge is essential; we continually prove by our practice that we do not so regard it. Sober thinkers believe that the discipline of classical study is invaluable for the young. Our age is one that scorns discipline and is especially opposed to discipline whose effects are not more evident.

This committee, therefore, is confronted with the problem of arranging the course of study in the schools so that it will insure (1) good linguistic drill—the discipline that is so essential; (2) a ready knowledge, that can be demonstrated, of a certain range of Latin, usually denominated 'ordinary Latin'. If it can provide the means to insure these ends it will deserve the utmost gratitude, not merely of teachers of Latin but of the community in general, but over-conservatism and regard for the past ought to be as much deprecated as overzealous enthusiasm for the untried or unproven. It is undoubtedly true that some change must be made in our aims and methods of teaching if the subject to which we have devoted our lives is not ultimately to lose its hold. It will be a calamity, therefore, if the committee does not record substantial progress, but from its personnel I have no reason to anticipate any such result.

It is expected that the preliminary meeting will be held in mid-autumn and that a report will be made at the meeting of the Philological Association in Baltimore during the Christmas vacation. G. L.

THE SCANSION OF VERGIL AND THE SCHOOLS

Do our preparatory schools do their duty by their pupils in the matter of the metrical form of Vergil? In an attempt to answer this question I shall set out some facts derived from a careful reading of the answer books turned in at a recent examination at Barnard College.

Of the total array of papers presented at the time named I have picked out those of the seventeeen candidates that passed, with marks ranging from sixty to eighty. Taken by itself, this is, to be sure, a very small number on which to base generalizations. My memory, however, is surcharged with recollections of similar papers. It may be urged also that the marks obtained by the candidates from whose books I shall quote presently are not very high. True; but one reason why the marks were not higher is the very fact that the work in scansion was bad.

These seventeen students were required (1) to indicate the scansion of three verses, and (2) to give the rules for the quantity of the final syllables.

The verses were Aeneid 1. 387-389:

quisquis es, haud credo invisus caelestibus auras
vitalis carpis, Tyriam qui adveneris urbem.
Pergo modo atque hinc te reginae ad limina perfer.

These verses certainly present no great difficulties. There are in all five cases of elision, one in the first verse, one in the second, and three in the last; the only other thing that calls for notice is the word *es* in 387.

Of the seventeen students three scanned all three verses correctly; of these three students one got a bare passing mark of sixty on the examination as a whole. I append the vagaries of the other candidates, beginning with those who received a rating of eighty and going on down to those who received but sixty.

One student read:

quisquis es | haud crĕdŏ | invi | sus cae | lestibus | auras.

We can lay our fingers at once on the trouble; this student had never been made to pronounce aright the Latin word for 'I believe'. Further, she made no elision in the verse.

The second verse she marked as follows:

Vītălis | cārpīs | Tyrī | am qui ăd | vēnĕrĭs | urbem.

The third verse she marked:

Pērgĕ mŏ | dō atque hinc tĕ | rĕginae ad | limina perfer,

giving, so far as I can make out, but five feet to the verse. Throughout she resolutely refused to elide. Yet on the rest of her paper she received eighty points out of a possible eighty-five.

Another student, whose rating was seventy-nine, marked thus:

quīsquīs | ēs haūd | crēdō in | vīsŭs cāĕ | lestibus | auras.

(The other two verses were correctly given). Note the extraordinary character of her ignorance. The rule for 'position' is disregarded and a diphthong is reckoned as short.

Another student, whose rating was seventy-five, scanned the first two verses correctly, then perpetrated the following iniquity on verse three:

Perge mo | do atque hinc | tē rĕgĭ|nae ad | limina | perfer.

She had evidently never been taught to say *rēgīna*.

Another wrote:

pergē | mō do ătquĕ | hinc tĕ rĕ | ginae ad | limina | perfer.

This student was, no doubt, in the habit of saying *pergē* (*regē, ducē*, etc.), and *mōdo*.

Another student scanned *tē rĕgĭ* | *nae ad* | and then set forth this "rule": "All final syllables should be long except when they are short by nature."

This scansion of *tē rĕgĭ* | *nae ad*, involving the misjudging of the quantity of two syllables of *rēgīna* and a disregard of elision, showed itself in eight papers out of the seventeen!

One student produced these results:

quisquis es | haud cre|do invi|sus cae | lestibus | auras
vita | lis cărpis | Tyriam | qui ad | veneris | urbem
Perge mo | do atque hinc | tē rĕgi | nae ad | limina perfer.

This student disregarded elision in every case but one.

In the next paper we get:

quisquis | es haud | credo in | visus cae | lestibus | auras

and

Perge mo | do atque hinc | tē rĕgi|nae ad | limina perfer.

The next paper shows two verses scanned correctly but the third spoiled by the taking of *te regi* as a foot.

Next comes this:

quisquis | es haud | credo invi|sus cae | lestibus | auras.

vita | lis cărpis | Tȳri | am qui ad | veneris | urbem

Perge mo | do atque hinc | tē rĕgi|nae ad | limina | perfer.

Another gave:

quisquis es | haud cre|dō īn|vīsŭs caĕ | lestibus | auras.

And yet another showed:

quisquis | es haud | crēdo invi|sus cae | lestibus | auras

Our seventeen students may be said to have had before them a total of fifty-one verses to scan; far more than half of these were incorrectly given.

Certain facts stand out prominently. Every one of the seventeen students, good, bad or indifferent, gave the fifth and sixth feet rightly. The errors in scansion in the other four feet came, it happened on this occasion, chiefly from two sources: first, the disregard of elision, secondly, from an erroneous idea of the pronunciation of certain very familiar words, e. g. *credo, invisus, regina,* which they ought to have heard pronounced with right quantity times innumerable by their teachers and which they should themselves have pronounced correctly many times (at least in the cases of *credo* and *regina*) before they presented themselves for this examination.

Let us look now at the "rules" for the quantity of final syllables given by these students.

"A vowel before two consonants is long." An absurd statement, certainly, but we cannot blame this student so long as grammars and beginners' books alike persist in speaking of both vowels and syllables as long (see below on this point). Listen to this wisdom: *"sus* in *invisus* is short because the vowel *u* is long. Final *u* is usually long." This same student said: "Final *a* is long but is short in the acc. plu. neut. of the 3rd decl." Another said: "Final *e* is short except in the imperative of verbs" (yet otherwise this student's answers about quantity were more than ordinarily sane). Another said: *"es* is short because followed by vowels." This same student explained that the *a* in *vitalis* is long by increment ("from *vitas*", she added). One student's whole product ran as follows: *"auras:* the *as* is long by declension. *urbem:* the *em* is short by declension. *perfer:* the *fer* is long by conjugation." Another student wrote this: *"cre, vi, as, ta, car, qu* (she marked *qui ad* as a foot), *ad, hinc, fer,* are all long because they are just before single or double consonants". Another declared that *is* in *vitalis* is long as the "beginning of a foot (new)"; she declared also that final *is* is always long, that final *e is* always short, etc. Another declared that the second *quis* in *quisquis* is "short monosyllable by exception", that "final *is* is long by nature", and that *"perfer* has the *final e* short". Another explained that the *e* in *credo* is long, because it is followed by another vowel, by contraction with which it becomes long. She makes the same remark concerning *atque* in line three.

Our examination of these answers has made it plain, I think, that (a) the candidates who present themselves for admission to college in Latin are singularly unintelligent, or that (b) they do not receive adequate training in metrical matters, or that (c) the methods employed in the presentation to them of metrical matters are inadequate or wholly wrong.[1]

I am aware that it is infinitely easier to point out a disease than it is to suggest a remedy; it is harder still to suggest a remedy that will be in all respects agreeable to the patient or that will commend itself to other physicians. Difficult as the attempt is, I must make it.

The student's training in metrical matters should begin with the very hour of his introduction to Latin studies. What do I mean by this statement? I mean that I accept in toto the doctrines laid down by my colleague Professor McCrea, in his address before the New York Latin Club, in February, 1904 (see the Latin Leaflet, Numbers 93, 94). I quote:

(The college requires that the incoming student shall) know with a knowledge which cannot possibly be too intimate, which, in the case of all those susceptible to such training, should be made a sense rather than mere knowledge, the forms, meanings and uses of Latin words. Every single step in the study of literature is conditioned by exact knowledge of this sort; in fact, the study of literature cannot even be begun until a very considerable supply of it has been accumulated and made familiar. "With this intimate and ready knowledge of the forms, meanings and uses of words, everything becomes possible that the intellectual calibre of the student will admit of; without it, nothing is possible, even if, in other ways, he be a prodigy of learning."

Professor McCrea, in explaining and elaborating

[1] We have been dealing throughout, let us remember, with papers presented by women. I presume that no exception will be taken to the statement that in all probability these 17 young women possessed a better ear for music and rhythm than could be claimed for a corresponding number of men and that they probably possessed more training in matters musical. Yet mark the strange results of their efforts to indicate the feet (bars) in three verses of Vergil. Furthermore, the giving of the rules of quantity of final syllables is a matter of memory and memory alone; it does not call for the exercise of reason or judgment, at least in any marked degree. Are we to believe that these 17 young women come short of their sisters in ability to memorize? In a word, can we escape the conclusion that the responsibility for their lamentable shortcomings lies in large part with their teachers, or shall we be more charitable and say with the system under which those teachers are doing their work?

his position, argued that at the end of a four year course in school the pupil should have absolutely at command a total of 2,200 Latin words. When he said that the pupil should have Latin words at command, he meant that the student should be able to employ those words in two mutually complimentary ways: (1) that he should be able to recognize at sight (or at sound) a given Latin word in a Latin passage and give instantly its meaning; (2) that he should be able to employ at once every word in this list of 2,200 in translation from English into Latin, both orally and in written exercises. As I said above, I subscribe without reserve to these doctrines; I am persuaded that if they were adopted and properly applied many of the defects of our classical training of to-day would be at once removed. One great defect in that training, at least in the elementary stages, is lack of definiteness. Professor Johnston, of the University of Indiana, put this point well in a paper on The Teaching of Second Year Latin. Part of his paper will bear quoting here:

> Some time ago I stood at the door by which a crowd of second year students was entering a high school and at my request the principal stopped about a score of bright-looking boys and girls long enough to put two questions to each of them. The first was: 'Do you know your algebra lesson this morning?' The answer in every case was a decided 'Yes, sir' or 'No, sir'. The second question was: 'Do you know your Latin lesson this morning?' We did not get a ringing 'Yes, sir' from a single pupil; even the best of the lot, those who made creditable records in their Caesar, when they recited a few moments later, ventured nothing more decided than 'I hope so' or 'I think so'. The algebra lesson was a fixed and definite thing. Every pupil knew before he entered the recitation room just about what questions would be asked, and he knew, of course, whether or not he could answer them. No boy could guess what he was to be asked in his Latin class, and his preparation was, therefore, vague and necessarily unsatisfactory to him.

Professor McCrea's suggestions for the preparatory work give to that work from beginning to end a definite objective point and a correspondingly definite character.

Mastery of Latin words, then, in their forms and their meanings, singly and in combination, is the great object toward which the efforts of teacher and pupil should from the outset be directed. That mastery of words involves much. The pupil cannot master words in combination without acquiring at the same time a very practical knowledge of syntax. The mastery of words, of course, involves the mastery of their pronunciation, and pronunciation involves quantity. We thus come out at the point whence I started, that the student's training in metrical matters should begin with the very hour of his introduction to Latin studies. The pronunciation of a word is a vital part of the word; that pronunciation should be learned at the very outset and learned correctly. All correct and profitable oral use of Latin words is dependent on a right knowledge of the pronunciation of those words, precisely as a knowledge of pronunciation grows by the right pronunciation of words. If from the very hour of his acquaintance with Latin words the pupil is made to pronounce them correctly, by the time he is brought face to face with Latin meters, the difficulties which now beset him under our present chaotic system of teaching will prove to be largely, if not wholly, non-existent. I cannot dwell longer now on this matter of pronunciation; I have done so at length elsewhere. Only one or two remarks more will I make now. Hidden quantities, so called, may be wholly disregarded; they have little or no bearing on metrical matters, at least for the high school pupil. Correct pronunciation will of itself make the student learn the rules of quantity, exactly as conversely systematic instruction from the outset in the more important rules of quantity will facilitate right pronunciation. The student who is made to decline *civis* or *omnis* aright, by giving not only the correct forms orthographically considered, but the correct pronunciation of the final syllable in the genitive singular and the accusative plural, will have no difficulty in stating intelligently and intelligibly the rule for final syllables ending in *is*. It may be remarked that I am dealing in this paper with the pupil who has four years in which to learn certain things before admission to college. The person who, after being subjected for years to erroneous training or to no training at all in this matter of pronunciation, seeks then to acquire a correct pronunciation finds the task extremely difficult (but not impossible); on the other hand, the pupil taken in his plastic period and trained from first to last only by teachers who can and do pronounce Latin correctly (there *are* such teachers, *pace* Professor Bennett), will find the task far simpler. "Line upon line, precept upon precent" applies here as it does in other things.

But let us suppose that the teacher of Vergil finds in his class a large majority of students who have not been taught to pronounce with care. How is he to approach the problem of making such pupils scan Vergil? He has before him two tasks: (1) he must teach his students to indicate the constituent elements of the verse (the 'feet') rightly, and (2) to justify his marking; in other words, to give on demand the rules of quantity. Time and practice are the conditions of knowledge here as everywhere else. Time must be found, somehow, some in the course for drill in metrical matters. That drill may take either one or two forms; preferably both should be employed. (1) There may be oral practice in the reading of hexameters. For those who have an ear for music this method is extremely useful. But it has a defect also and a danger, in that unless the ear of the pupil is well attuned to music, and unless the oral reading is supplemented by much practice

in actual marking of the constituent elements of the verse, the pupil is apt to get merely the beginning and the end of the verse right (the coincidence of ictus and word accent in the last two feet helps greatly there to keep him from going astray), he is apt to do strange things with the middle portions of the verses. (2) Oral practice in the reading of hexameters should, therefore, be supplemented by constant written work. After reading an array of papers presented by candidates for admission to college one is strongly inclined to suspect that that examination is the very first time in the pupil's life in which he has attempted to indicate in writing the composition of a hexameter verse. If this suspicion is in any sense well-founded, we have put our fingers on a matter which needs correction and at once. In a paper on the Teaching of Vergil in the High School Professor Johnston went so far as to hold that the pupil should never attempt to read the hexameter aloud, but that he should be required to indicate in writing the scansion of hundreds of verses. I cannot agree with this position in toto, but if either of the two possible methods, oral reading or written analysis, is to be employed to the exclusion of the other, I should prefer Professor Johnston's plan.

CHARLES KNAPP.

REVIEWS

The Progress of Hellenism in Alexander's Empire. By John Pentland Mahaffy. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press (1905). Pp. VI + 154.

Through Alexander's conquests and the new Greek cities that he and the Diadochi planted, the language and culture of the Greeks were spread over Egypt and Western Asia. When Greek thus became the common language of the East, the interchange of ideas was easier, men's sympathies were widened, and national barriers were in part broken down. From this mingling of Hellenes and Orientals resulted a form of culture less pure but far more widespread than that of Greece in the days of her independence and comparative isolation. Droysen called it "Hellenism". It must not, however, be assumed that no traces of Hellenism are found before Alexander's time. In the first of the six lectures that make up this volume Mahaffy deals with Xenophon as the "Precursor of Hellenism", and dates its origin from the time when Athens lost her political and literary supremacy in Greece. The varied experiences of his life and his contact with the outer world gave Xenophon broader and more cosmopolitan views than his contemporaries. He believed in the planting of colonies and the expansion of the Greek race. In his Cyropaedia and Oeconomicus Mahaffy thinks that he dimly foreshadowed the conquest of the East by an absolute monarch with the capacity to rule. Hence, "in the main features of his life and teaching Xenophon represents the first step in the transition from Hellenedom to Hellenism".

The next three lectures are concerned with the progress of Hellenism in Macedonia and Greece, Egypt, and Syria. To accomplish his purposes Alexander availed himself of the Macedonians' skill in war and the culture of the Greeks, the one to conquer the world, the other to unify it after it was conquered. Under the Antigonids Macedonia did a great service to the world in standing as a barrier against the invading hordes of northern barbarians to protect the culture and refinement of Greece from certain destruction.

To Alexandria with its Library and Museum the world owes much: the Septuagint, the development of pure mathematics and mechanics, Neo-Platonism, and the rich Alexandrian literature, notably the idylls of Theocritus and the love-story, the literary original of the novel. This literary and scientific activity was fostered by the first and second Ptolemies in their effort to make Alexandria the rival of Athens, but the rest of Egypt was never Hellenized. There was no union of the Greek and the Egyptian civilizations, and no amalgamation of the races. Egyptian society remained separate and distinct, and a national reaction beginning under the third Ptolemy resulted in resistance and open insurrection against the oppression of the fourth and fifth; and in the end "it was the Ptolemies who became Egyptian, not the Egyptians who became Hellenistic".

The vast conglomerate of dissimilar races called Syria included Syria proper, Coele-Syria, Palestine, most of Asia Minor, Mesopotamia, Persia, and Media. Syria proper, with Antioch the capital of the Empire, became the peculiar home of Hellenism, which was more deeply rooted here and lasted longer than in Alexandria, but unfortunately the works of no native writer have survived, and earthquakes have ruined Antioch and hidden it from sight. Coele-Syria and northern Palestine also were extensively Hellenized. Pergamum, the capital of a separate kingdom, was the center of civilization and art for Asia Minor. It was a regular Greek city in its form of government, and had a library and school of Homeric critics. It contributed greatly to the welfare of Hellenism by repelling the invading Gauls and then celebrating these victories by great works of art which formed a new school of sculpture.

In the fifth lecture, General Reflections on Hellenism, Mahaffy discusses the preservation of the masterpieces of Greek literature by means of the Library at Alexandria and their circulation through the extensive trade in books, the critical study of the old literature and the production of new works that had more influence on Roman writers and through them on European literature than all that went before. It was not therefore a period of decline—

this came later in imperial times—but a period of the broadening out and diffusion of culture. Neither was it a time of decline in art; witness the Sarcophagus of Sidon, the Victory of Samothrace, the Venus of Melos, and the Corinthian style of architecture.

The Jews of Palestine, which was on the highway between Egypt and Syria, were deeply influenced by the Hellenism of these two countries, by the Greek cities in their own midst, and by the Hellenistic party in Jerusalem itself. Christ's public teaching was mainly in Greek, and afterward Greek was the exclusive vehicle for the propagation of the gospel. Mahaffy maintains that the learning of the Greek language implied mental training, and that the Hellenistic world was more cultivated than men ever have been since, especially in methods of rational argumentation, and he cites in proof the subtle arguments and close reasoning of St. Paul's epistles, which were addressed not to the intellectual but usually to the middle and lower classes. Furthermore, the simplicity and reasonableness of the New Testament narratives, and the conception of the Logos, viz. Divine Reason incarnate in Christ, are also due to contact with Greek culture. Saul of Tarsus, the seat of a famous school of Stoic philosophy, was imbued with the spirit and doctrines of Stoicism, and, in consequence, his language and thought, unlike that of the gospels, are often Stoic. These are some of the Hellenistic Influences on Christianity that are pointed out in the last lecture.

These six lectures were delivered at the University of Chicago in the summer of 1904 by the well-known author of Greek Life and Thought from the Death of Alexander to the Roman Conquest (2nd ed., 1896), which covers the same period. It would be easy to criticise his grammar, vocabulary, and style, and the dearth of references to modern works other than his own, but it is more to the point to call in question his overestimate of Xenophon, his view that the penance and vigils of the Purgatory of St. Patrick in Donegal, Ireland, were suggested by the Eleusinian mysteries, and his effort to trace historically many fundamental doctrines of Protestantism from prechristian Stoicism in Cilicia through Emperor Leo and John Huss. These criticisms, however, sink into insignificance in comparison with the worth of this interesting book that comes from so eminent an authority on Hellenism as Professor Mahaffy, who devoted more than twenty years to the study of this epoch.

CHARLES W. PEPPLER.

EMORY COLLEGE, Oxford, Ga.

Monuments of Christian Rome. By Arthur L. Frothingham. New York: The Macmillan Company (1908). Pp. 412. $2.25 net.

This book belongs to the Macmillan Series of Handbooks on Archaeology and Antiquities edited by Professors Percy Gardner and Francis W. Kelsey. It is what it professes to be—a handbook, and gives an adequate sketch of the Art of Christian Rome from Constantine to the Renaissance. The author promises "before long" a history of mediaeval art in Rome on a large scale, and this, taken in connection with Dr. Wilpert's expected work on mediaeval painting, should give ample material to scholars for intelligent study.

The author is especially well qualified to write on his subject. He spent seventeen years of his youth in Rome, and has returned many times since, being Associate Director of the American School of Classical Studies in its early history.

Although his field is confined to Rome and the Roman province, his book may be regarded as a supplement to the admirable handbook in the same series by the Reverend Walter Lowrie on Monuments of the Christian Church, which begins with origins of Christian Archaeological remains, and carries them down through the sixth and seventh centuries. The books overlap by several centuries, since Dr. Frothingham's begins with Constantine. He thus escapes the problem of the Christian basilica, and begins with the materials to hand, the Constantinian basilica.

After a few pages of prologue in which some pertinent remarks are made on the importance of Rome as an art center, and a few perplexing problems are presented, the book is divided into two parts. Part I (pp. 15-151) is an Historical Sketch, in which so much of political and ecclesiastical history is narrated chronologically as will furnish a suitable setting for the various works of architecture undertaken during the period, and the different artistic movements.

Part II (pp. 155-384) is a Classification of the Monuments, in which the classes of monuments are treated separately, with the historic changes and developments in each. There are chapters on the Basilicas, Campanili, Cloisters, Civil and Military Architecture, Sculpture, Painting (i. e. frescoes and mosaics), also interesting chapters upon Roman Artists, Art in the Roman Province, and the Artistic Influence of Rome. An excellent feature is an Index List of Roman Churches with a sketch of each.

Dr. Frothingham shows himself to be a conservative, and in favor of Rome. He is willing enough to admit Carlovingian influence (though but little to the Lombards), and Byzantine workmanship, wherever history so requires, but he is firm for the persistence and triumph of the Roman School. Finally, after discussing such artists as the Cosmati and Vassallettus of the Lateran Cloisters, and claiming Arnolfo for Rome, he questions whether the Roman Pietro Cavallini, instead of Cimabue, is not to be regarded as the master of Giotto.

It is to be noted that the author regards the

Wooden Doors of S. Sabina (5th century) as containing the oldest representation of the Crucifixion in Art. The porphyry sarcophagus of Helena, the mother of Constantine, is held to be of artistic ability requiring an earlier date. The bronze statue of S. Peter in his Basilica is affirmed to be a work of the fifth century, and not of the thirteenth, the chief argument in support of this being that we have abundant literary evidence of numerous statues in metals in the fifth century, and that as old moulds were handed down from classic days they could be used without the application of much intelligence, and in an age when sculpture had utterly deteriorated.

The author finds the earliest traces of feudalism in Rome, and claiming for Rome the true source of inspiration throughout the Middle Ages he maintains this as especially true in Art, as illustrated for instance in England in Westminster Abbey.

CLARK D. LAMBERTON.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Seneca: Three Tragedies: Hercules Furens, Troades, Medea; with an introduction and notes by Hugh Macmaster Kingery, Ph.D., Professor in Wabash College. New York: The Macmillan Company (1908). 12 mo. Pp. 310.

In this little volume we have the first genuine attempt to present in text-book form for use in college classes the Tragedies of Seneca. Scores of text editions with commentaries have been issued, long since out of print, many of them still available but not in sufficient numbers to suffice for class use; and several modern editions of the text alone, of which that of Leo is the best, are at hand. But something was still to be desired by those who wished to offer a short course in the Tragedies; and this little volume will be cordially welcomed by these.

Its introduction discusses briefly those various general subjects which naturally demand attention as one approaches this body of literature. The notes are on the whole excellent, not too full, but full enough to save the student unnecessary loss of time in hunting up the numerous hidden mythological allusions in which the Tragedies abound and which make the chief difficulty in the understanding of the plays, and in puzzling over those passages which furnish real syntactic or other difficulties of interpretation. The notes are for the most part excellent and sound; but I find myself in disagreement with the author as to his interpretation of many passages in these three plays, the decision as to some of which might indeed be claimed to be an open question; in other cases, however, I must take direct issue with Mr. Kingery. The meaning, for example, of Troades 233-236 obviously is: "Though I should say nought of his other services, would not Hector['s death] alone have been enough? [In him] my father conquered Troy; [but] you have [only] plundered it". Kingery's insertion of "yet" and "all" give a twist of meaning which the passage does not bear. In Troades 630, while it is barely possible that *tenetur* refers to Andromache in the sense of "she is caught", the passage is far stronger if the first half of this line be considered, not as an aside, but as the loud spoken words of Ulysses for the purpose of trapping the unhappy mother: "'Tis well! He's caught! Then bring him here in haste!" Again, the note on Troades 742 entirely misses the point of the passage in the rendering "We Trojans do not yield while we have any strength left to harm our foes". The obvious meaning of the passage is, rather: "We Trojans lie [o'erthrown] in no such way that we can be object of fear to any one", i. e., "We are so utterly overthrown that we cannot possibly cause further fear". The proposed interpretation of Troades 925 loses the fine effect evidently intended by the tragedian. Helen's tears flow not at thought of her own troubles, but at the unhappy fate which she knows is hanging over Polyxena.

While the occurrence of such apparent misinterpretations as these forces the teacher to maintain a somewhat challenging attitude in the use of this work, still any adverse criticism that can be offered should not obscure its undoubted excellence, or lessen the cordiality of the welcome which is its due from students of the Tragedies of Seneca.

F. J. M[illegible]

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

CORRESPONDENCE

The Greek Club of Essex County will begin its fifth year on Monday evening, October 11th, at eight o'clock, in the rooms of the New England Society, Orange, New Jersey.

The works to be read this year will be Theocritus's Idylls, the first two being assigned to that evening, and two plays of Aristophanes.

Persons desiring to join this Club will kindly write to Rev. Dr. James F. Riggs, Halsted Street, East Orange, N. J.

W. O. W.

The note in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2. 183 by Mr. Harwood Hoadley contains a number of misstatements to which I beg leave to refer. Senator Root did teach Greek in Rome Academy in 1864-1865. Vice-President Sherman, however, was never his pupil either in Rome Academy or anywhere else. Mr. Sherman prepared for Hamilton College partly at the old Whitestown Seminary and partly in Utica Academy, but was never a pupil in Rome Academy. He met Senator Root and Rev. Dr. James H. Hoadley only after he became a student in Hamilton College.

GEORGE A. WILLIAMS

KALAMAZOO COLLEGE, Mich.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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VOL. III NEW YORK, OCTOBER 9, 1909 No. 2

In The Outlook for September 18, 1909, is an editorial comment on a recent paper by Dr. Charles P. Steinmetz, an engineer of some distinction, before the Convention of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, in which strong ground is taken in support of a thorough training in the Classics for students of engineering. The readers of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY will probably have opportunity before long to read Dr. Steinmetz's views in our own columns, but meanwhile some phases of The Outlook's comment may be touched upon.

Dr. Steinmetz attacks the study of the modern languages instead of the classics, saying

> they open to the student no new world, no field of thought appreciably different from our own; and I therefore consider them of practically no educational value. Their utilitarian value to the college student is negligible, as, due to the limited time, the absence of practice, and the large number of other more important subjects of study, very few college graduates retain even a rudiment of their knowledge of modern languages. . . . To the engineer particularly a knowledge of modern foreign languages offers no appreciable help in following the engineering progress of other countries.

The comment of The Outlook is as follows:

> As to the first statement, the great army of men and women to whom French and German, Italian and Spanish have opened "new worlds", and even "fields of thought appreciably different from our own", will protest. As to the second statement, it is true that the utilitarian value of modern languages is negligible to too many college students; but this is because the languages are taught in an English-speaking atmosphere, a defect now being gradually remedied. Finally, a knowledge of foreign modern languages would seem to offer appreciable help to the engineer in his own profession, as many writings of foreign investigators still remain untranslated.

There seems to be here a confusion as to the value of a subject in a scheme of educational training and the value of the subject for what it contains quite apart from its relation to education. In our ordinary colleges only so much time can be given to language study. It is as true of the majority of engineers, no doubt, as it is true of the majority of college students in general, that when they leave college they are not prepared to make use of their attainments in any language in any practical way. Even those who have specialized in modern languages do not read these modern languages fluently as a rule, and if any new field of thought is to be opened up to them by work in a foreign language, it must, in the vast majority of cases, come during their graduate study or even later. No one would deny that anyone who reads French fluently and has an appreciation of literature will gain a great deal of pleasure from the French literary masterpieces. The same is true of every other language, but literary pleasure is an entirely different thing from a new field of thought. It usually happens that an admirer of a foreign literature is not very well versed in his own. In fact, it is almost a truism that the amount of first class literature of one language is sufficient to occupy the complete attention of the individual.

I am at a loss, myself, to know what new worlds French and German, Italian and Spanish have opened to the great army of men and women. The tendency of modern civilization is towards uniformity and the difference between the thinking of one country and that of another is a difference of individual rather than of language. In the present condition of scientific study, as well as of other studies, full accounts of the work of foreign scholars is almost always available in our English periodicals long before it would be available to those who read the foreign language. In my own experience I have frequently found the results of a foreign publication before I could get the publication. In the matter of translations this does not, of course, apply, but translations are not at present the only means or even the chief means of communication. The specialist in any department of language will always have to know foreign languages, but there is a wide difference between the specialist and the regular worker.

What The Outlook means by saying "that the utilitarian value of modern languages is negligible to too many students . . . because the languages are taught in an English-speaking atmosphere", I do not understand. It is not atmosphere so much as the amount of time available that is the chief difficulty. The native teacher with the very best equipment frequently is much less successful as a teacher of American youth than one who is not born to the language. It is rather interesting that German is taught in most of our institutions by Americans—Americans trained in Germany, if you will, but nevertheless Americans—and in the case of French, where it is supposed the atmosphere is particularly essential and where more native teachers are em-

ployed than in any other subject, the results are in no wise satisfactory.

I leave out of consideration the whole question as to the value of modern languages from the disciplinary point of view as compared with the Classics. This subject has been adequately treated by Professor Bennett and others. There is, however, one phase which is noteworthy. Many teachers feel that Latin could be taught better if the child had a preliminary knowledge of French. I am not convinced that this is true, and am inclined to believe that the success of those who advocate it is their success and not the success of the system, but it has not really been tried sufficiently to form a judgment. G. L.

THE SCANSION OF VERGIL AND THE SCHOOLS

(Concluded from page 5)

The high school teacher, of course, will object that he has no time to do these things, that my words are simply once again the words of the visionary college teacher who does not understand the peculiar conditions that obtain in the high schools, or the burdens already imposed on the teacher there, or the demands already made on the time of the teacher in the class room work. The answer is easy. Let the student of Latin from the start be trained aright; let him be trained, as suggested above, in Latin words, pronunciation as well as form and meaning, and time will then be forthcoming for the teacher of Vergil in which to do the things demanded of him in this paper. The boy who knows 1,500 Latin words by the time he picks up his Vergil will find the reading of Vergil on the whole a far simpler task than the reading of Cicero and Caesar had been to him; syntactically Vergil is easier than Caesar or Cicero, and in point of subject matter certainly is interesting, if not markedly more entertaining. Such a boy's progress in the reading of Vergil would be rapid enough to leave time in plenty for the consideration of the metrical form. Further, the plan of requiring the student to analyze in writing a certain number of verses day by day for at least a part, if not the whole of his Vergil course, would add but little to the pupil's work of preparation and would take up *per se* no time from the class room work itself.

What of the rules of quantity? As already argued, right training in pronunciation, begun with the boy's first use of a Latin word and carried through every hour of his course, will bring the boy face to face with the scansion of Vergil with no problem of vowel quantity to deal with, except as now and again Vergil's reproduction of Greek phenomena of vowel quantity or rhythmical usage may introduce an element new to the lad's experience. For all other pupils common-sense methods should obtain. One should not attempt too much. Certain rules of quantity are fundamental, for example, those about the quantity of final syllables and those about increment. These, together with the rules for 'position', will account for the larger part of all the syllables with which the student has to deal. Is the learning of these rules beyond the intelligence of the high school pupil?

In this connection I would again lay stress on a suggestion which I have made elsewhere, that much would be gained practically if in all our teaching of matters metrical we were to speak consistently of *syllables* as heavy or light and of *vowels* as long or short. Our present system applies precisely the same terms to two different things and is inevitably confusing[1]. In the written analysis of verses the student can set the macron above the long vowel and underscore the syllable which is heavy, even though its vowel is short.

Something may be said concerning the oral reading of hexameter verse. One may admit that he is not prepared to state exactly what the Latin ictus was, that he has no clear understanding of how the Romans treated the coincidence or the non-coincidence of the ictus and the word-accent, that he does not know what the Romans did with the syllables we call elided syllables, that he gives to Latin verse as he reads it a stress accent rather than a quantitative treatment and yet not be wholly absurd in claiming that nevertheless Latin hexameters as he reads them still have rhythm.

If we view the matter in a purely practical way we shall admit, I think, that there are virtually no difficulties in verses in which there are no elisions. Verses like

> Tantae molis erat Romanam condere gentem,

or

> Musa, mihi causas memora, quo numine laeso
> quidve dolens regina deum tot volvere casus
> insignem pietate virum, tot adire labores
> impulerit

or Horace C. 1. 5 *passim* may be said to read themselves. In this connection the teacher would find it very helpful, it seems to me, to introduce his pupils to the hexameter via Lucan (texts of Lucan can be got for a trifling sum) because elision is much less frequent in Lucan than in Vergil and Lucan's verse is therefore easier to read.

What shall we do with the elision? Some years ago I listened to a discussion of this matter which was wholly iconoclastic and destructive, nay, even despairing in character.

The speaker confessed that he had come wholly to doubt and despair concerning the metrical reading of Latin poetry; he declared that he knew next to nothing concerning the manner in which the Romans read Latin verse and that other teachers probably knew no more about it than he; from all this he

[1] The present system induces good scholars to print such abominations as *pătris!*

drew the conclusion that "it is worse than useless—it is a sheer waste of precious time—for pupils in preparatory schools to attempt to acquire the art of reading Latin poetry".

In order to make clear his point of view he proceeded to emphasize the different views held by various scholars here and abroad (1) concerning the nature of the ictus, and (2) concerning the relation which in fact existed between the ictus and the word accent and the method to be employed by the moderns to bring out that relation (if we can determine it). He then set forth what he conceived to be the different systems of reading Latin verse laid down in the grammars, etc., published in this country, with oral illustrations of his conception of those methods. It was hard to believe that he was doing justice to these various methods; yet after all, though he was engaged in ridiculing them, strange to say, in every instance, against his own will and in absolute subversion of his own argument, he secured, to my ears at least, distinctly metrical and rhythmical results. One could not help wondering, as he listened, what results the speaker might attain if he should really try to secure metrical effects.

In further support of his contentions, the speaker argued that the prevalent method (such he called it) of making the ictus a stress accent and then of giving that stress accent fully without regard to the prose accent of the words (save where the prose accent and the ictus coincide) leads to sad results. By way of illustration he cited Aeneid 1. 76-77, complaining because *tuus* and *mihi,* which he regarded as the most important words in the whole couplet, do not bear the ictus and "must be hurried over without the slightest emphasis". But *are* they the most important words in the couplet? To me it seems rather that *regina* and *iussa* are the most important words in the passage. *Regina* reminds me forcibly of Juno's own words (46) *quae divom incedo regina;* Aeolus talks here to Juno exactly as if he had heard her whole speech to herself (37 ff.). The thought, then, in my opinion, is this: "you are QUEEN and have therefore only to determine your will; ORDERS are my portion."

Again, the speaker cited Aeneid 1. 46-48; here he complained because in 46 "the stress, instead of coming on *ego,* the most important word, comes on *ast,* a word that calls for no empahsis at all, as far as the sense is concerned. In the second line, instead of coming on the emphatic *soror,* the stress comes on the comparatively unimportant *et*". Instead of being so sure of his own position he had done better if he had stopped to ask himself the question, Did Vergil know his business? Assuming that Vergil knew what he was about, let us do what our speaker failed to do, i. e. let us examine the passage and discover the real meaning. Does *ast* call for no emphasis at all? We have just learned in six and a half verses what Pallas was able to do when a single man sinned against her sacred majesty; we are to learn now of the impotence of Juno. *Ast* is to serve the rather important function of contrasting the coming account of the impotence of Juno, 'Jove's both sister and wife', to avenge the wrongs done her by a whole race with the dread vengeance exacted by Pallas for the sin of one man. Was Vergil foolish, then, in giving weight through the aid of meter to a word that plays so large a role? Again the speaker complained because in 47 the stress, "instead of coming on the emphatic *soror,* comes on the comparatively unimportant *et*". But is *et* unimportant? Does not the fact that *et* . . . *et* carry *two* ictuses bring out as nothing else could the duality of Juno? It is that duality which emphasizes her impotence. So far, then, as this portion of the contention is concerned, just one thing is to be said, that such considerations, instead of showing the uselessness of metrical study, show how absolutely essential it is to probe Vergil's verses deeply to get at their real meaning, how blind and halt the study of Vergil's verses is unless a large part is played by the very examination of the meter which the speaker, in a fit of despair, would have had us forego entirely.

The speaker then passed on to discuss the question of elision. He treated elision (1) as the absolute crushing out of the vowel and proved at length, what needed no proof at all, that the results obtained are often, to us moderns, absurdly unintelligible. But he fails to note that it by no means follows that the results reached by such a method would be equally absurd or unintelligible to the Romans. We all know the story told by Cicero De Div. 2. 84, that *cum M. Crassus exercitum Brundisi imponeret, quidam in portu caricas Cauno advectas vendens Cauneas clamitabat. Dicamus, si placeret, monitum ab eo Crassum caveret ne iret; non fuisse periturum si omini paruisset.* The identification of *Cauneas* with *cave ne eas* involves, it is plain, two cases of elision wherein the final vowel is completely crushed out. To this the speaker gave no heed; he gave no heed either to the extent to which in Italian poetry as delivered by Italians or in modern spoken Greek or Italian elision involves complete loss of the vowel, without absurdity or loss of intelligibility.

He then discussed (2) the other method of treating the elision, that of slurring the vowels together. He argued that "no modern scholar can slur the syllables together in such a way as to preserve the identity of each word without destroying the rhythm of the verse or doing violence to the temporal requirements of the verse"; he will get too many syllables. He made merry over the cases in which the elided syllable ends a speech and asks if we are to imagine two speakers in a rapid dialogue in a lively scene in comedy timing their utterances in such fashion that while the one is enunciating the concluding vowel of

his speech the other shall break in with the first vowel of his. We did not need proof that such a procedure is unthinkable. The speaker might have learned much had he pursued some such investigation as Mr. Magoun set forth in his four papers in The Latin Leaflet (Nos. 170-173). Mr. Magoun reminded us that we have to deal not merely with types of syllables, the two-time and the one-time syllable, which stand to each other in a wholly rational relation, but with syllables lighter than a light syllable[1] and heavy syllables less heavy than two beats[2]. Had the disputant known or remembered these facts and had he summoned to his aid even an elementary knowledge of music, he had saved himself much writing. Feet in verse, as bars in music, have equal or approximately equal time values, but they need not contain exactly the same number of syllables. The syllable which *per se* is the lightest possible may in music receive any desired number of beats; conversely a syllable in itself heavy may in singing be but barely touched. Hence the method of slurring the vowels, which the speaker condemned, has justification in music. I take it that a trained singer slurring the vowels could deliver Latin verses in a way to show proper quantitative effects and a right division into bars or feet, i. e. in rhythmical fashion.

Finally, the disputant failed to note that all his criticisms apply only to the oral reading of Latin verse: they do not lie at all against the written analysis of verses such as Professor Johnston urges. Such written analysis is independent of any theory of ictus, and of any theory of the relation of ictus to word accent and elision, and is in no small degree instructive.

I have said enough, I hope, to show that the two methods of treating the elision mentioned in our books are not to be lightly laughed out of court by a despairing critic. Grant that we do not yet know exactly how the Romans read their verses: shall we for that reason give up trying to discover? We do not yet know all the details of Latin syntax; shall we exempt our Latin pupils from all necessity of attempting to understand Latin syntax? The gospel of despair is surely not the friend of progress.

If the teacher is convinced that all this is beyond the high school pupil, let him then do this work for his own good. Let him seek in every way to quicken his own appreciation of such matters, to broaden and deepen his own sense of the importance of metrical studies; let him add in every possible way to his own stock of knowledge concerning such matters and then, inevitably, his teaching of so much of the subject as he holds to be within his pupil's apprehension will be more vital and more effective.

CHARLES KNAPP.

[1] Too many books have been written in ignorance of these facts, which were perfectly well known to the ancients (see e. g Goodell, Chapters on Greek Metric, 6—57), and have been demonstrated afresh by modern psychological investigations (see e. g. an article in Studies from the Yale Psychological Laboratory, 9 (1901), 1—142, by J. E. W. Wallin, entitled Researches on the Rhythm of Speech. On page 31 we learn that phonographic records have shown "that the length of a given long or short syllable in modern languages is never absolutely fixed; the precise length is different for every time it is spoken". Mr. Wallin's paper in one long protest against the doctrine that in poetry as read, the feet are in fact equal each to each; see especially p. 125. Cf. also Charlton M. Lewis, The Principles of English Verse 14: "Now in verse as in prose it must be observed that our instinct does not demand exact quality of the time intervals.... Indeed, to read verse in perfectly even time would be to make it insufferably monotonous. Children recite their Mother Goose in that way, because their instinct is strong and crude; but older persons are repelled rather than attracted by that kind of sing-song, and much of the beauty of verse, to a refined taste, is due to the perpetual checks and accelerations with which rhythm is varied". In the Nation of November 28, 1908, page 531, in a review of Josef Hofmann's recent book on Piano Playing I read: "The author warns against the use of the metronome, because the keeping of absolute time is thoroughly unmusical and deadlike".

[2] I would strongly urge all teachers of Vergil to read two highly illuminating papers by Professor M. W. Humphreys of the University of Virginia: (1) The influence of Accent in Latin Dactylic Hexameters, Transactions American Philological Association, 1878, pp. 39—58 (one of the best papers ever written on the hexameter, far better than Munro's paper in the Transactions of the Cambridge Philosophical Society, Volume 10, which appeared about the same time, advocating the same thesis); (2) On certain Influences of Accent on Latin Iambic Trimeters, Trans. Am. Phil. Ass., 1876, pp. 107—145.

QUANTUM AN QUALE?

At the risk of triteness I wish to offer a few suggestions in regard to the status of classical studies at the present time.

That there is not manifested nor felt that interest in Greek and Latin, especially the former, that those seriously engaged in teaching these subjects would like to see is matter of common knowledge. It ought to be possible to indicate the reason, or a part of the reason, for this state of things.

In this age, in which success is measured largely by the size of the 'pile', the impression appears to be widespread that time spent in coming in contact with the misty past is time misspent. In many instances, it must be sadly confessed, that view is abundantly justified by the facts of experience, but is its truth to be ascribed to the nature of the subject or to the degree of contact?

'Put money in thy purse' is a parental admonition which, although notoriously disregarded during the period of college life, yet lies dormant in the mind of many a young man as a potent principle which will, after the wild oats are sown, open to him the door of success.

The temper of mind thus engendered is antagonistic, it is true, not only to the spirit of reverence for and delight in the intellectual creations of past ages, but also to any serious mental occupation which does not yield or promise immediate, visible, tangible and—as summing up the entire list of desirable attributes—practical results.

We ardently pursue the practical; we offer sacrifice on the altar of the practical. Be it so. But what is the 'practical'? The answer depends upon the point of view.

Is our youth to be encouraged to bend his best energies, all his energies, to the acquirement of that which, when acquired, so often turns to ashes in his grasp?

Is there, then, no practical in the Classics? If one looks forward to the profession of law or of medicine, he is told that he should know something of Greek and Latin, or that the presence in his own language of a large number of words derived from Greek and Latin constitutes a cogent reason why he should study these languages.

Νήπιοι, οὐδὲ ἴσασιν ὅσῳ πλέον ἥμισυ παντός.

As he that would scale the mountain height fixes his eye, if he is a wise climber, not on the crest miles away, but on the next spot in the path before him that is to receive his foot, so he that is wisely directed in the pursuit of the literary treasures of the ancients will, from pure delight in the exercise, not insistently question what application is to be made of what he is gathering along the way. That there is an application, many applications, he will find in due season, but that these are by-products, however valuable, of the main process.

In case our pupil neither is diverted wholly from the study of the Classics by the advice of those who proudly parade success in life secured without the aid of the rubbish of antiquity, nor receives false views of objects to be attained from those whose estimate of the value of classical lore is based upon 'Greek in English' or upon the fact that the doctor of medicine will sometime be confronted with *levator nasi labiique superioris* and will need to write prescriptions in Latin, while the lawyer must be quite at home with *fieri facias* and the rest of the brood, or all events make his associates (*haruspicem haruspex*) and the jury think he is, in the event, then, that our pupil escapes these dangers, there are others that await him on the threshold of his studies.

These dangers constitute, in fact, one danger; all are involved, each in its own degree and place, in the one vital, fundamental question of contact. It is here, at the outset, that the case is settled for good or ill. And the issue of the battle, at least the early stages of the battle, rests with the teacher. For it is of the nature of the healthy mind to be attracted by clear views of truth, to be repelled by half truths and false coverings.

Do our classical teachers, from the first moment that those committed to their charge see a Greek word, a Latin word, take the pains, at whatever cost of time and patience, to direct the pupil's attention, through eye and ear, to the immediate connection between the object represented and the word which represents it? The frequent, nay, substantially invariable inability of the pupil at a later stage to deal with the foreign word except by means of a label that proves a hindrance rather than a help, seems to show that he has been allowed, if not encouraged, at a time when by proper guidance, the habit of seeing the real relations of things might have been happily formed, to see only the shadows of such relations.

Thus the making of translations, or transfusions, as the prime object of endeavor, a practice so readily acquired by unwary youth and with so much difficulty 'shaken off, defeats what should be to the classical instructor among his highest aims, in that it reverses the natural order, an order none the less important because of its embodiment in the homely receipt for making a rabbit-pie. Hence follows naturally the 'pony', the interlinear text and—chaos.

Shadow-chasing is the disease for which classical teachers must find a cure, if they would save the day for the Classics. Of means to this end I believe the one that promises the best results is to be found in excluding, as far as may be, servile dependence upon the vernacular, in dealing directly with the word in relation to that of which it is the reflection.

JAMES W. KERN.

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REVIEWS

An Elementary Latin Course. By Franklin Hazen Potter, of the State University of Iowa. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co. (1908). Pp. xv + 231 + 109 + 52.

This, in the opinion of the reviewer, is a thoroughly good book on thoroughly bad principles. Starting with the sentences 'I strike him' and 'he strikes me' one is initiated into the nominative and objective concepts. Thereafter the following are introduced in this order: concord of the adjective, predicate nominative, possessive genitive, possessive case and 'of', verb-stems and principal parts, personal endings, present tense (in English and in Latin), indirect object, imperfect tense, future tense, ablatives of means and cause, vocative. The forms of the first and second declensions and the first and second conjugations are introduced as needed. No attempt is made to finish one before beginning the next, but in a final lesson the forms of each declension are summarized. This is accomplished in thirteen lessons. The order in which the chief topics thereafter are taken up can best be told thus: if a class begins this book in September, it will finish the first and second declensions, nouns and adjectives, in a month; the third declension, all about adjectives and adverbs (except numerals and the nine pronominals), and the entire indicative, active and passive, of all regular verbs and of *sum*, by Christmas; fourth and fifth declensions, *is, qui, unus, duo, tres,* subjunctive of regular verbs and *sum,* indicative and subjunctive of *eo,* syntax of independent subjunctives (except dubitative) and of volitive substantive clauses, February first; all pronouns except indefinite, all conjugations except *nolo* and *malo,* numerals, simple sentences in indirect discourse, complementary and subject infinitives, conditions, pure and relative clauses of purpose, result, characteristic, *cum*-cir-

cumstantial, periphrastic conjugations and gerund and gerundive, by April first; all temporal and causal clauses, questions, ablative absolute, *nolo, malo*, indefinite pronouns, substantive *quin, quod* and result clauses, dates, complex indirect discourse, prefixes, suffixes and derivation, Roman names, in the last two months. Case constructions are scattered through the whole. Everything is included that is desirable in first year Latin. It is eminently practicable, a uniform progression. The method makes some strange bedfellows: e. g. in one lesson, *hic, plus*, relative purpose clause, ablative with deponents, dative with compound verbs, complementary infinitive, in another, *idem, vis*, dative with adjectives, *ut*-clause of purpose, etc.

Why brand these as bad principles? Because, except in a mind systematic by nature, the result must be inability to form in the imagination a comprehensive picture of any declension or conjugation or of any group of syntactical facts, to say nothing of grammar as a whole. This is not a foundation of reënforced concrete, with a ground floor of stone and an upper story of frame, but, where a log fits, a log is used; where a stone fits, a stone is used; and where nothing else fits, cement is poured in to fill up the empty space. To countervail the well-known shortcomings of this method, this author has introduced summaries of all previous ablatives each time a new ablative is imparted, of all previous subjunctives each time a new subjunctive occurs, etc. But these remedies are not complete, nor can they ever be so good as good health from the beginning.

The Hale-Buck Grammar has been followed in regard to the quantity of vowels, and in some other matters, especially in the subtle analysis and nomenclature of the subjunctive. The pedagogical value of the latter has probably never before been so well demonstrated.

The author claims to have discovered that declensions can be more effectively memorized if studied by cases rather than by numbers, as usually. Adjectives and pronouns he treats in the same way, taking one gender at a time[1]. The suggestion is worth trying. The most important feature of the book is that every principle of syntax is described and formulated twice in separate, usually adjacent, lessons, once from the point of view of translating Latin, once with special regard to translating English into Latin. The reflex effect of this upon the pupil's use of his native tongue can not be else than excellent. The exercises are everywhere easy, except in the last month's work, and very skillfully composed. The sentences themselves contain an element of interest. After Lesson X they all consist of continuous narrative, for the most part in simple (and numbered) sentences. There is, however, not the slightest suggestion of Caesarian style or thought in any of them, perhaps because of their very simplicity. ***There is never more than one exercise in a lesson.*** Latin-English and English-Latin follow each other in successive lessons in the proportion of about two to one. In thirty-two of them (beginning, in the time-schedule above, just after the Christmas holidays) are told anecdotes from the legendary history of Rome. All the exercises are assembled at the end of the volume, in order to remove the paradigms from the student's eye while he is translating.

[1] The conventional arrangement, however, is given in an appendix for those who wish it.

The vocabularly of the lessons is made up as follows[1]:

Total number of words (excluding proper names)	564
Caesar words in Professor Lodge's list of 2000	404
Words occurring from one to four times in high school Latin	23
Words not in high school Latin	6

The manufacture of the book is excellent. A few maps and illustrations are found in connection with the narrative of the exercises. Three interesting halftones and a restoration of the Forum are used as frontispieces. There is a misprint, 'least', on page 128.

There is bound in the same volume A New Method for Caesar, by the same author. It consists of model lessons on the first thirty chapters of the Gallic War, and the text of the same. Each lesson contains a text-assignment, an assignment of principles of syntax for review from the grammar, a special vocabulary, and short Latin sentences which are a simplification of the difficult parts of the day's text.

Barclay W. Bradley.

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Six Weeks' Preparation for Reading Caesar. By J. M. Whiton. Fifth Revised Edition, with additions by H. I. Whiton. Boston: Ginn & Co. Pp. 105.

This book is intended for older students with only a limited time for the study of the essentials of Latin. The paradigms for the most part are not given in the text, and the book must be used in close connection with the Allen and Greenough, Bennett, or Harkness Grammar. The constant effort to have the student apply his knowledge of tense signs and inflectional endings to new words, even to new conjugations, shows the hand of the experienced teacher. One therefore wonders the more at such misleading statements as "The Perfect System of tenses including all perfects pluperfects and future perfects of the Active Voice is in the *A*, *E* and *I* conjugations distinguished by the addition of *V* to the verb stem", and at the frequent occurrence in early exercises for

[1] These are the figures of Mr. Stephen A. Hurlburt, presneted at the last meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States.

translation of such detached phrases as *Praesidia conlocaremus, Servis imperavissemus, Oppidorum fossas et valla, locum munirent,* and 'We may have heard'. A mature student would have difficulty in translating these without a context, and a younger student, in our opinion, is only hindered by the effort to do so. Whatever the need for haste, it is difficult to understand the postponement of the relative pronoun to a Supplementary Lesson (XIII) when the forms and syntax of the gerund have been treated in Lesson VI. It is to be feared that without a very good guide such a swift march to the Gallic province would leave the recruit breathless and poorly equipped for the campaign. SUSAN BRALEY FRANKLIN.

ETHICAL CULTURE SCHOOL, New York Ctiy.

A Study of the Topography and Municipal History of Praeneste. By Ralph Van Deman Magoffin. Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science, Series XXVI, Nos. 9 and 10. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press (1908).

This is announced to be the first of a series of investigations of the history of the towns of the famous Latin League from the topographical and epigraphical points of view. It is based on numerous visits to Palestrina and a continuous residence there of several weeks, during which the writer had the opportunity of seeing the excavations of 1907, as well as on a study of the extant inscriptions and a careful examination of the secondary sources. The result is a considerable addition to our knowledge of this important and interesting town.

Dr. Magoffin made a minute examination of the ancient walls and their gates, and has been able to correct a number of errors made by previous writers on this subject, as well as in the description of the four great cisterns on which Praeneste depended for its water supply, and in that of the Temple of Fortuna Primigenia. The beautiful mosaic in the Barberini Palace is assigned to the time of Hadrian, and the suggestion is made that it was a gift of that emperor to the town.

The epigraphical topography is taken up in the alphabetical order of the monuments and the buildings mentioned in the inscriptions. An hitherto unknown Sacra Via is traced from the Porta Triumphalis through the upper Forum to the Temple.

The second part of the study is based wholly on epigraphic sources and deals with the municipal government of Praeneste, which is of special interest because of the rivalry of the town with Rome, its long period of independence, and its varied history. Praeneste, which was itself the head of a small league, was first governed by praetors, aediles, and quaestors, in conjunction with a senate; there is no trace of an earlier stage under a king or a dictator. The town was not a *municipium* in the strict sense of the term until it was made one at its own request during the reign of Tiberius. Under Sulla it was a *colonia* with the usual *duumuiri, decuriones,* etc. A study of the personal names seems to show that in the choice of officials no preference was shown to the colonists of Sulla, even in the case of the duumvirate. The question of the personality of the *quinquennales* is especially examined. They appear to have been elected by the people after endorsement or recommendation by the central government of Rome, although this requirement gradually fell into disuse. It was not essential that they should previously have held office in the town in which they were chosen quinquennales.

An alphabetical list of the municipal officers is given and separate chronological lists for the period when Praeneste was a *colonia* and for the later period. The study is illustrated by five photographs taken by the author. JOHN C. ROLFE.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

CORRESPONDENCE

Mr. W. W. Baker's article on Slang, Ancient and Modern, in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2. 210 must surely silence the few who are still holding out against this popular mode of communicating one's lack of thought. Mr. Baker proves that slang is classic because (to cite a few of his instances) in Homer Calypso calls Odysseus a 'sinner' (ἀλιτρός), and Odysseus is told that his 'bed is made' (πεποίηται εὐνή), and a boat is said to 'run before the wind' (θεούσης νηός), and racers start from the 'scratch' (ἀπὸ νύσσης); and Lucian calls a girl a 'right pretty thing' (παγκαλόν τι χρῆμα), and says 'D' you see?' (ὁρᾷς); and Theocritus uses the phrase 'skin and bones' (ὀστέα καὶ δέρμα) ; and Aristophanes actually allows himself such slang as 'I'll be off' (ἐγὼ δ' ἀπέσομαι).

What a clever Sabine Rape is this of Mr. Baker's! The Classics in toto carried off before our eyes, and ranged against us! With such a comprehensive net as this, he will bag us all, as the Persians netted the Greek islanders. Monsieur Jourdain found himself life-long guilty of talking prose without knowing it; so are we all now detected by Mr. Baker in speaking — nay, perhaps, even thinking — this vile stuff slang. "The world is full of"—slang. To avoid the miasma, we purists must close the mouth and say nothing; otherwise, we should learn from the Just Argument in the Clouds, who admits that the blackguards are in a large majority (πολὺ πλείονας τοὺς εὐρυπρώκτους) and goes to Socrates's University to acquire the blackguard art. .

Banter aside, would Mr. Baker kindly frame us his definition of Slang? L. L. FORMAN.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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College instructors do not understand the problems of the secondary school, and with the rarest exceptions are not competent to direct preparatory work or to give good advice about it. This proposition will, no doubt, be disputed, first of all by the college man himself, but every thoughtful schoolmaster will recognize its truth. Whenever we call in a college man to address a meeting of schoolmasters we find at the end of a few sentences that we have a theorist before us with little or no practical grasp of his problem. . . . The preparatory course, as our system is now arranged, is dictated absolutely by the college entrance requirements, and these requirements at present are so mischievous in two ways that they spell ruin unless we can hope for early relief. It is useless and hopeless to demand good secondary teaching as long as we are bound by a rigid system which first kills interest, and secondly puts a premium on 'cramming' processes and interlinear translations. Nor can we get far while we are compelled by small differences and irregularities to waste a large proportion of our strength and time as is now the case.

These quotations are from a very suggestive article on College Requirements in Latin and The School Curriculum, which appeared in the September number of The Educational Review. The author, Mr. F. M. De Forest of the Houston School, Spokane, argues very strongly for uniform entrance requirements and an examination which will test the student's capacity to read Latin. He accuses the colleges of insincerity in making particular requirements and maintains that from the results of the entrance examinations it is evident that the differences are nominal and not real, that no college has a standard which is perceptibly higher than that of the others, "as every secondary teacher knows from experience".

He makes, as his contribution to the solution of the problem, a strong plea for teaching Latin, in a general way—not necessarily in every particular—much as French and German are taught. He thinks the requirements ought to be particularly sight translation of prose and poetry, supplemented by composition and a minute examination upon certain small required works. "Some such solution as this", he says, "is our only hope if Latin is to stem the tide". Incidentally he urges that all words in sight passages not in my numbered list should be explained in foot-notes unless they are obvious derivatives.

The main points of Mr. De Forest's paper have been expressed in various places by different teachers. His presentation is, however, distinguished by refreshing candour and a disposition not to mince matters which may have a good effect. Certain it is that many teachers are still unconvinced as to the necessity of changing our methods of teaching. This lack of conviction is shown particularly in their attitude towards the use of a prescribed vocabulary and the employment of sight translation on examinations.

Several points should, however, be particularly emphasized. First, sight translation cannot be insisted upon in any scheme of instruction if the college examination does not give it prominence. The practical teacher who has to put his pupils through college examinations in which sight translation is valued at only twenty per cent will neglect it almost entirely and put the time on the prepared work. He will say, perhaps somewhat cynically, "I can cram my students for the translation of the set passages so that they can pass the examinations; and it is practically better for me to spend all of my time on that than on work which will have such small results on the examination".

In the second place many teachers think that if the requirement of prepared work is lessened it will result in lessening the time devoted to the study of Latin in the schools. If we require two books of Caesar instead of four, they urge, no matter what we say about sight translation, the school will teach two books of Caesar instead of four. Nothing could be more fallacious. The extension of the examinations in sight reading instead of lessening the work in Latin increases it. If the pupil is required to translate at sight a given passage with substantial accuracy, and the test is applied severely, not only as much Latin but even more will have to be read in the schools. The essential for translation at sight is much practice and intensive teaching. Hence those who ask that more emphasis be laid on sight translation are in no way conniving at a diminution in the requirements in Latin.

In the third place, there is a great prejudice against prescribing any list of words on the ground that it tends to make the teaching mechanical. Students, it is said, will cram the word-lists and not learn as much Latin as they did by the old method. Now no sensible teacher believes that the mere committing to memory of a list of words is going to be of any service at all, but it is likewise eminently reasonable that teachers should have before them a certain pre-

scribed list of words so that (1) their study of vocabulary may be confined within a definite range and (2) that they may be able to read examination papers and make tests with assurance. Many teachers say that unusual words should be explained. But this is just the difficulty. What are the unusual words? My experience is that hardly any two teachers will agree on that point unless they have made studies in comparative word-frequency. No, a prescribed list of words does not mean cramming that list; it means restricting the teachers in the schools to certain definite limits, so that there shall be no waste of time and no uncertainty. With such a list there is ample opportunity for exhaustive study, if you choose, in word formation, in derivation, in semasiology, and in the numberless matters which come up in word study. The proper list has not yet been prepared. It should, in my opinion, be confined largely to primitives, with instruction in derivation; but the absence of a proper list should not prejudice us against the employment of such a list when prepared. G. L.

THE VALUE OF THE CLASSICS: AN OUTSIDER'S VIEW[1]

Following all the traditions of modern specialization, the task which I have assumed this evening is one from which any student of modern literature should respectfully retreat. For many years the field of the Classics and that of modern literature have each been regarded by their respective votaries as private domains about which there has been erected a high wall. If, perchance, like the Lover in the Romance of the Rose, any modern student should be so bold as to penetrate into the garden of the Classics and there seek to woo the Muses of Greek and Latin poetry, he has been confronted by the dire figures of jealous guardians who have demanded his passports in terms of philology, mythology, archaeology and text criticism. Lacking the requisite papers he has been shown out the gate of the garden to which none but those initiated in the processes of the classical seminary claim entrance. To lay aside figurative language, is it not true that the man who occupies himself exclusively with the problems presented by the modern languages and literatures is still regarded in England and America as possessing a mind of inferior calibre, inadequate to fathom the mysteries entailed by study for the classical tripes or in the classical seminar?

There is some ground for this assumption on the part of scholars upon your side of the fence. Where I am surrounded by such a phalanx of stalwart Greeks and Romans, I shall take good care not to antagonize you at the outset. I freely admit that the study of modern philology has not yet been put even in our universities upon the footing of dignity and thoroughness which has long been occupied by classical philology. In our secondary schools, to our shame be it said, the teaching of French and German as living tongues is for the most part a laughable farce. It will continue to be so as long as the instruction in these branches is put into the unhallowed hands of football coaches or into the mild grip of lady drawing-teachers. However, a movement in the right direction has been started in many of the schools here represented, and we shall live to see better things. The time may yet come when the training in English, French and German grammar will be as efficient as the training in Greek and Latin grammar is at present.

Personally, I am much interested in increasing the efficiency of the modern language instruction in our secondary schools. 'Know a little and know it well' is a doctrine which I have preached upon more than one occasion. But it is not for that purpose that I am here tonight. When the officers of your Association did me the honor of asking me to make some remarks this evening, we had a very clear idea of what was expected. They were at some pains to explain that nothing serious was required or desired. It was made very clear by them to me that you would resent any attempt at this time to improve your minds, but that you would sit amiably by while someone discoursed in an innocuous fashion upon the beauties of your classical heritage as seen by a layman. "Come into our garden", they said, "and have a look around. Tell us what you think of our flowers and our methods of cultivation. We shall be glad to hear what you say. Of course you understand that everything is laid out in the best way, and we don't promise to change any of the paths or the flower beds; but you are perfectly free to suggest any improvements you may think fit".

It is, then, as an outsider, as a student of Romance literature, that I speak to you tonight. But I venture to say that there is no one of you who excels me in my admiration for the beauty of classical poetry, or who believes more thoroughly in the advantage of a training in Latin for every schoolboy in the land. The day when, in the folly of that cry for a *practical* education, Latin was allowed to slip from the required list to the elective list was to my mind a sorry day for American education. The results have been disastrous to the mental grip, the ability to concentrate, and the appreciation of accuracy in the rising generation. For there was not at that time, and there is not yet, any substitute for the mental drill in linguistics imposed by the study of Greek and Latin grammar. If Professor Barrett Wendell can say so as a teacher of English, I crave the right to repeat it as a teacher of the Romance languages. Verily, my heart sinks when I find a student in my courses whose preparation consists

[1] This paper was read at the meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States, at Haverford, Pa., April 24, 1909.

of hours in a laboratory, half-days spent in drawing steam-engines and in dissecting harmless little beasties. How can anyone make rapid progress in the study of the modern languages, if he is ignorant of Latin etymology and syntax? How can anyone appreciate the beauty of our modern schools of poetry, if he has not a knowledge, if only in translation, of the masterpieces of Greek literary art? I have said it to modern language teachers, and know no reason why I should not repeat it to you: "I know of no foundation study in the curriculum of our secondary schools which could less easily be dispensed with than the study of Latin as far at least as the college entrance requirements". To my mind any course which omits Latin should be branded as an inferior course, taken only by students of marked intellectual deficiency. Now, I have no love for mathematics. It was the only subject which ever caused me sleepless nights, and embarassing failure. I am willing to put up mathematics alongside of Latin as a school subject required of everyone. And yet, is it not true that the average man could better dispense with algebra and geometry than he could with the essentials of the Latin grammar and vocabulary. Let us be very practical, since that is the pass-word nowadays. For myself, I have never had occasion to use more mathematics than was contained in the four processes of arithmetic and, occasionally, when times are good, the computation of interest. But what subject lies nearer to our mother tongue than the Latin? How can I express myself grammatically, or how can I make any intelligent use of words without an appreciation of the fundamental principles of Latin grammar and the main currents of Latin etymology? Let us leave literary appreciation out of the question for the moment; for the appeal to literary appreciation will not win converts now as it once did. You must be practical and keep your feet on the ground. So we may put the matter on the lowest footing. Before a man has anything to say, he should sharpen the tool with which to say it. Before a man undertakes to speak or write his thoughts he must possess the language which he proposes to use. No permanent or discriminating audience can be gained by the man who is illiterate. Point out, if you can, a masterpiece of human thought which is not composed in the best style that was accessible in his day to the author. Our schools, yea, our universities are turning out hundreds of young people who in this sense are illiterate. They cannot express or spell their thoughts in plain English. They have left undone something that they ought to have done,—or been made to do. They have missed the one essential to a straight-thinking being. One may very well sometimes dispense with the essential in order to possess the luxury, but not in linguistic work.

Enough has been said to show very plainly that I wish to be considered a party to an intelligent study of the Classics in our schools as a preparation for all future work in language study, including the use of the mother tongue. Those of you who teach the Classics will certainly all agree with what has been said. Indeed, you knew it all before. If I am to give you any food for thought upon this frivolous occasion, I must assume another view-point. Thus far, we have been regarding the Classics chiefly as a training for the schoolboy or girl. We have tried to present the Classics as an unequalled food for the production of gray matter in the soft and malleable brain of a fifteen-year-old. My principal concern, however, this evening, is to speak of the humanistic value of the Classics in the cultivation of a literary taste which shall prove a guide and a solace in after life.

To my mind the teacher of the Classics should never lose from view this ultimate and more generous interpretation of his mission. As a teacher I would insist that the classical student be drilled thoroughly in grammar, syntax and etymology. That much is to be regarded as the *sine qua non*. But I would also have it that the classical student be at least exposed to some literary and artistic comment from a sympathetic teacher. Perhaps he will not catch the enthusiasm of his teacher. Indeed, only one here and there will catch it. But all should be exposed to it. You must sow beside all waters. From time to time some rich, full grain will spring up to your credit. From *your* class-rooms must come the poets, historians, philosophers, moralists, novelists, critics and editors, unless we are to admit that American literature is to be a hodge-podge of stock-markets, wheat pits, trolleys and dirigible balloons,—a literature lighted by electricity and with the divorce courts to furnish the love motive. It is with a very high appreciation, then, of your opportunities, that I venture to suggest that frequently they are missed.

Let me be more explicit and state my own case—a typical one. Twenty years ago I left a school in the adjoining city, trained to a fine point for the Arts course in a nearby college. In Greek, Xenophon and Homer had furnished the pabulum, in Latin Caesar, Cicero, Vergil and Nepos. There were no mysteries for me at that time in scansion, quantities, figures of speech, syntax or mythological allusion. Every rule in the grammar had been learned by heart, all the forms had been committed with scrupulous exactness; there was no possibility of failure except through deficiency of the necessary vocabulary. You understand, I trust, that this is said after twenty years in no spirit of boasting, but as a belated tribute to a master who believed in thoroughness and in accuracy. I can never repay the debt. But his system made all the Greek and Latin work in college child's play, and has been to me

a constant spur to raise the study of modern grammar to a like degree of efficiency. It would seem that the prompt, intelligent grasp which enables a student to see directly through the intricacies of an involved grammatical construction is little less desirable and far more useful than the intelligence which enables him to undertake successfully the solution of a problem in geometry. Yet, what can we do in our modern language classes, when we have to do with students, otherwise intelligent, who do not know the distinction between a transitive and an intransitive verb, the active and passive voice, a direct and an indirect question, a future indicative and a pluperfect subjunctive, a more vivid future condition and a condition contrary to fact in past time? Such a student sees no reason why we may not have a contrary to fact condition in future time! You think such ignorance is impossible in these days of grace? I assure you I am not exaggerating, as you can see for yourselves in any modern language class-room where students are poorly taught. The whole nomenclature of grammatical study runs the risk of going by the board since children have been allowed of their own free will to substitute the study of modern languages for the Classics in their elementary work.

But again, I say, this fault is not within your jurisdiction. Our pedagogical method men are to blame, aided and abetted by the popularity of kindergarten methods in secondary education and the mushy attitude of weak-backed parents. To return to my subject. As has been said, twenty years ago I possessed a very comfortable knowledge of Greek and Latin syntax. But that is all. The beauty of the Iliad and the Aeneid had escaped me; the strategy and historical style of Caesar were never regarded; the eloquence of Cicero was not called to our attention. In other words, were it not for my profession which has necessitated a frequent re-dipping into the springs of classic origins, my classical studies would stand me today for an unremitting drill in grammar and prosody, and nothing more. *Forsan et haec olim meminisse iuvat.* Yes, I am glad to be still able to parse a sentence. But it is not the main thing to me nowadays. Grammar is not going to charm middle age, nor is it going to call back the weary business man of a winter evening to the perennial sources of classic delight. There must be some other memory. You must have sowed some other seed in this fallow ground of youth committed to your charge. You must give the student some idea of the Greek and Latin civilization which produced these masterpieces, which are immortal even though they be massacred at the rate of fifty lines a day. They die daily, but they live on in the class-rooms of the ages. Give your students a little history, a little archaeology, a little biography—not for purposes of examination, but for culture only to stimulate their interest in whatsoever things are lovely and of good report. Mr. A. C. Benson has said in The Schoolmaster: "To omit intellectual enjoyment from our programme, to pass over one of the strongest of boyish faculties, seems to me the kind of mistake that will be regarded some years hence as both pitiable and ludicrous". Now almost every class in a large school has a future great soul in it who is going to be kindled by what is great and good in your field. It is worth while to reach that soul alone. But every class has in it a number of souls that will be weary and sad at the age of forty or fifty unless they have some source of literary joy and satisfaction to which they can hark back and be filled. The bare text will perhaps not suffice to lure them back. But if in their recollections the text suggests the accompaniment of noble architecture, intense politics, high philosophy, thrilling military expeditions, sweet lyrics and soul-stirring dramas—if all this goes, however vaguely, with the memories of the classical class-room, do you not think that the mature man will more often be prompted to open again his old books and live his youth over again? For, as Sainte-Beuve says,

> there comes a time in life when our wanderings are finished, when our experiences are concluded. Then there is no more lively delight than to study and to ponder over what we know; to enjoy what we feel, to see over and over again the people we love,—pure joy of the heart and of taste in all its maturity.

Or, as one of your own writers has said,

> These studies are alike the food of youth, the delight of old age, the ornament of prosperity, the refuge and comfort of adversity; a delight at home, and no hindrance abroad; they are companions by night and in travel, and in the country.

Yes, ladies and gentlemen, I can imagine a venerable old man of eighty, buffeted by the blows of inconstant fortune, sitting down and finding solace in Plato and Homer and Vergil, or in the works of a Milton or a Tennyson who are steeped in classic lore; but I hesitate to contemplate the old age of a man who is driven for his philosophy and moral support to Mr. Robert Herrick's Together or the Letters of a Self-made Merchant to his Son. Surely, the last stage of such an one is worse than the first.

It is to be noticed that the reading men in our colleges are for the most part in the Arts course, and that means yet, thank Heaven, men who have studied some Latin, though less Greek. So that it could be shown that as teachers of the Classics you have to a great extent the moulding of literary habits, the shaping of literary tastes. I knew a gentleman who would not object to being called a practical business man, who knows the value of assets both material and intellectual. He had two sons, of whom one was destined to become a physician, and the other a manufacturer. Each of them looked towards a distinctly scientific career. He made both of them study Latin and Greek and take the Arts course for

four years. When asked why he did so, he replied: "I want my boys to have a thorough classical training before they go into special work. They will never be any the worse for it". I tell you, if there were more fathers who laid down the law in that way, we should have stronger intellectual fiber in our colleges and more resourceful men in middle life. More people would read Plutarch, Marcus Aurelius, Montaigne, Pascal, Newman and Emerson, and fewer people would waste their time on Anthony Hope and Stanley Weyman; there would be more readers of the quarterlies and the reviews, and fewer college men would prostitute their minds on Short Stories, The Smart Set and The Black Cat. The present low state of taste in literature is not the fault of the individual reader. It is the fault of our system, which produces tired brains without any resource in good literature. It is partly within the sphere of your influence so to teach the Classics that you shall not disgust the neophyte with his task. Let him go out from your class-rooms with a pleasant memory, a broadened view and higher ideals in literary appreciation. Have you never noticed with what fond reminiscence the minds of middle-aged men go back to a teacher of the Classics who was filled with the milk of human kindness? There was such a man in this college a half century ago. His name is never mentioned in our alumni gatherings, but men whose hair is turning gray pay the tribute of a furtive tear and a happy smile to the memory of the luminous interpretation of the Classics as they were taught by Thomas Chase. He loved his subject, and he loved young men. His mission was to make them love the subject, and he did it. Can any of us teachers of literature set himself a higher goal?

You know more about it than I do: you will say that a dozen difficulties stand in your way. You have to contend with the opposition of parents, the dullness of students at the bottom of the class, the short hours of recitation, the pressure of the curriculum, and the cramming for entrance examinations. We have heard of some of the difficulties you have to contend with, and appreciate that you wage a ceaseless warfare. Perhaps you will say that this responsibility of literary culture lies altogether within the province of the college, and that you are solely occupied with laying a foundation. The latter consideration is surely the main one. Without it all subsequent progress is futile. But it is rather to the spirit of your instruction that I am referring. The student should constantly be led to remember that he is only working on the surface of a great mine of intellectual resource, into which you are qualifying him to dig. Or, to change the figure, instead of allowing him to grow short-sighted, you should open up to him distant horizons of delight, into which he will be able to pass and roam at his own sweet will. Many students will rise up to bless you for such a presentation of your subject, and, inspired by what you have allowed to be seen, will elect a fair proportion of classical studies in their collegiate work, instead of dropping them at entrance for the more facile courses in which they are allowed by complacent faculties to dabble vainly.

For what American education must produce before this Republic falls irretrievably into the hands of demagogues and ward politicians is *men*. Not mere machines who can gain a livelihood and who would sell their vote for gain, but men who know what they believe and why they believe it—men of principle who know the lessons of the Past and who realize that to make right prevail, the individual conviction must be carried out in deeds.

There has been a good deal of talk in England about the inadequacy of the old-fashioned methods in English education. You know what defects have been found even by Englishmen in the exclusively classical education with its mediaeval ear-marks, to which the best blood in England has for centuries been subjected. But we may question whether England has not had a larger list of university men in politics during the last two centuries than any other civilized nation of the world. This is not because a classical course prepares a man directly for a political or diplomatic career, but because in England education is rightly held to carry with it definite responsibilities of leadership in public life. France, like our own Republic, has fallen into the hands of demagogues and professional politicians, men who are in it for the money and who seem at times incapable of any disinterested sentiments or generous sense of personal responsibility. Some account for the present materialism of French politics by the falling off of classical instruction. But if I did not believe that there is a possible connection between the change in our curriculum and the sordid attitude of men in public life in our own country, I should not afflict you with these remarks. If the government of our states and cities is falling into the control of men who exploit them for their own gain, it is of course the fault of the educated men who do not raise a finger to prevent this state of affairs. What are they doing in the meantime? They are too busy to take any part in affairs for which they are not remunerated. They are *practical* men, the victims of a *practical* education, accustomed to reckon all values in dollars and cents rather than in honor, duty and intellectual leadership. They have attended school and they have gone to college for the definite purpose of fitting themselves for their life work, which in their case means to make money.

Now I have felt for some time that a salubrious effect upon our business and political life would be exerted by a more general knowledge and love of the Classics. It would probably be hard to show

that our teachers of Latin and Greek take the responsibility of citizenship any more seriously than the ward politician, or that their business ethics are on a higher plane than those of the average honest merchant. But that is not the point. I am not concerned with the professional classical scholar: he is at any rate usually not a scallawag. I am speaking of the laymen, the graduates of our High Schools, the men who never got beyond Vergil and who have immersed themselves perforce in the affairs of this life. For such men there could be found something steadying in the possession of what we may call the spirit of classical culture. He who has worshipped on this mount, where the air is redolent with high discourse and dignified methods, cannot come down into the world without experiencing the beneficial effects of a tonic. All that is cheap, vulgar and showy in literature and art repel him. He has no use for it, because he has been shown a more excellent way. Duty and service seem written in more indelible characters before the boy who has done the daily task and who has held commerce with the great artists of an age whose character is fixed beyond all change or attack of criticism. To reread the Aeneid, for example, is to the mature man an inspiration: what noble standards of conduct were there transmitted to the Romans; what grand characters in action, unweariedly striving to reach the goal set by Fate; what dignified poise and reserve in the literary presentation of the material; and finally what pictures of the heroes in peace and war crowd upon the delighted reader! These indeed are, as Sainte-Beuve says, pure joys of the heart and of taste in all its maturity.

If I have felt any message to deliver to-night to you teachers of the Classics, it is to remind you of a great privilege that is yours. It cannot be said that it is yours exclusively, because it is the privilege in some measure of all of us who hand on the great records of mankind. *Science* looks forward; *we* look backward, but with the knowledge that what we can learn in the Past has been given to us for our profit in the Future. A knowledge of the triumphs and failures of humanity in the countless ages of the Past is essential to a right understanding and perspective of the Present. Some lessons were learned long ago. Acquaintance with the Past saves time in making useless experiments. As the French say, "it is no use to break in a door that is not locked".

But the privilege is yours preëminently because your subjects belong like mathematics to the aristocracy of the curriculum. There is an odor of sanctity in the classical room. You may think at times that the odor is pretty stuffy and the class half asleep. But the public speaks to you hat in hand, and of your subjects with bated breath. You have the inside track, if you only manage to hold it. It is generally felt by educators and the public at large that the boy who has 'served time' in Latin preparation is mentally stronger than one who has not. I believe it is absolutely true nine times out of ten. The boy who has been well trained in even one of the Classics is seldom slipshod in his methods of study. Many who have not been so trained are worse than slipshod; they are unqualifiedly illiterate.

It has been my purpose, as stated at the outset, to upset none of your plans or methods. I am old-fashioned enough to care little for the methods over which the big guns in our Teachers' Colleges fire their broadsides and merely create a great flutter in the normal schools and district boards. What counts in instruction in the Classics above all is the man who is doing the teaching.

I should be happy if any word has been said which will dignify your task in your own minds and which will send you back to your work conscious of the extent of your silent influence upon the taste and standards of the rising generation.

Cornell University. W. W. Comfort.

REVIEWS

The Acropolis of Athens. By Martin L. D'Ooge. New York: The Macmillan Company (1908). xx + 405 + v pp. $4.00.

This volume is a notable contribution to our knowledge of ancient Athens. It far surpasses any single work thus far produced on the Acropolis. It reflects great credit on American scholarship. It will long continue to be the definitive work on the Acropolis.

Professor D'Ooge modestly states in the preface that "the present volume is an attempt to give a summary of the most important contributions to this history (of the Acropolis) and to state the results of personal study of this site and of the ruins upon it". But he has worked through his material so carefully and met the problems encountered so forcefully that the work may be regarded as an original and important contribution to knowledge.

Having in mind his two classes of readers—the general reader and the specialist—the author leaves to notes and appendixes a great mass of dry detail that would interrupt the steady flow of his narrative. He treats his subject mainly in the historical or chronological order, yet adopting the topographical method whenever it best suits his purpose.

After describing in minute detail the natural features of the Acropolis, the author presents the evidence of its original occupation as sanctuary, citadel, and the residence of prehistoric kings (Chapter I). He then discusses the earliest historical period down to the Persian Wars, dwelling particularly on the Pelargicon, the Old Temple of Athena, and the remains of Pre-Persian sculpture (Chapter II). He next treats the period from the Persian destruction

down to the Age of Pericles. This leads to an investigation concerning the rebuilding of the walls, the earlier Propylon and Parthenon, and the remains of sculpture of this period (Chapter III). Under The Age of Pericles (Chapter IV), he discusses, with due appreciation of the scientific and aesthetic aspects of his theme, the Parthenon, the Erechtheum, the Propylaea, and the Temple of Wingless Victory. Then follows a treatment of the temples and shrines on the southern slope of the Acropolis, with special attention to the theater of Dionysus (Chapter V). An historical sketch is given in the next chapter of the Acropolis in the Hellenistic and Roman periods with a detailed account of the descriptive tour of Pausanias (Chapter VI). The closing chapter treats the later history from the close of the Roman period up to the present time, during the Byzantine, Frankish, Florentine, Turkish and Modern Greek periods (Chapter VII). The Notes are valuable for the references they give to the sources and to the works of other topographers. The volume concludes in three appendixes for the benefit of the specialist, one giving Frazer's translation of Pausanias's description of the Acropolis and its monuments, and a select bibliography, a second discussing the Pelargicon, and a third giving an exhaustive treatment of the Old Athena Temple. The volume is rich in the possession of nine photogravures, seven plans and one hundred and thirty-four illustrations in the text.

The history of the Acropolis during and since the age of Pericles is fairly well known. Differences of opinion apply only to minor details, and the work done by Professor D'Ooge in covering the period from Pericles to the present may be regarded as final. Since the excavations of 1885-1889 scientific investigation has been directed chiefly to the Pre-Persian period, and has centered largely about Dörpfeld's discovery of the Old Athena Temple. Dr. Dörpfeld is the acknowledged master of this early period, and all other topographers feel called upon to say whether they adopt or dissent from his opinions. Professor D'Ooge gratefully acknowledges his debt of gratitude to Professor Dörpfeld "not only for the results of his investigations, without which no true history of the Acropolis could be written, but also for his great kindness in reading the larger part of my book in manuscript and in giving me the benefit of his technical and minute acquaintance with every phase of the subject". Yet Professor D'Ooge dissents from some of Dr. Dörpfeld's interpretations and presents cogent reasons for his point of view. In all these matters he presents clearly, first, the standpoint of Dörpfeld, then that of other topographers, and finally his own.

The chief points of dissent held by Professor D'Ooge are as follows:

(1) Dörpfeld believes that the Pelargicon continued to exist during the Periclean Age; Professor D'Ooge thinks it was destroyed when the Propylaea was erected.

(2) Professor D'Ooge does not accept Dörpfeld's theory of the history of the Pre-Persian Athena temples on the Acropolis.

(3) Professor D'Ooge does not believe with Dörpfeld that the Old Athena temple continued to exist after the erection of the Erechtheum. He presents, in his text and in appendix III, Dörpfeld's theory, his own theory, and the views of Petersen, Milchhoefer, Furtwängler, Michaelis, and others, so that his statement of the case is entirely complete and satisfactory. Yet at the close he adds,

> I would not be understood as claiming that I have disproved Dörpfeld's theory of the continued existence of the Old Athena Temple. My chief aim in this discussion has been to set forth the ground of the view I have preferred to take, realizing all the while that this view is by no means free from difficulties which I have not been able to remove wholly to my own satisfaction, but which seem to me still to be less numerous and formidable than those involved in the theory of the brilliant discoverer of the structure that has been the cause of all this controversy.

As one who has investigated the Old Athena Temple, the Pelargicum and the Dionysium in Limnis problems, in connection with my edition of the Attica of Pausanias, let me say that I feel that Professor D'Ooge's concluding statement is all that can be said about any of these questions. Owing to the scant and unsatisfactory references to them in ancient authors, we have not enough data at hand to solve the problems, and there will always be differences of interpretation of the passages at hand. They are, as it were,—if scholars will pardon the homely illustration—the pigs-in-the-clover puzzles of Athenian topography: when one passage slips comfortably into a theory another slips out. Hence all we can say is that Professor D'Ooge's thorough treatment offers the best and latest presentation of the problems involved and will long be the most authoritative statement of the subject.

It is gratifying in reading a book such as we are considering to turn from the realm of topographical disputation, to the realm of established fact in the study of the surviving architecture and sculpture of the Periclean Age. Here, too, our author's treatment will prove satisfying in both subject matter and style.

The author states in his preface that this book was originally intended to be one of a series of Handbooks of Classical Archaeology, but gradually outgrew the limits of a handbook. Having now the larger works of Gardner on Ancient Athens and D'Ooge on the Acropolis, the desideratum is a Handbook on the Topography and Monuments of Ancient Athens, of suitable size and treatment to be available as a text book in college courses on classical archaeology.

MITCHELL CARROLL.
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The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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Among recent books one is of great interest to friends of the Classics. I refer to a volume by Professor J. P. Mahaffy, entitled What have the Greeks done for Modern Civilization (Putnams). The book consists of lectures delivered before the Lowell Institute at Boston in December, 1908, and January, 1909, and repeated in whole or in part at various universities. The book will be reviewed later in our columns. At present I present some quotations from the preface; I should like to have these read in connection with certain remarks in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2. 137.

And yet I believed that the high honour in which Greek studies were long held had been exchanged for indifference, or even contempt, especially in America, where a hurried education planned for "practical life" was said to be taking the place of the old liberal education intended to breed gentlemen. But I found, during my actual visit to America, that I had been misled as to the completeness of this degradation of Greek. As is usual, the stranger begins by getting false impressions of the country he visits, and can only correct these gradually by detailed experience. There were many symptoms that public opinion in the States is by no means satisfied with the thought of an absolute reign of modern science, or of specialising education at the fancy of the ignorant youth or the more ignorant parent. Even employers in factories are beginning to find out, with that plain good sense which marks the solid core of American society, that young men who receive a liberal education are more intelligent and useful as tradesmen or mechanics than those who have mastered only one subject. The intellectual outlook tells even upon the handicraft of the apprentice.

There is therefore some prospect that the mistakes of the last generation . . . will be corrected, and that a proper college education will again replace the bread-and-butter studies in the earlier years of all good courses of training. If such a recovery of sound education takes place, it is impossible that Greek shall not resume its old importance. We now know far more of Hellenic work than did our Forefathers. We can vindicate Greek studies in a manner wholly strange to them, had they ever thought a vindication called for. But, on the other hand, the teaching of Greek must be reformed. It must be made a human and lively study, taught like a modern language by dictation and recitation, as well as by written composition and reading of authors. In many English public schools, there has been a fashion not only of teaching the old languages as if they were indeed dead, but of spoiling the teaching of modern languages by copying this mistake. Much of the prejudice against the learning of Greek has been created by this blunder, and by its radiation into kindred studies. But this also I trust will be mended, and we shall have a more intelligent method of teaching all languages as living vehicles of human expression. Among these, the Greek is far the most perfect.

. . . .

Two observations are worth making here before I conclude: The American professors of Greek and Latin have exactly the same experience that we have in Ireland regarding the abandonment of Greek while professing to retain Latin. Neither there nor in Ireland have we failed to note the deterioration of Latin teaching, and the conviction grows upon us that a teacher who knows no Greek cannot be a Latin scholar in any real sense.

So much for the boasted retaining of Latin while sacrificing Greek.

The next observation concerns the now fashionable attending of courses in English Literature. In no case during my visit did I hear a literary conversation spring up among these students of English.

They have no doubt admirable professors in great numbers, specialists on every English poet and prose writer worth naming. But apparently poetry learnt without labour in the mother tongue is not assimilated or appreciated as is the poetry of Classical languages, and from them the delight in literature as such spreads into kindred studies. Wherever I cited the poets, or indeed great prose such as the Bible, among the young people who had studied English as a subject for graduation, I found a strange ignorance of what ought to have been most familiar. I was almost driven to believe the paradox that without a classical education even the proper appreciation of English literature is unusual.

Teachers of English might, perhaps, be inclined to resent the latter part of Professor Mahaffy's words as quoted above; if so, I would commend to their notice and careful consideration quotations from an address by Professor W. L. Cross, a teacher of English, to be found in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2. 89. C. K.

TWO FACTORS IN LATIN WORD-ORDER

The second volume of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY contains a very interesting discussion of the relation of emphasis to Latin word-order. Professor Greene (pp. 2-4, 10-13, 213-215) undertakes to show that the Latin sentence is regularly climactic, that the strongest emphasis is usually at the end. He recognizes, however, that emphasis is not the only factor in the problem. Professor Preble (pp. 130-134), on the other hand, maintains that, aside from enclitics and proclitics, the emphasis is strongest at the opening of the sentence and weakens steadily to the end,

The two theories are almost diametrically opposed to each other, and one might think it an easy task to decide between them. But, as a matter of fact, one cannot help feeling that, while in some cases Professor Greene's interpretation is correct, in other instances Professor Preble has the best of the argument. When Cicero says in his Pro Milone (34) At eo repugnante fiebat, immo vero eo fiebat magis, *magis* surely carries the strongest emphasis, and *fiebat*, at the end of the first clause, is only slightly weaker (see Mr. Greene, pp. 10, 214, Mr. Preble, p. 133). A sure instance of initial emphasis is seen in Cicero Laelius 82: Neque solum colent amici inter se ac diligent sed etiam verebuntur. Nam maximum ornamentum amicitiae tollit qui ex eā tollit verecundiam. In this latter sentence, as Professor Preble (p. 134; cf. Mr. Greene, p. 10) points out, *verecundiam* is a mere repetition of *verebuntur* in the preceding sentence and it is therefore incapable of carrying strong emphasis. The new and consequently important idea is expressed by *maximum ornamentum*.

The main difficulty, I think, is that each writer neglects factors in the problem which are more fundamental than emphasis.

One of these is a principle[1] which is treated by Herbert Spencer in his essay on The Philosophy of Style as the very foundation of the art of composition. It is this: one should express the elements of his thought in the way (and in the order) in which the hearer can most readily use them for reconstructing the thought[2]; "economy of the recipient's attention" is essential to effective writing or speaking. Now, it is evidently to the hearer's advantage to know what topic is to be discussed before he is asked to assimilate the speaker's contribution. A fragmentary inscription or papyrus may seem quite hopeless, and yet when once we have found a clue to its subject matter we may be able to restore it almost entire. Every schoolboy knows how much more difficult a Latin sentence becomes when taken out of its context.

It is not necessary, however, that the grammatical subject should stand first, but merely that the given term, that part of the thought which is already familiar, should form the starting point. This is known technically as the psychological subject. To quote from Strong, Logeman, and Wheeler[3], "The psychological subject expresses the conception which

[1] Cf. Meader, The School Review 17. 243.

[2] The rules of word-order which Spencer deduces from the principle seem to the writer to be incorrect, and in fact Spencer himself is driven to restrict their applicability to the communication of comparatively simple thoughts to hearers or readers who have trained minds!

[3] The History of Language, 95. See also the following pages. The terms originated with von der Gabelentz, Lazarus und Steinthal's Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie und Sprachwissenschaft 6. 378 ff. Illuminating discussions of the subject may be found in the same author's Sprachwissenschaft[2], 365-376, and in Wegener, Untersuchungen über die Grundfragen des Spachlebens, 19 ff. Von der Gabelentz pointed out the bearing of his discovery upon Latin word-order, but classical scholars have been slow to take advantage of it.

the speaker wishes to bring into the mind of the hearer; the psychological predicate indicates that which he wishes him to think about it". The psycological subject may or may not be identical with the grammatical subject. If on entering the breakfast room I announce, 'Today is my birthday', *today* is the psychological as well as the grammatical subject. But if someone asks when my birthday comes, his question defines the starting point as *my birthday;* and when I reply, 'Today is my birthday', *today* is the psychological predicate. Again, if in answer to the question 'Whose birthday is today?' I reply, 'Today is my birthday', the psychological subject is *today is (someone's) birthday* or *today is (a) birthday*, and *my* is the psychological predicate. In fact, a verb, an adverb, or an adjective, as well as a substantive, a phrase, or a clause, may be used as psychological subject and the psychological predicate may be a phrase, a clause, or any part of speech with the single exception of the relative pronoun.

In connected discourse, in which as a rule each sentence takes up the thought where the last one left it, the psychological subject is usually identical with some idea either expressed or implied in the context. Of course the speaker may 'change the subject' at any time, but as long as there is no break in the continuity of the thought, the psychological subject is to be sought in that member of the sentence which is a repetition of something previously mentioned.

Probably all languages[1] have a tendency to put the psychological subject at the head of the sentence. The speaker lets the hearer know what he is talking about before trying to modify the hearer's thought about that topic. At present we are concerned with the application of the principle to Latin.

What I should like to call the normal order of the Latin sentence is well illustrated in Pliny Epp. 2. 12. 1, 2[2] *Λιτούργιον illud quod superesse Mari Prisci causae proxime scripseram*, nescio an satis, circumcisum tamen et adrasum est[3]. *Firminus* inductus in senatum respondit crimini noto. *Secutae sunt* ('the next event on the program was') diversae sententiae consulum designatorum: *Cornutus Tertullus* censuit ordine movendum, *Acutius Nerva* in sortitione provinciae rationem eius non habendam. *Quae sententia* tamquam mitior vicit, cum sit alioqui durior tristiorque.

The following examples illustrate the frequent clashing of psychological and grammatical subject. The psychological subjects to which I wish to call attention are printed in italics. Pliny begins a letter (1. 12) by saying, Iacturam gravissimam feci, si iactura dicenda est tanti viri amissio. *Decessit* ('the

[1] See Gabelentz Die Sprachwissenschaft[2], 372 ff.

[2] The Italics give the psychological subjects.

[3] He had been mentioned in this connection in the preceding letter.

deceased is') Corellius Rufus. After discussing the speakers on one side of a question before the senate, Pliny continues (9. 13. 15), *Dicunt contra* Avidius Quietus, Cornutus Tertullus. Cicero outlines the plans of the conspirators and then says (Cat. 1. 10), *Haec* ego omnia vixdum etiam coetu vestro dimisso comperi.

It will be seen that in the sentences so far discussed the psychological predicate carries the stronger emphasis. That is because by definition it embodies the novel part of the sentence, the part for whose sake the whole sentence is spoken or written. That is, the logical arrangement of psychological subject and predicate is also, as a rule, climactic. I suspect that this is the secret of more than one passage where Professor Greene holds that a word stands at the sentence-close to make it emphatic. He calls our attention, for example, to § 76 of the Cato Maior, where Cicero shows that the occupations of childhood, of youth, and of the prime of life are successively laid aside: Ergo, ut superiorum aetatum studia occidunt, sic occidunt etiam senectutis, 'The law by which we outgrow the interests of earlier life applies also to those of old age'. The *sic*-clause is placed second because it is the psychological predicate and *senectutis* stands last of all because it is the psychological predicate of its clause.

In case the psychological subject is not inferred from the context or the situation but is arbitrarily introduced by the speaker or writer, it is frequently almost or quite as emphatic as the predicate. Livy begins his third decade with the words *In parte operis mei* licet mihi praefari quod in principio summae totius professi plerique sunt rerum scriptores, . . . Early in the first book of the Histories (Chapters 9-11) Tacitus describes the state of feeling in the provincial armies. He begins the several accounts as follows: Superior exercitus legatum Hordeonium Flaccum spernebat, . . . Inferioris Germaniae legiones diutius sine consulari fuere, . . . In Brittanico exercitu nihil irarum, . . . Quies et in Illyrico, . . . Oriens adhuc inmotus. Syriam et quattuor legiones obtinebat Licinius Mucianus, . . . Bellum Iudaicum Flavius Vespasianus . . . administrabat. Aegyptum copiasque . . . Africa ac legiones in ea. . . . Duae Mauritaniae, Raetia, Noricum, Thracia, et quae aliae procuratoribus cohibentur, . . . Each division of the topic, except the fourth, is introduced by an emphatic psychological subject. This fourth takes a subject, *quies*, from the context, and the stronger emphasis falls upon the psychological predicate *et in Illyrico*.

It should be noted, however, that even in such passages as these the psychological predicate is not deprived of emphasis. In the sentence Oriens adhuc immotus, for example, the present writer is unable to decide whether *Oriens* or *immotus* carries the stronger emphasis. Surely there is not so much difference between them that we can safely make it explain the word-order.

Another important factor in determining Latin word-order is suggested by Professor Meader in an article in The School Review 17. 230-243 (especially 231) in these words:

> The general thought which the sentence is to symbolize is more or less clearly felt *before* the actual formation (or utterance) of the sentence begins; that is to say, we have a more or less distinct idea of what we are about to say even before we begin to speak. The sentence proper is the act of organizing this indefinite mass of thought and feeling. The act of organizing consists both in the analysis of the mass into its elements, and in consciously setting these elements into their relations to each other. . . . As each one of these elements in succession is lifted out of the general mass of unanalyzed thought, it is brought clearly before the mind and is seen in its relations to the other elements already thus treated. . . . The order of words in (ordinary conversation) will normally correspond to the order in which the successive elements are apperceived, and the reasons for the order are accordingly to be sought in the conditions that determine the order in which the various elements are brought into the 'focal point' of consciousness.

Now that element of the whole idea in which the speaker is most interested, the part upon which he wants to lay the strongest emphasis, will normally be the first one to be "brought into the focal point of consciousness". We have at once a reason why there should be a tendency to put the most emphatic word first.

But, since the most emphatic word is usually part of the psychological predicate, there arises a conflict between two opposing tendencies, of which now one now the other prevails. The order, psychological predicate + psychological subject, the emphatic order, is common whenever the speaker's emotions get the better of his judgment. In moments of great excitement we so far neglect the hearer's interest as to omit the psychological subject altogether. 'Fool!' or 'Thief!' says one who is angry, and trusts that the hearer will supply the second personal pronoun rather than the first. 'Fire! fire!' we shout, and leave the hearer to search the sky-line for our psychological subject. 'What a thrilling experience!' says a school girl, on coming in from a drive, and only by means of questions do we learn what caused the thrills.

Perhaps it is the emotional character of this arrangement, rather than a calculating desire to secure emphasis, that leads to its employment in literature. At any rate it is a noteworthy fact that the arrangement is particularly frequent in poetry[1] and emotional prose. It accounts for the habit, prevalent in many if not all languages, of putting the imperative[2] and the interrogative pronoun early in the sentence. The state of mind that leads to the employment of the

[1] Spencer, l. c. takes most of his examples of this order from poetry.

[2] Cf. Mr. Greene, pp. 10, 12.

arrangement is easily seen in Pliny Epp. 1. 12. 4, (Corellius Rufus) pedum dolore correptus est. Patrius hic illi. He hastens to tell us that his friend's gout was no disgrace.

Another clear case of an emotional inversion is seen in Cicero Mur. 13 Saltatorem appellat L. Murenam Cato. Professor Preble (p. 133) is surely right in thinking that *saltatorem* is the most emphatic word. That does not amount to saying, as Professor Greene (p. 12) ironically suggests, that Cicero intended to insult Cato by mentioning him at the end of the sentence. *Cato* stands last simply because the emphatic predicate *saltatorem* has usurped the first place and has naturally been followed by the words that logically belong next to it[1].

The emotional order, however, requires careful handling in order to avoid the bathos of an anticlimax. After the murder of Servius Tullius his daughter drove to the senate house and hailed her husband as king. When she had reached a certain point on the homeward journey, according to Livy 1. 48. 6, restitit pavidus atque inhibuit frenos is qui iumenta agebat—. If the sentence ended here we might well suspect its genuineness, but Livy has added a second and more important predicate—iacentemque dominae Servium trucidatum ostendit. The arrangement is not logical, but Livy has been careful not to let our interest flag at the sentence-close. When the senate had passed a measure of which Pliny disapproved, he wrote (Epp. 2. 12. 5) Numerantur enim sententiae, non ponderantur. Says Cicero (Cat. 2. 2) 'Because he has left the citizens safe and the city standing, in what despair do you suppose he has been cast to the ground?' Iacet ille nunc prostratus. *Iacet ille nunc* substitutes a statement for the preceding rhetorical question and serves as the psychological subject of the new sentence. The psychological predicate follows in *prostratus*. The psychological subject, however, consists of a subject and predicate, and these are inverted: the emotionally prominent *iacet* has usurped the first place. But to cite the first two words without context as an inversion for the sake of emphasis would be misleading, for it is only the following *prostratus* that saves the sentence from being anticlimactic.

Sometimes the same end is attained by putting the psychological subject between two parts of the predicate, as *impetum* in the following (Livy 25. 11. 5): Tum signo dato coorti undique Poeni sunt. . . . Nec sustinuere *impetum* Romani, . . .

Of course these two principles are not the only ones that affect Latin word-order. Professor Meader (l. c. 235) has called attention to the tendency to bring together in the sentence those elements which are most closely associated with one another. Numerous other considerations, such as the fixed order of certain phrases, the effort to secure a suitable rhythm, a fondness for or a dislike of the balanced structure, have to be taken into account. Our contention is merely this: in the interest of clearness the Latin sentence regularly places the psychological subject before the psychological predicate. In emotional passages, however, the psychological predicate or a part of it often stands first.

The two opposing tendencies are both present in English as well as in Latin, and in about the same relative strength. It is for this reason chiefly that we are bound to keep pretty close to the order of the original in translating from Latin into English or vice versa—not for any vague, or 'subtle', considerations of emphasis. Isn't it time to stop bewildering our students by all this talk about minute distinctions in emphasis which none of us can represent in our pronunciation of either Latin or English?

BARNARD COLLEGE. E. H. STURTEVANT.

[1] Cf. Meader l. c., 235.

REVIEWS

Latin Forms and Syntax. By Robert H. Locke. Philadelphia: John J. McVey (1908).

The motto of this book, Melius est petere fontes quam sectari rivulos, is well chosen. A few quotations will show how this idea underlies the making of the book.

There were (originally) three sources of languages, the agglutinative, the analytic, and the synthetic. . . . Latin is synthetic: (it) added syllables to the original word or stem. . . . Originally every noun had the same case-ending to express the same idea. There was only one declension, and not five; but the influence of the vowels altered the form of the case-endings. It then became necessary to have a declension for each vowel. . . . The ablative singular of every noun originally ended in *-ed*. . . . thus producing those guttural sounds characteristic of all primitive people. As intelligence developed, the sound was thrown forward, or strengthened, by the dropping of the *-ed*, and the lengthening of the preceding vowel in compensation. . . . In early ages people imagined all natural objects as living beings, and made them masculine or feminine according to their notion of their properties. This primitive denotation of gender survived, even after the Romans ceased to so regard natural objects. . . . The origin of *i*-stems is obscure. They are extremely rare in early Latin, and were probably being developed in the classical period. They were in a transition stage. Accordingly they have, as a rule, both consonant and *i*-stem endings. . . . The first necessity of speech was to find names for material objects. . . . The next step was to express motion. Now there can be only two directions of motion: motion toward and motion from. Any third idea must be that of rest. These fundamental ideas . . . were expressed by the accusative, ablative and dative cases, respectively. They lie at the bottom of every subsequent use of the cases. . . . An action may pass to one object (the accusative) and proceed to another (the dative), where it rests. A bullet may hit one object, be deflected, and lodge in another. . . . The imperfect indicative (of *sum*) is used to form the pluperfect indicative (active) of other verbs; the imperfect subjunctive to form the pluperfect subjunctive (active).

The five declensions, and similarly the four conjugations, are given all together. They are first developed by 'synthesis', and afterward the paradigms are given. The method is possible in nouns and regular verbs, but it is not even attempted in pronouns and irregular verbs[1]. As a matter of fact, all the material for memorizing is, and necessarily must be, given in just about the same paradigmatic form in which it usually appears in beginners' books. The synthetizing is supplementary. *Too much* attention upon the principia rerum inevitably enervates the grasp of the essential facts, all-important for life as it is. Sit omnibus rebus moderatio. It is, moreover, to the reviewer, incredible that any class can study the five declensions as one and eventually be able to distinguish the forms. What we need for beginners is not a clearer or more accurate explanation of how things happen to be as they are, but a better pedagogical method for attaining the memorizing of those forms and facts which must be known before transfer of thought by written or printed language is possible. The methods of the centuries past have been found deficient in that they neglected the factor of attention: attention was enforced by external means; now it must be captivated by an internal charm. The error of this book is that it neglects the factor of convention: in any human affair many things are so just because they are so, because a certain people got started into a certain habit and then followed the line of least resistance. In some measure the history of forms and syntax may help to fix attention: but in general neither the moving causes nor the antecedent facts, but only the habits of the classical period, concern beginners. Otherwise we should teach Anglo-Saxon before English grammar.

Too much theorizing leads to juggling with facts: cf. e. g. p. 13, "in the pronunciation of *princip*, the lips would remain closed forever unless *'e'* were sounded". Again, on p. 148, indicative and subjunctive future conditions are distinguished as being, respectively, "admitted (in accordance with the facts)" and "imaginary"; on p. 156 the statement implies that *cum*-causal takes the indicative if on one's own authority; on p. 143 result is said to be expressed by the subjunctive because "the result depends upon the main verb"; on p. 156 the same explanation is applied to *cum*-clauses (where the usage of classical times was almost pure convention). On p. 159 we read "Nearly all subordinate clauses are expressed by the subjunctive"—could any more fatal idea be gotten into a boy's head? (see also above.) There are some apparently careless misstatements. So on p. 129 the ablative of degree of difference is made to = 'than'; on p. 129 *plenus frumento* is given as the regular construction; on p. 121 the genitive depending on *causa* is said to be objective; on p. 133 indirect discourse is said to be used "after all verbs or expressions followed by the introductory word 'that' in English"; on p. 161 by implication it is stated that *utinam* is not regularly used with the imperfect optative subjunctive.

The parts of speech are treated in the order of the grammars, and syntax follows. Extensive knowledge of English grammar is presumed. The exercises consist of twenty-five to one hundred phrases or sentences in each lesson (there are only fifty lessons). There is no English-Latin until syntax is begun. The sentences are nearly all taken, almost unchanged, from the first book of Caesar. When forms occur which the student can not understand, the translation is given in parentheses. The general vocabulary must be used from the beginning. The lesson vocabularies contain only 245 words; but the vocabulary of the exercises consists of 966 words, of which 722 occur five or more times in Caesar I-V; 110 occur less than five times in high-school Latin[1]. There are misprints: *fugierunt* (p. 138), *propinqus* (180), *socer-eri* (183), and mistakes in numbering: par. 79 and 158, IV. There is unnecessary repetition (pp. 9 and 11, 89 and 94, 111 and 112) and some inconsistent statements (§§ 7, 40). Some words are printed twice in the vocabulary. *Itemque* is misplaced. The hyphen is inconsistently omitted in compounds of *sub* and *trans*. The quantity of vowels is not marked except here and there in the exercises, in the vocabulary, and in some paradigms.

BARCLAY W. BRADLEY.
COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK

Helladian Vistas. By Don Daniel Quinn. Published by the author, at Yellow Springs, Ohio (1909).

The alert teacher of Greek will welcome any means by which he can broaden his horizon and come into more intimate touch with the life and thought of the Greek people, both in classic and in more recent times. No American, probably, is so well fitted as Dr. Quinn to give us an intimate view of Greek lands and the Greek people of today, and to make the proper connection between classic and modern conditions. He has, by long residence and extensive travel in Greek lands, made himself thoroughly familiar with the modern Greeks, especially the common people, and this intimate familiarity has made itself apparent on every page of this entertaining book. Myth and history, topography and archaeology, crowd each other on these pages, all helping to bring out clearly the present conditions and their relations to the greater past.

---

[1] So it is comparatively easy to trace the pedigree of each use of the accusative case from the supposed original meaning, it is more difficult in the dative (starting from the 'rest' idea), and fails utterly in the genitive and ablative. In the book before us the entire syntax of subordinate clauses is developed from the statement that the subjunctive "expresses something, at the time referred to, following the main verb, . . something not at the time a fact". The connection is for the most part highly artificial, sometimes wholly lacking, and sometimes false (e.g. the association of *quin*-clauses with verbs of fearing). *Cum*-clauses and all indicative clauses are relegated to parenthetical notes.

[1] Almost every one of these, however, occurs at least once in B. G. I.

The most interesting and instructive parts of the book treat mainly of Greek lands outside the beaten track of 'personally conducted' parties. The chapters on the various Ionian Islands and on the Maniats of southern Laconia are cases in point.

Father Quinn shows great interest, insight and fairness in his treatment of religious questions. The 'survivals' of ancient myth and ritual are continually indicated.

The brief but vivid account of the siege of Mesolonghi in the Greek Revolution is far superior in interest to the annalistic narrative of Howe, or to the scholarly but prosaic account of Finlay. It rather recalls the story of the novelist Xenos in his 'Andronike', translated by Grosvenor.

The most serious criticism to be passed upon Dr. Quinn's book grows out of his familiarity with the modern Greek pronunciation and his fondness for that pronunciation. This is a matter of the personal equation, of course, and it is within an author's technical right to use what are, to the readers to whom the book appeals, outlandish and repellent expressions, but cui bono?

In the first place, such a scheme is almost impossible of consistent execution, as Dr. Quinn's book abundantly proves. *Eu* in Greek names he regularly writes *ev*, thus giving us *Zevs, Elevsis, Peiraeevs,* and even *Akrokeravnian,* the last being an Anglicized form of a Latinized Greek word. Will Dr. Quinn tell us that this spelling represents any actual pronunciation of the English word at any period? Possibly *Elevsis* represents a some-time truth, but why not go to the length and use *Levsina* as the Greeks of today do? If we insist upon *Peiraeevs,* why not transliterate exactly and write *Peiraievs?* Dr. Quinn writes *Bathy* and *Bolos,* but *Omer Vrioni;* why not *V* in all if we are to indicate the modern sounds? *Phaeaks* (not *Phaiaks*) for our old friends the Phaeacians, *Evmolpids, Levktra,* all raise our ire, for they simply introduce a new element of confusion into the already sufficiently perplexing question of spelling and pronunciation. Many of these words are thoroughly Anglicized, and no one, it seems to us, is justified in thus making a bad matter worse. And if bad for the Greek student who can "see the point", how much worse for the non-Greek reader who needs a glossary of Quinnisms to get him back into his former world.

But this is Father Quinn's little fad, and we gladly forgive him for it, in view of the instruction and pleasure he has given us in Helladian Vistas.

GEORGE A. WILLIAMS.

KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN.

CORRESPONDENCE

In sending you a brief rejoinder to Professor Greene's reply to my criticism of his paper upon Latin Word-Order, I would not occupy the position of the proverbial woman who must have the last word, but I want to express regret for my slip in not noticing that *fiebat* and not *factus est* stands in the passage from Cicero's Milo, though, as Professor Greene suggests, the blunder does not invalidate my argument.

Will you spare me space for another remark or two? What Professor Greene says about the position of "the stronger or more significant word" seems to show that we mean different things by the term 'emphasis'. According to him these more significant words are *eo ipso* the more emphatic ones, while I hold that emphasis is quite independent of the connotative force of a word.

Again, Professor Greene says truly that 'we must note carefully the Latin form of expression'. It is on this account that it seems to me futile to try to settle any question of emphasis in Latin by setting before elocutionists unfamiliar with that language a literal translation of a Latin sentence. This might work if one could reproduce in English all the shadings of the thought in Latin sentences as well as one generally can those of the thought expressed in German or French or other modern languages, by translating nouns by nouns, verbs by verbs, adjectives by adjectives, etc. To deny emphasis to a Latin word because one would not emphasize its syntactical equivalent in an English sentence translated word for word from the Latin appears to me entirely unwarrantable.

I should like to show how such crude indications of emphasis as 'I *am passing* my FOUR and eightieth year', and 'But I *come* to the farmers, etc.', do not at all express the very slight degrees of emphasis which a Greenoughite sees in such sentences, but it would take too long, and your readers are doubtless weary of the subject already. I hope they will all read Professor Meader's article in The School Review for April.

NOTE

HORACE'S ESTIMATE OF HELIODORUS IN SERM. 1. 5. 3.

rhetor comes Heliodorus
Graecorum longe doctissimus.

The individual alluded to probably cannot now be identified. "The hyperbole is intended and is playful", comments Wickham. "Probably a friendly overestimate, as no account of him has come down to us with all his learning", observes Greenough. "An exaggerated expression characteristic of the mock-heroic style which Horace adopts in several parts of this satire, . . . a form of wit common in modern times", writes Rolfe. Among the multitude of similar comments on this passage, we may be surprised that what seems an obvious explanation is not emphasized, that Horace is speaking in bitter

irony, as one who, while suffering from dyspepsia, has probably been bored to extinction by a garrulous pedant. The Greek erudition of Heliodorus was a sorry *passe-temps* for the youthful poet, who doubtless wished himself out of such company and back in Rome. The estimate is no more serious than the following from a later period. Fronto (Ep. ad Amicos 1. 7; see Naber p. 140), in recommending on hearsay testimony as a teacher Antoninus Aquila, vir doctus et facundus, closes his letter with the quip: ego vero etiam nomine hominis faveo ut sit ῥητόρων ἄριστος, quoniam quidem Aquila appellatur.

There is no reason to suppose that Heliodorus was a member of the 'junket' to Brundisium. That *longe doctissimus* is playfully characterizing is a possible assumption, yet it would seem that Horace could hardly have been in a very playful mood. Scheiden thut Weh! Departure from Rome came hard. The main party was to be met further on. The big capital with its lavish hospitality would be missed in the humble road-house in the little village of Aricia. Horace doubtless knew the oft-quoted sententia of Publilius Syrus, that *comes facundus in via pro vehiculo,* and cursed the amiable volubility of the pedant on the Via Appia as heartily as he did the officiousness of the light o' tongue on the Via Sacra (Serm. 1. 9). At Forum Appi he had to rub shoulders with the brutal bargemen and fleecing inn keepers. The travelers were disinclined to hasten, the road was rough. The water was bad; Horace was sick. There does not seem much likelihood that Horace at this stage was in a cheerful mood; it seems less likely that looking back on his journey, as he writes this satire, he would inject a bit of pleasantry; irony rather would suit his mood.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY. GEORGE DWIGHT KELLOGG.

THE CESNOLA COLLECTION

We give, in slightly condensed form, the article on this subject by John M. Myres, in the September number of the Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art.

The further progress which has now been made with the examination and rearrangement of the Cesnola Collection of Cypriote Antiquities permits a general forecast of the results.

First, as to selection and arrangement of exhibits. The very large size of the collection has always made it impossible to expose all the objects for general study. It has therefore been decided to separate the collection into two parts, one of which, consisting of the finest specimens of each kind of workmanship, will be treated as a series of typical examples, and retained on view in the present gallery on the ground floor of the Museum; while the other, which will contain the many large series of objects of almost monotonous similarity, will be transferred to a less public gallery, easily accessible from the former, and more convenient for the special purposes of expert students.

The series of typical vases which has been selected for exhibition consists of about 2,000 examples. It will occupy the whole of the seventy-eight wall cases of the west and south walls of the gallery, together with eight large floor cases. In the latter are collected a small number of the largest and most important vases of each successive style; and by this means it is possible to do justice to the fine groups of Mycenean and Orientalizing vases, in which the collection is so rich.

A similar range of cases on the east wall of the gallery and on the walls of the northern annex, is assigned to the Type series of Cypriote sculpture, which is supplemented in the same way as the vases, by floor cases containing the larger heads and busts, and a selection of the largest terra-cotta heads. The life-size statues which formerly filled the middle of the Cypriote Gallery, will in future be redistributed in three groups, round the central piers, and considerably reduced in number, corresponding provision being made in the Students' Collection downstairs for the statues withdrawn from above. The great sarcophagi and sculptured tombs and tombstones will in future be grouped together in the northern annex of the same gallery, under more favorable conditions of light and space than has been possible hitherto.

All the sculpture and most of the painted vases have been found on examination to need thorough and careful cleaning. It was already known that many objects had required and received minor repairs before they could be put on exhibition at all; and care has been taken to determine exactly in the process of cleaning the precise extent of these repairs. In general, however, it may be repeated already, that the appearance of the statues is very little affected by the process. The chief changes in their aspect are due to the recovery of the mellow cream-colored tones of the soft native limestone of which the statues are made; and to the discovery, in many instances, of clear and even copious traces of their original coloring. One of the most notable pieces in the collection, for example, the well-known 'Priest with the Dove', is found to have many marks of red borders and designs on the drapery, besides decoration in red, black, and yellow on the helmet, and traces of red color on the lips. Some of the Orientalizing statues were also brightly colored originally, and the same practice persisted in the Cypriote art of the fifth and fourth centuries, and perhaps even later still.

The preparation of a general guide to the whole collection has been greatly facilitated by the detailed studies of which a summary has been given above; and it is hoped that it may be possible to make this guide public not long after the reopening of the collection itself to the public.

JOHN L. MYRES.

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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High School teachers will hail with pleasure the appearance at last of The Syntax of High School Latin (University of Chicago Press), which has been under preparation by Mr. Lee Byrne and his friends for a number of years.

It is a thin book so far as the actual number of pages goes, but it embodies the result of a vast amount of labor and should become at once a standard book for teachers. In appearance it resembles very much my Vocabulary of High School Latin, but in treatment it necessarily varies much from that because of the difference in the material. After a short introduction we have in tabulated form statistics of the syntactical usages of Caesar (Books I-IV), Cicero (six speeches), and Vergil's Aeneid (six books). These statistics are grouped in the order of cases and constructions and in general the most common construction is put first. We are at once reminded of Heynacher's statistical studies of Caesar, but this book is so much fuller in every way that it renders Heynacher unnecessary. The statistics are followed by several pages of explanation of the categories adopted and then comes a very interesting chapter entitled Distribution in the Course of Study. Selected examples of the various constructions are followed by an appendix repeating these examples in their order of occurrence. In the selected examples the editor has used black type to indicate constructions used as many as five times in Caesar, ordinary type for the additional constructions used five times by Cicero, small capitals for the new constructions used five times by Vergil; furthermore, those used as often as ten times in the three authors but less than five times in any one are placed in either the Cicero or the Vergil list; other constructions are printed in small type.

Now 99.8% of all the constructions found will come under those that are printed in large type. If you take for the first year's study constructions used 50 times in Caesar the number of those constructions in the first year is 45, in the second 31, in the third 19, in the fourth 14.

While the arrangement of syntactical studies according to constructions will always be open to certain objections it seems to me in general to be the most logical principle to follow. Individual teachers will no doubt wish to introduce other constructions for the sake of comparison, but the material for all this is given in the book and the editor lays down no hard and fast method of procedure.

As is to be expected in the case of any investigation of this kind, the results are apt to be startling in some particulars. Thus conditional propositions, which some systems of study insist upon in the first year, are in this plan relegated to the third year; this is true even of the so-called simple conditions. Now of course most teachers have known that the place to study conditional propositions was Cicero, but here we have this belief fortified by facts, for Caesar, outside of indirect discourse, shows only 23 cases of conditional sentences, of which 19 are mixed and irregular and four are generic conditions; there are, therefore, no examples of logical, ideal, or unreal conditions. On the other hand, Cicero shows 24 cases of the logical and 25 cases of the unreal conditions. Ideal conditional propositions are rare throughout.

Mr. Byrne suggests that in the first year the only subordinate constructions that should be taught are clauses of purpose and result, time with *cum*, cause with *quod*, and subordination in indirect discourse. We thus see that even the simple construction with *postquam* should be deferred to the second year. Relative clauses in the first year are restricted to the indicative; clauses with *quin* are deferred to the second year. In connection with the syntax of cases the suggestions are interesting. In the first year the accusative is limited to the direct object, limit of motion, subject with the infinitive, and the accusative after prepositions. The dative constructions are indirect object, with special verbs, with compounds, reference and purpose. Now constructions of the dative case are very numerous. The statistics show 436 examples of indirect object, 159 with special verbs, 333 with compounds, 279 of reference, 100 of agent, 105 of possessor, 79 of purpose (of which 50 are found in Caesar), 115 with adjectives, 66 of direction (entirely confined to Vergil). Nevertheless the construction of the dative with compounds is not an easy one to teach by reason of the number of exceptions, and the dative of reference is extremely vague; hence it has always been a matter of doubt to me whether it would not be better to defer most of the careful analysis of the dative case to the later stages. Inasmuch as the work in the first year is devoted largely to the beginners' book, it would seem to me unwise to treat constructions which

were not sharply defined; and so the dative of indirect object, and to a certain extent the dative with compounds, would seem to me about all that should be included in the beginners' books.

The statistics and recommendations of Mr. Byrne's book would furnish material for a great amount of discussion, but my purpose now is particularly to call attention to its value as an addition to the equipment of every High School teacher. Mr. Byrne and his associates deserve the thanks of our profession. G. L.

DE QUINCEY AND MACAULAY IN RELATION TO CLASSICAL TRADITION[1].

DeQuincey was reserved and artistic; his life was a dream; his feelings made for revolt and protest. Macaulay was a man of action, who pushed out in all directions among men, among books, among affairs, and was dissatisfied until he had comprehended all the objects of life and thought in a well-defined panorama. Unlike as they were, and with all the contrast of their careers, they were nevertheless subjected to the same strongly classical system of education and the classical traditions of English culture. It is the immediate object of this paper to discuss a few of the phases in which the atmosphere and the matter of Greece and Rome affected them.

We find it hard in America to understand many points in the English system of education. The Latin verses, hammered out each week line by line, the Greek choruses, learned by heart at the age of fifteen, the absence of original composition in the native tongue, except for rare occasions of prize essays or the like—all these things are foreign to our intensely practical system in America. We go too far in our disdain. The English system was criticized by the two writers with whom we are concerned only when it was carried to extremes. DeQuincey, in his autobiography (2. 57 ff., ed. Masson), shows what evils may result from over-indulgence in such a course. Transferring the question from school to college, he says:

> It is noways peculiar to Oxford, but will, doubtless, be found in every university throughout the world, that the younger part of the members, the undergraduates, I mean, generally, whose chief business must have lain among the great writers of Greece and Rome, cannot have found leisure to cultivate extensively their own domestic literature.

And he goes on to state, with perhaps a little exaggeration:

> The Spectator seemed to me the only English book of a classical rank which they had read. They had been sent to the book chiefly . . . as a subject for Latin translations, or for other exercises.

[1] This paper was read at the meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States at Haverford, Pa., April 24, 1909.

This is of course a development of the rigorous training in the Latin of public school life. And the list of original reading in English which our Oxford recluse followed proves that a mind of strong originality is needed in order to break away from such bondage. But we are not summarily banished to the other pole; the Classics, he says, are to be learned thoroughly; still, this is not all. Milton and his 'dark sublimities which rest ultimately upon dread realities' should not be despised in favor of the 'spurious and fanciful sublimities of the classical poetry'. Although we feel instinctively that in this last statement DeQuincey is unjust, he is so much at home in both the ancient and modern that we should allow him the right to dictate a little, and should subtract from the occasional exaggerations which are obviously due to the imagination of the Opium-Eater. We feel that his criticism is overdone in detail, but the wisdom which prompts it is of the soundest; we leave the frigid French models of the eighteenth century, in which the classical element, was, no doubt, overdone and are directed to Chaucer, Shakespeare, Milton—authors grand and fresh in their English strength. This goes along with the Romantic Revival, or whatever one chooses to call it, in contemporary English poetry.

A revolt from this same dictatorship of the classical machine may be found in Macaulay. His biographer[1] refers to carelessness in the composition of hexameters; to his definition of a scholar as one who can 'read Plato with his feet on the fender'; to his statement that he had 'never practised composition a single hour since he had been at Cambridge'. How, then, we ask, did he attain to such eminence in understanding the Ciceronian atmosphere which he made over into English as his own, and which provoked the editor Jeffrey's wonder 'where he could have got that style?' The answer may be found in another of his statements, whose truth is confessed nowadays by every instructor in Latin prose: 'Soak your mind with Cicero'.

Thus we see that these two masters of English, at corresponding periods in their careers, were enthusiastic for the broadening process. They paved the way for Arnold's dictum about culture—'Knowledge of the best that has been thought and said in the world'. Such culture, they realized, would have to come from acquaintance with the masterpieces of more than Vergil and Homer, of more than Sophocles and Plautus. But the Classics were the background, and the modern languages the more vivid features of the picture.

As to scholarship, two examples are ready to hand. One is the ever-vexed Homeric question, the other Niebuhr's ballad theory in regard to Roman lays of heroic character.

DeQuincey presents us with an article in Black-

[1] Trevelyan 1.86.

wood's Magazine on Homer and the Homeridae. His bibliography seems to be fairly complete for the times; in fact, we have a feeling, after reading the essay, that most of the problems which vex us to-day are brought up and discussed, if not settled. He begins with a rhapsodic comparison of the Greek epic poet or poets to the river Nile. We cannot resist his implication that the Nile has as many mouths as there are cities clamoring for the honor of being Homer's birth-place. And his simile is apt because of the fertility and influence of both writer and river. The Wolfian problem is discussed in detail, and DeQuincey goes to the root of the matter with a question which appeals to us all nowadays—why did not Wolf 'close the dispute with a comprehensive valuation of all that had been said, and all that remained to be said, upon this difficult problem?' With British pride he points to Bentley, who 'Wolfized' in 1689; whether this suspicion of Bentley's was highly original or only a manifestation of an underground learned doubt cannot of course be determined. Then comes Robert Wood's scepticism; but where in this list is Vico? We find Aristarchus summarily dismissed; he is criticized on the ground of having edited Homer to death. 'Aristarchus might well boast that he had cured Homer of the dry rot! He *has*, and by hardly leaving one whole spar of his ancient framework'. The Alexandrians to his mind are *tormentors;* 'with them Homer's pre-Christian martyrdom comes to an end'. Another remark is: 'His post-Christian sufferings have been due chiefly to the Germans, who have renewed the warfare not only of Alexandrian critics, but of the ancient chorizontes'. At any rate, we cannot deny DeQuincey considerable individuality of utterance. This will be borne out by his words concerning the Lycurgus enactment and the derivation of the name Homer:

> I maintain that ὁμοῦ ἄρω is Greek for *packing up*. And my view of the case is this: 'Homer' was a sort of Delphic or prophetic name given to the poet under a knowledge of that fate which awaited him in Crete, where, if he did not pack up any trunk that has yet been discovered, he was, however, himself packed up in the portmanteau of Lycurgus.

We are inclined to think that this attempt at wit was the result of an opium period. But there is sanity in what follows. Just because Gorgias means the possessor of γοργότης, Deinarchus the possessor of δεινότης, and Demosthenes the 'strength of the people', these men need not be regarded as disembodied spirits, nor need Homer be. There is speculation on possibilities of a Cretan birthplace on account of a certain Mr. Pashley's studies in the natural history of the *agrimi,* or Cretan ibex. And so on with many other theories, including gentle raillery about Odysseus's three dinners in one evening. He is strong for the Peisistratean recension, of course is ignorant of any archaeological investigations, and leaves us at the end wondering whether he is not indulging in whimsical flights of speculation aimed at his Teutonic brothers across the Channel. The conclusion stands for an original Achilleis, with the Odyssey a later production coeval with the Nostoi, a safe estimate at any rate. Fick and Meyer, with their theories of Aeolic transference and a southern origin of the Iliad respectively, come too late for DeQuincey to discuss.

Are the Lays of Ancient Rome 'pinchbeck ballads?' Do they represent the spirit of ancient Rome? And are the theories which led to their composition entirely futile? The first point is a matter of taste; we might answer that it is no fairer to compare them with Gray's Progress of Poesy than it is to place Andronicus's Saturnians alongside the heroic song of the later books of the Aeneid. In reply to the second question, we are in the dark. In the Horatius lay, for example, a reader of Vergil and Livy (omitting Dionysius and Polybius, whom Macaulay cites as alluding to the story) will find little that seems out of keeping. Allusions to 'Sir Consul' may be forgiven on account of the stock usages of English ballad poetry, the atmosphere in which the subject is represented. Similarly, the banners and ensigns of the Etruscan host are concessions to the same medium. This element is as old as Chaucer's Duke Theseus. And the history of Rome in the days before the Gallic invasion of 390 B. C., to sift the opinions of Schwegler, Dyer, Mommsen, etc., amalgamates into the single fact of an Etruscan domination and influence in the early days of Latium. Besides, if Livy sees fit to entertain the story, why need we object in the case of Macaulay? The descriptions of the march to Rome from Etruscan territory are quite in the Vergilian manner; the Romans themselves flock to the standard like the Italians in the seventh Aeneid. And the magnificent simile of the hero falling like a tree (frequent from Homer to Spenser), stirs our blood in a purely Latin spirit:

> And the great Lord of Luna
> Fell at that deadly stroke,
> As falls on Mount Avernus
> A thunder-smitten oak.
> Far o'er the crashing forest
> The giant arms lie spread,
> And the pale augurs, muttering low,
> Gaze on the blasted head.

But how about the supposition that the Romans sang such ballads during the time before and after the Gallic invasion? Livy's history is, in a way, poetical prose; the question therefore arises whether all these imaginative episodes which Macaulay refers to from Livy are *post hoc propter hoc,* or are built up in the manner of Geoffrey of Monmouth in his dealings with the Arthurian cycle. Omitting any

such Spanish parallels as are mentioned by Macaulay for the identity of history and poetry in their rendering of certain episodes, we must stick close to Latin evidence. *Fauni* and *Vates* certainly used to chant rude oracles in measure; *neniae* were sung at funeral banquets about the deeds of the dead; and there were even convivial efforts at dinner-parties by individual guests on heroic subjects. Perizonius, Niebuhr, and Lord Macaulay approach the danger-point in assuming a cycle of poems. If the Greek literature struggled so hard for existence on being transplanted in foreign soil, would the development of Latin antecedent native song have reached a point where one might infer the existence of a native Iliad? That is the crux. Do the allusions of Tacitus to German war-songs about the exploits of Arminius warrant the assumption of a series of intelligible and developed poems? One feels tempted to deny the stern Roman everything except an occasional improvised chorus after a victory—stimulated by the joint inspiration of Mars and Bacchus. But the Hottentot can do this round his camp-fire; and the Latin inscriptions dating back to the fifth century, Macaulay's sacred verses,

Traced from the right on linen white
By mighty seers of yore

would plead for more than this. It is foolish to deny the possibility of such a theory. Scholars, with the exception of M. A. Krepelka (in Philologus 37. 450 ff.), are sceptical. But if Macaulay sins, he sins in good company, and after observing the rules of the game.

Both English writers under consideration were sympathetic students of history. Of Macaulay's History of England it is needless to speak, or of the countless reviews and essays which deal with special phases in the records of countries and individuals. DeQuincey wrote in Blackwood's Magazine a running account of the Caesars and an essay on Herodotus, together with a little gem on the Philosophy of History. Here the same distinction is seen which has been brought out at the beginning of this paper; Macaulay fuses all he finds into something universal, while DeQuincey focuses his attention on a particular aspect. The Parliamentarian, in a review of Neele's Romance of History, goes back to earliest times, prefacing his remarks with the dictum that this art 'begins in novel and ends in essay'. We have the feeling that he is patting Herodotus on the head like a wayward child, for he calls him an inventor from first to last; DeQuincey sees farther into the mind of the sensitive Ionian, being more in sympathy with his inward eye—to *him* Herodotus is an encyclopaedist, who touches manifold springs of human interest. The true definition of *ἱστορία* is not what we ordinarily suppose; it is 'inquiries, investigations'. DeQuincey examines, in his own eccentric way, the astronomy, geography, and chronology of Herodotus, and concludes that, with indulgences on account of his limited means of inquiry, he outshines the Elder Pliny in every way, and 'justifies his majestic station as a brotherly assessor on the same throne with Homer'. It looks, therefore, as if DeQuincey read his author to better purpose than Macaulay. But the panorama of the latter was wider. He passes on to Thucydides; here he is more at home. He touches on the Greek vice of reasoning *ad hominem* rather than *ad rem*, and maintains that even Thucydides was at fault here, because his conciseness and condensation of narrative tend to judging 'better of circumstances than of principles'. His political philosophy, in Macaulay's view, is deficient. Xenophon he passes over rapidly—'He had a weak head', 'couldn't stand strong meat', seeks only the picturesque. This is certainly unjust, and those who teach the Anabasis from year to year will exclaim in anger. It must indeed be a very severe standard by which one condemns the graphic account of the struggles in the snow, the tactical devices for marching in column, the short but pithy accounts of the murdered generals' characters, and old Clearchus with his cat-o'-nine-tails. Macaulay should be arraigned here at his own tribunal, for one of his theories of history was that the best writer should regard the little things of life as equal in importance with the greater issues. This was the reason for the birth of his own History of England. One tires frequently of mighty national movements. Scipio and Laelius playing tag round the dinner-table are as necessary to an understanding of ancient life as a comprehensive study of aqueducts or of the formation of a Roman legion.

But what did poor Plutarch do to draw down on his innocent antiquarian head the anathemas of these two leading English essayists? Both of them scold him *con amore*. Macaulay speaks of

> that school of which Plutarch may be considered as the head. They seem to have been pedants, who, though destitute of those valuable qualities which are frequently found in conjunction with pedantry, thought themselves great philosophers and great politicians.

This about Montaigne's pet—the writer who is thought by most men to have inspired more heroic ambitions than any other writer ever born! And DeQuincey assails him too. He is speaking of Rousseau's limited reading knowledge. Now Rousseau voted for Plutarch as the author with whom he would like to be wrecked on a desert island. The Englishman inveighs against him thus:

> Although not a Frenchman, having had an education (if such one can call it) thoroughly French, he had the usual puerile French craze about Roman virtue, and republican simplicity, and Cato, and all that.

Macaulay even ascribes most of the trouble (and

mentions it not on one occasion only) which led to demagogue abuses during the French Revolution to the insincere hubbub caused by semi-heroic ideas inculcated by authors of that school. Are they not distinctly unfair? Should we criticize the anecdoter of Chaeronea as we criticize Thucydides and Tacitus?

These are perhaps injustices. But when we consider DeQuincey's Philosophy of History, we cannot help a glow of admiration. Recall the wonderful summing up of the last sentence:

> The quality of their history, the tenure of the Caesars, the total abolition of literature, and the convulsion of public morals—these were the true key to the Roman decay.

Hence we repeat that Macaulay approaches the universal, and DeQuincey is more intuitively searching; Macaulay sees faults in them all, and seeks his ideal historian as Plato sought his philosopher king; DeQuincey, with a concentrated glance at his favorites, makes the most of them.

There is still another phase of this revolt against a rule-of-thumb acceptance of classical traditions. *That* was a matter of scholarship; what I wish to speak of now is of literature. Critics have a way of comparing eras—the 'hey-day of Athenian supremacy in the drama', the 'artificial splendor of the literary coterie of Louis XIV', the 'spontaneous brilliancy of the age of Elizabeth'. We are therefore prepared for some Radicalism from Macaulay's pen. In his essay on Moore's Life of Byron, discussing rationality and irrationality in literary criticism, he tears to pieces the unities of place and time.

> It requires no very profound examination to discover that the Greek dramas, often admirable as compositions, are, as exhibitions of human character and human life, far inferior to the English plays of the age of Elizabeth.

This brings up a very interesting problem. He is careful to explain that the fault (if it is to be called a fault) was due to the domination of the lyrical element over the dramatic element in Athenian tragedy. But we should all accuse him of having misinterpreted their spirit. The Greek drama was a liturgy, and should to a certain extent be regarded as being to the Greeks what our Scriptural lyrics are to us. Second, he does not allow for the fact that men saw life differently then; the workings of disappointed love in the bosom of a Medea were of more interest to them than the eccentricities of a more variegated program. With his wide reading he should have known that it takes a long time to secularize the heroic—that is to say, to bring the heroic into contact with the actual mire. The evolution of this idea may be seen in all literatures, epic, lyric, drama—the high-born hero first, the peasant last. The converse is also true. The ridiculous (of which there is now a large share in the legitimate drama) begins as a sort of safety-valve—as Satyr Drama or village merrymaking, Fescennine Verses or Siberian flyting. These two elements are then started in motion, the one down, the other up. And my point is that at the stage of literary history represented by Athenian tragedy (of which he is talking rather than of comedy), the basic man, as we conceive him, has not been fused sufficiently into the essence of drama to enable us to compare the two ideas directly. Let Hamlet talk his psychology and Oedipus fly before the breeze of Nemesis straight on the rocks. Here is a case of over-assimilation; the greatest and most finished criticism is that of Matthew Arnold or Sainte-Beuve, the genius which can enjoy and analyze distinct kinds of literature, each in its own spirit. Spenser's Faerie Queene should not be viewed as if it were a chapter of Scripture, nor should the guard in Antigone be expected to go as low as the porter in Macbeth. This dictum of Macaulay's is all of a piece with his hatred of things French. There is a little too much House of Commons in his sentiments.

DeQuincey's idea on this subject is harder to approach. He makes as strong and emphatic statements as Macaulay, but they circulate all round the compass, and it is practically impossible to put them together into one whole. Let us take an example, however, from his biographical sketch of Bentley. Bentley, as the foremost classical scholar of England, was commissioned by royalty to prepare an emended edition of Paradise Lost, and seems to have made a bad job of it, if we judge from the list of poets and critics who have seered it. DeQuincey accounts for this as follows: Bentley's mind was distinguished for sagacity and common sense, not for poetic imagination. Hence he is more at home in the classical poets than in the Christian poets, for the former run from idea to idea much more rationally and evenly than the latter. This explanation is ingenious; but is it true? We should be careful before denying it recklessly, inasmuch as DeQuincey has about the keenest imagination of any English prose writer on record. Should he not have qualified the emphasis of his statement by saying that ancient literature, and especially the Greek, has magnificent imaginative qualities, but that their *nexus*, their *suturing*, of one idea to another, goes on by a more logical process, not permitting the wrenches and abrupt turns which we find so often in our English poetry?

Among the numerous opinions which this same writer delivers upon the Classics, we find one running all through his writings, notably the Opium-Eater, like an opera-motive. It is sympathetic rather than antipathetic—his definition of a *Grecian*. This was to him a sort of shibboleth. To be a Grecian, in his eyes (like a Homerid), is to 'have the *command*, not merely the knowledge, over a language, the power of adapting it plastically to the expression

of your own thoughts'. This is, according to him, a gift of nature; 'the faculty of clothing the thoughts in a Greek dress is a *function of natural sensibility*'; and this function DeQuincey claimed to possess. We cannot deny his *at home* feeling in Greek tragedy; one needs only to read his summaries of plots—exquisite work like the island gems and the subtler vase paintings.

When we come to the usage of words, the greatest difference is noticeable. Macaulay's style is clear and forcible; none of the words as a separate unit is at all unusual. But DeQuincey plays with sounds and derivations, worrying his language as a cat worries a mouse. He is speaking of a cottage in the Lakes, and the building operations devoted to it:

> The walls had been finished, and this event was to be celebrated at the village inn with an *ovation*, previously to the *triumph* that would follow on the roof-raising.

One eats a bird, not *entirely*, but from *alpha* to *omega*. Two gentlemen meet, rather too strained company for a room; 'they met, they saw, they *inter-despised*'. In the case of the same gentlemen, 'the more heartily disdain his disdain and *recalcitrate his kicks*'. Describing Wordsworth's face, he alludes to the *circumjacencies* of the mouth. We might compare the toying with language in which Lyly and Apuleius abound. Quotations rush into his head for any subject with which he is dealing. Speaking of the Greek volatility in contrast with the Roman steadiness he scores the Hellenic tribe: 'Whatever else they might be—sculptors, buffoons, dancers, tumblers—they were a nation of swindlers'. What else can this be but a reminiscence of Juvenal's *Graeculus esuriens?* Whole episodes develop out of an off-hand reference to something from the Classics. But Macaulay relentlessly brushes aside anything that will impede the argument, introduces little extraneous matter, and, like a man with a definite purpose, touches and passes on.

As I said at the start, one was a public character, the other a recluse. Hence the former would develop a working style, the latter an impressionistic. About the same result is seen in their relation to the Classics. Macaulay, like Cicero, was a man whose mind embraced everything with avidity, and sent it through a sort of alembic of popularisation; and we find little for our direct purpose in individual passages. What we get from him is a sweeping statement like that about the drama, an allusion to ancient history for the purpose of pointing a moral or embellishing a theory. The purely literary element is slight. But DeQuincey, as if walking through a gallery, stops before his favorites and lavishes praise on them, pauses in front of something he objects to, and covers it with scorn, making the inartistic artistic because of the lights and shadows he indicates.

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REVIEW

First Year Latin, preparatory to Caesar. By Charles E. Bennett. Boston: Allyn & Bacon (1909). Pp. x + 281.

The chief difference between this book and its predecessors from the same pen is the endeavor to prepare specifically for Caesar as the material for study in the second year. Paradigms are given in the lessons. Topics are grouped "as nearly as possible" according to the conventional arrangement of our Latin grammars. The most important novel feature is the introduction into alternate lessons, beginning with XXVII, of passages of continuous narrative taken from the first book of the Gallic War, at first very much simplified.

The vocabulary of the lessons, exclusive of words which do not occur elsewhere than in the passages of continuous prose, is as follows: Proper names, 50, other words, 794. Among the latter we have

Words occurring only one, two, three or four times in B. G. I-V	104
Words not in Caesar[1]	40
Words occurring from one to four times in Caesar and Cicero[1]	55
Words not in Caesar or Cicero	15
Words occurring from one to four times in High School Latin[1]	34
Words not in High School Latin	5

There is no better lesson in the book than this from the preface:

> It is probably no exaggeration to assert that the chief defect in the teaching of Latin today is the failure to master the declensions and conjugations at the very outset of the study. . . . An adequate knowledge of the forms does not come of itself; it does not come even by reading. It can come only by persistent, sustained attention to the forms themselves at the earliest stages of the study.

Let us see how well the author has made provision for the development of this theorem.

The book contains seventy-two lessons, distributed thus:

I-XXVI: nouns, adjectives, pronouns, the verb *sum*, and pres. ind. act. of *amo*[2]. Each lesson contains an average of 27 drill phrases, 10 difficult Latin sentences, and three or four English sentences for translation. Some rules of syntax are here given, including predicate noun and adjective, apposition, indirect object, ablative of means and manner. A careful estimate of the time required for an average class to complete this portion of the book is sixty recitations, including three days for reviews.

XXVII-XLVI: conjugations and reading lessons. The average number of phrases and sentences is the same as above. The reading lessons are additional. An estimate of the time required is fifty-two recitations, including two reviews.

[1] The reference is to those portions of each author which are included by Prof. Lodge in his Vocabulary of High School Latin.
[2] This is given in the lesson following the first declension.

XLVII-LXXII: syntax and reading lessons. The average number of Latin sentences in each lesson is thirteen, of English sentences, seven or eight. An estimate of the time required is fifty-six recitations, including four reviews.

The total, one hundred and sixty-eight recitations, making no allowance for lost time or slow and dilatory pupils, is more than a year's work in one subject in most schools. Yet the second book of the Gallic War, with annotations, is included in the latter part of the volume, to spur on the heedless to feel that at least some time should be left over at the end of the year to be devoted to that. The wise teacher, of course, will omit much of the translation work. But how about the one to whom the remarks above quoted are directed? Would it not have been more prudent to have made the exercises in the first part of the book much easier and shorter, and to have postponed continuous narrative (except that it might be substituted occasionally in place of another Latin-English exercise) until, not XVII, but XLVII, after the lessons on declensions and conjugations are completed and the formal study of syntax is begun?

Most of the sentences in the exercises are not taken from ancient authors but are created. Neither in this nor in the rewriting of Caesar's narrative are so great carefulness and so true a feeling for Latin displayed as are to be desired. Thus, we meet, for example, pieces of Latin that will convey unfortunate first impressions: cf. *moveo*, 'touch' (p. 85); *impero*, 'levy' (96); *legione* and *militibus* used as ablative of means (105); *vitae* in the plural (111); *probo = comprobo* (143); *ipsa* with abstract nouns (165); *sequor*, 'seek' (182).

We find, also, non-Caesarian, unusual, or false connotation in the use of words: *Gallia jacet inter* (66); *castella ponere* (92); *impetum ferre* (119); *poena par facinori* (143); *custodiam tradidit* (145); *manu* for *multitudine* (155: *manus* means an organized force; organization is a quality which Caesar usually does not attribute to the Gauls); *etiam* for *quoque* (181); *opus est copiam frumenti nancisci* (194).

Sometimes we have grammatical usage not correct or not suitable for a beginners' book: 'to the tall trees (29; *ad* is first given on page 48); *erant omnino itinera duo quibus . . . poterant* (89)[1]; *in locis superioribus* (92); participle as equivalent of a descriptive relative clause (108); *in bello Cassiano* (123); *qui* + indic. to express a circumstantial idea (146); *finibus excedere* (150); pluperfect in a result clause (185); *suae* with antecedent in the genitive (186); *dixi eos qui hanc insulam incoluissent discessisse* (192: in the absence of a context to show that the Recta was pluperfect *incolerent* is required).

[1] Why try thus to improve on Caesar? Yet in the same paragraph *ducerentur* is retained although it must be translated 'could', a meaning entirely foreign to the subjunctive and given to it here only by the context. The real meaning of *ducerentur* being beyond the grasp of the beginner, it must necessarily leave a false first impression (it is the first subjunctive occurring in the narrative).

Sometimes, again, the order of words is illogical: *in locis superioribus proelium commissum est* (92); *salute communi* (108); *nihil est hominibus carius libertate* (150)[1]; *quis est melior tuo fratre* (150); *diutius cum sustinere nostrorum impetus non possent* (151)[2].

At times the vocabulary definition and the use of a word in this book are incompatible: *diripio* (*jumenta diripuimus*, 104); *deserere* (*officium deserere*, 122); *dignitas* (*tua dignitate uti volo*, 153); *decerno* (183).

Some clauses are illogical as to sense: *jam* (112) finds the Helvetii among the Aedui before they tried the Pas de l'Ecluse; *Caesar eo, unde rediimus, proficiscitur* (128); *turres copias impediunt* (145); *commisso proelio, diutius nostrorum impetum hostes sustinere non potuerunt* (158).

Some constructions are used in sentences though they are not explained anywhere in the book: historical present (passim); genitive of material (141, 158); ablative of way by which (153); *quis* as an indefinite pronoun (173); historical infinitive (194); gerundive phrase as object of a verb (196).

Some constructions or forms are used before they are explained or can be understood: *egredi, petere, incendunt* (82: in lesson on *amo*); *pollicitus est, reverti* (105); accusative of extent (105); *illud* used substantively (125); two ablatives of means in lesson on dative (140).

There is a retranslation in the exercises of a lesson on p. 92.

The grouping of material in the lessons will not be approved by all teachers. Preceding the first declension there are three pages of definitions of inflection, parts of speech, gender, number, cases and their meanings (including locative), stems, case-endings, and terminations, the stem-endings and genitive singular terminations of the five declensions, and a paragraph on "cases alike in form", *without any examples*. Then the whole of the first declension is given in one lesson. Similarly before the first lesson on verbs there are two pages of abstract definitions. Is it not extremely difficult to teach these isolated ideas to minds which contain no objects to which to connect them? On the other hand if they are to be used only for reference, why not introduce them along with the concrete objects as they are needed?

(*To be concluded*)

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[1] The weakness of this and the following sentence is that they imply that both *libertate* and *fratre* were previously mentioned; therefore those words can not stand at the ends of their respective sentences.

[2] This sentence is quoted from Caesar; yet it ought not find place in a beginner's book because of the Anglic tendency to place the object after the verb, which in general must be counteracted. In Caesar the infinitive is drawn forward by the force of *diutius*, which is logically in its right position.

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HIGH SCHOOL COURSE IN LATIN COMPOSITION

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This book consists of three parts arranged for practice in writing Latin during the last three years of school, and, in addition, a summary of the Elements of Syntax for reference.

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In the Educational Times for September 1 appears a translation of Vives's tractate on the Education of Boys, an interesting treatise of the period of Henry VIII, dated 1523. The education referred to is an education in literature; by this is meant an education in Latin and Greek literature. It is a short work but interesting enough to be reprinted as a whole, because it shows very clearly the reason for the cultured character of English public men. Certainly the end of this kind of education was to fill the mind with a store of rich materials which might never be exhausted and the system of routine enjoined was adapted entirely to that end.

I should like to quote what he says about the development of the memory and his wise remarks on the necessity of keeping a commonplace book, a necessity which my own experience has taught me the value of because I never did it. Reading a great work with pencil and note-book is apt in most cases to bring more lasting results than reading it without[1]. "Never read any book", he says, "without selecting passages . . . never read anything with a loitering mind, or a mind intent on other things; let it be intently fixed on the reading". Directions as to taking notes, asking questions, developing a style in Latin are combined with suggestions as to what authors are most to be studied; in these he goes lightly over the whole range of Latin literature, not omitting a number of late and mediaeval authors. Inasmuch as, however, the student is expected to acquire a fluent knowledge of Latin, his directions for Latin conversation are interesting in view of the suggestions heard from many quarters that Latin should be used more in the class-room than has been the case hitherto.

Speak yourself as you near the instructed sneak, or as you read in Latin writers. Shun the words which you consider of doubtful value both in speech and writing, unless first you have got to know from your teacher that they are Latin. With those who speak Latin imperfectly, whose conversation may corrupt your own, rather speak English or any other language in which there is not the same danger. Converse gladly with those who are wise and fluent. No pleasure is greater than to hear those who, in their speech, have instantaneous balm (*praesentanea medicamenta*) for all the ailments of the mind.

. . . I give you my opinion on those authors who are to be esteemed especially from the point of view of increasing the richness of vocabulary, and for increasing knowledge of subject-matter. For daily conversation Terence is of great importance. Cicero made considerable use of him. Indeed, on account of the charm and gaiety of speech in his plays, many thought they were written by nobles of the highest families. Also the letters of Cicero, especially those to Atticus, teach much and may render ready practice for purposes of conversation. For in them the conversation is pure and simple, such as Cicero himself used with his wife, his children, his servants, his friends, at dinner, in the bath, on his couch, in the garden. There are, too, the familiar Colloquies written by Erasmus, which are as pleasant as they are useful. These are of no small importance, since Erasmus is a man of cultivated and refined intellect. The letters of the younger Pliny may supply many ideas (*sententiae*) of any kind of letter, which the writer of letters may need. They seem as if they had been composed almost so as to describe a few events, very much like Cicero. On the other hand, they differ from his treatment in the times concerned. The opinions expressed are often charming and afford material for enriching the expression in letter-writing.

Terence, the author that he especially recommends as a conversational model, is so easy that he is read in many classes in the Freshman year and could without much trouble be read in the High School if there were any good reason for it. It has often occurred to me to wonder why in classes studying Terence the effort is not more often made to reproduce in some degree the ancient atmosphere by either translation at dictation or reading aloud or reciting. The character of the style is such that Terence affords better material for translation at dictation than most narrative writers, the sentences being short as a rule and the periods not involved. In the customary translation at dictation the length of the sentences makes progress slow and involves continual repetition. This tends to obscure the progress of the story. Inexperienced students lose the beginning of the sentences before they reach the end, and the end when they attempt to retain the beginning, and this happens in despite of the most careful phrasing on the part of the teacher. Nor is it to be wondered at because most people would be hard put to it to repeat an English sentence of three or four lines after it had been read to them once. If, therefore, translation at dictation is good—and in my opinion it is very good—I know of no author better adapted to it than Terence; and if our secondary teachers

[1] Cf. Paulsen, The German Universities and University Study, translated by Thilly, 317-319.

were not so rigidly bound by the strait-jacket of college entrance requirements I should like to see certain parts of Terence appear in the High School curriculum, used, however, for the purpose of translation at dictation. G. L.

Latin Literature in Secondary Schools

Every teacher of Latin, whether in secondary school or in college, has felt the difficulty of crowding into the hour or the forty minutes allowed all the explanation and drill required to bring out the content of the day's lesson, and still more the impossibility of giving the average student any adequate idea of the language in a three- or even in a four-year course. The first-year student too often feels the learning of paradigms mere drudgery, and is not aroused to any high degree of enthusiasm at having to translate into Latin such inspiring sentiments as 'We shall present rewards to our soldiers', 'I had already given you the letter', 'Let us spare these children', 'I could easily have persuaded your brother', etc.

When he comes to read a classic author it is somewhat better, but not infrequently the end of his course finds him possessed of a vague impression that Latin is a language, now very dead, which once was used by three Romans—who ought to have known better—for the purpose of making High School textbooks. To him the Latin literature means two to four books of Caesar, four or five orations of Cicero and two to six books of Vergil—which is much the same as if one should say that English literature consists of a part of Grant's memoirs, an oration or two of Edmund Burke and a few books of Paradise Lost. Or, if he has approached Caesar through a course of 'easy Latin', he is faintly aware that there once was an author named Cornelius Nepos who had as many lives as a cat, all very dry and made merely to be read in school at the rate of twenty lines or so a day. Possibly he has had a taste of Viri Romae, but who wrote this fascinating compilation, and whether it was done before or after Caesar's time he does not care particularly to know. He may have heard mention of Ovid as another school exercise, but the clarity of his ideas on the whole subject is well illustrated by the recent inquiry of an entering freshman who wanted to know 'Who wrote Ovid?'

The secondary school has to keep in view at all times the needs of two classes of pupils—those who are preparing for college and the larger class for whom the high school commencement brings the end of formal culture study. These latter at least ought to be given a wider outlook. They ought to know that Vergil was not the only poet of ancient Rome, that there were other and greater historians than Caesar, and that the Catiline orations do not exhaust the range of Roman eloquence. They should learn that the great periods of English literature have their counterparts in that of old Rome, and the essential features of each period should be as familiar to them as those of English literature. They should know what historical events led to the introduction of Greek ideas and forms, and what influences affected their development in Roman soil. They should not be left in ignorance of the part played in this development by the drama, nor of the two forms of literature which were truly Roman and comparatively independent of Greek models. In a word, the high school graduate should have some intelligent idea of the beginnings, content, forms and great names of the Roman literature.

This has a rather formidable sound, and it is easy to imagine some overburdened teacher as exclaiming, 'Is the man crazy? Does he expect us to cram in a course of Latin literature on top of the translation, composition and scansion we can't find time for now?' I'll try to explain how it can be done. Of course the first-year pupil cannot be expected to feel a lively interest in the literature at large, and even when reading Caesar his attention is so much engrossed with ablatives absolute and indirect discourse as to leave little time for anything else. By the time Cicero is reached the pupil ought to be able to see a little way beyond the daily drudgery of etymology and syntax, but during most of the year Cicero's own style will demand almost exclusive attention. In the fourth year of Latin study, however, when teacher and student are so fortunate as to enjoy a fourth year, we certainly may expect the latter to look about him and inquire what it is that has made these old books worth preserving.

At first, of course, the student finds his hands full in solving the mysteries of the poetic style. His reading of the verse itself, according to the methods used, will be a task and bugbear or a pleasant aid in appreciating the music of the poet's song. However this may be it is well to postpone anything resembling *formal* study of the literature till the student can translate Vergil with comparative ease and precision and scansion has lost its first terrors. Meantime the teacher can let fall an occasional hint by way of preparing the ground. In reading the Aeneid there often will rise occasion to refer to the pioneer Ennius, to whose Annales the later poet was so greatly indebted. The meeting of myths in Vergil will remind the teacher of the great Latin treasurehouse of mythology, and it may often prove profitable to read or have read to the class such a tale as that of Scylla or Daedalus or Orpheus, as told in Ovid's smooth and easy style. The very mention of Vergil, moreover, will remind one of his contemporary and friend, the lyric poet Horace, and this will naturally suggest some mention of the little group of which Maecenas was the patron. Something can be told in brief of the field occupied by each, and so,

without apparent effort on the student's part, he will gain some conception of the conditions under which literature was made in the early days of the Empire. One topic will lead to another, and a good deal can be taught in this informal way.

In the winter or the spring of the Vergil year it ought to be possible to gather up, correlate and unify the fragments of information thus communicated. In this, as in all dealing with young students, it is well to place in their hands a definite authority to which they may appeal for themselves. Of course it is neither feasible nor desirable to require the purchase and study of a large history of the literature. A mere manual is needed, and for this such an outline as Wilkins's Primer will serve. From it can be got the skeleton, leaving the flesh to be supplied by the teacher or by assigned reading. One of the daily recitation periods each week may be given up to the study, or better it may come twice a week in connection with the regular lesson somewhat shortened. The general outline of the literature's growth and decline, with the few dates which mark the limits of each, should be fixed in memory, and the outline filled in more or less in detail according to the teacher's judgment. As to the precise method—whether oral recitation or quiz, written examinations or note book shall constitute the most prominent feature—the teacher again must decide from the particular circumstances.

It will not do to attempt too exhaustive a course. If made heavy it will lose interest for the class and so defeat its very purpose. The beginnings of formal literature at Rome can easily be connected with the history which the class has studied already, and the names before Plautus may be passed over with brief mention. Plautus and Terence, the only authors before Cicero of whom we have satisfactory remains, will demand fuller discussion. The story of a representative comedy, told with judgment and some enthusiasm, will add to the effectiveness of this part of the study. Teachers who have read the comedies in college will have no difficulty in this, and even those who have been less fortunate can use at a pinch some such sketch as that of the Rudens of Plautus in Wilkinson's College Latin Course in English.

Due tribute must be paid, of course, to the great pioneers, Andronicus, Naevius, Ennius and Lucilius, but our enthusiasm for them of necessity is rather artificial, being based almost wholly on the judgment of ancient critics who had access to their works in their entirety. The debt due such leaders must be acknowledged, but more stress may properly be laid upon the qualities of those authors whose works have survived and can now be examined.

Even in schools where a fourth or Vergil year is not given some literature study is possible. We commonly speak of a Ciceronian style as the model to be aimed at in our prose composition, because that author left a very large body of writings in which language and style show a remarkable consistency. From the prominence given in our schools to his orations the student might easily infer that he was an orator and nothing else. One of the things to be done, therefore, is to correct this idea, and show that along with the comparatively small number of orations there have come down to us a considerable mass of critical and philosophical matter and, what is of vastly greater interest and value, something like eight hundred letters—not essays, like the so-called epistles of Horace and Seneca, but real correspondence in which the character of the man and his times is mirrored with inimitable fidelity and completeness. Fortunately the practice is growing of printing selections from these letters in the school editions of the orations, so that our students now may see at least one other phase of this many-sided man.

Besides the primer owned by each student there should be a few additional books in the school library. There are two which of themselves will make a very respectable working library for the start, each a complement of the other: (1) Middleton and Mills's Students's Companion to Latin Authors, giving in compact form the known facts regarding the life and works of each author and referring to original sources for these facts: and (2) Mackail's Latin Literature, a live and charming sketch of the whole subject and itself a literary gem. The latter can be read with interest for itself, the former will be used mainly for reference. Each will cost about a dollar and a half. Where the library funds will permit it may be well to have one or more of the larger histories of Roman literature, such as Browne, Cruttwell, Simcox or even the exhaustive reference work of Teuffel (in Warr's translation), besides any number of special works on individual authors, but the two small volumes named will meet all needs at first.

Cui bono? Everyone involved will be benefited. The detached sentences in the first-year book lack interest from want of thought-compelling connection; a single book of Vergil or Caesar or an oration of Cicero studied without reference to its connection or its place in literature becomes little more than a grammar exercise, and just in the same way an author studied alone fails to impress us with his reality. It is only when seen in relation to his times and contemporaries that he can be fully appreciated. The pupil therefore gains this necessary perspective; the teacher is compelled to broaden and deepen his own knowledge of the subject, and gains the additional inspiration of dealing with an interested class, and the college profits by the better and more intelligent preparation of its entering students. The knowledge obtained will enable the student himself to understand why he has had to study Caesar, Cicero and Vergil in preference to other authors that might

have been chosen, and he will be better able to answer for himself and for others that old and persistent question of the philistine, 'What's the use of studying Latin, anyhow?'

H. M. KINGERY.

WABASH COLLEGE, Crawfordsville, Indiana.

REVIEW

(*Concluded from Page 39*)

First Year Latin, preparatory to Caesar. By Charles E. Bennett. Boston: Allyn & Bacon (1909). Pp. x + 281.

There is, moreover, no division of the exercises which would enable the teacher to assign at first certain cases or one number of the first declension and busy the class with practical work upon that while the number and case ideas are sinking in. To assign in one lesson twelve forms to be memorized as to spelling, pronunciation, arrangement, and translation is necessarily to exclude the absorption of those abstract ideas. Even so, no practical work from the book can be done upon them until the vocabulary also is memorized. These same criticisms apply to the imparting of the person, tense, and voice ideas in the study of the verb; for though they be not foreign to English, a surprisingly large number of grammar-school graduates do not consciously possess them: they must be brought forward into consciousness, and they must be associated *with the terminations which denote them in Latin.*

One may justly complain that in this book the entire burden is put upon the teacher of making his pupils feel the essential differences between Latin and English.

Each of the following groups is brought within the compass of a single lesson: all types, masculine and neuter nouns, of the second declension; the fourth and fifth declensions; the nine pronominal adjectives (*alius*, etc.) and three-termination adjectives of the third declension; relative, interrogative, and indefinite pronouns; clauses of characteristic, result, and cause; substantive clauses with verbs of wishing, desiring, fearing, those of result, and indirect questions; conditional and concessive clauses. On the other hand an entire lesson is given to the verb *do* (among the irregular verbs), two lessons to the syntax of adjectives and personal and possessive pronouns (not including *se* and *suus*), two lessons to the subjunctive in independent clauses, and one to "substantive clauses developed from the volitive".

A few points remain to be noted: *cui* is pronounced the same as *qui* (p. 1); consonant-*i* is represented by the character *j;* names of rivers, winds, months, trees, towns, islands, and indeclinable nouns are said to have "grammatical gender by signification" (6); there is no recognition of vowels or syllables of common quantity; in the definition of the oblique cases much prominence is given to the English objective—something which does not exist except in pronouns (6); the vocative is separately given throughout all declensions; 'in' is stated to be one of the meanings of the ablative (but 'to' is not given as a meaning of the accusative); there is no comprehensive table of terminations in any declension except the first, the result being that the essential differences between the several types of nouns are not pointed out; there is no attempt to use the vocabularies as object lessons in distinguishing the parts of speech (the first four lessons contain eleven verbs, against nineteen nouns); "adjectives denote quality" is the only definition of that part of speech; "the attributive adjective", it is said, "more commonly precedes the word which it limits" (17), yet the example at the top of the same page is *agricola bonus;* the term "consonant-stems" is used but is not defined (20); the student is not told how to find the stem or stems of any noun or verb; there is no paradigm of the *homo* or *corpus* types, but space is found for *mos* and *honor* (beside *victor:* 24); "unless 'with' is equivalent to 'by', it is regularly to be rendered by *cum*" is a misleading statement (22); no hint is given of the dative and ablative in *-ubus* in the fourth declension; it should be called to the attention of the College Entrance Examination Board that the plural of the fifth declension is dismissed with the statement, "With the exception of *dies* and *res*, most nouns of the fifth declension are not declined in the plural"; there is an absence of helps over the student's most common difficulties, such as the difference between *ager* and *puer*, terminations in the third declension, the use of *se, suus* and *ipse*, the distinction between substantive and adjective uses of the pronouns, the syntax of the relative (the latter is not even defined); there is not a word about personal endings or tense-signs; 'should' is given as the translation of the imperfect subjunctive, although it more commonly belongs to the present tense; the present stem of *amo* is said to be *am-;* the omission of *v* in the perfect stem of the fourth conjugation is not indicated in the paradigm, but only in the vocabularies; the number of semi-deponents is said to be "a few", and only *audeo* is mentioned, whereas many teachers require that the four be at once memorized (108); the opportunity is neglected to call attention to *revertor* as the opposite of a semi-deponent; "regularly" is used as a synonym for "always" (124, footnote); there is apparent confusion between real impersonal verbs and those which have a phrase or clause as subject (13). In the lessons on syntax the following rather important constructions are omitted: cognate and adverbial accusatives; genitives of material, measure (not distinguished from quality), indefinite value, with verbs of accusing, etc. (yet the impersonals *pudet, paenitet,* and *interest* are included); the dative

of reference and its subdivisions, separation, advantage and disadvantage; ablatives of source, standard, and attendant circumstance; *antequam* and *priusquam* clauses; future more vivid conditions (see below); jussive sentences in indirect discourse; the supine in *u;* beside those mentioned above. There is no restriction upon the single dative of purpose. Verbs of asking are said to take two accusatives (no exceptions are mentioned) and immediately *peto* is given in the vocabulary and the source construction occurs in the exercises. The use of a preposition with the ablative of cause is not mentioned. The attempt to classify all ablatives under the three original case meanings leads to some questionable statements: cause, manner, accompaniment, quality and specification are said to be "instrumental uses"; place from which is put under the locative uses, but a footnote adds that it does not belong there. *Carthagini* and *Athenis* are said to be ablatives; the locative case is restricted to the singular of the first and second declensions. There is no mention of *rus* among the rules for place. The familiar distinction between hortatory and jussive subjunctives is observed: by an inexplicable confusion *noli* + infinitive is given as the negative of the latter. The jussive is unrestricted in respect to person and tense. The definition of potential subjunctive is unsatisfactory: it "expresses the ideas conveyed by the English auxiliaries should and would". In the rule for sequence of tenses the "present perfect" is classified as "principal", i. e. primary (a sentence with the opposite sequence is found in an exercise on p. 186). In clauses of purpose *quo* (the ablative) is put on a par with *ut* and *ne:* there is no mention of the needed presence of a comparative. A clause of characteristic is defined as "a relative clause used to express some quality or characteristic of an indefinite or general antecedent": this definition would explain the change, noted above, of Caesar's *possent* to *poterant*. *Quod, quia,* and *quoniam* "take the indicative when the reason is that of the writer or speaker; the subjunctive when the reason is viewed as that of another": hereby *quod* + subjunctive giving a previous thought of the writer or speaker himself is excluded; on the other hand does *quoniam* ever take the subjunctive? In the vocabulary-definitions of these words *cum* is made an equivalent of *quod,* but not of *quoniam*. *Cum*-temporal with the indicative is said to "denote the point of time at which something occurs", and the illustration given is *cum mea domus ardebat.* An unfortunate omission is the neglect to tell that the word substantive is used with the same meaning in respect to clauses as the word noun in the earlier part of the book (the same omission is made in the lesson on syntax of adjectives). *Quin* is put on a par with *ne* and *quominus* after verbs of hindering under "substantive clauses developed from the volitive" (no mention is made of a difference between affirmative and negative sentences). Substantive clauses depending upon verbs signifying admonish, request, command, etc. are distinguished in kind and name from those depending upon *opto, volo* and *malo*. Future less vivid conditions are called "should . . . would" conditions; the future more vivid is entirely omitted[1]. Nothing is said of Latin precision in regard to tenses of completed action. Indirect discourse is "when one's language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of saying, thinking, etc." —a definition unintelligible to one who has been taught to consider a direct quotation as the object or subject of such a verb. The statement that the "main clause" is changed to the infinitive with subject accusative is slightly inaccurate. The definitions everywhere are exceedingly brief, sometimes, as has been indicated, at tne sacrifice either of clearness or of accuracy. Throughout the book repeatedly uncommon words are chosen for paradigms and unfamiliar words are used in illustratory sentences. The habit of giving one Latin word in several lesson vocabularies, each time with a new and apparently unrelated meaning, is not to be commended, because the student can not tell whether it is really a new word or not, because it involves all the difficulty of learning a new word without any increase in vocabulary, and because it fails to inculcate any feeling for the development of word-usage. In the entire book, even in the general vocabulary, there is not a word about the derivation and interrelation of words.

It may be premised that any study, to be accomplished with the maximum of economy and the maximum of permanence in its results, must be so arranged that every essential of it can be apprehended and correctly comprehended by the pupil in his own sanctum without the aid of a teacher. To those who will grant this premise the above will not seem to be cavilling. Furthermore, it can hardly be appreciated by theorizing, but only by sad experience, what a source of distress little inaccuracies, and even faults of omission, in a text-book are to an ambitious teacher.

Certain commendable features of this book should be noted: the division of questions into those that contain an essential interrogative word and those that may use a particle (the names "word-question" and "sentence-question" are unfortunate); the restriction of the lesson on numerals to a certain definite and important few; the recognition of long *i* in the perfect subjunctive (common quantity perhaps would be better); the distinction of two kinds of direct object, one of the person or thing affected, the other of the result produced; the condensation of conditions into one-half of one lesson; an entire

[1] Presumably it is to be included under "First Type.—Simple Conditions (Nothing implied as to Reality of the Supposed Case)". But no example is given.

lesson devoted to the tenses and meanings of the circumstantial participle; the practice of focusing attention upon the essential feature of a lesson by putting side by side in an exercise sentences that differ only in that essential feature.

The manufacture of the book is very nearly perfect. Only two misprints came to notice: *ferrendum*, p. 117, and *faolis*, p. 170. One word, *mereor*, occurs in the exercises, and is omitted from the general vocabulary. In a few places the lesson-heading or the type is misleading: e. g. V, XXVI (the imperative, infinitive, and participle are made to appear part of the subjunctive), LIX, LX, LXII. There is excessive and rather inconsistent use of capitalization in the definitions. Twenty-four wood-cuts of Roman antiquities are scattered through the volume, none of them having any connection with adjacent vocabulary or text.

BARCLAY W. BRADLEY.

COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

CORRESPONDENCE

In THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.5 Professor Charles Knapp says:

In a paper on the Teaching of Vergil in the High School Professor Johnston went so far as to hold that the pupil should never attempt to read the hexameter aloud, but that he should be required to indicate in writing the scansion of hundreds of verses.

I hope you will permit me to go so far as to say through THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY that the paper to which Professor Knapp refers contains no such doctrine as that ascribed to it by him, and that I have made no such sweeping statement elsewhere, in private or in public, in print or by word of mouth. The few persons interested in my notions of scanning as at present taught in the schools will find that the paper mentioned (which may be had without cost of Scott, Foresman and Co., Chicago) merely anticipated Professor Knapp in declaring that oral scanning by itself is of no value in the study of prosody.

H. W. JOHNSTON.

Bloomington, Indiana.

[I am afraid that I did injustice, unintentionally, to Professor Johnston by overemphasising his position. The following quotations give, I think, his views exactly:

You will not be surprised now if I say very plainly that I attach very little importance to the reading aloud in the class room of large portions of Vergil's verse. Leaving out of view the vexed question of how Latin verse is to be read aloud, I still think that much of the time devoted in some of our schools to oral scanning might be spent to better advantage on the analysis of the verse without pronouncing it at all.

I want to urge, therefore, that the pupil be required to write out verse by verse a full book of the Aeneid in the way I am about to describe. . . . After one full book has been scanned in this way, the teacher may introduce oral scanning at his discretion. . . . I do not mean that I would never read verse aloud to my pupils and have them read to me, but I would make the oral work subordinate to the other if I lacked time to do them both as I should like.

In the preface to his edition of the Phaeacian episode of the Odyssey Professor Merriam wrote: "We all strive after accuracy; it is a hard thing to attain". In the interests strictly of such accuracy, and in no spirit of contentiousness, I beg to point out in conclusion that these quotations from Professor Johnston's pamphlet, unless I have again unwittingly misrepresented him, did not justify him in writing as he does above: "the paper mentioned . . . . merely anticipated Professor Knapp in declaring that oral scanning by itself is of no value in the study of prosody". Nor did I believe in writing my own paper that I was saying what Professor Johnston thinks I said. C. K.]

Mr. Forman, writing in your issue of October 9, has accused me of a very serious statutory crime, and, as if that were not enough, challenged me besides to produce a definition of slang. In all innocence I would fain plead 'not guilty' at once to his heinous accusation, and as regards the challenge decline with thanks, only referring him, if I may, for the definition he desires, to whatever dictionary may have succeeded in qualifying with him as authoritative.

But I imagine we need have no quarrel over what is slang and what is not. In the somewhat desultory article of mine, indeed, to which Mr. Forman refers, my intention was—and it was fairly set forth at the beginning—to bring together a number of cases of parallelism between the Classics and our own tongue, the majority of them slang, others merely colloquial expressions, some sufficiently pure of all taint of vulgarity to permit of their being used even by Mr. Forman, as he *has* used them in his communication. In my concluding paragraphs the subject with which the paper was mostly taken up was followed out and a few reasons given for thinking that a part of our modern slang may have had a more or less direct connection with that of antiquity. The title, Slang, Ancient and Modern, was chosen, without especial malice, to cover in brief form the main part of the contents. It is a pity that it has so bothered the gentleman from Cornell.

WILLIAM W. BAKER.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE.

The well-founded charge of the indefinite teaching of the Classics in our secondary schools has begun to receive the attention which it deserves. The average teacher, in his zeal for the broader aspects of his work, has introduced too many subsidiary subjects, important as such, but irrelevant

to the main issue at this stage of the pupil's progress. There seems to be unanimity as to the main object of classical study, to wit, power to *read easy Latin and Greek at sight;* but there has always been a noticeable reluctance on the part of the conscientious teacher to forego the pleasure of rambling through the alluring fields of collateral studies. The recent appearance of such manuals as Byrne's The Syntax of High School Latin and Lodge's The Vocabulary of High School Latin marks a decided advance toward the practical solution of this vexing problem.

Professor Lodge's work may be used effectively as a source book by the teacher who wishes to prepare his own working list for his classes in Caesar, Cicero and Vergil. The typographical make-up of the book, with the use of different sized type and the frequency of each word plainly noted, make this task comparatively easy. The writer has prepared such a list, grouped according to parts of speech and frequency of occurrence, which he dictates to his classes. Each student is provided with a large note book, conveniently ruled for the following data: the word and its principal parts (if a verb) or genitive singular (if a noun or adjective), meaning, derivative (if any). In as much as the first form of the word only is dictated, the student must consult his vocabulary or a large lexicon for the required information; and this, combined with the mechanical act of writing and tabulating his material, causes him to react sufficiently upon each word to retain a comparatively vivid impression of it. A periodic inspection of these note books in the making, followed by an occasional class quiz on the completed list of 500 words, serves to encourage thoroughness; while the student's increased facility in daily translation, and especially, his conscious power in reading at sight, convince him at once of the reasonableness of the requirement and results in his hearty coöperation.

NORMAN E. HENRY.
GREENSBURG HIGH SCHOOL, PA.

The Classical Club of Muhlenberg College was organized last year. At the first meeting for the current year a great deal of interest was shown. The work for the year will consist of the study of Greek and Roman Private Life and the reading of several plays of Plautus. The Club expects some time to present a Greek or a Roman play.

In view of the peculiar relation of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY to The New York Latin Club (the Latin Club owned The Latin Leaflet, out of which THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY was developed), we gladly give space to the following circular which has just been issued concerning the activities of The Latin Club for the current year.

The New York Latin Club, 1909-1910.

This is the decennial year of The New York Latin Club, and it should be a red-letter year in attendance as it certainly will be in its program. During the past nine years, the papers presented before the Club have been uniformly helpful, scholarly and interesting. From the outline given below, it will be seen that this high standard has been maintained for the coming year. Those who expect to attend, and all are urged to do so, should notify, as soon as possible, Mr. William F. Tibbetts, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn.

The first luncheon will take place on Saturday, **November 20,** at the Marlborough Hotel, 36th Street and Broadway, New York City. at twelve o'clock noon. The address will be delivered by Professor Julius Sachs, of Columbia University, who will speak on Improved Standards in Teaching Latin. From his long experience in Secondary and College work Professor Sachs will be able to present this important question from both points of view, in such a way that it will be exceedingly valuable to all.

The second luncheon of the Club, January 8, will be addressed by Professor Paul Shorey, of The University of Chicago. Professor Shorey needs no introduction, for he is not only one of the leading Greek scholars of America, but is well known to all teachers of Latin from his masterly edition of Horace's Odes and Epodes. The Club is to be congratulated on securing him.

In addition to the luncheons, two very successful meetings were held last year, at which the teaching of Latin Composition was discussed. This year there will be one such meeting, March 5, at a place to be designated later. This meeting will be addressed by the President of the Latin Club, Professor Gonzalez Lodge, whose subject will be The New Secondary Course in Latin.

At the last luncheon, May 14, the speaker will be Professor Frank Frost Abbott, of Princeton University. Professor Abbott is the author of several standard works, among which may be mentioned Roman Political Institutions, and Society and Politics in Ancient Rome. His address is sure to be very clear, scholarly and helpful.

It should be the professional duty, as well as pleasure, of every teacher of the Classics, in and around Greater New York, to belong to the New York Latin Club and The Classical Association of the Atlantic States; for in union there is strength.

Persons desiring to secure membership in the New York Latin Club and to attend the three luncheons, may remit $2.50 to Mr. Wm. F. Tibbetts, at Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn. $4.00 will cover the luncheons and membership in both the Latin Club and the Classical Association of the Atlantic States (those who have already paid dues in the latter association need remit but $2.00 now).

On December 28, 29, 30, the American Philological Association and the Archaeological Institute of America will meet together at Baltimore, Maryland. One part of the programme will surely be of interest to all students of the Classics, the address which Professor Gildersleeve, as President of the Philological Association, will deliver.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY is published by the Classical Association of the Atlantic States. It is issued weekly, on Saturdays, from October to May inclusive, except in weeks in which there is a legal or school holiday, at Teachers College, 525 West 120th Street, New York City.

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All persons within the territory of the Association who are interested in the literature, the life and the art of ancient Greece and ancient Rome, whether actually engaged in teaching the Classics or not, are eligible to membership in the Association. Application for membership may be made to the Secretary-Treasurer, Charles Knapp, Barnard College, New York. The annual dues (which cover also the subscription to THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY), are two dollars. Within the territory covered by the Association (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia) subscription is possible to individuals only through membership. To *institutions* in this territory the subscription price is one dollar per year.

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In looking over a mass of clippings which I have made at various times I came upon an extract from The Nation of January 7 last, a part of an article on the earthquake in Sicily last year. This clipping has its suggestions for the student of Latin literature; it throws light for instance on Horace C.1.1. 9-10 (see especially Kiessling's notes there)

> illum, si proprio condidit horreo
> quidquid de Libycis verritur areis.

The enormous loss of life was due in part to the congestion of the population. Italy as a whole supports 305 inhabitants to its every square mile. In Sicily the ratio is 375; and about unhappy Messina the ratio rose to 456. We think of Sicily as so exclusively an agricultural country—the land of wheat, oil, and citron—that it is surprising to find over one-fourth of its population of some 3,800,000 congregated in cities having more than 25,000 inhabitants. The soil is parcelled out among great landowners, holders of the ancient *latifundia*, who, with their tenants and sub-tenants, crowd together in the cities, when the week's or the season's cultivation is done. That a tremendous earthquake coming upon such human congestion should work immense loss of life, was inevitable.

Any one familiar with Juvenal's third Satire, with the number of *insulae* in ancient Rome, or with the discussions of the population of Rome (see e. g. Friedländer, Sittengeschichte[6], 1.58-70, or Story, Roba di Roma, 574-599), will appreciate at once the applicability of this extract from The Nation to the conditions of life in ancient Rome. I may add here that in the translation of Friedländer's great work which is in course of publication by Messrs. E. P. Dutton and Co. (two volumes have thus far appeared; see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.39, 3.52) excursuses such as that on the population of Rome have been omitted; announcement is made, however, that they will be grouped together in translation in a fourth volume. C. K.

In THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.185 I protested against the doctrine taught in various quarters that in certain Latin sentences we have examples of *ut non* instead of *ne* in final clauses. I have noticed lately some sentences sufficiently akin to those discussed in the little article referred to above to be quoted here. Cf., for example, Cicero De Officiis 2.62 Propensior benignitas esse debebit in calamitosos, nisi forte erunt digni calamitate. In iis tamen qui se adiuvari volent non ne adfligantur, sed ut altiorem gradum ascendant, restricti omnino esse nullo modo debemus, sed in deligendis idoneis iudicium et diligentiam adhibere; 3.61 Ita nec ut emat melius nec ut vendat quicquam simulabit aut dissimulabit vir bonus.

Kindred phenomena are to be found, *mutatis mutandis*, in Greek. Let us examine Sophocles Antigone 31-36 (Antigone is the speaker):

> *τοιαῦτά φασι τὸν ἀγαθὸν Κρέοντα σοὶ*
> *κἀμοί, λέγω γὰρ κἀμέ, κηρύξαντ' ἔχειν,*
> *καὶ δεῦρο νεῖσθαι ταῦτα τοῖσι μὴ εἰδόσιν*
> *σαφῆ προκηρύξοντα, καὶ τὸ πρᾶγμ' ἄγειν*
> *οὐχ ὡς παρ' οὐδέν, ἀλλ' ὃς ἂν τούτων τι δρᾷ* 35
> *φόνον προκεῖσθαι δημόλευστον ἐν πόλει.*

I have in mind especially verse 35. The idea of command, twice clearly brought out, in verses 32 and 34, would naturally have lead to *μή*, not *οὐ*, in 36, especially when we take into account also the adjacent infinitive in 34. Why then do we have *οὐχ* after all? What was said in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.185 about *ut . . . non . . . sed* in Cicero Cat. 1.23 applies here. *οὐχ . . . ἀλλ'* = *non . . . sed*, and the thought here is essentially affirmative in its movement; in a word *non . . . sed*, *οὐ . . . ἀλλά* are capital ways of uttering a vigorous affirmative. The words embraced by these particles in Latin and Greek both make a little entity complete in itself, unaffected by the rest of the sentence. We might rewrite Sophocles's words, meter apart, thus: *καὶ τὸ πρᾶγμα περὶ πλείστου ποιεῖσθαι, καὶ γὰρ ὃς ἂν . . . ἐν πόλει.*

All this seems to me quite elementary. But I note that so good a scholar as Professor Humphreys, in his fine edition of the Antigone, takes a view of our passage which I am obliged to regard as quite erroneous and as hopelessly bewildering to a young student. His note runs as follows: "*οὐχ ὡς παρ' οὐδέν*: This clause is Antigone's, and the neg. really belongs to *προκηρύξοντα*, hence *οὐ* and not *μή*. Cf. Thuc. i. 39.2 *καὶ δεῦρο ἥκουσιν . . . ὑμᾶς νῦν ἀξιοῦντες, οὐ ξυμμαχεῖν, ἀλλὰ ξυναδικεῖν*. Now I can, should I be obliged to do so, interpret the Thucydides passage as equal to *ὑμᾶς νῦν οὐκ ἀξιοῦντες ξυμμαχεῖν, ἀλλὰ ξυναδικεῖν*, but I cannot, at least naturally, explain Antigone's words here as equal to *οὐ προκηρύξοντα τὸ πρᾶγμ' ἄγειν ὡς παρ' οὐδὲν, ἀλλ'*, etc.

I note finally that both Jebb and Campbell apparently thought this whole matter too obvious to require explanation. C. K.

Vergil's Debt to the Hecuba and Troades of Euripides.

The closest parallel that can be drawn between Vergil and the Greeks is not that between Vergil and Homer, but that between Vergil and Euripides. "C'est son esprit qu'il lui dérobe", says M. Patin, quoted by Glover. Vergil found in Euripides his own nature, his love of a life of study and retirement, and the society of a few intimate friends, his love of nature and country life, his wide human sympathy for the lowly and oppressed, his appreciation of the pathos of the toil and suffering of men and animals, his horror of war due to natural sensibility and to experience. Each had seen the misery which war brings, Euripides in the Peloponnesian War and Vergil in two civil wars. "If Euripides is the most tragic of Greek poets", says Glover, "there is more tragedy in the Aeneid than in all the rest of the Latin literature we know". Therefore there is none of the Homeric joy in battle in Vergil's Trojan War but only the lamentation of Euripides over the destruction of a great and beautiful city, the waste of heroic lives and the sorrow of captives.

Upon Euripides and Vergil alike press the questions, Are the gods just? Do they care for human suffering? Euripides in his cosmopolitan Athens, at a time when religious beliefs were being questioned, answers 'No'. The chorus of Trojan women cry (Troades 1077-1078)

μέλει, μέλει μοι τάδ' εἰ φρονεῖς, ἄναξ,
οὐράνιον ἕδρανον ἐπιβεβώς.

Hecuba in the depth of her anguish cries (Troades 1280-1281)

ἰὼ θεοί. καὶ τί τοὺς θεοὺς καλῶ;
καὶ πρὶν γὰρ οὐκ ἤκουσαν ἀνακαλούμενοι,

and again (1289-1290)

πάτερ, ἀνάξια τᾶς Δαρδάνου
γονᾶς τάδ' οἷα πάσχομεν δέδορκας;

But the chorus answers (1291-1292)

δέδορκεν, ἁ δὲ μεγαλόπολις
ἄπολις ὄλωλεν.

Vergil, among the pious Romans in the age of Augustus who asked his help in strengthening the bonds of religious belief, feels that he can not understand the ways of Heaven and that mystery adds to the sadness of life. Dis aliter visum, he says (Aen. 2.428). So again in 1.603-605:

> Di tibi, si qua pios respectant numina, si quid
> usquam iustitia est et mens sibi conscia recti,
> praemia digna ferant.

Yet he believes the gods do care. Dabit deus his quoque finem (1.199).

This difference in religious belief involves a difference in their treatment of fate. Euripides's fate is a blind force crushing the innocent Hecuba, Polyxena and Phaedra. In Vergil's eyes fate has a beneficent aim with which mortals must ally themselves. Passion is a trivial thing compared with man's work and endurance for noble ends. Dido must suffer, but her sacrifice gives to the world the Roman state.

This conflict between human will and divine purposes is the theme of Greek tragedy. So in theme and character the fourth book of the Aeneid is related to Euripides's Medea and Hippolytus. With Medea and Phaedra before him Vergil drew his barbaric Eastern queen capable of tender devotion to a beloved and worthy object, but changing, when thwarted, to a raging fury. Professor Murray, in his introduction to his translation of The Medea, says that in these studies of oppression and revenge the writers dwell upon "the twofold evil of cruelty, that it not only causes pain to tne victim, but actually by means of the pain makes him a worse man". The fury of Phaedra which slays Hippolytus and herself, the fury of Medea which slays four innocent victims, the fury of Dido which slays herself and brings Hannibal down on Rome, turns a loving woman into a black-hearted curse.

The second and third books of the Aeneid are written in the spirit and contain many of the incidents of the Trojan Women and the Hecuba. The latter opens with the story of Polydorus told by his spirit, who says that he, the youngest son of Priam, too young to bear arms, was sent by his father to Polymestor, king of Thrace, with whom his father had a friendship rendered sacred by the bonds of hospitality. As long as Troy survived, Polydorus was well treated by his host, but, when the city fell, for the sake of his gold, he was slain and thrown out upon the seashore. His spirit then visits his mother, who has been brought by the Greeks to Thrace, where all are detained by the shade of Achilles demanding the sacrifice of Polyxena. The third book of the Aeneid opens with the landing of Aeneas and his companions in Thrace, the horrible omen of the bloody thicket from which comes the voice of Polydorus and the same story of Polydorus, briefly told by Aeneas, who exclaims (3.56-57)

> Quid non mortalia pectora cogis,
> auri sacra fames!

In Euripides's story of Polydorus occur the lines referring to the death of Priam (Hecuba 23-24):

αὐτὸς δὲ βωμῷ πρὸς θεοδμήτῳ πίτνει
σφαγεὶς Ἀχιλλέως παιδὸς ἐκ μιαιφόνου.

There are two references to the same dreadful incident in the Troades. Compare first 16-17:

πρὸς δὲ κρηπίδων βάθροις
πέπτωκε Πρίαμος Ζηνὸς ἑρκείου θανών.

Later in 481-483 Hecuba appeals to it to prove herself the most wretched of women:

καὶ τὸν φυτουργὸν Πρίαμον οὐκ ἄλλων πάρα
κλύουσ' ἔκλαυσα, τοῖσδε δ' εἶδον ὄμμασιν

αὐτῇ κατασφαγέντ' ἐφ' ἑρκείῳ πυρᾷ,—

These references have been expanded by Vergil into the story of the murder of Polites by Pyrrhus at the altar in the palace at which Priam, Hecuba and their daughters had taken refuge, Priam's attack upon Pyrrhus and the murder of the weak old king.

A scene of the Hecuba represents the debate among the Greeks on the fate of Polyxena. Shall she be sacrificed to Achilles's demand? This suggestion Agamemnon opposed; the question hung in the balance until Ulysses persuaded the Greeks to slay her. This is the account given to Hecuba. Polyxena, remembering that she is a daughter of Priam, a sister of Hector and the destined bride of kings, prefers death to slavery and dies as a princess should. Vergil's Andromache in exile exclaims (3. 321-324):

> O felix una ante alias Priameia virgo,
> hostilem ad tumulum Troiae sub moenibus altis
> iussa mori, quae sortitus non pertulit ullos
> nec victoris eri tetigit captiva cubile!

Euripides has never a good word for Helen, who is regarded as the cause of all the suffering in both armies. Hecuba calls her (Troiades 132-137):

στυγνὰν ἄλοχον, Κάστορι λώβαν
τῷ τ' Εὐρώτᾳ δυσκλείαν,
ἃ σφάζει μὲν
τὸν πεντήκοντ' ἀροτῆρα τέκνων
Πρίαμον, ἐμέ τε μελέαν Ἑκάβαν
ἐς τάνδ' ἐξώκειλ' ἄταν.

Helen should be slain and not Polyxena (Hecuba 265-266):

Ἑλένην νιν αἰτεῖν χρῆν τάφῳ προσφάγματα·
κείνη γὰρ ὤλεσέν νιν ἐς Τροίαν τ' ἄγει.

So again in Hecuba 441-443 we read:

ὡς . . . .
Ἑλένην ἴδοιμι· διὰ καλῶν γὰρ ὀμμάτων
αἴσχιστα Τροίαν εἷλε τὴν εὐδαίμονα.

Aeneas, on the night of the fall of Troy seeing her hiding in the temple, calls her (2.573):

> Troiae et patriae communis Erinys.

The description of the fall of Troy in the last choral ode of the Hecuba corresponds closely to the story of the last night of the city in the second book of the Aeneid. In the first verses (905-906) the chorus sings

σὺ μέν, ὦ πατρὶς Ἰλιάς,
τῶν ἀπορθήτων πόλις οὐκέτι λέξῃ·

Aeneas in his narrative of that dreadful night exclaims (2.241-242)

> O patria, o divum domus Ilium et incluta bello
> moenia Dardanidum!

and (2.363)

> Urbs antiqua ruit, multos dominata per annos.

Hecuba 910-911

ἀπὸ δὲ στεφάναν κέκαρ-
σαι πύργων

is paralleled in Aen. 2.290

> ruit alto a culmine Troia.

Again, Hecuba 914-920

μεσονύκτιος ὠλλύμαν,
ἦμος ἐκ δείπνων ὕπνος ἡδὺς ἐπ' ὄσσοις
σκίδναται, μολπᾶν δ' ἄπο καὶ χοροποιῶν
θυσιᾶν καταλύσας
πόσις ἐν θαλάμοις ἔκει-
το, ξυστὸν δ' ἐπὶ πασσάλῳ,

is represented in Aeneid 2.248-249, 252-253, 265, 268-269:

> Nos delubra deum miseri, quibus ultimus esset
> ille dies, festa velamus fronde per urbem.
> . . . .
> . . . . fusi per moenia Teucri
> conticuere; sopor fessos complectitur artus.
> . . . .
> Invadunt urbem somno vinoque sepultam;
> . . . .
> Tempus erat, quo prima quies mortalibus aegris
> Incipit et dono divum gratissima serpit.

In Hecuba 921-922 the chorus laments

ναύταν οὐκέθ' ὁρῶν ὅμιλον Τροίαν
Ἰλιάδ' ἐμβεβῶτα.

In Aen. 2.254-256 Aeneas, in the same spirit, says,

> Et iam Argiva phalanx instructis navibus ibat
> a Tenedo tacitae per amica silentia lunae
> litora nota petens . . .

The third stanza of the choral ode (Hecuba 928) brings the conflict into the city,

ἀνὰ δὲ κέλαδος ἔμολε πόλιν.

Aeneas describes it thus (2.298-301):

> Diverso interea miscentur moenia luctu,
> et magis atque magis, ...
> . . . .
> clarescunt sonitus, armorumque ingruit horror.

The women's first thought was to seek safety at the altars (Hecuba 934-936):

Δωρὶς ὡς κόρα,
σεμνὰν προσίζουσ' οὐκ
ἤνυσ' Ἄρτεμιν ἁ τλάμων·

Compare Aen. 2.515-517:

> Hic Hecuba et natae nequiquam altaria circum,
> praecipites atra ceu tempestate columbae,
> condensae et divum amplexae simulacra sedebant.

But the altars did not protect them (Hecuba 937-941) with Aen. 2.762-763, 766-767: cf.

ἄγομαι δὲ . . . .
τὸν ἐμὸν ἄλιον ἐπὶ πέλαγος,
. . . .
ναῦς ἐκίνησεν πόδα καί μ' ἀπὸ γᾶς
ὥρισεν Ἰλιάδος·

> Custodes lecti Phoenix et durus Ulixes
> praedam adservabant; . . . .
> . . . .
> . . . . .pueri et pavidae longo ordine matres
> stant circum.

The curse upon Helen in Hecuba 950-952 is the curse

of Aeneas when he sees her in the temple (Aen. 2. 577-578):

ἂν μήτε πέλαγος ἅλιον ἀπαγάγοι πάλιν,
    μήτε πα—
  τρῷον ἵκοιτ' ἐς οἶκον.

Scilicet haec Spartam incolumis patriasque Mycenas
aspiciet?

The story of the destruction of the city is continued in the Trojan Women, from which Vergil borrowed more incidents and phrases. So Troades 18-19

πολὺς δὲ χρυσὸς Φρύγιά τε σκυλεύματα
πρὸς ναῦς Ἀχαιῶν πέμπεται.

has been elaborated by Vergil thus (Aen. 2.763-766):

Huc undique Troia gaza
incensis erepta advtis, mensaeque deorum
crateresque auro solidi, captivaque vestis
congeritur;

The character of Ulysses drawn by Hecuba in Euripides is the character drawn by Sinon; cf. Troades 282-287,

μυσαρῷ δολίῳ λέλογχα φωτὶ δουλεύειν,
πολεμίῳ δίκας, παρανόμῳ δάκει,
ὃς πάντα τἀκεῖθεν ἐνθάδε στρέφει, τὰ δ'
  ἀντίπαλ' αὖθις ἐκεῖσε διπτύχῳ γλώσσᾳ
φίλα τὰ πρότερ' ἄφιλα τιθέμενος πάντων,

with Sinon's *invidia pellacis Ulixi* and ***scelerum inventor Ulixes*** (Aen. 2.90, 164) and his story of Ulysses's treachery and cold-blooded disregard of truth and mercy, which, though false, seemed to the Trojans quite in accord with the character of the man whom they called *durus Ulixes* (Aen. 2.7).

H. May Johnson.

Eastern High School, Washington, D. C.

(*To be Concluded*)

REVIEW

Roman Life and Manners under the Empire, by Ludwig Friedländer. Authorized Translation of the Seventh Enlarged and Revised Edition of the Sittengeschichte Roms. Volume I by Leonard A. Magnus; Volume II by J. H. Freese. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. (1908-1909).

Of the merits of Friedländer's Sittengeschichte it is superfluous to speak at this late day; it is an indispensable book of reference. One cannot but wonder why the publisher asked the author in his seventh edition to omit nearly all the references to the original sources, which formed so valuable and important a feature of the earlier editions. The result is that the classical student cannot do without the sixth edition, and that the seventh is suited rather to the general reader; although one might fairly suppose that even that enigmatical personage, to whose assumed requirements so much is sacrificed nowadays, might occasionally like to be assured of the existence of evidence for some statements which must seem startling to one whose knowledge of ancient Roman Life is not extensive.

A translation of the Sittengeschichte was certainly desirable, although for the reason already given, an accurate English version of the seventh edition would be of little use to the serious student, unless he had the sixth at his elbow.

Unhappily this translation cannot be called either good or accurate. The first volume especially abounds in examples of faulty and frequently unintelligible sentences, due in some cases to too literal a rendering of the German, in others to misunderstanding of the original, and in still others to bad taste in the use of English. For example, on p. 2 we read, "most of the improvement of Rome was on a generous scale, in public places and monuments; but many regulations and widenings of the chaotic streets (largely consequent on the ornamentations) were also made". On p. 8 we are informed that the Flavian Amphitheatre "bulks to heights almost invisible to the eye", on p. 9 that "the basilica was a market-building on columns". The doors of advocates, it seems (p. 163), were "besieged by parties", and "many small ones" (advocates, namely!) were "too glad to devil four speeches for a piece of gold"; but this is doubtless a misprint for deliver.

On p. 229 we read that Soranus of Ephesus "advises the employment of Greeks, so that children may learn the most beautiful of languages, and receive the utmost attention, lack of which so often caused bow-leggedness", an effect of the neglect of Greek which has been overlooked by its advocates in modern times. Rome is said to have become "one big tavern" (*taberna!*), and to be "one continual city of noise and bustle"; balconies were forbidden "because of their danger of fires"; the "healthy" plain between Rome and the "Albanian" Hills was "all built over with *streets*". The translator's negative compounds, such as 'unesteem', 'unemployment', 'undescribable', 'indiscipline', his verb to 'soothsay', and his nouns 'pushfulness', 'self-life' (Selbstleben!), and 'superstitiousness', may perhaps in some cases have been granted asylum in the hospitable pages of the unabridged dictionaries, but they might well be left there in company with 'riverine' and other dubious experiments in word-coinage. 'Little Asia' and 'Little-Asian', in spite of the obvious convenience of the latter, somehow do not commend themselves to the reviewer's perhaps too Attic taste. For a masterpiece of a faulty sentence, which is too long to quote here, see p. 12, near the end.

But English is a difficult language, with many traps even for the wary, and the critic is in danger of being met with a *tu quoque*. Actual errors of

fact are a more serious matter, and these unfortunately are not rare. In many cases they are found in the translations of Latin passages, and presumably might have been avoided by consulting the original. One is rather taken aback to read on p. 2 "*in the year 44 B. C.* there were over one hundred palaces in Rome. Cicero, a *quarter of a century afterwards* thought he might call Rome a beautiful . . . city". But Friedländer says: "Cicero glaubt schon im Jahre 70", which is quite a different matter. One is incredulous as to the existence of hills nearly "a thousand paces high" (p. 23) between the Aventine and the southern foot of the Janiculum, and finds that Friedländer gives this as the measure of the width of the Tiber valley at that point. One who has never crossed the seas would get a misleading mental picture from a reference to "the highest peaks of Rome" (p. 114). To call the Tiber (p. 13) "the gentle *buyer* of all that is produced on earth" seems an extraordinary metaphor, but the Latin word which is mistranslated 'buyer' is *mercator!*

The second volume at first makes a much better impression, since one's attention is not arrested at frequent intervals by 'howlers'. Its English, however, leaves something to be desired, unless it be hypercritical to take exception to "the stoic Marcus Aurelius *prevailed on himself* to give splendid spectacles" (p. 3), "wild beasts *who* were especially trained for the work" (p. 72), the "cellars" of the Circus Maximus, to "lesson the gruesomeness" (probably a misprint), and the like. It certainly jars even American sensibilities to read of wall-paintings provided with "letterpress", of 'a little dog on a lead", and to hear that "the plastic arts were sometimes employed . . . on representations of living persons".

The disastrous effects of giving translations from the Latin through the medium of Friedländer's German, excellent as the latter is in most cases, has already been referred to. Like his colleague, Mr. Freese errs in this respect. On p. 91, in connection with Suetonius Calig. 57, he says: "In a mime played on the day of the murder of Caligula the crucifixion of the famous brigand Laureolus was acted, the flow of blood imitated, and scoffed at by bystanders". As it is punctuated this sentence seems absolutely without meaning, but waiving that point as possibly hypercritical, let us see just what Friedländer says. We find in his last clause the words, "von mehreren Spassmachern nachgeäfft". *Spassmacher* does not seem to me the exact equivalent of the actors of the *secundae partes,* but it certainly does not mean 'bystanders', and a glance either at a German dictionary s. v. 'nachäffen', or at Suetonius, would have been sufficient to save Mr. Freese from absolutely misrepresenting Friedländer and his Latin original. In a similar way the story of the mime who impersonated Vespasian at the latter's funeral is garbled and spoiled (p. 95). An example of a mistranslation in which Latin is not involved is to be found on p. 291, "the inhabitants of Panhormus, etc.", where the disregard of the word *solchen* yields this remarkable statement, "he was satisfied with two and (probably) three equestrian statues".

Unfortunately these are not a few instances yielded by a laborious search for errors, but selections from a large number of marginal notes made in the course of a rapid but somewhat careful reading. It does not seem too severe to say that the translation cannot be trusted, but must constantly be checked by reference to the German edition.

JOHN C. ROLFE.
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

From the November number of the Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art we reprint, in somewhat condensed form, the following article by Mr. Edward Robinson, Assistant Director of the Museum. The article in The Bulletin is illustrated by three cuts; the number may be obtained from the Museum for ten cents.

THE OLD MARKET WOMAN

The Museum has recently purchased . . . an extraordinary specimen of original Greek sculpture, which is now on exhibition in the Room of Recent Accessions. . . . This is a marble statue, somewhat less than life size, of an old peasant woman who is offering the products of her little farm for sale. Those who are familiar with only the nobler creations of Greek sculpture will find the subject itself a strange one for Greek art, but they will be still more impressed by the intense realism with which it is expressed. It is, in fact, an attempt at an absolutely true study of nature in her least beautiful forms, such as we associate more with the art of modern Italy than with that of classic Greece, and the result is a figure such as we might see—though in a more modern costume—moving about the marketplace of an Italian or Greek town to-day. With the body bent at that peculiar angle which comes more from constant toil in the fields than from age, we can feel the shambling motion with which she pushes her way among the crowd of market people, and though the greater part of both arms is missing their action is easily imagined. With the right extended she was holding out something, the merits or the cheapness of which she was proclaiming, and in the left hand she carried the fowls and the basket of fruits or vegetables which are still to be seen at her side. Though the head itself is preserved, and has never been broken from the body, it was found with the features sadly mutilated, not by accident, but by a willful act of vandalism, of which they clearly show the traces. To make the statue more presentable, the face has been restored here in plaster. But the realism of the action merely accentuates that of the modeling, especially in the upper half of the statue, where the characteristics of withered old age are reproduced with unsparing fidelity. The old and weary eyes, the sunken cheeks, the deep lines about the mouth, and the shriveled neck and breast,

all show a sculptor whose aim was to perpetuate an unlovely everyday type precisely as he saw it, with no thought of beauty nor desire for idealism. Yet he was a Greek, and his instinct for rhythmic lines and beautiful forms could not be wholly suppressed. It found its outlet in the lower half of the figure, where he was less occupied with the realism of his subject. The costume is the same that we find on the ideal statues of goddesses or women—a sleeveless chiton, or dress, clasped upon the shoulder, and over this a large himation or mantle. The folds of these two garments fall as gracefully as though they covered the form of a young girl, and it is curious to observe that the limbs which they cover do not correspond at all to the shrunken character of the upper part, but are full and well rounded, as are also the prettily sandaled feet. The only distinctive mark of the peasant in the costume is the kerchief upon her head, which she wears in precisely the manner that the peasant women of southern Europe wear them to-day. Encircling this kerchief is an ivy wreath, probably an indication that the occasion on which she is offering her wares for sale is some Bacchic festival. The statue was evidently intended simply as a piece of decorative sculpture, perhaps for the adornment of a garden, and was designed only for a front or side view, as the back is executed in a more or less summary manner, and is rather flat.

Although examples of this naturalistic tendency in Greek art are comparatively rare, they are by no means unknown, and constitute a well-defined class. They all originated in the same period, which, as might be expected, is that of the decline, when technical virtuosity took the place of greater ideals; and they are typical of one phase of the Hellenistic Age, which began with the death of Alexander the Great, B.C. 323, and continued until the Roman conquest of the various sites of Greek civilization. Within that age it is not possible to give them a precise date, though it may be said that they belong among the last efforts of the creative genius of the Greeks. In an article in the Annual of the British School at Athens (Vol. X, 1903-4, p. 103), Mr. A. B. Wace has listed and discussed the surviving examples of this class, and of the grotesques and caricatures which belong in the same category. His article appeared before the discovery of our statue, which has since been generally accepted as the most important of its class, partly because it is the best preserved, but more particularly because of the beauty of the workmanship, which in all its details has the traits of a Greek original rather than a Roman copy.

It rarely happens that the facts about the discovery of a Greek statue nowadays are known, except when it is made under governmental authority, but in the present case we are fortunate also in this respect, as the Old Market Woman was published soon after its discovery[1]. It was found in September, 1907, in Rome, at the corner of the Via della Consolazione and the Via Montecaprino, and was brought to light by the destruction of some old buildings belonging to the Congregation of the Operai della Divina Pietà, where it was buried in the subsoil of the cellar. When it arrived at the Museum the lower part was still coated with an incrustation of lime, and in the removal of this small traces of color were revealed—a bright pink on the border of the himation, between the knees, and a dark greenish on the sandal strap of the left foot. These are still recognizable, though the pink has lost its brilliancy. The marble itself, which is of a Greek variety, has a beautiful old-ivory tone, and the surface is remarkably fresh. Altogether the statue ranks as one of the most interesting and attractive of the reecnt additions to the Classical Department.

[1] In the Notizie degli Scavi, 1897, p. 525, figs. 45, 46; and by L. Mariani, in the Bullettino della Comm. Arch. Comunale di Roma, 1907, p. 257, pl. vii. An account of it also appeared in the Illustrated London News for December 7 of the same year.

SUMMARY OF THE CLASSICAL JOURNAL, NOVEMBER, 1909.

Editorials: (1) Partnership and Participation. This states that the Journal reaches 1700 members of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South. The editor urges the formation of an auxiliary association in each state. (2) An obituary notice of Professor Bernard Camillus Bondurant.

The first paper, Archaeology in 1908, is by Professor George H. Chase, of Harvard University. Of the excavations made in Asia Minor, he mentions those at Miletus, Ephesus and Pergamum, where the work has been done mainly by the Germans and Austrians. At Miletus, in 1906 and 1907, "attention was directed mainly to the Hellenistic gymnasium, the Roman bath, the Ionic portico at the Lion's Harbor, the baths of Faustina, and the early Christian basilica near the shrine of Aesculapius". For Ephesus he announces that the results of Mr. Hogarth's work on the temple of Diana in 1906 were published by the British Museum during the year (cf. now also Mr. Hogarth's book, Ionia and the East, Oxford Press, 1909). — At Pergamum, the Germans have found near the great gymnasium the ruins of a temple which is probably to be identified as that of Aesculapius, Hermes and Heracles. — Among the islands of the Aegean, he mentions the work done in Crete, Rhodes and Delos. In Moklos, an islet off the northern coast of Crete, six chamber tombs of the early Minoan period were discovered in the necropolis of the ancient town, containing many interesting finds, recalling those in the graves of Mycenae. He also mentions the interesting discoveries at Knossos, Phaistos, Priniá, and the publication of the results of excavations at Gourniá, conducted by Mrs. Hawes (Miss Boyd). An interesting find at Phaistos by the Italians was a small disc of terra cotta, inscribed with pictographic characters, which were impressed with stamps, a primitive kind of printing (on these Cretan finds see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.242).— Of the excavations made on the mainland of Greece, he reviews work done at Corinth by the Americans, at Sparta by the British School, where perhaps the oldest temple in Greece has been discovered; at Athens, by the Greek Society; at Sunium by Dr. Stair; at Rhitsóna by Professor Burrows; at Chaeronea by Dr. Soteriades; at Zerélia in Phthiotis by Messrs. Wace and Droop. The author reviews at length the work done in Western Greece by Dr. Dörpfeld.—In Italy, the work at Rome, Pompeii, Populonia and Turin is reviewed. The excavations in and near the Forum have been devoted to the Basilica Aemilia and the Basilica of Maxentius. Commendatore Boni has devoted his attention to the Summa Sacra Via. Among the important finds of the year may be mentioned a new piece of the Servian Wall, traces of a prehistoric necropolis on the Quirinal, a marble statue of an Amazon on the site of the garden of Sallust, a sarcophagus near the gate of San Lorenzo. The most interesting news, perhaps, is the adoption at Rome of a plan for a system

of parks that will form "a permanent setting for many of the most important ruins". The Italian government proposes to spend 60,000 lire in preliminary excavations at Herculaneum.

The second paper, The Vocabulary of High School Latin and How to Master It, is by Mr. John Tetlow of the Girls' Latin School, Boston, Mass. As might be inferred from the title, the paper is devoted mainly to refuting some claims made for Professor Lodge's Vocabulary of High School Latin. Mr. Tetlow gives first several quotations from articles written by Professor Lodge and Professor Knapp. From these citations he draws the following propositions, all of which he challenges:

(1) All Latin words have approximately exact English equivalents. (2) When these English equivalents have been mastered by the memory, they can be applied to new passages of Latin and be made to yield the sense. (3) In sight-examination papers the English equivalents of all words not contained in the prescribed list of 2,000 should be given in foot-notes. (4) The most important factor in the attainment of ability to read Latin at sight is the mastery of the English equivalents of the Latin words most frequently used in reading.

Under the first point, Mr. Tetlow classifies words wtih reference to their translatability into two classes, easy and difficult. As example of the first he gives such words as ***annus, miles, bellum,*** and claims that they are too easy to need "the elaborate machinery of a special word list". As examples of the second class he gives ***ratio, ars, res, ingenium, virtus.*** From the Archias he cites *ratio*, 'theoretical knowledge', and *summorum hominum ingeniis*, 'men of the highest genius', meanings which he claims could not be gotten from the special vocabulary. But I am sure that Professor Lodge would not expect a pupil of the high-school age to get the translation of either of these expressions without the aid of the notes and the guidance of the teacher.

In his objection to the second point, Mr. Tetlow gives the passage set for the advanced examination at sight at Harvard last June, Pro Sestio, 137, 138. He gives two translations of this, one a model translation of his own, which after twenty years' experience I am sure no high school pupil could ever come anywhere near realizing, and then a hypothetical translation by a pupil based upon Lodge's vocabulary, which seems to make no allowance for four years training in translation.

In challenging the third point he claims that part of the work of the teacher is to teach the pupil to recognize in new words roots and stems that have been met, and to reason from the known to the unknown. This is very true, but past experience teaches us that we must not expect too much in sight translation from pupils of the secondary school age.

On the fourth point Mr. Tetlow objects "to the nedless drudgery of learning by rote the detached meanings of words that occur often enough to be gradually absorbed by the pupil". He also fears that the use of such a vocabulary will limit the range of high school reading.

Under the caption Notes there is a short paper by Frances J. Hosford of Oberlin, Ohio, in defense of Conington's reading of Aen. 4.257:

Litus arenosum Libyae ventosque secabat.

The writer says that American editions except Greenough-Kittredge give *ad Libyae,* and that most English editions follow Conington. But the author should have noticed that Sedgwick prints *ad* in brackets, and Page retains the manuscript reading *ad Libyae.*

Under Reports from the Classical Field are given reports of classical plays in the original or in translation at the East High School, Rochester, N. Y., Detroit, Terre Haute, Ind., St. Charles, Mo., and at the following colleges: Randolph-Macon, Wabash, Northwestern, Earlham, Grinnell, Harvard, and Oxford and Birmingham in England. In this department too we have the programs of the meetings of various classical associations.

The following books are reviewed in this number: Th. Zielinski's *Cicero im Wandel der Jahrhunderte,* by W. S. Burrage; Merrill's Lucretius, by M. S. S(laughter) of the University of Wisconsin; Fowler's *Life at Rome in the Age of Cicero,* by F. F. Abbott; Church's *The Aeneid for Boys and Girls,* by F. J. Miller; Post's Martial, by Paul Nixon.

WILLIAM F. TIBBETTS.

ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, Brooklyn.

THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF PITTSBURGH

The Classical Asociation of Pittsburgh and Vicinity met at a luncheon in the Fort Pitt Hotel on Saturday, October 13, at 12.15 o'clock. Preceding the luncheon a reecption was given in honor of Professor and Mrs. B. L. Ullman. Professor Ullman, recently of the University of Chicago, is now Professor of Latin in the University of Pittsburgh.

Professor Ullman addressed the Association on The Practical Value of Classical Research. In speaking of the justification of the Classics he said they represent the highest aristocracy of learning and for this reason they can never be crushed out completely as long as human instinct to reach intellectual supremacy remains. Setting forth the ultimate aim of classical study as the effort "to inculcate an appreciation of the literature and life of the ancients", Professor Ullman declared that classical research helps to make the preliminary training easier and more interesting by furnishing material for the study of life. It helps in understanding the literature by presenting the form in which the authors wrote. Research in the field of syntax has made even that subject interesting and is responsible for a sane interpretation of the subjunctive. Many expressions once called archaisms are now recognized as colloquialisms. Archaeological discoveries, the revelations of epigraphy, the necessary improvements in text-books are very important factors in revealing the practical value of the Classics.

This brief summary merely suggests the line of thought in Professor Ullman's splendid address. About sixty were present. Mr. J. B. Hench, of Shadyside Academy, President of our Association for this year, outlined a most interesting course for the year's work. The Association feels encouraged by the addition of several new members and by the royal support of former members.

Our President of last year, Professor A. A. Hays, has gone to the Divinity School of the University of Chicago. He will be greatly missed. His successor at Washington and Jefferson College, Professor Allen, will address our next meeting, December 4.

While the University of Chicago has won our last President, it has sent us a valuable member in Professor Ullman. The year promises to be the best in the life of our Association.

N. ANNA PETTY, Secretary-Treasurer.

Carnegie, Pa.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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In the August number of The Atlantic Monthly is a short novel, entitled Cecily, by William J. Hopkins. In the second chapter there occurs the following paragraph:

> I have had all my time planned out for some while. It will be pretty thoroughly occupied with teaching my son and seeing that he has enough Latin and Greek. Now that these studies have gone out of fashion with the colleges, there is nobody to see that a boy gets enough of them unless his father sees to it. There is nothing to take their place; nothing else that will do, for a boy, just what they did. Modern methods! I snap my fingers at modern methods. I have seen enough of the results of so-called modern methods in my own teaching. There are no results.

It is interesting to have the value of the Classics emphasized thus casually where the appreciation will reach a large number of readers. It is also interesting to have the futility of modern methods so strongly stressed. It occurs to me to wonder whether the term 'modern methods' may not also have been intended to apply to the Classics. For surely during the last twenty years there has been a great deal said about modern methods and I wonder whether other non-teachers could say the same thing with regard to the modern methods of teaching Latin. For is not this period the period of beginners' books in which enough grammar is included to render the use of a grammar in addition unnecessary? And is not this the period when every means is emphasized to stimulate interest, this interest being according to the idea of the teacher rather than of the pupil? And is not this the period during which the reading of the secondary schools has been restricted more and more closely to a few set books? And is this not the period when the examination in prose composition based on a passage in the author read has had the greatest vogue? It seems to me that all of these—you may not call them methods, but certainly devices—would go under the name of 'modern methods'.

And have there really been no results? It is a question upon which people are not agreed and yet the tendency of criticism as exemplified in the remarks of college officers charged with the administration of studies in recent years has been distinctly in the negative and the reports of the College Entrance Examination Board seem to imply the same. In the report of last year, for example, the statistics indicate that the least favorable showing was made in Latin.

The report also says, "About four-fifths of the candidates failed to receive 60 per cent in elementary prose composition and advanced prose composition. About three-fifths of the candidates failed to receive 60 per cent in Caesar, Cicero, and sight translation".

The fact that the difference between the results in prose composition and Caesar, Cicero and sight translation is only one-fifth is an indication that *relatively* better work is done in the more difficult subject, prose composition, than in the other; consequently such criticism cannot be directed towards the vagaries of any one paper. The percentage of candidates obtaining a rating between 90 and 100 and 75 and 89 per cent is so instructive that I have subjoined it.

	% ratings 90–100	% ratings 75–89	% ratings 60–74
Latin a. i. Grammar	0.9	11.3	42.4
ii. Elementary Prose Composition	0.5	5.0	16.8
b. Caesar	1.3	11.2	28.4
c. Cicero	0.7	9.0	26.3
d. Vergil, Aeneid I-VI	2.5	16.4	36.5
e. Nepos	0.0	0.0	0.0
be. Caesar and Nepos	2.0	20.0	36.0
f. Sallust	0.0	0.0	14.3
g. Ovid	0.0	0.0	21.4
l. Prose Composition	0.1	3.4	16.2
m. Elementary Sight Translation of Prose	1.0	10.0	28.9
p. Advanced Sight Translation of Prose	0.0	7.9	39.7
q. Sight Translation of Poetry	0.9	4.5	35.5
dq. Aeneid I-VI and Sight	0.0	5.5	38.2

Surely these results from our methods after four years of instruction are not encouraging. Is the fault with the methods, is the fault with the examinations, is the fault with the requirements? Personally I feel that the fault lies primarily with the requirements, next with the methods, and least of all with the examinations. These are always set with a view to laying stress upon knowledge of essentials and of the work covered. They could hardly be easier to be examinations at all and the scrutiny that they have to pass from the Board of Review makes it clear that they are not regarded as

unfair. That between 1,000 and 1,200 students should study Latin grammar, elementary prose composition, Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil for the time required in the secondary schools and make as poor a showing on examinations which have been carefully scrutinized makes the question of decision an easy one. The fault lies in the combination of methods and requirements or it lies in the organization of the schools and in the feeling which prompts numerous parents to have their children study Latin when they are mentally unqualified for it.

The thoughts evoked by Mr. Hopkins's paragraph are the more insistent because in the same number of The Atlantic Monthly is an article by Dr. Edmiston on Classical Education in America in which he excoriates the aims and methods pursued here, holding up as a terrible example his own experience. It would be too mild to say that he has no words of commendation for our system. He has really no words strong enough to characterize what he regards as its utter futility. He expressly declines to suggest any definite measures of relief, which is a pity because in the multitude of suggestions there lies the possibility of a solution.

Meanwhile, however, it would be well for classical teachers everywhere to ponder the results of the College Board examinations. Such results are not new in their experiences, but their publication may stimulate them to action. G. L.

Vergil's Debt to the Hecuba and Troades of Euripides.

(Concluded from Page 52)

The cry of Aeneas (1.94-99)

O terque quarterque beati,
quis ante ora patrum Troiae sub moenibus altis
contigit oppetere! . . . .
. . . .
saevus ubi Aeacidae telo iacet Hector

is the thought of Cassandra (Troades 386-389)

Τρῶες δὲ πρῶτον μέν, τὸ κάλλιστον κλέος,
ὑπὲρ πάτρας ἔθνῃσκον· οὓς δ' ἕλοι δόρυ,
νεκροί γ' ἐς οἴκους φερόμενοι φίλων ὕπο
ἐν γῇ πατρῴᾳ περιβολὰς εἶχον χθονός.

A choral ode of the Troades tells of the fatal horse and furnishes Vergil with more material for Aeneas's story. It begins with an invocation like Musa, mihi causas memora (Aen. 1.8), thus (see Troades 511-514):

ἀμφί μοι Ἴλιον, ὦ
Μοῦσα, καινῶν ὕμνων
ἄεισον ἐν δακρύοις ᾠδὰν ἐπικήδειον.

Then follow Troades 519-521:

ἔλιπον ἵππον οὐράνια
βρέμοντα χρυσεοφάλαρον ἔνο—
πλον ἐν πύλαις Ἀχαιοί.

These verses are reproduced in Aen. 2.15, 20:

instar montis equum . . . .
. . . .
uterumque armato milite complent.

A certain thought occurred to the Trojans of the Troades and to those of the Aeneid; compare Troades 524-526

Ἴτ', ὦ πεπαυμένοι πόνων,
τόδ' ἱερὸν ἀνάγετε ξόανον
Ἰλιάδι Διογενεῖ Κόρᾳ.

with Aen. 2.32.33

primusque Thymoetes
duci intra muros hortatur et arce locari.

In the play, as in the Aeneid, they prepared a joyful reception for the image; compare Troades 527-532, 537-541, 545-550

τίς οὐκ ἔβα νεανίδων,
τίς οὐ γεραιὸς ἐκ δόμων;
κεχαρμένοι δ' ἀοιδαῖς
δόλιον ἔσχον ἄταν
πᾶσα δὲ γέννα Φρυγῶν
πρὸς πύλας ὡρμάθη.
. . . .
κλωστοῦ δ' ἀμφιβόλοις λίνοιο ναὸς ὡσεὶ
σκάφος κελαινόν, εἰς ἕδρανα
λάινα δάπεδά τε φόνια πατρί—
δι Παλλάδος θέσαν θεᾶς.
. . . .
. . . . παρθένοι δ'
ἀέριον ἀνὰ κρότον ποδῶν
βοὰν ἔμελπον εὔφρον', ἐν
δόμοις δὲ παμφαὲς σέλας
πυρὸς μέλαιναν αἴγλαν
ἄκος ἔδωκεν ὕπνῳ

with Aen. 2.235-237, 238-240, 245, 252-253:

Accingunt omnes operi, pedibusque rotarum
subiciunt lapsus, et stuppea vincula collo
intendunt. . . . .
. . . Pueri circum innuptaeque puellae
sacra canunt, funemque manu contingere
gaudent.
Illa subit, mediaeque minans inlabitur urbi.
. . . .
Et monstrum infelix sacrata sistimus arce.
. . . .
. . . . . . fusi per moenia Teucri
conticuere, sopor fessos complectitur artus:

In Troades 581, Andromache says πρίν ποτ' ἦμεν; in 1292 the chorus exclaims οὐδ' ἔτ' ἔστι Τροία and so in 2.325 Aeneas cries, *fuit Ilium*.

As one of the chief incidents of the Hecuba is the fate of Polyxena, so the Troades is concerned with the fates of Andromache, Astyanax and Cassandra. The wife of Hector tells her story (Troades 658-660):

ἐπεὶ γὰρ ᾑρέθην
Ἀχιλλέως με παῖς ἐβουλήθη λαβεῖν
δάμαρτα· δουλεύσω δ' ἐν αὐθεντῶν δόμοις.

Aeneas finds her in the land of Pyrrhus, where she says (3.325-327):

Nos, patria incensa, diversa per aequora vectae,
stirpis Achilleae fastus iuvenemque superbum
servitio enixae, tulimus . . .

Astyanax, by order of the Greeks, was torn from his mother's arms and cast from the wall of Troy. The parting of Andromache with her son and Hecuba's reception of his dead body are agonizing scenes of the Troades. Vergil refers to the fate of Astyanax in the words of Andromache to Ascanius (3. 488-491):

Cape dona extrema tuorum,
O mihi sola mei super Astyanactis imago:
sic oculos, sic ille manus, sic ora ferebat;
et nunc aequali tecum pubesceret aevo.

In Troades 69 Cassandra's story is begun by Athena who complains to Poseidon:

οὐκ οἶσθ' ὑβρισθεῖσάν με καὶ ναοὺς ἐμούς;

Poseidon answers (70):

οἶδ', ἡνίκ' Αἴας εἷλκε Κασάνδραν βίᾳ.

In Aen. 1.39-41 Juno, in a similar mood, refers to this:

Pallasne exurere classem
Argivom atque ipsos potuit submergere ponto,
unius ob noxam et furias Aiacis Oilei?

Hecuba dreads to see Cassandra meet the Greeks because of her madness (Troades 169-172):

μή νύν μοι τὰν
ἐκβακχεύουσαν Κασάνδραν,
αἰσχύναν Ἀργείοισιν,
πέμψητ' ἔξω,
μαινάδ', ἐπ' ἄλγει δ' ἀλγυνθῶ.

Talthybius replies to the anxious inquiry of Hecuba that Agamemnon has chosen Cassandra for his bride. At this impiety Hecuba exclaims (Troades 253-254):

ἦ τὰν τοῦ Φοίβου παρθένον, ᾇ γέρας ὁ
χρυσοκόμας ἔδωκ' ἄλεκτρον ζόαν;

But Cassandra sings a wedding hymn and bids her mother rejoice, for by this marriage shall Troy be avenged. Then she predicts dire misfortunes for the Greeks, and, through her agency, the death of Agamemnon with all its attendant woes. But Talthybius speaks gently because of the curse upon her (Troades 408-410, 417-419):

εἰ μή σ' Ἀπόλλων ἐξεβάκχευεν φρένας
οὔ τἂν ἀμισθὶ τοὺς ἐμοὺς στρατηλάτας
τοιαῖσδε φήμαις ἐξέπεμπες ἂν χθονός.

. . . .

καὶ σοὶ μέν—οὐ γὰρ ἀρτίας ἔχεις φρένας—
Ἀργεῖ' ὀνείδη καὶ Φρυγῶν ἐπαινέσεις
ἀνέμοις φέρεσθαι παραδίδωμ'.

Aeneas has the same thought (2.246-247):

Tunc etiam fatis aperit Cassandra futuris
ora, dei iussu non umquam credita Teucris.

He adds the story of her betrothal to Coroebus and the picture of her capture when she was dragged by the hair from the temple of Minerva.

To Euripides war meant not the joy and the glory of the victors, but the sorrows and wretcnedness of the vanquished. "The consummation of a great conquest is in truth a great misery", says Professor Murray in the preface of his translation of the Troades, and later, in the same introductory note, he declares that the Trojan Women "is perhaps, in European literature, the first great expression of the spirit of pity for mankind exalted into a moving principle". The Aeneid is another expression of this principle. In both are the homesick longing of the exile, grief for the loss of friends and country, horror for the helpless fate of the women allotted as slaves to the victors.

The women are part of the spoil (Troades 28-29)

πολλοῖς δὲ κωκυτοῖσιν αἰχμαλωτίδων
βοᾷ Σκάμανδρος δεσπότας κληρουμένων.

Aeneas describes the treasure of Troy collected in a temple and guarded by Phoenix and Ulysses (2. 766-767):

pueri et pavidae longo ordine matres
stant circum.

The chorus of Trojan Women is full of fears as to its fate (Troades 161-162, 183-191):

. . . . . . *ἦ πού μ' ἤδη*
ναυσθλώσουσιν πατρίας ἐκ γᾶς;
Chorus: *ἐκπληχθεῖσ' ἦλθον φρίκᾳ.*
ἤδη τις ἔβα Δαναῶν κῆρυξ;
τῷ πρόσκειμαι δούλα τλάμων.
Hecuba: *ἐγγύς που κεῖσαι κλήρου.*
Chorus: *ἰὼ ἰώ*
τίς μ' Ἀργείων ἢ Φθιωτᾶν
ἢ νησαίαν μ' ἄξει χώραν
δύστανον πόρσω Τροίας;
Hecuba: *φεῦ φεῦ*
τῳ δ' ἁ τλάμων
ποῦ πᾷ γαίας δουλεύσω γραῦς;

Talthybius, the herald, is greeted with breathless questions (Troades 244-245):

τίν' ἄρα τίς ἔλαχε; τίνα πότμος εὐτυχὴς
Ἰλιάδων μένει;

This is the thought of Andromache in Aen. 3.321-324:

O felix una ante alias Priameia virgo,
hostilem ad tumulum Troiae sub moenibus altis
iussa mori, quae sortitus non pertulit ullos,
nec victoris eri tetigit captiva cubile!

Creusa consoles her husband for her loss by saying (2.785-786)

Non ego Myrmidonum sedes Dolopumve superbas
aspiciam aut Graiis servitum matribus ibo.

Pitiful farewells are said in Troades 173-174, 1092-1093, 1100-1106:

Τροία, Τροία δύσταν', ἔρρεις,
δύστανοι δ' οἵ σ' ἐκλείποντες.

Μᾶτερ, ὤμοι, μόναν δή μ' Ἀχαιοὶ κομί—
ζουσι σέθεν ἀπ' ὀμμάτων.

εἴθ' —— πέσοι —— πῦρ,
Ἰλιόθεν ὅτε με πολύδακρυν
Ἑλλάδι λάτρευμα γᾶθεν ἐξορίζει.

With these we may compare Aen. 3.10-11:

> Litora cum patriae lacrimans portusque relinquo
> et campos, ubi Troia fuit; feror exsul in altum.

The thought is summed up in certain verses of Professor Murray's translation of the Troades

> And forth, lo, the women go,
> The crown of War, the crown of Woe,
> To bear the children of the foe,
> And weep, weep for Ilion!

H. May Johnson.

Eastern High School, Washington, D. C.

REJOINDERS

When a reviewer confines himself to facts, the author of the book reviewed can only be grateful for the attention bestowed upon his work. But when a reviewer takes a different course, it becomes not only the right but also the duty of the author to make answer. It is on the basis of these general principles that I submit the following considerations in answer to the review of my First Year Latin, published by Mr. B. W. Bradley in The Classical Weekly 3.38.

Mr. Bradley asserts first: "Most of the sentences in the exercises are not taken from ancient authors but are created". This is untrue. Relatively few of the sentences were created by me. My procedure was as follows: When I desired to use a word in an exercise, I took the Menge-Preuss Lexicon and hunted till I found a citation adapted to my purpose. The great bulk of the sentences were secured in this way. At times a word was changed, irrelevant words were omitted, or parts of two sentences were amalgamated into one, but I rarely attempted to create.

Mr. Bradley further proceeds to charge that in these alleged creations I display carelessness and a lack of true feeling for Latin. Thus he asserts that "we find non-Caesarian, unusual, or false connotation in the use of words". As examples he cites *castella ponere* (p. 92); *impetum ferre* (119); *custodiam tradidit* (145); *manu* for *multitudine* (155); *etiam* for *quoque* (181); *opus est copiam frumenti nancisci* (194). Let us take these up in order. *Castella ponere* is alleged by Mr. Bradley to be non-Caesarian, unusual, or false. On the other hand it is Caesarian and correct. One has but to turn to the Thesaurus Linguae Latinae to see that the expression is not unusual. Caesar uses it in B. C. 3.58.1, and this suggested to me its employment. Similarly Mr. Bradley regards *impetum ferre* as non-Caesarian, unusual, or false. But this expression occurs no fewer than eleven times in Caesar alone, viz. B. G. 3.19.3; 4.35.2; 5.21.5; 6.8.6; B. C. 2.25.5, 34.3; 3.37.6, 51.2, 64.1, 93.2, 93.4. My sentence was based particularly on B. G. 5.21.5. *Custodiam tradidit* (the next object of Mr. Bradley's censure) is Caesarian, occurring B. C. 3.39.1 *isdem custodiam navium longarum tradidit,* which suggested my sentence at p. 145. In criticizing my use of *manu* (p. 155) Mr. Bradley says I ought to have used *multitudine.* He adds: "*manus* means an organized force; organization is a quality which Caesar does not usually attribute to the Gauls". This definition of *manus* will surprise many. The lexicons define the word as 'host', 'multitude', 'Schar', 'Haufen'. However, the best test for our purpose is Caesar's actual usage. In B. G. 5.39.3 we read *magna manu Eburones legionem oppugnare incipiunt,* on the basis of which I use the sentence *Galli cum magna manu hoc oppidum oppugnare coeperunt* (p. 155), condemned by Mr. Bradley as one of my non-Caesarian, unusual, or false creations. In B. G. 5.26.2 we have further, *magna manu ad castra oppugnatum venerunt;* so also 5.8.6, 27.8; 1.37.4; and often. According to Menge-Preuss, this sense of *manus* ('Schar', 'Haufen') is the predominant one in Caesar. In fact, they do not recognize the occurrence of the word in the sense claimed by Mr. Bradley. At p. 181, according to Mr. Bradley, I use *etiam* where I ought to have used *quoque. Redde etiam* are the words at issue. *Redde quoque,* however, is impossible here for the reason (familiar to most certainly) that *quoque* is not used by Caesar after verbs[1]. Lest it be urged that Mr. Bradley means *redde obsides quoque,* let me say that that would not convey my meaning, as must be obvious to all. Post-positive *etiam,* by the way, is so common in Caesar and all the best classical Latin as to need no defence. At p. 194 I use the sentence: *opus est copiam frumenti nancisci.* For the phrase *copiam frumenti mancisci* see B. G. 7.32.1. For *opus est* with the infinitive see 7.54.1. The foregoing are illustrations cited by Mr. Bradley as showing that the sentences in my exercises are non-Caesarian, unusual, or false, and that my book is prepared without care or a true feeling for the Latin language. In other words, the very sentences and expressions which I have scrupulously taken from the great master of Latin prose himself are condemned. In effect what I am chidden for is that, having undertaken to write a book based on Caesar, I did not use Mr. Bradley's Latin instead of Caesar's. This attitude is continued in Mr. Bradley's criticism of the sentence (p. 165), *ipsa loci natura periculum repellebat,* although these are Caesar's *ipsissima verba,* having been taken from B. C. 1.79.2 (not

[1] In fact, *quoque* with finite verbs is practically, if not quite, unknown to classical Latin.

created by me). Mr. Bradley objects to the use of *ipse* with an abstract noun, but Caesar uses *ipse* elsewhere with abstracts with some freedom, e. g. B. G. 7.38.3 *ex ipsa caede;* 5.33.1 *ipso negotio;* 4.33.1 *ipso terrore;* 1.53.6 *ipsa victoria;* B. C. 1.86.1 *ipsa significatione;* 3.79.3 *ipsa fortuna,* to say nothing of Cicero's free use of *ipse* with abstracts, e. g. *ipsa veritas,* etc. The plural of *vita,* also, though criticized by Mr. Bradley, has excellent classical warrant; cf. Nat. Deor. 1.20.52, *deus qui hominum commoda vitasque tueatur;* De Div. 1.11.17 *sensus hominum vitasque;* Lael. 23.87 *serpit nescio quo modo per omnium vitas amicitia.* Further examples from Cicero and other good writers might easily be added to the above list. Other Caesarian expressions used in my book, but condemned by Mr. Bradley, are: p. 92, *in locis superioribus,* which I took from B. G. 7.79; *finibus excedere* (p. 150), found in B. G. 4.18; 7.77.14.

The word order of my sentences is also censured. On p. 108 I have *salute communi.* Mr. Bradley thinks it should be *communi salute.* But Cicero writes *salus communis* in Verr. 1.22; 4.52; and in at least a dozen (probably two score) other passages. Certainly there is nothing illogical, as Mr. Bradley claims, in *salute communi.*

Mr. Bradley also charges me with using constructions which are not explained, and cites as a capital instance the frequent use of the historical present. But I state in the clearest terms on p. 82 on the occasion of the first occurrence of the historical present: "The present with the force of the perfect (is) a very common usage in Latin. It is called the Historical Present".

In conclusion I must submit that Mr. Bradley's figures as to the nature of the vocabulary I have used in my book seem to me as misleading as most of his other observations. I wish only to say that of my 767 words 500 are used 20 times or more in Caesar; 693 are used 10 times or more. Only 61 words employed in the exercises are used in Caesar fewer than 10 times, while 13 words (none of them unusual, e. g. *donec, quondam, melior, agricola, incola, exitium, culpo, felix,* and five more) are not found in Caesar, though all of them occur in Cicero. The reader will get a different impression, I fear, from Mr. Bradley's statement.

Mr. Bradley's review abounds in numerous other misrepresentations of my book and of Latin usage, but the foregoing will suffice to show the essential recklessness and injustice of his article.

The foregoing observations were written before the publication of the second installment of Mr. Bradley's review. Examination of this second installment shows its nature to be like that of its predecessor. Thus Mr. Bradley declares that I omit to mention that in purpose clauses *quo* is regularly used with comparatives, whereas I state clearly on p. 173 that such is the case. I am said to use "regularly" for "always" when I state that before *er* the *i* is regularly short in *fio.* But "always" would be incorrect. Neue gives over thirty instances of long *i* in *fierem* and *fieri.* I am by implication charged with error in calling *Carthagini* and *Athenis* ablatives. Mr. Bradley seems to consider them locatives. But neither Lindsay, Sommer, Brugmann, Giles, Henry, or any other investigator known to me takes this view. *Carthagini* is historically an ablative; *Athenis* is historically an instrumental, which, like all other ablatives, shares the tripartite functions of the ablative case. Mr. Bradley also questions the employment of *quoniam* with the subjunctive. In Nepos 1.7.5 the text is: *is quoniam pro se dicere non posset, verba fecit frater eius.* But it is unnecessary to multiply instances of Mr. Bradley's method.

CHAS. E. BENNETT.
CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

I desire to supplement a review of my Latin Forms and Syntax which appeared in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.28.

(1) In the treatment of the forms, the student is trained from the outset to distinguish the different resultant forms of each declension. In the verbs, the formation of the regular verbs is strongly emphasised so that the irregular verbs are easily learned. The synthetic method is not followed where it is impracticable. The most convincing argument, however, is that of results. The work has passed the experimental stage and identifications are not only rapid but exact.

(2) Just as the nouns, verbs, etc., are each treated in solido, so each logical division of the syntax is treated as a whole. In addition, some attempt is made to illustrate or explain rules of syntax, where it seemed feasible, on the ground that a rule is more readily remembered and applied, when it is understood, than when it is arbitrarily stated as mere convention. The wisdom of this procedure may be debatable, but the result—the intelligent comprehension of the student—can hardly be questioned. Briefly, the work pursues in the forms and syntax a line mid-way between the logico-conventional method of Bennett and the piecemeal treatment of Collar and Daniel.

(3) With regard to the vocabulary, all the words used in the exercises on syntax are repeated in the exercises on the forms. The exercises on the forms, moreover, are themselves vocabulary drills, as well as drills on the forms, a fact which will be evident to the most casual observer. In the general vocabulary there are 661 nouns and verbs, including all compounds. In the separate chapter vocabularies, to be memorized in connection with the exercises, there are 245 words, and in the exercises on the forms and vocabulary combined there are 160 words, making in

all 405 of the commonest words in Caesar, Book I, to be memorized.

(4) There are fifty chapters, logically arranged. There are eighty lessons, which, in the judgment of the teacher, could be subdivided into about 100 lessons.

R. H. LOCKE.

Philadelphia.

I am glad to see that Professor Rolfe in reviewing the translation of Friedländer's Sittengeschichte in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.54 bestows well deserved censure on the translator of the first volume. It is astonishing that any publisher would accept such a wretched piece of work, and lamentable that we should have to refer our pupils to it, unless, indeed, we are to use it as an *exemplum in terrorem*. I must, however, vindicate the translator in one small detail criticised by Professor Rolfe. On p. 163 it is stated that many small advocates were "too glad [*sic*] to devil four speeches for a piece of gold"; Professor Rolfe ingeniously conjectures that "devil" is a misprint for "deliver". The word 'devil', however, is in quite regular use among English lawyers; the minor barrister who gets up cases for a leading counsel is said to devil for him, or to do his deviling, or to be his devil. But I should readily admit that in a translation in which the use of English idiom is conspicuously avoided it would have been better to employ a less esoteric term. One is tempted to surmise that in this translation Mr. Magnus himself employed a devil, as he has recently brought out a work on Victorian Literature which seems to be written in a very different style. G. M. HIRST.

BARNARD COLLEGE.

In his note on the omission of the accents in written or printed Greek in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.247 Mr. Deixel falls into a mistake which, I fear, would become all too common with our Greek students, if Greek accents were omitted. He says that the advanced student should "get the accent of new words as he gets the accent of áddress and addréss". As a matter of fact, no reputable English dictionary that I can find even hints at any other accent than addréss for both noun and verb.

GEO. A. WILLIAMS.

KALAMAZOO COLLEGE, Mich.

[Professor Williams's point is well taken. The pronunciation áddress is a colloquialism prevalent in some sections of the United States even among cultivated people.—ED.]

Upon Thursday, December 30, at the meeting of the American Historical Association in New York City, a conference will be held in ancient history. The programme includes papers by the following well-known workers in that field: Professor Henry B. Wright of Yale University, Professor Nathaniel Schmidt of Cornell University, Professor W. S. Ferguson of Harvard University, and Professor Eduard Meyer of Berlin. Classical teachers of the East, who may be in New York City at that time, are cordially invited to attend the conference.

I am very anxious to have a good representation at this meeting, as it is the first time in the history of the American Historical Association that ancient history has been given a hearing.

W. L. WESTERMANN.

Madison, Wisconsin.

THE NEW YORK LATIN CLUB

The first luncheon of the New York Latin Club for the year 1909-1910 was held at the Hotel Marlborough, Saturday, November 20. There were seventy-seven present, a larger number than we have had at any luncheon during the past two years, but not large enough; we should make it an even hundred at the next meeting, which will be held January 8.

Professor Julius Sachs, of Columbia University. read a very stimulating paper entitled Improved Standards of Teaching Latin. Among the points emphasized were the teacher's need of deeper literary and historical insight in the study of Latin; the need of teachers that can and will do vigorous teaching; greater knowledge of the efforts of the past; the unusual should be slighted, the common emphasized; first, forms, then, syntax; it is not the difficulty of the subject, but the lack of definiteness on the part of the teacher, that causes failure; use more illustrative material; end to be sought, not quantity, but quality; beginning work should cover a year and a half; the success of Latin depends on the scholarship of the teacher, who should be a specialist of high general scholarship. In such a brief resumé it is of course impossible to do justice to this excellent paper, and we trust that it will be published in such a form that it may be brought before every teacher of the Classics in the city.

The discussion was opened by Professor Lodge, the President of the Club; he was followed by Dr. Vlyman, Principal of the Eastern District High School, and Dr. Gunnison, Principal of Erasmus Hall High School. Dr. Vlyman said that the forms should be learned more carefully; unusual forms and constructions should be omitted; and the amount of Latin for minute examination should be made smaller. Dr. Gunnison thought that, considering the preparation of the pupils that we receive in our high schools, it might be wise to extend the beginning work in Latin over a year and a half; but the vocabulary should be confined to words found in Caesar.

The following motion proposed by Miss McVay of Wadleigh High School, and seconded by Mr. Harter of Erasmus Hall High School, was passed:

Resolved, that the New York Latin Club, recognizing the great need of a uniform grammatical no-

menclature in all the languages taught in the schools, hereby signifies its interest in the work of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology recently formed in England, and requests that the grammars used in America be likewise taken into account.

It was also voted that Dr. Avellanus should be invited to speak at a special meeting of the Club, on the use of Latin in conversation.

Usurping the functions of the censor, we may call attention to two or three points. The luncheon did not begin at 12 o'clock sharp. The delay was caused by the fact that the speaker could not be present until 12.30. We can assure the members of the Club that, *Deo volente,* the next luncheon will begin at the time advertised. The room in which the luncheon was served was too small, over-heated and noisy. The hotel management has promised a larger room for the next luncheon, and for the address a special room far removed from the sound of pans and kettles.

WILLIAM F. TIBBETTS.

ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, Brooklyn.

TWO KINDS OF REALISM[1]

In the past days the National Museum at Rome and our own Metropolitan Museum have put on exhibition each a Greek statue displaying the unusual character of realism. Yet a greater contrast than these two marbles afford can hardly be imagined. One has to remind himself that the Temple Ministrant of Rome, a mere serving maid at her work, is not a nymph or even a goddess, while at first glance the Old Market Woman of the Metropolitan strikes one as a bad *genre* piece of no very ancient date. Yet both were cut by Grecian hands, presumably not a century, either way, from the Venus of Milo. On close scrutiny also, the nobler figure of the two appears the most conscientiously realistic, while the meaner form is prettified for effect. We have to do with contrasting ideals of Greek realism, and since realism is the leading artistic motive of our generation, a comparison of the two manners should be instructive.

First, as nearer at hand, we will look at the Old Market Woman. She strains forward crying her wares. The whole body is contorted as by a sort of recoil from her vociferation. Her right arm, now missing, brandished a dainty before a possible buyer; her left clasps two fowls to her side while the hand holds a laden basket. Her brow and exposed breasts display the outrages of time, but her legs and sandalled feet have through the drapery the easy elegance of a Tanagra statuette. The artist has flinched from creating a complete effigy of shrivelled decrepitude. No Greek has given us the tragic fact embodied so pitifully in Rodin's Armorer's Wife. This Market Woman is caught at her most energetic moment, at one of those instants in which she defied her habitual lassitude. Surely, the theme is highly characteristic. Why, then, is the impression of the thing so unsatisfying? An examination of the Temple Ministrant will go far to answer the question.

The Temple Ministrant at Rome is plainly a daughter of the people. Her sturdy body is girt by a clumsy yet decorative mass of drapery rolled tight to raise the impeding garment from her ankles. Her hair shows nothing of that elaboration which we have come to regard as invariable in Greek sculpture. Two short tresses are drawn forward from the nape of the neck and roughly knotted over the brow—just the easiest method of getting the hair out of the way. The head is as boyish as the figure. The Girl of Anzio, as the Italians call her affectionately after the place of her discovery, is standing intent upon some minor office in the cult. Her left arm bears the fragment of a salver upon which stood some utensil needed for the service. Her firmly poised body betrays her solicitude. The eyes regard the salver fixedly, less with reverence, it seems to us, than with a simple determination that the trifling service shall be well performed. Yet the beauty of this menial action is akin to that of the processional marbles of the Parthenon, and the realistic traits in figure, costume, and hair-dressing so readily adjust themselves to the grand style of the whole that only with difficulty does one perceive that these elements are quite exceptional. The whole thing is of a lofty yet intimate beauty which finds Christian expression in the familiar lines:

Who sweeps a room as for Thy laws
Makes that and th' action fine.

Between the Temple Ministrant and the Old Market Woman there is an immense difference in workmanship, the latter being quite mediocre in execution, but this difference is transcended by a far deeper discrepancy in vision. Whoever made the Old Market Woman saw her as she chose to be seen, and as every passer-by saw her. He accepted for his theme just the insight of everybody about. Whoever created the beautiful Temple Ministrant managed to see something that probably everybody else overlooked. The common gaze doubtless would have been on the statue of the divinity, or on the officiating priest. It was the artist who caught the simple majesty of that robust figure poised as it held faithfully a cup, a knife, or some such nothing. The joy of that discovery we feel as we look upon the Girl of Anzio.

Yes, the difference transcends technic. You might put the Roman statue through a series of casts and reductions until in handling it became infinitely the inferior of the Old Market Woman, yet it, whatever its debasement, would remain wholly superior as a work of art. It is, as with all creation, a question of vision. If you do your seeing with simple curiosity, accepting unchallenged the average testimony of the eye and the casual observation of all the world, no technical mastery will save the result from cheapness and essential insignificance. The true artist is the aristocrat of the eye. He makes his bold exclusions and stern selections. He looks deep into appearances, and is wary of their immediate appeal. Thus he reveals things that the rest of us are too hurried or too untrained to see at all. Let no one say that the mere age and ugliness of the Old Market Woman are the trouble. She simply is seen too quickly and at the wrong moment. There is now at the Union League Club a picture by Daumier in which market-women and decrepit clerks are huddled into a third-class compartment, and the group and each individual have the sombre distinction that we associate with Michelangelo and Millet. It seems all a matter of the aristocracy of the eye. Otherwise the difference between the artist and the average man would be merely quantitative—only that, for example, between the champion golfer and the awkward amateur.

[1] This article appeared in the New York Evening Post of Saturday. November 20. I am sure our readers will welcome the opportunity to see it at once. It should be read in connection with the account of The Old Market Woman printed in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.55.
C. K.

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Those who remember Professor Showerman's articles referred to in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.41 need no spur to lead them to read his most recent article on The Making of a Professor, printed in The Atlantic Monthly for November. It is a satire on modern methods of university instruction. The theme is not new; the method of handling is new and the charm of style adds effect to what otherwise might seem an arid subject. On the general principle that continual dropping will wear away a stone all such contributions to the discussion of our methods of teaching are to be welcomed in the hope that they will ultimately result in a change. I quote a couple of passages to show the line of thought.

He had expected to continue the study of the Latin classics,—to read, interpret, criticise, and enjoy: but what he was actually occupied with was a variety of things no one of which was essential to literary enjoyment or appreciation, and whose sum total might as well have been called mathematics, or statistics, as classical literature. When he thought of his college instruction, he wondered whether the end and the means had not in some way got interchanged. He felt that now he was dealing with the husk instead of the kernel, with the penumbra rather than the nucleus, with the roots and branches, and not the flower. In his gloomier moments, he suspected that his preceptors and companions were actually ignorant that there was a flower; if they were aware of it, they were at least strangely indifferent to its color and perfume. In his more cheerful moments, it made him laugh to see the gravity with which, *omnia magna loquentes,* they consdered the momentous questions, whether a poet wrote Jupiter with two *p*'s or one, Virgil with an *i* or an *e*, and how many knots were on the big stick of Hercules. It all seemed to him monstrous and distorted.

. . But he was in pursuit of scholarship and though it should slay him, yet would he trust in it. He settled to his work.

He was not long in learning the lesson. He was to be accurate, he was to be thorough, and he was to employ *method.* That is he was to be scientific,—which, he soon found out, meant to treat his material as the mathematicians and chemists treated theirs.

He closes with this excellent advice:

Don't write books until you have something to write about. And don't fancy that the writing of books on such subjects as that of yours is the only form of scholarship, or is necessarily scholarship at all. To be able to commune with the souls of the world's greatest poets,—who are after all, the world's greatest creative scholars,—and to interpret their message to humanity, is a higher form of scholarship than the capacity for collection and arrangement of data about them. *That* is the work of a mechanician, and requires ingenuity rather than intellect. It doesn't really take brain to do that. Remember that you are a teacher of literature, and that the very highest form of creative scholarship in literature is to produce new combinations in thought and language just as in chemistry it is to discover new combinations of chemicals. If you cannot create, the next best is to interpret and transmit. Don't fancy, too, that there is no scholarship except what appears in print. If there can be sermons in stones and books in the running brooks, all the more can there be scholarship in human personality. Hearken to my commandments, and your peace shall be as a river. Fill your head and your heart with the riches of our literary heritage, so that out of the abundance of the heart your mouth shall speak, so that virtue shall go out from you to those who touch the hem of your garment, and transmute for them life's leaden metal into gold. *Inspire, and point the way!* Your old teacher was one of that kind—and to think that for a time you thought that you knew more than he! He will be dead and gone years before you know as much as he knew ten years ago.

Of course there is something to be said—in fact a good deal to be said—on the other side. The best foundation for the interpretation of literature is for most people a detailed and careful study of its elements and the growth in intellectual honesty and mastery of detail which should spring from seminar study is extremely valuable in serving as a balance wheel to the machine which might otherwise develop more speed than power. It is a misfortune that the product of so much of our university instruction should be so poor, but, while one literary critic is stifled as Mr. Showerman indicates, ninety-nine other students are kept from making fools of themselves. It is not given to every man to appreciate the message of literature; perhaps not to every man should be given the opportunity to teach the Classics even after university instruction, but unquestionably a good deal of our university method is suited to the type of mind of the average graduate student. The criticism should be directed rather against the exclusion of literary instruction. Scientific method should unquestionably be taught, but the trouble with most of our university instruction is that it is taught to the exclusion of any genuine attempt to point the student into the path of literary feeling. It is easy to teach philology; it is extremely difficult to teach literature. Most pseudo-literary critics glory in being shallow. What we really need is literary criticism that is really strong, not weak, appreciation due to sympathy, not sentiment. This is also what Pro-

fessor Showerman would demand and as I said such papers as this should conduce to an improvement in our methods. The paper is well worth reading[1]. G. L.

ELEMENTS OF INTEREST IN THE ANABASIS[2]

In the whole field of literature there are perhaps few books upon whose merits all would agree. One is charmed with a masterpiece, another hates it. Mr. Andrew Carnegie found the Iliad dull, tiresome and monotonous, and Professor Harry Thurston Peck says that, taking the Iliad as a whole, Mr. Carnegie is right. Yet, surely, dissenters from this opinion are numerous.

So concerning the Anabasis there is divergence of opinion. The editors tell the school-boy that he is about to take up a story of singular interest. Sir Richard Jebb pronounced the Anabasis "one of the most fascinating books in the world"; Sir Alexander Grant said, "No more graphic and stirring narrative was ever written"; Curtius declared it "one of the most valuable documents of antiquity".

On the other hand, Mr. E. C. Marchant edited a reading book, adapted from Wilamowitz's Griechisches Lesebuch, of selections from various authors, to save students "from being set down at a too early stage in their learning of Greek to Euripedes and Xenophon", for, he says, "a course of parasangs inspired in me a hatred of Xenophon so intense that it took me twenty years to forgive him".

What the boy or girl thinks of a given work undoubtedly depends largely upon how the teacher approaches and handles it. Why shouldn't the youth call a masterpiece dull—yes, hate it—if he has been made to focus his attention solely or chiefly on the language and the grammar? This must not be interpreted to mean that grammar is to receive no attention. Far from it. Grammar is vital and indispensable. Professor Gildersleeve has truly said, "The study of syntax is of the utmost importance for the appreciation of literary form". But grammatical study is after all only a means to an end and no one in teaching an author should dwell so continuously on the grammar as to make it the apparent aim of his study. In a given lesson not every syntactical construction need be treated with religious and painful care, as if the opportunity would never be offered again. A very few constructions carefully selected and thoroughly taught will suffice for one lesson. Interest should be added by noting stylistic effect and by indicating the more obvious resemblances and differences in Latin and English.

Some attention must be given to identifying and analyzing forms. Let their characteristics be emphasized—stem, suffix, augment, reduplication, accent. Students must early learn to recognize forms at sight with positiveness; as it is, many go through college lacking that ability.

Of course, the principal parts of verbs must be mastered, but for each lesson let not more than four or five verbs be assigned, and, to insure accuracy, require written as well as oral recitation of the parts. When the class has finished the Anabasis at this rate of progress, the common irregular verbs will have been met and studied several times.

The acquisition of a vocabulary—a matter of prime importance—is difficult and demands careful consideration, although hitherto it has been too much neglected. Experience has proved the inadequacy of the old method, which often results in a confused half-knowledge of the meaning of words. And would we not be startled were we to realize what time we have lost in thumbing the lexicon again and again in search of words that we have often met before? At this point there is a great leakage. Here there must be repairs and a stoppage of waste. Well directed efforts towards this end are needed. We must have a Vocabulary of High School Greek. Will not this Association take the initiative in providing for such a work? Until we get such help, lists must be made of the new words met in each lesson and these must be studied apart from their context. It is a mistake to give up memorizing vocabulary, as is commonly done, as soon as the beginners' book is finished. In studying the words, moreover, constant attention must be devoted to derivation and to related words in Latin and English. We are told that there are only about nine hundred primitives in the Anabasis, which fact indicates that the acquisition of the vocabulary will be far less arduous if rational methods are followed. Students etymologize with great zest, at times, of course, making absurd guesses, but the teacher is at hand to direct and guide. Let them exercise their ingenuity. The vocabulary of the Anabasis affords much opportunity for this. Genuine pleasure, for example, results from detecting the origin of such derivatives as athlete, acolyte, parallel, antipodes, arctic, ascetic, electric, horizon, school, and hundreds of others of equal interest. It thus dawns on the youthful mind that the Greek language is not after all dead, but vitally persistent in their own mother tongue to an extent that not only interests but truly astonishes them.

So, then, the study of forms, syntax, vocabulary is vital and ought not, nay must not be neglected. Nor is this a dismal truth to face, for to the healthy mind under the guidance of a sane teacher who presents

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[1] Cf. also Professor Showerman's papers on The Case of Literature in the Classical Journal 4.260–271, 291–302. His criticisms in his latest paper remind me of Juvenal 7.229–236 (where, curiously enough, it is the *parentes*, not the *grammatici* themselves, that are at fault). Cf. also Quintilian 1.8.21 mihi inter virtutes grammatici habebitur aliqua nescire (Quintilian's *grammaticus*, then, is to be in some ways on a par with Juvenal's *femina*, 6.451), and, finally, a delicious chapter in the Noctes Atticae of Aulus Gellius (14 6), rendered doubly delicious to the student of Gellius by his recollection of many themes solemny discussed by Gellius himself. C. K.

[2] This paper was read at the meeting of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, at Haverford, Pa., on April 23, 1909.

these subjects tactfully and in due proportions they are not depressing. Nay rather interest and pride may be stimulated from the consciousness of mastering and gaining the ability to reproduce the intricacies of an ancient tongue. Thoroughness and accuracy enforced by a live teacher will never destroy enthusiasm for any subject. Superficiality to evoke interest may attract numbers for the moment, but it will not stand the severer test to follow. In the later stages enthusiasm wanes from instability of foundation, numbers dwindle and our cause suffers.

After all, it is the subject matter that gives value and interest to the Anabasis and therein lies the chief reason for its study. In taking it up with our classes we must approach it at the outset as a piece of the world's literature that has survived because of its merits for more than two thousand years—a tale of the hazardous expedition of a small band of brave and adventurous Greeks led by an ambitious youth to the very heart of the great king's vast empire, where in the decisive battle they lose their commander, after which their perilous retreat is conducted with admirable strategy through bleak and mountainous lands and hostile tribes with the loss of a small percentage of their men. Here is action, adventure and achievement, in which the youthful mind takes special delight. Nor has our author given us a mere narrative of bare facts. Comparatively little space is devoted to the actual march. He who, like Mr. Marchant, remembers only or chiefly the parasangs has taken away merely the hem of the garment, which is no fault of the author. The parasangs are perhaps most numerous in Book I, but these passages are so easy that the student quickly passes over them and surely never objects to them. But this same book is rich in elements that can hardly fail to awaken and sustain the reader's lively interest. There is first of all the interest of uncertainty and expectancy, which the Greeks themselves felt, for this was a new and bold venture and they knew not what they would encounter as they advanced into the unknown realm. Then, too, in this single book one reads of myths and satyrs, of sacrifices and soothsayers, of games and prizes, of beautiful parks, of treason and desertion, and of clever leaders. A series of vivid pictures enlivens the narrative. There is the brilliant entertainment of the Cilician queen, the stoning of Clearchus and his clever acting as we behold him in tears before the assembly; then the hunting scene in the desert with the ostrich raising its wings for sails and speeding on like a ship over the sands and never caught. The trial of Orontas presents a vivid scene, strong in dramatic element. And from the story of the decisive battle who does not turn with a definite mental picture of the fatal encounter as Cyrus, crying out τὸν ἄνδρα ὁρῶ, rushes to his death. Then, after this dramatic climax, we pause for a eulogy of our fallen hero—the most striking instance of the analysis of character that is so peculiar to Xenophon.

At the opening of Book II, the reader is in suspense. With the battle won but their cause lost, and their aspiring prince slain, what will the victorious yet defeated Greeks do. They are equal to the occasion. They will not surrender and retreat is in order. But now our indignation is stirred by the duplicity and treachery of Tissaphernes. Again the course of our drama is interrupted, the action is halted, the issue uncertain. How tense the strain, how keen our sympathy, as that deep gloom settles over the Grecian camp. With a most graphic picture our author portrays their distress in that admirable series of clauses, with pathos intensified by the marked asyndeton—πατρίδων, γονέων, γυναικῶν, παίδων (3.1.3). Here is a tragic situation presented with a sense of literary form. At this critical moment our author himself comes on the stage with befitting modesty and our hopes are raised. Xenophon's appeal to Socrates and the Delphic oracle can not fail to interest every reader, and the story of the dream that impels him to act is told, as Grote observed, in true Homeric vein. And who does not enjoy the action that follows as Xenophon rouses the captains and, arrayed in full dress, issues that wise, eloquent and patriotic appeal which puts new life in his followers and unfolds the plan that saves the day. Students should formally analyze this address, pointing out its aim and summarizing the arguments. In other words, this and every speech should be felt, read, and studied as a speech—the setting, the structure, the purpose all being regarded. In the course of this speech occurs that interesting diversion, the ominous sneeze. Let a collection be made of the numerous passages that furnish evidence of the superstition and strong religious sentiment by which these soldiers were actuated. Nor must the reader fail to be impressed by the early workings of democracy in this roving state, as its citizen soldiery by show of hands decides one way or another by a majority vote.

As the troops again take up the march in the course of this book, divers incidents hold our attention and occasionally we are refreshed by digressions never too long and in Herodotean style, including bits of archaeology, history and mythology of places visited. The rejected plan for bridging the Tigris by means of skins is full of interest and every youth enjoys the pen picture of Soteridas pushed from the ranks by Xenophon, who seizes his shield and trudges on in true democratic fashion.

Book IV in particular elicits manifold interest. There is the mountain climbing with hard fighting against the sturdy mountaineers. The strategy of the resourceful leaders is a topic for study so profitable that an English army officer was inspired to write on The Retreat of the Ten Thousand, A Military Study for all Time, and an American officer was led to

declare "more tactical originality has come from the Anabasis than from any dozen other books. . . . After the lapse of twenty-three centuries there is no better military text-book than the Anabasis".

The brilliant campaign against the Carduchian heights calls for detailed investigation and, if properly presented, will evoke enthusiastic admiration. Text-books usually contain cuts illustrating the topography and military movements, but, to prevent confusion in the reading, these diagrams must be placed on the board. I have known students in reading this section, partly at sight, to become so engrossed as to ask permission to stay past the hour to see how the story comes out.

The march through Armenia inspires lively interest in this people with their strange customs, their underground houses, barley-beer and all the rest. We enjoy the picture of the soldiers resting in camp and telling their war stories after the vigorous campaigning in the mountains. Then we follow them sympathetically as they plunge into deep snow and face blasting winds and bulimy. Nor does the interest lag when they encounter the Taochi. This picturesque struggle closes with that tragic spectacle of men and women hurling their children and themselves down over the cliffs. Soon follows the most brilliant picture of all, that thrilling scene on the mountain whence comes the soldiers' shout of *θάλαττα, θάλαττα.* This is the climax, but through another chapter the interest is sustained with that touching incident of the former Athenian slave recognizing his native land and conversing with his own people; then we have the encounter with the Colchians, where they eat the poisonous honey, and, lastly, the games by the sea.

Now, shall the study of the Anabasis terminate with Book IV? By no means. The healthy mind wants to trace the career of the ten thousand to the end. It may be necessary to do much of this at sight, and lack of time may necessitate the omission of less important parts, but this is preferable to reading the first four books entire with nothing from the last three. If necessary, sacrifice some of the second and third books to save the best parts of the later books. We cannot be too often reminded, as our best scholars have repeatedly urged, that "reading, more reading, and yet more reading is what is most needed". The teacher must be imbued with the reading spirit and then infuse this spirit into the pupils. Read choice bits to them and refer them to other selections for private reading with no set examination in view, but to be brought up for informal discussion. Good progress is made if we stimulate a desire for reading. This will be easier if by sound methods we develop the ability to read. After mastering the vocabulary of the first four books, students will read the last three with comparative ease, with only occasional use of the lexicon.

Book V gives further opportunity for studying the character of the author, who figures prominently and does good service under heavy responsibility, in the absence of Chirisophus. If, as good scholars maintain, the Anabasis was written to vindicate the author, there is so much more reason for reading the later books, for otherwise we are unable to view the work in the spirit in which it was written. Xenophon's conduct is more than once called into question but his defence is always ready. One of the choice bits of dialogue is the scene in the last chapter of Book V—the court-martial before which Xenophon defends himself against the charge of a soldier whom he had struck. It appears that he was a mule-driver, who being ordered to carry a sick man was struck because he was afterward found on the point of burying him alive, although it is agreed that the sick man died just the same. Let this dialogue be read to the class in a good translation if they can not read it for themselves.

Book VI opens with a captivating scene, when the Greeks give a banquet to the Paphlagonian deputation and in most entertaining fashion dance their strange national dances—the Thracian sword dance; the charming dance of the Aenianians and Magnetians, imitating a peasant attacked by a robber; the mimic shield dance of the Mysian with lively contortions and somersaults; then the Arcadians in stately dance with martial strains; and lastly the Arcadian dancing girl in an exhibition of the Pyrrhic dance to the delight of all. Here is a picturesque scene that has peculiar interest to-day, when folk-dances are taught and becoming popular. Yet most of the boys and girls who read the Anabasis never hear of these fascinating parts.

Another interesting study of our author is afforded in Book VI, when the proposition is up for making Xenophon supreme commander, an honor which he gracefully declines in favor of a Spartan. This incident throws light on the politics of the day and the passage contains an admirable summary of the arguments for monarchy. In reaching his decision Xenophon has recourse to sacrifices and information is given concerning the methods of interpreting omens, which can not be gained from the preceding books. From this book, too, we learn the motives of the soldiers for joining the expedition. It was not from want of a livelihood in the case of the majority, but they had heard of the valor of Cyrus and of the successes of his followers, and to join him some ran away from fathers and mothers, while others left their children behind in the hopes of returning to them with a fortune.

The last book is of particular interest as it unfolds the final stages of the drama. With the army again in Europe, the grave question as to the disposition thereof arises and soon follow the memorable negotiations with Seuthes. The story of his life and his unique banquet to the Greek officers are delightful

reading and a storehouse of information on manners and customs. After the stirring campaign under Seuthes, when difficulty arises concerning pay withheld by that commander, it is settled by negotiations brought to a close with Xenophon's brilliant speech, in which he triumphantly presses home the justice of the Greek demands and the unfairness of Seuthes's ingratitude. This masterly address will repay careful analysis and is a fitting conclusion to our companionship with the author on the memorable journey.

Apart, then, from the need of completing the story, these later books should be read because of their literary and historical merits and because of their charming and illuminating episodes. Merely to enumerate the divers elements in the Anabasis would appear to be enough to convince one that it is a fascinating story and that the author has invested the narrative with a very human interest. It is what has been called "history dramatized", which Professor Lodge (Imagination in the Study of the Classics, Educational Review, September, 1901) has well described as "a series of scenes of greater or less prominence, on a thread of advancing narrative. Marches, sieges, battles, councils, are parts of the machinery by which the scenes are presented and the chief figures brought into view". These animated scenes take a strong hold on the youthful mind. Love of adventure is kindled, sympathy stirred, imagination awakened, and admiration evoked for the sturdy and clever sons of Greece.

We need not consider how to make the Classics interesting by introducing extraneous matter that tends to distract. This literature in itself is intensely interesting; let us not make it dry in the manner of the teacher of incredible diligence and high-mindedness of whom Mr. A. Benson writes (Educational Review, March, 1900): "He possessed in an almost unique degree the power of alienating the attention; he carried dullness into all he taught; and the world of knowledge as he exhibited it was like a landscape under a heavy fall of snow, all sounds dulled, all outlines merged". Let us rather imitate the Professor of Geology of whom, according to Mr. Benson, a great classical scholar said, in describing how he attended a lecture in undergraduate days, "I came away firmly convinced that I had mistaken my real bent up to that moment and that geology was the one thing worth studying".

In conclusion, the elements of interest residing in the thought, style and form of the Anabasis and other Classics must first be felt by the teacher and pointed out with persuasive enthusiasm. Then the student will feel their power by vital touch of the man already himself enthusiastic. This is "education by contagion", it is the "personal touch in teaching". Pupils need to be taught to observe what the teacher observes, this taste and feeling for literary quality have to be cultivated. They must learn to view the work in perspective, to read it as it was written to be read, to visualize the scenes, to feel a speech as a speech, narrative as narrative. They must discover how this account of the most memorable exploit of its kind bears witness to the courage, versatility and endurance of the Greek character, and how historically significant the expedition is in being a prelude to conquests to follow. This, I take it, is what Mr. Hiram Corson means when he says, "The only true object of literary study is to take in the life of the work studied".

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY. ROSCOE GUERNSEY.

THE VOCABULARY OF HIGH SCHOOL LATIN AND HOW TO MASTER IT

The publication recently of the lists of words for Latin students in the secondary schools to learn has called attention emphatically to the importance for such students of really knowing a limited stock of Latin words. Too few such students master their vocabulary well enough for success in reading Latin; and so translation, even though one may not wish it, accompanied by a most wasteful thumbing of the dictionary, is the only process practicable in their work.

A dead language is the crystallized result of a nation's effort to secure some medium for the expression of its thought. Accordingly a modern language, in so far as literature and the art of printing have stereotyped its expressions—the King's English, for example—is as dead as Latin. We are trained to use the fully crystallized thought-units produced by English minds in the environment of English civilization. For an authoritative statement concerning these thought-units we refer men to the English dictionary, the grammar, and the rhetoric.

Now, if we have developed our own set of thought-units, that is no ground for inference that the Romans, in their environment, developed a set exactly corresponding, unit for unit, with ours. In fact, the Roman thought-units are likely to be different. And even if they were the same, environment, or context, would modify them *ad libitum*. There would be no means of telling beforehand to what use a particular thought-unit might not lend itself in case of need.

In the study of a modern science, the student deals with things visible, or audible, and so forth. In the first few years of his life, he acquires the power to appreciate aright, in the main, the significance of what he needs but to see or hear to understand. Process *n*, accordingly, with the objects of natural science as thought-units, is easier than the same process with the content of Latin words as thought-units. For instance, it would be easier to distinguish the difference between twelve and fifteen inches than between *facio* and *conficio*, and easier to distinguish sweet from salted butter than to distinguish *homo* from *vir*. In each case, we

must learn that the latter is more, and how much more.

The student of science is trained to use delicate and costly scales, microscopes, resistance coils—*instruments de précision*. The benefactor of his school pours out his wealth to supply these instruments; and since the student counts the time as spent in play, he has a 'delightful time' in watching their operation. But to scrutinize a verb, consciously determining its significance as modified by voice, mood, tense, person, number, context—that, as being work, is irksome. If he hurries superficially through his duty, or past it, he learns—poor morals. He is a shirk, because he has been studying Latin, and not science! His salvation lies in continuing the study of Latin until this process, too, passes to the sphere of unconscious habit. Then the study becomes play, and pleasurable.

At first a Latin teacher should seek to approximate scientific clearness and simplicity, and, where this is impossible, to induce the student to perform, not shirk, his duty. But just as, in introducing people to a new human acquaintance, we are at pains to pronounce the name clearly and not to cumber the introduction by a long recital of the newcomer's several traits of character, so in Latin it is not needful or expedient to tell the student at once all that a new word can be expected to do under any and all circumstances. The acquaintance will deepen with experience; but the initial necessity is for a satisfactory 'known' from which to proceed to the unknown. This 'known' is not satisfactory so long as *ibi* and *sic*, for example, or twins like *quisquis* and *quisque*, are confused.

Here lies the advantage of such word-lists as those referred to. That they should catalogue with some completeness the various facts about a Latin word may fairly be expected of them. But the student should not be expected to memorize the whole series of English equivalents as a series, but be led to form a concept of the Latin thought-unit as such, and not as imperfectly indicated by these equivalents. The Latin word, even if it be *facio*, is not several things at once, but one thing only. How about a mermaid? Do we call it a woman, when it is a fish? or the converse, perhaps? No, we call it a mermaid. Under the guidance and restraint of a discerning teacher, almost any student can be made to distinguish the cases where his conception of a word will suffice from those where it will not. Let him use his judgment and his reason as well as his memory.

The part of environment, or context, in shaping the meaning of a given word, or root, is perhaps even more patent in Greek than in Latin, for there the student can break up the word more easily into its component parts. A Latin student is taught that *bellum inferre* means to 'wage war' or 'carry on war', indifferently; but to the radical significance of such words he is rarely brought before he reaches the graduate school. Has not the notion of elemental thought-units been under-emphasized by Latin teachers?

If one were to try in Greek to complete, from the vocabulary of a beginners' book, a word-list adequate for reading the first book of Xenophon's *Anabasis*, the total number of words, catalogued as in Professor Lodge's or Mr. Browne's lists, would approximate fourteen hundred. But this number would be greatly reduced if those derived from one primitive root were taught as one connected group. They need not all be taught at once; but the fact of connection should have its bearing also on the order and manner of teaching Latin words.

In a Vergil class, with a select word-list, five minutes each morning would suffice for reviewing a hundred familiar words daily. The working vocabulary of High School Latin could be gone over as a whole several times in the senior preparatory year; and why should this be other than a delightful exercise, comparable to visiting one's acquaintances in some former place of residence? There, too, it may chance that certain persons have partly faded from one's memory.

Finally, it contributes far more to the pleasure of a Latin student's effort that he should know imperfectly, but definitely, the meaning of a considerable number of Latin words, than that he know completely the meaning of a very few, and depend for the meaning of the rest on his bescribbled, worn, and mutilated lexicon. Let him remember above all that for what he can get his memory, assisted by his other mental faculties, to supply at once, he need not call upon his fingers and his eyes to help him to obtain.

PARSONS COLLEGE, Fairfield, Iowa G. F. HEFFELBOWER.

REVIEW

Livy, Book IX. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, etc., by W. B. Anderson. The Pitt Press Series, Cambridge University Press (1909). Pp. xxiv + 276. $.75.

This is a praiseworthy edition. In its preparation the editor has kept in mind both the Livian tyro and the advanced student or teacher. The notes are both helpful and scholarly, showing not only a careful study of the text, but also of the historical, constitutional and political problems this book presents. Special attention has been given to the poetical character of Livy's language, both in diction and in rhythm, an important study which points to the use of a metrical source of the text. The syntactical notes show careful study of the language used by Livy. In not a few cases observations on syntax are illustrated by the quota-

tion of English parallels. The book closes with three Indexes. That on syntactical phenomena is a valuable feature of the book, not only for the light it throws upon the syntax of this particular book, but for the help it gives for the study of the characteristic features of Livy's style in general.

While praising the editor for all he has done in this direction, it cannot but be remarked that certain notes would have been greatly improved by the use of Stacey's important study, *Die Entwickelung des livianischen Stiles,* Archiv. X (1898), pp. 17-82, while the statements made in other notes would have been corrected by the use of the seventh edition of the Schmalz-Krebs's Antibarbarus. So e. g. the note on *natus* of things, p. 81, § 7; on *auctor,* p. 108, § 12; on the first author to use *potius quam ut,* p. 134, § 7, or *adde quod,* p. 157, § 6, or *namque* post-positive, p. 175, § 6. The note on p. 113, § 9, asserting that the perfect subjunctive in prohibitions is common, disregards the investigations of Elmer and Bennett (cf. Cornell Studies VI, IX). The note on p. 122, § 6, is misleading: *ob* with the *gerund* was not used by Cicero (Schmalz, Syntax[3], 169). On p. 207, l. 2, the statement is made that "*non* with the imperative was used only by Ovid". Blase, Hist. Gramm. 3.245 says it is also found in Catullus 66.80. This, however, can hardly be allowed, nor can Seneca Herc. Fur. 585 and Calpurnius 5.24 cited by Clement in A. J. P. 21.168, as in all these passages the *non* is closely connected with the adverb (in Catullus with *prius,* in the others with *ante*). However, it is to be noted that Cato has *non suggere.* On p. 181, § 15 the statement should be made that Livy uses the infinitive with *adniti* only in his first decade. Later it is found not only in Tacitus, as stated in the note, but in post-classical poetry. On p. 227, § 11 it should be stated that Caesar uses only *ut qui* (in this connection the writer may presume to call attention to his own edition of Livy p. 180, where a detailed statement of Livy's use of *ut qui* and *quippe qui* will be found). On p. 228, § 22 the reference should be to the *second* edition of Huelsen's Das Forum Romanum, 161-164, 167, and similarly on p. 236, § 6, to pp. 7, 15, 19, 93-96.

The reviewer feels that in justice to the editor he should not close this brief review without again adding a word of praise. The book will be found to be of special value to all who wish to make a special study of the various problems connected with the Battle of the Caudine Forks and of Livy's comparison of Hannibal with the great Roman generals.

College of the City of New York. EMORY B. LEASE.

A LATIN JOURNAL

To give a history of the various Latin magazines and newspapers which have arisen, flourished and decayed in this country and elsewhere would be an interesting task, for which the writer has not the necessary material. At present, when the trend is away from the reading of a definite series of authors or parts of authors, and when, fortunately for the future of classical studies, more stress is being laid on the ability to read 'at sight', such enterprises ought to receive more support.

These remarks are suggested by the receipt of copies of a magazine published in Bremerhaven, Germany, with the title Civis Romanus, Menstruus ad Linguam Latinam nostrae aetatis rationibus adaptandam Commentarius, and now in its seventh year. The editor is Dr. V. Lommatzsch, who is assisted by eleven collaborators. An idea of the scope of the journal, which contains besides new material selections from works of interest which have been written in Latin in modern times, may be gained from the table of contents of one number, which is as follows: V. Lommatius, Ex secessu aestivo ad amicum epistulae; J. V. Merbitzii, Priscianus, selections from a comedy, in which grammatical instruction is given in a lively dialogue abounding in colloquialisms; N. P. Gannettasii Motus terrae, qui in Calabria accidit anno 1694, descriptio, selections from a work published at Naples in 1722; E Lessingi Laccoonte latine verso a L. G. Hasper; L. L. Podobinski, Novacula in cotem incidit, a Latin rendering of a Polish and Lithuanian legend; J. Tassetius, Libra volucris, a tale of a flying-machine, the third of a series of Verborum probatorum novae in novis rebus iuncturae. There is a notice of a Mundanum Scientiae Sodalitatium, or Alliance Scientifique Universelle, founded in 1876 and governed by quinqueviri, of whom the "Q. Americanus" is somewhat remotely located (at least from our point of view) in Buenos-Ayres.

In another number such live topics as De alcoholismo qui dicitur, and De nuperrimis quibusdam Italorum ad resuscitanda studia classica conatibus, are discussed, and some ingenious enigmas and puzzles are given, for the solution of which prizes are offered. There is also a translation of The Rock of Ages into Latin by W. I. (sic) Gladstone.

The magazine is instructive, readable, and lively (exceedingly so in some of the dialogues), and it is wholly free from the personalities and the attacks on all who happen to be at variance with the editor's fancies.

For the benefit of any who may be interested it may be added that the subscription price for foreign countries is 4.25 marks. Contributors receive compensation at the rate of 36 marks for 16 pages besides 10 reprints of their articles and three copies of the number in which they appear. Address: Dr. V. Lommatzsch, Via Bismarckiana 1, Bremiportu (Bremerhaven).

JOHN C. ROLFE.

University of Pennsylvania.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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Under date of September 1 last Charles Mills Gayley and William A. Merrill, Professors respectively of the English Language and Literature and of the Latin Language and Literature in the University of California, united in issuing the following circular to Teachers of English and Latin in the California Secondary Schools:

The purpose of this circular is to ask the assistance of teachers of English and of Latin in California secondary schools, in a matter pertaining to the preparation of candidates for teachers' certificates in these languages, and, in general, to the training of future specialists in English or in Latin.

Students continue to enter the university in considerable numbers, desiring to specialize in Latin or English, but unacquainted with Greek. When they are informed that a good knowledge of the Greek language and literature is of the greatest importance to teachers or specialists in English or Latin, and accordingly are advised to begin the study of Greek in the university, they are in the habit of replying as follows:

1. We have not time, now, to take up the elements of so difficult a language as Greek.
2. Even if we begin Greek in the university, we cannot, without too great sacrifice, carry the study far enough to gain the results sought for.
3. We were not informed, in the high school, by our teachers of Latin or English, that we should need Greek in our future studies and career.

The justice of this reply is evident. It may therefore seem to some that the departments of English and Latin in the university should require Greek among the prerequisites for the study of these languages as a major subject. The undersigned would indeed be strongly inclined to do this, if it were feasible. But since this is impracticable, the difficulty must be met, so far as possible, in the secondary school. We therefore earnestly recommend to teachers of English and Latin, particularly to those in charge of the work of the first two years of the high school curriculum, that they lose no opportunity to impress upon their pupils early in the course, that *for future teachers or specialists in Latin or English, no subject, outside of these languages themselves, is so important as Greek.* A neglect to avail themselves of the opportunity (if offered) to begin Greek in the high school will surely be attended with constantly increasing embarrassment and regret.

The high school curriculum is now sufficiently elastic, in most of our cities, to permit each pupil to choose at least *some* elective work. The purport of the foregoing advice, therefore, is to the effect that, for prospective teachers of English or Latin, *Greek is the elective subject first in importance.* The student's general culture in other lines is adequately provided for by the required studies of school and university, so that this advice, to future specialists in Latin or English, may be given with the *utmost emphasis,* and without fear of too great limitation of the student's range.

This advice, furthermore, is in exact accordance with the spirit of modern education. The tide has long been setting (perhaps too strongly) against definite requirements, and especially against the requirement of Greek. But since we cannot *require,* it is all the more clearly our duty to *influence* those of our pupils who are to follow us in the inspiring work of teaching Latin and English, to secure the preparation which they will find later to be essential, by beginning the study of Greek before it is practically too late.

The desired influence may best be exerted, not in the shape of a single formal address, but by means of *frequent* pointed reminders, as the opportunity presents itself (as it so often does) in the course of the regular instruction in Latin or English. Permit us to add that the teacher who has not enjoyed, for himself, the opportunity to become familiar with Greek, can speak with special weight and force on this point, for his advice will be free from the slightest tinge of invidiousness.

We earnestly hope that you may see your way to giving effective assistance in the direction indicated, for the sake of deepening and strengthening the work of instruction in Latin and English in our great State. This is not a plea for *Greek,* from the standpoint of the Greek specialist, but for better *Latin,* and better *English.*

At the Commencement at Ann Arbor last June Professor Gayley delivered an address on educational matters, in which he strongly championed the value of the Classics. We should have presented extracts from this address, as printed in documents of the University of Michigan, had we not preferred to wait for the publication of the full address, which is promised by Messrs. Doubleday, Page and Co. for January or February next. Evidences are multiplying that teachers of other subjects are realizing once again the importance of those things for which the Classics stand. We commend the circular most heartily to all our readers, and we suggest in this connection a rereading of certain utterances already made in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY (e. g. 1.137, 161-162, 201). Teachers of Latin are bound for their own sakes, to foster the study of Greek, first by themselves, then by their pupils. In another quarter, too, teachers of Latin should seek (as well as give) help; there ought to be an offensive and defensive alliance between teachers of Latin and teachers of French.

C. K.

HYSTERON PROTERON IN THE AENEID I-VI[1]

Moriamur et in media arma ruamus! Every one of us will, I am sure, admit that this verse contained in it, when we first read it in our school days, certain elements of humor, which we felt the more strongly because our teachers objected to our amusement. Were we right, or were our teachers? Is there something peculiar in the verse, or is it merely our imagination? 'Let us die, and let us rush into the thick of the fight!' At first sight we surely have before us an inversion of the natural temporal sequence of the two acts; and it surprises us to find that in certain school editions of the Aeneid, for it is of school editions merely that I intend to speak, the reality of this phenomenon is denied.

Hysteron proteron, according to two of my five American grammars, is the reversal of the natural order of words or phrases. In this paper I desire to discuss the following points: What is hysteron proteron, when defined more narrowly? Does it really occur? How often does it occur, if it is a reality? How is such an illogical arrangement of the ideas to be explained? What is its importance for the teaching of the secondary schools?

Hysteron proteron is the inversion of the natural temporal sequence of words and clauses. The difficulty that meets us will be to determine what is the logical order. That has been interpreted strictly as follows: of two acts not simultaneous, the prior act should logically precede; when of two acts one is the cause of the other, the cause logically precedes the result—granted always that the two acts are expressed paratactically. Of two acts not simultaneous, the verse already cited (2.353) is a good example; of two acts related as cause and effect, an example is 2.655 Rursus in arma feror mortemque miserrimus opto, 'Again in the height of my misery I long for death, and am rushing off into the fight'.

Now the two expressions that are in a hysteron proteron relation must be expressed paratactically: they must therefore be expressed with a connecting coördinating conjunction, or asyndetically.

First let us consider the cases in which the words meaning 'and' are used: *et, atque (ac), -que*. These of course have many uses, in addition to the meaning 'and' with a temporal or cause-and-result idea. They may merely add two or more things together; they may introduce a second element which but amplifies or defines the first; they may mean 'but', 'also', 'even', 'or'; in combination with special words they may have other meanings. With negative or adversative connectives the negative or adversative idea is such as almost or quite to preclude the supposition of hysteron proteron though occasionally we seem to find it, as in 1.37-38 Mene incepto desistere victam nec posse Italia Teucrorum avertere regem! 'To think that I cannot keep the king of the Trojans away from Italy, and must (therefore) in defeat give up my undertaking!'[1] Where there is asyndeton, also, there is rarely inversion of the order, as a glance at the list of passages accompanying this article will show. An investigation of this figure will then resolve itself mainly into an investigation of the passages in which *et, atque (ac), -que* are used, and here only when a time or a cause-and-effect relation exists between the two ideas so connected. For this paper, all such cases in the first six books of the Aeneid were examined.

Two kinds of hysteron proteron may be distinguished, that consisting of two clauses or of two attributes of a single object, and that involving only a list of substantives. The latter class may be disposed of briefly: a good example is 1.385 *Europa atque Asia pulsus*, 'driven from Europe and from Asia', said of himself by Aeneas. The order of events really was, first from Asia, then from Europe. But in all such brief lists, the additive idea is stronger than the idea of sequence, and, when one element is to be distinguished as first, it is often accompanied by a form of *primus*, as in 3.58 delectos populi ad proceres primumque parentem, 'to the chosen chiefs of the people and first of all to my father'. Such a list, it is true, may also consist of whole clauses, as at 6.802-803, where the third, fourth and second labors of Hercules are mentioned in this order, and in descriptions of arming, as at 2.392-393. Instances of this kind have been excluded from the list at the end of the paper, but the passages in which substantives occur in reversed order are given in a footnote[2].

Of the first class, a hysteron proteron of clauses is seen in the already quoted Moriamur et in media arma ruamus; one consisting of two attributes of a single object is seen in 1.349 impius ante aras atque auri caecus amore, said of Pygmalion, 'blinded with greed, and thus led on to impious acts'. This type has been included here since it is really the equivalent of a relative clause with two verbs. Here I place also a sentence with a single verb, to be taken in different meanings in connection with different objects, as 2.258-259 inclusos utero Danaos et pinea furtim laxat claustra Sinon, 'Sinon secretly draws the pine bolts and lets out the Greeks'.

A third class might be made, consisting of instances of prolepsis, as 1.69 submersasque obrue puppis, 'overwhelm and sink the ships!' In fact one editor expressly calls 6.330 tum demum admissi stagna exoptata revisunt an instance of hysteron proteron: the shades of the unburied, after one hundred years of wandering, 'then at last come back to the stream and are admitted to Charon's boat'.

[1] This paper was read at the meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States, at Haverford, Pa., April 23, 1909.

[1] Cf. also 3.159-160, 4.311-312, 337-338.

[2] 1.28, 78, 87, 130, 385, 426, 679; 2.431; 3.58; 4.18, 44-45, 58-59, 99, 236, 430, 433; 5.192-193, 275, 392-393, 593, 746; 6.768. Examples of lists of clauses are 1.200-202, 316-319, 320, 336-337; 2.392-395; 4.147-148; 6.802-803.

But such cases I prefer to consider in a separate class, and to list separately[1].

To return to the hysteron proteron of clauses—a term which I shall use in the wider sense indicated above—there are one or two varieties which may be spoken of first as somewhat aberrant. The mere list has already been excluded as timeless. On the other hand, every pluperfect contains in it the essence of hysteron proteron and is an example of it if connected with a preceding verb of a different tense by an 'and', as in 6.523-524

> Egregia interea coniunx arma omnia tectis
> emovet et fidum capiti subduxerat ensem,

said by Deiphobus of Helen, 'she had taken my trusty dagger from beside me and she then removed all the weapons from the house'. The combination of present and perfect is similarly found, as in 4.101 ardet amans Dido traxitque per ossa furorem, 'Dido has drawn the madness through her whole frame and is aflame with love', and that of future and future perfect, 4.590-591 Ibit hic . . . et nostris illuserit . . . regnis? 'Shall he have flouted my kingdom and now depart?'

Such now is our definition of the term hysteron proteron, and the limitation of the field of investigation for our present purpose. The next question is, does hysteron proteron occur? After much search, in five school editions of the first six books of the Aeneid I have succeeded in finding ten passages[2] in which the possibility of its occurrenec is admitted by the editors. Edition A admits it in seven passages, calls one tautology, calls one parataxis for hypotaxis, and gives a different interpretation of one. Edition B admits one as hysteron proteron, gives a different interpretation of one while admitting that some interpret it as hysteron proteron, gives a different interpretation of one other, and says nothing on the time element in the remaining seven. Edition C calls four of them "important idea first", admitting that some term them hysteron proteron; calls one parataxis for hypotaxis, one tautology, gives a different explanation for one, and says nothing on the remaining three. Edition D calls one "important idea first", one "general word first, preceding the special word", gives a different explanation for one, and says nothing on the remaining seven. Edition E admits hysteron proteron once, gives a different explanation once, calls it "important idea first" once, and says nothing on the other seven.

Now if these are the only occurrences of hysteron proteron in six books of the Aeneid, our investigation ends with Horace's *ridiculus mus;* but instead there is the stately number of about 150, given below. It is only fair to say, that the search for them was not made until many instances had forced themselves upon me in teaching the subject, and that no effort has been made to do more than interpret the words in their normal meanings. It was not a search in an endeavor to find examples, whether they were there or not. The proof of the answer to the questions upon the occurrence and the frequency of hysteron proteron consists in the perusal of the list; it would be impossible to read it here, even if time limitations did not forbid, for a list is of all things the most uninteresting to read and to listen to. However, a few examples may serve to illustrate:

1.5-6 dum conderet urbem inferretque deos Latio, 'in his striving to bring his gods to Latium and found a city there'; his arrival in Latium with his gods must antedate the founding of any city there by him.

1.18 tenditque fovetque, 'she cherishes the hope and strives to bring about the result' that Carthage will be powerful, etc.; her hope will naturally precede her endeavor to effect the result.

1.43 disiecitque rates evertitque aequora ventis, 'roused the waves and scattered the ships'; the scattering of the ships is the result, not an antecedent fact, of the stirring up of the waters.

1.54 imperio premit ac vinclis et carcere frenat, 'Aeolus bridles the winds with prison bonds and subjects them to his might'; fitting the bit to the mouth of a steed (to which the winds are compared) precedes the full control of the animal.

1.66 et mulcere . . . fluctus et tollere vento, 'to raise the winds and to calm them'; the winds must be raised before they can be calmed.

1.90 Intonuere poli, et crebris micat ignibus aether, 'the lightnings gleamed and the heavens thundered'; lightning precedes thunder.

1.97-98 Mene Iliacis occumbere campis non potuisse tuaque animam hanc effundere dextra, 'to think that I could not pour forth this life by thy right hand and lie dead on the plain of Troy'; the pouring forth of life does in reality precede the lying dead.

Here we have seven examples in the first one hundred lines of the Aeneid, a remarkable number, more than double the average rate of occurrence. I may ask your attention to two more passages, which are remarkable for the occurrence of several examples within a few verses[1]. Cf. 2.650-655:

> Talia perstabat memorans fixusque manebat.
> Nos contra effusi lacrimis, coniunxque Creusa
> Ascaniusque omnisque domus, ne vertere secum
> cuncta pater fatoque urgenti incumbere vellet.
> Abnegat inceptoque et sedibus haeret in isdem.
> Rursus in arma feror mortemque miserrimus opto.

Aeneas is relating the refusal of his father to be carried to safety while Troy is being sacked: 'He persisted in saying words like these and remained fixed in his intent. In opposition to him I was dissolved in tears, and so was Creusa, and Ascanius,

[1] 1.69 submersas; 1.659 furentem; 2.135 obscurus; 3.141 sterilis; 3.236 tectos: 3.237 latentia; 4.22 labantem: 6.330 admissi.

[2] These are 2.259, 353, 547, 749; 3.662; 5.130-131; 6.330, 366, 412, 567.

[1] Cf. also 3.69-71; 4.575-577; 6.523-525.

and all the household, entreating that he should not wish to help along impending fate and destroy all with him'. Here is the first instance of hysteron proteron; each of the remaining two lines contains one example: 'Clinging to the couch he sticks to his purpose, and refuses to go. In my utter wretchedness I long for death and am rushing off again into the fight'.

6.329-334 contains a proleptic participle and two instances of hysteron proteron:
Centum errant annos volitantque haec litora circum;
tum demum admissi stagna exoptata revisunt.
Constitit Anchisa satus et vestigia pressit
multa putans sortemque animi miseratus iniquam.
Cernit ibi maestos et mortis honore carentis
Leucaspim et . . . Oronten. . . .
The Sibyl is telling Aeneas of the lot of those who have not received due burial: 'One hundred years they wander and flit about these shores; then at last they come back to the stream which they so eagerly desire to cross, and are admitted to the boat. Anchises's son checked his steps and stood still, thinking deeply and commiserating the soul's unhappy lot. There he sees Leucaspis and Orontes, who had failed to receive due burial and were (therefore) saddened'.

It is, I think, evident that there exists something that is well expressed by the term ***hysteron proteron,*** 'the later thing earlier', and that this occurs much more frequently than we are given to understand. But what are the reasons for an order of words that defies two of the most important presuppositions of our human thought, succession in time, and the succession of cause and effect? Has it a logic that may in a measure justify it? This is our next problem. In connection with this we may discuss the various principles of interpretation which are given by those who do not admit the existence of the figure. The causes contributing to hysteron proteron are seven in number, and frequently shade one into the other. They are:

(1) The important idea is given first, while the less important, though really preceding, act is set later in the sentence. On this ground three of my five editions explain Moriamur et in media arma ruamus.

(2) The second clause is logically subordinate to the first, but is expressed paratactically. So the example given under (1) is interpreted, 'Let us die by rushing into the thick of the fight'. Many passages may be so explained, as 4.547 Quin morere, ut merita es, ferroque averte dolorem, 'Nay, rather die by turning away thy pain with the sword'.

(3) The first is a general statement, followed by a particular one, without reference to the time idea; this is manifestly true in 3.294-297,

> Hic incredibilis rerum fama occupat auris,
> Priamiden Helenum Graias regnare per urbes
> coniugio Aeacidae Pyrrhi sceptrisque potitum
> et patrio Andromachen iterum cessisse marito.

'Here an incredible piece of news fills our ears, that Priam's son Helenus is ruling over Greek cities, having received Pyrrhus's wife and scepter, and that Andromache had again passed to a husband of her own nation'. Here the news that Helenus ***is ruling*** Greek cities is of more general import than the fact that Andromache ***has become*** his wife, and naturally is told first. But the "general statement first" is not necessarily attended by hysteron proteron: for example, 1.563-564 me talia cogunt moliri et late finis custode tueri, 'compel me to take such measures and (in particular) to protect my lands with guards'.

(4) The act nearest to the present is set first; in past events, hysteron proteron results. So in 5.678-679 piget incepti lucisque, suosque mutatae agnoscunt, excussaque pectore Iuno est (where the present tense is historical, and not a real present), 'the influence of Juno is shaken from their hearts, they recognize their own, and are ashamed of their act and even that they are alive'. The poet here reverses the order of three acts, proceeding from that nearest to him in time to the most remote.

(5) The two statements are parts of one act, and the free poetic order may reverse them; so perhaps in 1.5-6 dum conderet urbem inferretque deos Latio, 'in his striving to bring his gods to Latium and found a city there'. This principle, however, is not properly to be extended to cover 6.365-366, as one editor does extend it, aut tu mihi terram inice, namque potes, portusque require Velinos, 'or do thou, for thou canst, seek the harbor of Velia and cast the earth upon me', for the going to Velia necessarily precedes the burial and is a separate act, though an essential preliminary.

(6) The two acts are so nearly tautological as to lend themselves to the reverse order without giving offense to our minds on the score of sense. Consequently some editions treat such passages as ***merely*** tautological; so three of the five interpret 3.662 Postquam altos tetigit fluctus et ad aequora venit, 'After he had touched the deep waters and had come to the open sea'. But it is more natural to translate, 'After he had come to the sea and had touched its deep waters'; meaning that he had come to the edge of the waters and had then advanced some distance from the shore: an excellent example of hysteron proteron.

(7) The requirements of the meter doubtless affect the order, especially in lists of single words and in short clauses.

Now of these seven explanations of hysteron proteron all are entirely consistent with its real existence. An explanation of an idiom is not necessarily an alternative for it; for example, 'he came and said' may be expressed in three idioms in Greek: ἥκων ἔλεγεν (Xen. Anab. 2.3.25), 'having come, he said'; ἧκεν . . λέγων · (Anab. 1.2.21), 'he came saying'; ἦλθεν . . καὶ λέγει (Anab. 4.2.17), 'he came and said'.

Yet the ultimate identity of meaning does not interfere with the fact that we have here three distinct idioms. Similarly, the explanations of hysteron proteron are not alternatives for it; in reality they are its necessary basis. A rhetorical figure does not spring into existence full grown, as Athena did from the head of Zeus; it must have a rational background. So it was with the figure under discussion: this inversion of order was, for the reasons given, not uncommon in poetry, and probably struck the poet's fancy, so that he extended it to cases that are only with extreme difficulty, if at all, brought under any of these explanations. It is no sufficient objection to hold that the peculiarity is in the English; the argument is still based on the connections of time and of cause and effect, which are fundamental to all human thought, whether in Latin, or in English, or in any other tongue. And after all, why be reluctant to accept hysteron proteron? It occurs, though not often, in English as well as in Latin; we always speak of thunder and lightning, never of lightning and thunder, and we put on our shoes and stockings, our coat and vest, our hat and coat.

What is the importance of this for the teaching of the Aeneid in the high school? Let me give my own experience. Before I came to realize the extreme frequency of hysteron proteron, there were many passages in the Aeneid that baffled and bewildered me, and it was only by translating the clauses in the reverse order that this feeling was removed—and, let me add, it was entirely removed. If such change of order has been helpful with one, it may be helpful with others; and while it needs care in application, its use should clear up many passages otherwise not clear to the pupils. Often, however, where the connection of the clauses with the preceding or the following renders advisable, or the English idiom permits the original illogical order, it is better not to make the change of order in the translation, since too frequent change will confuse more than it will clarify their thought. For example, we read at 6.194-196

> Este duces o, siqua via est, cursumque per auras
> dirigite in lucos, ubi pinguem dives opacat
> ramus humum.

'Be my guides, if there is any way, and direct your flight through the breezes to the grove where the precious bough shadows the fertile soil'. Yet the logical order is, 'Set out and guide me', not 'Guide me and set out'; but the change in the order makes an awkward sentence in English, because of the relative clause following. To avoid this awkwardness while reversing the order of the main verbs involves making such changes in the structure of the sentence that the loss to the pupil exceeds by far the gain. Again, at 1.90 Intonuere poli, et crebris micat ignibus aether, English idiom does not object to the translation, 'The heavens thundered, and the sky was lighted by repeated lightning flashes', though the logical order is the reverse. Therefore, on account of such passages as these, I feel that frequently, perhaps in the majority of cases, it is inadvisable to make the change of order in teaching, though the teacher should fully appreciate the logical succession of the events and be ready to reverse the order if he sees that the pupils are puzzled by the meaning of the passage in the order in which it stands. Often, too, the end may be gained by devices other than the change of the order; we may translate the second verb by a participle, or may merely omit the 'and', and the incongruity of the thought will disappear. Thus in 2.655, we might translate, 'again I am rushing off into the fight, in the height of my misery longing for death', or, 'Again I am rushing off into the fight; in the height of my misery I long for death'. Yet there will inevitably remain a considerable number of passages that defy any treatment in translation except the reversal of the Latin order[1].

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA. ROLAND G. KENT.

Postscript: In reply to the comment upon this paper at the meeting of the Association, in which "emotional treatment" of the Aeneid was advocated rather than "logical analysis", the writer desires to say that in his opinion the two things are in no wise inconsistent with each other. The teacher who makes a logical analysis of the text will be the one who arrives at a correct understanding of the Latin; the one who does not, may or may not—probably will *not*—understand the Latin with precision. The logician may be a Dryasdust, but he is not necessarily so. The exponent of the emotional treatment will perhaps be interesting, but as a rule will be inaccurate with the Latin. Now neither tiresomeness nor inaccuracy is pardonable in a teacher of the Classics; and an accurate knowledge of the Latin (and *accurate*, according to the grammars, does not admit of degrees of comparison) may be gained with certainty only by a logical analysis of the text, and is the first step to any success in teaching; and it is moreover not a bar to the rousing of the pupils' interest, nor to an "emotional treatment", nor to any other kind of treatment except an incorrect treatment. Therefore I

[1] The passages in the Aeneid I-IV which I desire to list as examples of Hysteron Proteron are the following:

1, 5-6; 18; 43; 54; 66; 90; 97-98; 123; 133-134; 140-141; 145-146; 150; 261-262; 349; 390-391; 397-398; 423-424; 438; 476; 683-684; 688; 697-698; 701-702; 713-714; 738-739.

2, 19-20; 47; 134; 167-168; 223-224; 230-231; 259-260; 280; 289; 353; 358-360; 378; 387-388; 39?-400; 480; 496-497; 547-548; 577-578; 589-590; 604-606; 619; 624-625; 652-653; 654; 655; 748; 749.

3, 51-52; 69-70; 71; 155; 264; 282-283; 289; 295-297; 354-355; 452; 457; 520; 529; 560; 588-589; 597-598; 662.

4, 6-7; 22-23; 101; 153-155; 194; 203; 219; 226; 289; 340-341; 387; 388-389; 390-391; 413-414; 432; 546; 547; 549; 575; 590-591; 612-613; 642.

5, 19-20; 40-41; 57; 92-93; 101; 104-107; 127; 130-131; 151; 215-216; 304; 316; 353-354; 368-369; 379; 402-403; 406; 454; 466; 481; 500-501; 517; 523-524; 598; 618-619; 678-679; 686; 691-692; 726-727; 869.

6, 18-19; 111; 115; 151; 183-184; 194-195; 260; 331; 333; 361; 365-366; 389; 411-412; 424-425; 481; 523-524; 525; 542-543; 545; 559; 565; 567; 635-636; 670-671; 750-751; 782-783; 813-814.

The validity of the contention that these are in reality examples of this figure of speech would appear upon their citation in full with a translation into English of the salient words, but limitations of space unfortunately prevent this.

plead for a "logical analysis" of the text as a foundation for correct teaching, in addition to "emotional treatment" as a foundation for interesting teaching. The latter is often championed; the former is too often neglected. R. G. K.

REVIEW

Homerica: Emendations and Elucidations of the Odyssey. By T. L. Agar. Clarendon Press, Oxford (1908). Pp. XI + 436. 14 shillings.

Mr. Agar's book gives a more or less detailed discussion of some six or seven hundred passages in the Odyssey, ranging from α to ω. Almost every page of the book bears witness to the author's intimate knowledge of Homeric diction and Homeric meter, and to his wide reading; it is indubitably a valuable contribution to the literature dealing with the Homeric poems, whether or not one agrees with Mr. Agar's views.

For the elaborate theories of the destructive critics Mr. Agar has scant respect. He will hear nothing of composite authorship of the great epics, and is as little ready to accept 'modernized' forms in books commonly held to be late, as in those reputed to be the earliest. He is conservative also in the matter of assuming interpolations, and in general is inclined to exhaust the possibilities of exegesis or of emendation before having recourse to the knife.

Mr. Agar's theory of the Homeric dialect is briefly but plainly stated in the preface to his book. "The language of the Homeric poems is Achaean, and fairly represents the speech of the Achaean people". It is not "an artificial poetical medley, Ionic in the main with a liberal admixture of the other Greek dialects". Consistency is therefore to be looked for in matters of language, and where this is not afforded by the traditional text, we may, or rather must, look for corruption. But this corruption has not been brought about by any definite or conscious alteration. It has come about from "the gradual assimilation of antique forms and obsolete words to later Greek usage, and the intrusion of later metrical rules and grammatical canons, and to some extent also of new ideas of what is right and proper". Hence Mr. Agar, although he regards his emendations as more often than not "strictly conservative in effect", handles the traditional text in a very free manner. Hosts of alterations are suggested, some of them more or less convincing, but others, to say the least, extremely unlikely, while not a few seem so rash as to be quite indefensible. In some passages again there is a distinct betterment of the sense, but in others the traditional interpretation is attacked upon grounds which are far from convincing, and a new interpretation is offered which in the judgment of the present writer leaves much to be desired.

Homer has not in Mr. Agar's opinion "suffered from defects of transcription by careless and ignorant scribes", and therefore "palaeographical considerations are not supreme". At the same time he here and there supports an emendation by arguments based upon palaeographic grounds, e. g. on pp. 103, 276, 320, 371.

If we waive the fact that we cannot as yet determine precisely what the speech of the Achaean people was—unless we are content to argue in a circle—the theory held by Mr. Agar is consistent, and is capable of a vigorous presentation. More than that, few will deny that a modernizing process must have taken place. The work of generations of critics from Bentley down has proved this absolutely. But where shall we draw the line? Granting the process, but granting also that we cannot fix its limits, are we to rewrite our Homer, and fling the traditional text to the winds? or are we to content ourselves with eliminating patent 'modernisms', while maintaining a conservative attitude toward the traditional text? Yet even such a method of procedure leads to chaos. What to Mr. Agar is a 'patent modernism' is not so to another. To the reviewer it seems clear that the only safe course for the editor of Homer is to print the traditional text, however unsparingly it may be treated in the commentary, and however convinced the editor may be that back of that text lies an older form which he thinks he can partially restore. One has no right to give as Homer a text which we cannot prove ever to have existed at any time.

Another point should be emphasized. The theory holds that all parts of the poems (even e. g. the last part of ω which Aristarchus rejected) are to be treated as linguistically upon the same basis. One must doubt the justice of this; for even if the expansion theory as a whole be given up, one can hardly deny the Ionian origin of certain parts at least of both Iliad and Odyssey.

In view of the above theory of the dialect of Homer and the text tradition, it is not strange that a very large number of Mr. Agar's proposed emendations are attempts to restore the digamma, to remove hiatus, to clear the text from supposedly later uses of the article and from occurrences of the oblique cases of αὐτός as a mere pronoun of reference.

With regard to the digamma Mr. Agar speaks with no uncertain voice. "It is becoming increasingly probable", he writes in the preface p. ix, "that Bentley after all was right in attributing to it the full force of a consonant". More definitely on p. 82 he repeats, "ἔοικε (ϝέϝοικε) could no more drop its initial ϝ in Homer's day, than λέλυκε could shed its initial λ in the time of Thucydides". The alternative view—that of the 'in-and-out character' of the digamma in Homer—is vivaciously characterized on p. 36: "It is supposed to be present or absent

according to circumstances, as the speaker may decide, like the Irish members in the first Home Rule Bill".

The method followed is a familiar one and scarcely needs illustration. Some of the changes are slight and may commend themselves to many; but here and there one is impressed both by the audacity of the change and by the fact that we lose far more than we gain by it. For instance, it may be true that "it is surely possible that Calypso should here ironically and jealously speak of Penelope as the prize which Odysseus was longing to win"; but one is still far from content to accept ἱμειρόμενός περ ἀρέσθαι σὴν ἄλοχον in place of the traditional ἰδέσθαι (5.209), or to relinquish the νόστιμον ἦμαρ ἰδέσθαι of 3.233. Again, is the desire to restore the digamma sufficient ground for ousting the feminine form ἡδεῖαν from the text in favor of ἡδύν (8.64)? Even where this excuse is lacking Mr. Agar writes, on 3.130, "the bastard form αἰπήν should be removed in favor of αἰπύν ". Shall we then deny that πολλήν is a legitimate form because the nominative πολύς is established? In 5.62 Mr. Agar himself seems to feel that the text suffers by his proposed change.

(To be Concluded)

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, California. A. T. MURRAY.

The Fortieth Annual Meeting of the American Philological Association and the Thirtieth Annual Meeting of the Archaeological Institute of America will be held at Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, on December 28 to 31.

Certain portions of the programme deserve special mention. On Tuesday evening, at 8 o'clock, there will be an address by Professor B. L. Gildersleeve, President of the American Philological Association. At the close of this session the classical staff of the Johns Hopkins University will receive, informally, the visiting members of the Philological Association and the Institute at the Johns Hopkins Club. On Wednesday, at 1, the Johns Hopkins University will entertain the visiting members of the two Associations at luncheon in the Gymnasium. On Thursday evening there will be a dinner at 7.30, in the Hotel Belvedere, on the occasion of the Fortieth Anniversary of the Philological Association and the Thirtieth of the Institute. Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte will preside and other gentlemen of national prominence are expected to be present.

A special rate to Baltimore and return of one fare and three-fifths on the certificate plan has been granted by all railroads in the territory north of Washington and Cincinnati, and east of St. Louis, Chicago, and Fort William. To make this rate operative at all one hundred certificates must be presented to the representative of the railroads at the meeting. Every one who attends the meeting is therefore urgently requested to secure a certificate; if such certificate is not particularly helpful to himself it may aid others by contributing to the necessary total of 100. Those who reside outside the limits within which the rate applies are urged to purchase tickets only to the first station from which the rate will apply and to procure a certificate from that point.

Copies of the programme, information concerning hotels, etc., may be got from Professor Harry L. Wilson, Johns Hopkins University. Those who desire to attend the luncheon and the dinner, or either, are also requested to write at once to Professor Wilson. The price of the tickets for the dinner has been set at three dollars.

Since this occasion promises to be one long to be remembered by all privileged to be present, THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY urges its readers to be present, if possible. Hotel rates on the European plan have been secured from one hotel at from $1 per day upward, from three at $1.50 and upwards, and from two at $2 and upwards. Ladies unescorted will find the Shirley Hotel (Miss Robinson, 205 West Madison Street) suitable; the rate there is $2.50 per day, on the American plan.

The New York State Teachers Classical Association will meet in the Central High School, Syracuse, on Tuesday, December 28, at 9 and at 3. The programme is as follows:

In the morning, President's Address, Professor Frank Smalley, Syracuse University; The Value of the Classics, an Outsider's View, Professor W. W. Comfort, Cornell University; A Vergil Symposium: (a) Vergil, His Land and People, Professor F. A. Gallup, Albany, (b) The Time Element in the Aeneid, Miss Clara Blanche Knapp, Syracuse; The Quickening of Latin, Professor H. L. Cleasby, Syracuse University; Word-Order and Emphasis in Latin, Professor John Greene, Colgate University.

At the afternoon session an address will be delivered by Professor Harry Thurston Peck (subject, The Vitality of Latin).

THE NEW YORK LATIN CLUB, JAN. 8, 1910

The next meeting of the New York Latin Club will be held at the Hotel Marlborough, Broadway and 36th Street, on Saturday, January 8, 1910, at 12 o'clock noon.

The principal speaker will be Professor Paul Shorey, of the University of Chicago, whose subject is The Making of a Litterateur.

At the meeting in November the attendance was seventy-seven, the largest in recent years, and there should certainly be a hundred people present to hear Professor Shorey. A special effort will be made to have the luncheon begin on time, twelve o'clock sharp, so that other engagements may not prevent one from staying to hear the address.

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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Under the title Essays of Poetry and Poets Ancient and Modern, Vice-Chancellor Warren of Oxford has reprinted a series of valuable essays that have appeared at various times since 1895 in English periodicals. Several of these essays are of interest to us, particularly those on Sophocles and the Greek Genius, The Art of Translation, Vergil and Tennyson, and Ancient and Modern Classics as Instruments of Education.

The essay on The Art of Translation appeared in The Quarterly Review in 1895. Since that time Cauer's Die Kunst des Übersetzens and Tolman's Art of Translating have appeared, both of which books aim to give practical suggestions to would-be translators. This article of Chancellor Warren, however, discusses the matter in a very broad way, more from the point of view of literary criticism than that of practical suggestion. Much that he says is old, being drawn from other critics, such as Dryden, Matthew Arnold, etc., but he has put the material together in a very interesting fashion and the article is illuminating for those who have heard translations so often either extravagantly praised or extravagantly vilified. For us who have to deal with practical translation in the school-room his concluding paragraphs will be of great comfort.

But translation has had another very important influence, one never perhaps more important than at the present, one still likely to increase—namely in education. That translation is one of the best, perhaps the best, of literary exercises, whether it comes as the self-imposed discipline of the young writer or the set task of the school-boy, is beyond a doubt. In the teaching of the Classics, as they are called, in this country, nothing has been more striking than the growth in importance of written translation. Whereas original composition, in Latin especially, the original copy of verse or the Latin essay—"Latin writing", as it was significantly called—was at the beginning of the century the prevailing exercise and translation the exception, now the latter is the rule, the former a mere survival. "Translation is the death of understanding". That may be true for the last stage and for the finished scholar; but that translation is the beginning, the quickening of understanding, is the universal belief on which the modern system of education is based. In Germany the revised Prussian code gave it a larger place than before. Both in Germany and among ourselves it has been recognised that real translation, literary translation, not mere literal word-for-word construing, is what is truly educational. At the present moment, as applied to Latin and Greek, it seems to have reached the highest possible pitch, and there can be little doubt that it is the secret of the efficiency as an educational method of the so-called classical training. One of the reasons why the same mental training is not attained through the modern languages is that the difficulty of translation from them is necessarily less; the other, that the experiment has never been tried in the same way. If the same effect or anything like what has been attained through Latin and Greek is to be attained through French and German, the present system of translation must be greatly expanded. It is not enough to make the student translate ordinary colourless exercises or letters commercial or otherwise in English into the same in French or German. He must be made to distinguish, to appreciate, and to copy the various styles, generic and individual—the style of the orator, the historian, the philosopher, the poet, of Bossuet, or Vergniaud, of Buffon or Béranger, of Goethe or Heine, of Kant or Von Ranke, of Machiavelli or Leopardi.

Then, and only then, will the student trained in modern languages learn the gamut of these languages and his own. G. L.

Omnibus et singulis ad quos praesentes hae litterae pervenerint editores COMMENTARII HEBDOMADALIS CLASSICI salutem plurimam dicunt. Lectoribus lucubratiuncularum nostrarum, Gelliano ut verbo utamur, ferias speramus quae modo ob Christum natum actae sunt gaudiis laetitiisquę et multis et variis repletas differtasque esse precamurque ut novus annus in quem tam nuper iniimus eis omnibus ad unum unamque bonus, felix, fortunatus faustusque sit. Tota mente viribusque semper enisi sumus ut quae in commentariis nostris essent impressa ea omnia lectoribus nostris re vera auxilio essent rebusque classicis vel Graecis vel Latinis opitularentur; in futurum autem promittimus atque in nos recipimus etiam maiore studio nos conaturos esse ut singulos in annos Commentarii nostri meliores sint. Lectores oramus obsecramusque ut quantum possint ipsi vicissim nobis auxilio sint rebus dignis scribendis ad nosque mittendis quae iterum iterumque legantur, immo vero κτήματα ἐσ ἀεὶ sint. C. K.

The Executive Committee of The Cla sical Association of the Atlantic States has accepted with great pleasure the cordial invitation of the Heads of Departments of Greek and Latin of the College of the City of New York, warmly seconded by the President of the College, to hold its fourth annual meeting at that College. The dates fixed are Friday and Saturday, April 22-23 next.

THE PLACE OF THE READER IN SECOND YEAR LATIN[1]

A Reader in Beginning Latin can be of value only if it increases interest in the language as a living thing, serves as a kind of laboratory exercise on forms and syntax learned in the beginning book, and helps the student in the difficult art of learning to read. Latin, despite our modern efforts to make it alive, is still indisputably a dead language, and often figures before the student's eye as a difficult picture puzzle involving time and toil but yielding no beauty in itself and slight reward save to a sense of pleased and flattered ingenuity. Our method of teaching it in detached and variously shaped fragments adds somewhat to this effect; in the first year's work disastrous weariness sometimes results from a succession of monotonous disconnected sentences tagged with the case and mood they advertise. For the first half year the novelty of the strange language, the victory over inflectional endings, the joy of recognizing English derivatives will hold the student's attention, but, after that, teachers most fertile in resources often find that the interest flags, and that even if there is no moaning over the unending uses of the ablative, minds grow restless and inquire what Latin is for anyway, and whether it is concerned only with wars and javelins and camps. To be able at this stage to produce the laboratory manual, to show *ad hoc litus* when something other than the colorless ship reaches the shore, and a *magnum flumen* that has some interest outside of the gender of the adjective seems to restore the student's confidence in the language. In fact language conforms once more to the dictionary definition, 'the expression of ideas'; the agreements and tenses appear in places where they seem at home even though unaccompanied by red ink guide lines. The quandary of the boy in his first few days of Latin who remarked, "The cases I can understand. The accusative comes in handy, but what is the use of the second conjugation", begins to disappear.

To arouse such interest the subject-matter should have some inherent value. Intelligent boys of eight revolt from The History of the Robins, and from similar books written in words of one syllable, because their powers of comprehension far out-rank their ability to read. Very much the same situation confronts the teacher when boys of twelve begin to read Latin. For oral work conversation upon life about them, *Surge, o mi discipule, Hodie discipulos meos non culpabo,* does more good by arousing interest than harm by variation from classic idiom or from Professor Lodge's vocabulary, but these little pleasantries pall on the intelligent boy if continued for half a recitation. It may be very well in England, where boys probably cry out from the cradle in the classic tongues, to read in Latin about the lunch one's aunt prepared for the picnic, or the cocoanuts that hungry Robinson Crusoe found floating in to the shore, but our pupils who begin Latin at eleven and twelve must be given different pabulum. The occupation of Britain by Caesar seems a subject sufficiently learned, and gives opportunity for many clever imitations of Caesar's style, but tennis balls become strangely mixed with the Roman coins that the boys in Pro Patria discover and Quantopere nos bacae rubrae et nigrae delectaverunt, Nonne prandio satiati eritis? Sed cum me altero pomo recreavero paratus ero do not exactly recall the Gallic campaigns, while *Nihil habuimus respondere* may for other reasons have a non-Caesarian ring. If we are to defend Gallinae denariis viginti constant, duodecim ova triginta denariis it must be for the value of teaching numerals so early, rather than from interest in the price of eggs during the Boer war.

This charge of infantile subject-matter can hardly be made in reference to the curious attempt to revive Joseph Hall's Mundus Alter et Idem, written in the year 1600 as a reader for boys about to take up Caesar. Satire is not the form of literature best suited to children of twelve. This is not a boy's book despite the delightful reading we might find in these days of Christian Science and suffragettes in such passages as "If any one among their people become ill, he weeps enough to get well or die. They stubbornly refuse all drugs, only at death allowing themselves to be anointed with oil by their *morosophi*", or again, "You could hardly believe how everything shines there in the houses where, strange as it may seem, only men do the washing, sweeping, and baking. I saw nothing soiled there but the clothing of the men, which certainly was extraordinarily dirty, showing that they neglect themselves, no less than they were neglected by their wives". At best this interesting subject-matter is hardly ideal preparation for reading Caesar. Even in England there is said to be a demand for books that will be a middle ground between puerility and satire, and deal with classical subjects in simple Latin.

Vocabulary is closely allied with subject-matter and would need no separate treatment if we were not convinced of the importance of making our students masters of the words most common in the Latin read in our schools. On this test of vocabulary most of the Readers are found wanting, but wanting in the sense that they abound in words that the Romans of Caesar's day might not have recognized. Concrete illustration is hardly needful to show that the story of Robinson Crusoe cannot be written in the vocabulary of Caesar's Gallic War. *Stega, racemus, surculus, spatha, tudicula, albicare, assare, forfices, cocossae, umbella,* and *pera* would

[1] This paper was read at the meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States, at Haverford, Pa., April 23, 1909.

hardly be hailed as members of the famous 2000. The Mundus Alter et Idem, though less under the constraint of stern necessity than Robinson Crusoe, gives way as might be expected to the imagination, and strange phantoms from unfamiliar worlds glide in and out of the pages. *Incrassare, garriendum, patagiatus, doliolum,* strange compounds and diminutives like *paludinosus* and *pomariolum,* appear along with German and Greek transliterations. This sixteenth century book was the output of a keen fun-loving mind, not the labored book-making of an elementary Latin teacher.

Reference has already been made to the composite character of the vocabulary of Ora Maritima, and Pro Patria. Two exercises given for translation into Latin and based closely on the text of Pro Patria may show some of the faults and virtues in these features of the book.

Our commander-in-chief had sent out a body of horsemen in order that Kimberly might be saved. The inhabitants had endured the siege so long that food was very dear. But they had endured want most bravely in order that the name of Kimberly might be great and famous. On December 10th a British army was only twenty miles away from the town so that the inhabitants were able to see the balloon.

Among the very beautiful Roman villas whose foundations we see at the present day in Britain, was the villa which was situated in the Isle of Wight. This villa has three parts. In the part which looks to the West you see a vestibule, a hall and a dining-room and kitchen. The vestibule and the hall have tessellated pavements. The cubes of the hall are red and white and blue and black.

While the words in some of these English Readers, such as balloons, bags and oysters, are not the most essential for preparation for Caesar, the presence of a few less common words need not condemn a book otherwise excellent. Ritchie's Fabulae Faciles, which in Mr. Kirtland's American edition has stood the test of some seven years, is a case in point. *Arca, cubicula, talaria* and *speculum* necessary for the stories of Perseus and Hercules are not perhaps essential for the college examinations, but a comparison of the vocabulary of the first fifteen pages reveals only about 80 words not found in Professor Lodge's 2000. Among these are such obvious words as *centaurus, dormire, oraculum, exclamo, victima, infelix,* several simple compounds of very common verbs and only a few words like *laqueus* and *arca* that are occasioned by the subject-matter itself. Mr. Wyckham, in his commendation of the Fabulae, said:

The stories can be told without starting the beginner on the wrong track by a barbarous mixture of ancient and modern ideas. The book combines very skilfully the interest of a continuous story with the gradual and progressive introduction of constructions and idioms. These seem to be introduced at the right moment and to be played upon long enough to make them thoroughly familiar.

Thus we come at length to the real touch-stone of the matter. Vocabularies may not run so far afield, subject-matter may hold the student's attention, but if the made Latin does not help him apply his knowledge of forms to the expression of ideas, if it does not lead him by gentle stages from the things that he does know to the things that he can know and must learn, if it does not, by giving him familiarity with Latin forms and constructions, supply a momentum that will take him through Caesar more rapidly, the gain from the Reader is not worth the risks involved. When an intelligent boy looking up from his Fabula exclaims with excitement, "We have a new kind of subjunctive in to-day's lesson", more than half the battle has been won. That simple statement means that he has a well arranged catalogue of his few subjunctives in his mind, that he is not one of the picture puzzle boys, but uses his reason on a subject that he has come to regard as reasonable, and governed by laws as intelligible and eternal as the laws by which he works out his original propositions in geometry. To accomplish such a result in the pupil's mind the Reader should include only a few definite things which have been gradually introduced and often repeated; it should emphasize all matters of agreement, especially of adjectives, relative pronouns and participles, and should confine itself to the most necessary constructions, the simplest use of the subjunctive of purpose and result, of the accusative and infinitive and the indirect question.

Upon this basis the Mundus Alter et Idem must regretfully be dropped from the list of available Readers. As a bit of private reading for an ambitious, enthusiastic boy well through his Caesar, it might prove a diverting task, but in the ordinary course of our American schools there can be no room for it. Although the paragraphs are not complex there is no progress in the syntax.

Many would be glad of a book like Goffeaux's translation of Robinson Crusoe into which we could turn our boys loose and see if they were interested enough to read Latin. The fact that they cared for the story and read ahead would be a good omen for their progress. We should not even be much grieved at their seeing and forgetting strange words like *antlia, ruga,* and *corbis;* they would probably recover even from the effects of such Latin as *inter somniandum, arboris a fulmine disjectae,* but when within the first four pages we find *quippe qui* and the subjunctive, several uses of the gerundive, a condition attracted into the subjunctive, the impersonal *miseret* and several uses of causal clauses, we are reminded that difficulties of periodic structure and vocabulary are not the only stumbling blocks in Latin, and that it is the path of syntax that needs most to be smoothed. Even Mr. Sonnenschein in Ora Maritima seems to feel it more dangerous to introduce a second conjugation verb than to give at an early stage

necesse est, the ablative absolute, the perfect passive participle and several uses of the gerundive. Simplicity of syntax however and definite progression in difficulty Mr. Sonnenschein has in the main attained. Many chapters moreover are classical in vocabulary, subject-matter and syntax, but some forms and subjects are so long delayed as to hinder progress unnecessarily and even to give the student wrong ideas of the language. The postponement of the second conjugation and the relative pronoun until the Second Reader is open to criticism. We have in consequence such words as *bellabat, rebellaverunt,* and *propulsaverunt* and the forms of the perfect of the first conjugation become so fixed in the student's mind that the third conjugation perfect, when finally reached, seems mysterious, and becomes a real difficulty. What may, with due attention to tense signs and personal endings, be taught with advantage for all conjugations in one recitation, becomes a difficulty that weeks of drill can not wholly surmount. Anything so vital as the use of the relative should hardly be delayed until the twentieth page of the Second Reader. Not only may the relative be used with the indicative, but most Latin students need to be impressed with the fact that it often must be. Naught but good could therefore come from its early introduction.

I have lingered over these detailed constructions because it is my conviction that agreement as to the essentials of syntax to be taught in first year Latin is one of the most crying needs of our teaching at present. The effort of ambitious young teachers to have students soon ready for Caesar leads to a cramming with constructions sure to result in intellectual indigestion. The complacency of book-makers in thinking that any construction may appear in a first year book provided that it is explained in parenthesis brings about equal complacency on the part of the student in passing over any construction of case or mood, caring naught as to the reason for it, provided that he can come within a few miles of the meaning; still more, I venture to think, the tyranny of publishers has discouraged even the sanest minded of our writers of elementary books from putting in only what they think essential. As one of our best teachers recently said, "We try to teach in first year composition, what, if we really taught it, would prepare amply for the college examinations in elementary composition".

Of the English Readers, Hall's Mundus Alter et Idem and Barnett's Robinson Crusoe are lacking in any systematic progress in the difficulties of Latin syntax, and go too far afield in subject-matter to yield a suitable vocabulary. Mr. Sonnenschein's books are weak in vocabulary, childish in subject-matter, and, for schools with only a four year course, sure to detain the pupil too long in his study of forms to insure his reaching the goal in the end. For American schools the ideal reader may not yet have been written but for the present we can be thankful for anything so good as Mr. Kirtland's edition of Ritchie's Fabulae Faciles. Here the syntax is treated with consummate skill, the vocabulary and idioms are closely imitated from Caesar, and the subject-matter, though a little too familiar to students well trained in mythology, is at least classical in tone. The road may perhaps be smoothed a little too much for the bright boy, but the watchful teacher can usually administer enough grammar and prose composition to keep the Latin work from being all holiday.

The length of the Latin course in the well known English schools, the traditions in favor of emphasis on idiom, on memorizing phrases that lend themselves to imitative writing, in lieu of using Latin prose as a help to reading Latin intelligently, precludes any likelihood of their readers exactly fitting our needs. Yet the London Board of Education in a Circular (No. 584, October 10, 1907) issued for teachers of secondary schools, recommends a reader of precisely the character we have been advocating, specifying that the subject-matter be classical, the syntax carefully graduated, but differing in assigning this work to the second of a four years' course, and in including simple narratives in verse.

The large number of Readers suitable for later years of the course now issuing from the English press sets before us anew the problem of substitutes for Caesar, a subject that seemed too large for this discussion. The mere enumeration of the authors represented in these selections, Livy, Tibullus, Propertius, Ovid, Vergil and Horace shows us that there are other ways of teaching Latin than our own. To all these books one element is common, the desire to make the Latin interesting, to try, as one editor says in his preface, to prevent the fate that befalls all too many students "who after construing one or two books of Caesar, leave school with a deep-rooted hatred of the language". For the children in English schools the Illustrated Reading Book written by Mr. Healley (Longmans) is evidently designed. Even Vergil and Catullus appear in diluted form and the humorous illustrations would tempt a very dullard. One may however well question the wisdom of teaching *quid mea refert* in the first few months of Latin, the pedagogical effect of *suam ipsam,* translated by 'its mistress', beneath the engaging portrait of Lesbia and the sparrow, or the desirability from a grammatical standpoint of *Hostium clamore territus asino suadebat fugere.*

In Mr. Lowe's Scenes from the Life of Hannibal there is definite progress in syntax through the thirty pages and the subject-matter is interesting. The predominance of words peculiar to Livy is perhaps the great weakness of the book.

If we American teachers are once freed from the

tyranny of examinations on large amounts of prepared text, and can have our students tested more on their power to read Latin, we may wish to look at such books as Stone's Gotham and Other Stories, and the New Latin Delectus by Thomas and Doughty of Hackney Downs School. We may perhaps question the inherent value as literature of translations of Tennyson, Calverly and Hench into Latin verse, and the wisdom of giving forty pages of poetry to twenty of very much simplified Livy, yet there is something suggestive in both books. The twelve pages of prose Latin at the beginning of the New Delectus are a good experiment in simplified Latin. The titles, The Founding of Rome, The Battle of Lake Regillus, The Kings of Rome, and the references to the passages in Livy from which they are taken give guarantee as to the interest of their subject-matter, and the character of the Latin and the vocabulary.

To serve as a sign-post warning against Readers that might never be seen is scarcely justification for a paper of this length, to encourage indiscriminate making of many Beginners' Latin Books, of which there is already no end, still less. If, however, one could arouse any discussion as to what was essential and desirable in first year work, encourage any purpose on the part of makers and users of first year manuals to cover less ground and that more thoroughly, to secure by what is read, written and recited a knowledge of forms and elementary syntax that would remain as a permanent possession, if one could help make Latin a study to be desired, because it was interesting, intelligible and stimulating, then it would be time to cry out as we try once more to keep up in the losing race of the classicist, *Nunc nunc insurgite remis, Hectorei socii.*

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REVIEW OF AGAR'S HOMERICA

(Concluded from page 79)

Homerica: Emendations and Elucidations of the Odyssey. By T. L. Agar. Clarendon Press, Oxford (1908). Pp. XI + 436. 14 shillings.

Hiatus licitus is in particular a bête noir to Mr. Agar. He believes, with Pseud.-Plut., quoted in the preface p. x, that τὰ δὲ 'Ομήρου ἔπη τὸ τελειότατον ἔχει μέτρον, and he labors incessantly to remove this supposed blemish from the text of the poems. So in 1.383 προσέφη must give place to προσέειπ'; in 9.215 εὖ εἰδότα (a thoroughly Homeric phrase) is discarded in favor of εἰρυμένον; in 19.81 γύναι is ousted from the text; and, to cite but one more passage, 6.33 ἐντύνεαι, ἐπεὶ οὔ τοι ἔτι δὴν παρθένος ἔσσεαι, after passing through Mr. Agar's hands becomes ἐντύνῃ' ἐπεὶ οὔ τοι ἔτι δὴν ἔσσεαι ἀδμής.

This process of substituting a different word for the one found in the text is carried to extremes. προσέειπ' for προσέφη is a mild instance. What shall we say to the following list, selected at random from the very large number of instances offered by Mr. Agar's pages?

4.244 ἱμάσσας for δαμάσσας; 8.262 σεύοντο for ἵσταντο; 8.444 φηλήσεται for δηλήσεται; 10.79 ἀάτῃ for ματίῃ; 10.415 ἵκοντο for ἔχυντο; 13.379 διομένη for ὀδυρομένη; 24.465 'Αλιθέρσῃ for Εὐπείθει.

To be sure the Homeric vocabularv is thus enriched by φηλέω 8.444, as by ἐτάζω 18.160, 19.44; but that does not daunt Mr. Agar. He does not hesitate to enrich the Greek language by reading οὐδ' ἀπότιτα for οὐδέ ποτ' ἶσα in 2.203 (though commenting on Fick's "adventurous novelty, the noun, if it be a noun, ἀποτεῖσα"). So, too, we have a new noun ἐλκή inserted in 18.10; and the ἔγχεά τ' ὀξυόεντα of 19.33 becomes δοῦρά τε φοξόεντα, and we have the note, "Cone-shaped seems to be the meaning, and would be an appropriate description of the metal point of a spear". And the basis for this view is afforded by poor Thersites—who φοξὸς ἔην κεφαλήν! After reading such passages one has almost to rub one's eyes to be sure that the words on p. 51 really mean what they say, "But as long as the traditional verb can be understood in the sense suggested it has the prior claim".

Mr. Agar's attack upon the 'Attic' article in Homer is vigorous and sustained, though here again his proposed changes exhibit all degrees of likelihood and unlikelihood. It is easy to get rid of "the only passage in the Odyssey in which ὄνειρος is accommodated or encumbered with the article" (19.535): the mere insertion of δή suffices; but of νῆσος (see note on 5.55) we have six instances, and some of these seem inclined to yield less readily to treatment. True occurrence with the article is limited to the accusative singular; but, significant as that fact appears to Mr. Agar, it is not an isolated one. Most elaborate is Mr. Agar's attack upon the article with ξεῖνος (17.10, 14, pp. 286-291). Here he has no less than thirty-three cases to emend, but he girds himself for the task nothing daunted, and at the end of his discussion reaches the conclusion that "it is idle and futile to treat ὁ ξεῖνος and τὸν ξεῖνον as congenital with the Odyssey". In the case of μοχλός the article is expunged by what is virtually merely a different division of the letters, so that τάχ' ὁ μοχλὸς becomes τάχα μοχλὸς (9.378), just as in 12.165 ἕκαστα λέγων is changed to ἕκαστ' ἀλέγων, and ὁ μολοβρὸς to ὁμολοβρὸς in 18.26, with the note, "The traditional and generally accepted explanation, 'glutton', γαστρίμαργος, could hardly be better rendered in detail than by a compound containing ὠμός, ὅλος and √βορ".

We come now to the problem of the oblique cases of αὐτὸς used as a mere pronoun of reference. Mr.

Agar emends between forty and fifty such occurrences, sometimes by substituting the ordinary pronoun, even when this requires the rewriting of the verse (2.128; 11.26; 19.235); sometimes by simply dividing the word (οὐ τοῖσιν, 1.143); sometimes by substituting αὔτως (as 14.135; 17.367) or οὕτω (2.33; 5.190), or some other word, it matters not what one, of the same metrical value (ἄλλην 9.153; ἄντην, 10.112; ἄνδρας, 13.386). Some of these strike one as daring in the extreme; but Mr. Agar will have uniformity at all hazards.

It is but natural that a reviewer should call attention primarily to those features of the book which seem of questionable value, and hence full justice is not done to the author's sound scholarship and remarkable acumen. There are not lacking instances, too, in which it is not acumen and scholarship so much as sound common sense that most impresses one. Reference may be made to the discussion of 9.205 ff., whether or not one accepts Mr. Agar's conclusions; to the amusing illustration of the lack of common sense shown by the Dutch editors in the matter of the rudder (on 5.255); to 13.168 even if the alteration proposed be regarded as unnecessary; and to the frequent and thorough discussions of the meaning of Homeric words. Further, while the views put forth e. g. in the notes on 20.209, 21.402, 24.231, seem quite indefensible, the reviewer finds much to approve of in the interpretations suggested for 4.684; 8.121; 10.112 f.; 11.584; 16.23; 21.26.

Mr. Agar's style is vivacious, but often lacks dignity. It is enlivened by frequent quotations ranging from Horace and Shakespeare to Lewis Carroll, but the writer can hardly free himself from the charge of affectation in passages like the following: "Here the MSS. without exception, so far as I am aware, present θέσφατος; but 'twould be a topsy-turvy world, my masters, if the combined evidence of eight unquestioned passages were insufficient to overrule a nonsensical unanimity in one" (p. 109); "One instance generally hath a fellow to keep it in countenance" (p. 248).

The book is admirably printed. In addition to the misprints noted in the errata I have observed the following: an omitted accent on χρηματ', p. 25, line 5 from the top; 421 for 422, p. 42, line 16 from bottom; 531 for 530, p. 153, line 8 from bottom; and on the same page two lines further down 505 for 504; 'man' for 'men', p. 159, line 17 from top; 319 for 320, p. 250, line 9 from bottom; 'Eumelus' for 'Eumaeus', p. 304, line 19 from bottom; and a couple of instances of words run together, p. 72, last line but one, and p. 363, line 19 from bottom.

The index to the book, while serviceable, is neither complete nor entirely accurate. A. T. MURRAY.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, California.

Latin Prose Exercises. By Elizabeth McJ. Tyng. New York: Longmans, Green and Co. (1909).

The chief characteristics of this book are the admirable ones of directness and simplicity; there is a manifest endeavor to avoid the slightest waste of time or energy. The grammatical constructions are introduced in a helpful order; the main points to be noted about each are stated clearly and concisely, and, further, in each lesson there is plenty of drill upon constructions previously studied, so that the student as he advances to conquer new lands still retains his sovereignty over the old. The vocabularies accompanying each lesson are made up of well-chosen words, and the vowel quantities are indicated. Occasionally graphic illustrations are employed to make the topics under consideration more comprehensible to the immature mind. The value of the book may be enhanced by using it in the judicious manner outlined by the author in her preface. Moreover, she states that she has been able to cover the entire manual and read four books of Caesar in a year with recitation periods of only thirty-five minutes in length. Besides a table of contents, an introduction which contains some elementary but not unnecessary admonitions, the book contains a useful summary of constructions, and a catalogue of words governing special constructions. The book contains work for the second year only.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY. HAROLD L. CLEASBY.

High School Course in Latin Composition. By Charles McCoy Baker and Alexander James Inglis. New York: The Macmillan Company (1909). Pp. xiii + 464.

This well-filled book includes all the prose work of the last three years of preparatory Latin. Of its four divisions the first, entitled Elements of Syntax, covers eighty-nine pages, and is practically a brief grammar, or rather the syntactical half of a grammar. The rules are clearly and simply put, and the statement of the more difficult usages is often especially happy. There are many lists of words which are followed by special constructions, and some very helpful tables, e. g. the Imperative Constructions (241); Ways of Expressing Purpose (257); Conditions in Indirect Discourse (355); Correlated Conjunctions (399); Verbs followed by Substantive Purpose Clauses (262); Perfect Tenses equivalent to Presents (209); and Constructions after Verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing (72), although many of us may prefer Gildersleeve's "This then is not the only way".

The second division of the book, called Part I, is made up of twenty-eight lessons; each lesson consists of a few grammatical references for written translation, twelve of which are to be prepared outside of class and the rest to be written during the recitation period, and finally ten sentences for oral translation.

The titles of the first six lessons show to some extent the nature of the exercises: Tenses of the Indicative; Apposition—Predicate Nouns and Adjectives—Verbs of Naming, Choosing, etc.; The Ablative Case—Means or Instrument—Agent—Specification — Accompaniment; Indirect Object — Place to Which — Place Where — Relative; Expressions of Place—Locative Case; Ablative and Genitive of Description—Vocative Case. The well-constructed sentences illustrate fully the grammatical principles of each lesson. Part I is for second year students and the vocabulary and syntax are Caesarian; Part II is for third year work and is based on Cicero's orations. In Part III, designed for seniors in preparatory schools, there are twenty-four lessons much like those of Parts I and II, except that paragraphs of connected prose are introduced; the last sixteen lessons are entirely devoted to connected discourse. In all three Parts the grammatical references at the beginning of each lesson are to the sections of Elements of Syntax, but at the end of each part the corresponding references to Gildersleeve and Lodge, Allen and Greenough, Bennett, and Harkness are supplied. An English-Latin Vocabulary closes the book.

This manual is both condensed and complete; the high-school graduate who has mastered it from cover to cover will find few compeers in the freshman class of any of our colleges.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY. HAROLD L. CLEASBY.

THE JULIAN STAR

When Halley's Comet was still several leagues away in the depths of the firmament, I had rather an amusing adventure in anticipation of its coming, the rehearsal of which may be both interesting and instructive to my fellows in the Classics.

I had been invited to attend an 'at home' by the Latin instructor in our local High School and to address the class in whose honor the occasion had been planned. Happening to note that the date assigned was the eve of the March Ides, the suggestion readily came to my mind to take advantage of the coincidence and discuss the assassination of Caesar. His deification finally became my appointed theme, with the *Iulium sidus* (Hor. Carm. 1,12.47) as the nucleus of my address. Only an hour or so previous to my coming before the assembled company, I was overjoyed to stumble upon what was to me a most astounding discovery. Armed with it, I expected to take my audience by storm.

In Duruy's History of Rome, Volume 3, Section 2, p. 559, foot-note 2, may be found this comment upon the 'hairy star' that played such an important part in the apotheosis of Caesar: *"The comet which appeared at that time was Halley's"*. Even that early, although it was March of 1904, public interest was becoming alert over the expected reappearance of the great comet in 1910, so that the above statement was, to say the least, decidedly attractive. The time to give my address was almost upon me, and I had not the slightest hesitation in accepting the dictum of Professor Mahaffy, who, as the English editor of Duruy's History, I knew was responsible for the note. My peroration was a magnificent effort, something to this effect: "And so, if we are spared to live until 1910, we shall have the pleasure of looking again upon the blazing emblem that is the soul of our great Julius, metamorphosed to the realm where it surely belongs, a seat above the greatest of Rome's gods".

It was not until almost a year after those March Ides of 1904 that I found, to my horror, that, without the leadership of M. Jules Verne, I had been veritably 'Off on a Comet'. In February of 1905, I again took up the theme in a more elaborate vein, recasting it to present before the Faculty Colloquium of the University of Oregon. Somehow, a doubt had crept into my conscience about that brilliant finale of my former address—perhaps because, in all the popular accounts of the several appearances of the Comet and of the historic events with which it was connected, no mention had elsewhere been made of so singular an event as the assassination of Caesar. I therefore began a systematic study from an astronomical standpoint and was shocked to learn how far astray I had been unwittingly led. Unlike Galileo, I am only too anxious to publish my recantation, in the hope that others may avoid digging the same pit for themselves and pulling their followers therein after them. A glance at the table of its reappearances, or, if that is not available, a simple mathematical process, will quickly prove the futility of identifying Halley's Comet with the 'Iulium sidus', for the nearest appearance to the date in question was probably in 11 B. C.—thirty-three years after the assassination and the celebration of Octavian's games, when the comet is distinctly said to have appeared.

This curious but unfortunate error should be given publicity, for the popularity and widely accepted erudition of the editor of Duruy's history are quite apt to disseminate a very gross misconception, to which my own experience bears witness.

UNIVERSITY OF OREGON. FREDERIC STANLEY DUNN.

At the recent Thanksgiving entertainment in The Adirondack Florida School at Rainbow Lake, New York, the Electra of Euripides was presented in an abridged form by the older boys of the school. The excellent translation by Gilbert Murray was used. An introduction was given by Dr. Franklin Carter, Ex-President of Williams College, who explained briefly the style and presentation of Greek plays and the story of Electra. The attempt to interest an audience in a secondary school in a Greek play proved successful in this instance and should encourage other schools to try similar plays for at least a part of their entertainment program. L. H. SOMERS, Head Master.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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The Joint Meeting of the American Philological Association and the American Archaeological Institute, held at Baltimore, December 28-31 last, was in many ways most interesting and successful. The attendance was larger than I have seen at any other strictly classical gathering.

Two things stand out prominently in one's recollections of this meeting. One was the address made by Professor Gildersleeve, President of the Philological Association. Instead of treating some theme with deadening soberness Professor Gildersleeve explained, in his best 'Brief Mention' manner, how he had considered theme after theme for his address, only to cast it aside. The address scintillated with wit and humor; there was many a sly dig at the vagaries of classical scholarship and research, allusions which in some instances could have been intelligible only to those who had lived and wrought for years in Classics and had kept in close touch with the manifold activities of classical scholarship here and abroad. The spirit of the address throughout, however, was kindly, and more than one valuable lesson was to be learned from the speaker's pleasantries. Toward the close Professor Gildersleeve became wholly serious and pointed out that in the forty years covered by the life of the American Philological Association American scholarship had been born and had come to maturity and had won recognition abroad, even in Germany. Such a statement will go far to offset the adverse judgment passed on American scholarship by Professor Gudeman in his review of the second and third volumes of Sandys History of Classical Scholarship, published in The Classical Review (1909).

The other event that one remembers especially is the dinner held to commemorate the fortieth anniversary of the Philological Association and the thirtieth of the Institute. Over 200 persons were present. The speeches were on the whole good, especially one by Professor Maurice Bloomfield of Johns Hopkins University, on the relation of philology and archaeology to each other. Archaeology, he pointed out, repeatedly has its dramatic moments; seldom, if ever, can any single thing with which philology proper has to do vie in dramatic interest with the discovery of striking remains, the finding of a great array of tablets, of cuneiform inscriptions, etc. Yet, after all, Professor Bloomfield pointed out, repeatedly the discoveries of the archaeologist are of no avail until purely philological activity solves the riddle. It was so with the cuneiform inscriptions, for example; Etruscan matters still remain a sealed book because the philologist has thus far been unable to solve the riddle of the Tuscan language. I might add to this that archaeology makes its appeal in part for the same reasons that science in some of its aspects makes appeal—it is tangible, and objective; in its ordinary levels, at least, it is more readily intelligible than matters philological and makes smaller demands, I think, upon the mental powers, both of the public and of the archaeological worker himself. Bentley, with virtually no knowledge of archaeology and without visiting Greece or Italy, so far as I know, was nevertheless a classical scholar of the first order; I might name some more modern scholars who have known Greek and Latin superlatively well without visiting classic lands at all or before they visited classic lands.

If space allowed, we should gladly print the programmes of the two Associations, to show the extraordinary range of subjects engaging the attention of American classical students. Forty-eight papers were presented to the Philological Association, 36 to the Institute; 8 other papers were presented at a joint meeting of the two Associations. Of this total of over 90 papers many, however, were "read by title". The Colleges and Universities represented, with the number of papers presented from each, were as follows: Allegheny 1; Barnard 3; Brown 1; Chicago 5; Cincinnati 1; Clark College 1; College of the City of New York 1; Columbia 1; Dartmouth 2; Emory and Henry 1; George Washington 1; Hartford Theological 1; Harvard 6; Johns Hopkins 6; McGill 1; Michigan 4; Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, 2; New York 1; Northwestern 3; Olivet 1; Pennsylvania 4; Princeton 7; Oregon 1; Rutgers 1; Smith 1; Syracuse 2; Trinity 1; Vanderbilt 2; Vermont 2; Victoria, Toronto, 1; Virginia 1; Washington 1; Washington and Jefferson 1; Wesleyan 4; Wilberforce 1; Wisconsin 2; Yale 2.

In certain respects the joint meetings of these two Associations have been justified by experience; a larger company is thereby brought together and the opportunities of meeting one's fellow-workers in the classical territory are greatly enlarged. After all such meetings find their justification primarily in two things: in the opportunity of communion with kindred spirits and in the fact that they do call forth a

great deal of very good work; it is curious how many persons need an external stimulus to productive scholarly activity and equally interesting to note how much men can do under the influence of such a stimulus. But the congestion of the programmes is becoming a serious matter. One who is a Councilor of the Institute is obliged either to forego the business meetings of the Institute or to forego many papers which he would like to hear; it was especially exasperating to be obliged to make this hapless choice because the business meetings of the Institute might easily have been far more skilfully and more expeditiously conducted. But *nihil est ab omni parte beatum;* let us hope that, since by vote of the American Philological Association just passed at Baltimore, these joint meetings are likely to be a fixture, with increasing skill born of experience in handling programmes and in conducting the business of the Institute, the difficulties that have beset these particular meetings may be removed.

A word in conclusion. Long observation has suggested to me two things in connection with such meetings. One is that many papers offered at such meetings should be written out in two very distinct forms, one intended for publication, the other intended for reading at the meeting. The second thought is that comparatively few of our classical scholars have practiced reading aloud. I have seen many a paper spoiled and many an ambitious reader's prospects blighted by the wretched delivery of the paper.

C. K.

MATTERS OF PRESENT MOMENT CONCERNING LATIN IN LARGE HIGH SCHOOLS[1]

It is an old and familiar warning that the age and country in which we live are given over to sordid and gainful pursuits, to things of sense, to the interests of the individual, to the concerns of the present.

We have heard this from poets and philosophers; and, being ourselves more or less thoughtful people, we have believed much that they said. Being, likewise, men and women who love their kind, we have been regretful; at times, perhaps, genuinely alarmed; but, on the whole, these wise and gloomy words have been as mutterings in distant clouds.

It is true that, as teachers of the Classics in High Schools, we have felt the effect of the changing conditions of life in the increasingly heavy and diversified general programs of study and in the somewhat increased requirements for Latin.

Latin, however, amid all this crowding and jostling, has not only managed to hold its own, but has gained ground in the percentage of pupils studying it; and it still holds, next to English, the most conspicuous place in the programs of secondary schools[2].

[1] This paper was read at the meeting of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, at Haverford, Pa., on April 23, 1909.

[2] Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1907, Volume 2, 1050.

Under these circumstances, little effort on our part, effort concerted and determined, has been made to adjust the teaching of Latin to the requirements of the new conditions.

Nor would I be understood as implying that Latin teachers, meantime, have been sitting in the seat of the complacent and self-satisfied. On the contrary, I am inclined to believe that we have experienced our full share of the 'noble discontent', characteristic of some of our fellows.

We have been dissatisfied and discomfited, especially when we have come face to face with the results obtained in the examinations, set not only by the colleges and the state, but by ourselves as well. We have been dissatisfied, discomfited, dismayed. But this attitude of mind has not been confined to ourselves. The teachers of English, history and mathematics also have been dissatisfied, discomfited, dismayed. And so, we have pressed on, groping our way, but with unfaltering faith in our goal, in the abiding value of our subject to do effective service for the younger generation, even as Columbus, on that long and uncertain voyage, is said to have made this entry in his log-book, evening after evening: "To-day, we have sailed Westward, *which is our course*".

Until recently, the warning words seemed to come from afar. But now, they are close at hand. Not alone poets and philosophers are giving them utterance, but practical statesmen, economists, educationists; and they are raising their voices with no uncertain meaning.

A commissioner of education for the state of New York wrote in February of last year:

> The great industrial age upon which we have entered has laid its iron hand upon the schools and has made education tributary to its own ends. . . . There is a pronounced but inevitable trend in modern education away from the study of the humanities that have to do with the inner and spiritual life and toward the manual arts and sciences that relate to the outer and material life.

A writer of authority in The Educational Review for March, 1909, says:

> Now that we have committed ourselves to vocational training in schools, the problem is one of making the most effective adjustments between it and that measure of liberal education which is possible for each considerable group of children.

The president of a large university in the West has recently expressed these views:

> The languages, ancient and modern, have high value for those who can master and use them. Most High School students get very little from any of them. Without in the least underrating the value of Latin to Roman-minded men, there is no doubt that the average American school boy gets less out of Latin than out of any other subject in the curriculum. . . . The High School should indicate and emphasize that form of ability which will count for most in the conduct of life and it should do its foundation work with such thoroughness that the

higher education may be built upon it with the certainty that attainments shall be solid, so far as they go. But for the colleges and universities to specify certain classes of subjects, regardless of the real interests of the secondary schools and their pupils, is a species of impertinence which only tradition justifies. Their duty is to demand thoroughness; but the question of what the High School shall teach is a question for these schools to decide for themselves.

It is not for us at this time to deny or affirm the truth of any of these statements (although we should like to be told—and I say this in all modesty and receptivity of mind—upon what basis the belief in the comparative worthlessness of Latin for the "average American School boy" is founded). But these are men of leading, of clear vision, and noble motives. It is for us, rather, to take their words seriously into account in attempting to determine what bearing the situation they set forth will have on the study of Latin in High Schools.

Instinctively, we turn to the colleges, whence, in the past has come our help. For to the colleges is due the larger part of whatever success we have had in preparatory Latin. They have furnished not only incentives for the pupils who have been preparing for college, but the standards for all. They have furnished the teachers also, and they have kept alive the traditions and the dignity of a classical education.

But now, it appears, the people are to be the judges in matters of public education. They are demanding that the 'fasces be lowered' and 'surrendered' to themselves. They remind us that whatever form of education is followed, it must be one that will give quick returns. Quick and manifest returns is the determining factor, now-a-days, when deciding upon the relative merits either of a financial investment, a hair restorer, a system of education, a philosophy, or a religion. They must, each and all alike, bear some evident and direct relation to practical life.

A not uncommon question addressed to our teachers is of this kind: 'If my daughter's failure in Latin will postpone her entrance to Training School and put off the time when she can become a *teacher*, she must drop the Latin. Haven't you something she can substitute for this subject?' For the shortest road to graduation is the popular road. If, on the journey, these young wayfarers fall in with certain aids to mental training, noble living, social efficiency, they accept them as something incidental, accidental. Economic efficiency, via 'points' or 'units', is their aim. The advantages of this drift in education, or the necessity for haste in individual cases, we do not question. We are concerned, just now, with the effect of these things on the study of Latin.

Last February, when the entering class of a city High School was being organized and explanations of the course and electives were being given, one little fellow raised his hand. The principal answered the appeal. He asked: 'If one should elect Latin now instead of German, and then, if he should fail, could you switch?' and not one of his 600 classmates showed any surprise.

And here, the Latin is at a disadvantage as compared with the modern, foreign languages; for there are inherent and substantial difficulties in the Latin, which the French or German does not possess, to the same degree, for the American boy and girl. Our girls and boys are not 'Roman-minded', as President Jordan implies. In very large cities, at least, they are not contemplative, logical, analytic. They are objective, rather, and detached. They see things as wholes; but they are docile, buoyant, fairly curious, earnest, and resourceful.

Some, indeed, there are— and these I like to mention—dowered with alert minds, sound judgment, and that marvelous something we call imagination. They are self-reliant, resolute little people, and unfailingly interested in their work. They seem to have an attitude toward the Latin text akin to that of the little Japanese girl toward her doll, who says, 'If you love it enough, it will live'.

But what of those boys and girls who in mental traits, in near or remote inheritance, in development by experience or environment do not seem to be 'American'? I do not refer to those few pupils who have come to our High Schools from foreign schools (these, with us, have been among our brightest students and have advanced from grade to grade with greater speed and security than the American pupils), but of those thousands whose parents have taken passage for this country to free themselves from the bondage and ignorance of the working classes of the old world. An eminent authority on this subject says: "But in America, the people, one may almost say, have dropped from the sky. They are in the land, but not yet an integral part of it. A human phenomenon unique in the history of the world is the result". A recent investigation, conducted by the United States Immigration Commission, disclosed the fact that of the pupils in our schools fifty-five per cent have parents born outside of America, and that forty-one different nationalities are represented.

How shall we deal with these in our Latin classes? We must 'assimilate' them and we must teach them Caesar and Cicero, in some cases, as Professor Grandgent of Harvard University says, "Before they can express any but the most rudimentary concepts in any tongue". The task is indeed a difficult one, taxing, sometimes, to the utmost our patience and resourcefulness. But the task imposed upon Sisyphus was not without hope; and in our case, the reward is often worth the effort.

In addition to the problem of the racial heterogeneousness of the pupils and the rush for points, the large High Schools must face another difficult

situation—that arising from over-large classes, and, in some cases, too rapid promotions. It is not easy for one fresh from the class room to speak of this difficulty with moderation, for he 'knows the wounds: he sees the disasters'.

The importance of this fault has been strongly urged by the advocates of the new education and, no doubt, is realized by the educational authorities. The enormous rapidity of the growth of the schools is partly responsible; and the additional expense necessary to correct this condition the public is not yet ready to meet. Meantime, mechanical and wholesale teaching must be done and worried or listless pupils are going through the steps of the syllabus. With any subject, these conditions are adverse: but with a foreign language they are well-nigh calamitous.

Another cause for the unsatisfactory results of Latin study in the secondary schools is what I have come to regard as an excessive requirement in the matter of prescribed text. For several years, the conviction has been strengthening with me that four books of Caesar in the second year of the study of Latin, six orations of Cicero in the third year and six books of Vergil in the fourth year, in addition to the work in grammar and composition and sight translation—all of which are necessary to sustained interest—is a heavier requirement than the majority of our pupils can meet comfortably and honestly. The result has been that they have memorized the translations given in the class room or, perhaps, others not authorized by the teacher — those at twenty-nine cents per copy—, while the grammar and sight reading have been neglected. We have been developing the pupils' memory unduly; we have practically been forcing the mediocer pupils either into dishonest methods of work or out of the Latin courses; and we have been robbing them of a natural right—the right to use their powers of observation, reason, judgment and imagination along with their memory in constructive effort.

The remedy for this seems to lie in a modification of the curriculum looking toward a smaller portion of prescribed text and increased emphasis upon sight translation. I am aware of the doubts and dangers waiting on a change of this sort. The fact that many prominent classicists and several classical associations have committed themselves to this change will not convince the teachers of Latin in secondary schools. Many of them would regard this modification as a new machine for multiplying the casualties of war. In the first place, is there any examination so difficult to set as one in translation at sight? For there are pupils possessing a kind of ingenuity or knack which enables them, though ignorant of the essential facts of the language, to obtain a passing mark on almost any moderately easy sight passage. And then, is there any subject so difficult to teach as translation at sight? Any subject so elusive, so baffling, in the case of a dull or ill-prepared pupil? Surely this is a task which calls for the teacher's keenest and quickest insight, greatest skill, liveliest sympathy and vicariousness, for patience and self-control. Yet this work, more than any other, helps to give confidence to the pupil, to add interest, and to insure honesty in his work.

Whether more pupils would fail under this proposed requirement than under the present requirement, I do not know. Nor do I think it matters supremely. May I remind you of something out of Emerson?

> There is a time in every man's education when he arrives at the conviction that envy is ignorance; that he must take himself for better, for worse, as his portion; that, though the wide universe is full of good, no kernel of nourishing corn can come to him but through his toil bestowed on that plot of ground which is given to him to till.

My last suggestion is that a report be prepared, giving information, as accurate as possible, concerning the conditions and the results of the study of Latin in High Schools. This suggestion I have not thought out in detail—the method of such a report, the contents, the expense. It might give a comparative view of the cost of the different departments in the same schools, including salaries, equipment of laboratories, libraries, etc.; or it might be confined to questions relating to the classical departments of different schools in cities of about the same size, showing size of classes, the percentage of pupils who find it necessary to repeat the work of the different grades once, the percentage of those who repeat the work twice, or three times. It might set forth the probable reasons for the failure of pupils—lack of a ready and accurate knowledge of forms and constructions, meager vocabulary in Latin or English, inability to do work involving sustained effort, poverty of general experience, or supineness and apathy. It might, thus, be made to appeal to the local authorities through the item of expense. It might, at the same time, serve to unify and clarify the aims of Latin teaching; and, finally, help to remove some practical difficulties.

Such a report might prove to be an artificial stimulus only, or impracticable; and, as one statistician says: "Figures of themselves cannot reform". But if civic righteousness can be promoted by percentages, why should we doubt their value when applied to education or any part thereof? We admit the force of many of the charges brought against the Classics in secondary schools; and we desire such an investigation of the situation, so searching and just an examination of the prevailing conditions that we may know the causes of the unsatisfactory results and seek to change them.

I have had in mind especially the situation in the High Schools of large centers of population, but these are becoming more and more important factors

in the general problem of education. At present, more than one-third of all the High School pupils in the state of New York are enrolled in the High Schools of the city of New York.

Out of the noise and turmoil of these new times, these new conditions, new opportunities, new dangers, out of this seething sea of almost formless educational theories, who will forecast the fate of Latin in the public schools? Not, certainly, the present speaker. All she can see, or *thinks* she can see, is that if Latin maintains its position of leadership even in literary schools, it must prove its worth to those who are studying it now.

The present speaker believes that if the teaching of Latin can be made more vital, now, the study of it more sincere, then, so long as 'men, by nature, love liberty', so long as 'each best one' worships at the shrines of the Muses, so long as the sources of our civilization possess attraction for the student, the position of Latin in the public schools will be secure.

JOSEPHINE A. DAVIS.
MORRIS HIGH SCHOOL, New York City.

SUMMARY OF THE CLASSICAL JOURNAL FOR DECEMBER, 1909

The first paper, Classical Clubs for Secondary School Teachers, is by Mr. William F. Abbott, of the Classical High School, Worcester, Mass. This paper contains a suggestion that will prove very interesting and helpful, as I know from personal experience, for we had such a club at Erasmus Hall High School for several years. The Latin Club at Worcester was formed in 1891, and since then has been in active existence, except in 1900-1903. The Club has read, either in selections or entire, Horace, Pliny the Younger, Catullus, Propertius, Tibullus, Lucan, Aulus Gellius, Ovid, Lucretius, the Trinummus of Plautus, the Dialogus of Tacitus, Cicero's Brutus, Caesar's Bellum Civile, Sallust's Iugurtha, Tyrrell's Cicero in His Letters, and Burton's Selections from Livy. The meetings were held twice a month.—A Greek Club, meeting once a month, was formed in 1893. Its readings have covered plays of Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides, Pindar's Odes, Theocritus, Plato, and Homer's Odyssey. Special papers were also prepared in each club, on art, religion, philosophy and antiquities. The above shows what even the secondary-school teacher *can* do, despite the many hours of teaching, the correction of papers, the preparation of lessons, general supervising work, and the thousand and one demands made upon his time. As Mr. Abbott says, such reading proves an agreeable change from *Quae cum ita* sint and ἐντεῦθεν ἐξελαύνει.

The second paper, The Status of the Classics in the South, by B. C. Bondurant, State College for Women, Florida, contains much material for thought on the part of the teacher of Classics. He discusses the question first from the point of view of the secondary school, and then from that of the college and the university. By tables of statistics he makes his points clear. From 1889, 1890 to 1904, 1905, the number of students studying Latin in the secondary schools of the United States increased 16.07 per cent., a gain 2.41 per cent. greater than the percentage of gain in students studying algebra in the same period. In 1905, 50.21 per cent. of all pupils in public secondary schools studied Latin, while in private schools 46.47 per cent. of the entire number took Latin. In the case of Greek it was the reverse, 6.67 per cent. of secondary students in private schools taking Greek, while only 1.47 took Greek in the public high schools. From 1895 to 1905 the number of secondary pupils taking Greek decreased more than 50 per cent.—In the southern states, between 1900 and 1905, the percentage of students taking Latin rose from 53.87 to 58.55, while in the United States at large there was a slight decrease; in the high schools, 63.46 per cent., in the private secondary schools, 46.5 per cent. of all students study Latin. In 1908 74.28 per cent. of high school students in North Carolina are taking Latin.—Eight high schools, in as many leading cities in the South, show a decrease of one per cent. in one year. It is rather striking, however, that Birmingham, a great indûstrial center, shows the highest enrolment of high school students taking Latin, 76.5 per cent.—To the question, "Do you think that Latin should continue to hold the place it does in our educational system?" six out of eight principals of high schools answered "Yes" without qualification. To the question "Do you notice any change in the attitude of your constituency toward the Classics (particularly Latin)?" five principals make no reply, twenty-four report no change, sixteen report decrease of interest, and fifteen observe an increase of interest.—Greek is disappearing from both public and private secondary schools. In public schools 3.48 per cent. took Greek in 1900; in 1905, only 2.39 per cent.; in private schools, 5.76 per cent. studied Greek in 1900; in 1905, 4.97 per cent.—Mr. Bondurant's statistics for the colleges and universities are based upon figures collected from fifty-five representative institutions. From 1900, 1901 to 1907, 1908 the figures for Latin show an absolute increase in the number of those taking Latin, but a relative decrease of 3.14 per cent.; in Greek the number decreased both relatively and absolutely. In 105 colleges in the South, 963 students elected Latin last year beyond the requirements of their course; this year, 979. Last year 523 elected Greek; this year, 578.

The third paper, by Warren Stone Gordis, Ottawa University, is entitled The Accusative of Specification in Aeneid I-VI. This paper is an appeal for the return to the accusative of specification to explain many of the cases that are now explained as an accusative with the middle voice or as an accusative retained with the passive. The author says that "the change has been most sweeping where an accusative is used with the perfect passive participle". But the editors do not agree; for example, the Greenough-Kittridge edition places *oculos suffusa*, 1.228, under accusative of specification, while nearly all the other recent editors regard it as a direct object. Nor are the editors always consistent with themselves, as one edition classifies *mentem . . . pressus*, 3.47, as specification, and *animum arrecti*, 1.597 (a misprint for 579), as a direct object. To illustrate further the lack of agreement, he calls attention to the fact that Fairclough-Brown follow Papillon-Haigh in explaining 2.273, *perque pedes traiectus lora tumentis*, as a secondary accusative with the passive, but take 4.644, *interfusa genas*, as the direct object of the middle, while *manus revinctum*, 2.67, which the English editors take as an object of the middle, Fairclough-Brown regard as a secondary accusative.—The editor

ridicules Fairclough-Brown for regarding 5.511, *innexa pedem*, as a middle with a direct object, and suggests that they were tricked by their idiomatic translation 'having its foot bound', a translation which he claims elsewhere is logically nearer to 'bound as to his hands' than to 'having bound his hands'. Along the same line he criticizes Professor Knapp for regarding *insternor umeros*, 2.722, as an instance of the middle; he suggests as a translation, 'I cover myself, to be more specific, my shoulders'.—Mr. Gordis calls attention to the fact that the accusative of specification with an adjective admits of no ambiguity. He gives several examples like *nuda genu*, 1.520; but claims that if the descriptive adjective *nuda* were replaced by the perfect participle *nudata*, which has become practically an adjective, the construction of *genu* would be the same.—We may conclude our brief review of this timely article with the statement that his point is well taken when he says, that "it is quite possible to recognize the direct object of the middle and the secondary accusative with the passive as having contributed to the development of the Latin accusative of specification without attempting to distinguish as distinct categories the instances where such influence has been operative".

In this issue the following books are reviewed: Lothman's Latin Lessons for Beginners (W. G. Leutner); Comparetti's Vergil in the Middle Ages (F. J. Miller); Butler's Post-Augustan Poetry from Seneca to Juvenal (Henry W. Prescott); O'Connor's Chapters in the History of Actors and Acting in Ancient Greece (R. C. Flickinger); Baumgarten-Poland-Wagner's Die hellenische Kultur (A. T. Murray); Marquand's Greek Architecture (William C. Poland); Scrivener's The New Testament in Greek (Edgar J. Goodspeed); Thackeray's Grammar of the Old Testament in Greek (E. J. Goodspeed).

W. F. TIBBETTS.

ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, Brooklyn, N. Y.

REVIEW

Cicero: De Senectute. Edited by J. H. Allen, W. F. Allen and J. B. Greenough. Reëdited by Katharine Allen, University of Wisconsin. Boston: Ginn and Co. (1908). Pp. xviii + 108.

Cicero's delightful essay on old age justly holds its place in most of our colleges and universities as a part of the Latin work of the Freshman year. For the needs of such students the present edition is clearly intended. The work of revision has been carefully done, and consistently with the aim, as stated in the Preface:

> In the introduction a few new paragraphs have been incorporated and some alterations made in the old text. In the notes some simple grammatical explanations and references, and some translations of easy words and phrases, have been omitted, a few notes have been altered or expanded, and a considerable number of new notes added, though it has been the aim not to mar the simplicity characteristic of the old edition by elaborate annotation.

The chief change in the introduction is a brief, yet adequate, account of Cicero's contact with Greek representatives of the important schools of philosophy, his own intellectual independence, united with admiration for Plato, and his early-formed design of setting forth for his countrymen the practical ethics of his masters. I quote the close:

> He nowhere lays claim to originality. From the Greeks he adopts and adapts what suits him, sets it forth in choice Latin enriched and made luminous by numerous illustrations drawn from Roman history and politics, and thus gives a new lease of life and a wider sphere of usefulness to the loftiest thoughts and noblest ideals of his predecessors. In this lies the value of his philosophical writings to his countrymen and to the world.

There is included in the introduction (pp. xiv-xvi) a discussion of the title and date of the essay. That it was written shortly before or shortly after the death of Caesar is apparent from the passages usually cited in this discussion; in favor of the earlier date the editor cites her article (A. J. P. 28.297).

Some selections from Cato's De Agricultura are given, with brief footnotes, on pages xvii-xviii. This is a welcome addition. In these Cato the shrewd farmer speaks; in the essay an idealized Cato is "dressed in the mental costume" of Cicero's day, and it is Cicero's voice that we hear.

Improvement is noticed in the page arrangement of the text (pp. 1-36); the text is clearer to the eye, and covers four more pages than in the earlier edition. The form of the Argument prefixed to the notes has been improved by its tabulated arrangement; the chapters and sections of the text are indicated at the left. In the notes, pages 37-80, there is a like improvement in the form of the printed page: each note forms a separate paragraph, and figures at the beginning of each paragraph refer to page and line, while heavy-faced figures on the margin refer to the sections of the text.

The notes impress me as judicious and, as a rule, sufficiently concise for the purpose of the edition. While it is a debatable point how numerous should be the references to Latin Grammars, in an edition for college Freshmen, the following instances of such omission may be mentioned: 2.1.23[1] *absterserit* (in a past result clause); 2.2.3 *possit*, "causal subjunctive" (the student would be helped by a reference to characteristic clauses); 4.2.18 *senserim* (as often, *dico* and *sentio* are drawn into a *quod*-clause); 13.6.25 *quod* (*nihil habeo quod*): this should be felt as like *nihil est quod*, and a reference is desirable. A number of other instances where some teachers would prefer a reference to the Grammars could be cited. Yet the desired reference is often given, as at 4.3.3 *cum effluxisset*, where the clause has a conditional force.

Care is taken in rendering single words. I note the following: 1.1.11 *prudentiam*, 'good sense' (supported by the definition quoted from De Off. 1.153); 6.3.19 *ingravescentem aetatem*, 'the increasing burden of age'; 7.4.9 *inhumani*, 'churlish'; 32.13.25 *hospites*, 'friends from abroad' (with an account of the ancient *hospitium*); 40.17.2 *proditiones*, 'acts of treason'.

[1] The first figure refers to the paragraph, the other to the page and and line of the text.

Occasional quotations and references to ancient and modern writers very properly find a place in the notes. In this matter it is easy to exceed the bounds that circumscribe an edition planned for less mature students. The editor has shown restraint and good taste; see especially under 15.7.11.

On page 81 is a table of the Greek philosophers mentioned in the essay, and pages 82-99 contain essential facts concerning the persons mentioned, including a genealogical chart of the Scipios. The Appendix (pages 101-105) gives the variations of the text from that of the old edition and of Müller. The reading *composita* in 28.12.14 (*compta*, Müller; *cocta*, Moore's edition) may find some measure of support in the quotation from Seneca (Ep. 40.2), who approves of this manner of speech for the philosopher and the old man: cuius pronuntiatio quoque, sicut vita, debet esse composita ('calm').

To conclude, this revised edition fulfills well the editor's aim, and will be found a serviceable and inexpensive book.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY. PERLEY OAKLAND PLACE.

CORRESPONDENCE

In THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.49, citing from Sophocles Antigone 31-36, Professor Knapp treats οὐχ (35) as a negative with ἄγειν where μή might naturally be expected. I think, however, that the author is unfortunate in the selection of a passage to illustrate his point. According to this interpretation the infinitive ἄγειν is governed by προκηρύξοντα. It seems to me that this view is erroneous and that the infinitives ἄγειν and προκεῖσθαι depend upon φασι (31). In that case, of course, μή would be wrong and hence no explanation for οὐχ is required. This is evidently the opinion of Jebb, to whom Professor Knapp refers, as he translates, "Nor counts the matter light".

ROSCOE GUERNSEY.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

I am afraid that Dr. Guernsey has somewhat missed the point of my remarks on this passage. I do not hold that οὐχ is used with ἄγειν where μή would naturally be expected. My point really was that *non* . . . *sed* and οὐ . . . ἀλλά repeatedly, in spite of the negative appearance of *non* and οὐ, constitute in reality an affirmative, a strongly affirmative expression which is to be taken as a whole; to single out the *non* or the οὐ in such cases works harm to syntax and interpretation both.

The fresh examination to which I have subjected the passage since the receipt of Dr. Guernsey's note compels me to admit that I might have found a better example from Greek to illustrate my point. Syntactically it is easier to join ἄγειν in 34 with φασι in 31. But since φασι was said in 31 we have had κηρύξαντ' in 32 and προκηρύξοντα in 34, and I am still persuaded that we shall get a far better effect in 34-35 if we regard τὸ πρᾶγμα . . . ἐν πόλει as in effect oratio obliqua, giving Creon's thought. Stylistically, surely, this is the better view. Antigone's words with hardly a change give Creon's command precisely as he might have uttered himself, thus: τὸ πρᾶγμα ἄγε (ἄγετε) οὐχ ὡς . . . ἐν πόλει. I write here οὐχ on the basis of my paper to which Dr. Guernsey refers. To offset Jebb's preference for another construction I beg to report that that excellent Greek scholar, Professor Humphreys, construes ἄγειν as I have done, though he takes a different view of οὐχ. C. K.

THE NEW YORK LATIN CLUB

On Saturday, January 8, the New York Latin Club held one of its most successful meetings. Ninety-three members and guests heard Professor Paul Shorey of Chicago speak upon The Making of a Litterateur. To do justice to this paper is impossible: it sparkled with humor from beginning to end and kept the audience delighted throughout.

After a most felicitous introduction, Professor Shorey spoke of the characteristic of bookishness, so noticeable nowadays, and yet fully as noticeable two thousand years ago, and even earlier. The epic died of overproduction: the same fate befell successively lyric poetry, the drama, and Socratic dialogue. The eight centuries beginning with the establishment of the Alexandrian library were a time of libraries, books, and readers by the million. Alexandrians and Germans would be hard to distinguish in their production of dissertations. Professor Shorey read a list of titles of theses German and Alexandrian indiscriminately mixed, and successfully defied his hearers to distinguish one class from the other. The Ancients were great readers of 'papers'.

After some apt illustrations from Martial, the speaker came to the main topic of his paper, Lucian, "the sage who laughed the world away". He drew parallels between a number of Lucian's works and familiar books of modern times, showing all through the spirit of the twentieth century, or at least the latter part of the nineteenth, and illustrating by translations with modern terminology the fact that there is nothing new in heaven or on earth. The attitude of Lucian and of Aristophanes toward the gods is no more irreverent than that shown to us in The Houseboat on the Styx: the humorous side appealed to Lucian in everything: Professor Shorey's last reference, "The Fly, An Appreciation", illustrates this most fittingly.

Everyone went away with a new sense of humor and fun stored in the Classics for those who will read, and sense of appreciation to Dr. Shorey for calling again to mind that the 'dull grind' idea of Greek and Latin is in large measure at least subjective.

EDWARD C. CHICKERING, Censor.

The title of Miss Franklin's paper in the last issue (page 82) should be corrected to read The Place of the Reader in *First* Year Latin.

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In another column is to be found the report of the Commission on College Entrance Requirements presented to the American Philological Association at its recent meeting in Baltimore. The personnel of this commission and its origin have been previously alluded to (THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.1). The meeting at which the report was formulated was held in Cleveland on October 29 and 30. All the members were present, a fact which showed very clearly appreciation of the importance of the meeting. And the feeling which all the members seemed to share that individual preferences should be sunk in the broader consideration of the best interests of all was not less remarkable. There seemed to be a unanimity of opinion that the best test of teaching was the ability to translate unseen passages of Latin with substantial accuracy. The hope was expressed that this would be the ultimate test, but a number of the Commission believed that the time was not yet ripe for a step so radical as the requirement of only sight translation on examinations. There was, however, the same unanimity of feeling that if we could not go as far as that, still it was high time to do something to remedy the acknowledged defects of the present system and to go before the public with a statement of requirements on which all could stand and which all could defend. Though the western members of the Commission represented a certificate system of entrance to college and the eastern members one of examinations, it soon became evident that what was really desired was the improvement of the system of teaching in the schools and in this matter the interests of one section were as vital as those of the other.

Finally, after protracted debate, in which the utmost cordiality and harmony were displayed throughout, the report was unanimously adopted and now goes before the people as an expression of the matured thought of the colleges and the secondary schools.

Discerning critics will notice evidences of compromise. One institution has given up some part of its demands, another has modified some parts of its requirements, but nothing essential either in spirit or actuality has been sacrificed by any of the parties concerned.

It only remains now for the colleges of the country to embody the report of this commission in their announcements in place of the requirements hitherto indicated. The Commission suggests that this be done in the next announcement of the various institutions and that the first examination under the new system be held in 1911 so as to give opportunity to make suitable preparation.

At first sight doubtless some teachers will be alarmed by the increased emphasis on sight translation, but all the progress of the last few years has been in that direction and the problem really concerns itself with methods of instruction rather than with the results. It is true that serious changes will have to be made in instruction. The old system of home preparation with the aid of a translation will prove less and less efficient and much more stress will have to be laid on prompt performance in the class-room in reading what has not been seen. It is too early to formulate a definite method of procedure. Doubtless most teachers will formulate their own. Some will lay more stress upon written work, others upon oral work; some will pay particular attention to vocabulary, others will trust to reading for the acquisition of vocabulary. The reduction of the amount specifically required will relieve teachers of the necessity of covering so many pages in a given time and it will no doubt happen that progress at the beginning will be much slower in actual ground covered; but if the sense of power and the ability to handle what is learned is thoroughly developed, progress in the later years should be much more rapid. It seems certain that Latin will become a more efficient educational instrument in this way than it has been, and if the new requirements bring about greater attention to oral work a great good will be gained. In any case the necessity of reading fixed quantities of the secondary authors will be obviated and teachers will no longer be able to bemoan the monotony of High School teaching. The choice of authors and selections will lie largely with themselves. No class of fall-backs will have to repeat the work of the previous year. It will be possible to vary the course so that their work will be new; every teacher will appreciate the value of this. The work will be judged by results, not by ground covered, and the pupil or class that can develop the required ability by reading less and exercising the brain more will be encouraged by the reports of the examination. It has long been time to disabuse ourselves of the belief that the efficiency of Latin training depended upon the number of Teubner text

pages covered, and with it to get rid of the view that the bright mind and the stupid mind must study the same length of time to reach the same results. Freedom with restrictions is what is gained by the new set of requirements. Thoroughness is safeguarded, monotony is avoided. The possibilities of shallow attainments and the temptation to the use of translations are greatly lessened.

It seems to me to be a matter of congratulation to the Latin teachers of the country that their representatives have been able to unite upon a set of requirements which represents such a judicious mixture of conservatism and progress. G. L.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN LATIN[1]

At its annual meeting in 1908 the American Philological Association, acting upon petitions from the Classical Association of New England, the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, and the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, passed this vote:—

Resolved, That there be constituted under the authority of this Association a commission of fifteen members on college-entrance requirements in Latin, to formulate definitions of such requirements and to further the adoption of these definitions by our colleges and universities, in the interest of that uniformity toward the attainment of which this Association in the vote of Dec. 28, 1907, promised to "lend all aid in its power".

Resolved, That the members of this Association who are present as representatives of the Classical Associations of New England, the Atlantic States, and the Middle West and South be constituted a committee to select the commission named above; further, that this commission shall consist of four members each, two representing colleges and two representing secondary schools, from the Classical Associations of New England and the Atlantic States, and seven members from the Classical Association of the Middle West and South, four representing colleges and three representing secondary schools, and shall include the committee of selection.

The committee charged with the selection of the Commission, W. G. Hale, J. C. Kirtland, and Gonzalez Lodge, asked the Latin departments of certain universities to designate representatives and left to the three Classical Associations the choice of the members to represent secondary schools. The committee deemed it important that four universities which admit students only on examination, two within the territory of the Classical Association of New England and two within the territory of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, should be represented on the Commission, and thus made up the complement of college representatives allowed to these Associations by the vote establishing a Commission; in the case of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South institutions in different parts of its territory were selected.

[1] Presented at the meeting of the American Philological Association, at Baltimore, December 30, 1909.

As soon as all the members had been appointed, a chairman was elected. He submitted to the members interrogatories covering all the matters that had been proposed for the consideration of the Commission and such others as are involved in the demand for uniform requirements and uniform examinations, and they sent their answers, with the arguments with which they supported their opinions, to their colleagues. This preliminary discussion prepared the way for the meeting of the Commission, which was held in Cleveland on October 29 and 30, 1909. All members were present at every session, and the following definitions of college-entrance requirements in Latin were adopted by unanimous votes:—

I. AMOUNT AND RANGE OF THE READING REQUIRED.

1. The Latin reading required of candidates for admission to college, without regard to the prescription of particular authors and works, shall be not less *in amount* than Caesar, Gallic War, I-IV; Cicero, the orations against Catiline, for the Manilian Law, and for Archias; Vergil, Aeneid, I-VI.

2. The amount of reading specified above shall be selected by the schools from the following authors and works: Caesar (Gallic War and Civil War) and Nepos (Lives); Cicero (orations, letters, and De Senectute) and Sallust (Catiline and Jugurthine War); Vergil (Bucolics, Georgics, and Aeneid) and Ovid (Metamorphoses, Fasti, and Tristia).

II. SUBJECTS AND SCOPE OF THE EXAMINATIONS.

1. *Translation at Sight.* Candidates will be examined in translation at sight of both prose and verse. The vocabulary, constructions, and range of ideas of the passages set will be suited to the preparation secured by the reading indicated above.

2. *Prescribed Reading.* Candidates will be examined also upon the following prescribed reading: Cicero, orations for the Manilian Law and for Archias, and Vergil, Aeneid, I, II, and either IV or VI at the option of the candidate, with questions on subject-matter, literary and historical allusions, and prosody. Every paper in which passages from the prescribed reading are set for translation will contain also one or more passages for translation at sight; and candidates must deal satisfactorily with both these parts of the paper, or they will not be given credit for either part.

3. *Grammar and Composition.* The examinations in grammar and composition will demand thorough knowledge of all regular inflections, all common irregular forms, and the ordinary syntax and vocabulary of the prose authors read in school, with ability to use this knowledge in writing simple Latin prose. The words, constructions, and range of ideas called for in the examinations in composition will be such as are common in the reading of the year, or years, covered by the particular examination.

NOTE. The examinations in grammar and composition may be either in separate papers or combined with other parts of the Latin examination, at the option of each individual institution; and nothing in any of the above definitions of the requirements shall be taken to prevent any college from asking questions on the grammar, prosody, or subject-matter of any of the passages set for translation, if it so desires.

SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING PREPARATION.

Exercises in translation at sight should begin in school with the first lessons in which Latin sentences of any length occur, and should continue throughout the course with sufficient frequency to insure correct methods of work on the part of the student. From

the outset particular attention should be given to developing the ability to take in the meaning of each word—and so, gradually, of the whole sentence—just as it stands; the sentence should be read and understood in the order of the original, with full appreciation of the force of each word as it comes, so far as this can be known or inferred from that which has preceded and from the form and the position of the word itself. The habit of reading in this way should be encouraged and cultivated as the best preparation for all the translating that the student has to do. No translation, however, should be a mechanical metaphrase. Nor should it be a mere loose paraphrase. The full meaning of the passage to be translated, gathered in the way described above, should finally be expressed in clear and natural English.

A written examination cannot test the ear or tongue, but proper instruction in any language will necessarily include the training of both. The school work in Latin, therefore, should include much reading aloud, writing from dictation, and translation from the teacher's reading. Learning suitable passages by heart is also very useful, and should be more practised.

The work in composition should give the student a better understanding of the Latin he is reading at the time, if it is prose, and greater facility in reading. It is desirable, however, that there should be systematic and regular work in composition during the time in which poetry is read as well; for this work the prose authors already studied should be used as models.

Increased stress upon translation at sight in entrance examinations is not recommended solely upon the ground of the merits of this test of the training and the ability of the candidate for admission to college. Two other considerations had great weight with the Commission: the desirability of leaving the schools free to choose, within reasonable limits, the Latin to be read by their students; and the possibility of encouraging students and teachers alike to look upon the school work as directed toward the mastery of the laws of language and the learning to read Latin, rather than the passing of examinations of known content, a superficial knowledge of which may be gained by means unprofitable in themselves and in their effect upon the student's habits even vicious. The Commission is supported in this recommendation by resolutions passed by the American Philological Association, the Classical Association of New England, the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, and various smaller organizations of teachers. Moreover, the recommendation is in line with the practice of other countries and the present tendency in our own country.

The adoption by the colleges of the definitions of requirements formulated by the Commission will not necessitate any change in the reading of the schools, and there is no reason to believe that the usual course of four books of the Gallic War, six orations of Cicero, and six books of the Aeneid will be at once generally abandoned or greatly modified. The course of study is not so likely to change as the methods of study. The Commission feels, however, that it is wise to open the way for a wider range of reading, and that the schools should have the right to select the material to be read, the colleges contenting themselves with evidence that the reading has been so done as to furnish the right sort of training and the necessary preparation for their work. A flexible course of reading has many advantages. A change may be made when an author or style becomes wearisome or has grown so familiar that the change makes for a maximum of accomplishment, and the student who must repeat a year's work will generally do better if he has new reading. Besides, all authors and works are not equally suitable for all schools; difference in age and grasp should be taken into account, and students usually read with most interest and profit that to which their teachers come with most enthusiasm. The teacher, too, should have some incentive to increase his own familiarity with the literature.

It will be noticed that the amount of reading has not been diminished from the requirements now in force. The colleges which admit students on certificates from the schools will have no difficulty in exacting this amount, and experience shows that the substitution of sight-examinations for examinations in prescribed work has a tendency to increase rather than reduce the amount of reading. It will be noticed, also, that the choice of reading has not been left entirely to the schools. In addition to the more definite prescription of works for examination, the requirements limit the reading in school to certain works not usually read in colleges. Only schools which read more than the required amount will be free to go beyond these bounds.

The Commission has prescribed for examination portions of the reading intended for the last two years of the school course only, inasmuch as students usually take the entrance examinations at the ends of these years. It is expected that colleges which require only two years of Latin for entrance, or accept so much as a complete preparatory course, will set examinations in translation at sight rather than prescribe any portion of the reading.

The Commission was instructed by the American Philological Association not only to formulate definitions of the college-entrance requirements in Latin, but also to further the adoption of these definitions by the colleges and universities of the country, in the interest of uniformity. A vote passed by the Philological Association in 1907 indorsed the demand that the requirements of different institutions should be expressed in identical terms, and this vote was approved in the subsequent action of the Classical Associations. The Commission therefore respectfully petitions the authorities of colleges and universities to adopt, without material alteration, the definitions of requirements formulated by it. When

uniformity has once been established, it will be easy to correct these definitions or change the requirements themselves by concerted action, if they are found, after sufficient trial, to be unsatisfactory. The Commission has not attempted to make full definition of the requirements or a complete plan of examination. Although it has confined its recommendations almost entirely to the requirements and examinations in reading, it believes it has made possible the removal of most of the vexations attending the present variety in the Latin requirements.

REVIEWS

Homerischer Hymnenbau nebst seinen Nachahmungen bei Kallimachos, Theokrit, Vergil, Nonnos und Anderen. By Arthur Ludwich. Leipzig: Hirzel (1908). Pp. 380. $3.00.

Arthur Ludwich of Königsberg is well known to scholars for the fierce conservatism which has ranged him against nearly all modern workers on the text of the Homeric poems. He took his stand once for all on Alexandrian text tradition, and has long figured as the bitterest opponent of those who would 'restore' the text of the Iliad and Odyssey in view of our improved acquaintance with the dialects that make up that remarkable composite called Epic. The discovery by Grenfell and Hunt of Ptolemaic texts of Homer very different from the vulgate has not shaken his faith, and his new book is written partly to furnish evidence for his theory.

Everyone who has read Balzac's Louis Lambert remembers the axioms on number, those pages that read like some translation of the lost writings of Pythagoras; and again, in Z. Marcas, Balzac sees the hand of fate in the career of the man whose name contained seven letters, seven, that most characteristic of cabalistic numbers. Balzac, of course, inherited from a long line of philosophers his theory that everything in nature rests on relations and that special numbers have certain occult meanings. Nor need one be a mystic to accept the doctrine of number. But can we believe that the Greek poets from Homer down were so fascinated by the esoteric meaning of certain numbers that they worked them into their poems as a light to the initiated much as we have been told that Bacon interwove acrostic signatures in the text of most of the Elizabethan masterpieces? That is what Ludwich would have us believe, and that their methods and aims, though recognized by their contemporaries, have hitherto defied the detective powers of generations of critics and scholars.

Ludwich's analysis of the Homeric Hymn to Apollo (he follows Gemoll in regarding the Pythian and Delian Hymns as a single poem) will serve to illustrate his theory. All have noted in the Delian Hymn the obvious echoes of Iliad I. Ludwich, by discarding from the latter the 44 verses that Aristarchus athetised or ignored, makes it coincide in length with the double-barrelled Hymn, i. e. 567 verses. These he divides both in the Hymn and the Iliad into 81 heptads or 189 triads (and note that 81 is divisible by 3 and 189 by 7) which he takes to prove that Aristarchus's text of Iliad I was built and membered like the Homeric Hymn. This theory obviously implies a single poet for Iliad I. The use of heptads in Homer and the Hymn which imitated Homer is due to the desire to honor Apollo, whose birthday and hieratic number is seven. So significant a number as three needs no explanation for its presence, but the three functions of Apollo, the lyre, archery and prophecy, at once occur to the mind. Ludwich thinks that, here and in the other Hymns which he analyses, the use of number was hieratic but as the gods give way to the emotions and experiences of men the symbolic numbers are introduced to express a compliment or an insult or merely for luck. Vergil took over from Theocritus this later convention and the true meaning of 'Eclogue' is a 'reckoning' from ἐκλογίζεσθαι. In the first five Eclogues and the ninth Vergil's arrangement was according to the numbers 19 and 63. These are the Metonic numbers which derived their significance from their use in the cycle of Meton the geometer. Aristophanes worked in the Metonic numbers as an insult to Meton. Perhaps the most surprising passage in the book is Ludwich's discussion of the Birds 451-538 and 539-626. He discovers a veiled attack on the famous cycle in the fact that a metrical analysis of portions of those strophes reveals 38 ictuses in each, while with a little manipulation the passage will provide two groups of 63 tetrameters. We are to imagine the élite of an Athenian audience enjoying the insult to Meton as they counted the ictuses and realised that, since $38 = 2 \times 19$, the allusion was to the nineteen year cycle.

Perhaps all this is no harder to believe than the theory of acrostic signatures. Yet if true, how strange is the lack of external evidence for such a practice! How extraordinary the care taken to conceal one's real meaning (e. g. by one so frank as Aristophanes), and so successfully taken that all this artillery of devotion, compliment and insult has for all we know missed fire till now! What ingenuity lavished to obtain how little result! Ludwich's book contains no arguments that will silence these and other obvious reflections.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE. WILMER CAVE WRIGHT.

Book of Latin Prose Composition. By Jefferson Elmore. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn and Co. (1909).

Professor Elmore's book is intended for the use of colleges and advanced classes in schools; it aims, according to the preface, "to provide first for systematic work in syntax to reënforce and supplement that

of the usual preparatory course". That is, the author takes for granted that all the more elementary and fundamental principles have already been appropriated by the high-school senior or college freshman, an assumption which is, unfortunately, quite unwarranted. Even if these students can explain with some degree of facility the Latin which they translate, yet when it comes to the writing of Latin the simple basic facts of grammar must again and again be thrust upon their mental vision, until they become willing to cast aside their belovèd misty indefiniteness for concrete formula and scientific accuracy. What they especially need at this stage of their progress is a general survey of the field which for three or four years they have been cultivating bit by bit—and how often one parcel of ground grows waste and wild as soon as the nonchalent agriculturalist proceeds on his way to the next! A composition book of this grade, therefore, should treat Latin syntax synthetically; like constructions should be grouped together by means of outlines and summaries, and some attempt should be made to correlate the vagaries of the moods and tenses. Professor Elmore, however, has adopted no such method. To each chapter, as introductory to the exercises, he doles out a scanty and comparatively unsustaining amount of grammatical pabulum, omitting the simpler constructions and such larger themes as word-order, indirect discourse and the ordinary forms of conditional sentences. The grammatical contents of some of the chapters are as follows: the indefinite second person; personal pronouns (*ego* and *nos*); the dative of reference and the ethical dative; the *cum*-clause of reason and adversative clauses; general conditions of fact relating to past time.

The vocabulary of the exercises is to a great extent that of the Latin authors read early in the college course. It is greatly to be regretted that the vowels are not marked. If we believe, as most of us do, that no teaching of Latin can be thoroughly satisfactory which disregards vowel-quantity, then the wonderful opportunities which composition offers for training in this particular must be fully utilized: the prose book, like the grammar, should have the long vowels carefully indicated. Moreover, this vocabulary is exceedingly concise, far too concise for adequate service or accuracy. Still one may explain this defect by understanding that it is intended to be merely suggestive, and that the student works with his Harpers' close beside him. Finally, to venture one more criticism on this part of the book, the Latin of the vocabulary and the foot-notes is not always the best or even a good translation of the English word or phrase to which it is assigned. For example in the sentence (page 6), "It is natural, then, to find that he makes use of Plato's thoughts in this book which he addressed to Atticus", *decet* is clearly an inaccurate rendering of "it is natural", and *inscribo* (the best choice of the words given in the vocabulary), is not the most suitable translation of "address". Undoubtedly it is haste rather than lack of judgment which is responsible for such slips as these.

In the subject-matter of the exercises Professor Elmore has shown no small amount of ingenuity and originality. Some idea of the nature of these may be obtained from these titles (for which the reviewer is responsible): The Pleasures of Writing Latin; Books, Bores, and the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table; Earthquakes, ancient and modern; Shall the business man live in the country?; Letter-writing; Newspapers; Birthdays and Eulogy of Lincoln; Civic Reforms; A Dinner Party; Physical Exercise; Pleasures of College Life; Vacation is Approaching; Crops, Weather, and General Gossip; War; Immortality. Such live topics certainly must prove more attractive to the ordinary student than the usual musty re-hashings of certain worn-out classical themes. Reminiscences of Latin life and letters, however, season the somewhat commonplace modernity of these little essays, and there is now and then a touch of humor—sometimes conscious and sometimes not. The length and degree of difficulty of the exercises seem to be well calculated. On the other hand, when these exercises are actually written out by a class, it will be found that the teacher will need to give an unusual amount of attention to the securing of connected, smooth Latin. Otherwise the student will simply reproduce the comparatively detached, primer-like style of the English, a disaster to be most strenuously guarded against. It would doubtless relieve the monotony of these exercises, sprightly as some of them are, to insert here and there throughout the book selections of moderate difficulty from the English classics.

If, then, the teacher will supply the necessary synthetic grammatical review, insist on the marking of long vowels and the constant use of a large Latin dictionary for the purpose of supplementing the vocabulary, and finally, both by precept and example accustom his pupils to write Latin in well-constructed, graceful periods, this book may be used with great pleasure and profit. Unfortunately, there is neither table of contents nor index.

Syracuse University. HAROLD L. CLEASBY.

THE PITTSBUGH CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION

The Classical Association of Pittsburgh and Vicinity met December 4 at 10.30 A. M. in Duff's Business College. After minutes and general business Professor Hamilton Ford Allen, of Washington and Jefferson College, was introduced. Professor Allen's subject was Positions Taken by the Ships in the Battle of Salamis. He presented arguments to prove that the battle did not take place within the straits between Salamis and the mainland, but that the Persian ships lay with their left on Salamis and

their right on the mainland, with their line of battle broken by the island of Psyttaleia, and that the battle was fought in this position.

This entertaining and instructive paper was discussed by Professor H. S. Scribner of the University of Pittsburgh.

A Reading from Horace, Book I, Ode 9, was delightfully given by Mr. William Douglas of Shadyside Academy.

Ancient, particularly Greek and Roman, History in the Secondary School, was presented by Principal William L. Smith of the Allegheny High School. Principal Smith said the function of Greek and Roman History in the Secondary School should be cultural and disciplinary rather than informational. In speaking of the time it should be taught, Mr. Smith said it should be later rather than earlier in the course, and that the plan of treatment should be broad and general rather than specific in detail.

This good talk was the subject of enthusiastic discussion by Professor Adams of Shadyside Academy and Professor Ullman of the University of Pittsburgh.

Current Educational Literature was introduced by the Secretary. Byrne's Syntax of High School Latin was discussed.

The President had a pleasant surprise for the Association and its guests—a display of some rare old books which lovers of the Classics like to handle. Among these were some of the origin_l Delphin editions.

The Association received invitations from Duff's Business College and the University of Pittsburgh to hold its regular meetings in their respective buildings. The Association voted to hold the January meeting in the University. Professor Allen gave us a cordial invitation to hold one meeting in Washington and Jefferson College at Washington, Pa. We hope to accept this invitation in March.

On motion the secretary was instructed to write a history of the Classical Association of Pittsburgh and Vicinity and send it to The Classical Weekly.

The Association was happy to receive word that Dr. Paul Shorey of the University of Chicago will be present to address its meeting on April 30, 1910.

On motion the Association adjourned to meet January 22, 1910, in the University of Pittsburgh.

N. Anna Petty,
Carnegie, Pa. Secretary-Treasurer.

THE CLASSICAL CONFERENCE AT SYRACUSE

Coincident with the annual meeting of the Associated Academic Principals, December 27-29, at Syracuse, occurred the annual conference of the New York State Classical Teachers' Association, December 28. There were two sessions; both were well attended; besides nearly one hundred classical teachers from various parts of the state not a few of the Principals were present.

The program (see The Classical Weekly 3.79) was of unusual interest and value, and the conference was the most successful since the Association was formed five years ago. The Proceedings will be published with those of the meetings of the Associated Academic Principals, and the Secretary will see that copies are furnished to all members of the Association, and to others upon application.

For the benefit of those not familiar with the formation of this Association of classical teachers a brief statement may be made. The Associated Academic Principals had met annually at Syracuse, during the Christmas holidays, and for several years, also, the State Teachers' Association, which this year met in New York City. And, naturally, meetings came, in time, to be arranged for the several departments of instruction in the schools of the state. Departmental Associations were formed by the science teachers, for example, and by the classical teachers. These various Associations were formed with a common purpose. This purpose, in the case of the Classical Teachers' Association, is to develop, to a greater degree, a professional spirit of coöperation towards improved methods of teaching, and to quicken zeal for the cause of classical study. This Association has always met in Syracuse, and the date of its annual conference has always coincided, naturally, with the annual meeting of the Associated Academic Principals, a very considerable number of whom are teachers of Latin or Greek. It has, therefore, been in close touch with the annual discussions, the results of which find expression in the Academic Syllabus.

The Syllabus was discussed at the meetings of the Principals on December 28. At the morning session of the classical teachers the Latin requirements were discussed by Principal H. L. Russell, of Owego, Professor Herbert J. Smith, of the Oswego Normal School, Professor John Greene, of Colgate University, and Professor Harry Thurston Peck, of Columbia University. Professor Peck presented a resolution that the amount of prescribed reading of Latin authors, as specified for college entrance, should be diminished in the interest of more intensive study, that greater power in using the language should be developed, and that college entrance examinations should be a test of power. On motion of Professor Herbert M. Burchard, of Syracuse University, the resolution was amended to include Greek, and was then passed. Also, among the business matters at the morning session, a communication was submitted from Professor Charles Knapp, of Barnard College, in regard to coöperation with the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, and support of The Classical Weekly. Professor Knapp's letter was referred to the executive committee, and was cordially accepted. Some twenty-five additional members joined the C. A. A. S.

Greetings were received and read from the Academic Principals. It was voted unanimously, after a brief discussion, to affiliate with their body. In this connection it may be added that no communication was at any time received officially from the State Teachers' Association, nor was there any intimation of a separate meeting of classical teachers in New York City (on the same date) under their auspices until about one month prior to this conference, when the program had already been arranged. In fact, the information came first from one who had been asked to take a part in the New York meeting. Furthermore, at the conference held in Syracuse a year ago no mention was made of changing the place of meeting, nor was the matter of definite affiliation with any educational body discussed and passed upon until at the recent conference, when, as stated above, it was unanimously voted to affiliate with the Academic Principals.

At the conclusion of Professor Peck's address, which was thoroughly enjoyed by all, and was indeed a most exceptional treat, a vote of thanks was given to him.

The following officers were chosen for 1910: President, Professor John Greene, Colgate Univer-

sity; Vice-President, Professor F. A. Gallup, Albany; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Clara Blanche Knapp, Central High School, Syracuse; Executive Committee: Professor Perley Oakland Place, Syracuse University, Professor Edward Fitch, Hamilton College, Professor Harry Thurston Peck, Columbia University, Mr. Willis M. Galloway, High School, Geneva, N. Y., Miss Marcella M. Foley, High School, Herkimer.

In conclusion, this Association plans to enlist the interest and support of an increasing number of the classical teachers in the schools, colleges, and universities of the state, and to become an efficient agency for the expression of intelligent opinion in matters touching the status in our schools of that part of our educational system whose value those only can estimate whose experience has received its far-reaching value.

P. O. PLACE.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY.

THE CLASSICAL TEACHERS' SECTION OF THE NEW YORK STATE TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The Classical Section of the New York State Teachers' Association met with the general Association in New York City, at Teachers College, on December 28. There was much discussion of the fact that the Association calling itself The New York State Teachers' Classical Association, which heretofore had met with the New York State Teachers' Association when the latter body had gathered in Syracuse, had this year failed to meet in New York with the general parent body. Instead of effecting a complete organization, as was urged by some, the Section finally requested its Chairman, Dr. C. D. Seely of Brockport, to appoint at his leisure an executive committee of three members. It was further voted, on motion of Professor George P. Bristol, of Cornell University, formerly President of the New York State Classical Teachers' Association, that this Executive Committee should confer with the Syracuse organization, to induce it if possible to resume its former relations with the State Teachers' Association, and to meet annually with that body, wherever it might gather. It was further ordered that, if the Executive Committee should be unable to accomplish this purpose, it should have power to complete a permanent organization with a full complement of officers and to take measures to insure the existence of a vigorous classical section of the State Teachers' Association.

The two papers read evidenced a common desire to decrease the mortality in High School classes by better adapting the work in Latin to the needs of the secondary schools as distinguished from the demands of the colleges.

Dr. W. F. Tibbetts, of Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, discussed The Present Status of Latin in the High School. He showed that the butchery of Latin pupils is not confined to the first year, but extends up through the second and the third year. Our unsatisfactory results are largely due to the greatly changed personnel of our classes to-day with their admixture of foreign pupils imperfectly speaking and understanding English. But account must also be taken of the social diversions and unfavorable home environment of the pupil of to-day as compared with those of thirty years ago.

Dr. Tibbetts recognized not only the hopelessness of attempting to restore the conditions of the olden time, but also the necessity of intelligently adjusting ourselves to the situation as we find it at the present. This effort must find expression in endeavors to compete actively with other departments of instruction, in making our teaching more attractive and valuable in an educative way. The step in this direction should be the elimination from the work of the first year of many incomprehensible topics, such as conditional clauses, *cum*-temporal and *cum*-circumstantial clauses as well as those with *antequam* and *priusquam*. The work of the first year should be limited to forms and such a minimum of syntax as can be readily apprehended and thoroughly comprehended by the beginner. Dr. Tibbetts further advised enriching the high school curriculum by a much wider variety of reading than is now permitted. He would advocate reading the best things from many authors, rather than an attempt to study any one book exhaustively. He believed it possible to cull passages suitable for the high school student from the lyrics and elegiacs of the minor poets like Catullus and Martial, or even from the satires of Juvenal. Such an enrichment of the curriculum would involve radical differences with existing standards for entrance to the colleges, whose demands were regarded as disadvantageous to the continued popularity of Latin in our High Schools.

(To be concluded)

Mr. W. A. Jenner, of the Boys' High School, Brooklyn, spoke on Educative Interest in First Year Latin. He held that little progress had been made in the past generation in elementary Latin instruction: the beginners' book in popular use now was published in substantially its present form twenty-five years ago. Its most active competitor is confessedly reversionary in type, like the old Latin reader, which was so subservient to the conventional grammatical order of presentation as to offer only phrases for translation in the noun and adjective declensions.

Our beginners' books are unsatisfactory because they are uninteresting; they depend too much on grammatical notions for interest as well as apperception. English grammar is not taught, and will not be taught, as thoroughly as it once was; it is therefore useless to depend on that for interest and apperception.

We must therefore, in our beginners' books, appeal to those apperception-clusters in the beginner's mind which are of greater agglutinative value than are grammatical notions. Most valuable are the beginner's notions of geography and history.

English educators already show appreciation of all this. Witness Professor Sonnenschein's charming books for beginners. Since the American boy, on beginning Latin, is older and more mature than the English, we may attempt for him what Professor Sonnenschein regards as impracticable for the latter—the utilization (through intelligent methods of illumination rather than of simplification) of an original Latin text, whose pursuit will be recognized as of educative interest and value in itself. The drudgery of forms will be lightened by setting before the beginner a task which he can readily recognize as worth doing for its own sake.

Dr. Jeffreys, of the Eastern District High School, Brooklyn, differed with Mr. Jenner, and advocated the method represented by the sort of book which Mr. Jenner had described as reversionary in type.

W. A. JENNER.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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It has been more than once emphasized that it is the teacher that counts in teaching Latin, as in teaching everything else, and the life of the class-room has its source, as a rule, in the genius that presides at the desk. It is also a trite remark that no two individual teachers — that are alive — have identical methods; and it is almost superfluous to add that that which constitutes individuality in a teacher's method is not found within the leaves of a text-book. Many suggestions have come to me from various quarters from teachers who thought that their own experience, or rather, perhaps, their own devices might help other teachers: which depends upon the extent to which the teacher who learns of these devices can assimilate suggestion and transmute it into a new method, not merely an imitation of the old. Consequently all accounts of individual experiences or individual devices have their value; and therefore teachers will find Miss Sabin's paper in The School Review for December interesting. It is called An Experiment in High School Publication.

It appears that in the Oak Park High School in Illinois the students of the Latin department issue a small paper called Latine, appearing six times a year, containing four pages per issue and all sorts of examples of the work of the students. While Latin is not the absolutely necessary medium, yet the majority of the contributions are in Latin. Miss Sabin gives the contents of the paper for two years, which I subjoin:

Doings of a Freshman on the First Day of School; Descriptions of Prominent Faculty Members; Poem to the Janitor; Advertisements: The Good Points of Danderine, Grapenuts, Gold Dust Twins, etc.; Jokes on Teachers or Pupils; Bright Stories in General; Valentines; Quotations from Caesar, Cicero and Virgil, Adapted to Personal Peculiarities of Pupils; Plays at Chicago Theatres; Well-known Novels; What I am Thankful For; Original Poems; Orations of the Turkey before Thanksgiving; How I spent my Summer; Interviews with Seniors; Reports on Caesar, Cicero, and Virgil when Boys at School; Poems, half English and half Latin like

> Felis sedet by a hole
> Intenta she cum omni soul
> Prendere rats;
> Mice cucurrunt over the floor
> In numero duo, tres, or more,
> Obliti cats;

Continued Stories; Baseball News; Description of a Roman Banquet and Consular Elections; Imaginary Letters Written by Some Character in Caesar or Cicero; Bible Passages.

The object of the paper is (1) to meet the student on the common ground of humor, (2) to show the pupils that the language is adapted to modern life, (3) to afford material for sight reading so personal in its nature that for once in his life at any rate the pupil will be eager to read Latin, (4) to give the student a chance to contribute and see his name in the Latin paper, (5) to inspire a feeling of pride and dignity in the work of the department, (6) to keep before the mind of the pupil, without seeming to do so, and still more to bring to the attention of the father and mother the reasons for studying Latin and Greek.

In the sample number before me one contribution is entitled Libri ab Omnibus Noti and from the list of thirty-eight I cull the following: Transitus, Mulierculae, Littera Coccinea, Sedes Potentium, Discrimen Rerum, Limes Pinus Solitariae, Domus Fastigiorum Septem, Superbia et Opinio Confirmata.

A publication with a similar view, but issued, I think, only once a year, is Sibylline Leaves, published by the students of the classical department of the Central High School, Kansas City, Mo. This latter publication is a small book of forty pages, containing contributions of all sorts in Greek, Latin and English, pictures and news. It resembles in some respects certain annuals that one sees in schools, for we have accounts of students' plays, burlesques on studies, caricatures of leading characters in their courses. A caricature of Caesar and Ariovistus, Caesar with a small Aeduan clinging to the skirt of his tunic, facing Ariovistus whose heavy club rests on the outstretched form of a wretched Sequanian, I wish I could reproduce.

He would be a strange person who would despise such productions as those I have mentioned. Ephemeral in their character to be sure and rarely, if ever, containing anything that deserves to live, they yet are themselves signs of a vitality which is none the less real for being palpably fostered. If our students are to study Latin after the modern system the use of Latin is a desideratum; even its abuse may be welcomed. This point has been often emphasized in these columns and I do not need to refer back again to the eloquent words of Dr. Rouse. Latin ceased to be a spoken language during the Middle Ages because certain of its devotees set up a standard of Ciceronianism—a standard unreachable by thousands who yet spoke a Latin quite comprehensible. Better

a pupil who is sufficiently interested in his subject to write Latin sentences of his own volition ungrammatically, than a thousand of those who write it grammatically under compulsion. For the former there is much hope; for the latter there is little.

I strongly suspect that the majority of us teachers are over-pedantic in the bad sense, that is to say we set a standard of correctness which we ourselves would find difficulty in reaching and we hug the delusion that, because we have diligently worked out the exercise which we set our pupils to write, we are therefore critics of Latin style. As a matter of fact the range of ideas in our various class-rooms is so narrow and the range of expression is so straightened that it is a wonder our pupils get as much out of the study as they do and, were it not that they are unconsciously absorbing food for the mind in many shapes merely intimated by the work of the hour, the total results would be more barren than I care to contemplate. And so all such efforts as those indicated in the work at Kansas City and Oak Park are not merely to be tolerated but to be emphatically endorsed and, while no *Cicero redivivus* is likely to result, yet many of the students will find the road to the Capitol paved with something else besides rocks of offense. G. L.

SYMPOSIUM ON FIRST YEAR LATIN.

At the annual meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States held at Haverford College on April 23-24 last, one session was devoted to a Symposium on First Year Latin: Essentials versus Non-Essentials. With the present number we begin the publication of the papers that formed part of this symposium. That these papers may be rightly understood we reproduce the outline of the symposium that formed part of the printed programme of the meeting:

I. Pronunciation.—Miss Theodora Ethel Wye, Teachers College.

II. Forms.—Mr. Charles C. Delano, Jr., Brooklyn Latin School, Brooklyn (now at Antioch College, Yellow Springs, Ohio).

(a) What forms must be learned? what forms may safely be eliminated?

(b) How can the essential forms be mastered? Should they be learned piecemeal? or in large blocks?

(c) Aids to teaching forms? modes of reciting or using paradigms to advantage? modes of fixing forms in mind?

III. Syntax.—Miss Anna Petty, High School, Carnegie, Pennsylvania.

(a) What principles should be mastered in this year? what principles may be safely omitted?

(b) When should the study of syntax begin? at once? or should it be postponed until a goodly number of forms has been learned?

(c) Modes of presenting syntactical principles and of fixing them in mind?

IV. Vocabulary.—Mr. Stephen A. Hurlbut, The Kelvin School, New York City.

(a) How many words should be learned? what words? what meanings?

(b) Aids to acquiring these words?

(c) What part should word-formation play?

V. Latin Writing.—Dr. George Depue Hadszitz, University of Pennsylvania.

(a) When should it begin?

(b) Place of oral work?

(c) Should there be much writing or little?

(d) How much should be attempted in this year (i. e. what principles of syntax should be attacked)?

(e) Helps?

I. THE PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN

The purpose of this symposium is, as I understand it, to separate the essentials from the non-essentials in first year work, and to suggest how the former may be emphasized.

Fortunately the question of the Roman pronunciation versus the English or Continental is hardly one which disturbs the teacher of beginning Latin to-day. Despite Professor Bennett's protests that matter is practically settled. If, however, there should be in the class some enterprising youth who reads The Western Teacher or The New York Evening Post, he too may ask why one should not say *jigno, jignere,* since it is so much easier and so much more like the English. Then the teacher must be ready to give practical reasons and explanations for the faith that is in her. It is not merely bad morals but bad strategy to find oneself compelled to say to a young and therefore critical student that a certain procedure is adapted because 'the colleges require it' or even because it is the latest thing. Perhaps it may be said, then, that for the teacher the first essential is a healthy conviction of the validity of the Roman pronunciation and the possession of reasons for the same that can be stated clearly and positively if the need arises.

The beginners' books all give more or less elaborate rules for the sounds of the vowels and consonants, but the teacher of experience knows that these are useful chiefly for reference and that pupils will acquire the correct sounds most readily by imitation. A very considerable amount of Latin, therefore, should be heard in the class-room in the first weeks of instruction. If one is so fortunate as to be able to use skillfully the direct or oral method, the pupils will have from the beginning abundant opportunity for practice in using Latin. Failing this desideratum, the reading aloud of *all* Latin set for study should be the invariable rule. At no stage in the secondary school curriculum is it more important that the cry of 'So much to do in forty minutes' should not induce the teacher to neglect this phase of the beginning work. If Ciceronian periods or Vergilian music are ever to have any meaning for the High School student the habit of hearing and using the language must be established from the very first days.

On the purely formal side what shall we ask our students to learn, as to rules for accent, quantity, etc.? In the matter of accent it has often seemed to me that the solemnity of some of our beginners' books is marked by the pathos of the unintentionally humorous. Two recent manuals give long and carefully worded rules regarding the conditions under which a Latin syllable is long and equally long and elaborate rules for the conditions under which it is short. One can only assume that the relation between 'tother and which was not established in the authors' own early education. Seriously, however, it seems that as the rules for accent are usually the first rules which the Latin student meets it is of importance that they should set the example of being brief and explicit. Method is individual and one should be chary of offering one's own patent, but after reading the rules in half a dozen beginners' books and observing the dire confusion in the minds even of college students on this simple matter I venture to mention the very homely directions that I give to my own students. After having taught the names of the syllables I say: "Latin accent is very simple. There are three rules. (1) Never accent the ultima; (2) accent the penult when it is long; it is long if it contains a long vowel, a dipthong or a vowel followed by two consonants; (3) if the penult is short accent the antepenult". I should consider that I was laying undue emphasis upon a very obvious point did not a recent pamphlet—by a University professor—entitled The Teaching of Elementary Latin contain the following paragraph:

> The practice of many good teachers is to spend the first week in drilling the class on the rules of pronunciation. This seems an unnecessary waste of time and energy, is disagreeable to the class, and ultimately results in a less correct pronunciation than when the teacher, without stopping to have the class learn rules, begins with the first lesson and gives the correct pronunciation of each word as the class comes to it. Toward the end of the year the rules for pronunciation should be learned. With the method recommended above, the class, with a little help and correction from the teacher, will readily pronounce their Latin as well as they do their English.

This is surely making a difficulty where none exists. The three short, simple rules necessary can be learned in ten minutes by an average student; the custom of asking a student when he mispronounces a word WHY he puts the accent on that syllable in place of making for him the correction which he promptly forgets will very soon establish the habit of determining for himself at first sight the correct accentuation. Can this be said to consume more time than asking students to learn by sheer force of memory the correct pronunciation of five or six hundred words and then commit the rules after the greatest need for them is over?

The most difficult question, however, with which the teacher has to deal in teaching pronunciation is the matter of quantities. How much shall be taught and how can it best be done? Beginners' books vary in the rules given, teachers vary in the extent to which they require quantities to be marked in written work. Personally I have found that the simpler rules, such as the quantity of a vowel before another vowel, before *ns, nt* and *nd*, etc., are helpful. They need not all be given at the outset, but suggested gradually as an aid when a student is having trouble with a particular word. Learning quantities outright should in my opinion be restricted to the case-endings, verb-forms, the quantity of the accented penult, and words like *Rōmānus*, which occur so frequently that visualizing them is comparatively easy. Here again it is a case of its being better to require a little and insist on the knowledge of that little. Words and forms that can be differentiated by quantity alone should be heavily stressed as soon as they occur. A child who has been properly taught should not find the *abuteris* of the first Catilinarian a rock or confuse the nominative *mensis* with the Dative plural of *mensa*. The marking of quantities in written work is a valuable aid if it is systematic and not overdone. Occasional sight-reading of unmarked Latin will bring home the value of quantities in translation and the marking of such a text by the pupils can be used as a variation of the ordinary written work.

I should wish to emphasize, however, at the end as well as at the beginning of this paper, the fact that the habitual use of Latin in the class-room by teacher and pupil when the teacher is herself fastidious in the matter of quantity—and double consonants—is the factor of greatest importance in cultivating sensitiveness on the part of the students to the niceties of Latin pronunciation.

TEACHERS COLLEGE. THEODORA ETHEL WYE.

II. FORMS IN FIRST YEAR LATIN

The fundamental object to be attained in any serious work in first year Latin is threefold. We must insist upon a thorough knowledge of forms, the acquisition of a fairly large vocabulary and an understanding of the common grammatical constructions. To lay down principles by means of which any formal estimate may be set upon the relative value of each of these three requirements is a very difficult matter. They are in fact all extremely essential for any degree of success in the reading of Caesar or Nepos.

In this paper, however, we propose to discuss as thoroughly as possible, in the limited time at our disposal, but one of the three ends of first year study which have been enumerated above. I mean the study and teaching of forms. Important as we may all grant the acquisition of vocabulary and the knowledge of syntax to be, yet the zest and pleasure

is largely taken from the study of Nepos or Caesar if the student is hampered by his inability to recognize and interpret the forms which he meets upon the printed page. The work of the second year should not of necessity be devoted to the study of paradigms, but should be more profitably spent in pushing forward the frontiers of the student's mental vision in the acquirement of an increased vocabulary and a deeper knowledge of grammatical lore.

(a) We may first, then, determine what are the essential forms to be learned during the first year of Latin study.

In the first declension, we can, I am sure, safely afford to omit all the Greek nouns. Stress, however, must be laid upon the peculiarities of the Latin inflections, such as the dative and ablative plural of *dea* and *filia*, although any time spent upon the study of the old genitive singular, as in *pater familias*, may better be postponed until a later period, for its use will not come within the learner's course of reading until he meets it in Cicero.

In the second declension, likewise, we may best confine ourselves to purely Latin forms. All that is Latin, however, it seems to me, must be thoroughly learned. We cannot afford to neglect careful work and drill in the treatment of the genitive singular of nouns ending in *ius* and *ium*, or of the vocative singular of nouns with the former termination. As far as my experience goes, such forms are a perennial source of error. Another fertile ground for doubt in the second declension is the apparent arbitrary presence or absence of the *e* in the stem of the oblique cases of such words as *puer* and *ager*. No amount of time spent in the attempt to remove ignorance in this matter can be misspent.

In the third declension, also, Greek inflections may not concern us at all in first year work. All regular Latin forms must, however, be thoroughly digested, as well as such irregular nouns as *bos, vis, iter*, etc., as are of fairly common use in the second year readings. The *i*-stems need an especially thorough treatment, and constant practice both in oral and written work, together with a careful memorizing of the rules governing their formation, is the only safe way of mastering their difficulties.

The fourth and fifth declensions must in general be learned in their entirety. In the study of the fourth declension scientific accuracy demands that the learner form a clear conception of the fact that the dative singular of masculine and feminine nouns likes to end in *ui* (the form in *u* is of rare occurrence), while neuters regularly end in *u*, and that the dative and ablative plural vary in accordance with fixed rules between *ibus* and *ubus*. It is not too much, I am sure, to expect that at the end of the first year's study the student will be absolutely certain on these matters. In the fifth declension, he must remember that *dies* and *res* are the only nouns that are not defective in the plural, while most of the others have only the nominative and accusative cases.

In all these declensions we can scarcely, with any peace of mind, neglect the rules for gender or the locatival forms. Rules for grammatical gender of the third declension are particularly hard, but their thorough mastery is an acquisition for which the student will be exceedingly grateful throughout all his later study. Locative forms are certainly not difficult and drill will easily fix them in mind.

If the beginner has already acquired a firm grasp of the first two declensions, adjectives which follow these inflections may be easily mastered. A constant source of error, however, lurks in the declension of *miser, misera, miserum*, which in distinction from *pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum* does not drop the *e* of the stem in the inflection. Much practice will be needed to clear up this mystery. Peculiarities of case endings, as, for instance, in the genitive and dative singular of *unus* and its eight companions, introduce a novelty into the inflection of adjectives of the first and second declensions which will require considerable attention before the student becomes familiar with such usages. Careful drill is necessary in the correct pronunciation of this particular genitive, with especial reference to the exception occurring in *alterius*. Likewise adjectives of the third declension are robbed of much of their terror when viewed in the light of previous knowledge gained in the corresponding nominal inflections. Some time, however, may be profitably spent in dealing with such so-called irregular adjectives as *dives, par, vetus*, and the participle in *-iens*. Comparison of adjectives need not present any serious difficulty, although such irregular comparisons as *bonus, malus, parvus*, etc., should receive such attention and drill as to become a very part of the student's mental life. Demonstrative adjectives, it need hardly be said, are all sufficiently important to be included within the scope of first year work. Many of the numeral forms may be passed over with a simple reading. A careful memorizing of the cardinals up to twenty with the decads to one hundred along with the ordinals as far as twenty, would, I should say, be amply sufficient for ordinary purposes. Distributives and multiplicatives can be safely omitted as well as most of the numeral adverbs.

Pronominal forms contain little that can be slighted. In the genitive plural of the first and second personal pronouns important syntactical constructions require both forms to be learned, although it is not essential to burden the pupil's mind with the form *mi* in the dative singular of *ego*. In the treatment of the interrogative pronouns, in practically all the grammars we find the statement that when used pronominally the masculine singular form *quis* and its oblique cases serves for the feminine as

well. Nearly all beginners' books, however, decline the singular in three genders throughout, without stating clearly, if at all, that the feminine singular forms are used solely as adjectives. Scientific accuracy, however, demands that we should insist upon the whole truth in this matter. Most of the indefinite pronouns are indispensable to our work of the first year. Such peculiarities as occur in the feminine singular of *aliquis* and such double forms as *quiddam* and *quoddam* need to be especially pointed out and explained. Correlative and compound forms need not cause much trouble, if previous declensions have been well mastered.

In the conjugations little can be safely neglected. I should most assuredly omit the future imperatives, though all else is most essential. Special care is due the imperative, infinitive, participial, gerund, gerundive and supine forms. Experience shows that boys and girls enter upon their second year with an exceedingly hazy notion about their formation and inflection. Of irregular verbs only such as do not occur frequently in second year authors should be considered as unessential.

So much, then, for the amount of study of forms upon which we must insist in first year Latin work. Leaving for the present any consideration of the best methods of teaching and learning these inflections, we may now turn to the second topic of our discussion.

(*To be continued*)

REVIEWS.

A Study in Roman Coins of the Empire. By Frederic Stanley Dunn. University of Oregon Bulletin. November, 1909. 23 pp.

Scholars in America have never fully realized the importance of ancient coins as an aid to classical study. It is true, our college texts of ancient authors often have cuts of coins, more or less appropriate, but for the most part derived from old wood-cuts badly drawn and inaccurate in the extreme. It is doubtful in most cases whether the writers have ever seen, or at least examined with care, an original specimen. Nor are they wholly to blame, for their masters and confrères in Europe, with all the great national collections in easy reach and with all the force of centuries of tradition that America lacks, are much in the same position. Archaeology has indeed become a handmaid to classical literature; archaeologists know their literature well, while the exponents of the literature of the Greeks and Romans have become, and are ever becoming more, students of archaeology in every one of its branches —except numismatics. Here, alas! the field is abandoned to dilettanti and specialists outside the universities. Mommsen alone, in this as in other things, stands on a pinnacle by himself. He was the only thoroughly rounded classical scholar. To him no phase of ancient life and thought, no slightest monument that helps to illustrate the ancient world, was unworthy of the most serious study, and Das Römische Münzwesen testifies to his interest in coins, too, as a subject of historical investigation.

But for the rest,—should we gather the names of great classicists and those of famous numismatists, they would stand in two almost mutually exclusive columns. The study of ancient, especially Roman, coins, has been mainly limited to private collectors—often men with but a meager classical training—and to the custodians of public collections; and scientific articles by competent writers appear almost inevitably in the exclusively numismatic periodicals that seldom reach the greater public, even of the studious. Francesco Gnecchi in his valuable little manual Monete Romane has drawn up a list of the chief writers on Roman coins from Andrea Fulvio in 1517 to Babelon's Traité of 1904, and out of eighty authors the names of Mommsen, Borghesi, Lenormant and Garrucci alone are familiar to classical students in other fields!

This is a serious indictment of classical philologians, but such are the facts and the indictment must stand. Of late, things seem to be mending somewhat. The results of research in Roman coins are at last being incorporated in the body of classical lore. The only wonder is that—boycotted as it practically has been in every university aula—Roman numismatics should still have been placed on such a firm and scientific footing, thanks to the labors of such *non-professional* scholars as the Baron d'Ailly, Gnecchi, Bahrfeldt and Dr. Haeberlin. It seems indeed as if this most illuminating branch of historical study were at last "coming into its own". Courses are offered in several universities abroad (last year a course was given in the University of Rome by Dr. Lorenzina Cesano—an Italian *woman*, be it noted), and a beginning is being made in America, too. Even without the original material for study much can be done; but coins of undoubted genuineness are so readily obtainable and at such slight expense—where great rarities are not sought *as such*, and the rarity of a coin is a mere accident of no consequence from the scientific standpoint—that there is no reason why every institution where the Classics are taught should not have a small and well-selected collection as part of its equipment.

Yale has had for years a collection of several thousand specimens, both Greek and Roman, long ago catalogued with loving care by Dr. Jonathan Edwards, but since his time they have been hidden away like a buried treasure in the library, where, so far as I am aware, no one has ever used them for practical study until very recently. There are goodly collections in the Mint at Philadelphia (where the curator, Dr. T. L. Comparette, is doing what he can, under wretched conditions, to augment it), at the

Boston Museum of Fine Arts and the Metropolitan (in both of which, however, the coin is regarded as an individual work of ancient art; its historical value for comparative study is minimized), and in the American Numismatic Society's building in New York. A careful but summary catalogue of the Roman coins in St. John's College, Toledo, Ohio, was published two years ago by Father F. J. Hillig, S. J., of that institution. Thus it is evident that material exists among us and that interest in the subject is not lacking.

The little pamphlet of Professor Dunn cited at the head of this article is a welcome sign of this awakening interest, and I heartily commend a perusal of it to all who may have a curiosity to know what coins have to teach. Doubtless copies may readily be obtained by addressing the author at Eugene, Oregon. It is not presented as a work of originality or scholarship, and does not require a critical review at my hands. Professor Dunn had never given attention to Roman coins until chance placed in his way a small collection of coppers from Augustus to the fourth century, with a few earlier and later pieces. They were of little value commercially and mainly in rather bad preservation, to judge by the examples he illustrates in two plates, and further he was hampered by the lack of books to consult on the subject. But in order to show how much pleasure and profit may be drawn from even so slight a source, I cannot do better than to quote, in part, his own words in the opening section.

A privilege enjoyed by comparatively few classical instructors fell to my lot some three years ago, when, through the generosity of a friend, a collection of old coins was placed in my hands for the purpose of classification. The summers since then, and many long winter evenings, have found me poring, like a veritable miser, over my treasure-trove, thoroughly enjoying the thrill of handling these relics of antiquity and fascinated by the quest to decipher their enigmas. . . . It was a matter of progressive amazement to me to discover how a single coin could reveal such alluring glimpses into so many departments at once. One brass of Trajan's could teach me truths that had hitherto made but slight impression—I was a pupil in history, biography, current events, private life, religion, art, portraiture, epigraphy, orthography, metallurgy—all in one. . . . I am convinced that the science of ancient numismatics is an unclasped volume to the average citizen and that its technical phrases are more or less vague even to the majority of classical students. . . . May I hope that the general reader, as well perhaps as my colleagues in the classics, may find something of interest in the following paper. I am making bold to give to my pamphlet the nature of a discursus upon a selected group of the coins, indulging freely in the use of explanations and transcriptions, in the wish that I may thereby lead my readers by the same inductive method which I myself was compelled to follow.

The coins selected for examination are all *sestertii*, *dupondii* and *asses* of Divus Augustus (struck by Tiberius), Caligula (in honor of his father Germanicus), Nero (temple of Janus closed), Titus, Domitian (by a slip labeled *Dominitian*, p. 16), and Trajan. Would that a copy might be placed, as a 'tract', in the hands of every Latin teacher in America!

GEORGE N. OLCOTT.
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

Heracleitos von Ephesos, griechisch u. deutsch. Von Hermann Diels. Second Edition. Berlin: Weidmann (1909).

It is eight years since the first edition of this book appeared in 56 pages; the present numbers 83. The type is now larger and not so solid; the pages are no longer black with erudition, and the tentative pamphlet has become a little book. But this is not the sole improvement: the introduction is fuller; original sources on the life, writings and teachings of Heracleitos precede the fragments; these latter, too, are a trifle more numerous (with numbering unchanged, however), and the accompanying footnotes are generously enlarged; finally, the whole of Hippocrates' De victu 1.3-24 is given (this is founded on the teachings of Heracleitos, only 13-24 now being queried as pseudo-Hippocratean). Evidently, one feels, both the man and his teaching are becoming better understood, more appreciated and of increased importance.

And this is true. Twenty-five years ago Diels was not full professor in Berlin; but his lectures on Aristotle already revealed him as the coming compiler and interpreter of Greek philosophy. Since then he has given us the Doxographi Graeci, the fragments of the pre-Socratic philosophers, and a host of symbola on almost all of them, keeping pace with Bywater in England. In the last ten years Heracleitos has come to be a most important figure in the history of philosophy and theology through the new interpretation given to his word *logos* (an advance with which Diels shows himself not to be in full sympathy in this last edition) and our insight into his hierophantic rhetoric has been immensely enhanced by the careful arrangement of the philosopher's fragments by Diels, differing, however, greatly from Bywater's. We can now by induction and definition see the Fire.

In a vague way the world knows him as the 'Weeping Philosopher,' that he held that all things are Fire because Fire is transformed into all things, and taught a theory of Perpetual Flux, "the whole universe being possibly a speck upon the eternal ocean of change." But the skilful arrangement by Professor Diels suggests a fuller and better understanding. He has no purpose of interpreting the philosophy of Heracleitos as a whole; he has translated throughout each and every fragment of Heracleitos; others may build what system they can upon them. Logos to him is no clear parent, as he finds it in Heracleitos, of the Stoic and Philonic and evangelistic Logos, 'Word'. It is still 'welt-gesetz' or 'gesetz',

though he renders it 'Wort'. Here our debt to Professor Diels ends; he has given us an extremely scholarly and attractive edition of the philosopher's fragments, and in the introduction an excellent statement of the influence of the Logos of the philosopher down into Christian times.

For many years, however, there was a tendency to handle Heracleitos as a Greek philosopher purely. Those who got their impressions of the philosopher from Ueberweg found but little connection of the Logos with the tenets of the Stoics, Philo, John the evangelist and Justin Martyr. Heinze, in Die Lehre vom Logos (1872), maintained that "the Logos of Heracleitos is only a sovereign ordinance that Nature invariably obeys and man must also follow, if he is to play his appointed part in the economy of the world". But now the tendency is to emphasize it as the "rational power, principle, or being which speaks to men both from without and from within—the universal Word which for those who have ears to hear is audible in Nature and their own hearts, the voice of the divine"[1].

Probably the best and most recent English expression of the Logos doctrine of Heracleitos is to be found in Professor James Adam's Religious Teachers of Greece, chapters X and XI, embodying what he said in expounding the Greek philosopher in his Gifford lectures on Natural Religion, delivered in 1906 at Aberdeen.

Heracleitos considered himself the means of a new revelation to man, and did not hold the Logos to be *his* mere discourse, but a "pre-existent and everlasting cosmic principle operating in the material and spiritual world and giving all its full significance". It must be obeyed; it is actively intelligent and thinks—the divine reason imminent in Nature and man. It is not an immaterial essence; with Heracleitos the spiritual is not yet separated from the material; he is a hylozoist, but the primal substance has life *plus* thought. Fire is the Logos conceived of as something material. Did not Jehovah speak to Moses in the fire that consumed not the bush? Did not Persian fire-worshippers possibly give the philosopher fire as the subtlest essence to be conceived of as the substance of the Logos? Indeed, he may have caught an inspiration from some chanting of that opening line of the Rig Veda:

Agnim ile purohitam yajnasya devam rtvigam.

But he saw more in fire; it stood for the changing reality of things; yet, in spite of his vision of an eternal ocean of change, his last word is not multiplicity or discord, but unity and harmony; and the unity in which all opposites are reconciled is the Logos, or God. Here, then, was his solution of the universe: it is spirit (he calls it fire), and of it he predicates divine qualities; it is intelligent, purposeful, law-abiding. The world of phenomena is created by the changes in this divine substance. He was monist; to him there was no antinomy of mind and matter. But his great contribution is the Logos: God and identical with the everliving Fire (not the ordinary fire we see, but celestial Fire, such as Moses may have seen) and in its changes is the world. How the Logos passed on from the Stoics to Philo "who under Platonic influence clearly separates Logos from the supreme God" and "then came the decisive step for which post-Aristotelian philosophers in Greece clearly prepared the way by an ever increasing disposition to personify the ethical ideal", and how the connection is made with the fourth evangelist, and Justin Martyr could say, "They who have lived in company with the Logos are Christians, even if they were accounted atheists, —and such among the Greeks were Socrates and Heracleitos"—all this final outcome we are in position to appreciate all the better for the careful editing, explanation, and appreciation of the fragments of Heracleitos by Diels.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY. W. E. WATERS.

[1] Cf. Schuster, *Heraklit von Ephesus* (1900), James Adam, *The Religious Teachers of Greece* (1908).

THE WASHINGTON CLASSICAL CLUB held its eighth regular meeting on Saturday, January 15, at noon, at the Friends School, 1809 I Street, Washington, D. C. Professor John C. Rolfe of the University of Pennsylvania read a most interesting and instructive paper on The Scientific Knowledge of the Ancients. Mr. Thomas W. Sidwell, Principal of the Friends School and President of the Washington Classical Club, and Mrs. Sidwell entertained the members of the Club at a buffet luncheon after the meeting.

THE CLASSICAL CLUB OF THE GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY celebrated its tenth anniversary on January 22. Professor Mitchell Carroll, founder of the Club and its President since the beginning, presided. The feature of the meeting was a Symposium on Classical Studies as a Training for Men of Affairs. The speakers were Rev. James Bryce, the British Ambassador, Mr. John W. Foster, formerly Secretary of State, Dr. Harvey Wiley, of the Bureau of Chemistry, and Mr. James Scott Brown. Mr. Bryce urged Americans to bestir themselves in opposition to the tendency to desert classical studies in favor of studies which bring worldly benefits at the earliest possible moment. He laid emphasis on the relation of modern literatures to the Classics. Mr. Foster argued strongly against elective courses; if the student must specialize in latter-day courses, let him do so when his mind is in fit condition to absorb them to the best advantage. Dr. Wiley and Mr. Scott advocated the study of the Classics because such study ministers to mental training and forms the basis for future study in modern languages and literatures.

We greatly regret that lack of space prevents us from giving in greater detail the interesting addresses delivered on this important occasion.

The phrase *To be concluded,* found on page 103, is due to an error in proof-reading. The paragraphs below this phrase and the 'rule' which follows it belong with what precedes and complete that report.

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The next number of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY will contain sixteen pages. The main feature of the issue will be Mr. Hurlbut's paper on the Vocabulary of First Year Latin, which attracted much attention at Haverford in April last, when it was presented at the meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States as part of the Symposium on First Year Latin. The paper gives a list of 600 words for First Year Latin Study, arranged in three different ways.

It is thought that many teachers will find these lists useful, alike in school and college. I intend to use them with my freshman class at Barnard College. Extra copies may be obtained at 10 cents each (12 copies one dollar, 25 copies two dollars). The issue will be copyrighted. C. K.

Some of my remarks in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY of January 22 (3.97) seem more or less liable to misconstruction, and Professor Ingersoll of Yale University has done me the great service of criticising and amplifying them in the communication which follows. G. L.

I have just read with much interest the full and clear editorial of Professor Lodge in the current issue of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY. Professor Lodge writes on the basis of full information and in an admirable spirit, but it is possible that a reader whose inside information is not so complete as that of Professor Lodge might get an erroneous impression from one or two passages in the editorial, to which therefore I should like to allude briefly.

One of the passages reads as follows: *"The reduction of the amount specifically required will relieve teachers of the necessity of covering so many pages in a given time"*. Properly understood this passage is quite unobjectionable, but to a reader not *thoroughly* familiar with the definitions formulated by the Commission it might not unnaturally be misleading. The definitions of the Commission distinguish sharply between (1) the *amount* of the reading required and (2) the texts *specifically prescribed* for minute examination, and the Commission has recommended no reduction under the first of these two heads. The correct understanding of this fact is obviously important. Under the definitions of the Commission a candidate for admission to college must be duly certified by his teacher(s) as having an *amount* of Latin fully equivalent to the old four books of Caesar, six orations of Cicero, and six books of Vergil.

Another passage in the editorial which seems to call for a word of comment is the one in which Professor Lodge says *"There seemed to be a unanimity of opinion that the best test of teaching was the ability to translate unseen passages of Latin with substantial accuracy"*, and the two following sentences. The point here to be noted is that the case is not quite so simple as the words of Professor Lodge would seem to imply. All members of the Commission would agree (as indeed who would not?) that the accurate reading of unseen passages is an excellent test and, in fact, they all heartily favored the general employment of this test in the entrance examinations; but these facts do not quite cover the whole case and Professor Lodge's statements in this section of the editorial seem to me to be too sweeping. I shall attempt no discussion of the subject here, but will content myself with the statement that the distinction between "seen" and "unseen" may be carried too far in language-teaching as well as in other spheres, and that "the ability to translate unseen passages", while an excellent test and heartily to be commended, does not necessarily supply a complete solution to all the problems involved.

I will add just a word on the subject of the use to which the definitions of the Commission may be put by those who are interested. The main object of the labors of the Commission, by the very terms of its constitution, was in the direction of securing *uniformity* in entrance requirements in Latin. A start has now been made in this direction, but of course the whole problem has not been satisfactorily and permanently solved and there are imperfections even in what has already been done. The Commission, however, still continues in existence and contemplates further deliberations if they shall seem to be called for. It would seem that, for the present at least, the best chance of further progress in the desired direction is through the Commission. The Commission of course has no *authority* whatever, nor has it, I am sure, an desire to *impose* its views upon anyone. Such influence as it may have must be by way of purely voluntary approval and acceptance on the part of schools and colleges. If such voluntary approval and acceptance are not secured, the Commission will have accomplished little or nothing.

Nor will much have been accomplished, if various colleges accept merely certain parts of the definitions of the Commission, making each in its own way certain reservations, exceptions, modifications, or additions. If, however, colleges which approve *in general* the aims and statements of the Commission to date will adopt for the present the Commission's definitions as they are and will send to the Chairman of the Commission (Professor John C. Kirtland, Exeter, N. H.) suggestions for future modifications, there is at least a *chance* that definitions may ultimately be formulated which will be satisfactory, if not to all, at least to a large majority of those concerned. J. W. D. INGERSOLL.

SYMPOSIUM ON FIRST YEAR LATIN.

(*Continued from page* 109. *See page* 106)

(b) Should forms be presented piecemeal or en bloc?

Until about thirty years ago any first year Latin book which did not follow an orderly presentation of first the forms and then the syntax of Latin would certainly have lain unsold upon the publisher's shelf. About 1880, however, a new pedagogical theory began to be exploited in such books as the original Collar and Daniell's and others of less renown. In these books forms were given piecemeal, with nominal, adjectival, pronominal and verb inflections interspersed with grammatical rules in a heterogeneous mass. The advancement of such a theory was evidently due to a desire to ease the learner's struggle for the mastery of Latin forms and syntax. This new style of text-book became immediately popular, and the older theory became practically extinct for several years. But when the pendulum of theoretical pedagogy swings to the uppermost limit in one direction, it is sure to return in a degree at least toward its original position. The year 1898 indeed marks the rebirth of the older theory, with the publication of Professor Bennett's Foundations of Latin, which advocates and embodies the older method of presenting forms.

We shall now, therefore, endeavor to discover some general principles which may serve to indicate the values which may be attached to both theories.

Latin is hard, say the exponents of the old-time theory. Its mastery requires patience and steady perseverance. But patience and perseverance can only come through the exercise of patience and perseverance. In other words, according to Aristotle, virtues cannot be taught, they can only grow in strength through their own use. What greater opportunity can we find, then, for the development of intellectual virtues than the patient and persevering attack upon Latin paradigms and grammar arranged in their proper sequence and in their entirety? The first point, then, in favor of the older method is the schooling which it affords in patience and resolution.

The second point arises largely from the first. Logic and order are the foundations of success in any kind of work. Wherein can orderly arrangement and logical development be better illustrated and placed before the student's mind than in such a manner as we have just described? The older method, then, taught logic and orderliness.

A third and last point in favor of the older method is the fact that the student of the second year Latin will not be hampered in his use of his grammar. For has he not learned his forms and syntactical rules in their regular sequence? And this is a condition of affairs I think which does not, unfortunately, always exist in the case of the student who has been trained by the more modern piecemeal theory.

Such, then, are some of the arguments in favor of the older method. Of these, the last is better than the other two. The inability of the student to make the best use of his grammar at the beginning of his second year, may, I think, be fairly charged to the modern piecemeal instruction. The first two, however, are open to attack. The opponents of the older en bloc theory may immediately retaliate by saying that the teaching of perseverance and patience, in a word, mental discipline, is not the sole aim of Latin study, nor even the most important aim. Latin is far too beautiful a language and its riches of literature far too grand to degrade its study to merely mental gymnastics. And truly, a good way to turn a student's mind from all things Latin is the dreariness of learning everything at once. Such an attack, indeed, while fully granting the value of Latin as a mental discipline, is, I think, well-nigh unanswerable.

The new method of piecemeal presentation of forms and syntax, on the other hand, is clearly an attempt to lighten the beginner's burden. We must all, I think, admit that variety in intellectual, as well as material food, is more palatable than a steady diet of the same kind. We may even, I think, advance one step further and admit that the new method is a concession to an incipient unpopularity of Latin studies in secondary schools.

The first point, then, in favor of the new method of study is its variety, and variety is a sure means of lending interest to a subject. But this very variety is the direct cause of another favorable consideration of this theory. By means of the scattered presentation, for instance of verb forms, opportunity is given for a thorough mastery of one set of forms and for practice in their use with exercises based on that particular set, before an attack need be made upon another set, whereas, in the conjugation of a verb en bloc, no such opportunity, under the very facts of the case, can be offered for practice in parts before taking up the whole.

These two points, then, variety and advantage, we

may assert in favor of the new system. Whether they have answered the arguments of the opponents is a question which every man must decide for himself.

The ideal First Year Latin Book doubtless can be constructed on neither line to the exclusion of the other. The older method with its dreary uniformity and concentrated drill upon forms before taking up the more interesting matters of syntax and composition may be valuable as a check upon the too riotous use of the newer piecemeal exposition. Novelty in all things likes to run riot at the first. And so it was in the earliest books which embodied the features of the new system. If you examine the original edition of Collar and Daniell's Beginner's Latin Book you will observe that the treatment of subjunctive and infinitive forms was postponed until late in the book. Actual use, however, soon proved that such a practice was not conducive to best results. Students did not have time enough to get thoroughly acquainted with such forms and uses before the end of their first year work. In the First Year Latin, by the same authors, however, we find this defect remedied and in the preface to the book especial emphasis is laid upon the change in the order of presentation of these forms.

Since that time every new manual has been increasing steadily in excellence through the clearer understanding of the errors of its predecessors. We may not, it is true, be accurate prophets, but the signs of the times seem to indicate that the piecemeal theory, safeguarded by the vision of the error which has arisen from its over-use, has come to stay. Certain it is that, with only one important exception, so far as I have been able to discover, all the new books which are constantly appearing are firm adherents of the new faith, modified and corrected by the experience of some twenty-five years of actual use in schoolrooms all over the land.

So, then, we have attempted freely to weigh in the balance the value of the two methods of presenting paradigms and we have, I think, been led to the conclusion that neither in itself is perfect, but that the ideal text-book, while actually based upon the new system, may learn much from its predecessor and that only by the close interrelation of the two can the best method be produced.

(c) We may now, therefore, turn our attention to the third topic which lies within the province of our discussion. How may forms best be learned? And what are some devices for teaching and reciting paradigms?

The first requisite for the acquisition of forms consists of patience, thoroughness and drill on the part of the teacher and determination and diligence on the part of the student. The former qualities are not hard to find. They are necessarily a concomitant of every good teacher; the latter, however, I am sorry to say do not always apparently exist in the hearts of the American youth of our time. But given an enthusiastic teacher and a fairly diligent class, what are the best ways of teaching forms? We may assert as a general principle the absolute necessity of oral drill. Great care must be taken to train the ear as well as the eye. An approximately accurate pronunciation, with due regard to quantity and accent, must be a definite aim of all first year Latin work.

In learning the paradigms of declensions the emphasis should rest on the stem-endings and on the manner in which the different cases are constructed. It is important that the student also have a clear conception of the different case-endings proper, and he may be profitably drilled on these terminations alone without any noun being attached. It may require considerable explanation to show that the stem of the second declension really ends in *o*, which apparently does not occur in any noun of this declension, as they are commonly spelled in our current manuals. Such time spent, however, need not be thought wasted. In the third declension, of course, the stem is easier to see. Right here, in the case of rather young beginners is a chance to shed a ray of light upon the pupil's difficulties. Oftentimes, I think, we have all discovered that a boy goes blindly at his work and fails entirely to see how much of his task is really a repetition. This is clearly so in the case of the third declension. Once impress upon the student's mind that to know the stem and gender of a noun of this type of inflection is all that is necessary, for the case-endings are almost all invariably the same, and his path will be considerably brightened. Stems in *i*, however, are always more or less of a stumbling block. A practice which I have found useful in overcoming this is the following. A few moments spent each day in rapidly running through lists of nouns already studied, requiring the student without an instant's reflection to give the meaning, gender and stem, cannot fail to produce good results.

Furthermore, in the beginning, at least, we should always require the English meaning. It is not sufficient to say *tuba, tubae*, etc. Such a change of forms is likely to be entirely meaningless to the young pupils. In every case, at least in early stages, the English equivalent should be invariably given. As the pupil's proficiency, however, increases, it will be found advantageous to abandon this practice.

In the teaching of verb forms, also, the first requisite is a knowledge of the stem. The student must be taught to derive this for himself from the present infinitive. This together with a firm grasp of connecting vowels, tense signs and personal endings will be sufficient to show him that verb inflections are not merely a piece of patchwork but rather follow an orderly course of development. Oral

drill, then, in the conjugations with carefully corrected written work will train both eye and ear to a reasonable degree of accuracy. Here, too, as in the case of noun inflections, the English meaning must be given along with the Latin form, at least in early stages of the study. It is extremely important that the pupil should understand thoroughly that each Latin tense has two or three English equivalents and it is only the practice of giving these equivalents when conjugating a Latin verb that can give him light upon these facts.

The perfect system is another bugbear. I have found the following method helpful in teaching these forms. Small slips of paper, or cards, containing a Latin verb, are given to each student, who, upon being asked to recite, must give instantly the principle parts of the verb together with the conjugation of any tense required. In this way he becomes familiar with a large number of perfect formations. Let some penalty be attached for failure in giving the right answer and a certain zest is added to the work which otherwise might be lacking.

Another device which I shall call matching will sometimes give good results. Suppose we find the form *amabant* in a sentence. I will say, "Jack, match *amabant* in the present subjunctive". (He must of course give the form in the same person and number). No time must be given for reflection. If not answered immediately the demand is passed on to the next. This device may also be varied by matching the form in another verb than in the one in which it occurs.

In classes which are neither too large nor too small exercises resembling an old fashioned spelling match may be instituted with perhaps a small prize attached for the student who comes out of the series unscathed. At first these contests may be confined merely to the spelling and definition of the Latin words assigned, but as time goes on they may be extended to include translation of any given English form into its Latin equivalent, giving its proper spelling and inflection. I have found these exercises invariably helpful, especially in the case of very young pupils.

But we might go on forever in multiplying devices. Every teacher must devise largely his own methods for interesting his pupils. That which is useful to one teacher is useless to another, and every teacher must adapt himself to the standard and environment of his work.

But the best method, above all others, for successful work in teaching Latin forms is to make the pupil respect his work. I do not say, like his work, for perhaps in some cases that is a hopeless task. The few in every class, however, who do really love their work, are sufficient to lighten the teacher's burden and to make the classroom labor a constant source of pleasure and satisfaction.

As I have said before, hard work is the essential requirement, and under constant pressure even the dullest boy will gradually begin to see light and (the miracle has sometimes happened) will bud forth into a real student of the language with a passion for all that is best in its literature and life.

ANTIOCH COLLEGE, Yellow Springs, Ohio. C. C. DELANO, JR.

SYNTAX IN FIRST YEAR LATIN.

(See page 106)

We hear much about how men used to study Latin in the good old days, but history does not repeat itself. We are living in a progressive age, and in our progressiveness we find ourselves strenuously engaged in a complicated life.

In this age when 'each pursues his favorite phantom', it is difficult to find leaders with that poise which enables them to see things in relation and to direct public thought past the Scylla and Charybdis of the specialist. In no place do we find this so strikingly true as in the process of education. Educationists are striving to blaze a trail through the curricula of our schools that the studies of the young student may not seriously interfere with his education.

More questions are raised concerning the value of studying the humanities than of any other department or phase of education. Such titles as A Justification of Latin, A Defense of the Classics, A Plea for the study of Latin and Greek unmistakably tell of the public reaction against the results produced in the education of the American student.

It is indeed a wise arrangement that this Classical Association is to consider the essentials of first year Latin. If first year Latin is to be taught as some people regard their religion—as only a preparation for future life without any regard for the enjoyment of the present—, it needs justification, perhaps sanctification, but certainly not adoption. The test of life should be the test of any study, that, as an apostle of the times has said, "were it broken off at any point we could say of the chapter experienced that it had been worth while"[1]. Just as far as it has been pursued, a study should be translated into the life and understanding of the student.

(a) What principles of syntax should be mastered the first year?

The answer to this question depends upon the student's preparation in English.

The first truth which impresses the young student of Latin is the agreement of the verb with its subject, a thing which is often an exception to his actual practice in English. One day when my first year class was working with the verb 'to be', a freshman of average intelligence said with all the enthusiasm of an Archimedes, "I'm just beginning to understand English. I didn't know 'to be' couldn't take an object".

[1] See Moral Education, by Edward Howard Griggs.

If this were not the condition in almost every beginning class and if it were not true that the young student learns the simplest facts about voice, mood, tense, even the direct and the indirect object from his study of Latin, the principles set forth in this paper would be presented on broader lines. But to face the real conditions the principles taught the first year must be reduced to the minimum, for the student will take his first step from where he is.

The boy who has completed his first year in Latin should be able to translate from Latin into good English and English into good Latin sentences which contain the simplest uses of the accusative, genitive, dative and ablative, which show the difference between independent and dependent clauses, the subjunctive of purpose, result and the indirect question, the infinitive in indirect discourse, *cum* temporal, causal and concessive.

Whatever rules are mastered the first year should be taught exactly as the student will be required to give them in Caesar, and whatever name is given to the ablative, genitive or dative should stand the test of time. If it is one of those ablatives which 'may be either', the truth should be told.

If these principles are really mastered and really become a part of the student's understanding and appreciation he will be far better prepared to read Caesar than the boy who has been hurried through one of the many first year books, and retains a sufficient amount of forms and syntax to pass successfully the examinations for the second year. A vacation follows and when September finds him on the battle-fields of Caesar facing legions of unknown foes he wonders which might be a supine, a gerund or gerundive, a periphrastic, a doubtful condition or a contrary-to-fact. The truth is he is well along in his second year before he is even on speaking terms with his enemies.

What may be safely omitted the first year?

First of all exceptions should be eliminated from the first year study; so too conditional sentences, the optative subjunctive, the subjunctive after verbs of fearing, clauses of characteristic, causal clauses (except those with *cum*), more complex temporal constructions, gerund, gerundive, the periphrastics and the supine.

By omitting these principles of syntax time is saved for the mastery of the more fundamental constructions and an opportunity is given to make the study of Latin really an essential factor in the student's education.

(b) When should the study of syntax begin? At once? Or should it be postponed until a goodly number of forms has been learned?

The study of syntax should begin with the first lesson. The student should be taught that every nominative means that something is to be said about it, that each case has a definite meaning and that every form has hidden in it a 'thought which animates its being'. This year I started my freshman class with short sentences at first containing only subject and predicate, gradually introducing one use for each case; before the students saw a paradigm they could use each case in one way in short sentences. Then the paradigm was committed but it was already alive with interest.

(c) Modes of presenting syntactical principles and of fixing them in mind.

If a class is given *puella* as its first word, suggest what a girl does. She walks. She sings, she dances. She likes the *rosam*. She decorates the *mensam*.

Nothing should be left undone to make the lesson concrete. So, when I am teaching the simple uses of the preposition *in*, I place a book on the table before the class and say Liber est in *mensa*. I look out of the window and say Carrus est *in via*. From another window we can see a garden from which, I am sure, the class takes more pabulum than the people who own it.

When explaining that 'in' meaning 'into' governs the accusative, I give my class such sentences as these: The stranger walked into the school—*in scholam*. A new boy has moved into the town—*in oppidum*. I open a drawer of the table and toss a book into it and say I toss a book *in mensam*, close the drawer and leave it there and the lesson remains 'deeply imbedded in the hearts' of the students.

Since "a little jingle now and then
Doesn't hurt the best of men"

I give my classes this rule

Duration of time and extent of space
Are usually expressed by the accusative case.

Then I ask them how long a vacation they had. Some had five weeks, six weeks, two months, others had visited in the country a year. Some walked two miles to school, others had run six or eight miles in a Marathon race. The class soon understand that weeks, months, years and miles are accusative in Latin.

Every principle of syntax may be safely taught in five steps. (1) With English sentences which are written on the board by the teacher. (2) The students write an equal number of original sentences in English. (3) The sentences which were written by the teacher are translated by the class, the teacher suggesting only what the class cannot translate. (4) Each student then translates his own sentences. (5) The class is given ten or fifteen Latin sentences to translate.

Without the use of English sentences the contrast and comparison of the two languages cannot be understood and it becomes impossible for the student of Latin to put himself in the place of the Roman.

High School, Carnegie, Pa. N. Anna Petty.

REVIEWS.

The Universities of Ancient Greece. By John W. H. Walden, Ph.D., formerly instructor in Latin in Harvard University. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons (1909). xiv + 267 pp. $1.50 net.

The title of this book is at first somewhat misleading if not enigmatical; for "Ancient Greece" brings before our minds the Greece of Pericles or Demosthenes, if not the far earlier Greece of the Homeric poems, and what could be meant by the universities of those times one is at a loss to understand. Dr. Walden, however, does not leave us long in doubt, but explains promptly that his book has to do with the first five centuries of the Christian era. At that time higher education was to some degree organized, though it is only by the extension of its meaning to include any kind of organized higher education that the term University can be applied to anything that then existed. This appears pretty clearly in the course of Dr. Walden's description.

The title of the book is, however, almost the only thing in it to which one is inclined to object. Certainly the period discussed is of great importance and is too much neglected by most classical scholars, and many of those who do not neglect the period altogether are inclined to devote their attention chiefly to the western, or Latin, part of the Roman Empire, rather than to the eastern regions, in which Greek was spoken and where the influence of the great thoughts of the classical period persisted in a degree not easily appreciated by those who know only the political history of the Greeks under Roman dominion. Greek life and thought during these centuries are a most interesting object of study, and if this book makes them better known or more appreciated, it will have done good service.

Before proceeding to his chief subject, Dr. Walden gives a brief account of education at Athens in the fifth and fourth centuries B. C. He finds that in the fourth century there were three periods in the education of a youth, that of elementary or primary instruction, that of secondary instruction, and that of college or university instruction. In the third period the youth became enrolled in the college of the *ephebi*, which as time went on became less and less military and more literary, and he entered upon the study of philosophy and rhetoric. Dr. Walden's account of the schools of philosophy, of the college of the *ephebi*, and of Isocrates is interesting and instructive in spite (or, possibly, on account) of its brevity.

Two brief chapters, on The Macedonian Period and on Education and the State, precede the chapter entitled University Education Established. In this the rise of the class of later sophists and the measures taken by Roman emperors and others to endow and, in some measure, to regulate instruction at Athens, are described. The same historical treatment is continued in the chapters on the History of University Education from Marcus Aurelius to Constantine and The Decline of University Education: The Conflict with Christianity. In the two following chapters the appointment and number and the pay of the professors are discussed. In these chapters the preponderance of the sophists becomes more marked. In fact, from this point to the end of the book the teachings, position, and life of the sophists are treated to the virtual exclusion of everything else. This is seen in the titles of the chapters, What the Sophists taught and how they taught it, Public Displays, School-houses, Holidays, etc.; the School of Antioch, The Boyhood of a Sophist, and Student Days.

There is no doubt that in the first five centuries after Christ the sophists held the most prominent position in the educational world, at least among pagans, and their teachings had great influence upon Christian writers. But it may be that the teachers of law, medicine, and (for part of the long period in question) philosophy would seem somewhat more important than they do, if we possessed more information about them. Fortunately, we do possess pretty detailed and exact information about the sophists, especially about Libanius, and to him we are ultimately indebted for Dr. Walden's account of the boyhood, student days, and after life of a sophist. This is interesting and will be new to all who have not read the writings of Libanius. Even to those who have read those writings, the connected account here presented will serve to vivify and correlate what they already know.

Dr. Walden tells us in his preface that his book developed from a series of lectures delivered at Harvard University in 1904, and perhaps it may be due to their original purpose that the several chapters impress one as separate essays rather than as parts of a continuous work. This is more noticeable in the earlier part of the book than in the part chiefly derived from Libanius. Evidently, however, the original lectures have been very thoroughly worked over. There are many footnotes, some of which are as interesting as the text itself. The book contains a bibliography and an index.

American workers in the field of the Classics publish many excellent text-books, the form, size, and contents of which are determined by the needs of the classroom and the wishes of publishers, and careful studies of more or less important topics are published in our classical periodicals or read at meetings of societies, but there are comparatively few real books on classical subjects written by American scholars—books in which the author says in his own way what he wants to say. Among those few books The Universities of Ancient Greece should occupy a position of honor.

Western Reserve University. Harold N. Fowler.

CORRESPONDENCE

Will you spare me space in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY to record my satisfaction in the Report of the Commission on College Entrance Requirements in Latin? It seems to me that the adoption by the colleges of the requirements recommended in this report would be a longer step towards putting Latin study in this country on a solid basis than has hitherto been taken within my remembrance.

I have always thought translation at sight practically the most sensible as well as theoretically the truest test of a student's progress in Latin, and I am still hoping that the examinations upon definite works supposed to have been read in the schools will sometime disappear altogether. A rather large majority of the pupils in our schools appear more keenly interested in scraping through a given examination than in really increasing their knowledge of Latin. To set them for translation on college entrance examinations passages from particular works which they have been ordered to read directly encourages their natural tendency to approach the study of these works with a view to trying to memorize as much as possible of an accepted English rendering of them rather than with the purpose of trying to learn the meaning of the Latin in which they are written. On the other hand almost all boys and girls have or readily acquire an interest in the progress of their own ability to do a thing when they can see that ability increasing under their efforts and attaining some practical object, and even the pupil who has least of such an interest will more cheerfully and effectively apply himself to learning the Latin language when he knows that his passing his college entrance examination in Latin depends upon his knowledge of that language and not upon his ability to set down an extraneously acquired English version of so and so much Cicero and Vergil. HENRY PREBLE.

Great indeed is the power of conservatism! How easy it is to perpetuate a blunder, if that blunder has behind it the authority of tradition!

Who first mistranslated *primus* in Aeneid I? Was it Chaucer in his House of Fame, with his "that *first* came through his destinie"? Him followed at any rate Morris, Conington (verse translation), Cranch, Long, Rickards, Howland, and all the wise editors of our school editions, save where a *rara avis* has observed Conington's prose translation, as if *primus* could be *primum!*

Why call Aeneas the first in time? What great Trojan princes, then, came after him in their turn from Troy, the sacked?

To find what Vergil really ment by *primus* look down to 1.24.

prima quod ad Troiam pro caris gesserat Argis.

Vergil meant this: 'Of wars I sing and of the warrier *chief* who from Troy's shore Fate's exile came', or 'Fate-exiled *leader of his people*' or half a dozen other ways which would not lose the idea that Aeneas was of significance in the council of the gods just in so far as he *led* the remnant of the Trojans to mingle their blood with that of the Italians in order to produce, one day, Rome the everlasting.

E. S. SHUMWAY.

MANUEL TRAINING HIGH SCHOOL, Brooklyn.

SUMMARY OF THE CLASSICAL JOURNAL, JANUARY, 1910

The first article, Commercialism and Territorial Expansion, is by Professor Tenney Frank, of Bryn Mawr. His thesis is "that the commercial classes of Rome could have had very little influence in shaping the policy of expansion at Rome". Mommsen, who was followed by others, was the first to take a different view. In defense of his position, Professor Tenney cites the case of Delos. After the defeat of Perseus, Rome made Delos a free port under the direction of Athens. Such a disposition of Delos was a natural one, as it would satisfy the claims of Athens and would punish the Delians for their friendship for Macedonia. Historians, however, claim that Delos was made a free port at the request of merchants who were trading there. But the inscriptions recently discovered at Delos show that this was not the case, for out of 2000 inscriptions found on the island only about 300 bear Roman or Italian names, which would show that the Roman influence was small. Other facts which the writer mentions as proving that commercialism was not the controlling motive in Roman expansion are: the state prohibited the nobility from engaging in commerce; Rome's real wealth lay in what might be called banking and brokerage; in her treaties she did not keep commercial opportunities in mind; the Romans were averse to seamanship; and her failure to improve the harbor at Ostia during the Republic. Finally, he says, "we can consistently trace a thoroughly Roman endeavor to extend the domain of law, order, and justice".

The second article in this number, The Teaching of Virgil, by Kenneth C. M. Sills, of Bowdoin College, is a plea for the teaching of the last six books of the Aeneid in the high school course, for it is a shame that the boys and girls should know nothing of such fine portraits as Camilla, Mezentius, Turnus, Nisus and Euryalus. He regards it as feasible to have a textbook that shall include all the twelve books, from which selections might be made equivalent to the 4,755 lines of the first six books. (It seems to me that the excellent edition by Professor Knapp, including selections from the last six books, would meet his requirements.) Among the difficulties in teaching the Aeneid, Mr. Sills mentions the following: the securing of a proper appreciation of the characters of the poem; the looseness of the structure; the fact that it is the first Latin poet studied; the complications of syntax and vocabulary. He should have added involved order, as seen in such lines as,

In latus inque feri curvam compagibus alvum.

The third paper, Indications in Carlyle's French Revolution of the Influence of Homer and the Greek Tragedians, is by Miss Helen C. Flint of Mount Holyoke College. Carlyle spent the long evenings of one winter reading the first four books of the Iliad with the help of a young friend, William Glenn. As the French Revolution is a prose epic, we should expect to find in it the influence of this reading. Such is the case, as the writer has shown by a large number of citations. Of especial interest are the epithets which Carlyle applies to his men and women, which show a strong Homeric coloring. Passages are quoted showing the influence of his reading in Aeschylus and Sophocles. The article is a very interesting one.

In this number the following books are reviewed: T. Rice Holmes's Translation of Caesar's Commentaries on the Gallic War (by J. B. Pike); Ch. Huelsen's The Roman Forum (by G. J. Laing); O. F. Long's Livy: Selections from the First Decade (by W. S. Gordis); Arthur L. Frothingham's The Monuments of Christian Rome (by Grant Showerman); D'Ooge's The Acropolis of Athens (by C. B. Gulick).

ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, Brooklyn. W. F. TIBBETTS.

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The principal function of education, as it seems to many thinking people, is so to train the young that they may find in their minds and in their tastes a perennial source of satisfaction and enjoyment. Training restricted to the demands of the material man is essentially faulty and unAmerican and our ancient theory that every American child should be given the opportunity of rising to the highest position in the gift of the people should not be jeopardized by fostering a system of education which is bound to result in the submerging of many into a class. It is quite possible that students may not appreciate at the time what they are doing, but training is not for time; it is for eternity. Nothing has ever been better said with regard to this aspect of Latin study than Cardinal Newman's words in The Grammar of Assent, quoted by Vice-Chancellor Warren in his essay, Ancient and Modern Classics as Instruments of Education (see The Classical Weekly 3.81):

Let us consider, too, how differently young and old are affected by the words of some classic author, such as Homer or Horace. Passages, which to a boy are but rhetorical commonplaces, neither better nor worse than a hundred others which any clever writer might supply, which he gets by heart and thinks very fine, and imitates, as he thinks, successfully, in his own flowing versification, at length come home to him when long years have passed, and he has had experience of life, and pierce him as if he had never before known them, with their sad earnestness and vivid exactness. *Then* he comes to understand how it is, that lines, the birth of some chance morning or evening at an Ionian festival, or among the Sabine hills, have lasted generation after generation for thousands of years, with a power over the mind, and a charm, which the current literature of his own day, with all its obvious advantages, is utterly unable to rival.

To compare great things with small may redound sometimes to the benefit of both and I was interested as well as amused by an article upon The New Education, written in imitation of Mr. Dooley, quoted recently by The American Educational Review from The Oneontan:

"And phwat is this new edycashun Hogan's bye is telling of?" asked Hennessy of Mr. Dooley, as the twain were coming home from early mass.

"Aw, the koind that comes from the use of the jigsaw rather than from the studyin' of the dicshunery? I've noticed that mesilf, Hinnessy. It's a grand idea. The argymint runs loike this, I'm thinking", replied Mr. Dooley.

"Hogan's Mike and your Mary Ann no longer need the koind of schoolin' that helped Martyn Luther and the Pope in their bull-foight, or Thomas Jeffsern to wroite the Deklayrashun of Independunce. No sir; they need to learn the use of the turnin' lathe, a Sarycuse chilled plow, balinced rashuns for the goat, an incubator hincoop, and a vacyume cleaner. Of pwhat use is it for Mike and Mary Ann to read of how the squawk of a goslen waked a sleepin' sentinel out too late at a wake the noight before; or of Mr. Raluph Waldorf Emerson's reflecshuns on Boston's Common?

"No sir, it's the hands that need to be blistered, not the mind. That's the argymint.

"The hands earn the bread, why bother to train the head for a parlor ornaymint? Brick-a-brack is out of date, Hinnessy. You must make everything contribute to your stomach or your bank account or your wife's ayester bonnet. Books can't compete with a plumber's bill. They're the hare in the race; the plumber is the mock turtle.

"Down with the books. They must go. They've had their day. Give the jack plane and the butter-ladle the place on the parlor cinter-table formerly occupied by the dicshunery and Tom Moore's poetry book.

"That's the slogan, Hinnessy; but I'm thinkin' a long avenin' at home with just thim sinsible things to look at would be rather stoopid, and thim suggestin' more achin' mussels and tired hands on the morrow, too. It's all foine for Hogan's boy now whin he can drop his johnnies at the five o'clock whistle, rush home for a square meal and arroive at the moving pictshure show by siven puntchool. But whin he reaches our age, Hinnessy, phwat thin? Whin he comes limpin' home with the rumatiz a grippin' him fair awful, puts on his carpet slippers, shoves a maple knot in the shtove, and sits down to spend the avenin', will he want a Sarycuse chilled plow, a cross-saw, or a book for a plaything?"

"He could tackle a pictshure puzzle", said Hennessy.

"Yes, but he'll need a bit of slape against the soft snap of followin' the drag on the morrow", replied Mr. Dooley.

G. L.

As was announced last week, the present issue of The Classical Weekly has been copyrighted. In the belief that many teachers will find Mr. Hurlbut's lists most useful, extra copies have been printed. These may be obtained at ten cents each (12 copies one dollar, 25 copies two dollars, etc.).

Word-lists are not in themselves, one admits, a panacea for all the troubles of the teacher of Latin. But a student must acquire a vocabulary somehow: let us therefore help him by every practical means to obtain what is indispensable to him. Any teacher worth his salt can show the pupil what to do with his vocabulary when he gets it.

C. K.

SYMPOSIUM ON FIRST YEAR LATIN.

THE VOCABULARY OF FIRST YEAR LATIN

(*Continued from page* 117. *See also page* 106.)

Our pupils' difficulty in remembering the meaning of words in a foreign language is no new problem. The plaint is doubtless as old as language itself; it may be a comfort for us to know that the Romans had the same difficulty with Greek that we have with Latin (see Augustine, Conf. 1.14). For so long as human language is composed of articulated words, these words themselves form the very groundwork on which the whole structure rests. Why should we expect any child of even the keenest mind to discover the meaning of a page of Latin in which the meaning of more than two-thirds of the words is unknown to him? Yet there has been and still is a tendency in our teaching toward this very making of bricks without straw. The habit of treating the acquisition of a vocabulary as a secondary matter, a kind of by-product from the grammar and exercises of the beginners' book is responsible for much empty-headedness later on. Pupils will look up the common root words of the language scores of times in the course of their reading, only to forget them as soon, or, worse still, to learn a special meaning and attempt to stretch it to cover all cases thereafter.

My remedy for this defect in the instruction of the first year (and by first year I mean whatever amount of time and work is necessary to cover the average beginners' book in preparation for Caesar reading) is the systematic word-list well drilled in. It sounds cold and formal, I know, but is it any colder than that other necessary burden, the multiplication table, or any more formal than that other task, the spelling book? Few boys multiply by nature, few girls spell by nature, and very few American boys or girls imbibe the correct meanings of Latin words unless diligent effort be put forth to that end by the teacher. I find it in a good plan to divide the beginners' book into five or six sections, following the natural lines of cleavage, to prepare lists of all the words in each section grouped by parts of speech and to require a careful review of each section before passing on to the next. The pupils like these lists, look forward with eagerness to each successive mile-post on their journey, and retain them for future reference. They must be learned well-nigh perfectly, or they fail of their object. A passing per cent of 60 is nearly worthless; 80 is not too high a standard to set. I am satisfied after several trials that it is not impossible to teach a fairly bright boy the real meaning of every word in his beginners' book before he begins to read classical Latin.

But, you will say, are all words included in our beginners' books of such value as to justify the conscientious teacher in saying to the lazy pupil, 'Thou shalt'? Ought every word to be learned? Upon what basis are the words in the beginners' books chosen? I fear that poor selection of material and the inclusion of much worthless stuff has tended to discredit the careful learning of vocabularies. Fortunately the beginners' books are constantly improving in this respect and the more recent books offer a much saner collection for the pupil to master than their predecessors did. I shall revert to this point later, with statistics.

Passing now to a more theoretical view of the situation, let us ask how many words should a boy or girl know with a fair degree of accuracy before taking up the reading of Caesar, and upon what considerations should such a choice of words rest: for it is evident that too many may be as wrong as too few, and that not all words are suitable or useful for first year work. To reach some definite conclusions on these points, I determined to discover by count the words used in eight beginners' books in this country, and to compare such lists with the words chosen by Professor Lodge in his Vocabulary of High School Latin, and thus, if possible, to arrive at an ideal list for first year work. I have listed each word in these eight books (excluding those extra words appearing in special vocabularies), and have grouped my results according to the classification followed by Professor Lodge: (1) Caesar words, (2) Cicero words, (3) Vergil words, (4) less used words appearing in High School Latin, (5) words not appearing in High School Latin.

Summary of Words used in Beginning Books.

Name of Book.	In 2000-list:				Not in 2000-list:		
	Caes.	Cic.	Verg.	Total.	H. S.	No H. S.	Total.
Barss	393	65	7	465	10	2	477
Pearson	427	60	22	509	13	7	529
Potter	426	96	35	557	23	6	586
Tuell—Fowler	490	76	20	586	8	6	600
Collar—Daniell	412	106	60	578	57	23	658
Inglis—Prettyman	563	84	12	659	17	5	681
Moore—Schlicher	585	108	24	717	19	3	739
Bennett, Foundations	592	120	22	734	40	6	780
Average	485+	89+	25+	600+	24+	7+	629+
600-list for First Year (S. A. H.)	500	75	15	590	10		600
500-list (S. A. H.)	425	60	10	495	5		500

In the selection of an ideal list for first-year work, I held in mind several determining principles according to which words were to be included or rejected, as follows: (1) a word should appear, other things being equal, in a majority of books now in use; (2) a word should be one of frequent occurrence in the High School Latin, preference being given to Caesar, without giving him a monopoly; (3) the word should be an important primitive or evident derivative of fundamental value in the Latin language; (4) whenever possible a word should also be valu-

able from the point of view of English etymology. It will be seen at once that in the case of many words the principles are at variance and a balance must be struck between two or more of them. For instance, some words which might naturally fall under the second caption, of frequent Caesar use, have been purposely omitted, due to the writer's belief that there is danger of overloading the work of the first year with technical words of war, of campaigning, and of the siege and sack of cities, words which are better learned *in situ*. Two courses were open in regard to primitives and derivatives: either to include the primitive and postpone the derivative when there was no need for both, or to introduce the unexplained derivative and postpone the learning of the primitive until its first appearance in the text. Where the primitive is evidently poetic and the compound is the prose form, the latter course has been followed; but in some instances the primitive has been introduced to pave the way for many subsequent compounds. For example, *curro,* which occurs in Caesar only once (7.24.4) and nine times in Vergil, is included on account of its many derivatives.

In determining the number of words for such an ideal list, I began by taking 500 out of the thousand (Caesar) words which Professor Lodge has allotted to the work of the first two years; but I soon saw that this 500 omitted too many absolutely necessary words, which appear as Cicero words in Professor Lodge's list. By choosing those which met the other requirements and also appear in Caesar as well as in Cicero, I added about 75 to the list, and in the same way from Vergil about 15 more; finally, to make the number an even 600, I included about 10 more of time-honored appearance in the beginners' books. It will be noticed that this total corresponds rather closely with the average number used in the beginning books. I do not think 600 is too small a number to know well before the Caesar year; indeed, if we allow for an inevitable shrinkage, 700 would not be too many to aim at (Professor Bennett speaks of 750 as a limited vocabulary). But better 600 well done than 800 half learned.

Let us return now to a few practical considerations and a word of warning. Word formation, as I have hinted above, should play an increasingly important role as the work proceeds. At first little can be done aside from drawing the attention of the class to English cognates, but after the force of the principal prepositions and prefixes is learned, compound words should be analyzed. Not much can be done with suffixes in the first year. It is my habit in making the oral word-list review to have the derivation of every compound word accounted for, in case the pupil has already learned the force of the primitive, or in some cases to supply that information myself and ask for the force of the prefix; and, as a complement to this, to require him to form the English derivative whenever possible. Such linking of the word both backward and forward helps those little memory hooks to apperceive it, as the psychologists say. Shifts of meaning should be carefully noted, to guard against false inferences backward from English to Latin.

A word of warning: "dead words do not a language make, nor printed lists a page". Both teacher and pupil must regard word lists as a means only, a systematic way to gather and fix knowledge which is useful only when applied to the living page. Beginners especially must be made to remember that inflection is all important, that the words of the list may occur in many changed relations with vital differences of translation according to their endings and use in the sentence. It is well to drill the lists in many cases and tenses, to require the conjugation of phrases, etc., and in every way to make the Latin word give down its meaning no matter where or under what form it occurs. This is the hardest part.

THE KELVIN SCHOOL, New York City. STEPHEN A. HURLBUT.

Note. As originally planned, this list contained 600 words which I believed most useful for first year work. Inasmuch as the choice of the words was not conditioned solely by their appearance in the beginners' books, but by the reasons set forth in the preceding paper, some were included which lack the support of the first year books. I have since felt that many teachers would appreciate the formation of a list of 500 based more closely upon use in the beginner's books. I have accordingly indicated by a star 100 words which do not appear in a majority of the eight books counted, by the omission of which 100 words a list of 500 is obtained, which will be found to fit any given book more closely, and which may thus be more useful for review and drill purposes than the longer and, from a theoretical standpoint, more nearly ideal list of 600.

I have also arranged the words a second time, alphabetically, by authors. This may be useful for reference and for recitations involving a recognition on the part of the class of the respective parts of speech. Finally, I have added a third grouping, more arbitrary, perhaps, in character, according to the meanings of the words. This last grouping I have not yet worked out to my satisfaction, but I have been encouraged to hope that even in its present form it may prove helpful, as affording an opportunity for approaching the same set of facts from yet another and, I venture to think, a fresh and stimulating point of view. I have omitted the meanings of the words, because I feel that there are very decided advantages in lists in which the meanings are not given. I may add, finally, that I have been greatly encouraged by the results of the practical tests to which I have subjected my lists in actual class room work. S. A. H.

600 WORDS FOR FIRST YEAR WORK IN LATIN

Caesar words are in black face type.

Cicero words are in ordinary type.

Vergil words are in small capital letters.

Words not in 2000-list are in round brackets, with spaced letters.

Derivatives repeated under primitives are in square brackets.

NOUNS.

1 decl. fem.

amicitia*
aqua
audacia*
causa
copia, copiae
  [inopia]
dea : *see* deus
diligentia
filia : *see* **filius**
fortuna
fossa
fuga
gratia, gratiae
hora
iniuria
inopia
insula
littera, litterae
LUNA
memoria*
natura
patria
pecunia
poena*
porta
provincia
(p u e l l a)
pugna
REGINA
ripa
sententia*
silva
terra
via
victoria
vigilia
vita

1 decl. masc.

nauta
poeta

2 decl. masc.

ager
amicus
  [(inimicus)]
animus
annus
captivus
deus, dea
DOMINUS
equus
  [eques]
filius, filia
gladius
(i n i m i c u s)
legatus
liberi : *see* **liber**
locus
  [colloco]
murus
numerus
nuntius
  [nuntio]
oculus*
populus
  [publicus]
    [respublica]
puer
  [(puella)]
servus
socius
tribunus
ventus*
vicus
vir
  [virtus]

2 decl. neuter.

aedificium
arma
  [armo]
auxilium, auxilia
bellum
castra
concilium
consilium
frumentum
DONUM
hiberna
impedimenta
imperium
  [impero]
    [imperator]
iudicium
negotium*
officium*
oppidum
periculum
pilum*
praemium
praesidium
proelium
regnum
scutum
signum
spatium
studium
subsidium
telum
verbum*

3 decl. masc.

adulescens
clamor
civis
  [civitas]
collis
consul
  [consilium]
custos
(d e f e n s o r)
dolor
dux
eques
finis, fines
  [finitimus]
frater
homo
  [nemo]
honor
hostis
ignis
imperator
IUVENIS
labor, -oris
miles
mons
mos
obses
ordo
pater
  [patria]
pedes
pes
  [pedes]
  [impedio]
    [impedimenta]
pons
princeps
rex
senex
sol*
timor
victor

3 decl. fem.

aestas
altitudo
auctoritas
caedes
celeritas
civitas
classis*
cohors
coniuratio
difficultas*
gens
hiems
  [hiberna]
laus
  [laudo]
legio
lex
libertas
lux
magnitudo
mater
mors
  [morior]
mulier
multitudo
natio
navis
  [nauta]
nox
oppugnatio*
oratio
palus
pars
pax
potestas
ratio*
regio
salus
soror*
tempestas*
turris
urbs
virtus
vis, vires
voluntas*
vox
  [voco]
    [convoco]

3 decl. neuter.

agmen
(a n i m a l)
caput
corpus
flumen
iter
ius
  [inuria]
  [coniuratio]
  [iudico]
    [iudicium]
latus, -eris*
litus
mare
nomen
opus
RUS
tempus
  [tempestas]
vulnus
  [vulnero]

4 decl.

adventus
casus*
conspectus*
exercitus
impetus
natu : *see* **nascor**
passus
  mille passus
portus
senatus
usus

domus
  domi
  [DOMINUS]
manus

cornu

5 decl.

acies
fides
  [confido]
res
  [respublica]
spes
  [spero]
    [despero]
dies
  [hodie]
    [cotidie]

ADJECTIVES

1 and 2 decl.

aequus*
  [(iniquus)]
altus
  [altitudo]

amicus
angustus
bonus
  melior
  optimus
  [bene, etc.]
carus*
clarus*
certus
  [decerno]
ceteri
creber*
cupidus*
exterus
  exterior
  extremus
finitimus
firmus*
  [confirmo]
GRATUS
  [gratia]
idoneus
inferus
  inferior
  infimus, imus
(**inimicus**)
(**iniquus**)*
LAETUS
latus, -a, -um
liber, -a, -um
  [liberi]
  [libero]
  [libertas]
longus
magnus
  maior
  maximus
  [magis, etc.]
  [magnitudo]
malus
  peior
  pessimus
  [male, etc.]
medius
miser
multus
  plus
  plurimus
  [multum, etc.]
  [multitudo]
novus
paratus: *see* **paro**
parvus
  minor
  minimus
  [minus, etc.]
pauci
plenus*
  [compleo]
posterus
  posterior
  postremus
publicus
  [respublica]
pulcher
quantus
reliquus
subitus
  [subitō]
superus
  superior
  supremus, summus
tantus

tutus
  tutō
verus*

3 decl.

acer
audax
  [audacia]
brevis
celer
  [celeritas]
citerior*
  citimus*
communis*
difficilis
diligens*
(**dissimilis**)
facilis
  [difficilis]
fortis
gracilis
gravis
humilis
INGENS
interior*
  intimus
IUVENIS
  IUNIOR
levis*
nobilis
omnis
par
potens
prior
  primus
propior
  proximus
senex
  senior
  [senatus]
similis
  [(dissimilis)]
ulterior
  ultimus
vetus
  vetustior
  veterrimus

Irregular.

alius
alter
neuter
nullus
solus
totus
ullus
  [nullus]
unus
uter
  [neuter]
  [uterque]
uterque

NUMERALS.

The Cardinals from 1–1000.
*omit the hundreds.

The Ordinals from 1st to 20th.
*omit from 11th–20th.

PRONOUNS.

ego, nos
tu, vos
sui
meus
tuus
noster
vester
suus
is, ea, id
  [eō *adv.*]
hic
  [hic *adv.*]
  [hodie]
iste
ille
  [illic]
idem
ipse
quis, quid?
qui, quae, quod
  [quō *adv.*]
aliquis
quisquam
quidam
quisque

nemo
nihil

VERBS.

1 Conjugation.

amo
  [amicus]
  [(inimicus)]
  [amicitia]
appello
appropinquo*
arbitror
armo
colloco
comparo*
confirmo
conor
convoco*
despero
do
  [dedo]
  [trado]
  [DONUM]
existimo
expugno
exspecto
hortor
impero
iudico*
  [iudicium]
laudo
  [laus]
libero
moror
nuntio
occupo
oppugno
paro
  [paratus]
  [comparo]
porto
postulo
pugno
  [expugno]
  [oppugno]
    [oppugnatio]
  [pugna]
puto

rogo
servo
spero
sto*
  [con-sisto]
  [re-sisto]
  [statuo]
    [constituo]
    [instituo]
  [statim]
supero
vasto
voco
  [convoco]
vulnero

2 Conj.

audeo
  [audax]
    [audacia]
augeo*
  [auxilium]
  [auctoritas]
compleo
contineo
debeo
doceo*
GAUDEO
habeo
  [debeo]
  [prohibeo]
iubeo
maneo
moneo
moveo
noceo
pareo
persuadeo
perterreo
placeo
polliceor
prohibeo
respondeo
retineo*
SEDEO*
  [obses]
  [praesidium]
  [subsidium]
soleo
sustineo
teneo
  [contineo]
  [retineo]
  [sustineo]
timeo
  [timor]
vereor
video
  videor

3 Conj.

accedo
accido
accipio
adduco
ago
  [cogo]
  [agmen]
amitto
cado*
  [accido]
  [casus]
caedo*

[occido]
[caedes]
capio
[accipio]
[recipio]
[occupo]
[captivus]
cedo*
[accedo]
[concedo]
[discedo]
claudo*
cognosco
cogo
colo*
[incolo]
committo
concedo
conficio
confido
conicio
coniungo*
conscribo*
consisto
conspicio*
[conspectus]
[ex-specto]
constituo
contendo
credo
cupio*
[cupidus]
CURRO*
decerno*
dedo*
deduco
defendo
[(defensor)]
deligo
dico
dimitto
discedo
duco
[adduco]
[deduco]
[educo]
[reduco]
[traduco]
[dux]
educo
egredior*
[pro-gredior]
eripio*
expello
facio
fio
[conficio]
[interficio]
[praeficio]
[proficiscor]
[facilis]
[facile]
[difficilis]
[difficultas]
[officium]
[aedificium]
fruor
[frumentum]
fugio
[fuga]
gero
iacio
[conicio]

incendo
incolo
instituo
instruo
intellego
interficio
iungo*
[coniungo]
lego
[deligo]
[diligens]
[diligenter]
[diligentia]
[intellego]
[legio]
loquor*
mitto
[amitto]
[committo]
[dimitto]
morior
nascor*
[natu]
[natio]
[natura]
nosco, novi*
[cognosco]
[nobilis]
[nomen]
occido
patior
pello
[expello]
[repello]
peto
[impetus]
pono
praeficio
premo*
proficiscor
progredior
[e-gredior]
quaero
RAPIO*
[eripio]
recipio
reduco
rego
[regio]
[rex]
[REGINA]
[regnum]
relinquo
[reliquus]
repello*
resisto
revertor
scribo
[conscribo]
sequor
[secundus]
statuo*
tollo*
trado
traduco
utor
[usus, -ūs]
verto*
[revertor]
[rursus]
vinco
[victor]
[victoria]

vivo
[vita]

4 Conj.

aperio*
audio
convenio
impedio
invenio
munio
pervenio
potior
reperio
scio
sentio*
[sententia]
venio
[convenio]
[invenio]
[pervenio]
[adventus]

Irregular.

sum, esse, fui
absum
adsum
desum
possum
[potens]
[potestas]
supersum*
praesum
eo, ire
ABEO*
adeo*
exeo
redeo
transeo

[subitus]
[subitō]
[iter]
fero
affero*
confero
se conferre
infero
perfero*
refero
fio
volo
[voluntas]
nolo
malo
coepi

ADVERBS.

bene
melius
optime
cotidie
cur
diu
diutius
diutissime
etiam
facile
hic*
huc*
hinc*
hodie
iam
illic*

illuc, illō*
illinc*
ita
[itaque]
item*
ibi
eo*
inde*
interim*
magis
maxime
male
peius
pessime
minus
minime
multum, multō
plus
plurimum
-ne
nonne
non
nunc
num
paulum, paulō*
postea
prope
propius
proxime
[propior]
[propter]
[ap-propinquo]
rursus*
saepe
satis
semper
sic
statim
subito
tam
[tantus]
[ita]
[item]
tandem
tum
tuto*
ubi
quo*
unde*
undique

CONJUNCTIONS.

atque, ac
aut
aut . . . aut
cum
dum
et
et . . . et
[etiam]
itaque
nam
nē
[neque]
[nihil]
[non]
[nemo]
neque, nec
neque . . . neque
nisi
-que
[atque]
quam

quod
sed
si
[**nisi**]
tamen
ut uti
ita . . . ut
sic . . . ut
[utinam]
utinam

PREPOSITIONS.

ab, ā
ad
ante
apud
circum*
contra
cum
de
ex, ē

[exterus]
in
inter
[interior]
[**interim**]
ob
per
post
[**posterus**]
[**postea**]
prae*
pro
[**prior**]
propter
sine
sub
SUPER*
[**superus**]
[**supero**]
trans

SUMMARY.

	600-list	(omit) words *	500-list
Caesarian words, ...	500	75	425
Ciceronian words, . . .	75	15	60
Vergilian words, ...	15	5	10
(Not in 2000-list), . . .	10	5	5
Totals, ...	600	100	500

SIX HUNDRED WORDS FOR FIRST YEAR WORK, IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER

CAESAR WORDS

ab, ā
absum
accedo
accido
accipio
acer
acies
ad
adduco
adeo, -ire*
adulescens
adventus
aedificium
aequus*
aestas
affero*
ager
agmen
ago
aliquis
alius
alter
altitudo
altus
amicitia*
amicus
amitto
angustus
animus
annus
ante
aperio*
appello, -are
appropinquo*
apud
aqua
arma
armo
atque
auctoritas
audax
audeo
audio
augeo*
aut
auxilium
bellum
bonus
bene
brevis
cado*
caedo*
capio
captivus
caput
castra
casus*
causa
cedo*
celer
celeritas
centum
certus
circum*
citerior*
civitas
clamor
classis*
coepi
cognosco
cogo
cohors
collis
colloco
committo
communis*
comparo*
compleo
concedo
concilium
confero
conficio
confido
confirmo
conicio
coniungo*
conor
consilium
consisto
conspectus*
conspicio*
constituo
contendo
contineo
contra
convenio
convoco*
copia
copiae
cornu
corpus
cotidie
creber*
cum (prep.)
cum (conj.)
cupidus*
cupio*
cur
de
debeo
decem
decimus
dedo*
deduco
defendo
deligo, -ere
desum
dico
dies
difficultas*
diligens*
dimitto
discedo
diu
do
doceo*
domus
ducenti*
duco
dum
duo
duodecim
dux
educo
ego
nos
egredior*
eo, ire
eques
equus
et
etiam
ex, ē
exeo
exercitus
existimo
expello
expugno
exspecto
facilis
facile
facio
fero
fides
filius
filia
finis
fines
finitimus
fio
firmus*
flumen
fortis
fortuna
fossa
frater
frumentum
fuga
fugio
gero
gladius
gracilis
gratia
gratiae
gravis
habeo
hiberna
hic, haec, hoc
hic (adv.)*
hiems
homo
hora
hortor
hostis
humilis
iacio
iam
ibi
idem
idoneus
ignis
ille
illic*
impedimenta
impedio
imperium
impero
impetus
in
incendo
incolo
inde*
infero
inferus
iniuria
inopia
instituo
instruo
insula
intellego
inter
interficio
interim*
ipse
is, ea, id
eo (adv.)*
ita
itaque
item*
iter
iubeo
iudico*
iungo*
ius
labor, -oris
latus, -eris*
latus, -a, -um
legio
legatus
levis*
liber, -a, -um
liberi
libertas
littera
litterae
litus*
locus
longus
loquor*
lux
magnitudo
magnus
magis
maneo
manus
mare
mater
medius
memoria*
miles
mille
mitto
moneo
mons
moror
mora
mos
moveo
mulier
multitudo
multus
multum
munio
murus
nam
nascor*
natu*
natio
natura
nauta
navis
ne
negotium*
nemo
neque
neuter
nihil
nisi
nobilis*
noceo
nolo
nomen
non
nonaginta
nongenti*
nonus
nosco*
noster
novem
novus
nox
nullus
numerus
nuntio
nuntius
ob
obses
occīdo
occupo
octavus
octingenti*
octo
octoginta
officium*
omnis
oppidum
oppugnatio*
oppugno
opus
oratio
ordo
palus
par
paro
paratus
pars
parvus
minus
passus
pater
patior
pauci
paulum*
paulo*
pax
pedes
pello
per
perfero*

periculum
persuadeo
perterreo*
pervenio
pes
peto
pilum*
polliceor
pono
pons
populus
porta
porto
portus
possum
  potens
post
postea
posterus
postulo
potestas
potior
praeficio
praemium
praesidium
praesum
premo*
primus
princeps
prior
pro
proelium
proficiscor
progredior
prohibeo
prope
  propior
propter
provincia
publicus
puer
pugna
pugno
puto
quadraginta
quadringenti*
quaero
quam
quantus
quartus
quattuor
quattuordecim
—que
qui, quae, quod
  quo (adv.)*
quidam
quindecim
quingenti*
quinquaginta
quinque
quintus
quis, quid
quisquam
quisque
quod
ratio*
recipio
redeo
reduco
refero
regio
regnum
relinquo

reliquus
repello*
reperio
res
  respublica
resisto
respondeo
retineo*
reverto(r)
rex
ripa
rogo
rursus*
saepe
salus
satis
scio
scutum
secundus
sed
sedecim
senatus
sententia*
sentio*
septem
septendecim
septimus
septingenti*
septuaginta
sequor
sescenti*
sex
sexaginta
sextus
si
sic
signum
silva
sine
socius
sol*
solus
soror*
spatium
spero
spes
statim
statuo*
studium
sub
subitus
  subito
subsidium
sui
sum
supero
supersum*
superus
sustineo
suus
tam
tamen
tandem
tantus
telum
tempestas*
tempus
teneo
terra
tertius
timeo
timor
tollo*

totus
trado
traduco
trans
transeo
trecenti*
tredecim
tres
tribunus
triginta
tum
turris
ubi
ullus
ulterior
unde
undecim
undique
unus
usus
ut, uti
uter
uterque
utor
vasto
venio
ventus*
verbum*
vereor
verto*
verus*
vetus
via
victor
victoria
vicus
video
  videor
vigilia
viginti
vinco
vir
virtus
vis
volo, velle
voluntas*
vox
vulnero
vulnus

CICERO WORDS

adsum
amo
arbitror
audacia*
caedes
carus*
ceteri
civis
clarus*
claudo*
colo*
coniuratio
conscribo*
consul
credo
custos
decerno*
despero
deus
  dea
difficilis
diligentia
dolor
eripio*
exterus
fruor
gens
hodie
honor
imperator
interior*
invenio
iste
iudicium
laudo
laus
lego, legere
lex
libero
malo
malus,-a,-um
  male
meus
miser
morior
—ne
  nonne
num
nunc
oculus*
pareo
patria
pecunia

placeo
plenus*
poena*
poeta
prae*
pulcher
rego
scribo
semper
senex
servo
servus
similis
soleo
sto*
tu
  vos
tutus
  tuto
tuus
urbs
utinam
vester
vicesimus*
vita
vivo
voco

VERGIL WORDS

abeo*
curro*
dominus
donum
gaudeo
gratus
ingens
iuvenis
laetus
luna
rapio*
regina
rus
  ruri
sedeo*
super*

EXTRA WORDS
(not in 2000 list)

animal
defensor
dissimilis
duodecimus*
duodeviginti*
inimicus
iniquus*
puella
undecimus*
undeviginti*

SIX HUNDRED WORDS FOR FIRST YEAR WORK, GROUPED ACCORDING TO SENSE

I. MAN, HIS RELATIONS AND ACTIVITIES

1) Man, life and death.

dominus

homo
vir
mulier

sum
nascor, natus, natu
vivo
vita
morior
mors

puer
  puella
adulescens
iuvenis, iunior
senex, senior

2) Family and tribal relations.

pater
mater
frater
soror
filius
  filia
liberi,-orum
amo
amicus
  inimicus
amicitia
carus

servus

nomen
appello,-are

gens
finitimus
  finitimi
patria

3) The State:
a) its form.

civis
civitas
populus
publicus
  respublica
communis

regnum
natio

liber,-a,-um
libertas
libero

b) its government.

rego
rex
  regina
senatus

nobilis
humilis

eques
auctoritas
deligo
consul
tribunus
legatus
princeps
dux
imperator
imperium
impero
praeficio
praesum

c) its laws.

mos
lex
concilium
convoco
instituo
decerno

d) war and peace.

bellum
gero
pax
periculum
coniuratio
hostis
socius
obses
captivus
victor
vinco
victoria
supero
dedo
trado
fugio
fuga
defendo
defensor
custos
impetus
vasto

interficio
occido
caedes
vulnero
vulnus

e) the army

exercitus
legio
copiae
cohors
cornu
conscribo
miles
eques, equites
pedes, pedites
ordo
auxilium, auxilia
subsidium
praesidium
pugna
pugno
oppugno
oppugnatio
expugno
proelium
agmen
iter
acies
instruo
castra
hiberna

impedimenta
arma
armo
signum
gladius
telum
pilum
scutum

munio
murus
fossa
turris

nauta
navis
classis

4) Economics, trade.

copia
  inopia
pecunia
negotium

5) Humanitas et cultus.

scribo
lego
littera
  litterae
poeta
  Private life, etc.
domus
aedificium

6) The body its parts and passions.

corpus
caput
oculus

video
conspicio
conspectus

manus
pes

audio

vox
voco
clamor

vis, vires
salus
fortis
gracilis

7) The mind, intellect, feeling: verba sentiendi et declarandi.

animus
sentio
sententia
ratio
consilium

nosco
cognosco
intellego
scio
existimo
arbitror
puto
memoria
  memoriā teneo
certus
  certior fio
  certiorem facio
doceo

quaero
rogo
postulo
verbum
dico
loquor
oratio
respondeo
nuntius
nuntio
exspecto
credo
spero
spes
despero
polliceor
confido
fides
vereor
timeo
timor
dolor
gaudeo
laetus
gratus
gratia
  gratiae
  gratias ago

8) Will and Desire: verba studi et voluntatis.

peto
persuadeo
hortor
moneo
iubeo
impero
audeo
  audax
  audacia
placeo
studium
diligens
  diligentia
pareo
noceo
cupio
  cupidus
volo
  voluntas
nolo
malo
statuo
  instituo
prohibeo
impedio
resisto
cogo
possum
  potens
potestas
coepi
soleo
conor
fruor
potior

9) Doing and effecting: verba agendi et efficiendi.

ago
opus
labor
facio
  fio
  conficio
facilis
  facile
  difficilis
  difficultas
patior

augeo
aperio
claudo
capio
  accipio
  occupo
  recipio
do
  donum
duco
  adduco
  deduco
  educo
  reduco
  traduco
fero
  affero
  confero
  infero
  perfero
  refero
  confirmo
iacio
  conicio
iungo
  coniungo
mitto
  amitto
  committo
  dimitto
pello
  expello
  repello
premo
relinquo
paro
  paratus
  comparo
compleo

porto
rapio
  eripio
perterreo
servo
teneo
  habeo
  contineo
  retineo
  sustineo
contendo
tollo
utor
  usus

10) Circumstance and event.

causa
fortuna
cado
  casus
  accido
  caedo
invenio
reperio

11) Moral value.

debeo
officium
ius
  iniuria
iudico
iudicium
poena
praemium
laus
laudo
verus
honor
virtus

12) The Gods and their worship.

deus, dea
colo

13) Certain pronominal relations.

ego, nos
tu, vos
meus
tuus
noster
vester
sui
suus
hic
ille
iste
is, ea, id
idem
ipse
quis
qui
quidam
aliquis
quisquam
quique
alius
alter
neuter
nullus
ullus
uter
uterque
nemo
nihil

14) Certain logical relations in language.

atque
aut
cur
et
etiam
ita
itaque
item
nam
-ne
  nonne
  num
ne
neque
nisi
non
quam
-que
quod
sed
si
sic
sine
tamen
ut
utinam

15) Certain attributes of men and things, and their abstracts.

acer
aequus
  iniquus
altus
  altitudo
angustus
brevis
bonus
  bene
clarus
celer
  celeritas
firmus
gravis
idoneus
latus
levis
malus
  male
miser
novus
par
plenus
pulcher
similis
  dissimilis
tutus

II. NATURE.

The External World as the Object of Man's Thought.

16) The physical universe.

res
natura

sol
luna
terra

the elements:

aqua
lux
ignis
  incendo
ventus
  tempestas

geographic terms:

regio
provincia
fines
  incolo
mare
insula
flumen
ripa
pons
palus
mons
collis
silva
portus
litus
via
  iter
urbs
oppidum
vicus
porta
rus
ager

17) Place conceptions.

spatium
locus
medius
finis
latus,-eris
pono
colloco
passus
  mille passus

motion and rest:

adsum
absum
desum
supersum
sto
consisto
  constituo
maneo
moror
moveo
sedeo
curro
cedo
  accedo
  concedo
  discedo
eo
  iter
  adeo
  adventus
  appropinquo
  abeo
  exeo
  redeo
  transeo
venio
  convenio
  pervenio
proficiscor
egredior
  progredior
verto
  revertor
sequor

adverbs etc., of place.

ubi
ibi
unde
inde
undique
ab
ad
ante
apud
circum
citerior
contra
cum
de
ex
exterus
in
inferus
inter
interior
ob
per
post
posterus
prae
pro
prope
propter
sub
super
superus
trans
ulterior

18) Quantity and degree.

numerus
pars
totus
omnis
reliquus
ceteri
solus
creber
satis
multus

multum
multitudo
paulum
parvus
pauci
magnus
magis
magnitudo
ingens
longus
tantus
quantus
tam
quam
multus

The Cardinal and Ordinal Numbers.
Cardinals from 1 to 1000.
Ordinals from 1st to 20th.

19) Time.

tempus
annus
aestas
hiems
dies
nox
hora

vigilia

adverbs, etc., of time:
prior
vetus
subitus
subito
cum
dum
iam
nunc
hodie
cotidie
tum
postea
semper
tandem
statim
interim
saepe
rursus
diu

20) Life in the world apart from man.

animal
equus
frumentum

REVIEWS.

Beiträge zur griechischen Wortforschung. Von Felix Solmsen, Erster Teil. Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner (1909). 270 pp. 9 Mks.

We have here the first instalment of a series of at least twenty-five articles on Greek etymology. As only eight of them are contained in this thick fascicle it is needless to say that each word is fully discussed from every point of view. Sometimes, in fact, the etymology which forms the author's starting point is almost lost from sight. Such fulness of treatment is amply justified: it is hard enough for an etymologist to keep his feet upon solid ground no matter what precautions he takes. But one cannot help regretting the resultant discursiveness, especially as many of the topics discussed are more significant for other reasons than for their bearing upon the etymologies under which they are placed. A good index will no doubt do much to remedy this defect.

Such a treatment would be impossible for a mere grammarian without independent command of the sources. As it is, we have fresh and striking illustration of Solmsen's conscientious attention to the authenticity of his material. We are told (p. 25) that the meanings 'be blood-red' and 'be scorbutic' for αἱμωδεῖν have no warrant in ancient literature or lexicography. There is no conclusive evidence (p. 31) that ὀδούς was the Attic form corresponding to the Ionic ὀδών; ὀδούς seems not to occur before the Septuagint. The substantive θέλυμνον (p. 61), which has occupied the attention of many etymologists, does not exist at all. For such points as these an earlier generation of comparative philologists scarcely went behind the statements of the dictionaries.

Perhaps the most important contributions contained in these pages concern the interrelations of the Greek dialects. The excursus appended to article 3 (pp 93 ff.) gives an analysis of the Megarian dialect, in which are grouped separately those characteristics which it possesses in common with both Doric and Northwest Greek, those which it shares with Northwest Greek alone, and those in which it resembles Doric alone; and there follows a consideration of certain characteristics which do not come under any of the foregoing heads.

Both in this connection and elsewhere (especially pp. 68 ff.) our author points out many correspondences between the dialects of Megara and Northeastern and Northern Peloponnese on the one hand and Ionic on the other. On the Isthmus and in Mycenae, Epidaurus, Calaureia, and Troizen, Ποσειδάν shows the Attic-Ionic-Aeolic σ instead of the Doric τ. αἰσιμνάτας, 'ruler', and αἰσιμνᾶν, 'rule', occur in inscriptions of Megara and its colonies, and Pausanias (7.20.1 f.) reports Αἰσυμνήτης, i. e. Αἰσιμνάτας, from Patrae in Achaea. The corresponding Ionic αἰσυμνήτης, αἰσυμνητήρ, αἰσυμνᾶν show assimilation of ι to the following labial consonant (a sound-change which receives convincing treatment on pages 58 ff.). Καύκωνες, the Homeric name of a tribe near Pylos, and Καύκων, the name of a stream near Dyme in Western Achaea, find an echo in many Ionic personal and geographic names, such as Καύκαλος, Καύκασα, Καύκασος, Καυκασεύς. Even the mountain range to the east of the Black Sea was very likely given its name by Milesian sailors. Solmsen's conclusion is that before the Dorian invasion the Northern and Northeastern Peloponnese, the Isthmus, and the adjoining portions of Central Greece were occupied by the ancestors of the colonists who afterwards settled the islands and coasts of Ionia. Their primitive speech has left some trace in the dialect of the Dorian conquerors.

So linguistic facts have once more furnished striking confirmation of tradition. Solmsen has now reached the point where he believes (p. 90) that, in spite of the inventions of the poets and the inferences of learned historians, the Greek traditions of racial history always contain a kernel of fact. By way of confirmation he brings the troublesome dative plural ending -εσσι in Corinthian into connection with Thucydides's statement (4.42.2) that Corinth was in possession of Aeolians at the time of the Dorian invasion.

Attention is frequently called to the influence of Ionic upon later Attic and Hellenistic. μέδιμνος, in the sense of a measure of grain, was originally Ionic (p. 41). τάλαντον, for a definite unit of weight, will be assigned to the same category in the twenty-fifth article. Ionic origin seems probable for μέριμνα,

μεριμνᾶν (pp. 39 f., n.). The Hellenistic *ἀμᾶσθαι* (p. 186), *ἄντλος* 'a heap of grain' (p. 186), *φθίσις* as the name of a disease (pp. 188 f.), *νίτρον* = Attic *λίτρον* (p. 235) are all traced to Ionic.

In fact, our author's zeal in this direction sometimes seems excessive. He has no doubt (p. 60) that the twin forms *μόλιβος* and *μόλυβδος* should be traced to Ionic. His argument seems sound in the case of *μόλιβος*, but why not derive the longer form directly from Attic?

Article 1 contains a welcome addition to our knowledge of Greek phonology. The group *rs* + consonant is shown to have had the same fate in Attic-Ionic and Aeolic as in Latin: if the following consonant was voiced *s* dropped, otherwise *r* dropped. Hence we have *πτέρνη* = Goth. *fairzna*, *ἀρνειός*: *ἄρσην*, *ἔρδω* from **ϝέρσζω*, i. e. **ϝέρσδω*, from **ϝεργ-ιω*; but *ἀγοστός* 'hand': *ἀγείρω*, *παστάς* from **παρ-στάς*, *παστάτας* from **παρ-στάτας*.

There are several discussions of word formation, two of which deserve special mention. It is shown (pp. 52 ff.) that such proper names as *Ἀγάθων*, *Ἀρίστων*, *Κράτων*, *Λύκων* need not be derived from compound names in the manner made familiar by Fick-Bechtel. Complimentary names with simple stems were common from Indo-European times, and so was the individualizing suffix *-ĕn*, *-ŏn*, *-n̥*. Solmsen thinks that the Germanic weak declension of adjectives is to be traced to the same suffix, and he repeats (from Rheinisches Museum 59.503) his statement that the suffixes *-ασιων*, *-ακος*, *-αχος*, *-άδης*, *-ιάδης*, and *-αθος*, as well as *-αφος*, contain its weak grade. The reviewer hopes to show elsewhere that *-αβος* belongs in the list.

The eighth article, though starting like the others with an etymology, is chiefly occupied with an attempt to show that all Greek nouns in *-ᾰ*, except those with suffix *-ιᾰ*, are due to the analogical modification of ā-stems. Although the material is in several cases too scanty to yield full satisfaction, we are not likely to hear more of a suffix *-ᾰ or -σᾰ*.

Several other topics are scarcely less important than those we have mentioned. But enough has been said to show that Solmsen's book will demand the attention of all students of Greek grammar and of Greek history previous to the Dorian invasion.

BARNARD COLLEGE. E. H. STURTEVANT.

Caesar: The Gallic War, Books I-VII. Edited by A. L. Hodges, Wadleigh High School, New York City. New York: The Macmillan Co. (1909).

The Macmillan Latin Series has now been increased by an edition of the Gallic War, from the pen of Mr. A. L. Hodges.

In his preface Mr. Hodges states that the purpose of his edition is to help the student avail himself fully of the advantages which the study of Caesar offers in the author's direct style, his pure vocabulary, the opportunity for drill in syntax, and his interesting story, in its proper setting as a part of the history of the development of Rome and Europe.

We shall not here take issue with this defence of Caesar as a school author, all the less, because Mr. Hodges, by including in his book seven books, manages to satisfy the claims of those who believe that a more interesting selection can be given than is afforded by reading the first four books entire. But we must express, at the outset, our gladness at the attempt to treat Caesar as a story teller, and not merely as a *corpus vile grammaticum*. To accomplish his purpose, the editor has provided a rather extensive introduction. After calling the reader's attention to the parallel between the conquest of Gaul and that of the North American continent—which might be extended into a contrast of Roman and English colonization—the history of the Celtic tribes in both Transalpine and Cisalpine Gaul from the sixth century to Caesar's appearance is told. Caesar's life to his death is set forth in full, with an appreciation of the *man*, and of his literary work. The conditions of the country, the civilization and political and social organization of the Gauls, the Britons, and the Germans, are sketched, the organization, armament, and mode of warfare of the Romans are described, and a list of eight books of maps and illustrations, and of sixty-three books of reference closes the introduction.

This part of the work is done excellently well. Its style is concise and vivid, and it cannot fail to impress itself upon the pupil's mind, *if* he can be made to use it. The notes try to achieve this by cross references to the introduction. In the hands of a live teacher this work cannot fail to be successful. One may, perhaps, regret that more stress has not been laid on Caesar as a man, with his thoroughly Roman craftiness, his ice cold cruelty, as in the story of the battle with the Veneti, his treachery as displayed toward the German chiefs, his warm heart for friendship, as in the story of Procillus, and his impartiality, as in the praise bestowed on the Nervii. But that is a very minor defect.

Teachers will be most interested in the question of the notes. In general, it must be said that these are good, and really helpful. They try to stimulate the reasoning power of the student by questioning rather than explaining (p. 255, *alius—alter*), by calling his attention to the importance of word order, by questions about the case of nouns, and about the translation possibilities of other words. We can also highly commend the fact that stress is laid upon derivation and upon the force of composition, matters which to the harm of real insight into the language are too often deferred to the end of the third year. Where the similarity of forms might mislead the student he is assisted by being given the word

to look for (*sublata: tollere,* not *sufferre*). Difficult periodic sentences have been carefully analyzed, not in mechanical schemes, but by making the student question the development of the thought (p. 265, 32). Hints on translation are couched in general maxims, as the note on the padding 'there' (p. 310, 17), the advisability of changing the voice, the way to decide whether *cum* is a conjunction or a preposition.

Much attention is paid to making the content a reality, by giving the modern names of Gallic places, by giving the meaning of Gallic names, whose strange and unintelligible sound too often excites the laughter of the young student, and by parallels from modern authors.

On the other hand, two serious faults must be pointed out. In the first place too many phrases and clauses have been translated. This is bad, because it relieves the student of the necessity of self-activity. We hold that difficult passages may be translated for the pupil, but that this must be done in such a way that the translation reveals the Roman idiom, i. e. by literal rendering. It should then be pointed out to the student that it is *his* duty to put this metaphrase into good English. When he has been taught the way to do this, from the very beginning of his studies, we know from experience that he soon acquires the ability not only to do this work, but also to make the metaphrase for himself.

The second fault is quantitative. The notes are not rarely burdened with material, interesting, no doubt, but not germane, and beyond the comprehension of the youthful reader. Here belong for example, *conatus, -ūs,* as singular of *conata,* the mention of chiasmus, for, if this device is to be studied, why not the much more frequent hendiadys? Here also belong notes on the version of the Helvetian raid as given by Livy, the account of Labienus as the conqueror of the Tigurini, the exact chronology of the first expedition to Britain, all matters which have no essential relation to the understanding of the text.

In accordance with the general plan of the series, the notes are followed by a list of word groups, one of the most helpful devices in securing the acquisition of a vocabulary. There is little to be said about this feature of the book, except words of praise, though our scientific conscience prompts us to take issue with the editor on the root *MOE-, MU-,* 'wall' (44) as separated from root *MU-,* 'share' (46), and though it might have been better to explain *actuarius* as 'suited for driving' rather than as 'driven'.

The vocabulary, which pays due attention to Mr. Lodge's Word List, commendably lays the proper stress on etymology, and on a clear development of the meanings. Its practicability might have been enhanced by citing the place where a meaning is first found. Our experience tends to show that students flounder a great deal and lose much valuable time of their preparation by trying to fish out the correct definition from a number of English renderings.

The appearance of the book—aside from its green and red cover—deserves unstinted praise. The print throughout is clear, even where small, and, as far as we have tested it, it is absolutely free from misprints. The many illustrations have been chosen with good judgment, they really illustrate, and do not merely adorn, and, what is still more important, they have been placed where they belong. Numerous clear maps, printed in colors, render material service in elucidating questions of topography.

To sum up: the distinctive features of Mr. Hodges's work are highly to be approved. The shortcomings are of a minor nature. The book is destined to take high rank among American contributions to the cause of classical teaching.

Ernst Riess.

Social Life at Rome in the Age of Cicero. By W. Warde Fowler. New York: The Macmillan Company (1909). 362 pages. $2.25 net.

What Professor Dill in his excellent volumes did for two different periods of the Roman Empire, the well known author of the Roman Festivals of the Republic has now done for the Age of Cicero in these essays which deal with the most striking phases of the social life of the time. And surely no period has a more abundant store of valuable contemporary record than this, even if one leaves out of account all else but the Ciceronian correspondence, which reveals so wonderfully in many cases the very hidden springs of social action. These letters together with Marquardt's Privatleben are the chief sources utilized by Mr. Fowler, who at the same time acknowledges that the first sense of the reality of life and character in the age of Cicero came to him in younger days through Boissier's Cicéron et ses amis.

The titles of the chapters of themselves give a fair idea of the scope of the book: I Topographical; II The Lower Population; III The Men of Business and their Methods; IV The Governing Aristocracy; V Marriage and the Roman Lady; VI The Education of the Upper Classes; VII The Slave Population; VIII The House of the Rich Man in Town and Country; IX The Daily Life of the Well-to-do; X Holidays and Public Amusements; XI Religion. Then follow a brief Epilogue, a good index, and a map of Rome for the period in question. These chapters are on the whole admirable, packed full of information presented always in a most interesting and readable style.

There are, however, some evident weaknesses in the book which the faithful reviewer is bound to notice. Perhaps the least convincing chapter is the

first, in which the author essays to guide his reader up the Tiber to the site of Rome, to show him the panorama of river, city, Campagna and mountain from the point of view of the Janiculum, and finally to conduct him on a brief tour through the most interesting parts of the town, including the Forum Boarium, the Circus, the Porta Capena, the Sacra Via, the Forum and the Capitol. But in all this the author does not produce the impression of a man who knows his Rome thoroughly and has seen it recently, but rather of a student who is writing with one eye on the map. Clear errors in fact too are not wanting, as, for example, when we are told (p. 4) that "The modern visitor would cross by the Ponte Rotto . . . just below the Tiber Island". This was true once, of course, but for many years now the Ponte Rotto, standing with its one broken arch in midstream, has been reached only by the aid of a boat or a bathing suit. Standing in the Forum Boarium near the site of the Ara Maxima Herculis and the northwest end of the Circus Maximus the author remarks that "Nothing is visible here now, except the pretty little round temple of a later date, which is believed to have been that of Portunus, the god of the landing-place from the river". But he has totally neglected to mention the oblong temple assigned by Huelsen to Mater Matuta and now known as S. Maria Egiziaca, a neglect all the more unfortunate because this temple was actually standing there in the days of Cicero, whereas the other, at least in its present form, is of later date. The reader who is either familiar with the topography of the Forum or sure-footed in the slippery paths of grammatical gender is startled to read of the *fornix Fabiana* (p. 17) which he at once corrects by running his pencil through the final *a* and writing *us* on the margin after the fashion of the proof reader, at the same time muttering an imprecation against the careless tribe of printers. But when the same error meets his eye on the next page he begins to suspect that someone else than the printer has blundered. Again on page 22, the author is inconsiderate in saying that "All Roman public buildings of the Republican period" face the southeast. In some passages, too, he is quite confused in his topographical statements; for example, on p. 20 the ascent from the Forum to the Capitol is thus described: "The way now turns again to the right, and reaches the depression between the two summits of the Capitoline hill. Leaving the arx *on the left*, we reach by a long flight of steps the greatest of all Roman temples", etc. In this Mr. Fowler seems to be following the old view, now no longer held, which placed the temple of Juppiter Capitolinus on the northern elevation of the hill. On page 19 he calmly sails into the dangerous waters of the Rostra and speaks of the imperial Rostra as if it were the Rostra of the age of Cicero. It may be that in the very last days of Cicero the orator's platform was located on this site after its removal by Julius Caesar, but for the period of which we think as the age of Cicero it was of course between the Comitium and the Forum. Yet in spite of such blemishes as these, the topographical introduction may be really useful to the student who has never seen Rome, helping him to visualize the external conditions which surrounded the people of the late Republic.

In the other chapters Mr. Fowler is on more familiar ground and, especially in his treatment of the social life of the higher classes, to whom most of his space is devoted, has conferred a real benefit upon students of antiquity in bringing together the contemporary literary evidence for each topic discussed. The limits of space will hardly permit me to enter into any detailed account of the content of these excellent essays, which are always interesting and illuminating. I may be allowed, however, to record a few rather disconnected notes selected from many made upon the margin in a cursory reading. It is difficult to understand why a scholar should any longer refer to the Lucilius of Baehrens, as our author does on pages 18, 133, 246, and 273, when the edition of Marx (1904-05) is so far superior; or why Festus should be cited in the old edition of Müller (p. 177) rather than in the standard text of De Ponor; or why Lanciani's Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome should be given as one of three authorities on the shape and divisions of the Roman house. Occasionally there is a looseness of reference which seems unnecessary even in a popular book like this; for example on pages 53, 242, 243 and 276 we are referred to "Mau's Pompeii" without being told whether we are to consult the revised edition in English by Professor Kelsey or the more recent somewhat enlarged German edition. On page 51 we read: "In fact, fish-eating only came in towards the end of the Republican period, and then only as a luxury for those who could afford to keep fish-ponds on their estates". Surely this sweeping statement was not well considered, for, to say nothing of the evidence of Plautus, it is sufficiently contradicted by the one fact that the Forum Piscarium was burned down in 210 B. C., as Livy records (26.27). On page 53 we are inaccurately told, with reference to the trade of the fullers, that "the details of the process are known to us from paintings at Pompeii, where they adorn the walls of fulleries which have been excavated". Here the author might have indicated that the most important of these paintings are in the Museum at Naples. Other passages to which objection may with good grounds be taken are the following: on page 62 the sum of two hundred million sesterces is equivalent to one hundred and sixty thousand pounds but on page 64 eighty thousand pounds is the same as *centies sestertium;* page 315, "These (*fabulae Atellanae*) were of indigenous

Latin origin, and probably took their name from the ruined town of Atella, which might provide a permanent scenery as the background of the plays without offending the jealousy of any of the other *Latin* cities"; page 261; "(*villa rustica*) like that *recently* excavated at Boscoreale near Pompeii". Such matters as these may seem to some readers of small account, but they show a lack on the side of accuracy and indicate rapid writing and incompleteness of research. An American Latinist once said to me that "Scholarship consists largely in an infinite capacity for looking things up" and I believe that he was not far wrong.

There is no need to dwell on the use of discarded spellings like *coenaculis* (p. 29, n. 1), *foenus* (p. 81) and *coelo* (p. 102), nor to record such errors as Asconius *in Cornelianum* (p. 126), but it does seem necessary to emphasize the fact that Mr. Fowler has made an insufficient use of archaeological and epigraphical materials which are so abundant and so illuminating in the discussion of such a subject as ancient social life. Speaking of the children, he says (p. 181) "They had plenty of games, which were so familiar that the poets often allude to them", but not a word of all the tangible and material testimony offered by the article in Baumeister's Denkmäler, to mention only one standard source. Again, in dealing with the lower population, he remarks (p. 43) that they "did not interest their educated fellow citizens, and for this reason we hear hardly anything of them in the literature of the time". True, but the inscriptions, though not so numerous in the age of Cicero as during the imperial period, yet are very useful in filling up such gaps as this in the literary record. Occasionally, it must be said, our author makes use of an inscription, the most notable case being his lengthy interpretation of the so-called Laudatio Turiae (pp. 159-167) in the chapter on Marriage. Following his own article in The Classical Review (1905, p. 201) he still believes that this long inscription refers to Q. Lucretius Vespillo and his wife Turia and tries to explain away the objections to his view. As much as ten years ago, soon after the discovery of the new fragments, I ventured in print to doubt this identification, following the view of Vaglieri and Gatti, which was later approved by Hirschfeld (Wiener Studien, 1902, p. 235) and I still think, even after Mr. Fowler's arguments, that not Turia but some other noble Roman lady was the subject of the eulogy.

We have long been accustomed to the occasional mildly contemptuous reference in English books to what is called "American English" and, to be fair, we must acknowledge that American scholars have often left themselves open to criticism in this regard. For an American, on the other hand, to venture to point out defects in the writing of an English scholar and especially of one so well known for his culture and attainments as our present author, may look like presumption, but these defects, nothing more than the signs of haste, no doubt, are so glaring and so numerous that they should not be passed unnoticed. The constant use of the word corn in the sense of grain (*frumentum*) is, of course, quite good English, but it sounds decidedly peculiar to us on this side of the Atlantic, as "The corn which was at this time the staple food of the Romans of the City was wheat" (p. 33). This is, however, quite defensible, but as much can hardly be said for such passages as the following: "We hear neither of beer nor spirits in Roman literature" (p. 39); "The donkey was from quite early times associated with the business, as we know from the fact that at the festival of Vesta, the patron deity of bakers, *they* were decorated with wreaths and cakes" (p. 49); "Plenty of men who are *only there* because they have held the quaestorship" (p. 97); "Space can *only be found* to point out" (p. 106); "Only escaped with difficulty" (p. 209); "I will only wait till May 6" (p. 257); "The *two first* books of the *de Officiis*" (p. 115); "These *two first* hours of daylight" (p. 270); "All night long the wagons were rolling into the city, which were not allowed in the day-time" (p. 245); "The clear sight and strong nerve of Caesar, as compared with so many of his contemporaries, *was* doubtless largely due" (p. 246); "The guests would arrive with their slaves, who took off their walking shoes, if they had come on foot, and put on their sandals" (p. 280). In spite of these slight blemishes, however, Mr. Fowler has done good service to Classical Philology in reconstructing the social life of an important period of antiquity, and, after all, such reconstruction is the principal aim of all classical research.

Johns Hopkins University. Harry Langford Wilson.

Two important books have just become available, through translations, to those who do not read German readily. Weise's Charakteristik der lateinischen Sprache has been translated, with additional notes and references meant for English readers, by H. A. Strong and A. N. Campbell (Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner. Six shillings net).

The other book is a translation, under the title Our Debt to Antiquity, by H. A. Strong and H. Stewart, of a work by Th. Zielinski, Professor in the University of St. Petersburg (George Routledge and Sons. *2s., 6d*). Professor Zielinski is well known for his Cicero im Wandel der Jahrhunderte, (second edition, greatly enlarged, 1908). Our Debt to Antiquity is a development of lectures given by him in 1903 to the highest classes in the secondary schools of St. Petersburg. The book is an earnest championing of the Classics as the groundwork of education. What I have read of it leads me to endorse these words from the Preface to the Translation: "The whole question indeed is surveyed from a fresh standpoint; the lectures form a stimulating and suggestive treatment of a familiar subject on new lines".

C. K.

On page 113, column 1, next to last line, read "as having read an amount", etc.: on the same page, column 2, sixth line from bottom, read "any d[illegible]",

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The emphasis upon method to the exclusion of matter which used to be quite prominent is gradually giving place to the belief that method after all is but the handmaid of matter and that the first requisite of a good teacher is knowledge. But that method properly considered has not only a place but an essential place in the preparation of a teacher is being more and more generally recognized, particularly in those institutions whether universities or normal schools a large proportion of whose students are preparing specifically for the profession of teaching. That these institutions do not regard their function as confined to the walls of the buildings is evidenced by two recent handbooks for teachers of Latin which have come to my hand.

At the close of 1908 there was issued by the University of Wisconsin a pamphlet called The High School Course in Latin, by Professor Slaughter. The contents are divided as follows: Introduction, First Year Latin, Second Year Latin, the Third Year, The Fourth Year, Reference Books and Journals. After a few introductory pages on the value of Latin study in the High School, Professor Slaughter proceeds to discuss the course in detail. It would be impossible to go into an analysis of the pamphlet or an examination of individual statements. One is surprised at the number of directions which would seem to be almost superfluous in print, e. g. such statements as, "No good teacher is dependent upon the book", "Keep the class alive", "Don't let the pupil dawdle", "Insist upon immediate and close attention". Perhaps, however, emphasizing them may goad the jaded teacher to greater efforts. In the first year the topics considered are The Text Book, about which the author has some good remarks, Pronunciation, regarded rightly as the strangest thing the pupil encounters in beginning Latin, Forms, Sentence Structure, Syntax, Vocabulary and Connected Reading. Professor Slaughter remarks that more syntax is usually given in beginners' books than is demanded. He says that the pupil is old enough when he begins Latin to be sufficiently mature to understand the principles of syntax found in the beginners' book but he should not be expected to master all of them. Some may question the truth of his ability to understand. To my mind understanding is likely to follow mastery rather than to precede it. In vocabulary three to five hundred words are recommended as a minimum for the first year and some connected reading either from Caesar or from the Fabulae Faciles. In the second year the most important suggestion is that sight reading should be encouraged and that definite attention should be paid to the systematic study of vocabulary by having the class keep lists of all the new words as they occur and learning a certain number every day. Latin Composition is treated during this year but Professor Slaughter confines himself to generalities. He seems to incline towards daily drill occupying the first ten minutes of the recitation period but he admits that many teachers prefer one period a week and then says: "When this is done great care must be exercised to prevent listless and careless work. Pupils should be required to prepare their lessons independently of each other, and the teacher should never allow pupils to correct each other's papers. Whatever correction is necessary should be made by the teacher or by the one who wrote the paper, and should be supervised by the teacher. Poor and slipshod work in composition is worse than none". These directions are admirable but unfortunately experience shows that they cannot be carried out. Latin Composition, if it is to be done with profit at all, must be done almost entirely in the class-room under the teacher's eye. As far as the reading is concerned he thinks it should be slow at the beginning but careful attention should be given to the English of the translations. The third and fourth year are dismissed quickly, the chief emphasis in the fourth year being laid upon the scansion. The pamphlet is likely to be useful and in its recommendations seems to be fully up to the times.

More recent is the Handbook for High School Teachers of Latin written by Professor Game and published by the Missouri State Normal School. This handbook will be sent on request to any one who desires to have it. It is somewhat more pretentious than Professor Slaughter's and contains a number of interesting things. The first part of it is devoted mainly to summarizing the various papers that have been delivered at the Classical Conferences in Michigan. Some of these papers are now out of print. The University of Michigan would confer a favor upon classical teachers by publishing the whole series in book form. After this comes a short chap-

ter on The Increasing Interest in Latin, The Bearing of the Classics upon English Literature, in which a table is given of mythological references in twenty-four prominent English writers, running from 650 such references in Spenser, to 450 in Byron and 30 in Bryant, Shakespeare and Milton being omitted from the list. The next section is devoted to The Use of the Latin Bible, Latin Hymns, and Similar Latin in the High Schools. This paragraph is worth pondering on.

Students really enjoy an opportunity to make their Latin touch things of everyday life. A copy of the Latin New Testament and Psalms on the teacher's desk may be made the means of awakening a new interest in his Latin on the part of many a boy, and of turning to good account many an hour that might be without promise. The teacher can read slowly the Latin version of some familiar passage and ask for a translation by ear. The twenty-third Psalm, the Lord's Prayer, the Beatitudes, the Fifteenth chapter of St. John's Gospel, all offer themselves for this purpose, and it will be surprising how gladly even students of the first year will try to make use of all the Latin they know.

Some specimens of Latin hymns are given and references to the two editions of hymns now available, the first by Professor March, published by the American Book Co., the second by Professor Merrill—who seems not to have known of the first—published by Sanborn. There is a section on The Qualifications of a High School Latin Teacher in which Professor Game urges very strongly that no one should be allowed to teach Latin who does not hold the degree of Bachelor of Arts from a reputable college. Then come Suggestions on Teaching High School Latin divided into first, second, third and fourth year. The treatment is brief but the suggestions are good. One serious criticism I should make, however, that in a book of this kind, special text-books, as, for example, beginners' books, should not be recommended. To pick out four first year Latin books, all published by leading publishing houses, and omit the twenty or thirty others that are asking for recognition is not right. A good section on Class Room Equipment for the Latin Department treating charts, books, wall-maps, pictures, sculpture and other illustrative material is followed by a few suggestions as to illustrative material for Caesar, Cicero and Vergil. The excellent suggestion is made in this connection that a certain amount of illustrative material may easily be made by teacher and students. This applies particularly to arms, implements and articles of dress. The pamphlet closes with the advertisement of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South and of the Department of Latin and Greek in the Missouri State Normal School, but the fact that the whole treatise is apparently primarily an advertisement need not blind us to its general excellence. G. L.

SYMPOSIUM ON FIRST YEAR LATIN
LATIN WRITING

(*Concluded from page* 131. *See also page* 106.)

That there must be *writing* of Latin during the first year is almost axiomatic. The necessity of an *apologia* arises, in part, from the tendency of certain recent beginners' books to minimize the importance of that writing, and, in part, from conditions that favor easier methods and approaches to learning. With the vast growth of collateral work that is regarded in many quarters as essential to the vital teaching of the Classics many an issue has been obscured. Writing, however, still remains *the* force that will fuse and unify the miscellanies of the student's scattered information, the medium in which we may expect a precipitate of wisdom.

Every legitimate means contributing to the student's mastery of his working material—vocabulary, inflection, syntax, word-order—must be brought into use. The writing of Latin assuredly occupies an important place among these media, being absolutely imperative and indispensable. The multitude of details which crowd upon the young student's attention will remain in endless confusion in his mind and imagination, unless the categories into which these details properly fall are more firmly fixed by the added effort of writing them upon some present, palpable medium. To visual, auditory and place memories there are joined a motor energy and a new association, that add power to the impression of the others; "the brain path leading to the oral response is not the one along which the written response travels"[1]. Careful wrtiing not only involves a recall of what the student knows, but also a discriminating use of it. Involving criticism, writing reinforces his knowledge and thus results in a careful weighing of possibilities—verbal, suffixal, syntactical and of word coordination. Discriminating writing requires more than mechanical memory and imitation. It necessitates "a real active and originative mental effort", that includes attention and a greater degree of concentration than even the most correct and sharp oral work which may be wholly mechanical and quite thoughtless even at the moment of accurate recitation[2]. Words therefore (whether in isolation or in sentence structure), word-forms and functions, and sentence-elaboration—all of these are impressed more strongly and firmly upon the student's consciousness by reason of the added effort of writing, and of the process of conscious deliberation and choice that is part of the act of careful writing.

Though the ultimate aim of our Latin studies may be the ability to read Latin with comparative ease so that we may subordinate language-study to a study of literature and its content, this ideal will not and

[1] Miss H. May Johnson, The Classical Weekly 2. 59.

[2] Cf. De Garmo, Principles of Secondary Education, 112.

cannot be realized as the immediate result of the first year's work. Just as far as the first steps in language-study exercise observation and memory, comparisons, associations and dissociations, inferences and analyses, and constantly fresh syntheses in the acquiring of forms and the observing of laws, just so far the first year's work will seek to cultivate, to a certain degree, logic, reflection and reason, and imagination[1]. It does not necessarily follow that the specific habits of verbal and grammatical memory and of linguistic reason will be directly applicable to any or every subsequent intellectual pursuit; indeed, these may later prove a real inhibition upon certain other mental directions, tendencies or impulses. Yet that progression in the development of memory, reason, logic and imagination must gain in definite outline and strength from conscientious composition, in proportion as the latter requires accuracy and precision in the recapitulation of all these processes. All these recognized values, which accompany an acquisition of vocabulary, mastery of forms, comprehension of essential principles of syntax, and initiation into the mysterious genius of Latin word-order, repose for their fuller realization and for their deeper meaning upon the use made of these in writing. Writing, therefore, cannot be begun too soon, cannot be prosecuted too vigorously. Other things may come and go, but the importance of writing can hardly be exaggerated or over emphasized; and *schreiben, viel* schreiben, möglichst viel *schreiben* would be my dogmatic philosophy for the first year Latin student.

In addition to the maximum amount of writing compatible with reason that is done outside the class, as much writing as time may allow should be done in class under skilled supervision. The argument of economy of time through oral[2] work meets, to be sure, an important exigency of our Latin teaching, but does not affect the theoretical and absolute importance of that writing. It is quite unnecessary to add the need of simplicity throughout the first-year sentences, even though the student write connected discourse[3]. Complex constructions cannot be too strongly tabooed, lest the confusion and disheartenment resulting from their subtleties put to rout that intellectual strength toward which we are striving. But correction both of the work done outside of class as well as of that done in class must not and cannot be neglected without forfeiting all.

Writing in such large amounts and so constantly emphasizes the disciplinary character of the first year's work. However, "strictly speaking, there is probably no such thing as a purely disciplinary study"[1]; while during the first year this function of our Latin studies may be properly emphasized, yet they possess, even at this stage, an inseparable cultural content. This cultural content may possess an enormous stimulus to the student's imagination, in proportion to the teacher's knowledge and skillful use of it. By this means the student realizes that his formal material is, after all, merely the symbol of a system greater than the linguistic structure that he is learning, merely the symbol of a civilization, only in part revealed in the strong and noble language-organism that he is mastering. The student has the right to know something of the significance of the formal material that he is handling. It is the classical teacher's good fortune to teach a vocabulary[2] that is the expression of a great concrete and spiritual world of unlimited inspiration; to teach forms with which are psychologically associated great ideas and forces not entirely beyond the grasp of even the first year student; to teach a language and sentence-structure whose mood and case relations are rich and abounding with suggestions of law and order, of rivalries and conquests, of authority and submission. No well-trained teacher, to-day, will fail to read into words, forms, syntax and word order—the student's pragmatism—the Roman spirit that pervades all these particularisms, that illumines the letter, that cannot but quicken and thrill the teacher and the taught alike, and prove their mutual salvation[3]. The disciplinary character of this work need never assume the abhorrent aspect of a purely mechanical, barren, soulless drill in a vast array of meaningless details. Even the simple rudiments, the "husks" of G. Stanley Hall's derision (tyrannous and arbitrary products, finals only to a narrow intelligence), should throb with interest for the student by reason of the teacher's comprehension and enthusiasm that will communicate an admiration for words and inflections, a contagious affection for syntactical possibilities and those of word-order. Then to the knowledge of things as they are will be added the inspiration of suggestion WHY they are as they are.

Yet our great emphasis during the first year must be laid upon the disciplinary aspect of this matter, i. e. upon the inherent mental training that will result from our conscientious teaching of these phenomena of language. All of this cultural significance, during the first year, must remain but the

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[1] Cf. Ashmore, The Classics and Modern Training, 21.

[2] Cf. Bennett and Bristol, The Teaching of Latin and Greek, 59,160.

[3] Byrne's invaluable Syntax of High School Latin will undoubtedly exert an influence in this direction.

[1] J. R. Angell, The Doctrine of Formal Discipline, etc. in The Educational Review, June, 1908, p. 14.

[2] As an assistance to the acquiring of the vocabulary the judicious use of lantern-slides is strongly recommended.

[3] There is room for a hand-book that might aid teachers of first year Latin to the materials essential to the most effective teaching of that Latin. Such a work, largely bibliographical and explanatory in character, might properly be a systematic guide-book to beginners' Latin books, to books that furnish easy collateral reading, to articles and larger works bearing upon the pedagogy and psychology of the teaching of Latin, and to treatises that suggest the deeper significance of words, forms, syntax and word-order.

lighter play upon the more serious task immediately at hand. Our essentials must be taught and must be learned even at the peril of pain and rebellion, and the technique aiming at a mastery of that body must include writing. Writing not only emphasizes the disciplinary aspect, but also fortifies the cultural, because that cultural enrichment without a real basis of knowledge is mere idle, intellectual dissipation. The very artificialities of the Latin literary language which became a fixed medium, the very fact that it acquired a definite form and outline, the very fact that finality attended so many of its modes of expression render the writing of it all the more important a corrective of intellectual indolence. That necessary precision involved in correct Latin composition checks the young, untrained mind, accustomed to loose thinking and to looser phrasing. If it be urged that this seems all too much like hampering freedom and individuality, it should be borne in mind that the brain of the average[1] student has attained its full size and weight, and that the sensory and motor areas are fully matured.. Therefore, at this stage, improvement is especially needed in precision and decision. Unless freedom be misregarded as license, unless individuality be misinterpreted as the sophistry of impulse untrained, the discipline of mental aptitudes, resulting from the writing of Latin prose, is most likely to promote these *desiderata* of decision and precision.

While serving as a *means* to the mastery of vocabulary, forms, syntax and sentence-structure, the writing of Latin will inevitably prove the best means of acquiring the ability to move with firmness and security among the difficulties of the language that will later present themselves in the reading. Writing does *not* necessarily lead to fluency in reading any more than *reading* or oral work immediately creates the ability to write easily and correctly. Yet it is true that the ability to write correctly is the greatest test of the student's accurate knowledge and will be the surest foundation for subsequent correct though slow reading. For *rapid* reading ability, or ability to read at sight, somewhat different methods must be employed; such methods, however valuable if applied properly at a later time, are in a measure alien to the more rigorous plan outlined above, and if applied too early are even prejudicial to the best results. An adherence to our stricter methodology may be old-fashioned and not in line with a recent tendency that, influenced by modern language studies, emphasizes the need of learning to read readily as early as possible. But many a later catastrophe in school-life has unquestionably resulted from a failure of the student to build the foundation of his house as firmly as our scheme of work contemplates. Even in *this* scheme the writing of Latin remains merely a means[1] to an end; it is not ability to write with stylistic elegance that is sought at this time or even later. As an instrumental knowledge, Latin composition accentuates the benefits and epitomizes the problems of first year Latin. More than this, it helps to develop that honesty of habit and sincerity of thoroughness which are not only the basis for all future work in Latin, but which are admittedly one of the great contributions of Latin study to education and so to life. On the other hand, tendencies involving less rigorous methods imply that we have lost somewhat of the earlier Spartan character of our discipline.

[1] See J. M. Tyler, Growth and Education, 180.

The aim of all this writing will be to create lasting impressions, and, if possible, to assist to a language consciousness. Writing and writing only will lead the first year student to an intimate knowledge of the anatomy of the language; writing and writing only will acquaint him with the physiology of the language as that is revealed in organic sentence-structure; and writing and writing only will suggest the soul of that language. But as much writing puts upon the student the burden of immense expenditure of time and effort, so upon the teacher there rests a moral obligation of sacrifice in the interest of the student's accuracy. An unreserved devotion to all the obligations of this task requires a love and a faith rarely found in any but the stout hearts of martyrs. All too easily subterfuges are found and excuses are conjured up. The success of the late, lamented Henry Gray Sherrard may, perhaps, encourage fainter hearts. Possessed of luminous imagination, fertile invention, and an enthusiasm which kindles even unto these later years, teaching was ever a consecration with him, and the *writing of the correct form* was one of the great requisite virtues that might open to the faithful disciple the kingdom of classical *mirabilia*.

GEORGE DEPUE HADZSITS.
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

LATIN IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Again and again we teachers of the Classics in the secondary schools are told that we must mend our ways, if we do not wish to be dispossessed from the Latin mansion as we have already been from the Greek. Statistics are quoted from this source and that to prove that Latin has entered on the downward path, the results of the Entrance Examinations are held up to us as the Mene Tekel of our impending doom—and then we are left to our own devices. If it is true that the Lord helps him who helps himself, then it would seem to be time for the downtrodden mere teacher to rise and defend himself.

I do wish to state once as tersely as I can the

[1] Cf. P. Dettweiler, in A. Baumeister's Handbuch der Erziehungs u. Unterrichtslehre für höhere Schulen, Vol. III (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.85-86); J. E. Barss, The What and the How of Classical Instruction, in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.34-36.

difficulties which beset our path, especially in the large cities. In the school with which I am connected, there are received every half year some 425 boys, chiefly recruited from the grammar schools. These pupils are received on certificate of maturity and scholarship from their principals. About one-fifth of these elect German as their first language, the rest, either of their own choice, or because lack of space does not permit us to teach French during the first year, take up the study of Latin. During the first year these pupils are expected to cover the following ground: all forms, with the exception of the imperative of the verb; the chief uses of cases, the purpose, result and indirect discourse constructions, relative and causal clauses, gerund and gerundive, in their elementary aspects only. In addition, they read the first 22 chapters of the War with the Helvetians, and do a fair amount of translation from English into Latin, at the rate of about four sentences per diem. This amount of work is in reality a reduction in the requirements, made during the last three years. Formerly 29 chapters of the Helvetian War, and five lessons of an elementary prose book were covered. Not counting losses by withdrawal from the school, there are left at the end of the year, and judged capable to continue the course, about 60% of the pupils. Teachers of the third term—Caesar—are, however, constantly complaining of the inferior character of the students coming into their classes. An investigation into the causes seems to show that the responsibility lies largely with circumstances outside the school itself. For two and a half years, we have been compelled to employ a varying number of substitute teachers, young college graduates without experience, and frequently with but a very meager knowledge of Latin. Through a readjustment of programs and appointments these conditions have been recently altered—I dare not say, improved. For I do not consider it an improvement that our teachers now teach five classes of five periods each, instead of four. Twenty-five periods of work appear to me by far too large an allotment to a man, especially in the first year, with classes varying from 35 to 48 pupils. In no grade is the written work of more importance than in the first two; yet no man can be expected to correct from 175 to 225 exercises every day and keep mentally sound. Only a change in the financial conditions of the municipality can bring the needed betterment.

Even apart from this condition, however, I believe that no material elevation of results is possible. It is all very well to say that hard work is a fine discipline, that boys must not be coddled, but after all it remains true that nothing will be well done but what is gladly done, and our boys do not love their Latin. Nor do I see how they can. To feed a boy day after day on such pabulum as The Helvetians wage war with the Germans, The soldiers were praised by the general, and so forth, must be nauseating in the end. The defect is by no means restricted to the special book, excellent in its way, which we are using. Any book which prepares for Caesar, and not for Latin suffers from the same disease. Nor do I see that other beginners' books are any better, least of all the books which tell stories like this: The red rose is beautiful, The girl gives a beautiful rose to the noble queen. The great and fundamental defect of all our first year books, as far as I can see, is, that they either are imbued with the *vocational* idea, that is, they wish to accomplish only a highly specialized end, or they are remodeled from German books, which were written for children of nine years of age, and are correspondingly childish. The sine qua non for a successful first Latin book, I believe, is a previous investigation into the psychology of the fourteen year old boy. This much I am willing to adopt from Professor Dewey's statement that a child should be taught nothing but what it demands

In the second place, I believe that we should take a leaf out of the wreath of modern language teaching, and model our books so that they teach the beginner something about the life and the way of thinking of the Roman nation. Gurlitt's Fibel, rewritten for boys of a more advanced age, would seem to me to come nearer to this demand than any other book. I am fully alive to the objection that such a book will largely consist of *made* Latin. But I confess that I do not share this objection. Provided that the maker of the book is a sound scholar, and that he will not admit into his book anything which is not classical language—I do not mean constructions found in Caesar and Cicero but a few times—a boy can learn just as much Latin from *made* exercises as from others.

A third requisite for a good first book would be *limitation*. All of our first books undertake to teach by far too much. The first year should be strictly limited to what is essential: the five declensions—and I sincerely hope that the mixed stems will give way to a more sensible way of teaching—the four regular conjugations, *sum*, and *possum*, but not *fero* and *eo*, the regular adjectives, including comparison and adverbs, but only a very few irregular comparisons, the personal, possessive, demonstrative, relative and interrogative pronouns and no others, the most important prepositions. That would seem to be all that is necessary to start the pupil in reading.

On the other hand, I do not share the modern abhorrence of composition work. During the first year, on the contrary, translation from English into Latin should equal, if not surpass, the translation from Latin. For if application, and immediate application at that, is a sound pedagogic principle, such application in language work is best given by the making of Latin words and sentences on the part of the student.

There remains the old crux of our work, the acquisition of a vocabulary. As far as quantity goes, the question would seem to have been settled by almost unanimous consent: about 500 to 600 words are not too large a demand. The question is: how is this amount to be acquired? Here nothing, in my opinion, can take the place of the old-fashioned way of memorizing. Every day should see the calling for a small number of new words and the review of a larger number of old words, either orally or better still, on the blackboard or on paper. In this connection let me say that three or five minutes given each day to a little review test would not only be no waste of time, but would actually prove a time saver. I am not old fashioned enough, however, to condemn the student merely to a mechanical acquisition of the vocabulary. On the contrary, I wish from the very beginning to employ all possible helps: elementary etymology, comparison with English derivatives, the laws of composition. All of these should daily enter into the teaching.

In the last place, we are still sinning against the precepts of sound educational theory by making our assignments indefinite, and by throwing too much of the burden of acquisition upon the pupil. Personally, I should go over each new lesson in class, not only, as is usually done, for explanation, but in actual practice. No sentence should be prepared by the student at home which he has not gone over with the teacher in the classroom. His home work should be merely a review of what he has been taught during the day in school, and he should have been told exactly what is of importance in the work and what is only incidental.

Such teaching, of course, makes a demand on the teacher's time which at present he sees himself unable to devote to his work. But with the limitations indicated above it seems to me that the time can be found, and I am convinced, from my observations in the classroom, that thus to make haste slowly is an exceedingly good investment of time and labor.

Yet, with all these ideal requirements, I am afraid, the results, in our school at least, will continue to fall far short of reasonable expectations. The reason for this gloomy view is that we are hampered by two obstacles. In the first place, a large number of our students are not sufficiently masters of the English language readily to express themselves in it. I will quote a concrete example. There is at present in one of my classes a boy, very industrious and very attentive, who when called upon to give a review translation of the text, always does good work. But the same boy, when called upon to do advanced work, is well able to give the translation of every clause, and to explain the constructions, but he can not put his translation into intelligible English, because, as inquiry has shown, he speaks no English except at school. This is an extreme case, but to a lesser degree the same difficulty is met with in a number of boys. In the second place, boys are hampered by an ignorance of grammatical terms. Our English teachers often deny point blank the necessity of teaching grammar, and the burden of doing so is thrown on the teachers of the foreign language. These are further hampered by the difference in terminology. I hold no brief for the grammatical terms of Latin. On the contrary, it is immaterial to me whether I teach Attribute Complement or Predicate Noun-Adjective. But I do wish to express myself in a language intelligible to my students. The recent movement (THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY, 3. 8, 64) to work toward an uniformity in grammatical terminology has my warm support all the more as some years ago I tried to bring about such uniformity in the school with which I was then connected—an effort which met with the decided opposition of many of my colleagues.

ERNST RIESS.

REVIEWS

Supplementary Papers of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome: Volume 2. Published for the School by The Macmillan Co.: New York (1908). Pp. ix. + 293.

This volume of papers by students of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome was made necessary by the fact that there was no room for these articles in the American Journal of Archaeology, which is the normal medium of publication of work done by members of the School. The cost of the volume was met by a grant of three thousand dollars from the Carnegie Institution. As a result we have before us a sumptuous volume, in the form known now as large octavo, richly illustrated. But there is one drawback to this sumptuousness: the book will be beyond the means of the ordinary student.

The present volume contains four papers: The Advancement of Officers in the Roman Army, by George H. Allen, 1-25; Roman Monumental Arches, by C. Densmore Curtis, 26-83; The Palimpsest of Cicero De Re Publica, by A. W. Van Buren, 84-262; Inscriptions from Rome and Central Italy, by James C. Egbert, 263-290. There is a brief index, 291-293. There are 41 illustrations in the text. Of these 18 show arches at various places; the remainder picture some of the inscriptions discussed by Professor Egbert. There is also, in connection with Mr. Allen's paper, a Plan Indicating the Relative Rank of Officers in the Roman Army.

Mr. Allen's paper analyzes and tabulates the system of promotion that obtained in the Roman Army in the first three Christian centuries; all branches of the army have been subjected to thorough study, a study which rests throughout entirely on epigraphical sources. We now have clear evidence of a

cursus honorum militaris corresponding to the well-known civil *cursus honorum*.

Of Mr. Curtis's article I prefer not to speak, because it awaits action by the classical faculty of Columbia University as Mr. Curtis's dissertation for his doctor's degree.

Mr. Van Buren's paper, which occupies the bulk of the book (180 out of 290 pages) is at once the paper which called for most labor and which will appeal to the smallest circle of students; to the latter, however, it will be of the first importance. Part of the author's prefatory note deserves to be quoted:

The transcription and introduction here presented are the result of an agreement made in the year 1903 between the Vatican Library and the American School of Classical Studies in Rome. At that time the Vatican Library suggested that, as its publication in facsimile of the palimpsest of Cicero's *De Re Publica* was not to be accompanied by a transcription of the under writing, the School would be doing a useful work if it should prepare such a transcription, with an introduction treating of the subjects which were not to be discussed in the Library's publication itself.

The facsimile was published in 1907, at Milan, under the title Ciceronis Liber De Republica Rescriptus: Codex Vaticanus 5757. In his introduction (pp. 86-110) Mr. Van Buren furnishes full information concerning the ligatures, abbreviations, syllabic division, and orthographical peculiarities of the text. The remainder of the article gives the transcription of the manuscript, set forth in ordinary Latin type; this transcription is intended to be used in conjunction with the facsimile mentioned above.

Professor Egbert gives an account of a small number of inscriptions specially studied by him during the year in which he was Professor at the School in Rome. These inscriptions come in the main from the Villa Tavazzi at Rome, from Gabii, and from Capua and its neighborhood. One point of interest is that the name of the Mater Matuta, an early Roman goddess, is for the first time found in an inscription coming from Rome itself. C. K.

THE NEW YORK LATIN CLUB

The informal meeting of The New York Latin Club for the current year will be held on Saturday, March 5, at 10 a. m., in the Chapel of Teachers College. A full and prompt attendance is requested.

It is expected that Dr. Arcadius Avellanus will address the meeting in explanation of his method of teaching Latin with the Latin language itself as the only method of expression for teacher and pupil. Professor Lodge will also speak on the Oral Method of Teaching Latin. The opportunity to hear Dr. Avellanus is one which should be eagerly welcomed by all teachers and friends of the Classics.

THE HUDSON RIVER CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION

The Hudson River Classical Association was organized on Saturday, February 5, in Albany, New York, at the New Kenmore Hotel. The meeting was called under the general direction of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States. The proceedings began with a luncheon at one o'clock. The Association was then organized by the election of the following officers: President, Principal O. D. Robinson of the Albany High School; Vice Presidents, Professor S. G. Ashmore, Union College, Schenectady, Principal Henry P. Warren of the Albany Academy, Principal Martin T. Walroth of the Troy Academy, and Principal M. J. Carr of the Saratoga High School; Secretary-Treasurer, W. D. Goewey of the Albany High School; Executive Committee, the President, the Secretary-Treasurer, Jared W. Scudder of the Albany Academy, Miss Veda Thompson of the State Education Department at Albany, and Professor John I. Bennett of Union College.

Professor Charles Knapp made an address on Some Phases of Roman Business Life; Miss Agnes R. Davison of the Albany High School read a paper on The New College Entrance Requirements in Latin, and Miss Veda Thompson, under the title Some New Helps for Classical Teachers, spoke of recent new books.

An attendance of 73 interested participants, representing a territory extending from Poughkeepsie to Saratoga and as far west as Utica, promises a successful future for this new organization.

Albany, N. Y. W. D. GOEWEY, Secretary.

THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF PITTSBURGH AND VICINITY

On Saturday, January 22, The Classical Association of Pittsburgh and Vicinity met at the University of Pittsburgh. A very cordial welcome was received from Dr. Samuel McCormick, Chancellor of the University. There was a symposium on Prose Composition in School and College, outlined as follows: I Purpose: (a) In School, Professor Mark Kishiminetas, Saltsburg, Pa., and Professor Jones of the Allegheny Preparatory School, (b) In College, Dr. John B. Kelso of Grove City College; II The Need of Greek Prose Composition, Principal W. R. Crabbe, Shadyside Academy, Pittsburgh; III Methods: (a) In School, Miss Ruth R. Ealy, Homestead High School, (b) In College, Professor R. B. English, Washington and Jefferson College; IV Results, (a) In School, Miss Effie Sloan, Bellevue High School, (b) In College, Professor H. S. Scribner, University of Pittsburgh.

Miss Mary McCurdy, of the Carnegie Library, Pittsburgh, gave a Latin reading from the De Amicitia.

Current topics were presented by Professor B. L. Ullman of the University of Pittsburgh. There was a good exhibition of text books in Latin prose, many of which were furnished by the book companies. There was also an attractive table of rare books from the private library of Professor Ullman, as well as of unique letters written in Latin and autographs of famous authors and well known scholars of today.

A social period followed the programme, in which the members of the Association and their friends were entertained at luncheon by the University of Pittsburgh.

The next meeting will be at Washington and Jefferson College on February 26; at that meeting, we are glad to say, Professor Charles Knapp is to be with us and deliver an address.

Carnegie, Pa. N. ANNA PETTY, Secretary.

There will be no issue of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY on Saturday, February 26.

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To the thoughtful courtesy of Professor F. W. Kelsey, of the University of Michigan, we owe two quotations from The Reminiscences of Carl Schurz (1.58-59; 1.87-89) which we are glad to set before our readers.

Of course I was early introduced to the kings and to the republican heroes and sages of Roman history, and learned, through my own experience, to appreciate how greatly the study of a language is facilitated by studying the history of the country to which it belongs. This applies to ancient tongues as well as to modern. When the student ceases to look upon the book which he is translating as a mere pile of words to be brought into accord with certain rules of grammar; when that which the author says stimulates him to scrutinize the true meaning, relation and connection of the forms of expression and the eager desire to learn more of the story or the argument urges him on from line to line, and from page to page, then grammar becomes to him a welcome aid, and not a mere drudgery, and he acquires the language almost without knowing how.

I fully experienced this when under Bone's guidance I read Cornelius Nepos and Caesar's Gallic wars, and still more in translating Cicero's Orations. Most of these appear to the student at first rather difficult. But if he begins each time by examining the circumstances under which the oration was delivered, the purpose it was to serve, the points upon which special stress was to be laid, and the personalities which were involved in the proceeding, he will be imperceptibly hurried along by the desire to discover with what representations and arguments, what attacks and defenses, what appeals to reason, honor, or passion, the orator has sought to carry his cause, and the quickened interest in the subject will soon overcome all the linguistic difficulties. I remember that, so stimulated, I usually exceeded in my translations the task set to me for the next recitation, and, besides, by this zealous reading a sense was created for what I may call the music of the language, which later greatly helped me in the idiomatic construction of my Latin Compositions.

My passing from the gymnasium to the university brings me back to the question already mentioned, whether the classical curriculum at the German gymnasium, as well as at corresponding institutions in other countries, has not become antiquated and unpractical. Is it wise to devote so large a part of the time and of the learning-strength of boys to the study of the Latin and the Greek languages and the classical literatures? Would it not be of greater advantage to a young generation to put in place of the Latin and the Greek the study of modern languages and literatures, the knowledge of which would be much more useful in the practical business of life? This question is certainly entitled to serious consideration. Latin is no longer what it was in most of the countries of the so-called civilized world down to the beginning of the eighteenth century, and, in some of them, even to a much more recent period, the language of diplomacy, of jurisprudence, of philosophy, and of all science. Not even the ability to quote Horace in conversation is any longer required to give one the stamp of an educated man. The literatures of classical antiquity are no longer the only ones in which great creations of poetry in perfect beauty of form are found, or models of historical writing, or of oratorical eloquence, or of philosophical reasoning. Of all these things modern literatures contain rich treasures, and there is also an abundance of excellent translations to make the masterpieces of antiquity accessible to those who do not understand the classical tongues.

And yet, when I now in my old days, and after multifarious experiences of life, ask myself which part of the instruction I received in my youth I would miss with the most regret, my answer would not be doubtful for a single moment. Indeed, I have, I am sorry to say, lost much of the Latin and Greek that I knew when I was at the gymnasium. But the aesthetic and moral impulses that such studies gave me, the ideal standards they helped me in erecting, the mental horizons they opened to me, I have never lost. Those studies are not a mere means for the acquisition of knowledge, but, in the best sense of the word, an element of culture. And thus they have remained to me during my whole life an inexhaustible source of elevating enjoyment and inspiration.

If once more I had to choose between the classical studies and the so-called useful ones in their place, I would, for myself at least, undoubtedly on the whole elect the same curriculum that I have gone through. I would do this the more readily as in all probability I should never have been able to begin or resume the classical studies had I not enjoyed them in my youth, and as the knowledge of the ancient languages has been of inestimable value to me in acquiring the modern ones in later life. He who understands Latin will not only learn French, and English, and Spanish, and Italian, and Portuguese much more easily, but also much better. I can say of myself that I have in fact studied only the Latin grammar quite thoroughly, but that this knowledge has divested my grammatical studies in modern Latin and Germanic languages of all wearisome difficulty. Therefore, while I recognize the title of the utility argument, now so much in vogue, to our serious consideration, I cannot but confess that I personally owe to the old classical courses very much that was good and beautiful, and that I would not forego.

NOTES FROM ROME

More than thirty years ago there was discovered at Anzio on the coast of Latium a fine Greek statue, which, though seen by comparatively few persons, soon became widely known through photographs and under various names, such as The Priestess, The Poetess, or, more vaguely, the Maiden of Anzio. About three years ago, when its purchase by the Italian government was announced, every lover of ancient art was glad, foreseeing its early removal from Anzio to a place more accessible. Not long ago this beautiful work, so mysterious and hitherto incomprehensible, was set up in The National Museum in Rome and one of the first results of its exhibition in a better light is the observation that it is not the statue of a female at all but rather of a youth. This is explained in some detail in the following letter recently addressed to the editor of the London Times by Mrs. Arthur Strong, Assistant Director of the British School at Rome.

Since the discovery of the bronze Charioteer of Delphi, no antique work of art has probably caused so great a sensation, or become so immediately popular, as the statue known by the name of the Fanciulla d'Anzio, purchased two years ago by the Italian Government, and publicly exhibited since October last in the Museo delle Terme.

The statue was the property of Prince Ludovico Chigi, in the grounds of whose villa at Anzio it had been found as far back as 1878. The romantic story of its recovery is well known—how on a stormy December night a landslip disclosed a niche in an antique wall, whence the statue slipped down from a brick pedestal. The statue was briefly described in the Italian archaeological reports of the time, but so long as it remained in the seclusion of the Prince's villa it was seen by only a few, who examined it under difficulties in the dim light of an underground apartment. Even so, however, rumours of its great beauty soon began to transpire, and articles by competent authorities aroused artistic curiosity as to a work pronounced an undoubted Greek original. Great was the excitement, therefore, when it became known that the Italian Government had purchased the mysterious masterpiece.

The statue, which is flat-breasted, was, owing to its long drapery, taken as a matter of course for that of a young girl, and diversely interpreted as a poetess or a priestess, while the style of the workmanship was referred unhesitatingly to the fourth century B. C., and by some traced back to Praxiteles himself. The figure carries against its left side a platter or tray upon which rest what appear to be a woollen roll, a few olive twigs, and the claw of a lion. To the interpretations already before the public Professor Comparetti only ten days ago added that of Cassandra—Cassandra as prophetess with the Apolline attributes; an unfortunate theory, for Loewy had justly pointed out that precisely the prophetic element was absent from the conception: "behind this brow are no profound thoughts, these features reveal no strife of the soul, these lips could utter no fateful answer".

All this time, however, theories of interpretation revolved mainly about the attributes on the tray; and it does not seem to have occurred to any one, even since the statue has been well exhibited at the Museo delle Terme, to challenge or so much as to raise the question whether, after all, it represents a female. Yet to any one who has studied Greek form it must be obvious that the chest of the so-called 'fanciulla' is male. These strong muscular forms have nothing in common with the small globular breasts which in Greek art are invariably typical of maidenhood. The outline softened by the firm covering flesh is the same as in later statues of Dionysos or Apollo. The powerful neck and arms could never belong to any female figure, but harmonize with the masculine type of breast. Indeed, we may search the whole range of Greek statuary in vain for a female figure with muscular flat breast. Such a conception was entirely alien from Greek art; and of this we have striking proof even in the soft, peculiarly feminine forms with which Greek sculptors invariably endowed the warlike Amazons. The face also, which has been aptly compared to that of the Praxitelean Satyr, is strikingly boyish; the foot, with its broad tread and strong ankle, is male, and so above all is the loose swinging stride of the whole figure. There is a further masculine touch about the throw of the drapery over the left shoulder.

But whom does this young draped male figure represent? To answer the question satisfactorily would need a long article. I can only briefly indicate here that the interpretation of the statue must probably be sought within the cycle of the *galli* or long-robed priests of Cybele, one of whom, an *archi-gallus*, appears in the well-known relief in the Palazzo dei Conservatori, surrounded by the emblems of his office and holding in his left hand a deep bowl full of fruit, the counterpart of the platter carried by the Anzio figure. The woollen roll on the platter has a priestly, the laurel twigs have a lustral significance; the lion claw is presumably the ornamental foot of an *acerra* or incense box. It may be added that the statue of a *gallus* has before this been mistaken for that of a woman. A statue at Cherchell is a case in point, and I have little doubt that active search in our museums would reveal many similar errors.

In my book on Roman Sculpture I had referred the present statue—which at that time I had seen at Anzio, and, like the rest of the world, taken to be that of a girl—to the period of Nero. This was a mistake, though I am by no means prepared to side with those who push it back into the fourth century B.C. I incline rather to agree with a young Italian *savant*, Dr. Cultrera, who attributes the workmanship to the Graeco-Asiatic schools of about the second century. The likeness of the head to those of the Praxitelean Hermes and of the Satyr is undoubted; but Praxitelean, like Skopasian influences, lingered longer in Asia Minor than elsewhere. The drapery is treated in the rapid pictorial manner of a later period. The head and neck are worked in a separate block, a method observed in the Demeter of Knidos at the British Museum. Whatever its precise period, this newly acquired statue of a young priest adds one more precious example to the splendid group of Hellenic works found on Roman soil that numbers the Ludovisi throne and the grand Niobid of pure fifth century style, now boarded up, alas! within the precincts of the Banca Commerciale, and soon, it is rumoured, to take its departure to either Turin or Milan.

I arrived at my present conclusions regarding the sex of the personage represented in the Anzio statue immediately I had seen it in its present position. At

first these conclusions were met with scepticism, so deep-rooted already was the belief that this strong sturdy youth was a tender undeveloped 'fanciulla'; bu they are gradually gaining recognition. In fact, precisely as I close this letter, I hear that a communication has appeared in an Italian evening paper to the effect that the statue is that of a boy. The fact is so evident to unbiased eyes that it will doubtless occur independently to many people.

Another interesting item of news from Rome is the fact that Commendatore Boni has sent in his resignation as a member of the Commission for the Zona Monumentale. It will be remembered that a plan was formed a few years ago to bring to light and preserve archaeological remains in the southern part of the city between the porta Capena and the porta Appia. Mr. Boni's plan, as he himself described it to me in the summer of 1908, was to excavate a strip of land about three hundred metres wide along the via Appia in the hope of locating some of the important temples and other buildings known to have been in this quarter. Finally, with due regard for the preservation and accessibility of the ancient monuments, the whole was to be converted into a kind of archaeological promenade. Now, however, the original scheme has been practically abandoned and Mr. Boni, thoroughly dissatisfied with the intentions of his colleagues, has declined any further share in the work. He has no sympathy with the mere conversion of the via San Sebastiano into a wide boulevard and begs to be relieved of a charge which means only grief to himself. At the same time he is ready to continue useful work such as that which has been begun on the Arch of Constantine, or the strengthening of the Neronian aqueduct or the replanting of the waste portions of the Zona.

Thus fails another plan, a comprehensive plan, whose completion was promised for 1911, the year of the Congress and of the great celebration. Historic and archaeological interest must yield to the progress of 'modern improvement'. Before long electric cars will traverse a wide boulevard flanked with artificial gardens and the humble tourist will no longer go on foot to the Baths of Caracalla and the porta Appia.

HARRY LANGFORD WILSON.

REVIEWS

Greek Lands and Letters. By F. G. and A. C. E. Allinson. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Co. (1909). $2.50.

The purpose of this very neat and inspiring book of some 450 pages, fusing the much larger element of Greek life and thought upon its topography, is "to interpret Greek lands by literature, and Greek literature by local associations and physical environment". It is meant primarily as a companion for those many travelers in Greece who "must curtail their visit to a few weeks or months", but the authors hope that "to a wider range of readers it may prove suggestive in appraising what is vital in our Hellenic heritage".

After an introductory chapter, in which the authors set forth their impressions of the widespread land of real Hellas, and of real Hellenism, submitting in conclusion a vigorous polemic in support of the contention that the ancient Greek was a true lover of Nature, there follow five chapters on Athens, then nine in which we are taken to the west and north through Attica, Eleusis, Aegina, Megara, Corinth, Delphi, Thebes, Boeotia and Thermopylae. The concluding five chapters are devoted respectively to Argolis, Arcadia, Olympia, Messenia and Sparta. An appendix follows, giving the *loci classici* for the quotations made throughout the book. The maps are good; the one in front might better have been of the peninsula only, since we are not taken out of it, and one of ancient Athens would have been more helpful than the very useful map of Piraeus. The illustrations entitled Renan on the Acropolis, After Polygnotus, The Panathenaea Continued, Delphi and the Road to Arachova, and Taygetus add greatly to the attractiveness of the book.

One who has been in Greece for purposes of study readily recalls the eagerness with which he prepared himself for the pleasure and the profit of his journey by steeping himself with all he could contain that bore on the literature, history and topography of the country. There is not one of us who was careless in this regard that does not remember how much better it would have been for us when we left the train at Epanoliosia, for instance, for a tramp about the ruins of Phyle, had we read more in the Hellenica and been able to be, in that way, with Thrasyboulos on that frosty morning when he surprised the Spartans still grooming their horses; or if on the road from Thebes to Delphi, we could have skirted Haliartus with Xenophon's account of Lysander's unhappy taking-off at this place a little clearer in our memories.

It is just there that this piece of joint authorship of Professor Allinson and his wife finds, probably, its greatest value. They have read their literature widely and spread it generously throughout the entire itinerary through which the book takes us. At no place may we tarry without a feast of information being spread before us for our complete enjoyment of the mise en scène. Philosophy, literature, history, art, legend, all pass before us again or for the first time, according to our wisdom. It is well that the authors have made their index full and enabled us to find again those nuggets of information they have set like so many gems throughout this personally conducted trip. The book is a literary Baedeker, but very much more literary than Baedeker. The passage describing a possible visit

of Socrates to the Acropolis the day before his trial (p. 76) is particularly charming. Professor Allinson is as epigrammatic, as metaphorical, and at times as encyclopaedic in his sentences as his recent edition of Lucian shows he can be.

Sometimes he is betrayed into expressing himself with too little regard as to how his reader will understand him, as (p. 252) "the brilliant pageant of the valley is but lightly subdued by the delicate reserves of the approaching evening", or (p. 433) "its waters (he is speaking of the Eurotas) would haunt the homesick hearts of Helen and the Spartan maidens who shared Iphigeneia's exile among the Taurians", where the antecedent of "who" is too vague. On p. 250 the thought could have been expressed better in the sentence, "The major portion of the country that attracts students of Greek life at its highest is as easy to traverse as Italy"; plainly "its" means Greek life; but, again, it plainly does not. The sentence which follows is also obscure; "it is true that the days which there have long since receded into historical perspective seem in Greece strangely mingled with the present". But one must not find fault where so much needed good has been given; if we were to mention one other fault, which is after all an overdone virtue, it is the encyclopaedic character of some sentences—hopeless confusion to the unwary—like this: "In Athens, the traveler will come upon the small Metropolis church with its ancient Greek calendar of festivals, let in as a frieze above the entrance and metamorphosed into Byzantine sanctity by the inscribing of Christian crosses"; here we have ancient, mediaeval and modern Athens all at once.

In the hands of many a skilful instructor the book will help undergraduates to get a broad sweep of Hellenism; it will be a valuable *vade mecum* to any travel club that stays at home and wants to find its way through the mountains, plains and seas of Greece, and will leave little unsaid for the highly fortunate, the *terque quaterque beati*, who may put foot on the sacred soil to see and hear what every nook and cranny has to reveal and to say.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY. W. E. WATERS.

CORRESPONDENCE

Inasmuch as Professor Bennett (THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.60) seems to question the motives which led me to prepare so detailed a criticism of his First Year Latin, it seems demanded in the interests of truth that I should say that my only motive was a sincere regret that this, his third publication of the kind, should be marred by so many small and, as it seems to me, easily avoidable defects, a regret all the deeper because of my conviction, after ten years' classroom experience with his two previous books, that, on account of their simplicity and their systematic presentation of the grammar, there is yet no other that can quite take the place of them.

There is evident from his citations from my review a fundamental difference of opinion between Professor Bennett and myself upon two important principles of pedagogy: (1) what material should we put before a beginner—shall we put before him anything that can be justified by occurrence or parellelism in Caesar or Cicero, or, with scrupulous care, only that which may be called 'normal' in that it represents the most prevalent usage or departs in the least degree from the preponderating connotation of the words? (2) shall we (even for beginners) treat the sentence or the word as the unit? It is because of the practical importance of these principles that I am infringing upon the indulgence of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY to prolong this discussion.

(1) Professor Bennett cites passages from Caesar or Cicero in defence of his use of the phrases *castella ponere, impetum ferre, custodiam tradere, ipsa loci natura;* also *manu* as ablative of accompaniment (instead of instrumental), *opus est nancisci, salus communis* (instead of *communis salus*,—the negotiations being between two sovereign powers), and *vitae nostrae conservandae sunt.* My objection to the first four is upon the ground that they are figurative and unusual usages and therefore unsuited to a beginners' book. My objection to the last four is that they are incorrect—that they are, in short, Latin words used with the meaning of English words to which those Latin words are not equivalent. Restriction of space in these columns forbids me to consider here more than one phrase from each group. But my criticism can be substantiated equally in regard to all.

Castella ponere occurs in Caesar only once (B. C. 3.58); *castra ponere* 23 times (B. G. and B. C.). *Castellum* distinctly, when it is not a synonym of *arx* (13 times), a place fortified by nature, is a building (30 times). To speak of 'locating a fortress' of course is possible, but it is not easy to the mind of a child. Even Caesar prefers to use *munire, communire, constituere,* or *efficere.* I submit that to write *castella ponere* is to risk—almost to ensure—that the child either will not find in *castellum* the idea of a building or else will put the sense of 'build' into *ponere.* (*Pono* in the sense of 'erect' is used of monuments, etc., which are put in place. But it never means 'build' except by poetical license).

There is no objection to *opus est* with the infinitive, nor to *copiam frumenti nancisci.* But the two may not be joined. *Nanciscor* is always a word of chance, of having the good luck to get something you want, without effort on your own part. 'The next thing we must do is to have the good luck to come upon a supply of grain', with all respect to its author, I claim is a sentence which would make a Roman laugh; and I fear that the jest will too often be lost in the American classroom.

This sentence well exemplifies the inherent danger of Professor Bennett's manner of composing sentences. To put parts of two together, to omit words and to insert or change others, even to remove a phrase from its context, often is grossly to misrepresent them. These sentences can be judged rightly only by approaching them from the point of view of the beginner in Latin, who is unfamiliar with the context, and whose knowledge of the use of words is very limited, *remembering that his imagination will form its own context.* If my language was too strong when I said that such sentences were "created", I submit that their author is equally inaccurate when he says that they are "taken from the great master of Latin prose himself".

To summarize my argument in regard to 'normality' in word usage (disregarding henceforth the inaccuracies), it is this: that tropical uses of a word which is of frequent occurrence in its literal sense should in general be avoided in first year language study, especially if the tropical use is comparatively rare; that, when a metaphor or other trope is used, there should be careful anticipation of the attitude of mind with which it will be approached by a beginner; that in matters of syntax, etc. (such as the phrases *in locis superioribus,* and *finibus excedere,* which Professor Bennett defends), which are determined by convention rather than by logical necessity, a norm representing the prevailing usage should invariably be followed.

(2) It will now be sufficiently evident what is meant by treating the sentence, or at least the word-group, as the unit. Failure to do this is the fault which has led us to discard modern language books of the type which wrote, "This is the green hat of my grandmother's young uncle": individually the words are irreproachable, but as a whole they express something which one does not very often have occasion to say. A certain amount of this, in slightly less acute form, I believe is the inevitable result of Professor Bennett's method of composing sentences.

What may have been the origin of the forms *Carthagini* and *Athenis* is not a question pertinent to first year Latin. As to the former, Professor Bennett himself in his Grammar treats it as a locative—in spite of its origin—as do all the other Latin grammars published in this country in the past generation. As to *Athenis,* the statements in these Latin grammars, Hale-Buck, Allen and Greenough, Harkness, and West, lead one to believe that the majority of teachers in America have preferred to consider that there is as much difference between *Athenis,* 'at Athens', and *Athenis,* 'from Athens', as there is between *Galbae,* 'to Galba', and *Galbae,* 'of Galba'. One is indeed driven to the suspicion that in the arbitrary selection of *Carthagini* as an illustration of the ablative, although forms in *-e* are of more frequent occurrence, Professor Bennett went out of his way to display a theory in an inopportune place.

I plead guilty of one unintentional misstatement. The historical present *is* explained: it is in a footnote on a reading (continuous prose) exercise in Lesson XXXI, one of those exercises which, as I pointed out, most teachers will find it necessary to omit. I searched long and carefully for the explanation and failed to find it. Furthermore, my criticism of the sentence, *Redde etiam Gallis obsides quos habes,* was an error, due to careless reading of the context (I construed *etiam* with *Gallis*). I still feel that the wisdom of admitting the postpositive use of *etiam* into a beginners' book is questionable. As to *quo* in purpose clauses, the vocabulary definition on the following page, "*quo,* in order that; regularly used with comparatives", does not seem to me to make reparation for this rule of syntax: "The Subjunctive with *ut, ne,* and *quo* is used to express purpose". It was the absence of a qualifying clause in that rule to which I intended to call attention.

There can be no misinterpretation of my statistics upon the vocabulary by anyone who read the footnote on page 38. Whether it is better for pedagogical purposes to measure the value of a word by its occurrence in the limited portions of the authors commonly read in high schools, as Professor Lodge does, or, as Professor Bennett wishes (THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.61), by the occurrence in the entire writings of Caesar and Cicero, is a point upon which, evidently, all teachers are not yet agreed. Another difference in totals apparently is due to the fact that I included in the "vocabulary" of the book some twenty-five or thirty words which are used in the paradigms and illustratory sentences but not in the exercises, whereas Professor Bennett seems to exclude these.

Criticism of any textbook by a teacher is necessarily in large part subjective—especially of a first year Latin book. With a full consciousness of this human frailty I have presented these thoughts of mine, as such, for the consideration of those whom they may concern; and I trust that Professor Bennett will be able to accept them in the spirit in which they are offered.

BARCLAY W. BRADLEY.
COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Mr. Bradley's Rejoinder is in reply to my article (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.60) written in answer to his review of my First Year Latin. Mr. Bradley interprets my Rejoinder as an imputation of his motives. A re-reading of the article has not enabled me to discover any such imputation, nor did I in writing the Rejoinder either intend to impute motives or even think that the review was prompted by improper considerations. I did intend to question Mr. Bradley's judgment and accuracy, and his Rejoinder printed above constrains me to do this again. In his review Mr. Bradley characterized certain sentences in my book as containing expressions which were un-Caesarian, unusual, or false. In the examples which he cited in corroboration of this statement, he was not specific. I therefore took pains to show that none of the expressions questioned by him were false or un-Caesarian, and that most did not even represent unusual idioms. Mr. Bradley is now specific. He singles out four expressions used in my book, which he definitely arraigns as unusual, but he undertakes to bring proof only in case of one of them, asserting that he could do the same in case of the others. But let us see. One of the four is the expression *impetum ferre.* This occurs eleven times in Caesar (see my Rejoinder of December 4), yet Mr. Bradley calls such a usage rare. I cannot believe that one other reader of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY will share this opinion.

I must forbear to take up in detail a consideration of the three other examples which Mr. Bradley denominates as unusual. We evidently disagree *toto caelo* as to the meaning of terms. But I must advert briefly to the expressions which Mr. Bradley declares to be positively false. Again we have four, of which Mr. Bradley undertakes to bring proof in the case of one alone, viz. *opus est copiam frumenti nancisci.* He says: "*Nanciscor* is always a word of chance, of having the good luck to get something you want. . . . [Mr. Bennett's] sentence would make a Roman laugh". Such assertions as this show the essential dangers of Mr. Bradley's method. Grant his premises, and his conclusions follow. But his premises are largely what the Germans call "aus der Luft gegriffen" (made to order to serve an end). Now it should have been a perfectly easy matter for Mr. Bradley to find out the real force and range of meaning of *nanciscor.* A mere glance at Harpers' Dictionary would have assured him that *nanciscor* does n't always mean to have the good luck to get something you want, unless *nactus est morbum* in Nepos Atticus 21.2 means 'he had the good luck to

catch a disease which he wanted'. Perhaps the Romans laughed at Nepos for this. Perhaps they laughed too when Suetonius in Titus 10 wrote *febrim nanctus*. *Nanciscor* is not even restricted to getting by chance, stumbling upon. Doederlein expressly says s. v. "der *nanciscens* gelangt zum Gegenstande *mit* oder ohne Mühe". That this is true is sufficiently shown by Cicero's usage, e. g. in Cat. 1.25 *nactus es ex perditis atque ab omni non modo fortuna, verum etiam spe derelictis conflatam improborum manum*. Evidently Mr. Bradley interprets this as meaning 'by good luck you have run across a band of ruffians'. Take also Natura Deorum 3.84 *eam potestatem, quam ipse per scelus erat nanctus, filio tradidit;* De Rep. 2.51 *non novam potestatem nactus*. What shall we do with all these? Shall we take them as illustrations of the legitimate use of *nanciscor?* Or shall we with Mr. Bradley take them as humorous extravagances of the writers and as intended to raise a laugh?

Mr. Bradley is again in error when he says that in my Latin Grammar I regard *Carthagini* as a locative. I did fifteen years ago, but in the revised edition published in 1907 I abandoned this view, just as in my lectures on Sounds and Inflexions to graduate students I had abandoned it long before.

But it would be an imposition on the readers of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY to say more. I will only add that I candidly recognize Mr. Bradley's good intentions and that I sincerely appreciate his courtesy and good wishes. CHAS. E. BENNETT.

The Eastern Massachusetts Section of the Classical Association of New England met at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts on Saturday, February 12, with eighty members present in spite of the blizzard. In the absence of the president, Professor Morris H. Morgan, of Harvard University, Professor George H. Chase of Harvard presided and greeted the members with a brief speech of welcome.

After a short but impressive memorial (by Mrs. Caroline Stone Atherton) of Professor Thomas Bond Lindsay, the first president of the organization, who died during the summer, Professor Arthur Fairbanks, the Director of the Museum of Fine Arts, welcomed the teachers to the Museum as the place where classical teachers ought to come. The use of the Museum should not consist in bringing large crowds of pupils and taking them hastily through the galleries. If collections of art are to take hold of the classes, they must take hold of the teacher. Works of art are the concrete form of the ideals of Greek and Roman life. They help counteract the effects of too much book work. The teacher should keep the mind alert and fresh by familiarity with other literatures and other forms of art, as coins, vases, an ode of Horace, etc. Persons who have not the power to do this are in the wrong profession; if they have not time to do it, they are not fulfilling their vocation.

Mr. B. F. Harding, of Milton Academy, read a helpful and interesting paper on The Practical Use of the Reflectoscope in Teaching Classics, showing the great value it may have in illustrating ancient history or the classical authors read. Incidentally it helps in developing in pupils the ability to prepare and deliver 'lantern talks' on various subjects of interest in connection with school work.

In Widening Toward the Past Mr. Dean Putnam Lockwood of Harvard University showed the very great value of life in modern Italy as a help to understanding the spirit of the ancient times and peoples. That is one of the chief benefits of the American School at Rome. Familiarity with the scene of history assists one's appreciation of the facts of history. True sympathy with ancient civilization widens the soul.

Professor John C. Kirtland of Phillips Exeter Academy discussed the Report of the Commission (recently published and explained in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY), of which he was a member, giving in detail the reasons for many of the suggestions, and setting forth the numerous advantages which the plan has for both schools and colleges. The paper led to a number of questions which Professor Kirtland answered in the discussion that followed.

Professor Angie Clara Chapin of Wellesley College read a paper on The Noble Art of Translation, full of good advice and apt quotation. Good translation is important for our own language. There is no excellence without effort, and the great works of antiquity are worth translating well. Precision of language reacts on thought, and translation helps one to be clear. Conscientious attention should be pain to accuracy of details. We must follow closely the author's thought and expression, but not in such a way as to violate the idiom of our own language.

The program closed with a lantern talk on Recent Work on the Erechtheum, by Mr. Lacey D. Caskey of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, recently Secretary of the American School at Athens. He described the work that has been done in the last eight years in reconstructing the temple, and illustrated his talk with an admirable set of slides.

The following officers were chosen for 1910-1911: Prof. M. H. Morgan, president; Clarence W. Gleason, secretary; Prof. Alice Walton of Wellesley, member of executive committee in place of Professor Geo. H. Chase, whose term expires.

After luncheon in the Museum restaurant the members of the Section spent the afternoon in examining the collections of the Museum, which have been rearranged and greatly increased since moving to their new home. CLARENCE W. GLEASON.

It has been called to my attention that an injustice may be done by the form of a certain statement in my review of Professor Potter's Elementary Latin Course in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.13. In Mr. Hurlbut's statistics upon vocabulary, which I there quoted, the expression "Caesar words in Professor Lodge's list of 2000" is used as an abbreviation for "Words selected by Professor Lodge for study in the first and second years and printed in his list in bold-faced type". A more precise account of the "Caesar words" in that book, out of a total vocabulary of 586, would be as follows:

Of Professor Lodge's bold-face words (including 18 numerals not in general vocabulary).... 426
Other words found five or more times in B. G. I-V 13
Other words found at least once in Caesar, about, 95

BARCLAY W. BRADLEY.
COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Dr. Shumway's note on *primus* in Aeneid 1.1 in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.111 is very interesting and attractive, but to one of his readers at least, a former pupil who remembers with pleasure Dr. Shumway's genial personality and accurate scholarship, it is not convincing. Does not *primus* point to Aeneas as the 'first of the Romans'?

Fuimus Troes, fuit Ilium. Aeneas was no longer a Trojan; he was a Roman—of all that long line of

heroes from whom came the Romans, the first that could rightly be called a Roman. His ancestors (let us not go back to Dardanus) never saw Italy; but Aeneas left Troy, he settled in Italy, he became an Italian—or if you will permit the prolepsis (cf. *Lavinia litora*), a Roman. He was the *primus* . . . *genus unde Latinum, Albanique patres, atque altae moenia Romae*. Professor Bennett, I find, has a note to the same effect in his edition of the Aeneid I-VI: "the meaning is not that Aeneas was the first of a series of Trojans who settled in Italy, but merely that he marks the first beginning of the Roman race".

The Aeneid is then the epic story of the *first Roman*.

ROLAND G. KENT.
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

NOTICES

We present here various notices which will prove, we trust, of interest to our readers, regretting that in some instances the notices did not reach us sooner.

It will be remembered that The Latin Leaflet, the predecessor of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY, was established by the New York Latin Club to aid in securing a Scholarship Fund in connection with the Club. In view, then, of the peculiar relation of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY to the New York Latin Club we print nearly complete a notice recently issued in connection with the Scholarship. We may note here that a movement has been started in Wisconsin among many schools and colleges of that state to secure a fund whose income shall be used in awarding an annual prize in Latin through competitive examination.

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1. This Scholarship will be of the value of $250.

2. It will be awarded to that graduate from the High Schools of New York City who shall have passed the best Regents' examination in Caesar, Cicero and Vergil, and been admitted to the Freshman Class of some College or Technical School approved by the Carnegie Foundation.

a. The papers demanded shall be the regular composite papers, or their equivalent, namely: Caesar, Cicero, Vergil, Elementary Latin Prose Composition, Latin Prose Composition, Latin Grammar, at the end of the second, third, and fourth years of the high-school course.

b. These papers may be taken in order or at the same time.

3. Students desiring to compete for this scholarship shall make application for admission to candidacy to the Secretary of the New York Latin Club, through their respective principals, before March first preceding their final examinations.

5. The Scholarship will be paid in two equal instalments, on October first and February first, through the bursar of the College selected.

a. Should the student withdraw from College before February first of the Freshman year, the second instalment shall revert to the fund.

The Department of Classical Philology of Columbia University announces the following courses to be given during the latter part of the year by James S. Reid, Professor of Ancient History in the University of Cambridge, England:

I—Roman Philosophy, with special reference to the De Finibus of Cicero, on Mondays and Thursdays, at 3.10, beginning on March 3.

II—Greek Stoicism, on Fridays, 3-5, beginning on March 4.

For admission to these courses application should be made to Professor N. G. McCrea.

III—Six Lectures on Roman Municipalities, on successive Mondays and Thursdays, at 4.30 p. m., in Earl Hall, as follows:

1—The place of the municipality in ancient civilization, and particularly in that of the Roman Empire. Monday, March 7.

2—The municipalities of ancient Italy, and their historic relations with Rome, down to the date of the unification of Italy. Thursday, March 10.

3—The Roman Colonia as an instrument for the spread of Roman influence and culture. Monday, March 14.

4—The extension of the Roman type of municipality to the provinces, particularly in the West. Thursday, March 17.

5—The Romanization of Africa and the Roman influence on the municipalities of the Hellenic East. Monday, March 21.

6—The civic institutions of the Roman municipalities. Thursday, March 24.

These six lectures are open to the public. It is possible that a seventh lecture may be added to this series for the date of March 28.

In a formal meeting held January 26, the Latin Department of the University of Pennsylvania adopted the system of College entrance requirements in Latin recommended by the Commission on that subject, and prepared a statement of the new scheme of examinations for publication. The new requirements will become effective at the examinations held in June, 1911.

The Faculties of Barnard College and Columbia College adopted these requirements in principle nearly 18 months ago, and in detail again in January, 1910.

The Greek Club of Essex County will begin the reading of the Frogs of Aristophanes on Monday, February 28, at 8 o'clock, in the rooms of the New England Society, Main and Day Streets, Orange, N. J., when the first three hundred lines will be translated. All those who are interested in the reading of Greek will be gladly welcomed at that time.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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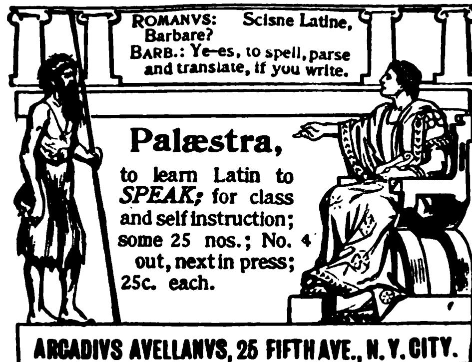

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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At the last meeting of the American Philological Association, held in Baltimore, in December last, Professor Hale, of Chicago, read a paper on the possibility of a uniform system of terminology for all languages studied, ancient and modern. The occasion for the paper was his observation that in the High Schools pupils studying several languages have to learn different terms for identical things and the technical language of one class-room is entirely different from that of the adjoining one.

A movement for uniformity in grammatical terminology was started at the meeting of the English Classical Association, on October 10, 1908, and various scientific bodies in England and in this country have signified their approval of the project. In England it has gone so far that a joint committee representing eight associations of teachers of ancient and modern languages has been formed, consisting of the following members: Professor E. A. Sonnenschein, of Birmingham (Chairman); Dr. Henry Bradley, of Oxford; Mr. Cloudesley Brereton, of London; Miss Haig Brown, of Oxford; Mr. G. H. Clarke, of Acton; Rev. W. C. Compton, of Dover; Miss J. Dingwall, of Clapham; Professor H. G. Fiedler, of Oxford; Rev. Dr. J. W. Gow, of Westminster; Miss E. M. Hastings, of London; Mr. P. Shaw Jeffrey, of Colchester; Mr. E. L. Milner-Barry, of Berkhamsted; Mr. W. E. P. Pantin, of St. Paul's School; Miss A. S. Paul, of Clapham; Dr. Eleanor Purdie, of Cheltenham; Professor Rippmann, of London; Dr. Rouse, of Cambridge; Dr. W. G. Rushbrooke, of St. Olave's; Dr. F. Spencer, of London; Mr. F. E. Thompson, of London, and Professor R. S. Conway, of Manchester (Secretary).

This committee recently presented an Interim Report, which is printed in the December number of Modern Language Teaching. This report presents twenty-five recommendations. The substance of them is as follows: Teachers of the different languages shall agree to use the following terms for identical phenomena: *Subject, Predicate, Predicative,* as applied to the adjective, noun, or pronoun, whether they are in combination with the verb, or with the subject, or any other part of the sentence; *Attributive,* adjective or noun; *Object; Adverbial Qualification,* to denote the adverbial part of the predicate, including indirect object, which is to be abolished. Sentences are to be divided into Simple and Complex. The Complex may be either Double, Treble, or Multiple. In this way the Compound Sentence is avoided. The part of the sentence equivalent to noun, adjective or adverb is to be called *Noun, Adjective,* or *Adverb Clause.* The independent part of a Complex Sentence is to be called the *Main Clause.* If the part of the sentence equivalent to a noun, adjective, or adverb has no subject or predicate of its own, it is called a *Noun, Adjective,* or *Adverb Phrase. Noun* and not 'Substantive' is the part of speech. The parts of speech are *Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, Adverb, Conjunction, Preposition;* thus *Article* and *Numeral* are not parts of speech, but the terms may be used. *Possessive Adjectives* designate all words like 'my', 'thy', etc., but 'mine', 'thine', etc., are *Possessive Pronouns.* 'This' and 'that' are *Demonstrative Adjectives or Pronouns.* Ipse, selbst, même, self, are *Emphasizing Adjectives* or *Pronouns.* English names of cases are discarded, the case-names being in all languages in this order; *Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative,* with the addition for Latin of the *Ablative* and the *Locative.* In French and English the case used after prepositions is to be called the Accusative. In French the terms *Heavy* and *Light* Pronouns are preferable to 'Disjunctive' and 'Emphatic', or 'Conjunctive' and 'Unemphatic'. In English there is no gender recognized except in pronouns of the third person. The names for the tenses vary slightly in the different languages. The scheme for the Indicative follows:

In English we have Present, Future, Past, Future in the past (*would write*), Present Perfect, Future Perfect, Past Perfect, Future Perfect in the past (*would have written*), with special Continuous Forms of each (*is writing,* etc). German has only Present, Future, Past, Perfect, Future Perfect, Past Perfect. In French we have also Past Continuous or Imperfect, Past Historic and second Past Perfect. In Latin and Greek Past Continuous is a variant for Imperfect and in Greek the Aorist is added. In German Preterite Perfect or Plusquamperfekt may be used for Past Perfect and Futurum Exactum for Future Perfect.

It is to be observed that the report touches only the fundamentals of objective nomenclature and very little real interference with time-honored terms is indicated thus far. The real trouble is going to come in the discussion of syntactical phe-

nomena; here the analysis is in many cases subjective, and the name of the term is apt to be much more important in the eyes of its sponsor than any consideration of teaching or learning. Who shall decide whether the Future is to be More Vivid or Less Vivid? Who shall distinguish between Anticipatory and Prospective? Who shall settle the question as to Historical or Temporal Cum? Who shall tell us what 'contingency' means in Syntax? As was remarked at the meeting of the Philological Association, the proposition is probably doomed to failure as soon as it gets past the initial steps indicated in this report, for, however much we desiderate uniformity in terminology, with all due respect to the honorable committee, it has barely begun its labors. G. L.

LATIN IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

II

In my first article (pages 140-142) I tried to show what we actually accomplish, and what I believe we should accomplish, and in what manner.

When our boys reach Caesar, we are no longer as free as we were in the work of the first year. For we are confronted by the definite task of reading the first four books of The Gallic War, and of giving 20 per cent of the time of the year — the equivalent of one period per week — to the translation of fairly simple English sentences, based on the text read, into Latin. To quote Cicero, I shall take up this subject "in Homer's manner, the latter topic first".

As a matter of fact, we depart somewhat radically from the requirements as laid down in the Syllabus for High Schools; we devote considerably more time to the prose work than is prescribed. Of a period of 42 minutes, I personally devote ten every day to it, and my colleagues do no less, some even more. We defend this on the score that our prose work includes the grammatical instruction needed during the year. In the second place, we differ, I think, from most schools in that our translation work during this year is largely oral. The book which we use contains twenty sentences in each exercise. After the rules of grammar, which head each lesson, have been gone over, and learned — stress is laid in this on the memorizing of an example for each rule—four to five sentences are assigned for each day. These may or may not be gone over in class; that depends largely on the time at the teacher's disposal. On the next day, the teacher reads out a sentence, while the students keep their books closed, and then he calls on a boy to translate. The boy is allowed to finish his work as well as he can, and only then the necessary corrections are made by teacher and class in common. After the task is finished, another group of sentences is assigned and the next day both these and the old sentences—these latter often slightly varied—are called for, and so forth. While it seems to demand a great amount of time, this method works very well in practice, and after a while it is possible to go over twelve to eighteen sentences in no more than fifteen minutes. When all the sentences of a lesson have been done, a review is set for the next day, and this is carried on in writing, the teacher giving from three to five sentences. These are new in so far as they do not occur in the lesson, but are strictly limited in vocabulary and rules to the exercise to be reviewed. In this practice the guiding principle, to quote one of my colleagues, is that one sentence reviewed three times is worth five done but once. The monotony of this exercise is often varied by having the sentences done at the blackboard, with the corrections done as in oral work. The latter method has the advantage that it saves time, because it is possible to do the review translation of the text while boys are working at the board. Its disadvantage lies in the divided attention.

While the prose work, as thus carried on, is fairly satisfactory to ourselves, and works well also in regard to the State Examinations, which our boys on the whole pass very satisfactorily, it has the grave objection that it consumes an inordinate amount of time. It also lays us open to the charge of violating the principle that the work in prose should be based on portions of the text recently read. In this connection, I beg to say, though, that I do not believe in this principle. It is true that the work in prose should be based on the text, but it seems to me sufficient to employ the vocabulary, and occasionally the so-called idioms. To base the exercises in content on the text recently read leads in many instances — and text books — to a form of exercise which comes near to the 'trot', and I know from experience that a bright boy actually does use his prose book in this manner. I do not mean to disparage the value of what the Germans call 'retroversion', but I believe that this method should be used as it is in Germany, very sparingly, and largely as sight work. That our method of working does decidedly not prepare for the Elementary Composition of the College Entrance Examinations is a minor consideration, because I believe that this task should not be attempted by the student before the end of the third year. On the whole we discourage our students even from taking the Caesar examination at the end of the second year, in the conviction that a boy who has done his duty has attained so much more maturity at the end of the third year that this more than outweighs the loss of memory for the prepared text of Caesar.

The task of reading the required text is much less satisfactory. In the first place, the teachers of the third term complain, as I have stated in my first ar-

ticle, that the students are not able to grasp the run of a sentence. This is an indictment all the more serious as our students enter this term with 22 chapters of the first book behind them, or rather with 21, since chapter 14 is usually omitted by us, or rather we are satisfied with translating it to the pupils and having them retranslate it.

The result is that our teachers undertake the duty of teaching their boys how to translate. It seems the consensus of opinion among them that this can best be done by going over each assignment in class before it is undertaken by the student. During this class work an absolutely literal translation is insisted on, e. g. *Caesar dixit se nolle,* 'Caesar said himself to be unwilling'. Having finished a sentence in this way, we call for a statement of the general drift of the sentence, and then for an attempt to put it into intelligible English. The next day the assignment is translated again, and this time good English, though by no means a perfect expression, is expected, together with the grammatical explanations necessary. The grammatical matters involving new topics have likewise been gone over the preceding day. Finally, if there is time, the teacher may give a model translation, and on the third day he insists on a rapid and flawless review. I need not say that questions on forms constantly accompany the work, and that a rather thorough drill, especially on the verb, is thus given. But it all takes time, and that is our pressing trouble. We cannot do more than about ten lines of text in a period, at least not during the first ten weeks, and while it is true that the power of our students grows in a gratifying manner, still we are compelled to hurry toward the end of the term, and still more during the fourth half year, when it becomes imperative to find time for a review of the whole work, a review which fortunately both students and teachers are willing to make largely after school hours.

It ought to be stated also, in justice to our work, that we by no means aim at a complete grammatical interpretation. We have worked out in Committee a Syntax Outline for each term of the work, and we teach no more than is there required (see Appendix). And with it all, we are far from feeling satisfied. Every term, as we read the two hundred odd papers put before us in the State Examinations, we realize how little there is in our boys of real grasp. And while we consider this our most important task, to make the pupil capable of dealing with the form of a Latin writer, we would fain do more. There can be no doubt that the content side of Caesar is sadly neglected by us. Whatever one may think of it, we rest firm in the conviction that the Latin writers are worthy of being read *per se,* for what they say, and we feel ashamed that we cannot achieve this aim. I am sure I am speaking for the majority of my colleagues in saying that we consider Caesar beyond the understanding of the average High School boy at that stage, and that we would welcome the substitution of another author, more akin to the mind and soul of our boys. Some of us, even, believe that it would be better to read an Anthology from several writers rather than four books which begin and end nowhere.

Apart from this point, however — and I am not desirous of bringing down on my head again the indignation which my first utterance to this effect met with at one of the Classical Conferences — we feel that we have a real grievance in the amount of indirect discourse which we are compelled to do during the Caesar year. It is difficult for the average student to understand the laws of reporting even in his English, with its comparatively simple change of tense. To master the rules of the Latin language seems beyond the power of all but a few. One of the deplorable results of our enforced insistence on these rules is that in later times our boys *will* persistently explain any and every infinitive they meet as an infinitive in Indirect Discourse. Nor is this all. Caesar so persistently violates the law of the sequence of tenses that it is difficult to convince a student of its validity.

It is rather strange that the vexing question of vocabulary gives us less concern than one would suppose. We have at all times vigorously insisted upon the mastery of a limited number of words, and since the appearance of the Vocabulary of High School Latin we have made this book the basis of our requirements. It is safe to say, I think, that our boys know by the end of the second year about 1,000 words fairly well, and that they have been made to realize the force of word composition. They also have mastered well the principal parts of a large number of verbs, because they must memorize and practice a certain number of these for each recitation, as they occur in the assigned lesson.

In fine, by the end of the year the majority of our students, while far from the ideal, can conscientiously be promoted into Cicero. At this date, as will appear from a perusal of the Appendix, they have a satisfactory grasp on case constructions, and on the simpler dependent clauses. What they lack is, as I have said, the ability to grapple with the 'period', and the appreciation of the content. Whether this would be gained, if we should ever be given a year and a half for the beginners' work, or if the latest proposal of the division of the twelve preparatory years into six and six should be put into effect, is, to my mind, an open question. I am not at all sure that the inherent difficulties in reading Caesar can be overcome by either reform. It is quite true that in Germany boys of from 13 to 15 years are reading the Gallic War. But these boys have behind them three years of elementary work of at least eight hours a week, and, if the recollec-

tions of my own youth still hold good, they have not learned to appreciate Caesar as literature any more than our students. More and more do the High Schools number among their student body boys who will never go to College, and who will receive all their Latin training in the school. There *must* be given a course of study which will leave them at its end with some knowledge of Roman life, and this must be gained from other authors than those now read. Perhaps it will ultimately be necessary to abandon the present policy of very large and unwieldy schools, and to establish numerous small schools, divided by their ultimate aim. Or, if financial considerations make this impossible, we may be compelled to return to a modification of the plan formerly existing in the Manhattan schools. Here we used to divide the students into those preparing for the City College, and others, and give them an instruction differing radically in the amount read. The ideal solution, however, seems to be that advocated in the columns of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY, namely an internal reform of our teaching, by laying the emphasis not on quantity, but on quality. It is an unwarranted imputation on the honesty of purpose of the secondary teacher to say that a reduction of quantity will bring about a lowering of the standard of work done. We, for one, stand ready to prove the falsity of this assertion, and to prove that we are worthy of the confidence shown by giving us a greater freedom of judgment in deciding what our pupils shall or shall not read.

ERNST RIESS.

APPENDIX[1]

REQUIRED SYNTAX FOR THIRD TERM LATIN.

(Items taught in The Bellum Helveticum are in CAPITALS; items taught in Barss are underscored).

I. Case Constructions:

A. Before Mid Term:

Nominative: SUBJECT. PREDICATE. APPOSITIVE.
Genitive: POSSESSIVE. QUALITY.
Dative: INDIRECT OBJECT. INTRANSITIVES. COMPOUNDS. POSSESSION. Impersonal Passive.
Accusative: DIRECT OBJECT. PREDICATE. LIMIT OF MOTION. SUBJECT.
Ablative: AGENT. MEANS. CAUSE. ACCOMPANIMENT. MANNER. Attendance.

B. After Mid Term:

Dative: PURPOSE. Reference. Adjectives.
Accusative: EXTENT OF TIME AND SPACE.
Ablative: PLACE. TIME. QUALITY. COMPARISON. DIFFERENCE. DEPONENTS.

II. Mode Constructions:

A. Before Mid Term:

Purpose (*ut, ne,* relative).
Result (*ut, ut non*).
Subordinate Clauses of Original Indicative in Indirect Discourse.
Indirect Questions.

B. After Mid Term:

Cum (descriptive-circumstantial, causal, concessive).
Infinitive as Substantive, Indirect Discourse, Complementary.

REQUIRED SYNTAX FOR FOURTH TERM LATIN.

(Items starred (*) are treated in Barss I.)

I. Case Constructions:

Before Mid Term:

Genitive: Subjective, Objective, Material*, Quality*, Price, Partitive*, with Adjectives*, with Verbs*.
Dative: Separation*, Agent*.
Accusative: Secondary Object, Adverbial Phrases.
Ablative: Separation*, with *opus* and *usus**, Source*, Price, Specification*, Absolute*.

II. Mode Constructions:

A. Before Mid Term:

Review the verb constructions taught during Term III.

B. After Mid Term:

Commands and Prohibitions*.
Hortatory and Jussive Subjunctives*.
Relative Clauses of Cause.
Temporal Clauses.
Verbs of Hindering and Preventing (nothing but this: *quominus*—positive, *quin*—negative).
Gerund and Gerundive*.
Supine in *um**.

[1] This Appendix contains the minimum required by us in Latin syntax for each of the two semesters of the Caesar year, and thus it may not be without interest in comparison with the High School Syntax of Mr. Byrne. We reached our assignment independently, by making our own statistics as to the occurrence of each construction, not only in regard to frequency but also to its place during the course, and the arrangement is chronological within the divisions.

REVIEWS

The Roman Assemblies From Their Origin to the End of the Republic. By George Willis Botsford. New York. The Macmillan Co. (1909). Pp. x+521. $4.00.

In Part I of this book, covering the first 118 pages, Professor Botsford discusses the social and political organization of the *populus,* the tribes, the centuries and the classes, and appends, rather on the score of convenience than on logical grounds, a chapter on the auspices. Part II contains a description of the several assemblies, followed (pp. 262-477) by a history of them and of comitial legislation, and by a chapter on the preservation of statutes, comitial procedure, and comitial days. The work is intended, the author tells us, as a book

of study and reference, and this end it serves admirably. The completeness with which the subject is treated, the full index, and the exhaustive bibliography at the end of the book, supplemented by special lists of books for each chapter, with references to the pertinent pages, make it easy to examine any point of interest connected with the assemblies.

In various learned publications Professor Botsford has in past years made important contributions in special fields of the general topic covered here, and in his History of Rome his views on certain fundamental matters have been stated, but in this book he has an opportunity for the first time to present a complete study of the whole subject, so far as the popular assemblies are concerned, fortified by the evidence, and many who are familiar with his views on certain controverted points in this field of investigation will turn first to the chapters in this book in which these topics are discussed, to see how his theories fit into a systematic treatment of Roman legislative institutions.

Looking at his work from this point of view the most characteristic features of it are his application of the comparative method of study to the early history, his theory of the *plebs*, his definition of the terms *concilium* and *comitia*, and his theory that there was only one tribal assembly, which in the earlier and later periods contained both plebeians and patricians, and met under the presidency of a tribune or a magistrate. In support of these views, as well as of the other conclusions which he reaches, Professor Botsford has made a thorough examination of the ancient and modern literature pertinent to the subject, and a keen critical analysis of the evidence and arguments which it furnishes.

In this brief review we can do little more than touch upon a few of the points of interest. To begin with the comparative method of study, the bearing of which is admirably stated on pp. 38-39, no one will be inclined to question the propriety of its use, but it plays a very secondary rôle, by the side of the sources, in arriving at the truth for the early period. Thus, for instance, the effective part of Professor Botford's argument in support of his theory that the *plebs* were the mass of common freemen is based upon the ancient writers, upon etymology, and a priori considerations (cf. p. 37). Comparisons between the early Romans and other primitive peoples furnish some interesting parallels, but are of little further service for the purpose in hand.

His analysis of the sources, however, has furnished the author with some very strong arguments in support of all the controverted points mentioned above, and the whole forms a consistent and highly probable body of doctrine. His discussion of the terms *comitia* and *concilium* is especially brilliant and convincing. The uses of these two words in the Republic and under Augustus, he concludes in part (p. 137), "may be explained by two simple facts: (1) that whereas *concilium* is singular, *comitia* is plural; (2) that *concilium* suggests deliberation, discussion." "The term *concilium* is, therefore, the more general term and designates an organized or unorganized assembly, while *comitia* applies only to assemblies organized in voting divisions". So far as the composition and presidency of the tribal assembly or assemblies are concerned, Professor Botsford holds that there was one tribal gathering only, that the patricians, as well as the plebeians, were admitted to it at first, were excluded from it as a result of the struggle from 449 to 339, but later on were again allowed to attend (cf. pp. 465, 300, 302, N. 1). The composition of this body for Cicero's time was the same whether it met under the presidency of the tribune or of a magistrate, but under the former "it was technically the *plebs*", under the latter the *populus*. In defense of these propositions he offers a very convincing array of arguments, the only weak point in the chain of evidence being the assumption (p. 276) that this patricio-plebeian assembly, when summoned by the tribune, was called the *plebs*.

The several Roman political institutions interacted upon one another to such an extent in their development that it is difficult to present a comprehensive treatment of one without a corresponding discussion of the others. This result, however, has been achieved rather more successfully in this book than it was by Willems in his similarly planned work on the Roman senate. But to the necessity of going outside the narrow range of his subject, we owe two of the most interesting and valuable sections of the book, those on the auspices and on the responsibility of magistrates for their political actions. The reviewer does not know of any such adequate treatment of these topics elsewhere.

The presentation in an uninterrupted form of the history of a single group of institutions has given us a clearer historical view of certain things than we have ever had before. To it we owe, for instance, a sketch of the development of modern theories upon many points in Roman constitutional history To it we are indebted for an admirable history of comitial legislation. The chapters in which this last mentioned topic is discussed bring out many important facts and raise some interesting queries. A case in point is the anomalous condition of affairs after 287 B. C., when the popular assemblies, having at last secured independence in legislative matters, failed to exercise it. It would seem at first sight as if the commons were satisfied with having forced the senate to recognize their politi-

cal claims, but did not care for the fruits of victory. In point of fact the practical common sense of the Romans showed them that a small body like the senate made up of trained administrative officers who lived in Rome could settle the urgent and complicated questions raised by the subjugation and pacification of southern Italy, Spain, or Africa more wisely than a meeting of all the citizens could.

Another interesting point which is brought out in one of the chapters on the centuriate comitia is the failure of that body to pass any constitutional measure between 287 B. C. and the time of Sulla (cf. p. 236). Another still is the failure of the Romans to define clearly the field within which each assembly should legislate (p. 239). It is extraordinary that this vagueness in defining functions did not cause trouble when party strife was intense. In such circumstances a question might well have been settled in different ways by the different assemblies. Even if precedent assigned the weighty business to the centuriate and the less important matters to the tribal assembly, would the parties interested in the passage and defeat respectively of a given measure accept readily the classification and the consequent assignment which would imperil their cause? Yet we have no record, so far as I know, of any dispute on this subject, unless the transference of Clodius to a plebeian gens is a case in point.

We should have been glad to have a brief appendix from Professor Botsford on the comitia in the towns outside Rome. These bodies continued to meet after the Roman assemblies had died out, and many inscriptions record the results of their activity. From a study of these inscriptions, and especially from the ready made written charters of Salpensa and Malaca, which are cited in the chapter on comitial procedure, some interesting conclusions might have been drawn with reference to the results of several centuries of practical experience in legislative and electoral matters at Rome. It is only, however, the admirable treatment which Professor Botsford has given to his chosen subject which makes us wish for this addition to his book[1].

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY. FRANK FROST ABBOTT.

[1] Parts of this review appeared in the January number of The American Historical Review; they are printed here through the courtesy of the editors of the Review. C. K.

The Phormio of Terence, Simplified for the use of Schools. By H. R. Fairclough and L J. Richardson. Pp. xiv + 117. Boston: B. H. Sanborn and Co. (1909).

This little book presents a most interesting experiment. The editors state that, for the sake of bringing some colloquial Latin within the reach of high school pupils, they have attempted "to adapt a play of Terence so as to eliminate, so far as possible, all ante-Ciceronian peculiarities. The metrical form of the original is abandoned, and the order of words is slightly changed, so as to prevent the intrusion of verse rhythms. Archaic forms are altered to conform to later usage". On this basis, after a brief notice of Terence and an outline of the plot, the story is retold, with some condensation, in forty-eight pages of the simplified text. The rewriting does not seem very felicitous in some few places (verses 399-400, 426, 559, 790 of the original text); but difficulties that would trouble a young reader are, on the whole, skilfully smoothed away into easier phrasings.

Twenty-eight pages of notes follow the text. These are very brief, with somewhat full and elementary reference to our leading grammars. They are adequate in the main, though now and then they seem too brief or misleading, or are even utterly silent about difficulties (298-299, 559, 595, 801). The note on 119, *Non Si redisset, ei pater veniam daret,* refers with some detail to statements in our grammars about contrary to fact conditions; but we really have here a less vivid future thrown into past time, *without* the implication of being contrary to fact, for we know from the story that Demipho has *not returned yet.*

The vocabulary has a special mark against words not given in Lodge's Vocabulary of High School Latin, and it indicates such words as are found in Caesar or in Cicero, though not in Lodge's list. Under *do,* no mention is made of the meaning 'put', which is needed for verse 625.

It is to be regretted that the editors have numbered the lines of each act of their version separately, instead of adopting one consecutive numbering. Double numbers (e. g. Act V, line 33) are not only needless, but an actual hindrance, and are always a nuisance to any reader or student.

This innovation, then, has in the main been cleverly carried out. The lover of Terence will of course miss the metrical form and the archaic flavor of the real Terence; but it is not for such as he that this book has been written. The real Terence is obviously beyond the capabilities of high school pupils; in these days, when so many teachers are voicing their dissatisfaction with the narrow range of High School Latin, and are urging an increased attention to other authors and to reading at sight, the appearance of a book like this seems very opportune. It is to be hoped that it may indeed "meet a real need".

OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY. ARTHUR W. HODGMAN.

THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF PITTSBURGH AND VICINITY

Saturday, February 26th, was a bright day in the history of The Classical Association of Pittsburg and Vicinity, not because the meeting was

held so far from the smoke of Pittsburgh, but because it was in the genial atmosphere of Washington and Jefferson College and because we had Dr. Knapp with us.

At 11 A. M. Dr. James Moffat, LL.D., President of Washington and Jefferson College, extended a cordial welcome to the Association and its friends. Mr. Hench, President of the Association, responded to this address. A letter of fraternal greetings was read from Professor Andrew F. West, of Princeton University.

Plato's Educational Ideals, as Given in the Republic, was discussed by Dr George B Hussey, of East Liberty Academy, Pittsburgh.

A report on the Classics in the Pittsburgh District was given by the secretary.

Current Topics were presented by Professor B. L. Ullman, of the University of Pittsburgh.

A Round Table Discussion of the Uniform College Entrance Requirements was conducted by Professor Hamilton Ford Allen, of Washington and Jefferson College. Dr. Knapp entered heartily into this discussion. Both speakers took a sane stand for a working knowledge of the language rather than a quantity test.

At high noon the Association adjourned to enjoy a most substantial luncheon generously provided by the faculty of the Washington and Jefferson College.

In the afternoon session it was our pleasure, Horace in hand, to consider with Dr. Knapp Some Phases of Roman Business Life, especially as Seen in Horace.

The committee on resolutions reported the following: "The Classical Association of Pittsburgh and Vicinity desires to express its appreciation of the courtesy of the faculty of Washington and Jefferson College for their gracious entertainment, and to Professor Charles Knapp of Barnard College, New York, for his entertaining and instructive address". This report was adopted with a hearty vote of thanks to our benefactors.

The Association adjourned to meet March 26, in the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburgh.

At this meeting the Association received six new members. N. ANNA PETTY, Secretary-Treasurer.

Carnegie, Pa.

THE NEW YORK LATIN CLUB

An attendance of one hundred and three greeted the speakers at the informal meeting of the New York Latin Club, held at Teachers' College, Saturday, March 5.

Dr Arcadius Avellanus, the guest of the club, told of what he had done to further the use of Latin as a spoken language. His enthusiasm for the use of the Roman speech as a living medium is unbounded, and he believes that life without the culture which association with the languages of Greece and Rome can give is little more than a dead thing: all the other studies are in pursuit of a livelihood—a trade. Through his efforts the use of Latin as the medium in Latin classes has been introduced in the public schools of Italy, and his views have been spread through his publication, Praeco Latinus, to all parts of the civilized world. Dr. Avellanus closed his address by reading several passages of Latin verse in the rhythmical cadence which he believes is the only correct way of reading Latin poetry aloud.

Professor Lodge, President of the Club, took up a number of the previous speaker's points and emphasized their value to all teachers of the language. With the new college entrance requirements, already adopted by Yale, Columbia, and Pennsylvania, and probably soon to be accepted by other colleges, the need of a live method of teaching Latin will be greatly increased. Oral teaching will be more important, and a working vocabulary for every-day life may easily be drawn from the Latin writers, with use, for modern inventions, of the Italian terminology. Books for such purposes are already in existence, and others will soon appear. The reluctance of teachers to speak Latin is due to lack of practice only: they know enough: the great need will be clearness of enunciation, in a language where so much depends upon the endings. Meantime that other most important movement for Latin teaching—the movement for a definite and restricted vocabulary in the schools, and a limitation of the syntax taught in the first year—is making rapid headway.

At the close of the meeting Dr Avellanus told of his experience in teaching a boy of seven and another of ten, so that they spoke Latin easily: the elder of these boys took a passage from Livy, selected for him by a stranger as most difficult, and on hearing it read aloud once by Dr Avellanus gave immediately an accurate paraphrase in Latin. The speaker concluded by showing his hearers how easy it is to say in Latin, "Here, waiter, bring me a plate of strawberries with cream and sugar".

EDWARD C. CHICKERING, Censor.

Attention is called here again to the fact that the annual meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States will be held on April 22-23 next, at the College of the City of New York, 138th Street and Amsterdam Avenue, New York City. The programme will be distributed widely early in April.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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All persons within the territory of the Association who are interested in the literature, the life and the art of ancient Greece and ancient Rome, whether actually engaged in teaching the Classics or not, are eligible to membership in the Association. Application for membership may be made to the Secretary-Treasurer, Charles Knapp, Barnard College, New York. The annual dues (which cover also the subscription to THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY), are two dollars. Within the territory covered by the Association (New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia) subscription is possible to individuals only through membership. To *institutions* in this territory the subscription price is one dollar per year.

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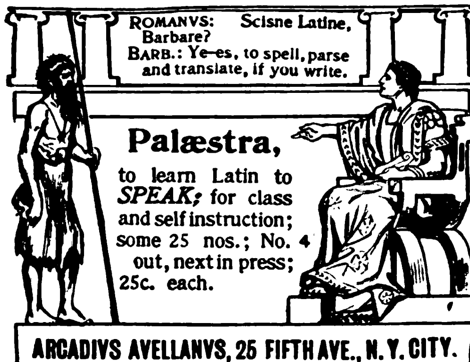

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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Readers of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY, who so often hear the criticism of the work in Prose Composition, may be interested in reading the following piece of writing. The author, a senior in a High School, had been reading a cowboy story in the school paper during study period, and had been told to report the story in Latin. Here is his report, just as he handed it in:

SMITHUS TORTUS CRINEM.

Jacobus Smithus pastor in Bar S pastorali agro fiebat. Peritissimus huius operis mox erat. Proximo mense Smithusque reliqui (*sic*) pastores exierunt ut pecus cogerent. Illis profectis, graviter ningere coepit. Manus desertam domum petivit. Hic Cal dux narravit se a homine (*sic*) Lasalle cognomine fere falsum esse. Ea re audita, Smithus commotus, equo ascenso, caeruleam domum Lasallis per magnam nivem perque severum frigus petivit. Hic postquam diu et acriter pugnatum est, Smithus Lasallem interfecit.

Some notes may be in place: *tortus crinem*= 'curly'; *pastorali agro*='ranch'; *pecus cogere*= 'round up'; *caeruleam domum* = 'the dark green house'. It may perhaps be doubted that the work was done independently. This, however, is the fact, the only help used being an English-Latin dictionary for the word *ningere*.

But aside from the fun to be had from this clever piece of work, it arouses some serious reflections. The wretched results of our instruction in prose work are but too well known, and are at the present time made the subject of an inquiry. I am not now concerned in discussing methods of teaching, but I wish to ask our readers, and the authorities who write text books on composition and examination papers. whether it might not be worth while to try to break away from the usual rehash of phrases and clauses, and give our students some real mental pabulum, which might contribute toward a realization of the fact that the Romans were actually living beings with feelings and desires like our own. I know I am not the only one who has that secret thought. A recent text book on prose composition for College Freshmen makes the attempt, defective as it may be, to infuse life into its exercises. When I was teaching Greek—aurea illa Saturni aetate—I used to assign to my Homer class a chapter in Xenophon for review, and then send the boys to the blackboard, dictating to them a modern story, say about mountain climbing or the like, based on the vocabulary of the chapter studied. While the results, at first, were largely comical, the boys soon took to the idea with great pleasure, and became really quite proficient in thus expressing ideas of their own life in the ancient form. At present, I am engaged in a similar attempt with a seventh term class. After the regular prose lesson has been done, we close books, and I give the boys, orally, a simplified biography of Vergil, which they render into Latin, sentence by sentence. We make up our vocabulary, most frequently, by reference to the works of Caesar and Cicero, which I quote to them and lead them to form their phrases from these. While the boys at first were very timid about coming forward, they have now come to like the idea very much, and I hope to continue the work with them in their last term in a more extended fashion. I do not want to be misunderstood: this is no mere clown's work, an artificial stimulant of interest. Each sentence has been carefully thought out to contain some syntactical principle. I confess that I have been inspired to undertake the work by remembering my own boyhood. Our copy books in penmanship, even, contained information, moral and mental, and among my most treasured recollections from the Gymnasium are those hours in the upper forms, when we struggled with newspaper articles on timely topics, which were assigned to us as prose tests. Of course, the work in this country will have to be much more simple, but I am convinced that it can be done, and will contribute its mite toward kindling a flame of love for the Classics, which now is so sadly smothered under the farrago of inane verbiage. If these lines shall excite a discussion in the columns of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY, I shall be more than pleased, and am quite willing to take a sound drubbing if I can be proven to be in the wrong.

E. R.

HALFLIGHTS IN ANCIENT LITERATURE

HERMAGORAS

We American classicists have not, as yet, done much towards the elucidation of problems connected with ancient rhetoric. Our instructors in declamation and rhetoric are as a rule innocent of Aristotle. Our productive classicists too, in the main, follow the groove of college reading and let Cicero alone. Writers on Ancient Art, too, trained archaeologists though they often be, know not that

the abundant allusions to the parallels of art and literary style were evolved in the rhetorical schools and so are found in Aristotle, Theophrastus, Cicero, Dionysius of Halicarnassus and Quintilian—an academic tradition of the rhetorical schools.

In the history of ancient rhetoric a conspicuous position was gained by Hermagoras of Temnos. I have taken him up for a paper because, in a searching study of Cicero's rhetorical treatises, I have discovered considerable confusion as to Hermagoras's work and time; in fact, I believe that even Otto Jahn and W. Christ (Griech. Literaturgeschichte[2], 750) and the editors of Cicero's Brutus generally, have been led into error by certain mistakes in their interpretation of the extant data of classic tradition. Westermann too, seems to have been confused, as was R. Volkmann. Utterly confused too is the article Hermagoras in Orelli's Onomasticon Tullianum. Compare also the short article by B. in the Old Pauly. Pauly-Wissowa has not yet reached this word. In the Suidas articles *our* Hermagoras is fused with Hermagoras Karion, who taught rhetoric and style in Rome with Caecilius of Cale Akte, friend of Dionysius, in the reign of Augustus, and lived to great age.

Blass, in his noted monograph of 1865, (p. 278), divides the entire history of the development of Greek rhetorical τέχνη into *three* periods or movements, thus: The Pre-Aristotelian, from Gorgias to Isocrates; 2) the Aristotelian, brusquely opposed to the Isocratean School; 3) "The third kind (Gattung) was established in the second century by Hermagoras of Temnos; its characteristic element is the barren subtlety on account of which Spengel has very aptly called it the *scholastic* (kind); it prevailed down to the end of classical antiquity and of Greek literature". The chief point of eminence in the historical place of Hermagoras however, must not be belittled before it is at all understood or perceived afar off. Even in St. Augustine's τέχνη and in Isidorus we still find it as essential and important. In fact it seems that the former, as teacher of rhetoric, in his pre-Christian period, in Africa, Rome and Milan, cited Hermagoras, often using the technical terms in the original Greek; probably before 387.

The contribution of Hermagoras to ancient rhetoric is this: He devised certain categories of *position* (στάσις), to some of which every case of the pleader's experiences may or rather *must* be assigned. The doctrine of *status* then became so obstinately important, because it furnished, as it were, a practical and useful bridge from the theory of the schools to the practice of the courts. It classified the possible points at issue between prosecution and defense (τὸ κρινόμενον) I do not, of course, intend here to rewrite any chapter of Volkmann. There is no reason for doubting that young Cicero in his *torso* (De Inventione) book 2 presents in the main a Latinization of the τέχνη of his Greek rhetor or rhetors (he heard no others).

Just *when* in the Cinna period of Roman annals young Cicero put forward this book, even after Marx on Cornificius (I have no hesitation on the score of the name), will remain somewhat undefinable.

In the introduction to Book II indeed young Cicero somewhat boastfully tries to create the impression that he has had not *one* source, but like Zeuxis (when he painted his Helena for the people of Croton), has brought together his excellences from many books. He had indeed before him or near him Aristotle's Συναγωγὴ τεχνῶν. This seems to explain his somewhat specious phrase of the many τέχναι.

The parallels with Cornificius point to a single source. In fact Quintilian's references (3. 6. 59, etc.) to the youthful work of Cicero are familiar: They are reprinted in all the manuals. But to go on: As for the maturer Cicero, with his outward disdain of mere τέχνη he still returns to *status* again and again, e. g. De Orat. 1. 139-140; 2. 104 ff., 132 ff.; Orator 45, 121; Partitiones 34, 41, 42; Topica 50, 51, 87, 92, 93. Cicero also delineates a theory of *status* for *deliberatio* and *laudatio*. Unfortunately Cicero had not consulted Volkmann.

In his own maturity and power Cicero referred but twice more to Hermagoras by name: 1) in Brutus 263 (when Cicero was sixty years of age); C. Licinius....quaestorius mortuus est; probabilis orator, iam vero etiam *probatus ex* HAC (now present and everywhere prevailing) *inopi ad ornandum, sed* AD INVENIENDUM *expedita Hermagorae disciplina.* Ea dat rationes certas et praecepta dicendi; quae, si minorem habent apparatum (sunt enim exilia) tamen habent ordinem et quasdam errari in dicendo non patientes vias.

The other reference is Brutus 271. Speaking of T. Accius of Pisaurum (his opponent in the Cluentius case) he says: Qui et accurate dicebat et satis copiose eratque praeterea *doctus Hermagorae praeceptis.* He does not say *a Hermagora doctus.* Even as a young man Cicero could acquire this doctrine of *status,* without abstaining from criticism in other respects. The freedom of censure and the rather scanty measure of praise (Cic. Invent. 1. 8) seem to make it more probable that Cicero is referring to one who is dead, whereas his manual, his *ars,* is currently used everywhere.

But in 62 B. C. when Pompey returned from the Mithridatic and other eastern wars, he stopped over at Rhodes: he had been out of the senate and away from the capital full five years, for he had not returned to Rome after the pirate war of 67. At Rhodes then Pompey heard lectures from old

Posidonius on rhetoric. I cite from Plut. Pomp. 42; 'In Rhodes Pompey heard all the scholars and gave each one a present of a talent; but Posidonius even composed or wrote out the lecture which he held before him, having prepared it *in reply to Hermagoras*, about the principles of rhetoric in general'. This πρὸς Ἑρμαγόραν of Plutarch's text has deceived the editors of Cicero's Brutus and many others. One can hold a lecture in reply to, or in rejoinder to or for subversal of the current doctrine or theory of the most eminent representative of a widely prevailing system, without having that authority present in the flesh, or even alive. But this Jahn and the others overlooked and thus created impossibilities. There *was* a theory of *status* everywhere, but it seems the τεχνογράφοι not always accepted the classification of Hermagoras. In Quintil. 3. 6. 31 ff. Some put two, as did Appollodorus (who taught Octavianus); so also Theodorus though with a radically different theory. And then Posidonius himself is named, who had also two large classes of στάσεις.

But this will do to clear the matter.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY. E. G. SIHLER.

LITERATURE VERSUS PHILOLOGY

For some time in public discussion and private conversation a wordy war has been waged between the partisans of Literature on the one side and the partisans of Philology on the other, while those who have not felt called upon to take either side have stood apart and watched the fray, either as spectators interested in the outcome, or as mere lovers of a good fight. As is usual in wars many of the warriors in either camp do not understand what the fight is all about, but having taken sides, they are doing their best to put their antagonists out of business. It is the leaders — and by these we mean those who have written on the subject for publication — who are stirring up all the disturbance. Yet even in their case one cannot help feeling that some of them are as bewildered in respect of the real point at issue as are many of the rank and file.

The leaders on the side of literature say that their opponents, whom they stigmatize as 'narrow philologists' and 'gerund-grinders', do not teach literature in such a way as to ennoble and enrich the minds of their pupils, but give them the dry husks of a dead and deadening study of the dry bones of an inanimate skeleton, while the 'narrow philologist', thus rudely awakened from his intensive study of this 'subject' which we call language, is beginning to fight in self-defense, at the same time casting about in his mind for good and valid arguments by using which as a club he may pound some sense into the heads of his adversaries.

In this, as in every question debatable with arguments or fists, there are two sides, and if we can call a halt in the conflict we may be able to show to all concerned that they really agree in all essentials as well as in most of the details.

Literature — in the dictionaries there are many definitions — is that which is written in the noblest language and gives enlightenment and pleasure in their noblest forms. No one, not even the philologist, will for a moment deny that the study of literature, as thus defined, will be of exceeding value to the student. Yet, in spite of the fact that there are high-school pupils who 'understand Shakespeare perfectly', it is true that literature cannot be understood, or even enjoyed, until the mind of the pupil has been educated by easy, not *too* easy, stages to the point where it can feel the thrill of pleasure which comes from association with the best minds through the medium of the best literature.

Now everyone thinks that he understands his mother-tongue; some are even conceited enough to say that they understand two or more languages, but when a test is made the subject is brought to see that he did not know what it was 'to understand'. Hence the need for English, Course A, and Rhetoric, Course B, as well as for courses in other languages; hence the need for the intensive study of mere words that the student may be sure that from the possible meanings he can choose the one which will fit in any given case. A *brown* hat is something we have all seen, but what does Dante mean when he says, "e l'aer *bruno* toglieva gli animai"? One might make a guess and pass on — to other guesses, but if he does he will not understand the poet. The answer to this might be that the teacher's duty is to make such explanation as is necessary to insure clear understanding on the part of the pupil. 'No', answers the philologist, 'for how does the teacher know that he is right? Does he hand down a continuous, unbroken tradition from the poet? How does the pupil know that the teacher gives the correct interpretation? In your statement lies the crux of the whole question. Tradition deadens, while investigation gives life. Points once seemingly settled must be reinvestigated by every age, lest the very life of thought die and the human mind shrivel'.

If we seek for side-lights to aid us in finding a solution of our question and turn to the natural sciences for help, everywhere we find minute and painstaking pursuit of knowledge. The scientist of to-day is not content with the theories and explanations of the past; the physician of to-day is not the physician of to-morrow, unless he is content to be left behind in the march of progress. Not only does science seek for a knowledge of facts which may at once be made of practical value to many, but it studies matters whose practical value it would be very difficult to demonstrate to any but the initiated. The young student is at first set at performing experiments which have been performed by thousands of

students before him and will be performed by thousands of students after him. This is done that he may be trained in the use and actions of the materials with which he must work and that the results which he obtains may be checked up by the known results which he ought to obtain. Not till the learner has shown familiarity with and accuracy in the use of his materials is he allowed to go on with the study of minor questions, the answer to which is not already known. When he has shown his ability to cope with minor studies, because of accuracy, application, and the power of marshaling causes and effects in proper sequence, the learner is on the high road to the city of truth.

To return now to the point at issue. The teacher of literature and the philologist have much in common and must work by methods fundamentally the same in point of accuracy and minuteness. The philologist (according to the narrowest definition) makes language itself the subject of his study, but he must bring to his work many aids, philosophy, phonetics, history. When, for example, he applies himself to the task of following the vagaries of a Greek particle through its long life of centuries, he has set himself no mean task. It requires powers of the same order as those required by the teacher of literature. Because he deals with substances invisible to the naked eye is the miscroscopist narrower than the astronomer who uses a telescope and studies immense suns millions of miles distant from our earth? The teacher of literature must be at least enough of a philologist to use the apparatus which the philologist has prepared for him, while the philologist must be able to understand the author's thought if he would understand the language used to express that thought.

If the partisan of literature says, "What you say is granted, but you are beside the point. Our quarrel is not that the philologist is not a useful animal, but that philologists are in power and wish to make all students philologists like themselves. And when they have had their way they turn out fledglings who, not having their masters' power, but robe themselves in their masters' cloak and hat, and give to minds still more immature mental food of exceeding indigestibility". To which the philologist retorts, "Yes, but you would give to those same immature minds a sense for literature when they have not the mentality to receive it. Those minds must be trained by the study of language before they can understand literature. There are already too many untrained, illogical teachers by word or pen who foist upon an unthinking world 'studies' and 'appreciations' which are nonsense. Who, who, after all the labor you have expended on them, will read the books on the 'five-foot shelf' rather than the 'six best sellers' of the day?"

But wait, friends! Do you not see that each of you is necessary to the other? and that each must use the other's method, if he wishes to obtain the best results? The whole question is a matter of emphasis, and, as usual, too great attention to one side of the question will obscure the validity of the arguments for the other side. As regards the fact that the newly fledged Ph. D. gives to his immature pupils food which they do not yet need and, therefore, cannot digest, that is merely the fault of youth and inexperience, and will be remedied by the young teacher's growing sense of proportion. Whether he will ever become a great teacher of literature or a great philologist depends on time and temperament. Teach him how to walk and let him do the climbing.

HAMILTON FORD ALLEN.
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE.

REVIEWS

A Handbook of Greek Archaeology. By Harold North Fowler and James Rignall Wheeler, with the collaboration of Gorham Phillips Stevens. New York: American Book Company (1909). Pp. 559. $2.00.

The appearance of this manual, the work of the Editor-in-Chief of the American Journal of Archaeology and the Chairman of the Managing Commitee of the American School at Athens, will be welcomed not only by teachers and students of the Classics, but also by the wider circle of those who are interested in Greece and things Greek. All the older English manuals of Greek archaeology, such as Murray's Handbook and Collignon's Manual in the late Professor Wright's excellent translation, have been rendered hopelessly out of date by the rapid progress that has been made since the time of their publication, and the need of a brief and authoritative statement of the principal results of modern research has long been felt. To say that the new Handbook satisfies this need is to emphasize only one merit of the work. In fullness of treatment and of illustration it marks a distinct advance over its predecessors and the arrangement of the matter is clearer and more logical.

The book begins with an Introduction on the study and progress of classical archaeology in modern times and the first chapter is devoted to Prehistoric Greece. After this the treatment is topical: the remaining chapters discuss Architecture, Sculpture, Terracottas, Metal Work, Coins, Engraved Gems, and Painting and Mosaic. A select bibliography and an index complete the book. The chapter on architecture is the work of Mr. Stevens, revised by Professor Fowler, the chapters on vases and painting are by Professor Wheeler, and the other chapters are by Professor Fowler, but "both authors have read the book fully and accept responsibility for the statements contained in it".

The Introduction is one of the most interesting parts of the whole book. In the brief compass of 27 pages it contains an excellent account of the development of archaeological studies in modern times, with helpful hints as to methods and publications. Such an account, so far as I am aware, is not to be found elsewhere in English, though for the most important period, the nineteenth century, Professor Michaelis's A Century of Archaeological Discoveries is now available in the translation of Miss Kahnweiler (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.158). To the general reader, however, Professor Michaelis's treatment, concise as it is, is likely to seem too full, and even those who are familiar with that account will find much that is helpful in the briefer statement of the Handbook.

In the chapter on Prehistoric Greece, one naturally looks first to see how the results of recent exploration in the Aegean area have been correlated with the earlier discoveries at Mycenae, Tiryns, and elsewhere. It is gratifying to find that all the important recent excavations have been considered and that a very successful attempt has been made to show the relations of different sites to one another and to trace the development of civilization in Greek lands from neolithic times to the downfall of the Mycenaean culture. Such a comprehensive survey ought to be especially welcome to those whose ideas in regard to the prehistoric culture have been confused by the mass of new material discovered in recent years. Especially commendable features of the chapter are the paragraph on nomenclature, in which the confusing terminology used by recent writers is briefly and clearly explained, and the discussion of the Mycenaean vases. In matters of chronology Professor Fowler is conservative, basing his statements on the system of Egyptian datings proposed by Professor Meyer and adopted by Professor Breasted. So far as possible he avoids the discussion of controverted points and he very wisely makes no attempt to consider the difficult ethnological problem, merely recording his opinion that "it is made very probable by the study of the monuments and the Homeric poems that the Achaean heroes of the Trojan War are identical with the rulers whose wealth, power, and culture are attested by the fortifications, golden treasures, and works of art of the Mycenaean Age".

For the chapter on Architecture the authors were fortunate in securing the collaboration of Mr. Stevens, who was Fellow in Architecture at the School in Athens in 1903-1904 and 1904 1905, and of whose interesting discoveries in connection with the Erechtheum his article in the American Journal of Archaeology (1906, pp. 47 ff.) has given us such a tantalizing foretaste. The historical and descriptive parts of this chapter are based largely on Borrmann's Baukunst des Altertums und des Islam im Mittelalter, but Mr. Stevens's firsthand knowledge of the monuments is everywhere apparent. This is particularly true of the earlier pages of the chapter, which are devoted to building materials and methods, and of the discussion of the Attic monuments, especially the Erechtheum. One noteworthy feature is the amount of space which is given to civic and private architecture. From most 'handbook' treatments of Greek architecture one carries away the impression that the Greeks built many temples, some theaters, and a few other buildings. Mr. Stevens gives us brief accounts not only temples and theaters, but of many other types—bouleuteria, porticos, gymnasia, stadia, funeral monuments, altars, and private houses. Even the Pharos at Alexandria is briefly discussed. The result is a much more comprehensive picture of the activities of Greek architects than is usually drawn by writers of elementary books. Moreover, in the discussion of these different classes of buildings several examples of each are commonly given so that the reader gains some impression, at least, of the wide variety that exists in Greek buildings of the same type. The attempt which is made to combine a historical treatment with a treatment by types does not seem to me successful. After the account of building materials and methods, we have, as headings of sections, Archaic Architecture (including an account of the Heraeum at Olympia), the Orders, the Doric Order, the Ionic Order, the Corinthian Order, the Temple (including a discussion of treasuries, round buildings, and propylaea), Civic Architecture, Funeral Monuments and Votive Offerings, the Hellenistic Period—an arrangement that seems likely to confuse rather than to help the beginner.

One other chapter which calls for special mention is Professor Wheeler's account of the Vases. This is the longest chapter in the book (114 pages), and to some may seem disproportionate. But the importance of the subject and the difficulties that beset the study of vases would be a sufficient justification for the long chapter, and the length is very largely due to the numerous foot-notes, which here, very wisely, have been introduced more freely than elsewhere. It might be urged, to be sure, that Walter's elaborate History of Ancient Pottery now provides the student of Greek vases with a thoroughly trustworthy reference book. But few students (and it may be added, comparatively few libraries) are likely to purchase these expensive volumes, and even those who have access to the larger work will often find it more convenient to refer to Professor Wheeler's clear and altogether excellent account. Particularly admirable are the notes made up of references to a series of vases in which a development described in the text can be traced—for instance, the notes on pp. 508-510, with lists of vases with decoration on a white ground. Nowhere is the up-to-dateness of the book more evident than in this chapter; Furtwängler's identification of the 'Kertch' vases as fourth cen-

tury Attic work is adopted as "almost certainly correct" (p. 504), and the recent finds of 'Cyrenaic' pottery at Sparta are noted (p. 468, note), though Professor Wheeler holds that ampler proof is needed before it can be maintained that Laconia was the original home and the chief center of manufacture of the 'Cyrenaic' vases. The greater part of the chapter is naturally devoted to tracing the different styles of vase-painting, but in the earlier pages a brief account of forms and a very good discussion of technical processes are given.

The remaining chapters contain less that calls for special remark. The chapters on Sculpture and Terracottas follow in the main the lines laid down in earlier handbooks, but always with the same consideration of recent finds and recent discussions that characterizes the rest of the book. The chapter on Metal Work is an interesting attempt to group together bronzes, silverware, and jewelry, in which the bronze statuettes receive, perhaps, a more summary treatment than they deserve, and the whole produces the impression of being somewhat superficial because of the small space at the writer's disposal. The chapter on Coins, on the other hand, is remarkably successful; it gives, in the brief compass of 28 pages, an excellent introduction to what is almost a science in itself. The chapter on Gems, as the preface informs us, is little more than a summary of Furtwängler's Antike Gemmen, but it is a very good summary indeed, in which all that is most essential in Furtwängler's monumental work is briefly and clearly set forth. The discussion of Painting and Mosaic has been limited, very wisely, to a few pages, because the extant Greek monuments are so few and unsatisfactory, but the brief description of the secondary sources of information, the notes, and the bibliography give all necessary information for further study of these subjects.

The makeup of the book deserves a word of praise. In spite of its 559 pages, it is printed on a thin paper which reduces the thickness to little more than an inch, a most convenient size. The halftone illustrations, with very few exceptions, are good, and their number shows a praiseworthy liberality on the part of the publishers. In connection with the illustrations several points should be noticed. The practice of recording, ***under the illustration,*** the source from which it is derived is one that will commend itself to all, especially to those who, like the writer, have wasted hours of precious time in trying to 'run down' an illustration. Then, too, the authors have drawn very largely on collections in this country for illustrative material. Of the 412 illustrations, 54 are taken from objects in American collections. The majority of these, naturally, are terracottas, coins, and vases, but the fact that the development of these branches of Greek art can be so largely illustrated by means of objects in American museums will be a surprise to many who have not been in touch with the rapid growth of the collections of classical antiquities in this country in recent years. For the study of some phases of Greek art, such as architecture and sculpture, in the original documents, it will always be necessary to visit classic lands and foreign museums, but for the study of the minor arts the museums of this country, especially the Metropolitan Museum in New York and the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, already possess original material of the greatest value and importance, and in calling attention to this fact the authors of the new handbook have rendered a very definite service to the cause of classical studies in America.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY. GEORGE H. CHASE.

Selected Essays of Seneca and the Satire on the Deification of Claudius. Edited with introduction and notes by Allan P. Ball. New York: The Macmillan Co. (1908). Pp. 211. 60 cents.

A practical edition like Dr. Ball's may aid greatly in an intelligent rehabilitation of Seneca in our college curricula. That the essays and letters have been of late but little read has been due to several causes. Other writers, being better stylists, or more suitable representatives of Latin literature, or proved by experience more serviceable guides for instruction in Roman life and thought, have hitherto elbowed this philosopher into a corner or quite out of the hall. Seneca is not for immature beginners in Latin literature; but on the other hand he should not be ignored by more advanced students, and he can be appreciated by younger minds. Quintilian, although he spoke disdainfully of his style and his apses in taste (10.12 5ff.), frankly admits among his many great merits "a ready and productive mind, very great scholarly devotion and a great fund of information, though in this he was sometimes misled by those to whom he had intrusted the investigation of particular points. He dealt, too, with almost the whole range of scholarly topics . . . . In philosophy . . . . he was a distinguished assailant of moral faults. In his works there are many noble utterances". But Senaca's literary style, from its very remoteness from Ciceronianism, offers useful material for the study of Silver Latinity, and, what is of some practical importance, for the student who is striving to attain proficiency in reading Latin (as distinguished from translating Latin) is almost a revelation. The sentences are short, generally direct and uninvolved, detached, with connecting particles rapidly approaching the vanishing point. Frequent questions, exclamations, and appeals to the reader give the discourse the freedom of an informal lecture. But especially helpful to one who reads without translating is the insistent repetition of an idea in two or more forms with copious use of simile and metaphor. I know of no

better palaestra for limbering up the vocabulary and strengthening the grip on Latin thought through the phrase-group than is to be found in the nervous, rapid, picturesque style of Seneca. The rhetorical artifices do, indeed, tend to pall; but the modernness and intrinsic value of the thought, when this author is read in moderation in careful selections, greatly lessen any feeling of lassitude.

Dr. Bell has provided adequate material for characterizing Seneca the stylist, the philosopher, the man of letters, and the interpreter of his time. The selections include Ad Polybium de Consolatione, the Apocolocyntosis, the two books Ad Neronem de Clementia, and ten of the Epistulae Morales. The general introduction, pp. ix-xxxiv, like the whole book, is modest and unpretentious. After reading it one feels as if he had just shaken hands with Seneca, not made his acquaintance.

As might have been expected from an editor who had already published the Apocolocyntosis as a monograph, the notes on that satire are more numerous, ample, learned and also more sparkling than is the case with the more perfunctorily annotated essays. In several places the editor has improved upon the notes in his monograph (e. g. 6.1 *Marci municipem; 7.1 ubi mures ferrum rodunt*). Though the notes in the monograph have been much condensed there are still two pages of notes to one of text, while the scale for the rest of the book is less than page for page. Without denying its diverting qualities, one might well feel dubious lest the rollicking 'Pumpkinification' of the late lamented Claudius might blur the outlines of Seneca's more serious literary work in the impression left on the student's mind.

As many readers of the Ad Polybium de Consolatione will probably have also read Sulpicius's letter to Cicero on the death of Tullia, and the several consolatary epistles of Pliny, some discussion of the genre would have been welcome (cf. Buresch, Consolationum a Graecis Romanisque scriptarum historia critica, Leipziger Studien 9). Yet in a work of such brevity some omissions are necessary. The notes seem on the whole uneven, affording ample aid for translation rather than deep insight into the writer's thought and style. Some may cavil at an occasional flippancy met with more often in the class-room than in a school edition—*ma chacun à son gout*. Dr. Ball and the editor of the series deserve only thanks for having provided so well printed and convenient a text of Seneca for our younger college students.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY. GEORGE DWIGHT KELLOGG.

CORRESPONDENCE

The delightful article by Dr. Riess in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.138-140 suggests certain more or less pertinent questions. It may be true that "nothing will be well done but what is gladly done and our boys do not love their Latin". Would Dr. Riess be more successful in finding boys who love their mathematics or their science? Few boys display any such interest in the mathematics electives available for them in the upper grades of High School, while the science courses elective in the second and third years are very meagerly attended—a cogent commentary on the confident expectation entertained a few years ago by scientific enthusiasts who predicted the speedy disappearance of the Classics from our schools to make way for physics and chemistry.

Would it not be nearer the truth to say that the average boy does not and cannot be expected to love any task? Smooth ice in winter and a swimming pool in summer look far better to him than a school room. Yet the average boy knows that life cannot be all play and applies himself to his task, perhaps not "gladly" but resignedly. Of course there is a certain type of boy, a little below the average who brings himself into prominence through his noisy protest against his studies. He does not like Latin or any other subject, with whose difficulties he has become acquainted, and he raises such a din in our ears that we forget the uncomplaining majority. Were it possible to secure from the student body of any large classical school an unbiased expression of feeling as to what subject they—perhaps we had better not say love most—dislike least, does Dr. Reiss seriously believe that a majority of pupils would prefer mathematics to Classics?

Few of us will be disposed to quarrel with Dr. Riess on one point. Our first year work is certainly a severe strain on the beginner. Little effort is made to make the first year work interesting, or to find any points of contact between what the pupil has learned in the elementary school and what he is set to learn in the High School. The little the boy knows of geography and history might conceivably be utilized in a proper scheme for first year instruction. Professor Sonnenschein's Ora Maritima and Pro Patria are notable steps in this direction.

There is grave reason to doubt whether pupils could be made to take anything like a lively interest in Roman life at the beginners' stage of mental development. Such a manual as Dr. Riess suggests, modeled on the lines of Gurlitt's Fibel, could be adapted to the American boy only with much more difficulty than that requisite to adapt it to the European lad, whose native atmosphere and country's history present many points of contact with Rome.

In view of the fact that Caesar has in spite of the recommendations of the Committee of Ten been adopted with practical unanimity throughout this country as the second year book, are we wise in opposing the tendency to shape our first year work specifically towards a preparation for Caesar? As we are face to face with "a condition and not a theory", may we not more profitably address ourselves to the problem of making the best of the situation by trying to make a Caesar beginning book reasonably interesting?

That little in that direction has been done in current publications is indisputable. Are we on that account to conclude that nothing can be done? Then there is the problem of vocabulary. If we are to read Caesar in the second year, the vocabulary of the first year must be rather rigidly restricted to those words most frequently occurring in the Commentaries. How such a vocabulary can be made available to the purpose of a reconstructed Gurlitt's Fibel is not clear to my mind.

BOYS HIGH SCHOOL, Brooklyn. W. A. JENNER.

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I have been asked on a number of occasions to indicate material available for colloquial use of Latin in the class-room. Unfortunately there is not at present a very large supply. A book is in preparation in England by Mr. Fred Winter, entitled Handbook of Colloquial Latin with Classified English-Latin Vocabulary, which should have appeared before this and may be expected shortly.

Until that appears, however, the most extensive book is a Guide to Latin Conversation, by Professor Stephen W. Wilby (John Murphy Co., New York and Baltimore), which costs about 75 cents. It contains classified lists on every conceivable topic, and subjects for discussion and dialogues, much in the form of the ordinary traveller's handbook in the modern languages. The advantage of this book is that it furnishes the modern names for a number of things and ideas which one would search for in vain in the ordinary English-Latin lexica.

Sprechen Sie Lateinisch? is a small German publication giving dialogues on colloquial subjects (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 1.132).

A great deal of material can be found in Dr. Avellanus's primer, Palaestra, published by him at 25 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Four numbers have been issued, at 25 cents each.

Outside of these books I am not aware of any material for extended Latin conversation. For mere oral exercise in the class-room most of the recent manuals contain a fair amount of material; I may mention especially A First Latin Course by E. H. Scott and Frank Jones (Blackie and Sons). Grammatical terms and the jargon of grammatical discussion will be found best in such grammars as that by Alvarez, De Institutione Grammatica (Woodstock, Md.), written for practical use in the Catholic schools.

Meanwhile that the good work is still going on is evidenced by the following communication recently received by me, to which I invite the attention of all schools in the territory mentioned. It would be very interesting if the challenge given should be accepted and the debate should come off. I sincerely hope it will.

CHALLENGE

As President of The Manual Training High School Classical Club of Brooklyn, N. Y., a society of boys and girls who endeavor, under the guidance of their teachers, to use Latin as a conversational medium in their meetings, I beg leave to challenge, through the columns of your valuable publication, any High or Preparatory School in the Eastern States to a Latin debate to be held between two teams of three persons each on a topic to be chosen by common agreement. E. Strittmatter, '10.

N. B.—Communications to be addressed to E. Strittmatter, care Miss M. A. Hall, M. T. High School, 4th St. and 7th Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.

G. L.

IMPROVED STANDARDS IN TEACHING LATIN[1]

In a delightful little book, As Others See Us, Graham Brooks points out the lesson the American people have been obliged to learn from painful experience; that national sensitiveness, self-assertiveness, provincial dogmatism, are of no avail to suppress adverse criticism; that criticism of ourselves constitutes the most valuable groundwork of a rational optimism; and that we have grown in the world's esteem as we have become unsparing in the judgment of our own shortcomings. From Mr. Brooks's array of significant facts, our teachers of Latin might well profit. If the results of our Latin teaching are called into question, let us abstain from recrimination and wordy denial, but in a resolute spirit of self-criticism set forth what we are accomplishing in our Latin, what we ought to accomplish, and how improvement in methods is to be effected.

The claim for the retention of a subject in the curriculum because it *has been* effective is worse than futile; its *actual* serviceability, its distinct contribution to the needs of our present-day intellectual endeavor is the issue. Superficially, we might content ourselves with the reflection that its popularity is attested in the High Schools by the numbers that take up the subject; but size of enrollment is attributable to a multitude of causes; it certainly does not indicate or assure permanent appreciation; in an age like ours of utilitarian tendencies, once that the effectiveness of the teaching of Latin is seriously questioned, there may set in suddenly a popular depreciation, culminating in an overthrow of what was once the very cornerstone of all higher education.

[1] Address delivered at the University Convocation, Albany, October 30, 1909, and before the New York Latin Club, November 20, 1909.

It is a timely subject, then, to consider improved standards of teaching Latin; for public criticism has formulated its objections to the spirit and the method of some of our teaching. For one, I do not deplore this critical attitude; it should redound, if duly appreciated and understood, to the benefit of the subject. A study which is bolstered merely by a tradition is in danger of becoming fossilized.

Quite recently the German gymnasia that had cherished for generations special privileges distinguishing their type of secondary school from other parallel types have admitted the baneful influence of these prerogatives; the Berechtigungen, as they are called in German educational literature, had fomented for many years the most bitter discussions, until in 1900 an enlightened public opinion and their own practical insight led the gymnasial party to waive all special legislation in their favor. They welcome the new era; they are prepared to show in *competition* the advantages that accrue from modified prosecution of the Latin work; they have revised the economy of their teaching, have supplemented their unequalled scholarship by a masterful analysis of teaching-method; and have practically demonstrated in their Reform-schulen that even with diminished time allowance, but with skilful correlation of effort, they can achieve as of old the required standards.

Here, it seems to me, we are to find our cue; of little avail will it be to build up a *theory* of what the study of Latin is supposed to effect; improvement in the conduct of the work will be a more convincing argument in its favor than all array of testimony. I shall certainly not attempt to sift or supplement this testimony which is at every teacher's service in the handbooks of Bennett or Dettweiler, in the forcible utterances of men like Lowell, Shorey and Bryce. Improved standards in the teaching of Latin, and the successful establishment of these standards, are the surest means of maintaining the study in its place in the curriculum.

It is surely no ground for the Latin teacher's self-complacency that the teaching of *other* subjects is reputed to be less skilfully conducted than that of Latin; whatever advantage that circumstance may have brought will disappear with the rapid systematization and elaboration of aim in these other subjects; even now the didactic practice of some modern language and science teachers may furnish suggestions of value to our classical teachers.

The improvement in Latin teaching should express itself primarily in unity of aim; the conviction is, I think, growing, that if we except the university stage of scholarly specialization and linguistic research, the entire Latin course from the initial steps through the college course should have one aim, and that a *cultural* one; this aim is to control all our teaching efforts, and the only deviations will be those in method, which must be modified according to the age and maturity of the student.

To two phases, and two only, of the cultural aim I propose to restrict myself: (1) training in linguistic power; and (2) recognition of the vital relation between the content of Roman life and literature and our own literary and practical development. A Latin course that slights either one of these view-points is incomplete, unsatisfactory.

1. The Anglo-Saxon, more than some of the other great races of the Western world, derives, because of the nature and development of his own vernacular, special gain from the training that the Latin affords; the contrast between the structural features of the two tongues, which may be summarized as formal precision versus formless freedom, can be made a valuable adjunct to the expression of logical thought. We recognize with its obvious limitations the possibilities of our own tongue, as we undertake the process of translation, and the establishment and appreciation of constant cross-relations between the two languages enhances the power of expression.

In the period of secondary school life above all, the expansion of linguistic consciousness as a basis of thought becomes a paramount consideration. The significance of language training at this stage may well rest on Dante's simile in his De Vulgari Eloquentia, "Speech is not otherwise an instrument necessary to our conceptions than is the horse to the soldier".

2. But however appropriate for the earlier stages of the Latin work this formal training proves which creates the power of logical discrimination in and through language forms, we must not neglect the ulterior purpose of Latin study, that it is to be the key to the relationship between the past and the present. The contents of the Latin literature, and the records of its civilization, can be made to contribute somewhat of their significance even to the secondary school pupil; for the college stage they must be in the very center of interest. I omit entirely from consideration the plea of the unapproachable standard of perfection that is often urged in favor of the classic tongues and their literary products, not because I do not share it, but because acceptance of this belief should grow out of the student's own experiences rather than be formulated as dogma.

The two phases of this cultural aim, then, the language training and the historical relationship, adjust themselves to a natural sequence, according to which the practice of our schools and colleges should be determined. If the training in linguistic power which is gained from the accurate study of a highly inflective language promotes logical precision in and through language, then our entire energies must be centered at the outset on firmly se-

curing this accuracy; not an approximation to accuracy which leaves the tool of language uncertain and unreliable, but positive, definite grasp. Vagueness in the recognition of this need has robbed the teaching of elementary Latin of its presumptive value. Our pupils hardly succeed in emancipating themselves at any stage completely from the formal linguistic training; grammar and dictionary dominate the reading of our advanced college classes to whom the idiom should long since have become completely familiar, and who in consequence lose the quickening influence and inspiration that is born of a free survey of the literary document, unhampered by mechanical obstacles.

If college teachers of Latin really aspire to make their subject vital in the large sense of bringing into prominence its bearings upon our modern life, then their share in the necessary change can be easily stated; for they are the intellectual progenitors of successive generations of Latin teachers in the schools. It is their privilege to point out in the discussion of the Latin authors resemblance and discrepancy between ancient and modern political situations, to compare modern and ancient cultural tendencies; to illuminate the differing conceptions in home-life, in public activities, in relations of the individual to the state, in methods of administration, the standards of right and wrong, the influence of religion and of personal religiosity, the interests and processes of trade, the relation of the commonwealth to foreigners, the attitude toward slavery; all these considerations disclose the larger vistas which the future teacher will in his turn seek to make real to his pupils. Of this scope that the study of Latin literature obviously suggests our college courses do not take sufficient cognizance, and it is just here that a brief reference to needful improvement in standards of the college work seems called for. It is not the increasing difficulty or linguistic complexity of the several Latin authors that should determine the succession in which they are offered to the student; it would be invaluable for all of our students, and especially for our future teachers of Latin, if the range of connective association, indicated a moment ago, should be developed in a renewed study of comparatively simple authors from this broader, more philosophic aspect.

As matters stand, our teachers, not to speak of our students, derive little but technical insight into the language from the study of Caesar, Cicero and Vergil, and yet there are untold possibilities in the works of each of these authors which remain a sealed book to teacher and pupil. How many of our secondary Latin teachers, for instance, have so intimate an acquaintance with Holmes's Conquest of Gaul that they have realized, what his book reveals, the contribution that Caesar's commentaries furnish to the ethnology of the Gallic peoples, to the tribal institutions of these primitive communities, their occupations, habits and personal appearance, the stage of their political maturity, the interpretation of their names of persons and localities, the significance of their contact with the opposing civilization of Rome?

Will any one deny that from a familiarity with these and many kindred topics there should spring a degree of interest that at present is *not* associated with our teaching of Caesar? What could an advanced student of political issues, of the conduct of public affairs, of legislative requirements, of parliamentary procedure, of the *technique* of the law not disclose to his hearers by correlating the methods of Cicero's oratory with the modern practice of forensic and legal presentation! And as for Vergil, the true revelation of his poetic power, of his consummate literary skill, which represents in a sense the accumulated poetic tradition of his predecessors, of his appreciation for pictorial and dramatic art, of his disclosure of a consistent philosophic system, all these manifestations of the great poet that made him the model and inspiration to a galaxy of great and greater poets of succeeding ages—these matters that have engaged the attention of many of the eminent European scholars of modern days, and other questions that still await elucidation—are scarcely realized by the great body of our secondary teachers and pupils.

We read Shakspere, do we not, with our secondary pupils? But did Francis Child hesitate to interpret Shakspere anew to his advanced students, disclosing the larger human problems, the questions of aesthetics, of structure, to which the boy and girl could not be equal?—I have studied the announcements of Latin courses in all our prominent colleges, and, except where elementary Latin courses are offered to beginners, nowhere have I discovered recognition of this need which seems to me so vital. And even in the Latin programs of our summer sessions, whose constituency is mainly the teacher in active service, eager to supplement the scanty equipment of his own preparatory and college days, I have been able to discover in but one or two cases the frank acceptance of this important principle, the application of scholarly insight to the practical demands of the class room.

From one of these few announcements I quote literally, because it embodies the point I am trying to make: "The aim of the course in Vergil will be to present these two books (1) as they should be known by the teacher, and (2) as they should be taught to a class".

Beyond this, I do not propose to suggest changes in the college teaching of Latin; there is no reason to fear even in our country and age that the necessity and importance of the sciences and their tech-

nological applications will overwhelm and blot out the demand for literary and historical insight; the Humanities still have a host of appreciative adherents, and Latin, properly taught, is not likely to be relegated to obscurity in our colleges.

The college courses of Latin must be freed from the intrusion of the mere mechanism of the language; students who are to seek inspiration from the pages of Horace, Tacitus and Lucretius must come to their task equipped for the larger atmosphere by their previous training.

Can the secondary school bring to the college portals such a type of students? Yes, if schools and teachers are prepared to take a definite stand on one or two general questions of secondary school organization. The fundamental note of the secondary school is opportunity, not compulsion; something highly desirable, but not necessary; we have no right, therefore, to render it ineffective by bringing its privileges down to the level of the unwilling, the incapable. If it is the ulterior aim of such opportunity to develop and foster initiative, intellectual and moral virility, then a process of diluted instruction, the administration of intellectual pabulum as to infants will not accomplish what is to be attained. A weak secondary school, weak in its aims and practice, weak in the qualifications and aspirations of its teachers, is less helpful to a community than a strong primary or grammar school. In the regenerative process that led up to its splendid school system of the nineteenth century, Prussia, as Paulsen points out, forced the abandonment of large numbers of debilitated secondary schools. We shall never make the teaching of any subject in our secondary curriculum valuable, unless we abandon the idea of soft transitions, of sugar-coated invitations to thinking. Vigor (I do not mean rigor) in teaching is a natural stimulus to efficiency, and this it is the prime purpose of the secondary school to generate. Sluggishness, even though it veil itself in the guise of deliberation, is the unpardonable sin of the class room, deadening alike to the individual pupil and the class group. Training to rapidity, to quick recognition, is to-day demanded of every good primary teacher; why should the secondary teacher encourage a relapse? I need only remind you that President Eliot in his essay, Education for Efficiency, lays greatest stress on "imparting the habit of quick and concentrated attention".

We all admit that the Latin language can render its real service only if its formal elements be thoroughly mastered; to that end the first year's work should be entrusted to the teachers of the highest capacity. Instead of the prevalent scheme of assigning the initial work to those who have themselves frequently had no Latin beyond the secondary schools, and poor Latin at that, it should be made compulsory that the teacher of fourth year Latin should also handle a first year class. Such an assignment would be as suggestive and instructive to him as it would be helpful to his pupils.

We cannot forego, that is admitted, the necessity of sharp drill, of insistence on *accuracy* and *rapidity*; we must lay stress on reviews; but didactic ability has discovered various means of making reviews more than a mere reiteration of previous efforts.

If we summarize the needs of our Latin classes in the one terse demand, that we require teachers who *can*, and who will *teach*, then certainly, in the first year's Latin work there should be no room for the mechanical teacher who simply repeats what he has seen others do, possibly at a time when he himself was a pupil. For, in every light, such work is barren. Study the efforts of the past, but *progress* beyond them; that is the first demand in the art and science of teaching.

Of the factors that will add to the value of the first year Latin, there may be enumerated these: with or without the aid of the text-book the teacher should discriminate between forms of common and of rare occurrence, insisting upon the former, and slighting temporarily the latter; grammar, to be effective, should present that which is actually necessary. The vocabulary acquired must be in constant use; it is absurd to introduce words, and then ignore them; without falling into dull and mechanical methods, we may employ a variety of tests in vocabulary; similarity in meaning, or contrast, may form the basis of one system of control, analogy in sound, another.

It is a prevalent error of the elementary books, due, I suppose, to the fancied exigencies of the Latin course, to confuse the beginner in Latin by introducing the fragments of syntactical information before paradigms have become even passably familiar. Nor is it wise to devote *excessive* attention to the matter of quantities; a teacher of sharp auditory powers, himself accurate in his pronunciation, and quick to detect and mend faulty pronunciation, reaches by the unconscious operation of the imitative tendency in his pupils adequate results. It is far more profitable to introduce as soon as possible simple Latin narrative with subject matter drawn from mythology, Roman history, Roman life; and there can be no objection to what is called 'made Latin', if only it be good Latin. If the pupils realized that instead of slavish adherence to a given text-book, the teacher was developing from language material in the pupils' possession subject matter to illustrate principles, and to strengthen previous acquisition of words and forms, if these exercises were carried out at first *orally* with the class, then, in *rapid* work at the blackboard, before any home exercises were imposed, if furthermore, the rule were adopted never to repeat in class blackboard exercises the identical task assigned for

home-work, but to confirm the principle that is under discussion by partial change of vocabulary, we should have substituted a keener interest for the deadly monotony of senseless repetition that is of little benefit to the weak pupil, and irritating to our bright pupils. It is not the difficulty of the subject that depresses our first year pupils, but lack of initiative, of inventiveness, in the instructor.

I contend that the art of teaching can easily secure its greatest triumph in this very field, and make the first year Latin a stirring and delightful exercise; but it rests solely with the teacher, his success depends on his knowledge and his ingenuity. Let him adopt suggestions from other fields of teaching, if they commend themselves by the evidence of their practical value. Why, for instance, have our beginners' books in Latin never applied the 'Anschauungsmetode', the method of furnishing through picture and illustration the material for language expression and thought, a method that has proved of great service in recent modern-language teaching? It would be a simple matter to develop systematically in pictorial forms a number of scenes that would suggest an extensive Latin vocabulary of concrete terms. It would need little more than a series of suggestions from our Latin scholars; of talented draughtsmen to embody them in appropriate illustrations we have no lack.

It is time that our teachers of the Classics abandon the absurd prejudice that still prevails in certain quarters against illustrative material as a legitimate aid to teaching; classes are crippled in their work, if not supplied with appropriate pictures, maps, charts; analogies, as well as differences, become more impressive through the process of visualization.

The preparation of the simple Latin narrative that has just been recommended as a desirable supplement to the study of forms will call for the introduction of much language material that our present primers sedulously avoid; they restrict themselves avowedly to the phraseology of Caesar, the first Latin author into whose work they aim to initiate these first year pupils by the shortest road they know of; the narrowing effect of this limitation is obvious.

And here we touch upon the most serious obstacle to the success of our secondary school Latin work; our present four-year course in Latin arranges a distribution of the work which militates directly against good results; it pretends to accomplish in a first year all the preparatory language work, and to devote the three successive years to the three authors, Caesar, Cicero and Vergil. It does nothing of the kind. With a meager and uncertain attainment in forms, and a still scantier knowledge of syntax, the pupils wrestle throughout the remaining years of the course with the elements of the language that should have been acquired before the first attempt to interpret a literary masterpiece is undertaken; and, in the final tests that are to demonstrate their attainments, they are as deficient in these elementary acquirements as they have remained unfamiliar with the spiritual message of the authors they have been supposed to appreciate.

What our teachers should strive for, what college authorities should encourage, is a *deliberate advance*, in which quality, not quantity, is the end to be sought. Our teachers need the specific suggestion from the colleges that far more time should be devoted to preliminary training, two full years, or the greater part of two years; then let us read *two*, not four, books of Caesar, but read them properly, four orations of Cicero, three books of Vergil, varying from year to year in the choice of the books[1]. It is a simple matter to bind even disjointed selections together by the illuminating summaries that the teacher gives, and to single out passages of special significance from the view-point of content or of artistic quality; then we may hope to see aroused even in our secondary pupils a width of interest of which the subject is susceptible, but which at present is ignored; the teacher will then have time to dwell upon that relation between past and present that constitutes in my eyes the most vital justification of our Latin teaching. He may be interested in tracing the heritage of ancient modes of conduct, thought and expression as they reveal themselves in the literature of some modern language, or in the actual intellectual and institutional life of our day; he may be peculiarly responsive to the interplay of allusion, quotation, precedent; he may be curious to follow from the classical period downward the tentative advances in the domain of natural science, and may emphasize the growth of insight from error to truth. For such we need three things, time, rational teaching conditions, and suitably trained teachers. The Latin teacher does not stand alone in the demand for a more adequate time-allotment; like every other subject of the secondary school course, Latin needs to be relieved from the unwholesome present tendency toward congested acquisition; if the time is rapidly approaching when we shall secure a five or six-year high school course by the condensation of the elementary curriculum (a possibility now generally recognized and considered advisable for bright pupils), then it is all important that the gain in time shall not tempt us to a superficial scurrying over a larger tract, but shall make for genuine, thorough, inspiring work, a reasonable grasp of the structure of the Latin language, and a first glimpse of its literary and historic significance; it ought to diminish the present glaring

[1] This diminution of prescribed reading does not aim to reduce the quantity of Latin that is to be read; it will afford opportunity for a considerable quantity of *class-reading* at sight.

discrepancy between the printed requirements of our colleges and the attainment offered, and enable our students to meet honestly and safely the ***present*** demand! How beneficial to the moral tone of school and college the approach to such an ideal would be every serious teacher realizes.

Among the rational teaching conditions which are a second requirement I should designate first a larger view of the ***economy*** of teaching. Prosecute any method you please, but pursue it definitely through a period of time sufficiently extended to allow its results to appear. Frequent and imperfectly considered changes in system, in text-books, are only partially attributable to the unfortunate frequency of changes in teachers and administrators. No text-book, grammar or reader is so poor but that a competent teacher can utilize its better features, and minimize its shortcomings. Ignorance and corruptness favor constant change. Time economy requires, furthermore, a far more intimate coordination of the work from stage to stage; each teacher should take pride in controlling and recording in detail the knowledge his pupils have acquired, and assume the responsibility for definite advance; in perfecting this collaboration between the teachers of successive grades to a degree that we are entirely unconscious of lies much of the success of the German teachers. The teacher should realize that his is the artist's privilege to modulate, to change the rhythm, of his teaching; no prescription of superintendent or school board ought to be necessary to fix for an intelligent teacher the daily allotment of advance in his subject.

Do we not impair this free initiative of the thoughtful teacher by encouraging examinations through nearly three years of the student's secondary school life? We have in the past ridiculed England as being examination-ridden, but our present system of parcelling out fragments of acquired information, so much material furnished per term to the examination-hopper, is sapping the very foundations of rational teaching. When the same test may be undertaken in a given subject by second, third, or fourth year high school pupils, by the child of fifteen, and the young girl or man of eighteen, how can there be a definite standard of attainment, of exposition in and through language? The readers of entrance papers can tell us whether such a test is very far removed from degenerating into a farce. Strange that our examining authorities complicate rather than simplify the test; a searching inquiry into the most advanced requirements in each subject could compel proper organization of the elementary work in the schools. A Latin paper on Vergil and Cicero could easily be prepared that would test proficiency in simpler Latin, in the fundamentals of the language, the schools to stand or fall by the aggregate of carefully adjusted work. Despite the approval of many secondary teachers whose motives are easily recognized, any ideal view of the function of the high school must repudiate a practice that reduces its teaching to preparation for an examination mill.

But in the last instances our hopes of improvement in the Latin work rest on the knowledge and training of our teachers. To be worth while as a subject of the secondary school, Latin must be taught superlatively well; none should teach it but those who have pursued its study throughout the greater part of their college course; the scholarship we need is not to be of that top-heavy type that has been engaged mainly in the refinements of philological enquiry; it is to embrace the larger perspective that comes to the conscientious student of the Classics from the cultural and historical viewpoint that has been previously advocated for our college courses in Latin. A recent English writer has aptly characterized the type of teacher that the secondary school needs, ***the specialist of high general culture;*** with the emphasis on the second part of the requirement, that is the type our Latin departments in the secondary schools need above all else. The specialization that narrows, that eyes with suspicion any living interest but one, that would separate and differentiate related topics, that would ***denounce,*** for instance, the teaching of Roman history by the Latinist because of possible infringement on the sphere of the historian, such specialization is detrimental to our schools. I thoroughly disbelieve in the doctrine that high-class capacity is only attainable by hiding from one's vision all other intellectual interests; I find that the ***greatest*** university teachers regard the special field they cultivate in its relation to the ***larger*** questions of life, and frequently obtain stimulus from remote and even unrelated fields of thought and activity.

The secondary teacher of Latin, if he aims to make his subject vital by emphasizing the nexus between past and present, will carry out naturally a valuable type of correlation; he correlates best who has acquired in his own growth the mental habit of correlation.

Teaching and teachers—in the union of greater skill with greater knowledge lies the prospect of establishing improved standards in the teaching of Latin.

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In THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.9 reference was made to a paper by Mr. Charles P. Steinmetz, a distinguished electrical engineer, connected with the General Electric Works at Schenectady, New York, and the promise was made that the paper would later

be presented in full. Mr. Steinmetz is a graduate of the University of Breslau. The paper follows:

ON THE VALUE OF THE CLASSICS IN ENGINEERING EDUCATION

The study of the Classics is very important and valuable, and more so in the education of the engineer than in most other professions, for the reason that the vocation of the engineer is especially liable to make the man one-sided. Since he deals exclusively with empirical science and its applications, the engineer forgets, or never realizes, that there are other branches of human thought equally important as factors of a broad general education and intellectual development. An introduction to these other fields is best and most quickly given by the study of the Classics, which open to the student worlds entirely different from our present (the world of Hellas and Art, of Rome and military administration), and so broaden his horizon most effectively, and show him values more in their proper proportion, undistorted by the trend of contemporary thought.

It is true that the Classics are not necessary if the aim is merely to fit the student to ply the trade of engineer, as one might ply the trade of plumber or boiler-maker; the world, and especially the United States, is full of men to whom engineering is but a trade. But such study of engineering can hardly be called receiving an education.

There also is a considerable utilitarian value in the classic languages, since the terminology of science is entirely based on Latin and Greek words and roots. It is difficult to memorize all the terms of science with which an educated man must be familiar, as those of medicine, botany, mineralogy, etc. This however becomes easy to the student of the classic languages, to whom these terms have a meaning.

The modern languages are not in the same class with the classic languages, as they open to the student no new world, no field of thought appreciably different from our own, and I therefore consider them of practically no educational value. Their utilitarian value to the college student is negligible, since, in consequence of the limited time, the absence of practice, and the large number of other more important subjects of study, very few college graduates retain even a rudimentary knowledge of modern languages; and even those few usually retain that knowledge just because they have occasion to practice them, and therefore would probably have learned them in any case outside of college. To the engineer particularly the knowledge of foreign modern languages offers no appreciable help in following the engineering progress of other countries, as practically all that is worth reading is translated into English either in full or in abstract; further, engineering publications written in a foreign language are often closed to the reader, even if he has some knowledge of the language itself, by his lack of knowledge of the technical terminology of the foreign language.

Since the modern languages have no appreciable educational value, they should be dropped from the engineering curriculum of the college, as their retention violates the principle of the modern college curriculum, to restrict, by reason of the limited available time, the instruction to those subjects which the student can not acquire outside of the college by personal independent study, or can acquire thus only under great difficulties. Modern languages do not belong to this class; they are learned just as easily, if not more so, by independent study and conversation.

It may be noted, however, that the methods of teaching the Classics are not the most efficient, and, especially, the classic literature set before the student is not selected so as to offer the greatest educational value in broadening the student's view, and in attracting and retaining his interest as much as possible; the selection of authors to be read rather seems to be the result of survival from previous time.

Thus in Latin the story of war and conquest, of the victory of military organization over mere bravery recorded in Caesar's De Bello Gallico, is interesting and instructive, while the Civil War is of less interest. Even to-day Cicero's De Officiis is well worth reading, while the Orations against Catiline are stupefying to the intellect, since any intelligent boy must ask why did the 'man afraid of his shadow' not have Catiline arrested and executed for high treason. In Latin poetry selections from Ovid's Metamorphoses are very easy reading, and are a valuable introduction to the classic meter, and interesting in the parallelism of the myths of the classic world with those of other races (the flood, etc.). It is hard to understand the retention in the curriculum of the uninteresting plagiarism of the courtier Vergil, while Horace, the poet at once most interesting and of the greatest educational value, is not read at all in most college curricula. Of all Roman writers, Horace probably exerts the most broadening influence on the intellect when read under an intelligent instructor; the change from the distorted importance in which persons and things appear to their contemporaries to the proper proportion in the perspective of history probably is nowhere so sharply demonstrated as in the relation between the *libertino patre natus* and his 'protector' and 'patron' Maecenas, whose name has escaped oblivion merely by his protege's favor. The reading of Horace probably is the best remedy for discouragement resulting from lack of appreciation of one's efforts. Further, the American, in particular, who is generally liable to take himself too seriously,

might benefit from the sentiment of certain of the Odes. In short, almost every poem of Horace is interesting and instructive and conveys a moral to which we may well give ear.

In Greek prose, Xenophon's Anabasis is interesting and instructive in many respects, and may well be followed by the student with maps of the country traversed by the ten thousand. Selections from Lucian possibly are the nearest approach to Horace in their broadening influence. The Greek drama probably is beyond the scope of reading which can be attempted in a general college course, and also appears to me less important now, since in the modern northern drama we have similar tendencies exhibited. The easy dialect of the *koinè* however is within the reach of the student, and at least a part of the New Testament may be read in the original. The greatest work of the literature of Hellas however is Homer; and here again in many American schools the Iliad only is read, possibly from the mistaken notion that it is easier reading, while the far more interesting Odyssey is slighted, though the latter with its tales of travel and adventures with giants and monsters, should especially appeal to the American boy, and is of far greater interest and educational value in its minute description of every day life at the early dawn of human history, and in its pictorial representations of divers occupations.

REVIEWS

A Grammar of the Old Testament in Greek, according to the Septuagint. By Henry St. John Thackeray. Vol. I. Cambridge University Press (G. P. Putnam's Sons: New York): 1909. Pp. xx+325.

There is hardly any subject in which a teacher needs to rewrite his lectures oftener than in the Greek Testament. It is not quite safe to go before one's class without reading the morning paper. Even the least learned of periodicals is not to be lightly passed by; it may contain a photographic facsimile of a newly found piece of papyrus from the Egyptian rubbish heaps of the last century before, or the first century after, the Christian era. Such a document may contain one well-attested instance of the use of a peculiar Greek form by some merchant making out a bill, or may show some school boy, innocent of grammar and spelling, writing a letter home which will upset the learned theories of generations of scholars.

Some years ago we started on our study of Biblical Greek with a considerable list of Hebraisms which we have been gradually cutting off at both ends until precious little is left. We begin to say "so-called Hebraisms" or even "falsely so-called Hebraisms". Speaking of the labors of J. H. Moulton in this field, Thackeray says: "Anything which has ever been termed a Hebraism rouses his suspicion". The term Biblical Greek is scarcely allowed, nor must we speak of the late Greek, the **Κοινή**, as "vulgar" or "corrupt". Some things in classical Greek died, but they died as a seed dies to clear the way for the growth of a germ of new life hidden within.

We must differentiate between the Greek of the Septuagint and that of the New Testament, for the former is in large part a translation, not only literal but servile, from a language of alien type: while the latter is free composition in the colloquial, vernacular Greek of the people. The N. T. writers, like King James's translators, aimed to use a language "understanded of the people".

The Jews of this period were a bilingual people: they used both Aramaic and Greek, with a little sprinkling of Latin in words introduced by Roman domination, e. g. names of coins and military officers. We still speak of a legion and a centurion.

But Greek was the conqueror of its conquerors, as Horace said, and held its own against foreign influences with characteristic vitality, and, above all other languages, has resisted the gnawing tooth of time.

Yet there is no blinking the fact that a great strain was put upon it in the use for which the Biblical writers and translators employed it. A translation-language is apt to be more or less warped in the process. Moreover, the expression of a whole range of new religious ideas foreign to Greek thought, while not affecting forms and syntax, produced a great change in the connotation of common Greek words. A word is more or less of a cup and holds what is put into it. In this sense there is a Biblical Greek. As Swete says in his Introduction to the Septuagint, "The manner of the LXX is not Greek". What idea would Thucydides, or even Aristotle have received from such a sentence as e. g. Mark 1.4 "John, the baptizer, came in the wilderness preaching baptism of repentance for remission of sins"? And yet nearly every word (except *βάπτισμα*) is a classical word in good and regular standing. As one of the old writers said: "It is a Greek body with a Hebrew soul".

These matters, however, are lexical, and the book before us is grammatical.

Thackeray's Grammar of the Septuagint covers a field hitherto almost unoccupied, though Swete's Introduction had given a condensed summary and the introduction to Conybeare and Stock's Selections from the Septuagint contains a clear and well-arranged statement of essentials of grammatical peculiarities.

The study of the Septuagint has come to its own, not only as a help to the study of the N. T., but also as representing an important period in the history of the Greek language in general. As was said by Kennedy in his Sources of New Testament Greek, "Every stage of a language is of paramount

importance for the history of the whole". As J. H. Moulton says in his epoch-making Prolegomena, "What has happened to our own particular study is only the discovery of its unity with the larger science which has been maturing steadily all the time. Biblical Greek was long supposed to be in a backwater; it has now been brought out into the full stream of progess".

The linguistic value of the Septuagint is heightened by the fact that it extends over about three centuries of time and exemplifies both vernacular and literary phases of the *κοινή*. Moreover, it affords a bridge, and sometimes the only bridge, between classical usage and Byzantine and modern Greek. The line of development thus becomes clear and unbroken.

The colloquial tendency at work in Greek as in all languages has been resisted at every step by the conservative literary tendency of writers who make correctness according to classical standards a conscious aim. The struggle is still going on in the schools and newspapers of Athens. So religious conservatism must have influenced the language of the Septuagint.

A scholarly treatment of the grammar of the group of writings comprised in the Greek O. T. has been a desideratum, and the present volume meets a real want. It is confined to Introduction, Orthography and Accidence and leaves us eager for the volume on syntax.

The author recognizes the complex nature of the language of the LXX, as made up largely of the *κοινή* element, but not disregarding the Semitic element. Without entering into minute detail, the book is not only scholarly in material and method, but clear in presentation and arrangement, and in the well-known fine typography of the Cambridge University Press. The Table of Verbs, and indeed the whole treatment of the verb-forms is a model of accuracy and clearness.

WELLESLEY COLLEGE. ANGIE CLARA CHAPIN.

A Short Grammar of the Greek New Testament. By A. T. Robertson. New York: A. C. Armstrong and Son (1909). Pp. xxix+240.

Professor Robertson's N. T. Grammar starts from practically the same point of view as Mr. Thackeray in the book just reviewed; it explains in detail recent researches into the character of the *κοινή* and Hellenistic Greek, and especially emphasizes, as he says, "the main point . . . that the N. T. is written in the vernacular Greek of the time".

The book is planned for those who already know more or less of classical Greek. This is well, for the N. T. is no proper field for a novice.

The author seems to presuppose not only a knowledge of Greek but also of classes of manuscripts as 'Western', 'Neutral', etc., also the symbols of manuscripts, 'Aleph', 'B'.

Part I is Introduction. Part II takes up the study of forms and Part III syntax. There is a systematic effort to trace the history both of forms and syntax by reference to Sanskrit and to various Greek dialects, as well as to modern Greek. Less recognition is given to the LXX than might be expected in a historical treatment.

There is no continuous numbering of sections throughout the book, which would have made reference easier. Burton's Moods and Tenses, for example, shows the advantage of such numbering. The average student is not willing to wade through a solid page or two for the sake of finding the one small point which meets his difficulty.

The Greek is printed with remarkable accuracy, and the same should be said of the references to passages, a large number of which I have verified. As the old saying is: "Trifles make up perfection, but perfection is no trifle". There is evidence on every page of thorough, conscientious study not only of the N. T. itself but of the best books on the subject (witness the Bibliography).

It is sure to be a useful treatise, and will help to put N. T. study on a sound and scholarly basis. Most of the N. T. grammars heretofore published in this country have been either too elementary or too cumbersome, but exception should be made in favor of Professor Burton's book mentioned above, to which all N. T. students and teachers are indebted.

While giving cordial praise to Professor Robertson's work, I hope it may not seem ungracious to point out a few matters of which I have made note. One of the most valuable chapters is that on Principal Parts of some important Verbs. The list does not profess to be complete but might well have included the new presents *γρηγορέω*, *κρύβω*, *λιμπάνω* (rare), *νίπτω*, *ὀπτάνω* (*-ομαι*), *χύννω*. Under *ἥκω* the reference to Mk. 8.3 should come in the next line, after "*ἥκουσιν*", and *ἧκα* would then be unnecessary.

Somewhere mention ought to be made of *ἰδού* already with this accent used as an interjection in Attic (perhaps p. 14. e.).

On p. 26.2 (f) repeats (b), and (g) repeats (e). On page 27 one looks in vain for *πρῶτός μου*, Jo. 1.15. On p. 35, at the close of (a), which speaks of three aorists in *-κα*, add: "and does not restrict their use to the singular number". P. 36, l.7, is probably intended to read "The *ν* class (nasal class) comprises *verbs inflected like* both of the previous classes", i. e. both *ω*-verbs and *μι*-verbs. In connection with 39, l. 10 (see also p. 144, 3rd line from bottom) it should be noted that this combination of *ἔχω* with Aor. participle is not found in the N. T.

In the middle of p. 39 the statement that in the N. T. "*οἶδα* is conjugated regularly in singular and plural of the indicative" is misleading, especially as

it is followed by reference to ἴσασιν in Acts 26:4, which to the mind of the classical student is regular. On p. 40, top, the whole subject of analytic (periphrastic) verb-forms which are so characteristic of N. T. Greek might well have been treated with more fulness. Simcox in his Language of the New Testament has done good service here. The usage in Attic prose is well exhibited in an article in A. J. P. 4. 291, which does away with the fashion of calling these forms 'Aramaic' since in Plato alone there are over two hundred examples. Dr. W. G. Rutherford in Cl. Rev. for 1903 speaks of this as "A neglected Idiom". The participle, by the way, in this construction is attributive and not supplementary as stated on p. 195.7.

Another important matter which seems to be inadequately treated in all the grammars, is the middle voice (it lies outside Burton's province).

A correct and idiomatic use of the middle voice is a delicate test of an author's style and feeling. Simcox well says (op. cit.) "So far as the middle voice shows signs of decay (in the N. T.), it is that it is disused, not used incorrectly". The N. T. writers show a good range of use of the middle, 'indirect' and 'subjective' as well as reflexive ('direct', which last is overlooked by many of the authorities. See e. g. Mk. 14.54 θερμαινόμενος, of Peter warming himself).

For a study of the enormously enlarged function of ἵνα in this later language, we shall still need to refer our students to Burton. The remark in Robertson p. 132 that "Instead of the imperative we sometimes have ἵνα (Eph. 5.33)" and the citation of Mk. 5.23 on p. 154.5, remind me to mention a most illuminating article by A. N. Jannaris in the Expositor, Series V, Vol. IX, p. 296, in which he traces the history of this colloquial form equivalent to the jussive infinitive, down to the modern Greek polite command with νά and the subjunctive. That no ellipsis was felt in this construction, any more than in the similar Attic idiom of ὅπως with the future (see G. M. T. 271) seems the rational explanation.

But enough! Save to say in closing that the chapter on indirect discourse is particularly good, and that I gladly welcome every help toward the intelligent study of the Greek of the Bible.

WELLESLEY COLLEGE. ANGIE CLARA CHAPIN.

Society and Politics in Ancient Rome. By Frank Frost Abbott. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons (1909).

The selection of a title for a book is often a difficult task. This is particularly true when the book is a compilation of papers, the subjects of which may barely admit of the same classification but are brought together conveniently in one volume, having already served as magazine articles at an earlier date. Under these circumstances the title often suggests what is not contained in the book, and, on the other hand, does not indicate the contents with sufficient exactness. Both of these facts are true of the interesting book which we are considering. The title, Society and Politics in Ancient Rome, leads the student to expect an elaborate work on this important subject, and the reader will certainly be disappointed when he discovers the form and character of the book. Of the twelve articles, four deal directly with political questions, six may be classed as referring to Roman society and are the fruit of the author's studies in palaeography and epigraphy. Two of the papers, entitled Literature and the Common People of Rome and Roman Women in the Trades and Professions, are published for the first time.

There are two characteristics which are common to all these papers. The author has endeavored, and with considerable success, to draw a parallel between conditions in ancient Rome and in the society of our own day. This is the most striking feature of his article entitled The Story of Two Oligarchies. It is undoubtedly true that this plan of making clear the customs of earlier days by referring to those of the present day is exceedingly helpful and enlightening. It renders a book attractive to the general reader.

The second characteristic is the popular method of treating subjects which are generally handled in an abstruse and wearisome way. Professor Abbott's style is most attractive, and while he impresses us with his scholarship he does not oppress us with so much learning as to make the book wearisome. The truth of this statement is fully maintained by the character of the reviews of this book which have appeared in magazines devoted to general topics. Such works are of value as arousing in the student an interest in classical literature and in archaeology. For this reason the debt of classical archaeology to such a writer as Lanciani is exceedingly great.

There are several matters which are deserving of correction and to which attention should be called. On page 5 the author has quoted an inscription giving a reference to Henzen—which, by the way, would be clearer as Orelli-Henzen—6977. The form of the inscription is not that found in Orelli-Henzen, but has evidently been taken from the introduction to C. I. L. IV, where the reading of Reinsius is given. On page 214 the author refers to "an official inscription lately found at Aquinum" which is dedicated to the younger Cicero. This inscription is a *falsa*, and is so classified in C. I. L. X *704. It was given in the old collection by Mommsen of Neapolitan Inscriptions but was starred when transferred to Volume X of the Corpus. It has also been quoted by the writer of the article ***nomen*** in

Smith's Dictionary of Classical Antiquities, the editor of which evidently regarded it as valid. On page 206 the numeral of the footnote is misplaced. In the paper entitled The Evolution of the Letters of our Alphabet Professor Abbott applies very skilfully the theory of evolution to the development of letters. This scientific theory can undoubtedly be applied to certain questions of interest in classical archaeology, particularly to the development of letters in the study of palaeography. Unfortunately, however, Professor Abbott is wrong in his reference to the form of the letter Q. He declares that "The form which we find in the earliest Latin inscriptions is a circle, or an oval approaching very closely to a circle, with a tangential affix drawn horizontally to the right from the bottom of the circle". Later on, he declares that "out of a variant developed a form in which the pendant was drawn downward". The form with a downward pendant is in fact the original and is the form found in the earliest Latin inscriptions, as seen in the Duenos inscription in the Forum Inscription, and in the first inscription in Ritschl's P. L. M. E. It is the form of the Greek prototype. It is, therefore, inexact to say that the form with the tangential affix to the right is that found in the earliest Latin inscriptions.

There are a number of other statements which follow in this paper which do not produce full confidence as to their correctness, and although Professor Abbott's theory is undoubtedly sound, yet it can hardly be said that he maintains it successfully in his treatment of the letter Q.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY. JAMES C. EGBERT.

Costume in Roman Comedy. By Catherine Saunders. New York: The Columbia University Press (1909). Pp. 145. $1.25.

This volume appearing in the comely dress of the Columbia University Series of Studies in Classical Philology bears, by editorial preface, the special commendation of Professor Peck's *imprimatur*.

Under the captions of Sources, Terminology, Prologus, Stock-rôles, and Unusual Rôles the author presents in methodical discussion the chief evidence, literary and artistic, for the conventions of Roman comic costume, and has contributed essentially to the interesting subject of Roman scenic antiquities. The literary sources are professedly the plays of Plautus and Terence, Euanthius, Donatus, Pollux and "scattered references mainly from Roman literature", with which has been coordinated the artistic evidence of the illustrated manuscripts of Terence, Pompeian wall-paintings, Campanian reliefs, statuettes and Roman terra-cottas. In the use of the illustrated manuscripts and of the comedians themselves for the purpose in hand, Dr. Saunders has found her chief task and one essentially new, though Van Wageningen's chapter De histrionis vestitu (Scaenica Romana, 1907), of which I find no mention, anticipated, in intent at least, the work upon the miniatures. Since the estimate of the scenic values of these must vary with the opinion of their origin and the age represented by them, critical consideration is given to the theories involved, to which is appended the conclusion from the present study, "that the artist of the archetype was really attempting to represent Greek costumes, such as were worn in *fabulae palliatae*, but that either he did not understand the simplest principles of Greek dress or his illustrations have been copied by persons who were decidedly ignorant of those principles" (p. 13). The discussion of the date of this archetype does not advance beyond the *pros* and *cons* of the question to the expression of a positive opinion. Though it is thought that the "signs of ignorance" present in all of the four principal manuscripts may discredit the theory of a "very early" date for the original, due allowance is made for the supposition of an ancient original which has been blunderingly transmitted. Unless it be shown that these signs are, in given cases, *common* to all the manuscripts concerned, there seems little reason to extend the blame for these faults to an "original artist". On the other hand, by assuming an original *pictor* contemporaneous with the known period of stage presentations, and ignorant *librarii* of the dates of the miniatures themselves, the main characteristics of the pictures can in great measure be satisfactorily explained. While therefore the study does not seem to justify the claim of Professor Peck's prefatory appreciation that "it goes far in itself to disprove the extravagant beliefs once held in their (i. e. the miniature's) antiquity", it has amply demonstrated by scholarly analysis their many inconsistencies and lack of coherent testimony. There is insufficient recognition of the special inferiority of O for the discussion of costume, yet Dr. Saunders has used the pictures, so far as accessible in reliable reproductions, with great skill and insight into the significance of the crude attempts at portraiture. It remains perhaps to be regretted that it has been impossible to follow an altogether comparative method of investigation by which more positive evidence might have been possible for the authority of the supposed scenic tradition.

The discussion of terminology involves consideration of *choregus, ornamenta, choragium, ornatus, ornare, exornare, vestimentum, vestis,* and *vestitus,* and reaches (p. 26) a pitfall in the categorical statement that *"vestimentum* occurs but once in Terence, in Haut. 141". Verse 903 of the same play shows the word, relieved of formulaic strictures.

Errors in type are *Cappodox* for *Cappadox* (p. 63), *pedisegui* for *pedisequi* (p. 123), *Cleareta* for

Cleaereta (p. 61), *Palestrio* for *Palaestrio* (p. 115) and the omission of a colon after *excepto* (p. 76).

The seemingly exhaustive citation of the testimony of Plautus and Terence leaves opportunity to wonder that certain references were omitted, yet the evidence of careful compilation leads to the impression that such were disregarded rather than overlooked. Other pertinent matter might have been cited from the scholia of the minor source, Donatus, and the barrenness of categories relieved by the introduction of more illustrative material from the general literature. The writer has, however, achieved her essential aims with laudable thoroughness and given by dependable method a useful compendium of interesting information.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY. JOHN W. BASORE.

The Trinummus of Plautus. Edited with Introduction and Notes, by H. R. Fairclough. New York: The MacMillan Company. (1909.) Pp. xxxiv+118. 60 cents net.

This is a compact edition with brief notes, on the same plan as the earlier volumes in the series appearing under the direction of Professor J. C. Egbert. The text is in substantial agreement with that of Leo (1896) and that of Lindsay (1903). A few other readings adopted may be mentioned: *face*, 174; *vestipica*, 251; *opperiam*, 391; *satillum*, 492; *hac*, 857.

An introduction of some length deals with the Life and Works of Plautus; Prosody; Meter; and the Plot of the Trinummus. An interesting feature is an analysis of the Canticum, vss. 223-300, based on Leo's Plautinische Cantica und die Hellenistische Lyrik (1897)—the first instance of the sort, as far as I know, in any edition in English.

It is cause for some surprise that the language of Plautus is not discussed in this introduction; its archaisms in forms and syntax, and its wavering and unstable character are not even alluded to here. If it is in harmony with the general plan of brevity in the series to devote fourteen pages to minutiae of prosody and meter, it surely would have been consistent—and an economic use of space as well—to devote at least half that number of pages to an outline sketch of the chief linguistic peculiarities, such as Professor Fairclough has included in his edition of the Andria of Terence (pp. lxxi-lxxxi). As it is, the Notes are continually stating classical equivalents for the archaic forms, with rarely a hint or explanation of the real relation of the two, and with no attempt to group such peculiarities under any broad classifications of phonetic development. This is an omission that most teachers will regret. A brevity that demands the omission of such a sketch should also have excluded the sketch given of meter and prosody.

The Notes are relatively generous, covering about as many pages as the text itself; they show the influence of Brix's edition. There is a considerable repetition of statements on archaic forms, as just remarked. The notes on forms constitute the weakest and most disappointing feature of the whole book. They are frequently so worded as to be not easily understood, or even misleading; sometimes they omit such saving qualifications as 'usually' or 'generally', or are even questionable in point of fact. The following quotations from the Notes will show some of these inadvertences, and some other matters worthy of notice.

37. "*odiossae:* archaic for *odiosae* through an intermediate *odionsus*". *Odionsus* is of course first in the series, not second.

60. "*faxo* (*fac-so*) is really an aorist subjunctive with future force". This is better than the common statement that such forms are future perfect. Another explanation is that such forms *are* futures, out and out; what Sommer says in his Handbuch (pp. 624, 625) approximates closely to this.

86. "The passive infinitive in *-ier* is used by Plautus only at the end of a line." As a matter of fact, it occurs medially in Mil. 1073, Cas. 220, 723 (all anapaestic); and in Men. 1006 and Poen. 742 (both iambic).

108. The comment on the measurement of *eius* is misleading. A very careful statement is that in the revised Lane, 133 (2).

112. "*ipsus=ipse*, the latter being a weakened form". This is little less than astounding. "Die nominale Endung [ips*os*, ips*us*] scheint .... alt zu sein, ohne dass ein Grund für diese Eigentümlichkeit aufzufinden wäre" (Sommer, p. 460). Even clearer is the statement of Lindsay (Lat. Lang., p. 441).

176. The unique syntax of this verse is passed over without mention.

297. This verse is called (p. xxx) an anapaestic dimeter, and the editor, following Leo's note, says that "*uiuito*, a cretic word . . . which is perhaps pronounced as a dissyllable". This seems more than doubtful; cf. Lindsay, Captivi, editio maior, p. 22. This verse is called a cretic tetrameter catalectic in the small Götz-Schöll edition (v. 295 in their numbering).

324. "*autumo* is a lengthened form of *aio*". So says the Harper Lexicon of 1879, to be sure. The attractive etymology of Wharton (*aui-tumo*, cf. ὀϝι o), accepted by Lindsay (Lat. Lang. pp. 180, 235), is rejected by Walde (p. 58); but whether *autumo* comes from *autem* (so Zimmermann, with Walde's approval) or not, to derive it from *aio* is certainly not to be thought of.

436. "*duint* — — used only at the end of a verse". Yet *perduit* (Poen. 740, iambic), *duint* (Pseud. 937, anapaestic), and *perduit* (Men. 451, trochaic) all occur medially.

532. "*fieri* at the end of a verse; otherwise *fierī*". Yet Am. 567 (bacchiac), and Poen. 1056 (iambic senarius) show *fieri* medially. The instance in Poen. 1056 cannot be explained as occurring at a colon end of the type discovered by Jacobsohn (1904).

591. The note is meaningless until we realize that a semi-colon inserted between *impetraui* and *abiret* (top of p. 86) will restore sense by marking off clearly the paratactic stage; but even with correct punctuation the note seems too brief to be understood by the student.

826. "*Contra* is always an adverb in Plautus". Generally, but not always; *contra* is a preposition twice in Persa 13, and a third instance is found in Pseud. 156.

939. "*isti=iuisti*". It seems a pity to resurrect this old error. See Lane, 767.

1126. "*quoi:* a peculiar genitive form (=*quoius*, reduced to *quois, quoi*". This is the suggestion given in Sommer (1902); but Sommer himself calls this explanation "*möglich* — — *vielleicht*" (p. 471). The older explanation (see Lindsay, Lat. Lang., p. 431) still seems to have its value.

1136. "*hoc:* this subject". It seems likely that *hoc commodum* is an adverbial phrase, like *nunc ipsum*, Bacchides 940 and Cic. Att. 10.4.10. Cf. 'the noo'='now'.

The notes contain some interesting and apt citations of parallel passages from Shakspere, Tennyson, and others, that have escaped previous editors.

Ohio State University. ARTHUR W. HODGMAN.

On March 7 Professor J. S. Reid, of Cambridge University, England, gave his first lecture on The Place of the Municipality in Ancient Civilization, and particularly in that of the Roman Empire (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY, 3.151).

The town, said Professor Reid, was the chief constituent of the Roman Empire. The Empire itself had its source in a small town. No development in the history of the human race is so stupendous as this—that a tiny city should bring within its power all the elements of ancient culture, whether Greek or Oriental, and besides all the Western barbarians who had been wholly untouched by Greek or Oriental influences. Roman history is municipal rather than imperial. Ancient historians, as Livy and Tacitus, are pre-eminently interested in town life at Rome; they deal with other matters only in connection with this; Rome the town is constantly in the foreground; glimpses of other parts of the Empire are few and transient.

Through the excavations and inscriptions our knowledge of the Roman Empire has been completely transformed. The mass of information, however, entails some loss—the field is now so vast that there is little hope of a new Gibbon to illuminate the whole.

We tend to look upon the Empire as a collection of provinces, mainly determined by nationalities, but the Romans in the time of Augustus had quite a different view. They regarded it as a collection of municipalities. These conformed to a general type, but there was a distinct line of demarcation between the Hellenized East and the Romanized West, resulting in profound differences of administration, until finally the separation between the Eastern and the Western Empires resulted.

Professor Reid proposes to deal mainly with Italianized towns in Western lands in the Roman period; and in the main with their historical aspects and their influence on the Roman Empire.

The ancients made a sharp distinction between city and village communities. A normal city must have either complete autonomy or a considerable measure of it; it always (at any rate at first) had a ring of fortifications round it; it possessed territory outside this; it had a council, magistrates, citizen assembly; its own gods, and priests to serve them. A city that had lost its autonomy was regarded as dead; Capua, punished for its support of Hannibal, was still the second city of Italy in population and trade, but was looked on as politically dead until restored to civic rights by Julius Caesar.

Local patriotism was a great force, as we see from the inscriptions. The Romans, perhaps the greatest political opportunists the world has ever seen, utilized this force; they followed the line of least resistance in their dealing with the subject races. They tolerated local diversities, and seldom put down even cruel local cults, nor did they ever attempt to stamp out the local language. Before Diocletian there were few general enactments made for the whole Empire; even in law many local peculiarities were allowed to exist; the growth of uniformity was due largely to pressure from below. The great example of this is the refusal of Rome to give citizenship to the Italian allies until compelled to do so in 90 B. C. by the Social War—one of the most momentous struggles in the history of civilization. The victory of the allies decided that Roman law, language, and institutions should spread over the whole West. The unification of Italy was the first step.

Rome is the only city in history that has ever been able to build up a lasting imperial power, and the reason of her success was the leaving of autonomy to the towns.

Barnard College. G. M. HIRST.

In his second lecture Professor Reid began by pointing out that the influence of Rome in the Italian peninsula was spread by the creation of new municipalities. By the time of the Hannibalic War there was a confederation of perhaps 130 or 140 cities, in which Rome was the predominant partner. As Rome's power grew, she gradually amalgamated the cities into her empire, but the conditions imposed were usually very moderate—a great contrast to Greek States. The three main conditions were:

(1) Peace. The smaller states were not allowed to fight among themselves; the Pax Romana was a matter of policy.

(2) Rome represented the subject communities to the outside world, i. e. controlled their foreign policy.

(3) She expected aid from them in war. Apart from this the cities had a large measure of freedom.

It was not until the Hannibalic War that a breach was made in this policy. Then a new kind of Roman arose—instead of Fabius Cunctator there is Marcellus, who plundered Syracuse of its works of art, and practised cruelty towards the population of Sicily. The hand of Rome became heavy on her

allies, and the result was the Social War.

In the early days there was a gradual expansion of the municipal territory of Rome. Ancient Italian custom allowed the conqueror to take one-third of the conquered city's territory. When Rome did this, she settled citizens on the new territory, and new 'tribes' were formed; but this expansion ceased in B. C. 241, at the end of the First Punic War. From this time the Ager Romanus consisted of 35 tribes, in which Roman citizens dwelt.

Another method of expansion was by colonies, which at first were really frontier posts of defence. After 338 only Latins were sent to these colonies, not Roman citizens. The Roman colonies that were sent out were almost all on the coast. The Senate was anti-expansionist, and opposed Flaminius in his efforts to found colonies in North Italy. The only two he actually founded were Placentia and Cremona. After the Hannibalic War numbers of old soldiers had to be provided for, and the idea of a colony as an economic provision arose. Rome began to treat her allies more harshly, and as a result they began to desire to give up their own institutions for the Roman franchise. C. Gracchus was the first to take up the cause of the Italians, and make it a burning question at Rome. But it took 30 or 40 years of devastating war to settle it. The process of unification after the Social War is obscure, but an assimilation between municipal institutions at Rome and those of the smaller towns had been going on for centuries. This process makes it difficult to tell whether the various parts of Roman government are characteristically Roman or rather Italian. The most striking characteristic of Roman government is its system of checks and counter-checks, and the most striking representative of this principle is the tribune. As a tribune is very rarely found in other cities, it looks as if the counter-check system were really a Roman institution.

In the wretched period after the Social War the municipalities suffered greatly, especially from Sulla, who took their land and settled his veterans upon it in colonies, often close beside the old city. C. Gracchus had treated the colony under two aspects:

(1) Frankly economic, to provide for distress.

(2) Extra-Italian civilization. He wished to resettle Carthage, and did send settlers there, but the Senate was bitterly opposed to him, and did not allow these colonists full civic rights. However, soon after his death, Narbonne was founded in 118 as a rival to Massilia. Julius Caesar gave democratic institutions to Carthage, planned to settle Corinth, and gave back civic rights to Capua—three great commercial cities crushed by Rome. He carried Italy to the Alps—from this time there is a sharp distinction between *Italian* and *foreign* soil.

BARNARD COLLEGE. G. M. HIRST.

CORRESPONDENCE

Ever since receiving your issue of February 12 I have had it in mind to write you regarding the list of 600 words for first year Latin, and the theory on which this list is advocated. It touches a subject on which, lo, these many years, I have been hoping that somebody would do something.

While I was at Harvard, though I was supposed to have a pretty good vocabulary, I learned, by the expenditure of considerable effort, a whole vocabulary of commonly used words, containing over 2000 words, learning them in such a way that I could 'quiz' myself by placing a card over the meanings and drawing it down the page as I proceeded, to see whether the meaning as I remembered it was the correct one, and marking the words I missed each time, and going over and over it until I could give the Latin word for every English equivalent without a single error. I never did anything that helped me more in Latin composition, and I have often wondered why this plan was not generally used. It seems to be thought in these latter days that the study of the ancient languages must be 'made easy', but one cannot get away from certain lines of hard and persistent effort. And the effort required to memorize a large vocabulary, entirely without association with context, is considerable, but the results obtained are worth all the effort, for the very fact that the words are in the mind entirely separated from any context makes the facility with which one can recall them for use far more valuable.

Another thing that seems of great importance is the learning of the primary, or fundamental, meanings of the words in this way. To my mind the greatest possible mistake in the work of beginners, in connection with the acquiring of a vocabulary, is the almost universal failure to learn the primary meanings, necessitating the repeated looking up of the very same word to pick out the appropriate secondary, or even tertiary, meaning that will 'fit the place'. This habit, a fatal one, to my mind, has been tremendously fostered by the ever-increasing use of special vocabularies, which are, I believe, a delusion and a snare of the worst kind, for many reasons.

The accurate knowledge of the primary meaning of a word that has many meanings enables one to work out for himself, with constantly increasing facility, (and it soon becomes far more than a guess and affords the most valuable kind of mental training) almost any meaning the word may have.

Accordingly I was greatly pleased to find that this phase of the teaching of Latin is now receiving so much thought and attention, and the article of Mr. Hurlbut, accompanying this list of 600 words, ought to be productive of much good. One of the most important facts connected with the thorough and accurate learning of the primary meanings is the *enormous* saving of labor that is thereby affected.[1]

EDWARD W. HAWLEY.

This letter is not an essay to be added to the collection stored up in the volumes of the editors' study. It is rather a means of giving vent to my personal feelings in behalf of the Maid of Antium, now abominably scandalized in the gossip of Rome. Doubtless you well know how in 1878 a tempest brought the maiden a second time into this unsympathetic world in a spot belonging to Nero's Antian Villa. Although she might in that year have been picked up for a mere trifle in ready cash, she grew rapidly in repute of loveliness and in money value, till last autumn the government, to rescue her from the all-devouring foreign art-shark, felt compelled to pay for her a sum nearly equivalent to ninety thousand dollars. Among the opinions then expressed as to her connections some said she was of the school of Lysippus; and when early in December the King paid her the compliment of an afternoon call in the corridors of the Terme, a courtly art-critic had the honor of informing his Majesty

[1] Mr. Hawley's letter is especially valuable because he is not a teacher but a busy lawyer of Minneapolis, who still has an interest in the Classics. For some Latin verses by him, see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 1.59. C. K.

that she was, or well might be, a daughter of the great Praxiteles. This was the pinnacle of her glory. Scarcely a week elapsed when a member of the parliamentary opposition, criticising the government act of purchase, asserted on the floor of the House that she was no earlier than the principate of Nero, chiseled at the command of the tyrant, by no respectable artist, but by a common, every-day mechanic. His remarks were greeted with roars of mirthful applause. Alas that her sweetness had to be embittered by the gall and wormwood of politics! But worse things were yet to come. Quite recently Mrs. Strong of the British School, at least as gossip affirms, has pronounced IT of Antium to be, not a girl, but a boy![1] How vexed must the demure maiden feel to have her gender as well as her artistic worth so suddenly and capriciously altered! The strange, perverted notion that the statue represented a boy was offered some weeks earlier by a writer in a well known Italian periodical. The criteria of these persons, however, are subjective. Anyone who walks through the Vatican and the Terme will say that there are Minervas, Muses, and Nymphs more masculine than the dear one of Antium. Most likely she is a prophetess of the Lycian Apollo (cf. Altmann, in Jahresh. d. österr. Arch. Inst. in Wien 6 (1903), pp. 180 ff.), the god's maiden bride, chosen to this calling for her chaste modesty. She is neither a youthful Hera nor a youthful Aphrodite, and her physique lacks therefore the characteristic features of these woman types. Perhaps, too, the sculptor slightly assimilated her form to that of her divine husband. This view will explain her somewhat boyish make-up without wounding her self-respect. But the reviling mob will not be satisfied with such explanations. Every day it swells in numbers and in virulence of speech. I wish I could join with the revilers, for scoffing in such an evident mark of independent judgment and good taste. But I am incapable. I can only wait and worship in secret silence, known only to you and me, till the pendulum swings my way. I think of her now, and always shall, as a sweet, charming maiden, not indeed the work of Praxiteles or of Lysippus, but perhaps of some early Hellenistic sculptor, who was certainly profoundly original and possessed an absolute mastery of his art.

Rome, March 5, 1910. GEORGE WILLIS BOTSFORD.

[1] See THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.146-147.

An important discovery has just been made by Dr. Allan C. Johnson, who was Fellow at Johns Hopkins University last year and is now holding a Fellowship at the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. While pursuing his investigations on the Acropolis at Athens, Dr. Johnson was prompted to examine carefully the stones which compose the retaining wall of an ancient cistern and found that one of them had engraved upon it an inscription which had previously escaped observation because it was built into the wall in such a way that no letters were visible. When the slab was removed, the inscription proved to be an Attic decree of 303 B. C. which was enacted in honor of Nikon of Abydos for having saved Athenians from drowning in a previous war. This valuable document, which is thirty lines in length and contains historical information hitherto quite unknown, will be published by the discoverer at an early date.

Dr. Johnson is a native of Nova Scotia, a Bachelor of Arts of Dalhousie University in 1904 and Doctor of Philosophy in the Johns Hopkins University in 1909. As his doctoral dissertation had to do with the Attic Decrees down to 300 B. C., he is especially to be congratulated on having made a contribution of lasting importance to the material which formed the basis of his previous researches.

H. L. WILSON.

I regret the editorial revision of my 'quip' on *primus*, Aen. 1.1., which allowed Dr. Kent (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.150), to think that I had overlooked Professor Bennett's interesting note.

My objection, however, to the versions, 'first came', 'first to come', 'erst', 'at the first', 'in ancient times', seems to have survived editorial treatment. So I will again venture to find Professor Bennett's somewhat obscure note unsatisfactory: "merely that he marks the first beginnings (sic) of the Roman race". And now I will add Dr. Kent's own, "the first Roman".

Surely the source of a river is not the river itself—*a fortiori*, when it is one of two sources. Aeneas was no "Roman", not even the "first". Indeed Juno (Aen. 12. 833 ff.) asks and obtains from Jupiter:

Sermonem *Ausonii* patrium moresque tenebunt,
utque est, nomen erit; *commixti* corpore *tantum*
subsident Teucri; morem ritusque sacrorum
adiciam faciamque *omnis* uno ore *Latinos*.
Hinc genus *Ausonio mixtum* quod *sanguine* surget,
etc.

Nor would Vergil, fond as he is of parallelism, find it desirable in the terse ringing opening sentence of his epic to convey by *primus* the meaning 'the first Roman' and then add 'source whence the *Latin race*, the *Alban* fathers'.

I come back then to the well-known use of *primus* as *princeps* or *dux* (cf. e. g. 1. 24). So I find the meaning more significant, as portraying a heaven-directed leader of the Trojan 'remnant', with its civilization, its gods—a spiritual germ that should fructify the sluggish Ausonian race, and through amalgamation produce Roma Sempiterna.

EDGAR S. SHUMWAY.

The Classical Association of New England will hold its annual meeting at Hartford, on April 1-2; Professor Lodge will represent The Classical Association of the Atlantic States at this meeting. Similarly Professor Knapp will be a delegate from The Classical Association of the Atlantic States at the meeting of The Classical Association of the Middle West and South, at Chicago, April 29-30. Professor J. E. Harry, of the University of Cincinnati, will represent the latter Association on April 22-23 at the meeting of the C. A. A. S.

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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VOL. III NEW YORK, APRIL 9, 1910 No. 22

The English Classical Association held its annual meeting on January 10-11; Professor Butcher was in the chair. The first business was the discussion of the report on grammatical terminology to which I alluded recently; but most important from our point of view was the report of the Curricula Committee presented by Professor Sonnenschein upon a four-year Latin course for secondary schools in which the leaving age is about sixteen, i. e. a curriculum that would correspond pretty closely to our four year High School course. The report assumes as a minimum about 150 lessons a year, four lessons a week. The order of progress for the four years is (1) specially composed sentences for teaching the elements, (2) 'cooked' texts, (3) simplified texts, (4) unabridged texts. In vocabulary, to which the Committee attaches the greatest importance, the progress should be during the first year 500 words; in the second year 500 new words should be added, in the third year 500 words more. For the fourth year no number is assigned. The first year is confined to the regular declensions and conjugations and the commonest pronouns, with a few of the common irregular verbs, such as *eo* and *fero*. In syntax only the rules common to English and Latin are to be introduced. In the second year the simpler uses of the subjunctive are to be mastered; to the third year belong the principal parts of verbs and a thorough mastery of the principles of syntax already touched upon; in the fourth year we have a systematic review of the whole of the grammar, both accidence and syntax. Composition is to be taught throughout the four years, at first merely orally.

For the reading the following suggestions are made: second year, simplified stories from Livy, and episodes from Caesar's Gallic War; third year, abridgments of Caesar, Livy, Cicero, Vergil's Aeneid, Ovid's Fasti or Metamorphoses; fourth year, a standard prose work of not less than a thousand lines, and a standard verse work of not less than five hundred lines. In the examinations unseen passages of a style similar to those of the set books must be translated readily.

This report is of great interest to us in view of the recent report of our Commission. It differs from that in many points and our teachers will be at once struck with the small amount of ground that is expected to be covered during the first two years. In our own High Schools the highest mortality is in the second year when, according to our present system, pupils have been brought face to face with Caesar en masse. This of course has been due to the necessity of covering so much prescribed work in the time set and most teachers are agreed that slower progress in the first two years would result in more rapid progress in the last two. Obviously the English report is based on that belief for not merely the amount of work but the grade of difficulty is very much less than that expected in American schools. Of course the advantage of the new requirements as outlined by our Commission is that as much flexibility is allowed as individual teachers may deem desirable and a poor class may be kept at a much slower pace than one of better quality. The English report lays emphasis upon small pieces of reading, much varied, while in the Commission's report the variation is less and the amount of any individual author is likely to be more. One would criticize the English reading as being scrappy; but this may be offset by other merits; see Miss MacVay in The Educational Review for May, 1909.

In the main, however, the English report does not vary greatly from the findings of our own Commission. Prose composition must naturally be taught throughout and emphasis on oral work is in line with the best modern thinking.

The suggestions for vocabulary are very noteworthy from our point of view; they are practically the same as I have been advocating for some time. If carried out these suggestions will require the standardizing of the vocabulary for secondary teaching, which I think very desirable and essential if examinations in sight reading are to be actually valid. Of course the recommendations of this committee apply only to a particular class of schools but it cannot fail to be gratifying that the English and American ideals for this kind of teaching are so nearly alike.

Miss MacVay shows that in actual practice more reading is done than would be supposed from the statements in the report and perhaps the variety of material may conduce somewhat to this result. Judging from our experience with prescribed reading the amount indicated in the English report ought to be much exceeded in practice, for 1,500 lines are an extremely small allowance for the fourth year; and

if we have been able to push our pupils through the first six books of the Aeneid in the fourth year with our defective methods, surely we ought to be able to do at least as much on the reformed system.

In this connection, it might be well to reiterate that our Commission was not a Commission of the American Philological Association. That body only devised a plan for the formation of the Commission at the request of the various Classical Associations. And likewise as a matter of courtesy and appreciation, the Commission presented the report to the American Philological Association before publishing it. G. L.

AMATEUR AND PROFESSIONAL LATIN IN THE HIGH SCHOOL[1]

In the course of the present wide-spread and rapidly increasing demand for revision of our educational system the question has often arisen whether Latin is of any real value in secondary education, or is merely a survival of the unfittest, as sometimes occurs where man has interfered with the operation of Nature's laws. An educational administrator of no slight importance has made the statement that "There is no doubt that the average American high school boy gets less out of Latin than out of any other subject in the curriculum". If this be true—and too many people are already announcing it as a fact—it would seem to be high time for the Latin teachers of the country to take cognizance of it. The question is neither new nor especially attractive to Latin teachers, but conditions are rapidly approaching a point where such criticisms must be met and some changes made as a matter of self defense.

Before undertaking the defense of our present position it might be well to consider why we are in this position and whether it is as strong as we can make it. We are working with a high school curriculum which is a copy, on a smaller scale, of the academic college curriculum, which, in turn, is a direct descendant of the classical schools of the middle ages. Despite the fact that the purpose and nature of the modern high school are radically different from those of the mediaeval college, the curriculum has changed but little. In Latin and Greek even the textbooks and methods of teaching have remained substantially the same. Attempts to adapt the curriculum to the conditions and theories of modern education are ridiculed as 'fads and frills' and the notorious conservatism of the pedagogue prevails in spite of constant complaint and opposition. As a result the present high school curriculum is about as adequate for the purposes of modern public education as mediaeval weapons and armor would be for modern warfare.

The existence in the high school of the present narrow methods of Latin teaching is due primarily to the fact that in the mediaeval college which the high school represents Latin was logically and actually a technical subject. It is still a technical subject in most college work, and for that reason the college professor generally does all in his power to make Latin a technical subject in the high school. Consequently our high schools, as Dr. Wilson has said, are attempting the impossible by trying to give each pupil both a liberal and a technical education. Latin teachers are among the worst offenders in this respect, since they preach one idea and practice another. From the broad pedagogical standpoint, Latin in the high school belongs to the liberal branches of education, but we find it presented by most teachers as a technical subject, taught almost entirely for its intrinsic value. This method is radically wrong and is the weakest point in our position. It cannot be successfully defended and unless abandoned may bring Latin to the same subordinate position to which Greek has been driven.

In order to retain the position of Latin in the curriculum we should recognize the fact that Latin should be presented in public schools as a means and not as an end. This is the essential difference between high school and college Latin, and the methods of presentation should vary accordingly. With cultural or disciplinary studies the important thing is not the facts of the subject matter, but the mental training acquired in assimilating and handling those facts, and for this reason the method of presentation is of prime importance. The college professor has the comparatively easy and relatively unimportant task of teaching a few select pupils to read and write Latin. The high school teacher, on the other hand, is supposed to use Latin as a means of developing in the many thoroughness of observation, accuracy of deduction, and fluency of expression, an accomplishment far more difficult and infinitely more valuable than the mere knowledge of Latin. The college professor and his classes are ipso facto professionals, aiming usually at the highest possible technical knowledge of the subject, while the high school pupils are amateurs, taking the work for the sake of the liberal training which it is supposed to furnish. In athletics there is a well-established belief that professionalism among amateurs inevitably ruins the work by changing the point of view and raising the standard to a point which is discouraging or impossible for the average amateur. Practically the same thing occurs when the college professor is allowed to set the pace for high school Latin. The necessity of teaching technical points for examinations makes a liberal presentation of the subject impossible, while the college entrance standard imposed upon all indiscriminately produces a pressure which makes the work a discouraging task for both class and teacher. Under such con-

[1] This paper was read at the meeting of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States, held at Haverford, Pa., April 23, 1909.

ditions the lesson usually degenerates into mere parrotlike recitation of vocabulary, paradigms, and translation—the purely technical features of Latin study. A pupil may attain a very high rating in these points, having learned dozens of rules, yards of vocabulary, and countless pages of paradigms and translation and still be among the many who, as Dr. Jordan says, get less out of Latin than out of any other subject in the curriculum.

In order to make Latin of genuine and fundamental value in secondary education, it must be so presented that the emphasis is not upon the facts of the Latin language, but on the mental exercise and habits developed in handling those facts. The work should be of a kind that requires less memorizing and more thinking, less extensive home-work and more intensive classroom work, less Latin and more linguistics. The necessity and value of general linguistic training in the high school and the advantages of Latin as a basis of such work are generally admitted. In view of this fact it would seem that our position could be made impregnable by using Latin as the vehicle rather than as the destination of our linguistic study. Unless teachers adopt that attitude Latin will probably be relegated to a subordinate position in the regular high school curriculum.

To break up the conventional method of teaching Latin as a technical subject, valuable as an end in itself, and to develop the subject along liberal and cultural lines, would require the elimination of many of the eccentricities of Latin as she was written, and the addition of vocabulary and exercises especially adapted for mental discipline rather than the translation of the Classics. It is not probable that Latin can retain its present status in secondary education unless the classical fetish is renounced. No one would think of denying that those who study Latin as a technical subject should read the classical Latin as they find it, but there is no reason why the same rule should apply to the study of Latin as an element of a liberal education. For high school purposes the Latin read should have a vocabulary closely related to English, a style with no unnecessary complications, and a subject matter worth remembering. None of the texts commonly read comes near meeting these requirements, and there is no practical reason why a text could not be written today far better suited to needs of high school pupils than the classical authors are. A short Greek and Roman history, an elementary comparative grammar, and a collection of myths and fables would make an excellent course of reading for high school purposes, and would probably be far more palatable and digestible than the matter now read. With such texts the forms, vocabulary, syntax and prose could be developed uniformly and in a much more systematic way than is now possible.

The vocabulary for such texts should be restricted, as far as possible, to words related to English, and should contain a large number of the post-classical words from which the Latin in English is so largely derived. Word analysis and the study of derivatives should be an essential feature of the work from the very first day, and pupils should understand at the outset that Latin is a very near relative of English and more like English than English itself. It is surprising what a lively interest beginners take in derivatives and word formation, and the English dictionary will enable them to do considerable independent investigating.

Simple words, prefixes, and suffixes should form the basis of the work, and compounds should be learned as such primarily. A pupil who knows *conduco* and *infero* should be allowed an opportunity to try to figure out *induco* and *confero*, although our textbooks make no provision in their vocabularies for any such independent work.

If the drill on declension is to be used for the purpose of mental training, it should consist of rapid extempore translation of phrases illustrating the cases rather than memoriter recitation of paradigms. Every pupil is able to learn the paradigms perfectly and will do so if the teacher will accept nothing else as satisfactory, but it should be understood that the paradigm itself is simply a starting point in learning the cases.

In the treatment of the verb there is need of a very radical revision of the traditional methods. It should be developed synthetically as a logical and regular compound of stem, tense-sign, and personal ending, corresponding exactly to the principal parts, auxiliary verb, and personal pronouns of the verb in English. With such a systematic treatment of the verb pupils in the first term of Latin can soon learn to develop the verb independently from the principal parts and endings. The amount of memorizing is reduced to a minimum, being replaced by processes of synthesis and analysis which are certainly much more valuable pedagogically than the usual parrotlike memorizing and recitation of page after page of paradigms. Three-fourths of the paradigms in the majority of our textbooks are useless repetition and prevent the pupil from constructive work of a kind that is both interesting and profitable.

When a boy has learned the imperfect of *sum*, why should the textbook give in full the inflection of 50 or 60 other words with exactly the same personal endings? After the future of *sum* is given, why insult the common sense or blunt the intelligence of the pupil by printing the full inflection of *amabo*, *rego*, and 49 other paradigms with identical endings? Apparently the editors are devoted to the amiable policy of rendering the work attractive by making it as easy as possible. There is a widespread suspicion, however, that the endeavor to render school

work attractive by making it easy has in most cases so emasculated the work as to make it a mere travesty on education. There is much reason to believe that the Spartan severity of the oldtime pedagogue was much better discipline for the average boy than the mollycoddling methods which have replaced it. While the oldtime schools did not encourage precocity or encyclopedic breadth, they certainly did produce men with strong, well balanced will-power, and the ability to do a few things well and thoroughly, a type said to be too scarce among graduates of the present generation.

Thoroughness in Latin depends very largely upon how far and well the syntactical side of the work is developed.

Syntax, in so far as it concerns the structure of the sentence, deserves far greater prominence than is generally given to it in elementary classes. It is especially valuable for two reasons; first, because it compels the pupil to make a careful analysis of the sentence in both languages, and, second, because it discourages mere memorizing and cribbing. There is nothing more demoralizing to weak pupils than a method of teaching which permits a pupil to get credit for work not his own. In most cases the teacher who allows such parasitic work is doing more harm than good.

Another almost universal fault in elementary classes is the use in recitations of a book with vocabulary, notes, and often paradigms on the same page as the sentences which the pupil is translating in class. The convenience of referring to this information during the recitation leads to a form of cheating and 'near-knowledge' which often misleads the pupil as well as the teacher. Practical experience and comparison have shown that pupils accustomed from the first to reciting without the aid of the book get far better results than those who had the aid of the book in recitation. If the majority of our pupils really learned what they are supposed to learn in the first year's work nine-tenths of the difficulties in the higher classes would disappear and the proposed reduction of required reading would be entirely unnecessary. What we need most in elementary Latin is the elimination of useless technicalities from the first year's work to an extent which will allow thoroughness and intensive work with an abundance of drill and supplementary exercises at sight. Strange to relate, the very persons who are responsible for the overloading of the high school Latin curriculum are the ones who complain most bitterly of the lack of thoroughness in the elementary Latin.

Lack of thoroughness, however, and over-promotion are prominent characteristics of our New York City school system, from first to last, and there seems to be little probability of any improvement, unless the budget makers and their allies can be convinced that the school problem is of greater importance than the transportation problem, an admission which is not to be expected from New York City politicians.

It seems probable, however, that high-school Latin as a whole could be made more profitable and popular if the teachers could be induced to pay more attention to systematic methods of presentation and less to grammatical technicalities, to emphasize construction, development, and correlation rather than facts, to cover less ground and do it more thoroughly, persistently to discourage dishonest and parasitic work, and to make frequent use of that remorseless drill which compels the pupil 'to get to the point and get there quick'. Although such work might not be popular with the pupils, it would probably appeal strongly to their parents, who are the parties we must satisfy, if our work is to be acceptable. It is foolish to try to make Latin scholars of all our high-school pupils, but if Latin can be made an effective agent for developing the powers of observation, deduction, and expression, it will certainly not be the most useless subject in the curriculum.

C. R. JEFFORDS.

BOYS' HIGH SCHOOL, Brooklyn, N. Y.

REVIEWS

Essays on Greek Literature. By Robert Telverton Tyrrell. London: The Macmillan Co. (1909). Crown 8 vo. Pp. xi + 202.

The Messrs. Macmillan have done a distinct service to the cause of classical letters in republishing, in a single neat volume, these five essays by the former Professor of Greek in the University of Dublin. We have too few essays of such sanity, critical acumen, and literary insight, on classical subjects; and those that exist are mostly tucked away in old issues of periodicals not generally accessible. Yet one cannot lay down this volume without wishing that as Dr. Tyrrell and the publishers have done so much they had done something more. It is true that criticism is partly disarmed when the author says in his Preface: "I had thought of endeavoring to bring the studies more 'up-to-date'; but in some cases there seemed little to add, and in others such an attempt would have run counter to the original design". But it is due to those of the classically trained public who still take more than a languid 'literary' interest in Greek and Latin authors to be informed what a scholar of Dr. Tyrrell's eminence thinks nowadays of the questions here discussed, not merely what he thought about them twenty or ten years ago; the Preface is not adequate in this respect.

The essays deal with Pindar, Sophocles, The Recently Discovered Papyri, Bacchylides, and Plutarch.

The first is a temperate but very sympathetic appreciation of a poet singularly difficult for modern readers to enjoy without reservation. Dr. Tyrrell

evidently does so enjoy his Pindar, and seems to believe it possible for every properly trained classical scholar so to enjoy him. He says very reasonably: " . . . Pindar is essentially a writer of whom it may be said that *l'appétit vient en mangeant.* Those qualities in his style, which some describe as bombast and turgidity, are really splendid proofs of a keen instinct for style that enabled him always to maintain his poetic elevation, though dealing with events which, however glorified by associations, were in themselves not considerable". The essay contains an acute and interesting discussion of Mezger's theory of the construction of the Pindaric epinician odes. The value of the discussion would have been greatly enhanced by an appendix giving Tyrrell's own views of the work of Fraccaroli, Christ, Schroeder, and others; and it is hard to see how this, even though not contemplated in the original design, would have run counter to it.

The essay on Bacchylides is admirable, particularly when read in connection with that on Pindar. To read the two authors together in the original is hardly fair to Bacchylides. He loses, by contrast with his splendid rival, much of the merit that is undeniably his, just as the fertile and smiling valley seems tame to the eye that is still filled with the splendor of the snow-capped Alps.

Sophocles is very skilfully handled in the second essay, which is in large part a glorification of Jebb's monumental edition. In the course of it (p. 52) Dr. Tyrrell indulges in the most violent of the many flings—sometimes decidedly ill-natured, with which the book is peppered: "We are disposed to recommend an adjunct to the Decalogue for the guidance of our rising scholars. Thou shalt not covet the German's knife, nor his readings, nor his metres, nor his sense, nor his taste, nor anything that is his". Of course there is much to be said for the traditional English conservatism in textual matters, even though, as in religious matters, it is desperately afraid that any departure from tradition may be 'unsafe', and lead to exclusion from the everlasting peace of the saints. But it is too often forgotten that even the most venerable of traditions may stop a good deal short of the point to which it professes to reach back, and that proneness to error was quite as distinctly a human failing in the fourth century B. C. as it has been since. Still, one must believe in something; and the orthodox English belief that the *textus recepti* contain in the vast majority of cases word-for-word the productions of the classical authors is at least as reasonable as that of an individual German who is firmly convinced not only that the accepted text is full of mistakes but in particular that he alone knows how to set them right.

The essay The New Papyri is chiefly taken up with the papyrus Ms. containing the greater part of the Constitution of Athens generally accepted as the work of Aristotle. Dr. Tyrrell gives an admirable summary of its contents, with running comments on the agreement of the data with the facts known, or at least assumed to be facts, from other sources. He refuses to accept the work as from Aristotle's pen, mainly on grounds of style—a very uncertain criterion in the case of a writer whose works cover so enormous a range as those of Aristotle and were produced for such various classes of hearers and readers.

The concluding essay, on Plutarch, brings much of great interest and value, but on the whole is disappointing. In fact, it may be said that any attempt to handle a topic of such magnitude in thirty 'crown octavo' pages is doomed to failure. There are many just and illuminating observations upon Plutarch in these pages; but one may easily fancy that great essayist himself, if he has an opportunity of reading them in the Elysian Fields, saying in the words of the infant in the epitaph:

Since I was so soon to be done for,
I wonder what I was begun for.

Yet it is somewhat remarkable when an English scholar goes so far away from the beaten track of the 'classical' authors. The disinclination of these scholars, as a body, to busy themselves with anything outside of this range is in none too honorable contrast with the eagerness of the wicked Germans to open up all paths of approach to an understanding of ancient civilization, and indeed with the attitude of English archaeologists, who are second to those of no nation in their quest of new ground. A reading of von Wilamowitz-Moellendorff's admirable lecture on Greek Historical Writing[1], delivered at Oxford in 1908, brings out very clearly the greater sweep and power and independence of the German *Geist* at its best. It is an endless pity that almost no Germans have ever learned to write so reasonable a style as that which has become a matter of course with English scholars; and Wilamowitz might be even better in French than he is in German.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY. E. D. PERRY.

Studies in the Philosophical Terminology of Lucretius and Cicero. By Katherine C. Reiley. New York: The Columbia University Press (1909). Pp. ix + 133. $1.25 net.

This valuable little volume, offered by the author as her dissertation for the doctor's degree, is divided into two parts. Part I, General View, comprises an introductory statement and four chapters severally entitled, The Employment of Greek Words, Prose and Poetic Diction, Prose and Metrical Form, Temperamental and Scholastic Influences. Part II, Studies of Special Groups of Terms, embraces three

[1] Beautifully translated by Professor Gilbert Murray, and published by the Clarendon Press. Only those who have tried Englishing any considerable portions of W.'s compact and forcible German can imagine the seriousness of the task.

chapters severally entitled, The Atoms, Void and Space, the Universe: the Infinity of Matter, of Void, and of Space. Appended is a bibliography of sources and secondary works and an index.

We have in this treatise a serious and dignified attempt to determine and set forth the contributions in the field of philosophical terminology made to the Latin language by the two great exponents of Roman thought, Cicero and Lucretius. In the General View the author states that

the scope of the comparison is narrower than we could wish, for Lucretius concerned himself chiefly with the mechanical and physical side of Epicureanism while Cicero, whose philosophical interests were largely ethical, passed over these element in a rapid summary. When, however, the interests of the two thinkers touched, we see in full view, just as in the processes of a laboratory, their terminology in the very making.

In the philosophical works of Cicero the author finds 99 Greek words, and only 2 such words in Lucretius — ἁρμονία, ὁμοιομέρεια. 72 Greek terms found in Cicero have no counterpart in Lucretius and hence cannot form the basis of comparison. Of these, 38 are compound, 34 simple terms. Cicero turned 26 of the 34 simple terms into single Latin terms. For the remaining 8 he employed various Latin "devices". He turned only 15 of the 38 Greek compounds into single Latin terms. The remaining 23 he translated by various equivalents or not at all.

Examining the Greek terms latinized by both authors the writer finds that they each converted 16 into a single Latin equivalent and resorted to "various devices" to render 11 others, with about equal success.

Summarizing conclusions thus far the author states that "Cicero shows in general a greater wealth and facility of expression than Lucretius". Yet Cicero's "familiar hesitation between several terms has marred the technical rigor of his terminology".

With a passing remark that the diction of the two authors necessarily affected the terminology of each the writer groups together (page 26) a partial list of 51 words "found only in Lucretius and his imitators". To these a list of 9 "distinctly philosophical words" is added, making a total of 60. A list of 13 typical words occurring for the first time in the philosophical writings of Cicero is also given. This seems to show a marked tendency on the part of Cicero to use coined words only "in the interest of his philosophical terminology".

"Prose and metrical forms" also affected the choice of words. Many expressions available for Cicero must be modified or paraphrased by Lucretius. This restriction of poetic form determined the usage of many words philosophical, and nonphilosophical (e. g. *arbusta* for *arbores*), so that we cannot ascribe to Cicero in the use of certain words a cleverness of expression or a depth of sympathetic feeling not found in Lucretius.

The temperament and training of the two men, as the writer points out, must of necessity affect "the tenacity with which each seized and held a term". But if Lucretius is open to the charge of bigotry (page 30), surely Cicero, a diletantte in philosophy, pedantic in method and quite void of logical system, ought not thus to influence our judgment against a doctrine and its exponents about which he knew little and cared less. No doubt Lucretius's exalted opinion of Epicurus for what he had done to liberate the world from superstitution accounts for many archaisms and studied peculiarities of the poet's style and terminology.

Turning now to part two we have the results of the writer's investigations "of special groups of words". In the examination of each group the author states the Epicurean usages, then points out and compares the usages respectively of Lucretius and Cicero, and follows each study with a brief but valuable summary. The investigation shows that only three words in the known Greek of Epicurus occur absolutely in the undoubted sense of 'atoms' namely, ἄτομος, σπέρματα, σώματα . . . Eleven terms in Lucretius are found with the sense of 'atoms' . . . Of these *corpora* and *semina* alone correspond to their Greek prototypes σώματα and σπέρματα . . . *Corpuscula* and *particulae* have no known Greek originals . . . Four words in the Latin of Cicero occur with the meaning of 'atoms', namely *atomi, individua, corpora, corpuscula.*

The controversy over the divisibility of the Epicurean atom still rages. The writer here takes a very reasonable view, leaving the meaning of ὄγκοι undetermined. The divisible atom seems only a device to explain atom shapes. The *primordia* of Lucretius are *solida simplicitate* and can admit no void.

The atoms or molecules, though not susceptible of physical separation or discerption, are still composed of parts which can at least be distinguished from each other. The atom is *logically* divisible; for as it differs in the shape of each example, it must consist of not less than three parts—parts, however, which are only *mathematically* distinguishable by their different positions or order in the total which they constitute. (Lucr. II, 485). Between such *ideal* constituents of the atom there is no intervening void . . . And thus for all purposes of mechanical cosmogony, the complex molecules, formed by the union of these simple parts, may be treated as themselves simple and elementary (Wallace, Epicureanism, London, 1908, p. 177. The italics are the reviewer's).

In approaching the study of "void and space" the writer presents three possible views of the uses "made by Epicurus of the Greek terms ἀναφὴς φύσις, κενόν, τόπος, and χώρα": (a) Epicurus consistently used each of them in a technical sense, or (b) as exact synonyms, or (c) "by his use of the terms he distinguishes between void and space". The conclusion reached is that Epicurus did not "observe the distinctions of meaning assigned by Sextus" to these terms; that they were not used as exact synonyms, and that, though the evidence is scanty, the following distinctions prevail: τόπος = 'space', κενόν or ἀναφὴς

φύσις = 'void'. " χώρα has no technical meaning", Applying the same test to Lucretian usage the result reached is that the poet did not use *inane, vacuum, locus, spatium,* in a technical sense on the basis claimed by Sextus, and that Sextus must be wrong in claiming that they were so used; that Lucretius did not use the terms as exact synonyms, but with the following variations: *inane* = *inane purum*, 'void', usually, but *inane* qualified by *haec in quo sita sunt et qua diversa moventur* (1. 421), "alters the concept from void to space"; that *vacuum* as used by Lucretius involves no controversy as it is a non-technical term; that *locus* is used 82 times in a non-technical sense (*inane* 6 times), and 19 in a technical sense (*inane* 69 times); that *spatium* "is used as a variant of *locus* in the sense of space". Little attention is given to Ciceronian usage here since in treating of these concepts he failed "to develop a rigorous and definitive terminology".

The same method is followed in the examination of "the Universe". The Greek sources here are meager. Four terms appear: τὸ πᾶν, τὸ ἄπειρον, ἀπειρία, τὸ περιέχον. The first of these is most definitive and signifies "the whole sum of matter and space". On Lucretius's use of *omne* the writer decides with the majority of critics that this term is equivalent to τὸ πᾶν, "the universe of matter and space". In this connection the author finds two groups of words in the terminology of Cicero indicating "the infinity of space, and the infinity of matter and space", . . . "neither of which is defined with perfect precision".

The whole study bears evidences of careful and painstaking research. The results are well attested in the prefatory note by Professor Peck: " . . . Dr. Reiley has examined the prevailing theories regarding certain technical terms that belong to the materialistic philosophy of Greece and Rome, and by an acute examination of the evidence, both ancient and modern, has arrived at conclusions which constitute a distinct contribution to knowledge".

ROBERT B. ENGLISH.

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The Fourth Annual Meeting will be held at THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, 138th Street and Amsterdam Avenue, New York City, on Friday and Saturday, April 22 and 23, 1910.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, APRIL 22, at 2.30

Address of Welcome, by DR. JOHN H. FINLEY, President of the College of the City of New York.

A Programme of Reform for Secondary and Collegiate Instruction in Latin and Greek, by DR. BARCLAY W. BRADLEY, College of the City of New York.

Ends to be sought: knowledge (a) of universal principles of language, (b) of character as displayed in art forms. Intensive study is indespensable to the former, extensive reading to the latter. At present it is physically impossible for the average student to read enough in the original tongues to attain the latter end; study of classical works in English translations must therefore be introduced into the curriculum. Outline of a course planned to meet the two ends named above.

The Feeling for Nature in Horace's Poetry, by DR. ELIZABETH H. HAIGHT, Vassar College.

The paper will consider (a) the proper method of approach to antiquity: the feeling for nature in other Roman poets; (b) Horace' feeling for nature: 1) his life in the country and its benefits, 2) his use of nature in mythological representation, figures, and description, 3) his sincerity as a lover of nature in spite of his own statements and the second Epode.

The Present Status of Latin Text Criticism, by PROFESSOR B. L. ULLMAN, University of Pittsburgh.

Advances in Text Criticism. Readings once chosen indiscriminately from all MSS. and editions. Introduction by Lachmann of policy of selection of certain MSS. Beginning by Baehrens and others of a thorough search for the best MSS. Present tendency to re-examine all MSS. and to make use of external as well as internal evidence. Exclusive use of internal evidence by careless and superficial workers responsible for the ridicule often heaped upon this important subject. Our opportunity.

What and Why in Greek and Latin Composition, by MR. A. L. HODGES, of the Wadleigh High School, New York City.

An argument that too much stress is laid on Greek and Latin composition in the schools.

Report of the Executive Committee; Report of the Secretary-Treasurer.

FRIDAY EVENING, APRIL 22, at 8.15

Greetings from The Classical Association of the Middle West and South, by PROFESSOR J. E. HARRY, University of Cincinnati.

Greetings from the Classical Association of New England, by DR. JAMES J. ROBINSON, The Hotchkiss School, Lakeville, Connecticut.

The Scientific Knowledge of the Ancient Greeks and Romans, by PROFESSOR JOHN C. ROLFE, of the University of Pennsylvania.

SATURDAY MORNING, APRIL 23, at 9.30

The Classical Element in the Poetry of Thomas Gray, by PROFESSOR GRACE H. MACURDY, Vassar College.

A study of the classical originals of Gray's "Startling felicities".

Concerning Vocabulary and Parsing, by PROFESSOR HERBERT T. ARCHIBALD, of Baltimore.

A study of aids to the acquisition of a Greek vocabulary.

References to Painting and Literature in Plautus and Terence, by PROFESSOR CHARLES KNAPP, Barnard College.

Roman Law and Roman Literature, by DR. JAMES J. ROBINSON, The Hotchkiss School.

Studies in Euripides: Iphigenia in Tauris 15, 73, 97-100, by PROFESSOR J. E. HARRY, University of Cincinnati.

Classical Art in the Metropolitan Museum, by DR. EDWARD ROBINSON, of the Metropolitan Museum.

An account of what is being planned and done to encourage an interest in classical art in New York.

Election of Officers; General Business.

Luncheon at 1, for members of the Association and visitors, given by the College of the City of New York.

SATURDAY AFTERNOON, APRIL 23, at 2.15

Byways of Roman Verse, by MR. B. W. MITCHELL, Central High School, Philadelphia.

A glimpse of what is interesting, amusing and instructive in the Poetae Latini Minores.

The Main Points to be Stressed in Preparation for Entrance Examinations in Latin, by PROFESSOR NELSON G. MCCREA, Columbia University.

The Work of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, by PROFESSOR WILLIAM KELLEY PRENTICE, Princeton University.

Roman Coins and Classical Study, by PROFESSOR GEORGE N. OLCOTT, of Columbia University (illustrated by the stereopticon).

The paper will indicate how coins throw an interesting side-light on every phase of Roman history, literature and life, and in particular how they may be used in illustrating the authors generally read in school and college.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY is published by the Classical Association of the Atlantic States. It is issued weekly, on Saturdays, from October to May inclusive, except in weeks in which there is a legal or school holiday, at Teachers College, 525 West 120th Street, New York City.

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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VOL. III NEW YORK, APRIL 16, 1910 No. 23

The English Board of Education has recently issued a special report on The Teaching of Classics in Secondary Schools in Germany which is of the greatest interest to all classical teachers in this country. Three distinguished English scholars, Messrs. J. W. Headlam, Frank Fletcher, and J. L. Paton, were appointed as a committee to visit schools in Germany and make this report. It is 172 pages in length and may be gotten for a shilling from Wyman and Sons, London.

The report is divided into three sections: (1) The Origin and History of the Reform in Classical Teaching in Germany, (2) Comparison of English and German Classical Schools, (3) The Method of Teaching Classics in the Reform Schools in Germany. A good deal of the history of this movement is available elsewhere, as is also the comparison between English and German schools, but such a detailed treatment of the German method of teaching Classics I am not aware of. It would be too great a task to discuss the report in detail; on every page it is full of suggestions for our own work. There are two or three quotations, however, which I should like to make.

To the question, what form does the oral work take, the following answer is given, applying to the beginning year:

(1) In the translation, as soon as a chapter is finished, one of the boys is called upon to read the whole chapter through in Latin, any mistake in quantity or pronunciation being at once put right by some member of the class. Great stress is laid on intelligent reading, the proper pauses must be preserved, and the emphatic words duly emphasized. When at the next lesson the translation is revised, all books are closed and the teacher reads the Latin sentence by sentence, calling on members of the class to translate. The effect of this practice on the attention of the class is most marked: it forces them to pick up Latin by the ear and certainly counteracts all tendency to word for word translation by forcing the boy to think rather in terms of the sentence than the isolated word.

(2) After each section has been gone through carefully, all books are turned over and the teacher puts questions based on the text to the class. Each answer must be a complete sentence in itself, and the word which answers the question must come first in the answer. This exercise trains to careful observation in the reading of the text and plasticity of expression. In the first lessons, this reproduction of question and answer will perhaps be used after each sentence in the reader; the question words used—*quis? quid? cur? quando? quot?*—are written on the blackboard and are easily picked up. This is, of course, practically an exercise in retroversion, and might easily develop into a mere parrot repetition if the teacher did not vary his questions skillfully. As soon as facility is acquired, a longer section, say a whole story, is taken, and the following may serve as a sample:—*Cum adulescentulus Romanus in castris amicis clipeum pulchrum et splendidum monstraret, Marius: "Cur laudas", inquit, "clipeum tuum? Strenuorum Romanorum fiducia non in sinistra sed in dextra est."*

During the first year the teacher will be content if the pupil in his answer simply rings the changes on the words used by the teacher in his questions: later on he expects the boy to cast his answer in quite a different mould and show some power of self-expression. The boys, too, become keen at showing how well they can do it. In the top classes, at the beginning of a translation lesson one or two of the pupils are called upon to give a short résumé or précis of the previous lesson in Latin, and this will be followed by a few questions in Latin by the teacher, intended to supplement the narrative or to bring out some point that is not clear. The boys in the top classes gave these résumés without any fumbling in quite passable Latin; any mistake was at once corrected by the vigilant class-mates. The whole showed a sense of mastery, and the joy that mastery gives *possunt quia posse videntur.* But such results would not be possible unless in the lower classes boys had been habituated to pick up Latin by the ear and express themselves in Latin simply and shortly. Similarly boys in the third year were called to read a piece of *oratio obliqua* into direct speech.

(3) Other exercises are in connection with vocabulary. Boys will be instructed to go through their back reading and put together all the words they find connected with the fleet, the army, the town, its buildings, its inhabitants, its government, etc., and the teacher will conduct a small dialogue on this vocabulary. *Quid in oppido videtis? Templa, vias, aedificia, portam, monumenta, fluvium, pontes videmus.* The appropriate adjectives are elicited. *Quis in oppido habitat? Homines, viri, feminae, pueri, liberi in oppido habitant.* This oral composition is not meant to prevent or prescribe written composition; on the contrary, it paves the way for it by inducing a sort of grammatical conscience which recognizes the fault at once by an instinct bred of habit, and in this way written composition is saved from preventable blunders. The whole of the composition is done orally during the first few weeks of learning Latin; it is based on the reader, a sentence with the singular is turned into the plural or *vice versa,* the tense, or person or voice is altered, adjectives are inserted and so on. Not until the way has been thus carefully prepared does the teacher ask for a written composition. He knows how much of a small boy's attention is absorbed by the very process of writing, the average boy of twelve cannot write and think at the same time, and therefore it is wiser to prevent

the occurrence of mistakes than after their occurrence to try to eradicate them. The advice of Quintilian is followed out: *scribendo dicimus diligentius, dicendo scribimus facilius.*

In the next issue I shall make another quotation with some criticism.

G. L.

PROBLEMS OF ELEMENTARY GREEK

The first problem is the struggle for existence. In the opinion of the Philistines, there is no reason for any Greek problem whatever. Why should this antiquated mummy of a dead and buried past any longer linger superfluous on the stage? Of course people who talk that way do not know, but inasmuch as they are numerous and influential and aggressive, and are themselves convinced that they do know, they count for much in our day and must be reckoned with.

Greek yet remains the very best means we have for plowing up and wrinkling the human brain and developing its gray matter, and wrinkles and gray matter are still the most valuable assets a student can get down on the credit side of his ledger. It is a commonplace with the psychologist that the accurate translation of Greek requires a larger number of distinct mental acts and adjustments than the translation of any other language ordinarily studied, and a definite understanding of the facts makes this plain to the layman as well. The problem is to get these facts clearly before the layman's mind. Our modern educational reformers have in such cock-sure fashion laid down the principle that the Classics, and above all Greek, are out of date, useless lumber, unfit as a mental furnishing for the scholar and the practical man of to-day, that to most people the real issue has been befogged and obscured, and yet, in solving the problem of the relative values of humanistic and utilitarian studies, there is need for the clearest thinking and the clearest statement of principles. Not all should study Greek. As there are diversities of gifts, so there are diversities of operation; but there should be the self-same spirit working in all, the desire for the best individual results, and surely the brain-developing and culture value of the greatest of the languages cannot be safely ignored in any scheme of education.

The displacing of the old curriculum has given opportunity for the law of 'natural selection' to operate. The difficulty is that the apostles of change, in their eagerness to enthrone their own specialties, have denied that the old curriculum has any practical value. It is well enough to know Greek, of course, for those who have time and taste for it, but it is a luxury, an ornament and plaything for the dilettante, but useless for the hard-headed, commonsense man who must solve the problems and meet the competitions of our complex modern life. But the life is more than meat and the body than raiment, and the things that are not seen and eternal are of more value to us as immortal souls, in the long run, than the things that are seen but temporal.

In the first place, then, the Greek teacher must be a missionary, even though he may seem to be merely a voice crying in the wilderness. He must know why his subject is worth while, and how to impress its value upon the minds of pupils who look to him for guidance. The trouble now usually is that the teacher of Greek cannot bring his argument to bear upon the student until the question has been practically settled against Greek. If a student does not find out till he enters college the great advantage of a knowledge of Greek, especially if he has literary tastes and wishes to specialize in English or Latin, it is a hardship to be compelled to give up nearly a quarter of his time in college to the study of Greek, whereas, if he had studied Greek two or three years before entering college, it would have been a help to him from the very start of his college course.

It is coming to be true more and more that the teachers in our High Schools are men and women without classical training, or at least without a knowledge of Greek. Too often impressed with the idea that change is necessarily progress, they ignore the teachings and experiences of the past, and hence deprive their pupils of the only means which can adequately explain the present. Without a first-hand knowledge of what the Greeks stand for in the development of present civilization along artistic, aesthetic, philosophic and literary lines, one can never adequately understand or explain how our present ideals and conditions came to be what they are, nor can one form a fair and comprehensive judgment as to present problems and tendencies. He who will not be a Greek must be to some extent a barbarian.

The only adequate knowledge of what Greek civilization means is first-hand knowledge, and this can be obtained only by an acquaintance with the Greek language, which is in itself quite the most marvellous thing the Greeks have left to us. This question is not a problem in elementary Greek, but it is an elementary problem for the Greek teacher to face, and he must in the end contribute to the right solution. For the matter is not yet settled, and ulimately the fittest will survive, for so it is written in the law.

I suppose it is out of the question to expect that many even of the large High Schools in the middle west will offer Greek, at least under present conditions, but it is only fair that principals and teachers in our High Schools should call the attention of pupils to its value, and encourage them to take it, if not in High School at least in college. As Professor Bristol has recently said:

This should be done in order that students who seek an education which is primarily in literary and humanistic subjects may not miss the fundamental basis of the highest excellence in those fields. . . . Let us not forget that it is a fine, even the finest, means of literary culture, and when a student seeks the very best, let us be honest and tell him what it is, even if we cannot offer it to him[1].

But enough of this preliminary problem. Let us take up the real problem of the teacher of elementary Greek, the problem of the mastery of the tools for successful Greek study. This problem is mainly the mastery of forms, the acquiring of a working vocabulary, and the understanding of the common principles of the syntax, and these tasks should be approximately completed during the first year. The usual way is to begin with some elementary book and to take up the forms and syntax in an orderly fashion corresponding somewhat to the order of the Greek grammars. This method has its advantages, and is by all odds the best for a teacher of small experience who is not perfectly at home in his grammar, and able to answer correctly and without hesitation any ordinary question that may come up. But the method has also its decided disadvantages. It involves the expenditure of at least half a year before continuous prose is read. It takes up time with some forms and constructions that rarely occur, some which will very likely not be met in Xenophon for months. Detached sentences, manufactured, or simplified, or selected, to illustrate certain forms or certain syntactical principles, are often difficult to understand, when the same sentences read in their context would present no difficulty at all. The interest also is greater in reading a continuous narrative. Then, too, time for constant drill on declensions, principal parts, synopses, can scarcely be found when some new and difficult set of forms, with a reading lesson of many illustrative sentences must be emphasized.

I shall outline a method, not new of course, which I have used with about twenty classes of beginners, both in secondary school and college, with such success as has convinced me that, for me at least, it is a profitable plan. I do not pride myself upon having discovered any new and revolutionary method which will make elementary Greek a snap course. Every such scheme is a delusion and a snare. Elementary Greek cannot be made an easy matter, but it can be made so interesting that students will go on conquering and to conquer in a way very satisfactory both to themselves and to their teachers. The three essentials of forms, vocabulary, and syntax may be so thoroughly mastered during the first year as to give no trouble afterward, and in the same time two books of the Anabasis may without difficulty be read carefully and thoroughly, and seven or eight hundred brief illustrative sentences be translated into Greek. That would have seemed a big contract to me a few years ago, but now it is accomplished easily every year.

We begin with grammar and Anabasis the first day. The first lesson is of course the Greek alphabet, which is learned in order and repeatedly written, together with breathings, classification of vowels and consonants, and sounds of the letters.

In lesson 2 we take masculine and feminine nouns of the second declension, for Δαρείου. A vocabulary of the second declension nouns given in the grammar is required, also the discussion of syllables, quantity, and accent, so far as is called for by this lesson. Much emphasis must be laid at the start on correct pronunciation and accent. The accent should be learned as a part of the word. Inflection is gone over again and again, both orally and in written form. Merciless insistence on correct form, accent and pronunciation at the start saves time later. In this way the bugbear of Greek accent is soon overcome, if students see that the teacher is utterly intolerant on these points, and that the ordinary rules are after all few and simple.

Next day lingual stems of the third declension are taken up for Παρυσάτιδος and παῖδες and the present middle indicative of the ω-verb is required for γίγνονται, and the first two lines are translated. With this lesson also begins Greek prose composition. Five sentences are dictated requiring only the vocabulary and forms thus far studied, though ἦν is added by the teacher. Darius and Parysatis are born, Cyrus was son of Darius, The island belonged to (was of) Darius, are part of the sentences in this first lesson in prose.

In lesson 4 the declension of πρεσβύτερος, νεώτερο and Κῦρος are already known. Masculine nouns in -ης of the first declension are taken (for Ἀρταξέρξης), with the special rules for accent and the vocative forms. For ὑπώπτευε the conjugation of the imperfect active of λύω is in order with needed treatment of augment and endings. Next the active imperfect of the contract verb φιλέω is needed for ἠσθένει. For this we need to know only that εο becomes ου and εε becomes ει and that the accent stays in the contract form where it was before contraction, the *kind* of accent being determined by the rules already learned. First declension nouns in -η are learned (for τελευτήν), also the article in full, and the conjugation of ἐλυόμην (for ἐβούλετο) and the first section is translated. Also five sentences, like Darius wishes Cyrus and Artaxerxes to be present, are written in Greek.

From now on the declension of the article with the noun is required and adjective words are declined with the nouns.

I need not go further to indicate the nature of the

[1] The circular sent out last September by Professors Gayley and Merrill of the University of California to the secondary teachers of English and Latin in California is a strong and timely plea for Greek as a prerequisite for the effective study of English and Latin in college. See THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.73.

method but may note what is accomplished during the first two weeks. In declensions we have the second entire, nearly all the first and a goodly section of the third. We have the article, the simple relative, αὐτός and the comparison of adjectives by -τερος and -τατος. We have the present active and middle indicative of the ω- verb, the first and second aorist active, together with ἔβην and ἔστην, and the present optative active. Besides, forty short sentences have been translated into Greek and we have a vocabulary considerably larger than that of the fourteen lines translated. Accent gives trouble yet both in pronunciation and writing, but we are conquering it. Not the slightest mistake is passed over without correction, and almost without exception mistakes in written work are corrected by members of the class. Better than all, teacher and students are pulling together splendidly, the game is becoming really interesting, and victory is already assured. The proverbially difficult beginning has been made, but we have been hastening slowly and we must to secure good results.

It will be evident that very little time is required each day for translating the Greek text, and so plenty of time is taken for drill on the forms. As much variety as possible is introduced into this work, oral work singly and in concert, and then the reproduction of the same on the board. The oral work trains the ear, the board work trains the eye and shows whether there is mastery of forms and accent.

One word about the prose work. From the start the English sentences are given by the teacher and translated orally by the student with no book or paper to help him. Then he passes to the board and writes the sentence there. I never allow sentences prepared outside the class to be merely copied upon the board. They must be given orally and then after criticism must be written on the board where the whole class criticises. Every needed change in the written forms, however slight, is made by the student himself. He must himself get it exactly right before he leaves it. I cannot too strongly emphasize this, for it is the secret of real mystery. I am too old-fashioned to put faith in the idea that a thing half learned and half understood will afterward 'soak in' and become a part of one's outfit half unconsciously. There is something in it but not much. It is too accidental to be reliable.

Of course it is to be understood that in every lesson very careful and complete references are given to the grammar, covering every new point that comes up. Thus the grammar is constantly in use, and the grammar habit is fixed early in the course, and a very handy habit it is—not formed by too many people either.

One criticism likely to occur to you will be that the method is a sort of hop-skip-and-jump affair, that nothing is strictly according to any method after all. Granted. The apothecary has a well assorted and systematically arranged assortment of materials for compounding any prescription you may call for. He goes to his stock, gets what he wants, puts it up as required and delivers the goods. So we go to the grammar for what we want for the task of translation immediately at hand, and we get what we want. The rest we shall need at another time and when we do need it we know where to find it, and we go after it.

In lesson 11 there is a liquid future and a first aorist middle, and we go after them, in lesson 12, a first aorist passive and ἔσται, in 13 a present subjunctive middle and a future indicative active, and so the forms accumulate. In fact when we have finished reading the first chapter of the Anabasis we have met most of the forms that we shall ever see in Attic prose, except the imperative and this appears in the third chapter. Certain important nouns like ναῦς and πατήρ come later, but we have had μήτηρ and ἀνήρ.

As soon as we have met examples of all the principal parts in the text, we systematically attack the principal parts of the verbs and the tense synopses. By way of review and to give completeness we here take up in full the conjugation of the ω- verb, the μι- verb and the contracts.

About the middle of the first term, a few lines are assigned each day from the beginning of Book II as an additional reading lesson, without grammar references, so that the student must rely upon his own resources and the notes for help. Sixty-two lessons bring us to the end of chapter 2 and then we give grammar references as they may be needed and use a book in prose composition instead of dictated sentences.

Now as to the results of the first year's work. Two books of the Anabasis have been read carefully, the forms are well in hand, the common constructions are familiar, vocabulary is in good shape, written work shows few mistakes in forms and accent, and the class is ready for Hellenica, Lysias, and Homer in the following year, Plato and the drama in the third.

But isn't it drudgery for the teacher? Not a bit of it. Each year I enjoy my beginners' class as much as any work I do, and have learned to make it tell on all the subsequent work, and I have a feeling that the number of wrinkles developed in the brains of my pupils by the study of Greek will compare favorably with that produced by any other study requiring the same length of time. And the delight of seeing students begin to sit up and take notice, of seeing the sparkle of interest in their eyes, is wonderfully satisfying.

The future of Greek rests largely with the teacher of Greek, and any workable plan may prove suggestive. This is my apology for discussing a plan no

better, it may be, than many another. In Greek study old methods must largely pass away or undergo large modifications. Curious philological research belongs to the field of the specialist in the university. To us belongs rather the study of Greek as a polished instrument of human thought, which enshrines some of the world's greatest literature and is needed as the explanation of most that is great in the literature of all later times.

The problems of elementary Greek are to awaken interest, develop enthusiasm, secure mastery, give self-control and the grasp that makes for real culture. The teacher who secures these results is a Μαραθωνομάχης and has, in his own little field, put the barbarians to flight.

GEORGE ABNER WILLIAMS.
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REVIEWS

Cicero: Tusculan Disputations, I.II.V. Edited with Introduction and Notes by H. C. Nutting. Boston: Allyn and Bacon (1909).

Of the longer philosophical works of Cicero the Tusculan Disputations throw, perhaps, the clearest and most general light upon Cicero's attitude of mind toward Greek philosophy, and it is somewhat remarkable that they have not been more frequently studied in the college classroom. A good American edition for classroom use has long been needed. Aside from Professor Nutting's book, the nearest approach to it, since the days of Charles Anthon, has been a recent volume (1903), good so far as it goes, but containing only the first book of the Tusculanae (together with the Somnium Scipionis), edited by Professor Rockwood and published by Ginn and Co.

That Cicero's philosophical writings, especially those of a highly speculative character, are less often read to-day in American colleges than they used to be—say thirty or forty years ago—seems to be a fact. Several causes have contributed to this partial neglect of a great author. Owing to the College entrance requirements the young student gets a taste of Cicero always in the schools. The College teacher, who is anxious that his pupils should in the long run be introduced to as many Latin authors as possible, finds in this feature of the school curriculum an excuse for filling in the limited time at his disposal with the study of writers other than Cicero. The extensive editing of the Classics which has been going on for more than a score of years has greatly increased the body of Latin literature available for classroom use, so that authors who, a quarter of a century ago, were hardly thought of for this purpose are now presented to us in the most attractive form. Moreover not a few teachers are lacking in genuine appreciation of speculative literature, and have become a little impatient of the somewhat trivial treatment of philosophic problems, which characterizes, in some degree at least, the great Roman orator's manner of dealing with his Greek originals. These teachers have recourse to the new publications just referred to, and in consequence the works of Cicero have, to some extent, been thrust aside.

But however unimportant may be a part of what Cicero has to say on the subject of philosophy, one thing at least should not be allowed to escape notice. Were it not for Cicero's endeavors to make the speculations of the Greeks a means of enlightenment and comfort to his countrymen, we should lack one of our most comprehensive and reliable sources of information regarding the history of speculative thought in both Greece and Rome. Deprived of this guide we should be groping in the dark about a subject which is of very positive importance to our higher educational interests, for Cicero deals with many a topic of philosophical and historical value whose significance would no longer be clear to modern scholarship, were it not that his account of it (and his alone) has survived the ravages of time.

Moreover Cicero's exposition of ancient opinion touching the immortality of the soul and the idea of God is a vivid commentary on the teachings of Socrates, Plato and their successors, and may serve to-day as a happy balance to the materialism of the great poem of Lucretius which is now a constant subject of study in collegiate courses. The idea that Cicero ought to have put forth complete and coherent treatises on all questions of a quasi-religious or psychologic character, such as may be found in modern writings, is as disproportionate and absurd as the notion that such pseudo-scientists as Democritus, Epicurus or Lucretius are deserving of harsh criticism because their manner of dealing with the atomic theory was rationalistic rather than empirical. Our chief interest in this matter attaches to the history of ideas rather than to the ideas themselves, and it is this fact that lends to Cicero's philosophical writings their permanent, if not their paramount, importance.

Professor Nutting has done his work well. Students who are fond of Cicero will regret that he did not annotate all of the Tusculan Disputations. Yet his selection has been made in accordance with the best judgment possible under the circumstances, for books I, II and V afford us all that is essential to a thorough understanding of the subject-matter of the entire work. The Latin text is mainly that of the recension of C. F. W. Müller, in the Teubner series.

The Introduction, twenty-five pages in length, leaves little to be desired. In it are contained a

discussion of Ciceronian philosophy, and an account of the several Greek schools whose variously shaded tenets underlay the philosophic thought of the time, and reflected the researches and conclusions of such teachers as Pythagoras, Empedocles, Democritus, Socrates, Plato, Zeno, Cleanthes, Chrysippus, Epicurus, Xenophon, and others perhaps of less prominence and importance. Professor Nutting's English style is clear and engaging, and the essay, as a whole, makes excellent reading. Following the Introduction are a Brief Bibliography—perhaps a little too brief—and a Synopsis or digest of the printed text. The synopsis occupies the space of ten pages, is carefully constructed, and will undoubtedly serve as a help to the "inexperienced reader" in following the "connection of thought". Such a résumé, however, although of practical value to the specialist, is of doubtful interest to the average undergraduate; for his purposes the better plan is, in our judgment, to incorporate all such assistance in the commentary.

The Notes (pp. 131-291), are distinctly helpful and illuminating, although at times we may wish for a note where none exists, or for further guidance where the note given seems hardly adequate. For example, *magnitudo* (page 27, line 5) might be made plainer by the suggestion that the word *memoriae* is understood. A note on *similem* (page 87, line 14) would not be out of place, or else that on *mercatum* (line 15) should be amplified. But omissions of this sort, if they are omissions, are always on the side of brevity, which is both their compensation and their justification. The illustrative material, although well chosen, is by no means in excess as regards its amount—a feature of the work that will commend it to most minds, although it is evident that the editor was influenced in this particular by the necessity to be brief. The greater part of this material is drawn, very properly, from Cicero's own writings, but occasional departures from the rule have been made to advantage. The parallel passages are usually quoted in full, and with evident understanding of the fact that mere citation is rarely appreciated by the youthful student.

The translations are numerous. Here again the editor has succeeded in throwing light that is both penetrating and suggestive. Of all possible means of elucidation that afforded by translation is the most delicate and difficult. A good translation may be immeasurably helpful; a poor one is usually misleading. But what is good translation? This is a question about which opinions have always differed. The reviewer can only say in this instance that Professor Nutting's renderings very seldom do less than justice to the English tongue, while they bring out with marked precision and distinctness the meaning of the Latin; in general they steer a reasonably safe course between an excess of paraphrase on the one hand and that extreme of literalness on the other which often is not English translation at all.

Following the notes are two indexes, one of proper names in the text and the Introduction, the other of miscellaneous matters referred to in the Introduction and the Notes. The second is evidently not meant to be exhaustive. Misprints are few in number. Instead of *Au* we should of course read *An*, on page 7, line 15, of the text, and on page 88, line 10, *autum* should be corrected to *autem*.

The book is a valuable contribution to Ciceronian literature, as well as a convenient and attractive manual for the classroom.

UNION COLLEGE. SIDNEY G. ASHMORE.

Roman Life and Manners under the Empire, by Ludwig Friedländer. Authorized Translation of the Seventh Enlarged and Revised Edition of the Sittengeschichte Roms. Vol. III by J. H. Freese. New York: E. P. Dutton and Co. (1910).

The third volume of this work (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.52) makes the welcome announcement that "a supplementary volume, containing the Notes and Excursuses omitted from the seventh (popular) German edition, translated by Mr. J. H. Freese, will be published in 1910".

This volume, which brings the book itself to a conclusion, and is provided with an index, is a great improvement on the first and seems somewhat better than the second. It is not free from errors and defects, as is shown by the occurrence of such a sentence as, "It is doubtful whether he possessed any, or how much, real talent for poetry" (p. 31), where the German has been followed more closely than good English usage permits. On the contrary in the statement (p. 4) that the tenth satire of Horace's first book was written several years *later* than 26 B. C., Friedländer's plain statement that it was written *before* that date is either misunderstood or disregarded. "10 ases", on p. 38, is probably a misprint, although the reviewer is warned by experience not to be too free in making conjectures (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.62). The index seems to be inadequate. Under *Augustus*, for instance, but two references are given, both to passages in the third volume. Friedländer has in the indices to the three volumes of his sixth edition no less than 16 references under *Augustus*, and if he included such casual references as the second of Mr. Freese's, this number would probably be more than doubled. Under *Augustalis* there is no reference to 3.165, where a definition of the term is given. This definition, by the way, is not an accurate one, or is at least incomplete, since it disregards the Augustales outside of Rome.

The reviewer has been informed privately that the publishers have commissioned Mr. Freese to

revise Mr. Magnus's volume. If he will then revise his own volumes, we shall have, with the notes and excursuses, a very valuable book.

University of Pennsylvania. JOHN C. ROLFE.

CONFESSIONS OF A PROFESSOR

While our colleges of liberal arts are groaning with their regrets, their misgivings, and their sins, Prof. Grant Showerman has seen and stepped into an opportunity. In a book of essays, entitled "With the Professor", he attempts, with a limpidity of style and a gentle temperance recalling the Elia of Cambridge, Mass., to relieve the stuffed bosom of higher education by ingenuously revealing to the world the present sensitive and uneasy state of the professorial mind, its inner conflicts, and its discordant environment. In the course of his lucubrations this very typical academic gentleman pretty nearly exhausts the stock topics of academic society: salaries, receptions, cost of living, merits of teachers, research, and educational policy. Readers in university communities, East and West, will find themselves testifying to his representativeness by exclaiming "That's our college through and through", "That's I" or "me"—according to their grammatical faith.

But to represent things from certain points of view is to satirize them; by virtue of his humanistic standpoint "the Professor" is a satirist. In these days of universal elective franchise no one knows the object of education; the object of educators, however, or, more accurately speaking, of their wives and daughters—is "getting on". The rising young instructor, therefore, is compelled to be a hypocrite. He must devote his energy to doing things in which he does not believe—writing articles on "Terminations in T" and "Suffixes in S"—in order to win the hollow approbation of the learned, which leads to promotion. "The Professor" entertains a rather undignified conception of the function of the various scientific and philological journals. He is so cynical as to suggest that contributors should be obliged to pay regular advertising rates. One does not like to think that there is any occasion for such stringent measures.

Behind the satirist, however, is a dismayed and bewildered believer in humane culture—the pensive and melancholy Ossian of contemporary education. He stands by the graves of Homer and Virgil, and mourns for the bygone days. Since the great educational revolution and the irruption into the colleges of the Third Estate, he has witnessed the defeat, demoralization, and dispersal of the intellectual nobility. A new and alien order of mechanics, engineers, business men, farmers, linguistic cranks, and scientific pedants possesses the field. Their means are not his means, nor their ends his ends. He is among them but not of them; he moves with them, but keeps step to another drummer. He is something of a sentimentalist; he expresses his dissent with the sound of a harp, when the crisis calls for a trumpet. In his ability to excite sympathy with his ideals and in his inability to suggest or institute practical reforms—in his quite resourceless idealism—Professor Showerman's "Professor" fairly symbolizes the faculty of liberal arts in a large university.

"The Professor", like many contemporary humanists, imagines that his melancholy arises from his recollection of the old regime. As a matter of fact, it arises from his ignorance of the history of education. Hearing him talk, one would be led to suspect that in the good old times before President Eliot students were fired with an inhuman love of liberal culture for its own sake. As a matter of fact, Ascham and Peacham and Milton and Locke and Chesterfield advocated a liberal education primarily because it was the most valuable and practical training for a liberal career. The scholar-gentleman contemplated in the aristocratic classical curriculum was destined for activities calling constantly into play both gentlemanliness and scholarship. He was destined for a part in good society and a part in public life; for these definite ends he was supplied with ancient and modern languages, ancient and modern history, philosophy, logic, rhetoric, etiquette, and the graces. There was a clearly shaped educational policy, because there was a clearly conceived educational object. "The Professor" is in despair, because he feels a hopeless and entirely untraditional desire to transform all students into scholars and gentlemen—a desire which Burke would have told him is at war with nature.

"The Professor" has a very pretty chapter in which he rejoices that the pursuit of culture is his means of livelihood. To put it in brutal English—he needs languages, literatures, history, philosophy, rhetoric, etiquette, and the graces *in his business*. But the teacher of classics is not unique in needing these things. They are needed also by men of letters and teachers and critics of literature, by historians and philosophers and teachers of philosophy and history, by editors, publishers, clergymen, college presidents, diplomats, and statesmen. For these classes, at least, a liberal culture is the most definite kind of training for "success in life". In this age of intolerance for purposeless and indolent Goodness and Beauty, perhaps the hope of future usefulness for the college of liberal arts lies in frank competition with its rivals not for the women and weaker brethren, but for the young men of ambition and promise, desiring to qualify themselves for the careers—more numerous now than ever before—open to liberal scholars and gentlemen. If it would but condescend to inscribe over its portals, "We, too, train for life", it could reduce the chaos of election, form an educational policy, give what is now demanded of every college, and at the same time gain what it privately desires.—From *The Nation*, April 7, 1910.

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In the English report on German Schools referred to in the last issue there is an interesting chapter on the teaching of grammar in which it appears that a good deal of the work is done on the inductive principle.

We want to lead up to the accusative and infinitive which occurs in the next piece in the reading book. Instead of starting with the rule "After verbs *declarandi et sentiendi* the subject stands in the accusative case and the verb in the infinitive mood, the predicate agrees with the subject in the accusative", we refer back to two sentences which have already occurred in the reading book. *Videmus stellas in caelo esse. Credo hominem probum esse.* These may be literally translated and similarly we may say "I know the man to be honest". *Scio hominem probum esse.* But, while we cannot say, "I hear the man to be honest", still less, "I hear the man to have been ejected", or "to be about to die", this is the regular way of stating a fact after a verb of knowing, thinking or stating in Latin. Then the translation may begin; each sentence with a new construction is written on the board, the principles of the construction are noted once more, and are formulated by the class. Immediately they are exercised *viva voce* in the new construction, using the words of the sentences just construed and the rest of the available vocabulary and ringing the changes on the sentences by varying the gender, number, voice, etc., until every member of the class is familiar with the formidable phenomenon. Then, and not till then, the grammar is opened; the rule is read and the examples to be memorized are fixed and underlined.

One of the features of the Reform Readers is that in the vocabulary (*Wortkunde*), which is a separate book, there are at certain intervals collections of the syntactical usages which have occurred, and the points in which the Latin idiom differs from the German are especially noted. In the same way the vocabulary gives the French words which are derived from the Latin.

Masters are constantly asking, "What other instances of the accusative case have we had?" A boy in reply gives a Latin sentence out of the reader, translates it, and says what the function of the accusative was in that sentence; another boy gives another sentence in the same way illustrating another use, and so on. Thus I found a class which had learned Latin for no longer than four months was able to give without hesitation instances of *cum causale* taking the subjunctive, *cum historicum* also taking subjunctive, *cum temporale* and *cum iterativum* with the indicative. The same class, on reaching a simple sentence with *oratio obliqua,* were asked, "Is this the only construction after verbs of declaring and perceiving?" Answer, "No, there is *non dubito quin* . . . with the subjunctive". "How do you translate this?" "I do not doubt that . . , " "What other ways are there of translating *that?*" "*Oraverunt ut* . . . " How do you translate the negative of *that?* They begged them *not* to . . . "*Oraverunt ut ne* . . . " In each case the boy in answering quoted a complete sentence from the reader. The teacher, after the class, showed me his book, in which he had carefully noted with red ink the sentences where he had called attention to new forms of accidence, and with green ink the sentences which had served to "induce" some rule of syntax.

The Reform Schools in Germany make a great use of French, which isstudied before Latin because the French vocabulary with which the students are already acquainted is so largely Latin and because they have had some drill in formal grammar. German boys have also had drill in formal grammar from the study of their own tongue. There is a tendency on the part of English teachers to approve of beginning the study of languages with French so that from it may be gained that knowledge of formal grammar which seems to be impossible in English. It will, however, be remembered that so far as vocabulary at least is concerned, the English language is itself as good for practical purposes as French to supply the antecedent Latin vocabulary to pupils, owing to the proportion of Latin words that have come over into English. The only advantage that would accrue, therefore, from the study of French before Latin would be in the knowledge of formal grammar. This is unquestionably a great gain but a great deal could be done even here by a proper study of English or by correlation in the general teaching of the schools. In Germany this correlation is very carefully worked out; thus the course in Greek and Roman history in the schools is parallel to the study in Latin of stories from mythology and heroic legends of Greece and Rome. The same thing applies to other years; e. g. while reading Vergil's Aeneid II in Latin a study is made in another class of Lessing's Laocoon. The result is that in one year's intensive work in Latin the teacher is able to cover the ground which would have taken between two and three years had the pupil begun at nine instead of twelve.

The results of this careful preparation are astonishing. An average class begins Caesar in its second year, and in the course of the year reads the first five books through and selections from Book VI together with 700 lines of Ovid.

Can we in this country imagine a second year class reading five books of Caesar, part of the sixth, and 700 lines of Ovid? There is, to be sure, more time given to Latin in the curriculum than with us, for

while we have in the first year five periods of work the German has eight, but the difference of time does not account for everything.

This report, as I remarked, gives abundant food for thought and not merely this, but actual practical suggestions in regard to any number of questions which are constantly coming up. For the sake of completeness I give the following list of chapters: Time Allowance, Co-ordination of Knowledge, Oral Work, Grammar, Translation, Unseen Translation, The Importance of the Subject-Matter, Reading of Authors, Composition, The Teacher. G. L

DRAMATIC IRONY IN TERENCE

Bishop Thirlwall's essay On the Irony of Sophocles (The Philological Museum 2. (1833), 483 ff.) is well known, and in Shakespeare as a Dramatic Thinker Professor Moulton has devoted one chapter to dramatic expression in intrigue and irony. But, so far as I know, no similar study has been attempted for ancient comedy. It has therefore seemed to me that an examination of Terence's usage might well prove both interesting and profitable.

Irony is, of course, a mode of speech by means of which is conveyed a meaning contrary to the literal sense of the words, and may be divided into two classes—'verbal' and 'practical' (to use Thirlwall's term) or 'dramatic'. In the former the dissimulation is manifest to all concerned, else the sarcasm, passing unrecognized, would fail of its effect and recoil upon the speaker, while in the latter (which alone interests us here) concealment of the hinted truth is essential. It may be the speaker himself who fails to perceive the inner meaning of his own words (and then we call it 'objective' irony), or he may employ 'subjective' irony, i. e. consciously use his superior knowledge to gloat over his victim or inveigle him to doom by an ambiguous utterance. In either case, however, the *double entente* is usually known to the audience, a considerable part of whose pleasure consists in viewing with prophetic insight the abortive efforts of the dramatic characters to escape the impending catastrophe.

An excellent instance of conscious irony occurs in Middleton and Rowley's Changeling III.2. There De Flores is guiding Alonzo about the castle where he intends to murder him, and significantly says:

> All this is nothing: you shall see anon
> A place you little dream on.

When Odysseus, disguised as a beggar, learns that Penelope is ready to abandon the long struggle and yield to the suitor that can show sufficient skill with his bow, he comforts her with words whose truth she little realizes:

> Lo, Odysseus of many counsels will be here, before these men, for all their handling of this polished bow, shall have strung it, and shot the arrow through the iron (Od. 19.585 ff).

The unconscious irony, however, is likely to be more tragic in its tone. So, when Iago first conceives his groundless suspicions of his wife and Othello, he vows that he will be

> evened with him, wife for wife (Othello II.1),

and these words are fulfilled in a sense far different than he intended, by the death of both wives. For this sort of irony Sophocles was especially renowned, and his Oedipus Tyrannus abounds in instances.

It is possible to draw still one more distinction. Dramatic irony consists not only in the contrast between the outer, apparent meaning and the real, inner meaning of an ambiguous phrase, but also in the contrast between the real and the supposed situation. Thus, a man whose ruin is impending often mistakes the position of his affairs so utterly as to indulge in entirely unjustified expressions, feelings, gestures, or acts of rejoicing and triumph. The difference between these two varieties of dramatic irony may be seen in Sophocles's Trachiniae. In the first place, we have the contradiction between the real meaning of the oracle that Heracles's "release from toils will be accomplished" and Heracles's own mistaken interpretation thereof; and, in the second place, there is the 'irony of situation' in that Deianira sends him a gift which she hopes will woo back his love but which actually results in his death. Euripides's Bacchae offers other examples in the boastful and confident attitude of Pentheus, whom the spectators know to be doomed to a frightful end, and in the mock humility of Dionysus, whose intended vengeance they forsee. Again, in the Oedipus Tyrannus there is a striking contrast between the intended and the actual effect, when the Corinthian messenger informs Oedipus that Polybus was not his father. This irony of situation often consists in the clash or shock of conflicting intrigues, as Professor Moulton (op. cit., 211) has shown in his analysis of Shakespeare's Measure for Measure.

After this preliminary survey, we may turn to Terence. In the Andria Simo intrigues to test his son's obedience by pretending that he has arranged an immediate marriage for him with Chremes's daughter. Accordingly, there is irony of situation in the consternation which this false announcement causes (I.5; II.1). Pamphilus's slave (Davus), however, soon sees through the trick and persuades him to turn back the intrigue (and, consequently, the irony) upon his father by apparent compliance (420 ff.). But Simo at once proceeds to get Chremes's consent in fact, so that the dramatic situation is again reversed, as the too clever slave discovers to his surprise when he facetiously inquires why the wedding is being delayed (581 ff.). Especially galling are Simo's words (said without a full comprehension of how true they are):

> nunc te oro, Daue, quoniam solus mi effecisti has nuptias,
> ....corrigi mihi gnatum porro enitere (595 f).

There is also irony in the conduct of Charinus,

who is a suitor for Chremes's daughter and is naturally (though needlessly) disturbed at the thought of Pamphilus's marrying her (II.1,2,5; IV.1,2; V.5). Of course, there is always irony involved when a man leads himself astray or allows another so to lead him; but as these are the standard themes of comedy, one can not cite every such instance.

The best instance in this play, however, can be appreciated only on second reading or as the memory of the spectator recalls its real significance. Simo wishes his son to marry Chremes's daughter, but Pamphilus's affections are already pledged elsewhere. Now, unknown to all the parties concerned, this sweetheart is also Chremes's daughter. There is, therefore, more meaning than he intends or perceives in Pamphilus's despairing question.

nullon ego Chremetis pacto adfinitatem effugere potero? (247).

This is similar to Admetus's words in Euripides's Alcestis 1102, when Heracles insists that he receive into his home a veiled woman (really Admetus's own wife restored to life):

Would you had never won her at a wrestling bout! But in the present instance the identity of Pamphilus's mistress does not transpire until later, so that, as I have stated, the irony is not at first apparent. This point can well bear amplification. The ancient tragic poet enjoyed a great advantage over comic poets or modern playwrights (in either field), since the general outlines of his plots were known to his audience in advance. As Antiphanes says in his Ποίησις (Meineke 3.105 f.):

> Tragedy is a happy creation in every respect, since the audience knows the plot before ever a word has been spoken. The tragic poet needs only to awaken their memories. If I barely mention Oedipus, they know all the rest: that his father is Laius, his mother Jocaste, who are his sons and daughters, what he has done, and what will befall him......This is not possible for us, but we must invent everything; new names, preceding events, the present circumstances, the catastrophe, and the exposition.

Consequently, in tragedy the irony of a situation or ambiguous phrase would be recognized at once without any preparation for it whatsoever, while in ancient comedy and in modern plays generally these effects have to be led up to. Two other considerations ought also to be mentioned, however. First, audiences exercise a sort of clairvoyance in looking beneath the bare words and divining the course of events so that (paradoxical as it sounds) the surprises of the stage usually are long foreseen by the spectators and only the expected events happen. Secondly, the *denouement* here in question, the discovery that Pamphilus's sweetheart is the daughter of free parents and, in particular, of some one among the *dramatis personae*, was so hackneyed in New Comedy[1] that any frequent theater-goer would have been on the lookout for it and might easily have recognized any subtle effects dependent thereon.

[1] It occurs in four out of Terence's six plays.

Good examples of dramatic irony are afforded by the Heauton Timorumenos. By lack of sympathy with his love affairs Menedemus has driven his son Clinia from home but has long since grown repentant and longs for his return. A neighbor, Chremes, intrigues to get Clinia back without at the same time putting Menedemus completely at his mercy. But without Chremes's knowledge his own son (Clitipho) is also in love, and a counter intrigue is formed to take advantage of the father's ignorance. To facilitate his plans, Chremes receives Clinia and (as he supposes) his mistress (Bacchis) and her maid into his home; but Bacchis is really Clitipho's mistress, and the maid Clinia's. The irony of the resulting situation is apparent, particularly in Chremes's misdirected commiserations at Bacchis's extravagance. Addressing Menedemus, he says (455-463; similarly, 749 ff):

> nam unam ei (Bacchidi) cenam atque eius comitibus
> dedi, quod si iterum mihi sit danda, actum siet.
> ....
> Quid te futurum censes, quem adsidue exedent?
> ita me di amabunt ut me tuarum miseritumst,
> Menedeme, fortunarum.

The old men suppose Clinia to be in need of funds and Menedemus is willing to supply him; but, in order that Clinia may not become accustomed to the granting of such requests, Chremes advises his neighbor to allow himself to be tricked. While helping Menedemus carry out this deception, Chremes is himself cheated out of enough to enable Clitipho to satisfy Bacchis's demands. Chremes perceives that some trick is being devised (471 f., 514), but supposes that his friend is to be the victim. There is therefore irony of situation in the scene in which he urges his slave (Syrus) to invent some scheme and even gives an affirmative answer to the query whether he approves of slaves who deceive their masters (III.2, especially 537 f.). When assured that a plan has been found, he praises Syrus and later promises to reward him (597; 763). After he thinks the trick has been executed, he bursts into laughter at its cleverness (886 f.). Several ambiguous phrases occur. Chremes rejects one of Syrus's plans and bids him continue his efforts "but in another way" (789)—a suggestive order that the slave proceeds to obey with a vengeance. Again, when asked why he wishes Chremes to send the money by his son, Syrus equivocally replies:

et simul conficiam facilius ego quod uolo (803).

Finally, like a *leit motif* there recurs the phrase "if you but knew", which with dark humor is addressed to Chremes twice by Syrus, and once by Menedemus—after he has learned the facts (599; 770; 889). The dramatic situation in the Heauton is similar to that of a play by Goldoni which the Donald Robertson players have recently been popularizing under the title of A Curious Mishap.

The Phormio abounds in dramatic irony. During the absence of Demipho and his brother Chremes an intrigue is formed to enable the former's son to marry his dowerless sweetheart. For this purpose advantage is taken of the Athenian law providing that next of kin must either marry orphan girls or furnish them with dowers. Consequently, a relationship is invented between Antipho and Phanium, he allows a suit to go against him, and marries the girl. Upon returning home Demipho quickly learns of the wedding and, when his nephew attempts to defend Antipho, with unconscious irony describes the situation correctly (as the slave says in an aside) in these words:

Hic in noxiast, ille ad defendendam causam adest, quom illest, hic praestost: tradunt operas mutuas (266 f.)

for Phaedria is likewise in love and more hopelessly, since his mistress is a slave girl and he has no money to purchase her freedom. Now unknown to his Athenian wife and friends Chremes had been maintaining another establishment in Lemnos, and had recently gone there to bring home a daughter resulting from that union. In this he had been unsuccessful, since she had already left Lemnos and had come to Athens in search of her father. Demipho and Chremes, accordingly, begin a counter intrigue to separate Antipho and Phanium and marry the former to Chremes's daughter, when she shall be found. From these conflicting intrigues arises the dramatic irony, for the audience quickly has reason to believe that Antipho's wife and Chremes's lost daughter are one and the same person, and consequently that the plots and counterplots, so far as she is concerned, are quite unnecessary. Therefore, we recognize Chremes's mistake when he says to Demipho:

Your son's misdeed has thrown my plans awry (578), and again:

See to it, then, he marry whom we wish (670 f.), inasmuch as Antipho's misdeed has already fulfilled their plans and he has already married whom they really wished. The parasite Phormio has been the young men's accomplice throughout and in order to secure money for Phaedria he now ostensibly agrees to marry Phanium, if the brothers will furnish a dower of thirty minae. Antipho overhears this arrangement and believing it made in good faith becomes needlessly excited (626-712). There is irony also in the eagerness with which Chremes accepts this proposition (640-681, especially 716 f.), since a little delay must reveal the true situation and save his money. With grim unconsciousness of the trick he has already said:

me hoc est aequom amittere (673).

Phaedria's happiness being thus secured, Antipho and his slave (Geta) are both despondent as they contemplate their own prospects—a feeling in ironic contrast with the real position of affairs. There is further irony in the fact that Chremes considers the street (i. e. the stage) an unsafe place for explaining his daughter's identity[1] and by entering the house for this purpose enables Geta to listen at the door and thus becomes himself responsible for the divulgation of his secret (818, 865 ff.). Finally, the role of Geta is itself ironic, since he must feign devotion to his aged master but is actually loyal to his youthful one. Thus, in 398 his words *heus tu, caue* are apparently a warning to Phormio not to be impertinent but are really an exhortation to vigilance. And later he addresses Chremes with mock sympathy:

facinus indignum, Chremes, sic circumiri (613 f.).

The dramatic action of the Hecyra centers about an assault which Pamphilus had committed some months before the play opens. But owing to the darkness neither assailant nor assailed recognized the other, and this ignorance involves all the *dramatis personae* in serious confusion. For soon after the assault Pamphilus is married to his victim and, since the wedding was none of his seeking, refuses to become a husband to his wife. Consequently, as the time of her confinement approaches, Philumena seeks to conceal her condition by avoiding her mother-in-law's company and finally by leaving her husband's house and taking refuge with her parents. This action causes Laches (Pamphilus's father), who, notwithstanding his boasted penetration (214 ff.) has at no time an inkling of the real situation and yet (ironically enough) never doubts Pamphilus's being the father of the child (cf. 670), unjustly to scold his wife for driving her daughter-in-law away (II.1), and Phidippus to scold his daughter for leaving (243 ff.). In her extremity Philumena fastens the blame more securely upon Sostrata by refusing to return so long as her husband is absent (268-280). But at this jucture Pamphilus returns from a business trip and discovers his wife's condition. However, inasmuch as he is himself the cause of it, though he does not recognize that fact, his resulting lamentations and 'brain-storm' are ironic (352-407). He is, of course, unwilling to receive Philumena back into his home, but nevertheless promises not to betray her secret. But this engagement leaves him no excuse for refusing to bring back his wife except to employ the old one and say that as between his wife and his mother he chooses the latter. Thereupon, Sostrata declares her intention of leaving the coast clear for the young people by withdrawing to her country residence; and, upon Pamphilus's further refusal to yield, Laches charges him with longing for the 'wild oats' of his bachelor days. There is a touch of irony in the manner in which Phidippus accepts his explanation:

plane hic diuinat: nam id est (696)
neque illi credebam primo: nunc verum palamst (713).

[1] Of course this is merely a dramatic device to avoid repetition.

Finally, there is irony in the fact that the summoning of Pamphilus's whilome *amica* to establish the charge against him actually clears him and results in bringing out the truth and solving all difficulties. Therefore, ignorance of one fact has kept both characters and audience writhing in its ironic grasp until the end.

In the Adelphoe the dramatic irony is more serious in tone, since it involves a matter of fundamental importance. We have to do with two brothers, adherents of diametrically opposed systems of education, each convinced that his own principles are correct and his brother's false, while, unsuspected by its sponsor, each system has broken down in practice. Demea has two sons and has allowed Micio to adopt one of them. Demea himself is thrifty, strict, countrified, and sterling, and tries to inculcate these qualities in the boy he has kept for himself. On the contrary, Micio is liberal, complaisant, citified, and wishes to be the confidant of his (adopted) son. But though Micio fondly supposes that he shares all Aeschinus's secrets (55), he is unaware that the latter has violated a free girl (Pamphila) and promised to make her his wife. Similarly, Demea is ignorant that Ctesipho is in love with a cithara player. Now by seeking to aid his brother in his desires Aeschinus brings about an ironic misunderstanding—first, Pamphila's mother and slave become needlessly alarmed at his apparent faithlessness (299 ff.; 457 ff.) and, secondly, Demea is led to indulge in unfounded boasting (396 f.).

And when Syrus further leads him astray by pretending that Ctesipho had rebuked his brother, Demea punctures his narrative with expressions of gratification (405-417, similarly, 564-566), and later laments that he is always the first to learn the truth, though, as Syrus remarks in an aside, the situation is actually the reverse (546 ff.). Another ironic touch occurs in 610-680, where Aeschinus is torn with needless anxiety and vainly strives to keep his secret from Micio, who knows it already and exacts ample punishment for his son's reticence. Finally, Demea realizes the error of his ways and takes a leaf from Micio's book. By lavish distribution of favors right and left (mostly at Micio's expense) he soon isolates his brother and gains such popularity that Micio is compelled to acknowledge himself beaten and demand an explanation.

In conclusion, we have to consider the dramatic purpose of tragic irony and its effect upon the audience. Thirlwall (p. 489) pointed out:

> There is always a slight cast of irony in the grave, calm, respectful attention impartially bestowed by an intelligent judge on two contending parties, who are pleading their causes before him with all the earnestness of deep conviction, and of excited feeling. What makes the contrast interesting is, that the right and the truth lie on neither side exclusively: that there is no fraudulent purpose, no gross imbecility of intellect, on either: but both have plausible claims and specious reasons to allege, though each is too much blinded by prejudice or passion to do justice to the views of his adversary. For here the irony lies not in the demeanor of the judge, but is deeply seated in the case itself, which seems to favor both of the litigants, but really eludes them both.

This analogy is especially true when the irony arises from clashing intrigues, and the audience, admitted to the author's confidence and sitting at his side, as it were, joins with him in awarding praise here and condemnation there. Again, the playwright is the omnipotent creator and ruler of the little world that moves upon the stage. And the spectator, beholding the dramatic characters' fruitless toil and plotting, baseless exultation, and needless despondency seems to be admitted behind the scenes of this world's tragedy and to view the spectacle through the great dramatist's eyes, learning that man must be content with little, humble ever, distrustful of fortune, and fearful of the powers above. Thus, the slighter themes and less important reverses of comedy bring a *κάθαρσις* in their train no less truly than the more somber catastrophes of tragedy.

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REVIEWS

Pausanias als Schriftsteller. Studien und Beobachtungen. By C. Robert. Mit 2 Planen und 7 Planskizzen im Text. Berlin: Weidmann (1909). Pp. 347. 10 Marks[1].

The title of this book is significant. Pausanias has previously been studied as an antiquarian and archaeologist and the main consideration has been given to his sources and to the question how far his statements are trustworthy. But now Robert investigates his literary characteristics as an author and finds that the description of Greece like the dinner in Athenaeus's Deipnosophistae is simply an excuse for the account of the λόγοι (cf. Chapter I, Die Tendenz des Werkes). Pausanias was not trying to write a systematic guide-book, says Robert, and it is misleading to call him an ancient Baedeker. He is an accomplished rhetorician and "die rhetorische Wirkung steht dem Autor höher als die Vollständigkeit und Anschaulichkeit der Beschreibung". The λόγοι which form the subject of the second chapter are Pausanias's chief interest and more vital than the *θεωρήματα*, which are considered in the third chapter. This explains why Pausanias fails to mention many important monuments, since the order of his narrative is not necessarily topographical (cf. Chapter IV, Die Anordnung der Beschreibung).

The fifth chapter on Städtebeschreibungen (pp. 115-201) is the longest and best and here Robert's analysis of the different descriptions of cities by

[1] A more detailed review will appear in The American Journal of Philology.

Pausanias is most keen and elucidating. Robert divides the twenty-six such descriptions into those based on a topographical principle and those based on a systematic principle. In the first the acropolis or agora or some special building or gate-way forms the starting-point. In this way Robert is able to evolve new plans for many places; in the case of Argos, Megalopolis, and Sparta he embodies these in sketches.

In the sixth chapter, Einiges vom Stil des Autors, Pausanias is shown to be especially fond of antitheses, synonyms, effective endings, chiasmus, balanced sentences, paraphrase and perissology, but above all of oratio variata or antipathy to repetition of similar words. This striving after variety can also be seen in the character of the books themselves. "So sind die Lakonika historisch, wenigstens im Sinne des Autors, die Messeniaka romanhaft, die Achaika novellistisch, die Eliaka antiquarisch gefärbt und von dem stark landschaftlichen Charakter, den die Phokika tragen, haben wir soeben gesprochen. Also in jeder Beziehung ein Belletrist."

The seventh chapter, Der Gesamtplan des Werkes, investigates the time of composition and publication of the periegesis. According to Robert it appeared in four parts, the Attica, as far as I.39, about 160 A. D., Book I.39.4-IV between 160 and 174 A. D., Books V-VII about 174, and Books VIII-X ff. after 177 A. D. However, Robert does not believe that Pausanias journeyed through Greece in the same piecemeal way but that he had all his material ready when he began to write. His argument (p. 236 ff.) that Pausanias wanted to put the Arcadica after the Messeniaca but modified his intention seems rather weak, since he can find no reason for the change. The work is not complete as it is; originally there were thirteen or fourteen books. Robert maintains that the view that Pausanias himself did not finish his work is wrong and contends that three or four books have been lost since the time of Stephanus of Byzantium.

The eighth chapter is entitled Lebenszeit und Heimat des Autors. Born under Hadrian about 115, Pausanias wrote under Antoninus Pius and Marcus Aurelius, taking about twenty years to finish his description of Greece. Pausanias came from Damascus and not from Magnesia on Mt. Sipylus, as most archaeologists contend. He is identical with the sophist of the same name who went from Syria to Rome and wrote a work on Syria. Robert's main argument here as often rests on a change of text in Pausanias, in this case in 8.43.4.

This volume of studies concludes with two appendices on Delphi and the Athenian Agora. Here, as throughout the whole work, there are some good suggestions but too many mere conjectural hypotheses. For example, the Sicyonian treasury at Delphi is called Spartan simply because the Dioscuri are represented in the sculptures, and the treasury next to the west, which is either Cnidian or Siphnian, is labelled Argive because the artist's signature on the frieze is said to be Argive. But the inscription has no Argive lambda, as Wilhelm has shown in his recent b[illegible], Beiträge zur Inschriftenkunde. Only excavations can decide definitely whether Robert is right with regard to his arrangement of the Athenian agora (cf. the plan on p. 330), which he makes much smaller and places further east than other topographers. The so-called Theseum becomes a temple of Aphrodite rather than the temple of Hephaestus. In brief, although Robert's book is full of bold hypotheses and conjectures, he has done a real service in calling attention to the neglected rhetorical and belletristic qualities in Pausanias. In the future the archaeologist will have to take into account the studies and observations of Robert, when the text of Pausanias is used to determine the topographical location of a monument.

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De Infinitivi Finalis vel Consecutivi Constructione apud priscos Poetas Graecos. By Charles Jones Ogden. New York: The Columbia University Press (1909). $1.00.

This work belongs to the Columbia University Studies in Classical Philology; it is the thesis offered by the author as part of his work for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

In a brief Praefatio the author states his reasons for considering such a work desirable, mentioning several works of others and their defects. He begins with the earliest authors with a view to laying the foundation for a similar study of the rest of ancient Greek literature. The works examined are the Iliad, the Odyssey, Hesiod, the Homeric Hymns, the fragments of other early epic poems, the fragments of early elegiac and iambic poems.

The work is divided into two parts, the first on the Iliad and the Odyssey, the second on the other poems just enumerated. In a Prooemium is briefly treated the question of classification, and that of the author is stated as follows:

I, subiectum verbi principalis est subiectum infinitivi;

II, obiectum verbi principalis est subiectum infinitivi;

III, a, obiectum verbi principalis est obiectum infinitivi;

III b, alia ratio intercedit inter infinitivum et accusativum aut alium casum obliquum cum verbo principali coniunctum;

IV, infinitivus pendet ex enuntiato statum significante.

This classification sufficiently indicates the general character of the investigation. The work is done thoroughly and in a lucid manner; but it would be useless here to summarize the details or results.

The book contains 60 pages of clear, concise Latin. It well accomplishes its purpose, and it is to be hoped that the author, or some one else equally capable, will build upon the foundation thus laid.

UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA. MILTON W. HUMPHREYS.

PROFESSOR REID'S LECTURES

On March 14 in his third lecture, Professor Reid said that we are apt to think of Rome as civilizing Europe, but before beginning that task she had done similar work in the Italian peninsula. At first she was not master in her own house: Liguria, for instance, was not really conquered until the time of Augustus; nor was communication between Italy and Rome secure till that time, nor were the tribes on the Alps subdued. We cannot trace the steps in the process of assimilation which went on throughout Italy. Local differences were tolerated; some towns remained Greek until a late period; Naples was regarded by Statius as a Greek city. There were two main types of Italian towns, those which had Roman citizenship, and those with the Latin franchise. This distinction lasted even after the Social War. After the time of Julius Caesar the Latin towns received Roman rights. Politically speaking, when voting in the Roman assembly was abolished, it did not make much difference whether a man had Roman or Latin rights, but socially the difference was very important. Finally the Latin grade came to be used as a step in civilizing towns. This use of the Latin franchise is very important and interesting, and Latinitas changed its meaning. For instance, after the Social War, in 89 B. C. the Gaulish towns in North Italy, which were practically barbarian, received the Latin franchise; later Julius Caesar gave them Roman rights.

The policy of expansion was settled once for all by Caesar—the heir of Flaminius and the Gracchi. Augustus carried on the process. Due consideration was given to the history, prejudices, social system, etc., of each region. Rome had no prepossessions in favor of a uniform plan. Gaul furnishes a remarkable instance of the wisdom and tolerance of the Roman government. The province in the South with Narbonne as its capital had been Latinized to a considerable extent before Caesar's time, but even in the province there were backward tribes, and their prejudices had to be conciliated. The modern town of Nimes began as a collection of little townships with a new town in its center, and at first had only Latin rights, but before the end of the reign of Augustus a degree of Latinization had been reached which allowed the whole community to become Roman citizens. This is an illustration of the process that went on throughout the West. Outside the province there were at first no urban institutions at all. All towns there were created by Rome.

In Germany the towns were mostly fortresses; the inhabitants were not thought fit to have any measure of local government. There are historic causes for this—the Roman and the German genius were hostile, and it was difficult for them to coalesce. The sub-Alpine peoples were gradually subdued, and by the time of Nero the Latin franchise was given to them.

Britain offered strenuous resistance to Rome. Towns of the regular Roman pattern were rare. Camulodunun (Colchester or Maldon?) was the first. London does not seem ever to have been municipalized as a Roman township. The Italian atmosphere was created rather by *contact* with military settlements, etc., than by institutions.

Spain was not thoroughly subdued till the time of Augustus, but in the South, by the end of the Republican period, Italic culture was more advanced than anywhere outside Italy, not excepting Narbonne and Sicily (Cicero's reference to the school of poets at Corduba owes its point to the production of olive oil there—which flavored their verse). Spain received much attention from Caesar, who had gained his fame as a soldier there. Augustus finished his task in laying out towns in Spain—a work on a vast scale. He left a mark everywhere, but nowhere more than in Spain.

G. M. HIRST.

BARNARD COLLEGE.

The Classical Association of New England held a very successful meeting at Hartford, on April 1-2. The attendance was good, especially at the opening session on Friday afternoon. One very pleasant feature of the entire meeting was the fact that abundant opportunity was given for those present to meet one another. The papers dealt largely, in one way or another, with the difficulties besetting the teacher in the preparatory schools. Several papers, however, were more or less informational rather than pedagogical in character. Of these mention may be made of Roman Law and Roman Literature, by Dr. James J. Robinson, of the Hotchkiss School, which we are to hear at the coming meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States, Vergil in the Age of Elizabeth, by Professor K. C. M. Sills, of Bowdoin College, Rome's Heroic Past in the Poems of Claudian, by Professor C. H. Moore, of Harvard University, and Integer Vitae, by Professor G. L. Hendrickson, of Yale University (see for this paper The Classical Journal, April). It was a very great pleasure for the second time to be privileged to convey to the Classical Association of New England greetings from The Classical Association of the Atlantic States (Professor Lodge, the duly appointed delegate, was unable to be present). The New England Association made a gain in members during the last year, and now has nearly 350 members. C. K.

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The march of iconoclasm goes merrily on. The latest step is taken by Mr. B. F. Harding, teacher of the Classics in the Milton Academy, who contributes to the April number of Education an article on Secondary Education. Taking for his text the assumption that the evolution of education follows one general law, namely, to instruct the youth according to the demands of the age in which he lives, he proceeds, after an historical background, to formulate the demands of the present age. In his brief historical sketch he remarks that the majority of the Greeks were uneducated and that Greek literature was the work of scholars who kept on specializing after the early training in music, grammar and gymnastics. He reiterates that the ancient Greeks studied no other tongue than their own and that the ancient Romans had a very simple form of early education along practically the same lines with emphasis on the study of the laws of the land, and an abrupt cessation of literary work at the age of seventeen, except in the case of the few specialists in higher education as in Greece. Similarly, in the Middle Ages, education, as we understand it, was the privilege of those who had leisure to study.

These remarks are preliminary to showing that the education to which we have been accustomed, with its emphasis on the Classics, is not fitted to the demands of the present day. He asserts with truth that comparatively few of our High School pupils enter college and maintains that, inasmuch as the High School is the end of the education of most children, its training should be devoted to the instruction of those pupils, not to the few who go on to college. Coming to the Classics, he maintains that the results of the classical training in the High School are miserably small compared with the time devoted to them and therefore decides that their place should be taken by something of more immediate value to the pupil. I quote his scheme for amendment:

> I would suggest a scheme of study in which courses in elementary Latin and elementary Greek should be offered only in the last year of the preparatory school before entering the college, as an elective to be taken principally by those whose future plan of life may seem to urge upon them some preliminary acquaintance with those languages before entering college, and I would petition the colleges to reduce the requirement in elementary Latin and elementary Greek to an amount to be reasonably covered in one year by the average student in his last year at the preparatory school. In short, I feel that today the ancient classics are properly college courses to be elected either by those who intend to become scholars in those subjects or by others who think they feel the need of the special fundamentals in language that these basic languages certainly give, whereas their chief value, and it certainly ought not to be neglected, for the mass of students can be obtained in the translated literature in the manner referred to above, and in their affiliated studies. I would not, however, make the courses in art and architecture technical but rather largely illustrative, that the pupil might be able to recognize the reproduction before him and in connection with his literature recall its application. The coördination of these studies of the ancient classics in English, French and German translations should not be difficult to arrange, and this should depend on some chronologically arranged historical course, which should last throughout the pupil's entire course at school; but when the work in history for any given year was on English or American history or mediaeval history, the literature and art work should coördinate with the pupil's study in the historical course. Even then a substratum of reading of the ancient classics in translation might be worked into the various literature courses. The course in history should close with a hard drill in civics and economics in the graduating year of the pupil at school. The need, however, of an inflected foreign language for training the mind in etymology and syntax, seems to me imperative, and to take the place of such a work in a measure once filled by the Greek and Latin, I would suggest the introduction of German in the first year of our school course, and this training could be supplemented by the introduction of French the next year, a comparatively uninflected foreign language.

Mr. Harding intimates by referring to the method of teaching the Classics "as that at present adopted" and by the statement that "too much time is devoted to the teaching of the ancient classics as mere machinery for grammatical analysis, neglecting largely their literary merit", that he does not fail to observe that possibly something may be said for improving the methods of teaching the Classics and thereby obtaining better results. But of course the fundamental fallacy in his argument lies in his assumption that education in its true sense and training to meet the material environment are synonomous, so far as the work of the schools is concerned. We may grant, as we have granted, the poverty of the results of classical teaching in the schools. We may grant, as we do grant, that the results of classical teaching are ridiculously inadequate; but that does not involve the conclusion that

the classical languages cannot be so taught as to be of inestimable value in sound education (in its true sense) to all youth. Surely to relegate the foremost instrument of culture to the colleges, because the methods of teaching them are faulty, is to strike at the roots of sound learning and the best interests of our youth as a whole.

The statement that grammatical drill, such as is necessary, can be obtained from the modern languages has been so often demonstrated to be false that it hardly seems worth while to advert to it seriously; so many teachers of the Classics have found by bitter experience the inadequacy of modern language training as a preparation for the elementary knowledge of linguistic theory required in the elementary work in Latin. It is of course true that German has a considerable body of inflections, but it is impossible to develop any systematic linguistic training from German. Of course it will be at once granted that a comparatively small proportion of pupils enter college. Yet, since a comparatively small proportion of school pupils enter the High School, it hardly seems too much to demand that the school should be recognized as the place where the general foundation of universal training should be given to all; and that that body of select pupils who are able to go on to the High School course should be regarded as the potential body of specialists and cultured people which Mr. Harding intimates formed a special class among the Greeks and the Romans. I have no sympathy with those who would make every child in the land study the Classics, but the line ought to be drawn at the end of the period of compulsory education and it should be recognized that those who enter the High School are really entering the field of higher education.

G. L.

LATIN IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS III

THE THIRD YEAR

(*See pages* 140-142, 154-156)

Several circumstances combine to give the problem of Latin instruction a different aspect during this, the Cicero year. In the first place, the students are now much more mature, and begin to show an intelligent interest in their work. Even those, however, who do not work from spontaneous zeal put forth their best efforts during the third year. For, under the New York City Syllabus, a student may drop his first language at the end of the third year, provided he has satisfactorily completed his class work and has passed the requisite State Examinations. In the second place, the system of promotion by subject, according to which a student continues his work in any given study which he passes, regardless of his general standing in other subjects, has by this time borne full fruit. It is no longer possible to form large classes and fulfill the requirements of the curriculum, but students must be divided into many smaller groups. Thus the classes of the fifth and sixth terms are considerably smaller than the general rate of High School mortality would be responsible for.

These two circumstances are decidedly favorable to good teaching. On the other hand, there is the drawback of a complete change in style of author read. Before the appearance of the High School Vocabulary, I should have charged much of the difficulty to the difference in words, but that is, of course, no longer possible. Yet the fact remains that even boys who did well during their Caesar year, flounder badly in Cicero. This is perhaps not to be wondered at, if we remember the trouble that we ourselves found in reading the speeches of Demosthenes as compared with the narrative of Xenophon. Whether it would be better to do as is done in some institutions, and read Vergil before Cicero, thus waiting for greater maturity, I dare not decide. At any rate, in New York City, and, I believe, in the state in general, Cicero is the prescribed author for this year.

However, the important question before our teachers is, how can we help the student? We have tried many experiments, from beginning with pitiably small instalments for each recitation to translating to the students all of the advance lesson the day before. At present, the consensus of opinion seems to have focused on two methods. One was described by me in my second article. Students write out a literal translation of the new assignment—and by literal we understand one which absolutely follows the Latin order —, read this out in class the next day, and discuss the meaning and construction of each clause, and then for the third day are given the task of putting the lesson into idiomatic English. The second method dispenses with the independent writing, but takes up the advance lesson in class for oral discussion. The adherents of this method, however, may be again subdivided into two groups. One of these wishes to effect the same result as those who insist on the writing, viz. to teach the student how to attack a Latin sentence, and thus to give him constant, though unconscious, practice in sight reading. The other group, somewhat less idealistic, wishes to enable the student to cover a large amount of work, and therefore goes with him over the advance without insisting on the mental processes required for the former view, but giving him voluntary assistance wherever he seems in need of it.

I confess that my sympathies are with the former group. I do not wish to disparage the work of the others, in the case of our school men among our best and most conscientious teachers, but I believe that more lasting and better results are obtained by the other method. The blame, I think, lies not with the teachers, but with the system which compels us to read the four Catilinarian speeches, the Manilian law,

and the Archias speech, to read at sight, to teach Roman constitutional antiquities, history, topography, and a somewhat large amount of rhetoric, together with a smattering of derivation and the syntax of the moods, with copious prose exercises, all during these forty weeks.

To confess it, I do not believe that many of my colleagues waste much time on antiquities, history and topography. Most of them are content, I think, to trust to the notes of the school editions. Indeed, looking over the examination papers, one does not see why much time should be given to this topic. The dates of the Catilina speeches, of the Mithradatic Wars, of the Archias, the distinction between *consul, consularis, consul designatus,* the six classes of conspirators (heaven only knows why examiners are so fond of asking for these), and the Ahala-Saturninus—Gracchus revolutions—that exhausts pretty well the knowledge of facts supposed to result from the reading of Cicero. I dare say that we do a great deal more than that in showing our students the symptomatic importance of Catiline's attempted coup d'etat, the connection between Cicero's advocacy of Pompey's election and his own political advancement, and the light thrown by the Archias speech on the orator's methods of preparation. But our examination papers are serenely ignorant of these relations. And yet I have heard it said that the Colleges are arrogant in dictating to the public High Schools what and how to teach. It seems to me that this accusation is unjustified so long as teachers themselves—and I understood that secondary school teachers are responsible for the state papers —have no higher ambition than to rehash year after year the same kind of questions. Small blame to the Colleges, if they wish to do the higher teaching themselves. But the 'College for the people', which the High Schools set themselves up to be, has the right and the duty to do some of that too.

The less said of our teaching of topography the better. Certainly nothing in my experience is so depressing as the attempt to have a student locate any of the buildings named by Cicero, or so amusing as to ask for the geography of some of the places mentioned in the Manilian and Archias speeches. There remain, then, of our allotted tasks, rhetoric and derivation. Now, it is quite true that some of our text editions make a brave show of teaching rhetoric, with an analysis of the Manilian oration, finely divided into Exordium, Propositio, Partitio, Argumentatio, Confirmatio, Refutatio and Peroratio, but the attempt to teach all this in class is but very rarely made. Yet here I believe more could be done than we do. It is an old complaint of mine that our course of study lacks correlation. This is a case in point. To my mind the study of Cicero should go parallel with the study of Argumentation in English. Speeches in the native tongue, like Burke's on the Colonies, should be analyzed during the year when the student is busy with the masterpieces of Latin eloquence, and, if the two cannot always be taught by the same teacher, at least an understanding might be reached by the two departments as to what is essential for both, and as to the terms in which these essentials should be taught. On the other hand, I do not think much of the many figures that can be, and often are, taught. I do believe that the best appreciation of a literary masterpiece is his who can see the working of the tools with which it has been made. But this appreciation can be gained by understanding the process without learning the technical name of the tool. I can feel the effect of the *Cum tacent, clamant,* without having to memorize the word Oxymoron, the first paragraph of the first Catiline speech loses none of its effectiveness if I do not learn that repeating the same word in the same place of a clause is called Anaphora. These are convenient things to frame examination questions on, but they are mere labels, not things, and have only the value of labels.

What time is saved by not teaching these figures might well be given to more effective translation. In reading notes of textbooks, and in listening to work in the class room I am again and again annoyed by the colorless rendering of a brilliant passage. Perhaps I can best illustrate by an actual example what I mean. Few passages are more artistic than the beginning of the fifth chapter of the Manilian Law. The speaker is contrasting the energetic action of his ancestors, even at small provocation, with the long suffering attitude of his contemporaries toward Mithradates. His interest, then obviously is to belittle the insults of former times and to exaggerate the present ones. Thus Cicero: "Our ancestors often, when traders or seafarers were somewhat rudely treated, went to war; *you,* when so many thousands of Roman citizens have been killed by one order and at one time, in what frame of mind, pray, ought YOU to be? Because ambassadors had been addressed with a certain degree of haughtiness, Corinth, the light of all Greece, your fathers decreed must be extinguished: *you* will let that king go scot free, by whom an envoy of the Roman nation, an ex-consul, tortured by prison, by lashes, by every kind of cruelty, has been killed?" And so forth. The reader of the passage will notice the effect of the comparatives as that of diminution; yet I have both seen and heard the translation '*too* cruelly'. To retain the emphatic position of certain passages, even at the sacrifice of grammatical exactness seems to me a more faithful translation than that which slavishly tries to follow the rules laid down in handbooks on English composition, with their monotonous subject, predicate, object rule, a rule which our best writers have constantly and rightly violated.

The study of derivation, which is prescribed for this year, does not seem to have any necessary relation to the year's work. From what I said in my preceding articles it must be clear that in my opinion every year is the right year for teaching derivation, which should be a most valuable help in acquiring power, and should contribute to emancipate the student from the time waste of constant consultation of the vocabulary. Unfortunately, derivation is not often so taught, but by most of us, under the pressure of time and work, it is made a very perfunctory cram. We have worked out a single foolscap sheet, based on what has been asked for in examination papers, which contains in condensed form the necessary information, with examples, a sheet which the student is supposed to peruse and to refer to for consultation. Yet the answers received by us in examination are rarely satisfactory, and hardly ever more than half right. Perhaps the form of the questions is to blame. We discuss each time anew what may be meant by the demand to explain 'fully' the derivation of a given word; we are in honest doubt e. g. whether *tempestas* is sufficiently derived by saying it comes from *tempus* with the abstract suffix *-tas*, or whether the student ought to advert, at least, to the phonetic changes. Would it not be better to ask the student to form from certain stems nouns, etc., having a certain force? Is not synthesis a more valuable exercise than analysis?

Lastly, as to prose composition. We try hard to complete during tne third year the mood constructions. Practically our work in prose ends with this year, not only for those students who will give up Latin, but even for those who go on, as the syllabus prescribes that the fourth year shall be a review year, with exercises in prose to the amount of a period every two weeks. In consequence this year is too crowded, especially as some of the topics—conditions in indirect discourse, for instance—are surely above the understanding of third year pupils. By the way, must the indirect discourse construction of unreal conditions be taught in the secondary school? As the examination consists of connected passages, we have often discussed the advisability of teaching the writing of such passages. However, we do not, as yet, feel the need for it. As long as each sentence is anyway judged by itself, and no attention is paid to the turning into periodicity and the connection by appropriate connectives, we feel that the immediate purpose, the mastery of syntax, is best served by the writing of detached sentences. These are discussed beforehand in class; by some teachers the students are even put through an elaborate process called Romanizing, which consists in writing the English text in the shape in which it would appear, were it a literal translation from Latin. The boys rather like this added trouble, and really seem to profit very much by it. The most remarkable thing in these exercises, however, is the absolutely mechanical way in which the boys' minds seem to run in grooves. Given a body of rules and a certain vocabulary, the sentences must, they think, treat of certain topics only, and, if you use the same vocabulary and the same constructions for an exercise not giving the story of the Cicero speeches, they are completely at sea. Here, I believe, a great deal might be done by energetic teachers in working out a variety of exercises, which will train the versatility of our pupils and thereby relieve the prose composition hour of much of the undoubted monotony which it has at present in almost every class room which I have ever visited. We are trying the experiment with some classes, and we find a decided improvement in interest.

ERNST RIESS.

PROFESSOR REID'S LECTURES

In his fifth lecture Professor Reid dealt with the Romanization of Africa and the Roman influence on the municipalities of the Hellenic East. The spread of the Roman municipal system over Africa did not culminate till the end of the second century A. D. The changes which passed over the Empire can be illustrated better from African soil than from anywhere else, because it was so completely submerged. Cities were left desolate, and their remains and inscriptions can now be dug out. Africa illustrates different phases in the Roman policy of external expansion. No soil there was annexed till the destruction of Carthage in 146 B. C., and, instead of taking much, the Romans took as little as possible, merely a narrow strip on the sea. They abandoned the rich territory inland to Massinissa, and made seven cities, including Utica, free, with large territories given to each. Rome in this age was very unwilling to undertake imperial responsibilities. Not until the age of Augustus was expansion felt to be an imperial duty. The population in Africa must have been very dense. Water must have been present in larger quantities than in modern times, as we see from the baths. In some cases modern architects have been able to restore the water supply by following Roman plans. Several hundred arches of the Roman aqueduct to Carthage still exist. The remains of the towns are most imposing, and show what Roman influence could do in raising the mass of the population to a higher level.

The destruction of this great and prosperous system of municipalities affected the whole Roman empire. The first step was the mismanagement of the towns themselves. There were no *national* debts in ancient times, but plenty of *municipal* debts. The towns were often in debt to Roman capitalists. The Emperors began to look into this about the end of the first century, and appointed supervisors. The power of the supervisors grew, and the freedom of the towns was encroached upon. But the most dis-

astrous thing of all was the beginning of a universal system of taxation for the whole empire. The town Senates were made responsible for the collection of taxes, and this brought the whole system of municipal government to ruin.

Asia as a whole was subject to Hellenic influences, and the Romans did not attempt to force their own municipal system on the civilized town. But in Galatia and other barbarous regions they founded cities and gradually spread civilization. A certain number of Roman soldiers were settled in townships in Mesopotamia and other districts, but their number was insignificant in comparison with the vast extent of Eastern countries.

The sixth lecture dealt with the civic institutions of the Roman municipalities. What powers were left to towns in the West in the Imperial period?

(1) Legal jurisdiction. There was always a specific statement in the statutes as to criminal and civil jurisdiction, which was carefully divided between the town and Rome.

(2) Police and local matters were seldom interfered with by Rome, unless the local powers were abused. Powers were defined by a fundamental statute; many of these are fortunately preserved, e. g. the statute drawn up for Tarentum, when it became a Roman town in 90 B. C. The practice was to send a great nobleman from Rome to investigate local circumstances and draw up a statute, which was not imposed on the town, but accepted by it; the nobleman was an adviser. Apparently there was some understanding at Rome which allowed the statutes to vary, but required them to conform to a general type. The rules and qualifications for office in the towns resembled those at Rome. The greatest difference is that there was nothing to correspond to the tribunate. The Empire made the census universal in all towns—a necessity both for imperial and local taxation. Every five years the officers for the census were appointed, called quinquennales; it was regarded as an especially honorable office. It is surprising to find from the Spanish inscriptions that even in the time of Vespasian provision was made for holding assemblies, though these had long been given up at Rome.

Provincial councils were very important; they were appointed everywhere, especially by Augustus. They were used to put pressure on governors to get grievances redressed. Their relations with the cities were important.

What were the resources of towns, and how did they get their revenues? A great difference between ancient and modern towns is that there was no town rate or tax except in rare circumstances. Occasionally there was a water-rate, when an aqueduct was provided by the town. But the ancient town got its buildings mainly by private gifts. There was an extraordinary outflow of private wealth for municipal purposes, especially in the first and second centuries, and in the West. In the East liturgies still prevailed. Large sums also were received from fees paid by those who entered office. Temple revenues were often also available for public games, displays, etc. Towns often possessed mines, quarries, fisheries, etc., which were farmed out, and produced a large revenue, and they often had estates at a distance. So Capua received large grants of land in Crete, near Cnossos, to make compensation for losses in Italy. Most towns in the West, imitating Rome, sold grain at a low price to the poor. In most great cities water was free, but payments were sometimes required for the use of water for trade purposes. In the West there was little organized expenditure for purposes of education. Trajan founded a system for enabling poor parents to bring up their children (*alimenta*), and his example was followed throughout the Empire. Not many of these foundations, however, survived into the third century. The support of the imperial post, founded by Augustus, was very burdensome. The communities had to provide horses, carriages and entertainment, and the privilege was often abused, especially in the time of the Church Councils, because bishops on their way to attend the Councils were allowed to use the post.

All these municipal liberties were gradually encroached on, and it became increasingly difficult for the towns to meet the requirements of the central government. In the end the towns came to exist mainly as a means of getting money. This condition was largely caused by the wars of the third century, when the armies set up emperors, and the coinage was depreciated. It is very difficult to understand the cause of the decay of the Empire, because no causes seem sufficient to account for it. Some parts, e. g. Gaul, flourished even after the arrival of the barbarians, whereas in others, as in Spain, there was complete wreck. The Roman Empire and the towns themselves seemed to go to their death by a kind of blind destiny. The ruin of the independence of the towns accelerated the ruin of the Empire, which was very largely due to the fact that there was no independent life left in the towns.

Professor Reid's concluding lecture dealt with the Inner and Social Life of the Towns. In spite of the racial differences between the various provinces of the Roman Empire, there was a strong tendency for Roman civilization to level the culture of the nation, and to cause the towns to approximate to a regular standard. The strata of society within the town were sharply divided, much more so than in modern society. Still, social life brought men together more closely than at present. All classes had the same amusements. It must always be remembered that slavery was the foundation of society, and that this largely affected the life of freemen. But Professor Reid thinks that there has been a tendency to exag-

gerate the effect of slavery, and that there was as a matter of fact a steady decline in the proportionate number of slaves under the Empire. To this decline both economic causes and Stoic theories contributed. Too much influence has been attributed to Christianity; it was Roman lawyers who broke the ground. It must not be forgotten that the racial differences between slaves and their masters were not so much marked as in modern slavery. Most of the slaves belonged to races which had shown themselves capable of assimilating civilization. Still, the free laboring class both in town and country must have been much affected by the presence of slave labor.

The local aristocracy consisted mainly of the class from which the senate was drawn. This class monopolized the offices, and it was very difficult for a *novus homo* to get into it, unless he possessed great wealth. Membership in the senate carried with it various social advantages, but in later times the burden imposed by the central government became so heavy that men tried to escape from it. Fresh privileges were given to counterbalance these burdens, and by the time of Diocletian and Constantine the law had become a respecter of persons; various penalties, such as servitude in the mines, could not be inflicted on senators, and no senator could be put to death without an appeal to the Emperor.

The wealthy freedmen formed a prominent class. The idea, prevalent at Rome, that direct participation in trade was not worthy of a gentleman, spread both to West and East; therefore capital tended to accumulate in the hands of freedmen. It was felt that private wealth should be tapped for the benefit of the whole people. So colleges of freedmen, called Augustales, were formed in almost every community; freedmen were disqualified from ordinary office, but these colleges gave them a status, games, etc., of their own, and brought about a great outflow of money for spectacles, etc.

The most characteristic institution of the Imperial period is the *Collegia*, in which all manner of men were banded in groups, for purposes mainly social. They were more like a mediaeval guild than anything else, but there were many differences. Our knowledge of them is almost entirely dependent on inscriptions; there is little about them in the literature, though they formed the very warp and woof of local society. Romans always organized themselves with extraordinary readiness, and to this aptitude for voluntary organization the spread of these *Collegia* all over the West was due. Men of similar pursuits banded themselves together into a regular corporation—not a loose club. Sometimes the bond of union was some occupation; sometimes the object was the worship of some particular divinity; in the case of the poorest classes the *Collegium* was usually a burial club. The *Collegia* do not seem to have aimed at regulating work or raising wages. Their objects were mainly social—to brighten life by comradeship. Family relationships counted for less in ancient life than in modern, partly owing to the outdoor life of Southern countries. How did these institutions affect the economic condition of the poor? They were not strictly charitable, but they certainly alleviated the lot of the poor. As far as we can see, the classes were in a state of contentment; life was joyous, and its festive aspects shared by all the population. It was not degrading to receive money; in the distributions so frequently made senators received double.

BARNARD COLLEGE. G. M. HIRST.

From the Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, for February, 1910, we reprint the following two articles:

THE BOSCOREALE FRESCOES

In view of the importance of the Boscoreale frescoes acquired by the Museum in 1903, which constitute the only collection of Roman fresco-paintings in the world, except that in the Museum at Naples, it has seemed advisable to exhibit them to better advantage than has been done hitherto. For this reason a small room has been built out from the west side of Gallery 10, just large enough to contain the frescoes of the *cubiculum* (bedroom) which formerly occupied the center of that gallery. In the construction of this room great care has been taken to copy as far as possible the original chamber, of which photographs had been taken before the removal of the frescoes; thus, the mosaic floor, the arched ceiling, and the moulding running along the top of the walls have been closely studied from these photographs. The new arrangement has also made it possible for the window to be used as such, with the light coming through it. But perhaps the greatest improvement in the appearance of the frescoes is due to the introduction of top light through opaque glass panes in the ceiling. A uniform light is thus diffused throughout the room which admirably brings out the brilliant coloring of the frescoes.

The building of this *cubiculum* as a separate chamber affords an excellent opportunity for making a "Pompeian" room, by placing in it various objects of that period. We are fortunate enough to be able to make a good beginning in this direction by having at our disposal one of the most important objects ever found at Boscoreale. This is Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan's famous bronze Eros, formerly at the South Kensington Museum and now transferred as a loan to this Museum. As is seen from the illustrations, Eros is represented flying forward, holding the socket of a torch in his left hand. The figure is beautifully poised and every part of it perfectly balanced. The preservation, too, is excellent; there are no parts missing, and though a crust covers a portion of the body, enough of the surface remains unaffected, especially in the charming face, to show the beauty of the modeling. The probable date of the statue is the second or first century B. C. The subject was a popular one, as is seen from several statuettes representing flying Erotes in similar attitudes, e. g., in G. R. 32 in our collection of bronzes. Another feature of the room is a marble

table with bronze rim, also from Boscoreale, purchased in 1905, but not hitherto exhibited. It was found in pieces and was put together with some restorations, especially in the leg. The bronze rim is decorated with a beautiful design inlaid with silver and *niello*.

The removal of the *cubiculum* from the center of Gallery 10 has cleared the whole floor space of that room. It is proposed to use this for Greek sculpture in addition to Gallery 11, which is already well filled. This new arrangement will also enable visitors to see the frescoes on the walls from a greater distance than was possible formerly when the *cubiculum* stood there, as this largely obstructed the view. The general effect of the room has also been brightened by painting the walls a lighter tone, which brings out the varied colors of the paintings. G. M. A. R.

DEPARTMENT OF CLASSICAL ART

THE ACCESSIONS OF 1909

I

In Gallery 11 of the first floor, rearranged as described in another article, have been temporarily placed the acquisitions of the Classical Department made during the year 1909. . . . The consignment consists of ten marbles, nineteen bronzes (including as one item a collection of fifteen small pieces), thirty-one vases, nine figurines, and other objects in terra-cotta, and one fragment of stucco with relief. All the objects are of the high artistic standard which we are endeavoring to maintain in acquisitions made in this department. Among the marbles there are four pieces of first-rate importance. These are, besides the Old Market Woman[1], a splendid Greek Lion, similar in type to the lions from the Nereid monument in the British Museum; a fragmentary statue of a Seated Philosopher, inscribed with the name of the sculptor Zeuxis, remarkable for the fine treatment of the drapery; and a Crouching Venus, another replica of the well-known type of which the most famous copy is the statue from Vienne in the Louvre. A cast of the latter has been placed side by side with our example; a comparison of the two will show the superior workmanship of our example. . . . . . . The other marbles are: a charming small torso of Venus, a Roman portrait bust of the early Imperial period, a Roman sepulchral relief with portrait heads of husband and wife; a fragment of a centaur in *rosso antico;* and a small male head of the Roman period. Besides the above, there is another Greek marble lion of smaller dimensions, which has not yet been shipped from abroad.

The bronzes form valuable additions to our already important collection. They include: three Etruscan mirrors engraved with scenes representing Odysseus attacking Circe, Bellerophon killing the Chimaera, and Peleus and Thetis; two small statuettes, one of Herakles struggling with a lion, the other a Satyr of the same type as the well-known one in the Museum of Naples; a cista-handle in the form of two youths carrying the dead body of a third; several vase handles of divers shapes; and various utensils and objects of a decorative character. Of special interest is also a farmyard group consisting of a country cart, a plow, two yokes, oxen, goats, pigs, and sheep.

Among the vases special mention must be made of a *kylix* (drinking-cup) inscribed with the name of the maker Hieron (Ἱέρων ἐποίησεν). As we have but few signed Greek vases, an example bearing the name of one of the foremost vase painters of Athens is an acquisition of importance. This as well as a *kylix* in the style of the painter Epiktetos and a *krater* (mixing-bowl) in that of Amasis II, arrived in fragments and are being put together in our repairing shop. Each of the other vases, especially an exquisite *pyxis* (toilet-box) with an interior scene, has a special interest. An interesting accession is a group of nineteen vases consisting of a large *hydria* (water-jar) and a number of plates, cups, and jugs of the period 300-250 B. C. These were found together in one grave and probably formed a dinner service.

Of the terra-cottas, a flying Eros with admirably preserved colors, a head of a faun, and a small plaque with two women delicately incised are the most interesting. G. M. A. R.

[1] See THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.53-54,63.

THE ANTIGONE OF SOPHOCLES AT RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE

An event, very encouraging to those that still believe in the Classics, occurred at Lynchburg, Va., on March 19th. The young women of the Greek Department of Randolph-Macon Woman's College presented the Antigone of Sophocles in the original Greek. Last year, at about the same date, they presented the Alcestis of Euripides in the Greek very successfully. Many who took part in that performance appeared also in the presentation of the Antigone.

The front of the palace (with its three entrances) was decorated by the students of the Art Department, and presented so realistic an appearance that the four painted Doric columns appeared to be actual columns standing out in space.

A stage, elevated some two or two and a half feet, was used for the actors. The chorus, for want of space, did not attempt any evolutions, but each half-chorus advanced and retired backwards during the singing of a strophe or antistrophe.

The well-known music of Mendelssohn was used in the lyric parts.

The entire performance was excellent. The actors seemed to feel the force of every word they recited.

There was one difficulty which they wisely did not try to overcome. Masks, of course, were out of the question; and any attempt to array the chorus as old men would have led to ludicrous results; so they appeared simply as women. The costumes, not made as they were in ancient Athens, still presented exactly the appearance of the Attic female dress.

The spectators—a large assemblage—were provided with a concise paraphrase to enable them to follow the play. Very few, of course, followed the Greek, and only one or two of them by ear.

The whole performance was very impressive, and the young women deserve great credit for the successful execution of so ambitious an undertaking.

MILTON W. HUMPHREYS.

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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The fourth annual meeting of the Classical Association of the Atlantic States was held at The College of the City of New York on April 22-23. In many respects the meeting was a pronounced success; indeed, so far as I am competent to judge, it was as successful as could have been desired, save in one point: the attendance was not as large as might have been expected in view of the great number of teachers of the Classics resident in and near New York. However, more than 150 different persons at least were in attendance at various times, and over one hundred were present at one session Many of these came from a distance in New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania.

The dinner in the Faculty Dining Room at The College of the City of New York, on Friday evening, and the luncheon generously given by the College on Saturday afforded excellent opportunities for meeting those who were in attendance, opportunities which added enormously to the pleasure of those who availed themselves of them. The classical staff of the College—and more especially Professor Edmund Burke—did everything that was possible for the comfort of those in attendance. Finally, perfect weather lent the final charm to a meeting which many will long remember.

In this account of the meeting I shall speak first of certain items of business. The Executive Committee voted to pay out of the Association's funds the expenses incurred by two of our Delegates on the Commission on College Entrance Requirements in Latin. These two members were representatives of the schools; the expenses of the college representatives had been met by the institutions they represented. The membership of the Association at the time of the meeting was reported as 528, a gain of 103 over last year. The membership is thus, it will be noticed, steadily increasing; two years ago it was 250, last year it was 425, this year it is 528. Of the latter number over 200 have already paid their dues for the year on which we are just entering, and over 20 others have certified to their desire to continue their membership, though the new year does not actually begin till May 1. Some losses there inevitably are every year—some members remove beyond our territory or give up teaching; in other cases illness or matrimony depletes our ranks. Yet we already have for the coming year 21 new members to offset such prospective losses.

What is needed here is coöperation on the part of the members and officers. Some members can be secured by means of circulars; that work can be done most effectively from the office of the Secretary-Treasurer. But many members can be got by personal solicitation—each of us has friends or acquaintances or former pupils, not necessarily teachers but lovers of the Classics, who by a word at the right time can be induced to become members. It is worth while to remember here that membership in the Association carries with it substantial advantages even if one can never attend the annual meetings. There is, for example, the very tangible advantage of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY. The editorial heart is cheered constantly by the good things said of the paper, of its definite usefulness to those to whom it seeks to minister. There is another tangible and material advantage, in the opportunity given to members to subscribe to The Classical Journal and Classical Philology at one-third less than the regular price, a reduction which, for the two Journals together, amounts to two-thirds of the annual dues to our Association and subscription to THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY combined. For the year just closing 6 members subscribed through the Secretary-Treasurer (all such subscriptions must be made through him) for Classical Philology alone, 40 to The Classical Journal alone, and 81 for both Journals, making a total of 87 members subscribing in this way for Classical Philology and 121 for The Classical Journal. But aside from these advantages there are others which, though not tangible or to be valued in terms of money, are none the less important. Classical teachers need to organize, to avoid isolation and the stagnation that isolation brings, to gain the stimulus that comes from contact with others working in a kindred field; they need to organize also to present a phalanxed array to the opponents of the Classics, both the determined opponents whose opposition is based on grounds of importance and the unthinking, who, dressed in a little brief authority as principals or superintendents, deal the Classics a blow wherever they can—in ignorance often pitiable but none the less hurtful to our cause. A powerful organization devoted to the cause of the Classics, affiliated with other like powerful organizations, might do much to guide public opinion and to win fair play for classical interests. I often wonder, with a wonder akin to amazement, that such considerations as these do not impress themselves more readily on teachers and

friends of the Classics. Let us do what we can to make others feel these considerations, setting before ourselves the ambition of enlarging our membership in the year just opening to 750 at least.

The programme seemed to me (though perhaps I am prejudiced) a good one. An attempt had deliberately been made to keep the pedagogical side of our interests, for this meeting at least, in the background; variety has its charms. Yet the pedagogical was not neglected. Greek had a fair place. Matters definitely literary, as well as matters of pure research and text-criticism, also found room. All of the papers had interest for some of the audiences, and some of the papers interest for all. At the risk of seeming to make invidious distinctions I remark that we were singularly fortunate in the admirable address delivered by Dr. Edward Robinson on Classical Art in the Metropolitan Museum, explaining in detail the aims and purposes of the Trustees of the Museum and of those more directly in charge, and setting forth what progress has been made toward the realization of these aims.

It may be noted here that the Association has a comfortable balance in its treasury, that the subscription list proper to THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY (i. e. subscriptions by non-members) is steadily growing, and that the third volume of the paper can readily be paid for in full. The Association also owns, in connection with the paper, property which cost nearly one hundred and fifty dollars.

Resolutions were adopted extending the hearty thanks of the Association to the authorities of The College of the City of New York, for the courtesies shown, and to those who had contributed by their papers to the success of the meeting. Dr. James J. Robinson, of the Hotchkiss School, Lakeville, Conn., was present as delegate from The Classical Association of New England; Professor J. E. Harry, of the University of Cincinnati, represented the Classical Association of the Middle West and South.

The following officers were elected: President, J. B. Hench, Shadyside Academy, Pittsburgh; Secretary-Treasurer, Charles Knapp, Barnard College; Vice-Presidents, P. O. Place, Syracuse University, William F. Tibbetts, Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, William F. Little, Elizabeth, B. W. Mitchell, Philadelphia, R. B. English, Washington, Pa., Mary Harwood, Girls Latin School, Baltimore, Thomas W. Sidwell, Washington, D. C.; Editors of The Classical Weekly, Gonzales Lodge, Charles Knapp, Ernst Riess, Harry L. Wilson.

LATIN IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS. IV

THE FOURTH YEAR

(See pages 140-142, 154-156, 210-212.)

In one respect the fourth year in our school differs materially from the work of the ordinary preparatory school. As stated in my third article, the requirements of city and state are satisfied with three years' work in a foreign language. Hence, many of our students discontinue the study of Latin after completing the Cicero. Of about 120 students at the end of the third year not more than 60 take up the Aeneid. In part these are boys who intend to go to college, in part students who continue the study of Latin because they have become interested in the language. In either case the survivors from the first three years are to a certain extent the exceptional students. The advantage accruing from this fact is all the less to be despised, because more than ever we feel during this year that the course is overloaded. In the first place, the time at our disposal is now cut down from five to four periods a week. In the second place, with all the care employed in advising students during our stay with us, there are always numerous odds and ends of required work to be made up, so that most of our seniors carry a very heavy program. The problem is furthermore complicated during the second half of the year by the fact that students admitted in February and intending to enter college in September are anxious to 'double up' in certain subjects, in order to complete their course in three and a half years. This is done chiefly in English, American History and Latin. In both the former subjects, I suppose, the difficulty is felt less, on account of the non-continuous character of the work. But we feel it very keenly, for the exigencies of the program in a large institution do not allow us to do the natural thing, namely to put these boys through an eight period course. That would be an easy solution, and would have the additional advantage that a very large amount of the reading would have to be at sight, or with the preparation done in class. As it is, however, these unfortunates must from the outset follow the work not only of the class beginning Vergil, but also that of the second half. In their case, I am afraid, the work is very largely of the cramming character, and is assisted—very excusably—by the 'translation'.

Hurry, then, is more than ever our watchword during the fourth year. This is all the more unfortunate, as we honestly would like to make the study of Vergil what it deserves to be, the crowning glory of the course. We try to go slowly at the beginning, in order to give a firm grounding, but we have to increase the work during the last half year very much, and at present, for example, I am trying to work each period through at least fifty verses. While the boys stand up fairly well under the strain, as teacher I am but very little satisfied with the result. In addition to the great amount of reading matter, we must not overlook a supplementary drill in composition work. Under the syllabus, this is now cut down to the equivalent of one recitation every two weeks; but, even so, my feeling

is that I can ill afford to spare the time, much as I am convinced of the necessity for doing it.

This, then, is the *stirps semenque malorum omnium*. The requirements of the Syllabus sound very well: we are supposed to train the student in idiomatic translation, which shall do justice to the beauty of the original, make him understand the metrical form, give him an insight into the historical background and into the intention of the poet, teach him the geography, mythology and antiquities necessary for a proper understanding, and, last, but not least, make him understand the stylistic and grammatical differences between prose and poetry.

In the first place, there exists a fundamental difference of opinion among teachers as to what constitutes a proper translation of the poet. It is only necessary to glance at the translations offered in the notes to the various school editions to appreciate this divergence. If I may be allowed to express a frank criticism of all of them, I do not believe in the great liberties taken with the words. As I conceive of the task of translating a poet, the chief duty of the translator is to preserve the characteristics of the poetic style. Now, two things stand out preëminently: poetry is concrete and is special. Words are poetic because they appeal direct to the senses, and the poet speaks in images, even where he does not use the form of the metaphor or the comparison. In the work with our pupils, I think, we should try to bring out these two features, not only on account of scholarly exactness, but also because of the valuable insight thus gained by the student into the character of genuine poetry. In this respect, it seems to me, the notes of our editions sin a great deal. Now, the faithful expression of these two features is not compatible with the elegance which many teachers seek to achieve. It is true that Vergil is one of the *docti poetae*, but he is a great poet withal, and apart from occasional rhetorical lapses, a man of finest feeling for the epic tone. This, I believe, should be brought out, even if occasionally the elegance of the translation should suffer, or the common English word order should have to be sacrificed. In this the translation of Vergil makes even higher demands on the critical appreciation of the teacher than the orations of Cicero.

In connection with this topic, it ought to be said that a proper valuation of the poet is impossible, or, at least, only imperfectly attainable to that student who knows no Greek. Again and again experience has shown me the great advantage possessed by the student who is reading Homer over his classmate who is not. The great difference between the natural and the artificial epic, which is so clearly represented by the two poets, cannot be properly felt except by him who knows both. And it is a great pity that increasingly the knowledge of Greek is becoming scarce even among the teachers of Vergil. To a certain extent, perhaps, a thorough familiarity with Milton might be made to do duty instead, but this, too, I find lacking among our students.

As far as metrical insight goes, I am frank to say that we make a sorry showing. Mostly this may be ascribed to lack of time, for we cannot devote to reading aloud more than a minute fraction of any period. We try to make up for it by reading to our students the most beautiful passages, but, even at the best, that is but a poor substitute for the enjoyment which the student would derive from his own activity. The blame cannot be laid to defective instruction in the rules of metrical composition, for almost every one of our students is able to write out, without any mistakes, the scansion of any line which does not contain any glaring peculiarity. It is very unfortunate that our system of written examinations tends to emphasize the importance of such scansion. Should the *aurea aetas* ever come when an oral examination shall form part of the test of fitness for College, I should strenuously advocate that scansion be entirely abolished and a reading test take its place.

The requirements in regard to the subject-matter, including the 'Realia', are at present too hazy and too indefinite. No teacher is able, from either the syllabi or the examination papers, to say what is of sufficient importance to be taught and what should be omitted. In consequence we try to teach by far too much, and achieve that serio-comic mistiness which locates the Ionian Sea west of Asia Minor, makes Cymothoe the wife of Neptune, or speaks of Diomed as the son of Tydides.

With the present trend of teaching in our schools, our best results are obtained in grammar. Our boys easily—and why not?—learn the few differences in use of cases and modes and label correctly the poetic constructions. They do not badly, either, in stylistic discernment, guffaw, as they may, at the strange Greek names given to the figures of speech, which we compel them to learn because they occur in examination questions. Yet, it would be infinitely better could they instantly give parallels from their native literature, a demand which some of us make on them, even though that is not prescribed.

On the whole, I think, judging from the preparatory standpoint, our students leave us not poorly prepared. Still, I dare say, there is not one among us who does not dismiss his pupils at the end of the year with the feeling that they have missed the best which they could have gotten out of their study, namely, they have not acquired a love for poetry which would make them wish to take up a book of poems after they have left us.

The pressure has been too great, and what should be of paramount importance in the study of Vergil, the opportunity of stopping to take a look around

and appreciate the poet as the "maestro di color che sanno", has been sadly absent. Only a diminution of the quantitative requirement, together with a considerable increase in the quality of the work, can bring the relief which is absolutely needed, if the study of Vergil shall become, as it surely deserves, the heartfelt desire for the development of the aesthetic sense.

Ernst Riess.

REVIEW

What have the Greeks done for modern Civilization? The Lowell Lectures of 1908-1909. By John Pentland Mahaffy. New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons (1909). $2.50. Pp. xi + 263.

In a series of eight lectures Professor Mahaffy selects and emphasizes various lines of achievement in which Greek preëminence has been notably reflected in modern times. By the study of a long lifetime and by a rich experience in human affairs, he is peculiarly fitted to speak authoritatively on the relations subsisting between the exponents of that ancient culture and the civilized people of to-day. His polished style and interesting treatment are calculated to appeal to a wide range of hearers and readers, and though the "attempt to cover the whole field of Greek influence" (p. v) could be realized only by handling many subjects in a sketchy manner, the purpose of the lectures prohibited the omission of any department of Greek activity.

The tone of the book, as would surely be anticipated by one acquainted with the author or his previous works, is strongly phil-hellenic. It gives, in popular form and brief compass, the results of continued reflection on hellenic achievement. How admirable the enthusiasm which then can record (p. 246) as "the highest earthly satisfaction the carrying of the torch of Greek fire alight through a long life, the highest earthly hope the passing of the torch to others to keep aflame".

The first lecture is introductory in that it discusses the causes of Greek preëminence, and indicates the branches of activity in which the Greeks excelled. The greatness of Greece was not due primarily to geographical position or climatic conditions; Greece was simply a genius among nations, more richly endowed than her neighbors, and as such her productions and achievements must be studied directly and not through Roman interpretation or English translation. Continuing, the author suggests in outline the history of Greek influence in the past, on Rome, on the later Byzantine Empire, and on the Renaissance, which became a new birth through the resurrection of Greek masterpieces. The chapter is thus a strong, direct plea in behalf of Greek studies, though the entire work argues indirectly to the same end.

After thus, by way of introduction, emphasizing the importance of the Greeks, Professor Mahaffy considers in succeeding lectures the various departments in which Greek genius has expressed itself and has exerted influence on modern civilization, such as poetry, prose, architecture and sculpture, painting and music, science, politics, philosophy, which are the captions of the respective chapters.

It is no new thing to trace the debt of English literature to Greek masters. From Shakespeare to Swinburne no English author has escaped the searching eye of classical commentator or essayist, but the subject is one of perennial interest as it furnishes strong arguments for the maintenance of Greek studies. So our author traverses the familiar spheres of Greek poetry and prose, spheres notably familiar to the facile writer of several charming volumes on Greek literature, more or less familiar to all educated people, not excepting a Boston audience; still the eclecticism of illustration is so well controlled that we hurry from epic through dramatic to lyric poetry with unflagging interest.

Similarly, in the chapter on art, well-known facts with reference to architecture and sculpture are presented in an attractive way that is likely to encourage the desire for further knowledge in the minds of uninitiated readers. The brief treatment of Greek painting (126-133) is not entirely satisfactory. Much more information can be gleaned from the many painted reliefs, vase-paintings, and Pompeian frescoes than the author here admits. In fact about the time when these lectures were delivered, there appeared an article in the Ephemeris Archaiologike (1908 by Dr. Arvanitopoullos, who, on the basis of hundreds of painted stelai found at Pegasae, has evolved elaborate and interesting theories on Greek painting. Moreover, so far from the fact that red, blue, white and yellow were the colors generally used (130), Dr. Lermann has proved by chemical analysis that green was common on early sculptures in Athens, and violet in different shades has been found on many monuments, and is particularly mentioned by Greek writers. Nor is it accurate to deny the production of easel pictures to the bloom of Greek art (133), when it is generally agreed that the paintings in the Pinakothek on the Acropolis were of that character. Again, it seems hardly just to declare that Greek artists did not occupy themselves with landscape as such (131), in view of the fact that many frescoes from Pompeii depict landscapes, with only a subordinate figure or two, as for example the well-known scene on Mt. Ida, where the artist paints the country-side with its great trees and cliffs and rocks and flowing stream, and only incidentally introduces the small figure of the shepherd Paris (Hermann, Denkmäler der Malerei, Plate 8).

The chapter on science deals chiefly with physics

and medicine, with several pages devoted to a description of Heron's automatic machine for the representation of a miniature Bacchic celebration. Then the author passes to the political and social life of the Greeks, discussing their criminal, civil and international procedure. To one familiar with the many cases of assault and battery preserved to us in private orations of the Attic orators, the emphasis on the safety of the individual in the streets of Athens, and the regard of Attic law for the dignity, as well as safety of the citizen, may seem a little too rose-colored; and the enforcement of the laws in Athens was certainly no more efficacious, if indeed it was not less, than in our own country which Professor Mahaffy mentions by way of unfavorable comparison (191).

The impression received from the book is that the Greeks possessed all virtues, and were untainted by vices, but as only their excellencies would impress and influence modern culture, the author had no warrant to sketch the other side of the picture. The lectures were designed and written for a popular audience; they furnish an admirable reply to the oft-heard query: Why should Greek be studied?

BARNARD COLLEGE. T. L. SHEAR.

ROMAN ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH IN 1909

Excavation and consequent literary elucidation in the field of Roman archaeology have if anything increased their output this past year. There have been no startling discoveries; there has been some acrimonious discussion concerning the finds on the Janiculum in and near the grove of Furrina (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 2.244-246), and consequently much careful work has been done there; Mrs. Strong, with whom Mr. Ashby agrees, has undone the critics who have lauded so highly the charms of the now famous statue, The Maiden of Antium (La fanciulla d'Anzio), by proving that the statue is that of a boy (see THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3. 146-147, 182-183). But perhaps the most important discoveries of Roman archæologists this past year have been in connection with prehistoric settlements. In France, in Spain, in Sicily, in Etruria and the Po valley more than a score of prehistoric sites have been found and excavated. In Italy this is a continuation of the sort of valuable work which has been treated by Mr. Peet in The Stone and Bronze Ages in Italy. Mr. Mackenzie of the British School has continued work in Sardinia, and has shown that the *nuraghi* are castles or forts, and that the so-called Giants' tombs are the places of burial for the inhabitants of the *nuraghi*, who were the early nobles. These edifices show an indigenous development, but they are analogous with the neolithic and early bronze civilizations in southern France, Spain, Sicily, Crete and the islands of the Aegean. Again, the numerous finds all over the Roman world of hoards of coins, the acquisitions by the various museums of thousands of pieces of antiquities, and the formation of such numbers of enthusiastic local archaeological societies are all noteworthy matters.

In Italy, outside of Rome, the government is doing very little except at Pompeii and Ostia. In Pompeii the work progresses as usual, and in the past year several more houses have been brought to light. One, called the Casa dei Amorini Dorati, because in it were found some glass disks covered with gold leaf and incised with Cupids, excavated several years ago, but reconstructed and opened to view this year, is especially interesting because of its wall paintings. Three of the larger and more imposing panels represent Jason and Pelias, Thetis in Vulcan's workshop, and Achilles in his tent with Patroclus and Briseis. At Ostia continued work has laid bare a considerable portion more of the city. The long street which leads from the side of the modern town to the ancient theater and the portico along its west side have both been cleared. One or two fine pieces of statuary, scores of inscriptions, hundreds of architectural and sculptural fragments have been found and placed in the museum. Local societies have done much work in excavation at Palestrina, 25 miles southeast of Rome, on the site of the ancient necropolis and the great temple of Fortune; near Viterbo a 'pro-Ferento' society is clearing away the debris from the Roman bath and theater at Ferento; in Turin the Roman theater under the royal palace has been entirely uncovered; in the Alban Hills, excavation is going on at Civita Lavinia, where only two months ago a number of interesting foundations were brought to light, at Nemi on the lake of the same name, and at Marino, where a miniature Pompeii is being laid bare by the town authorities. These excavations are under the ultimate supervision of the central government, and are helpful to it, for it seems itself unable to initiate any very extended plans for excavation. In Rome itself very little work has been done during the past year. Excavations for city sewers and for garage foundations have been as productive as the regular archaeologically directed work. On the Via Flaminia, where a new garage was being built, among other objects of interest found was an inscription mentioning a town in Spain (Civitas Baesarensis) hitherto unknown. Near the Spithoever palace a fine stretch of the 'Servian' wall, 100 feet long and 9 courses high, has been brought to light. Several authorities are inclined to assign parts of this wall to a time before the Gallic invasion of 387, because what seems the earlier part of the wall measures to the standard of the Oscan foot, and the rest to that of the Roman. On the Palatine hill little more has been done than the leisurely prosecution of the excavation under the

foundations of the eastern portion of the house of Livia. Professor Pigorini has proved that none of the cinerary urn fragments found in 1907 near the Scalae Caci belong to the Villanova or hut urn types, and the very early date of burial on the Palatine seems to have been disproved. In the Forum, the excavation of the Basilica Aemilia has advanced scarcely at all in a year, and the prehistoric necropolis has been entirely filled in and the present level restored. The only find of consequence lately in the Forum is that of 86 seals bearing different devices. Work progresses slowly in the new Forum museum at S. Francesca Romana, but it is expected that it will be thrown open to the public next year at the opening of the exposition.

RALPH VAN DEMAN MAGOFFIN.
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.

We give in part an article in the April number of the Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, continuing that published that week (page 215).

II. BRONZES.

Among the bronzes purchased last year there is no one piece of prime importance; but there are a number of excellent workmanship and some of peculiar archaeological interest.

Our collection of mirrors is increased by three valuable examples, all of Etruscan workmanship. On one . . . is represented Odysseus attacking Circe . . . The legend of Circe, changing the companions of Odysseus into pigs and keeping them thus transformed until Odysseus himself appeared, was frequently depicted by Greek artists, especially on vases and mirrors. On our example Odysseus is represented attacking Circe with drawn sword, while she is raising both hands in horror and supplication. Elpenor stands on the other side armed with bow and arrow, likewise threatening the sorceress. In the foreground is one of Odysseus' unfortunate companions partially transformed into a pig, only the hind legs retaining human shape. The figures are identified by inscriptions in Etruscan letters: Uthste (Odysseus), Cerca (Circe), and Felparun (Elpenor). The presence of Elpenor as the companion who escaped the wiles of Circe and helped Odysseus to save his friends, is contrary to the story as told in Homer's Odyssey, where the rôle is assigned to Eurylochos. The Etruscan artist was evidently not concerned about having his representation archaeologically correct; he needed another figure on the right to balance Odysseus on the left and he supplied him with the name of Elpenor as one he remembered to be associated with Odysseus. The drawing of the scene on our mirror is of great delicacy and spirit. A very similar representation is on a mirror in the Louvre, where the figures are likewise inscribed; in execution, however, that is inferior to our example. (*Cf. Annali dell' Instituto archeologico*, 1852, *Tav. d' agg. H.*)

The two statuettes included in this collection are both of small dimensions; but their execution is very fresh and vigorous, and therefore undoubtedly Greek. One represents Herakles struggling with the Nemean lion (height 2 1-16 inches (5.2 cm.). Herakles has his left arm round the lion's neck and is throttling him with all his might. The strain of the action is well brought out by the tension given to each muscle. The lion is nearly dead and his limp body forms an effective contrast to the vigorous figure of Herakles. The elaboration of the modeling points to the Hellenistic or late Greek period as the date of this group.

Of peculiar interest is a farmyard group, of Roman date, consisting of two oxen, two bulls, a ram, a ewe, a goat, a kid, a pig, a sow, a plow, a country cart, and two yokes. They were found together and probably constitute either a votive offering or a child's toy. The animals, though rather roughly modeled, are all carefully characterized. Their average length is three to four inches. The plow is of the primitive type, in use both in Greek and Roman times, consisting of the pole, the plowtail, and the sharebeam. In our case the plowtail, which was held by the farmer, is missing, but a hole shows the point where it was attached. Though the rest of the plow was cast in one piece of bronze, the joints of the wooden original are all indicated; thus the pole is represented as fastened to the sharebeam by two large pegs, and on the end of the sharebeam a piece of metal is represented as attached by straps. The cart is of the general shape in use in Roman times for the transportation of eatables and army baggage. Similar carts occur on the column of Trajan, the chief difference being that in these the cart itself is raised above the wheels. Plows and carts were usually drawn by oxen, as was probably the case in our group, especially as the find includes two yokes. These yokes are of the double type, with two curvatures to fit the necks and shoulders of the oxen on which they were placed. In one yoke the holes are indicated through which was passed the leather straps fastening the yokes to the oxen. On the center of each yoke at the top is a cavity into which the pole fitted.

The fragmentary relief of a youth of Polykleitan type (height 3⅞ inches (9.8 cm.)), probably served as an ornament of a vase or other object. The treatment both of the body and the head shows the characteristics associated with the sculptor Polykleitos. The body is of the massive, heavy build, with strongly developed muscles intersecting each other in definite planes, which we find both in the Doryphoros and the Diadumenos; the pose, with the weight of the body resting mainly on the right leg,

and the square skull and general character of the face are all faithfully copied from that artist.

The remaining bronzes are chiefly utensils or of an ornamental character. Of great interest archaeologically is an archaic *kylix*, or cup (diameter 6⅞ inches (17.4 cm.), height 2⅜ inches (6 cm.)), with designs similar to those which occur on Corinthian vases, and therefore probably as early as the seventh century B. C. They consists of a frieze of animals with a border of lotos buds beneath. The animals are mostly of the monstrous shapes borrowed from Eastern art—a winged goat, a lion, a panther, a winged panther, a winged lion, with the head of a bearded man, and a griffin. The background is filled with ornaments. The technique deserves attention. The designs are first sketched with a sharp instrument and are then gone over with another instrument producing, instead of a continuous line, a series of hatched lines, which give the effect of shading.

An *oinochoë* or wine-jug (height without handle 7⅞ inches (20 cm.)) has a beautiful design at the bottom of the handle, consisting of an anthemion rising from akanthos leaves; the shape of the jug and the exquisite workmanship of the ornament leave no doubt that this vase is Greek, probably of the fifth century B. C.

G. M. A. R.

A NEW GREEK CLUB

An interesting event of recent occurrence is the organization of a Greek Club, with headquarters at Teachers College. From the limited information thus far at my disposal it would seem that the Club consists of two Circles, of which the first is reading Lucan, the second Greek Lyric Poetry. Circle No. I will read the selections in Allinson's edition of Lucan, Circle No. II the passages in the Hiller-Crusius Anthologia Lyrica (Teubner). It would seem that the first Circle meets on Monday evenings, the second on Tuesday evenings, both at 8 o'clock.

In The School Review for April and May Professor W. G. Hale has an instructive article on College Entrance Examinations in Latin Prose. In The Classical Journal for May Mr. W. G. Gordis has a paper on The Problem of Elementary Latin Composition with a Review of recent Textbooks.

C. K.

THE NEW YORK LATIN CLUB

The New York Latin Club will hold its last meeting of the current year at the Hotel Marlborough, at Broadway and Thirty-sixth Street, New York City, on Saturday, May 14. The theme of the principal address, to be given by Professor Frank Frost Abbott of Princeton University, is Some Reflections on the Pronunciation of Latin. The usual informal reception will precede the luncheon, which will be served promptly at 12.30. After the address the annual election of officers will be held.

EDWARD C. CHICKERING, *Censor.*

LES ROMAINS DE L'ANTIQUITÉ SE SERVAÏENT DÉJÀ D'ASCENSEURS.

L'ascenseur, que nous considérons comme une commodité ultramoderne, n'est point cependant une invention de notre époque.

Le professeur Boni, directeur des fouilles au *Forum* romain, vient d'acquérir la preuve que déjà, au temps de Jules Cesar, on se servait de ce moyen de transport. Plusieurs niches qu'il a découvertes au *Forum* montrent, par leurs dispositions, qu'elles ont servi de cages à des ascenseurs construits selon les règles.

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On voit encore les blocs de pierre qui par leur poids faisaient marcher le treuil.—From Sphinx-Oedipe, 1909, No. 3, Nancy, France.

RECENT BOOKS

(It is the intention of the editors to publish from time to time lists of new books, titles of articles, etc., likely to prove of interest to teachers and lovers of the Classics. Some at least of the books named will be reviewed later. The preparation of the material for these lists is in charge of Dr. William F. Tibbetts, of the Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn; he will welcome assistance from any quarter in his efforts to bring before the readers of The Classical Weekly the names of all books or articles likely to prove of interest or help to them).

Wanderings in the Roman Campagna. By Rodolfo Lanciani. New York and Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. Illustrated, 8 vo. $5.00 net.

Plutarch's Letters to Classical Authors. Translated from the Latin by Mario Emilio Cosenza. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 12 mo. $1.00.

The Usage of Idem, Ipse, and Words of Related Meaning. By Clarence L. Meader. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pamphlet. 12 mo. (University of Michigan Studies, Humanistic Series, Vol. III, Pt. I).

Seneca: Quaestiones Naturales. Translated by John Clark, together with notes and treatise by Sir Archibald Geikie. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 422. $3.25.

Dionysius: The Greek Text of the De Compositione Verborum. Edited with Introduction, Translation, Notes, Glossary, and Appendices. By W. Rhys Roberts. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 732. 8 vo. $3.00.

Aristophanes: The Acharnians. The Greek Text Revised. With a Translation into corresponding metres. Introduction and Commentary. By Benjamin Bickley Rogers. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. 360. 8 vo. $3.25.

Addresses and Essays. By Morris H. Morgan. New York: American Book Co. $1.25.

The Greek Lady. By Emily James Putnam. Putnam's Magazine, March and April, 1910.

Integer Vitae. By. G. L. Hendrickson. The Classical Journal, April, 1910. A discussion of Horace C. 1.22. See the Classical Journal, May, 1910, for comment on this paper by Professor Paul Shorey.

Einleitung in die Altertumswissenschaft. Edited by A. Gercke and E. Norden. Leipzig and Berlin: B. G. Teubner. 3 volumes. 35 Marks. A general introduction to the study of classical philology (in the broadest sense of the term philology). The first volume contains discussions of Methodik, by A. Gercke, of Sprache, by P. Kretshmer, of Antike Metrik, by E. Bickel, of Griechische und Römische Literatur, by Erich Bethe, Paul Wendland, E. Norden.

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Professor Hamilton Ford Allen contributes to the April number of The Educational Review an article on The Case of Greek Again in which he demands in the teaching of Greek a modification of method such as has been so insistently demanded during the last few years for the teaching of Latin. He maintains that the statement that students of Greek leave college without being able to read Greek must be qualified by the admission that students cannot read French or German when they leave college. With this qualification we find that just as some students are able to read French and German, so some students are able to read Greek, but that the reading of Greek is a much more difficult thing than the reading of French or German, not necessarily because the language itself is more difficult, but because the range of the literature is more extensive and its grade of a much higher quality. "A student of modern languages is kept at short stories, easy dramatic literature and novels. If the two classes of students were given literature of the same character to read, the student of the ancient languages would find his path easier, the student of modern languages, more difficult". Mr. Allen's suggestion for improvement is contained in the following:

As I look at it, neither pupil nor teacher is getting what he wants, namely, that he, the pupil, shall be able to read Greek in the same way that he reads a modern language. In what has been said above, I have mentioned some reasons why the student cannot do this, but as yet I have said nothing of the teacher's part in the matter. Looking at the question from our point of view, what do we now teach our pupils to do? We teach them to translate into English, with the aid of dictionary and grammar, whereas we want them to be able to dispense as largely as possible with these two aids, and to read Greek as they do English. Of course, translation is necessary at first, but as the pupil advances he must become more and more able to drop this. How then shall we teach students to read Greek? Not by doing away entirely with translation, but by using the other means necessary to attain our end, namely, reading aloud, writing, learning by heart and reciting aloud, and speaking. These are indispensable aids in fixing the language in the mind, and by their use one gains rapidly in ability to read with understanding. But when I say speaking the language I do not mean that we shall try to teach our pupils to use ancient Greek in daily conversation. What I mean is that, taking any lesson as a basis, we should continually require them to conjugate and inflect the verbs and nouns, to give the English equivalents of the Greek words, to make short sentences with them, doing all this with closed books. Moreover, as their knowledge of words and syntax increases, they should be able to describe scenes and incidents from daily life. Of course, we cannot do this beyond a certain point. We cannot speak of electric cars and telephones, but we can speak of natural objects and phenomena, parts of the house, etc. If the pupil will speak the language to this extent, he will have a hold on it which he can get in no other way, and he will not have a distorted idea of it. θύρα will mean *door*, not *portal*.

At this point a teacher of modern languages will say, "You are urging teachers of Greek to do just what we teachers of modern languages are doing". Yes, and we should also follow them in respect of the literature which they give their pupils to read. Unless our pupils are of mature years, we should not, after the beginning-book, plunge them into Xenophon and Homer, but should give them fables, short stories and biographies in prose, in poetry short poems and complete passages from longer ones, grading the matter read according to the ability of the students. Young pupils can not keep up their interest in long works, the subject-matter of which is too far beyond them, but will read with zest short bits which can be rendered in a few lessons at most.

With this view I am of course in hearty sympathy, and I note with satisfaction the intelligent attempts that are being made to provide easy material of various kinds for elementary training. I would call attention to Dr. Rouse's book entitled A Greek Boy at Home, being a story written in Greek (Blackie and Son, London, 1909), and to Lucian's Dialogues Prepared for Schools, by the same scholar (Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1909). In the latter book all the notes are written in easy Greek. In the former book the story is so simple and so natural that it ought straightway to appeal to a pupil. A similar effort is the Phormio of Terence for Schools recently published by Professors Fairclough and Richardson (Sanborn)[1]. This book is a re-writing of Terence's Phormio into prose with the omission of all the difficulties due to word-order, strange forms, and archaic constructions. It makes the language extremely simple and will prove of great service for translation at dictation and for many other uses, which live teachers interested in colloquial Latin will at once discern. What I do not understand in connection with this book is what seems to be an insult to the intelligence of Latin teachers in providing a so-called Teacher's Edition which is nothing but

[1] See THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 3.158.

a translation of the already simplified Latin. Any teacher of the most elementary training who cannot translate a simple text ought by no means to be allowed to teach a Latin class and no such weapon should be given to the critics of our Latin methods as is provided in this apparently utterly superfluous translation. The editors in their preface say that if it is found that the book meets a real need, it will be followed by other plays similarly treated. I hope that their expectations will be justified, for we need such material as is here provided. But it might be well to reflect, whether Terence and Plautus should be extensively handled in this way or whether it might not be preferable to try the method of simplification with other kinds of literature as well. Some of the plays of Terence and Plautus should be left for College work. The editors state also that in the vocabulary words not in my Vocabulary of High School Latin are marked with a dagger. They number 195, of which only 26 are used neither by Caesar nor Cicero.

G. L.

CONCERNING VOCABULARY AND PARSING IN GREEK AND LATIN[1]

The teaching of elementary Greek and Latin has lately thrust its nose into the tent of Higher Education, and for three main reasons: (1) The inclusion of these subjects in College and University curricula, because of the failure of High Schools to give them, in whole or in part; (2) the comparatively poor work done by many students in College and University, even after years of preparation; and (3) the consequent rise of classical pedagogy, in the hope of helping the whole classical situation. The writer of this paper, therefore, makes no apology for treating Vocabulary and Parsing in Greek and Latin from the point of view which gives a perspective of both preparatory and advanced work in these subjects.

First, as to vocabulary. It needs no argument, after all the recent discussion, to show that the classical student at any stage is apt to be deficient in vocabulary; the principal difference of opinion is as to how the difficulty should be remedied. It is only after a number of years of experimentation, and the private publication of several sorts of textbooks, that the writer offers a somewhat definite solution. The Latin side will be treated from the same view-point as the Greek, but the main theme of the paper will be a series of Greek text books published in 1908, based on a Beginners' Book published in 1904. They contain a selected list of Greek words chosen respectively from Xenophon's Anabasis I-IV, Homer's Iliad I-III, Plato's Apology and Crito, etc., arranged by book, chapter, and verse or section, with meanings opposite and also with English derivatives wherever feasible. The list in each case is reprinted in the same order in the back of each text, with Greek words only, for oral or written review. The words are all chosen for their general value in reading the usual college authors, not merely for their frequency in the author in question. The meanings given are the one or two *closest root-meanings* of the word quoted. No compounds are given unless their meaning differs from the natural product of the component parts, which are given instead of the compound. Parts of irregular verbs are given for Xenophon only. Where the gender is not specified, nouns in -ος are masculine, those in -α or -η feminine. The following is a sample, from Xenophon 1.1.1.

ANABASIS I, 1

1. *γίγνομαι* (*γεν*), *γενήσομαι*, *ἐγενόμην*, 2P. *γέγονα*, *γεγένημαι*, become, happen, be born. **Genesis.**
παῖς, *δός* child. **Pedagogue** (*ἄγω*, lead).
δύο two. **Hendiadys.** (*εἷς*, one, *διά*, through).
πρέσβυς old. **Presbyterian.**
νέος new, young. **Neophyte.** (*φυτόν* plant).
ἐπεί when, since.
ἀσθενέω be sick, (*ἀ* neg.+*σθένος*, *τό*, strength). **Calisthenics.** (*καλός* beautiful).
τελευτή (*τελέω* end) end, death.
βίος life. **Biology.** (*λόγος*, discourse).

SAMPLE OF BLANK LIST FOR REVIEW

ANABASIS I, 1

1. *γίγνομαι*	2. *οὖν*
παῖς	*τυγχάνω*
δύο	*πέμπω*
πρέσβυς	*ἀπό*
νέος	*ἀρχή*
ἐπεί	*αὐτός*
ἀσθενέω	*ποιέω*
τελευτή	*στρατηγός*
βίος	*δείκνῡμι*

The benefits of the system may be briefly stated thus: (1) Increased memory-power. The only possible reason that students do not know very many more words at the end of each year is not that they have not met many new words, but that they have failed to remember their meanings, i. e. that they are deficient in memory-power. Indeed forgetting is the most prominent fact in this whole matter of vocabulary. The harm is generally done during the first year of study, when attention is more generally directed to other things, and, in consequence, the mind is habituated to *forgetting* rather

[1] This paper was read at the meeting of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States, held at New York City, April 23, 1910.

than to remembering the meanings of words. In reading authors, therefore, most of the time has to be given to looking up supposedly new words, which only multiply, instead of decreasing as the student advances and the readings increase in length. The next resort is the 'pony' and after that the student frequently very wisely concludes that his task is Sisyphean and gives it up. The habitual use of the word-list, then, will develop the retaining power of the memory even though little attempt has been made to cultivate the memory before using the list in reading authors. Of course, however, the memory should be trained from the first, and for that reason the writer used with his own beginnings a small Beginning Book containing, at the first, certain simple words, with their meanings, nearly all of which were connected with very common English derivatives printed opposite in black type with all the roots of the latter in the same or a previous vocabulary. A brief sample is given from vocabulary

VOCABULARY I

θεός god. **Theology.**
λόγος, word, story, study. **Philologist.**
φίλος friend, (adj.) dear. **Philanthropist.**
ἄνθρωπος man. **Anthropology.**
ἵππος horse. **Philip.**
ποταμός river. **Hippopotamus.**
κύκλος circle. **Cyclone.**
καλός beautiful. **Calla.**
ἐν in, among (dat.). **Enthusiasm.**
ἦν was, ἦσαν were.

The Greek words were thus easily fixed in memory from the first, the gratification of rapid progress increasing with every lesson. By beginning thus and continuing afterwards with the word-lists for each author read, memory-power was developed in the most unexpected manner. In this way five hundred or a thousand words were very easily learned and the consciousness of the acquisition of this amount of knowledge, being shown so manifestly, was highly stimulating. The memory also soon became able to take in all the new words as they became fewer and fewer although the readings increased in length.

(2) Increased attention given to subject-matter. The educational value of the *contents* of the classical authors is almost universally admitted; the question so persistently raised is the *feasibility* of the study as conducted nowadays. But if we grant the possession of a good working vocabulary augmented at a sure but steady rate, it is plain that each new passage will ordinarily become easier and easier even though the author becomes more difficult, and, therefore, it is equally plain that much more time will be left even after memorizing and reviewing words to give to the subject-matter of each passage. Further, the learning of words each day in their setting and thinking of the passage in reviewing the words so familiarizes the student with the author's thought that its impression is much more vivid at the time and therefore much longer retained. That is, the halo of the author's thought is thrown about the mere process of memorizing the words, when the student, as he may, habitually connects each word in the list with its occurrence in the passage where it is met. It is very gratifying to note that students so trained readily memorize whole passages and otherwise gain greater fondness for their authors.

(3) The student becomes his own teacher. These text books are intended to be placed in the hands of the students themselves. Thus a *minimum* of essential matter is placed before the student to be mastered, which *emerges naturally* from the reading lesson itself. It is not regarded as extraneous or additional.

Again, only *standard* forms and meanings are given, leaving the meaning in the particular context to be worked out. The student does not scribble down a *dictation* lesson; he does not mark his book up. There is a gain also in etymological insight from the student working out his compounds or his secondary or contextual meanings for himself, with the use of his dictionary; and furthermore he can review it all rapidly from the blank lists apart from the context to see what he has forgotten, and to see what he has remembered, which is pedagogically quite as important. All this will help the student to become methodical and constant in his study, all the more if the teacher gives *five minutes a day* to rapid reviews from the blank lists; it is quite easy to review 100 words in that time. An occasional word-match also will produce enthusiasm. This may be varied if desired, by written tests, in which the meanings of 100 words can be written out in *ten* minutes.

(4) As already hinted the 'pony' is no longer needed. It may be reserved for literary purposes.

(5) The student is guided in his thinking; it is not all done voluminously for him. The objection will be raised, of course, that even such a system stereotypes the study too much, that it does for the student what he should do for himself. Should do, yes, but does he do it? Those who say this assume that the student of Xenophon, let us say, is capable of selecting the root-meaning of each word, of selecting the words worth remembering, and of learning them by writing them and their meanings in a note-book. This assumption implies an exceptional student with an unusual amount of discrimination, memory-power and time. One of the curses of classical study in general to-day is that it is suited only to the bright student, who is also

willing to give extra time to the study, the average student and the increasing demand for time in other studies being almost entirely ignored. It is high time that some one should come forward holding a brief for *the average student under average conditions*. If it is the aim of classical teaching merely to produce specialists or to suit itself only to the needs of such as are capable of specialization, we shall have to stop maintaining its value as general culture. The writer's own experience has demonstrated very clearly that the average student, with the help of the word-list, will get a much better grasp of vocabulary in a given time than the bright student who tries to learn his words by writing all of them out, so much better is it to have the printed selected word and its meaning in the text before him.

(6) The teaching of Greek-English etymology is a by-product whose value has curiously been overlooked. It is only occasionally nowadays that the student, either from native insight, or from the teacher's suggestion, in either case at the cost of too much valuable time, gets even a fair amount of Greek-English etymological knowledge, since Greek and English are kept almost entirely remote, lack of time preventing their being etymologically connected. This has been clearly shown to the writer by extensive word-analysis tests in many High Schools and Colleges. Word-analysis is now seldom taught to any considerable extent either in English or in Greek classes, much to our loss educationally. Latin-English etymology will be spoken of later.

The present word-list therefore or a Beginner's Book on this basis supplies the English derivative in the most convenient way, the supplementary use of the English Dictionary, where needed, requiring but little time.

To sum up, then, this point of self-teaching and its effects, the student is enabled to select, work out and know when he has mastered the essential part of his lesson each day, as far as vocabulary, including parts of verbs, is concerned, which is an incentive to do well at least this very definite part of the lesson. He therefore feels that he has prepared himself well for advanced reading or for sight work, which is such an excellent test of reading-power. He also feels that he does not need to humiliate himself by the use of a translation. Besides he has gained for himself a better knowledge of his own mother tongue without too much cost.

A few more general remarks will close this section. Each new list for a new author is *independent* of the preceding ones, giving a student who is behind a chance to catch up, and giving an excellent review in general, as well as showing that *most of the words have been learned before*. For example, in reading Xenophon I-IV, about 1000 words will have been learned, half of them in the first half of Book I. This thousand will cover the root forms in Homer I-III with the exception of those which are negligible, and which may be looked up only for the translation, and of some 300 other new words which are of value but nearly all poetical. It may also be said in passing that when the Xenophon and the Homer words have been learned, the addition of *scarcely 200 or 300 will* cover substantially the vocabulary of the Medea or the Alcestis or the Antigone or the Apology and Crito or Thucydides Book I. It is thus quite feasible to acquire a reading knowledge of these various authors.

How easy is the acquisition of the 1000 words in the Xenophon list is shown by the fact that last year the writer's Freshman Beginners' Class, meeting five times a week, thoroughly memorized the whole list in addition to reading Xenophon I-IV. That the list was not merely learned by rote was evidenced by marked superiority in sight reading.

A word more as to Homer. Homer is and ought to be the great goal of preparatory Greek, but it is made very difficult by the large number of new words. The general method is to read superficially and rapidly for 'inspiration' so-called. A better way is to approach Homer with a good prose vocabulary, have the new important poetical words designated as such, and equated as far as possible with prose equivalents already known. Since feeling for poetry in general consists in large part of the feeling for the poetry wrapped up in individual words, the poetical tone and color of each individual word must be felt for itself. This sort of appreciation is greatly enhanced by the study of poetical words as such, whether in Greek or Latin, or in a modern foreign language, or in English, let us say, where it is most woefully, neglected. Compare for example 'slumber' with 'sleep', 'befall' with 'happen'. The poetical words of Homer also are exactly those which dignify and ennoble the Greek lyric and the drama, as any close examination will show. If these words, therefore, are learned in the study of Homer, even in Iliad I-III, the difficulty not only of other reading in Homer but of the lyric and the drama will disappear, so that large stretches can be read together, and Greek literature will be the great fountain-spring of inspiration it ought to be.

This is the chief consideration which led the writer as a teacher of Homer and the drama, as well as of Plato and Thucydides, to devote several painstaking years to experiments, the results of which are here submitted. The solution was suggested by statistics showing how comparatively *few new roots* emerge in the ordinary college authors in addition to those found in Xenophon and Homer.

Time will only permit the giving of a sample from the Homer list.

ILIAD BOOK I

[Note: The standard poetical form of the words below has been given, not always the Epic form. Where a poetical compound is too unusual, the root-word nearest to it has been given. P stands for poetical; p for prose; = for prose equivalent; M for middle voice].

1. μῆνις, ιος, ἡ, P, = ὀργή wrath.
   ἀείδω, P, = ᾄδω sing.
   θεά, ᾶς, P, = θεός goddess. **Atheist.**
2. ὄλλυμι (ὀλ), P, = ἀπόλλυμι destroy, lose; M. perish. **Apollyon.**
   μυρίος countless. **Myriad.**
   ἄλγος, εος, τό, P, pain, woe. **Neuralgia.**
   τίθημι (θε) put. **Synthesis.**
3. πολύς, πολλή, πολύ much; pl. many. **Polytheism.**

(To be continued).

Baltimore, Maryland. H. T. ARCHIBALD.

REVIEWS

Horace, the Satires, with Introduction and Notes. By Edward P. Morris. New York: American Book Company (1909)

Q. Horati Flacci Saturarum Liber II. Edited with Introduction and Notes by James Gow. Cambridge, England, at the University Press (1909).

Two excellent new editions of Horace's Satires are added to our range of choice.

Professor Morris's is a companion volume to Professor Clifford Moore's edition of the Odes and Epodes, which appeared several years ago. Like that, this edition of the Satires is especially characterized by the predominance which it gives to the purely literary interest of this part of the author's writing, by the emphasis, as Professor Morris says in his preface, which he has "desired to place upon the thought of Horace, as distinguished from the language or the verse or the allusions". The introduction, which is comparatively brief—filling less than sixteen pages, even with Suetonius's Vita Horati appended to it—sets forth the facts of Horace's life, the character of his work in satire after the Lucilian model, and the significance of this work as an expression of the man and of the society of his time. It contains no grammatical or other topical studies,— no *Forschungen* in disguise; in form it is a literary essay, but it excellently provides the student who has been qualified by previous reading to take up Horace at all with the requisite point of view. In regard to the time-honored question of Horace's use of personal names, Professor Morris inclines to what we may call the more impersonal theory.

His commentary, which is placed, perhaps regrettably, at the foot of the pages of the text instead of apart, is also chiefly interpretative and literary. It addresses itself effectively to the task of helping the student, where he might be in difficulty, to understand what the author means, whether the necessary aid be the explanation of facts or a direct interpretation of his thought. The notes do not read like the *obiter dicta* of a specialist in a particular department of philological research. They are clearly written for the benefit of Horace and his reader; and there is of course no Latin author the study of whose literary consciousness is more fascinating or more essentially related to the understanding of his work. In a few places, Professor Morris's notes seem helpful almost to a fault. But the point where the obscure ceases and the obvious begins is never a sure one, and to supplement the latter is generally less undesirable than to leave the former in its unillumined state.

From a few details one may dissent in passing. At 1.4.81 the usual punctuation connecting *absentem* with *amicum* seems preferable to Professor Morris's arrangement. In the note on 1.3.16 the word "spendthrift" is, I think, not quite precisely used, and the note as a whole perhaps illustrates that occasional luxuriance of helpfulness already mentioned. At lines 2 and 3 of the same satire, it is not easy to see *rogati* and *iniussi* as "both predicate", and in lines 7-8 it seems more natural, at least, to take *summa voce*....*ima* in reference to vocal tones than to the position of the strings of the instrument; but this is one of the matters upon which editors will doubtless continue to differ. At 1.9.2 (*nescio quid meditans nugarum*) it seems as if one could not be quite so sure as the note implies that the trifles were literary, though very likely they were, for, after all, Horace was posing. And objections like these are themselves rather nugatory and not worth multiplying. In general the commentary, like the introductions to the whole book and to the separate satires, admirably serves its purpose, and it is written in a style which is a pleasure to read. The text is substantially the usual one, and there are no textual notes.

Dr. Gow's edition of the second book of the Satires is the counterpart of his edition of Book I, which appeared in 1901, and has the delightfully convenient form of the thin books of the Pitt Press series, to which it belongs. The introduction on the life of Horace (with the full array of references), on Latin satire, the chronology of Horace's satires, the use of proper names in them, their Latinity, and the constitution of the text, is conveniently reprinted from the earlier books. There is considerable discussion of the text, the textual notes being at the foot of each page, while the regular commentary is placed apart in the latter portion of the volume.

The second satire of this Second Book has called

for especial attention. The perplexing passage at verses 29-30 Dr. Gow reduces to a single line—*'carne tamen suavi distat nihil ut magis'. esto.*—with the elimination of most of verse 30. He certainly secures a plausible bit of dialogue, quite in the tone of the context; but the assurance of Horace's exact words is not, as the editor admits, quite so clear as that of his substantial meaning. The five lines beginning *rancidum aprum* (89-93) are bracketed, and also lines 13 and 123, all four places being regarded as victims of the interpolator.

At 2.3.142 the line has become, *pauper Opimius argento in posito intus et auro,* upon the suggestion of Dr. Postgate. The same text without *in,* according to the reading of Peerlkamp, which is given in the note on the passage, seems in some respects preferable.

The punctuation of the words at 2.5.90-91, *ultra 'non' 'etiam' sileas,* follows the interpretation of Vollmer's edition of 1907—"Beyond 'no' and 'yes', you must be silent".

2.6.29, which in the manuscripts has an excessive syllable, is given, by both Gow and Morris, according to Bentley's emendation, with *quam rem* instead of *quas res,* thus making it possible to retain the commonly omitted *tibi* after *quid.* Dr. Gow, however, suggests as more probably the true reading, *quo ruis,* citing Persius 5.143 in confirmation.

These are but a few of Dr. Gow's textual preferences. Whether accepted or not, they are thoroughly in the Horatian spirit. His commentary also is admirably phrased, and substantially convenient and enlightening.

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Aristophanes and the Political Parties at Athens. By Maurice Croiset; translated by James Loeb. New York: The Macmillan Co. (1909). Pp. 192.

Other recent reviews of this book have appeared in the New York Times of March 5 and in The (New York) Nation of March 10. What prompted Croiset to write it was the appearance of the second edition of Auguste Couat's Aristophane et l' ancienne Comédie Attique in 1903 (fourteen years after the first). The particular point at issue between the two savants is, practically, whether Aristophanes was a pamphleteer in the pay of the aristocrats, or a democrat. And, as Professor J. W. White, who has written the introduction to the English version, puts it, "if he was a democrat, how is, for example, the satirical, but extremely comical, characterization of the Athenian Demos in the Knights, which his countrymen viewed with good-natured amusement, to be interpreted".

Mr. Loeb's translation is of the same excellence as his translation of Decharme's Euripides, and the book in itself is of most attractive appearance. It falls into five chapters; the first, second and third cover the beginnings of Aristophanes's career from 427 to 421 B.C., the period during which the Banqueters, Babylonians, Acharnians, Knights, Clouds, Wasps and Peace were produced; the fourth chapter takes up the poet's second period, coinciding with the Sicilian and the Deceleian Wars, in which he brought out the Birds, Lysistrata, Thesmophoriazousae and Frogs; the last chapter covers the last period, in which the Ecclesiazousae and Ploutus came out.

It would seem to Croiset, and the conclusion will strike the majority of students of Aristophanes as perfectly sound, that in the first period the poet is violent, sour, and even unjust, so far as we may speak of the justice or injustice of such a distorter of whatever he deals with. Aristophanes takes part in the struggle of the political and moral ideas at stake; yet siding with the various parties of the opposition, he never entered their service and was no party man. Two sentiments dominated him: that there should be no Hellenic internecine war, and that selfish demagogues should not spoil the kindly, amiable and sprightly nature of the Athenian people. There was no political platform back of his plays, nor can we extract a precise doctrine from them.

So far as the political attitude of the poet in his second period is concerned, between 414 and 405, it seems, if we judge these particular plays rightly, that while he continues to fight the influential demagogues, he does not attribute to any of them the baneful importance which he formerly attributed to Cleon, nor does he aim at any particular reform in the state. He is pained by the blind exultation which possesses the people in the assembly, the violent hatred between citizens, the profound schism which threatens to become irretrievable. The hope of harmony suggests to him some of his best passages.

The essential thing is not to regard Aristophanes as a party man; he was rather a man of sentiment, conceiving what Athenian character and society should be; he stood for kindliness in manners, joy in freedom from restraint, ease of approach, attachment to ancient customs, and the like. It was this conception that made him aggressive; and the more Athenian harmony was jeopardized in his eyes, the more resolutely he came to its rescue. It may be that there is something of a Battle of the Books in this conflict between Couat and Croiset; this criticism has been made. Surely it is wrong for either to take Aristophanes's plays as the confession of a serious man. Yet, there are but few lovers of Greek literature and of the study of the play between politics and the stage who will not have their consciousness of the personality of the poet and of the play of that personality in the politics and society of the town life of Athens greatly clarified by absorbing this study of Croiset's on Aristophanes.

NEW YORK UNIVERSITY. W. E. WATERS.

ADDENDUM TO THE REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON COLLEGE-ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS IN LATIN

The Commission has voted unanimously to issue the following statement, which will later be incorporated in the definitions of the requirements:—

Colleges which require only two years, or only three years, of Latin for entrance can adapt the definitions of the Commission to their needs by the mere omission of the portions which assume a longer preparatory course. For a *two-year requirement* the reading should be not less *in amount* than Cæsar, Gallic War, I-IV; this reading should be selected by the schools from Cæsar (Gallic War and Civil War) and Nepos (Lives); and no part of the reading should be prescribed for examination. For a *three-year requirement* the reading should be not less *in amount* than Cæsar, Gallic War, I-IV, and Cicero, the orations against Catiline, for the Manilian Law, and for Archias; this reading should be selected from Cæsar (Gallic War and Civil War) and Nepos (Lives), Cicero (orations, letters, and De Senectute) and Sallust (Catiline and Jugurthine War); Cicero's orations for the Manilian Law and Archias should be prescribed for examination. Or the requirement in poetry, as defined by the Commission, may be offered as optional in place of the third-year prose.

In this statement the Commission proposes no modification of the definitions, but aims merely to make them usable for the requirements of all colleges. The acceptance of the definitions by colleges which require less than four years of Latin is necessary to the attainment of uniformity.

JOHN C. KIRTLAND *(Chairman)*.
W. DENNISON *(Secretary)*.

April 23, 1910.

On April 29-30 I attended the sixth annual meeting of The Classical Association of the Middle West and South, at the University of Chicago. There was a large number of persons in attendance, though after all but a small percentage of the members of the Association were present. This is inevitable, in view of the wide territory which the Association seeks to cover. There were few members present from either the Middle South or the South Atlantic States. The social side of the meeting was well cared for. The papers covered a wide variety of topics.

The President-elect for the new year is Professor B. L. D'Ooge, of the State Normal School at Ypsilanti, Michigan; Mr. D'Ooge was Secretary-Treasurer of the Association for three years prior to his visit to Europe in 1908-1909. The Association renewed, with some modifications, for the next five years the contract by which The Classical Journal has been printed at the University of Chicago Press; I understand that beginning with the next volume, next fall, one more number per year will be issued. Classical Philology will also be sent to the members by the Association, as heretofore. There is every indication also that the arrangement now in effect whereby members of The Classical Association of the Atlantic States may, by subscribing through the Secretary-Treasurer of their Association, obtain The Classical Journal and Classical Philology at one-third less than the regular rates, will be continued.

The experiment of exchanging delegates between the three great classical Associations has been markedly successful. At Chicago, as at Hartford, I was warmly received. The several Associations have much to learn from one another and can help one another greatly by a frank interchange of their experiences in their efforts to build up strong and effective organizations. My creed concerning this whole matter of organization of classical Associations and their coöperation one with another was set forth in full in an editorial in Volume II of The Classical Weekly (2.17-18), and again last week (3.217), so that I need not enter into the matter here.

Two other members of our Association were present at the meeting. Professor Harry Thurston Peck delivered the annual address, speaking in pleasant vein on The Classicist of to-day. Professor Mitchell Carroll was also present, being in Chicago in the course of a very extended trip in the West in the interest of the Archaeological Institute of America.

C. K.

THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF PITTSBURGH AND VICINITY

It was in the Fort Pitt Hotel, Pittsburgh, on April 16, that this Association was honored by the presence of Professor Paul Shorey of the University of Chicago. The occasion was the closing luncheon of the year. The verses of Gaudeamus igitur and Integer vitae were joyfully sung by a chorus of seventy voices.

The address of the day was very ably given by the guest of honor, Dr. Shorey. His subject was Nature Faking in Antiquity. Dr. Shorey was himself, versatile, witty, brilliant, unique.

This attractive address closed the last session of a very successful year for the Association.

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The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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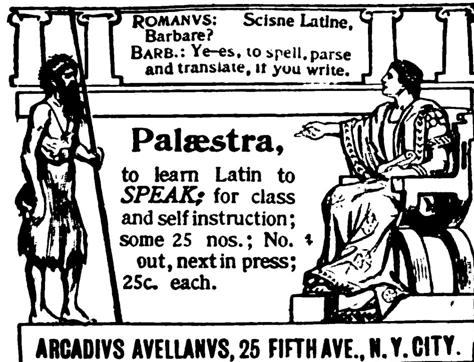

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A very stimulating little book has recently been published by Mr. Eugene A. Hecker, Master in the Roxbury Latin School, on The Teaching of Latin in Secondary Schools (Schoenhof Book Co., Boston).

We are accustomed to discursive discussion of this or that method of teaching Latin; we have had numerous articles on the value of Latin and kindred topics, but what has been conspicuously lacking in most of our discussions is detailed suggestions as to specific things. We find this difficulty met in Mr. Hecker's book, for he goes into elaborate detail and is so obviously speaking from ripe experience and thorough equipment that what he says is worthy of much consideration.

After a discussion of the curricula of secondary schools in Germany, France, England and America, with typical programs, he enters upon a chapter treating general matters, such as Correlation, Prose Composition, Memory Work, Reading Aloud, Pronunciation, Review, Translation, Acquisition of Vocabulary, Sight Reading and Choice of Authors. Then he takes up the work of the secondary school year by year and closes with general remarks on the relation of the college entrance requirements to the work of the schools. The most extensive chapter is on the fourth year, the teaching of Vergil, but considerable attention is devoted to the teaching of Caesar and Cicero. I quote the following conclusion to the chapter on the first year:

At the end of the first year of Latin a student should have the following knowledge: Declensions of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives; conjugation of regular verbs and the common irregular verbs, like *possum, fero, eo;* common uses of ablative, genitive, dative, accusative; the simple principles governing common subordinate clauses, such as those of purpose, result, temporal; familiarity with the Latin ways of saying things, acquired by a reasonable amount of reading in a suitable reader; and ability to render into Latin very simple English sentences illustrating grammatical principles.

In summarizing the results of the second year work he says:

At the end of the second year, the student should have a very fair grammatical equipment; in fact, enough to be adequate, with some additional note of rarer constructions and forms, for the next three years. Constant drill and review is as essential as during the first year. I consider a knowledge of the following reasonable to expect at the end of the second year: Syntax: Sequence of Tenses, Prohibitions, Exhortations, Wishes, Purpose, Result, Causal Clauses, Conditions, Concessive Clauses, Temporal Clauses, Questions, Direct and Indirect, Indirect Discourse, Complementary Infinitive, Potential Subjunctive and Subjunctive of Desire as basis of all Subjunctives, Ablative Absolute. Forms: Declensions, Comparisons, Regular and Irregular, Conjugations, Gerund and Gerundive, Supine. Functions of Cases: Vocative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Ablative, Locative. Miscellaneous: Uses of Prepositions, Accent, Word Formation, Numerals, Dates. Nouns having peculiarities, Other Irregular Words (pronouns and irregular verbs and words often confused and words with two or more distinct meanings).

Mr. Hecker does not believe in plunging the pupil at once into Caesar in all his complexity. He thinks a Gate to Caesar should be used. He does not believe in the use of the grammar until the third year; he thinks that very little attention should be paid to syntax at the outset and that what the stndent learns should be written down in a note-book rather than studied from a grammar. He believes thoroughly in the acquisition of vocabulary and thinks that the best way to do it is to have a student write each new word on a card with its meanings and then memorize it. In this connection "little booklets like Ritchie's Discernenda, a list of Latin words likely to be confused, is a convenient thing for pupils to use". In the second year students are to construct their own dictionaries of words and phrases and exact meanings are to be insisted upon. Slipshod translations are never to be tolerated for a moment. In the matter of sight translation of this year various readers might be used or selections from the Vulgate. In the case of Cicero in the third year he sees no reason why Cicero should be restricted to the orations; letters and essays should be included. Throughout the course correlation with English, particularly in History, should be insisted upon. So far as the Aeneid is concerned, he thinks only Books I-IV and VI should be presented in the secondary schools but he holds that the Eclogues might well be read, particularly IV and IX. An attempt should be made to treat Vergil from the literary point of view but this should not be pursued too far. Mackail's chapter on Vergil ought to be prescribed for every student, however, and no less than 200 lines of Vergil should be assigned to pupils to commit to memory and recite. In sight translation we might have in the fourth year some of the letters of Pliny, Juvenal or Seneca, Ovid and Cicero.

In all the chapters books important for the teacher are referred to, with suggestions for the school

library. Here the selection seems to be very judicious though in some respects perhaps more extensive than seems necessary.

No attempt has been made to do more than indicate the scope of the book, for to discuss the individual suggestions would require more space than I have at command. Of course there are certain things which might be objected to; for example, Mr. Hecker is willing to go to extremes in making a point. Thus he says:

> The best composition is only a piracy of words, phrases and constructions which actually occur in extant authors. When a student uses any other, the teacher doesn't know whether the Romans may have used it or not. Suppose you give the pupil this sentence: "Caesar made me write the letter." The boy translates literally: Caesar fecit me scribere hanc epistolam. "Wrong," says the teacher; "you should say, Caesar coegit, etc. But observe qui nati coram me cernere letum fecisti (*Verg. Aen.* 11.539); Nulla res magis talis oratores videri facit (*Cicero, Brutus,* 38, 142). Or suppose you have the sentence, "Horace is worth reading." I believe that the majority of teachers would here insist on a *qui* clause, because the composition book says so and they don't remember ever seeing an infinitive used in this construction. But see Quintilian, X, I, 96: At Lyricorum idem Horatius fere solus legi dignus. And isn't Quintilian "classical"?[1]

Now we may grant the truth of what he says but the fact that these exceptions occur does not seem a valid reason for not insisting upon the normal method of expression. If Cicero uses *quamvis* with the indicative once (it is a disputed passage), that is no reason why the simple distinction between *quamquam* and *quamvis* should not be taught. I do not believe that Mr. Hecker himself would tolerate in his classes *facio* in the sense of 'compel' or *quamvis* with the indicative. With his main contention that the things taught should be reduced to the minimum of essentials no one now would disagree but what constitutes the essential is still sometimes the question. But while all books have to be used with some care, this one has much less to criticise than most.

G. L.

CONCERNING VOCABULARY AND PARSING IN GREEK AND LATIN

(Continued from page 226)

The discussion so far has dealt only with vocabulary in Greek. In Latin, where so much more good work has already been done, it will be sufficient to illustrate briefly the principles set forth above, although in a different order.

As to a Latin beginning book. It must be emphasized anew that the most important aim of the first year's work is the student's acquisition of a good working vocabulary. This does not mean merely memorizing a list of words, but facility in using those words or their direct compounds under any circumstances. Parsing is, of course, included under this head, but that will be treated separately.

Vocabulary, therefore, must be emphasized from the very first. And yet at the first approach to Latin, usually the first foreign language, the student is generally baffled in the attempt to remember the strange words except for the day or under the temporary, false, stimulus of an examination. What must be done? Some means must be devised to make it possible to retain the words easily. How? By bridging over the gulf between the known and the unknown, the most fundamental principle of all pedagogy. This can best be done by the use of English derivatives from the Latin as a direct means of learning Latin itself. The benefit to English will be noticed later.

A sample vocabulary from the *o*-declension will illustrate:

VOCABULARY I

amicus, i, m.	*friend.*	AMICABLE
servus, i, m.	*slave.*	SERVILE
filius, i, m.	*son.*	FILIAL
deus, i, m.	*god.*	DEITY
somnus, i, m.	*sleep.*	INSOMNIA
in-, negative prefix,	*not.*	INSOMNIA
inimicus, i (**amicus**,	*friend*) *enemy.*	INIMICAL
gladius, i, m.	*sword.*	GLADIATOR
vicinus, i, m.	*neighbor.*	VICINITY
aureus	*golden*	AUREOLE
magnus,	*large*	MAGNITUDE
est, *is*; **sunt**,	*are.*	

With the English derivatives simple at the first as here, it will be found that the average student (he is the one education aims at, or ought to aim at) will memorize and retain this vocabulary easily even when Latin is new to him. Words with no English derivatives may be introduced gradually, as the memory is made strong enough by successful retention to absorb them. The encouragement born of rapid progress, and of seeing at once that Latin is an immense help to English is of incalculable value. Both boys and girls very soon see the benefit of the method.

It has to be said, of course, that the English derivatives must be selected with great care, so as to be simple and to avoid their being confused with the English meaning of the Latin word, for we are aware that students are cautioned in all the books not to translate certain words by their English derivatives. This *very point* of confusion may in nearly every case be avoided by choosing those English derivatives which, though simple, yet show the *strict meaning of the original root.* An example is *obtinere* (*ob,* in front of, *tenere,* hold) hold, RETAIN.

[1] To me Mr. Hecker's examples here seem somewhat unhappy. One comes from poetry. For the *passive* infinitive with *dignus* we need not go to Quintilian 10.1 96 (though one American Latin Grammar cites only that example); cf. e. g. Horace Serm. 1.3.24, 1.4.3, examples again from poetry. I cannot believe that *all* teachers in the Schools are quite so uncertain of their Latin as Mr. Hecker seems to imply. Some of them must surely have noticed the odd behavior of the passive infinitive, e. g. with *dignus* and *impero*. C. K.

Even small points of grammar may often be taught in this way, as stems of the third declension, parts of irregular verbs, etc. The following list of words will illustrate (roots of English derivatives not found in the present vocabulary are supposed to be contained in a previous one):

iter, itineris, n.	*march, journey.*	ITINERARY
vulnus, -eris, n.	*wound.*	INVULNERABLE
caput, -itis, n.	*head.*	DECAPITATE
foedus, -eris, n.	*league, treaty.*	CONFEDERATE
caro, carnis, f.	*flesh.*	INCARNATION
grex, gregis, m.	*flock.*	CONGREGATE
vetus, veteris,	*old.*	VETERAN
parvus, minor, -us, minimus,	*little.*	MINUS, MINIMIZE
bonus, melior, -us, optimus,	*good.*	AMELIORATE, OPTIMIST
video, -ere, vidi, visus,	*see.*	PROVIDE, INVISIBLE
sequor, sequi, secutus sum,	*follow.*	CONSECUTIVE

So with fourth declension stems, e. g. by using 'manufacture' with *manus*, 'genuflection' with *genu*, 'cornucopia' with *cornu*, etc. Even very unlikely words may have an English derivative that may be used, and it is a matter of surprise how comparatively few of the commonest Latin words have no such descendants. Indeed, it is to be expected that the commonest Latin roots would be most likely to pass over into English, and so it proves, as an exhaustive examination will reveal.

All vocabularies, of course, need careful arranging, (1) According to declension; (2) According to the convenience with which the English derivatives may be used; (3) According to the grouping of words together that suit a certain theme, or that are derived the one from the other, and (4) According to the need of illustrating the necessary principles of grammar or syntax.

If the interest is aroused at the outset by obviously practical results, and maintained by the making of interesting Latin narratives that appeal both to boys and girls, beginning Latin may still be the fruitful seeding-ground it ought to be. Five hundred words learned in all their forms is only a minimum. It can easily be made a thousand, even with the average student.

Little sketches concerning Roman history, customs, literary men and their productions will also help to arouse a true taste for further Latin studies. Besides, this training in etymology, both in Latin and in English, is highly educational, shall we not say 'practical'?

Is it not painfully true that the teaching of Latin-English etymology is now-a-days almost a mere name in most quarters? All believe in it, but few can find time for it. And it does take time, whether in connection with the modern Beginners' Books or with the reading of an author. The teacher may ask for or give a list of derivatives from any given Latin word, but such suggestion is laborious and slow, and the derivatives suggested are often of the least value. Besides, the work is generally done orally, and is apt to evaporate with comparatively little permanent result as compared with that obtained from definite study of the selected derivatives printed opposite the Latin original. Many teachers assume that students ordinarily do a great deal of etymologizing, but this belief is largely based upon the experience of such as themselves, manifestly not average cases.

The department of English has failed to handle the question of etymology, and unavoidably so, except for such simple work as that furnished by Swinton's Word-Analysis. Termination-study and prefix-study and the study of the simpler principles of the etymology of Latin or Greek derivatives in English ought to be done far down in the grades, but the Latin or Greek class is the place for the real work. There it can be done not only without requiring additional time, but with an actual saving of time both for the beginning year itself and for all the succeeding years.

A further word should be said concerning word-lists for each author read, at least up to the Freshman or the Sophomore years. The arguments in favor of such lists have been stated in the first part of this paper, in reference to Greek lists. The plan for Latin may be outlined thus: six to eight hundred words from Caesar I; then, inasmuch as many begin Caesar with II, an independent list for the remainder of Caesar, of twelve hundred words; (2) an independent list for each of the commonest orations of Cicero; and (3) an independent list for the first six books of the Aeneid, with poetical words indicated; (4) the Freshman Latin authors should certainly have such a list, as a check upon the earlier preparation, and the lists might be carried further if necessary. The earnest student, indeed, after becoming accustomed to the use of the lists, is eager to have a new one for each author read throughout the college course. He thus soon learns the peculiarities in diction of each new author, and gets a good review.

A brief sample of a list for Caesar will indicate the scope. For later authors, parts of verbs need not be given. The second root of an English derivative, where there is one, is given. Only simple root-meanings are chosen. The list is not intended to be a dictionary, only a memorabilia.

omnis, -e, *all, every*		OMNIPOTENT (**potens,** *powerful*)
divido, videre, visi, visus,	*divide.*	DIVISION
pars, partis, *f.*	*part.*	PARTIAL
tres, tria,	*three.*	TRIPLE
qui, quae, quod, rel pron.	*who, which, what.*	
unus, -a, -um,	*one.*	UNITED

alius, -a, -ud,	*other.*	ALIEN
lingua, -ae, f.	*tongue.*	LINGUIST
noster, -tra, -trum		
(nos, *we*)	*our.*	PATERNOSTER
appello,	*call by name.*	APPELLATION
hic, haec, hoc,	*this.*	
lex, legis, f.	*law, custom*	ILLEGAL
inter, (acc.)	*between, among.*	INTERURBEN (urbs, city)

The blank list for review contains simply the Latin words in the same order.

It need not be said that the list will be of no avail unless studied and reviewed constantly. Apparently there are very many words to learn at the first, but the lessons are very much shorter then, and most of the words will have been met before. The student, if required to recite on any part of his list at any time without notice, will find that it pays to learn the new words each day as a part of his lesson, which by every argument they undoubtedly are. The other benefits resulting from the use of the lists as hinted at in connection with Greek lists above, may be briefly restated in concluding this section: (1) methodical training of the memory; (2) development of etymological insight; (3) the consciousness of progress as shown by tangible results; (4) better preparedness for advanced reading, leaving more time to devote to subject matter and to additional reading; (5) better preparedness for sight-reading; (6) opportunity of frequent review; (7) better knowledge of English; (8) concentration on standard forms and words of permanent general value; (9) the doing away with the perpetual use of translations; (10) saving of time and gain in clearness everywhere.

PARSING

Under this head, Greek will be spoken of first, then Latin, and first the parsing-list for Xenophon, which is printed in the same book as the word-list, and arranged in the same order. Parsing of verbs includes giving person, number, tense, mode, voice, principal parts and meaning; parsing of a declinable word involves giving the case, number, gender, nominative form, comparison if compared, and meaning. It may be done orally or in writing with abbreviations.

The following sample from Xenophon 1.1.1-2 will illustrate:

1.		2.
γίγνονται		παρών
πρεσβύτερος		ἐτύγχανε
νεώτερος		ἧς
ἠσθένει		ἀπέδειξε
ἐβούλετο		λαβών
τώ		ἔχων
παῖδε		ἀνέβη
παρεῖναι		

[*Selected* parts of verbs are given in the word-list for Xenophon above, omitting rare and poetical forms which often cause confusion and waste of energy].

The use of this list cultivates and compels original knowledge of forms apart from the baneful, weakening crutch of context. The use of the list also precludes the necessity of the customary deplorable vivisection of each passage. It is a very feasible method, and only second in value to the word list. It is as valuable in Homer as in Xenophon. In short anywhere an ounce of real parsing is worth a ton of guessing from the context. For after the student comes habitually to feel responsible for the parsing of each form he meets, i. e. has really acquired the *parsing habit,* he will soon be master of the whole subject. In fact the ability to parse perfectly the first *three hundred forms* of Xenophon involves a knowledge of forms and attests an insight which needs little supplementing for any Greek prose readings.

With parsing, as with vocabulary, it goes without saying that it should begin in the first year, and at the very beginning of it. It is not sufficient for the student to commit to memory the paradigms so as to be able to recite or write them, for unfortunately the authors read do not consist of a mere succession of paradigms. Consequently the student sees many words, but does not actually *see* stems or endings. A number of exercises may easily be made compelling the individual parsing of forms. Such an exercise for the Greek *ο*—declension might run thus: change the number of the following words and word-endings, observing the accent carefully: θεοῦ, ποταμέ, ἀνθρώπους, τὸν, τοῖς. So one might ask his pupils to change λύσω, γράψετε, ἄγεις, ἄγει to the corresponding present or future.

Similar parsing exercises may readily be made for Latin also. For example, the pupil might be required to parse and change the number of *tulerunt, amavissetis, mihi, rexerimus, quibus, similibus, id,* etc., or to change to the future tense and to the other number *faciebam, monueratis, usus es,* etc.

To conclude, proper word-list study and parsing by the laboratory method with frequent reviews will not only save time and energy, but will give the unique discipline afforded only by such studies, and will help to save the day for the Classics.

Baltimore, Md. HERBERT T. ARCHIBALD.

REVIEWS

Der Monolog im Drama. Ein Beitrag zur griechisch-römischen Poetik. Von Friedrich Leo. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung (1908).

The main lines of Professor Leo's discussion are drawn in the opening paragraph. The soliloquy as we know it in Shakespeare and Schiller is not a heritage from Sophocles. Its path in the history

of the drama is, however, broadly traceable in the New Attic Comedy. Our interest is, then, at the outset fixed upon the relation of Attic Tragedy to New Comedy, or, in other words, upon the passage of the Attic drama from its earlier to its mature form.

The preliminary stages of the soliloquy may be followed with increasing distinctness from Homer to Euripides. The Homeric hero, in critical moments, deliberates with himself or addresses his own heart or some god. The watchman in the Agamemnon of Aeschylus soliloquizes, but he uses at the outset the form of prayer. Sophocles has frequent "asides", which are regularly addressed to a god, the elements or an absent person. Euripides is the bridge between the earlier and the later form of the Attic drama. One must turn rather to Euripides than to Aristophanes for an explanation of Menander. In respect to the soliloquy, Euripides is the forerunner. Yet he does not, relatively speaking, use the soliloquy with freedom. He is self-conscious about it, for the ever-present chorus is a barrier to the free use of the soliloquy as such. The comedy of manners took form in a time when the convention of the chorus was obsolete or obsolescent. The disappearance of the chorus was the removal of a barrier. The living force of the tendency to soliloquize could and, in fact, did then assert itself freely. Now begins the time when the soliloquy wins for itself equal rights with the dialogue. From the testimony which is afforded by Plautus and Terence, it is plain that the soliloquy belonged to the technical resources of New Comedy. Its use to mark the conclusion of one scene and the beginning of a new one, the use of the double soliloquy which presently passes over into dialogue, the use of the background to which one character may retreat and may so render himself fictitiously absent while a new character indulges in a soliloquy, all these belong to New Comedy. Not only the Roman adaptations, but the newly found texts of Menander prove that.

Professor Leo's purpose in following the history of the soliloquy, as he does follow it, to the limits of classical literature, is not merely historical. To return to his opening paragraph: there is a second main line of argument, the aesthetic. The ancients used soliloquies not because they had become, for some reason, a literary convention. They resorted to them because they had a basis in nature. The soliloquy arose among people who, in critical moments, soliloquize. It drew its inspiration from life. Alike Homer's warriors and Menander's men of the world talk with themselves in moments of danger or intense emotion. So, too, the Greek princes for whom the rhapsode sang and the Attic peasant who sat in the theater. However much the soliloquy may have become conventionalized in form, in its essence it is no convention. And further, it is no dramaturgic contrivance. Menander's practice declares as much. For his soliloquies are not used as mere devices for betraying secrets; in this respect they do not help on the plot. They are used because they mirror life.

I have attempted to state briefly, in part in the author's words, the two main interests which the reader will find in Der Monolog im Drama. Not that this summary of the book is exhaustive. The whole discussion is replete with suggestion, and the ground traversed is far greater than is indicated in the summary here given. Aside from its breadth of view, the book deserves to have and will have many readers because it is timely. A scholar of the very first rank, surveying the whole field of ancient literature, deals with a definite problem; and that, too, a problem which invites particular attention on account of the present interest in Menander. The aesthetic question, also, is a question of the day. Professor Leo enters a quiet but insistent protest against the current conception of dramatic art that banishes the soliloquy from the stage in the name of fidelity to nature and to life. He measures from a broad base-line, and finds that the soliloquy entered at first into Greek poetry because it corresponded to something actual in human life, and that it gained an undisputed place in the fully developed Attic drama because it was still felt to correspond to something real.

HAMILTON COLLEGE. EDWARD FITCH.

Handbuch der griechischen Dialekte. Von Albert Thumb. Heidelberg: Winter. (1909). Pp. XVIII + 403. 8 Mk.

Introduction to the Study of the Greek Dialects; grammar, selected inscriptions, glossary. By Carl Darling Buck. Boston: Ginn and Co. (1910). Pp. xvi+320. $2.75.

Since the days of Ahrens a knowledge of the Greek dialects has been obtainable only from the historical grammars and grammars of the separate dialects. Hence such study has been possible only for those with access to a number of rather expensive books, and only at the price of much turning of leaves. Now, within six months of each other, there appear two convenient and satisfactory handbooks.

Fortunately broad differences in content and arrangement make the two works supplementary. Professor Thumb's book is indispensable for the very full bibliography and the detailed account of the sources. The greater part of the material is arranged in the form of descriptions of the several dialects, under each of which we have an account of the sources, its history, and a statement of its important peculiarities. A feature that will appeal to philologists in the wider sense is the liberal at-

tention paid to the phases of the dialects that appear in literature. The treatment of Attic is commensurate with that of the other dialects, but one is surprised to see that the author of Die griechische Sprache im Zeitalter des Hellenismus here dismisses the κοινή with three or four pages.

The most striking feature which differentiates the American from the German book is the inclusion of the most important dialect inscriptions. In fact, a plan for a "collection of Greek dialect inscriptions with explanatory notes for the use of students" was the germ from which the book has developed. We have, therefore, in a single volume all the material needed for an elementary study of the dialects.

All dialectic peculiarities are grouped together instead of being scattered through a number of sections dealing with the different dialects. The discussion of rhotacism, for instance, forms one section, whereas the other principle of arrangement would have called for a treatment of it in the chapters on Elean, Laconian, West Ionic, Cretan, and Thessalian. Aside from its economy of space, this method is a great help toward a clear understanding of the linguistic processes involved.

"Summaries of the characteristics of the several groups and dialects" furnish a convenient survey of the material from the other point of view. Both points of view are combined in four charts which enable one to see at a glance the linguistic evidence on the interrelation of the dialects. The latter topic receives brief but clear treatment in the introduction, and, at the close of the grammar, is carried to its logical conclusion by a discussion of the various forms of κοινή.

There is a glossary of words contained in the inscriptions but not found in Liddell and Scott, and with this is combined an index to the grammar. The latter feature and the very numerous cross references make every part of the book easily available. Professor Buck's work is to be recommended to all whose interest in the dialects is primarily linguistic or epigraphic. And students of the literature can find here a safe foundation for work in the literary dialects.

BARNARD COLLEGE. E. H. STURTEVANT.

LATIN VERSES BY MR. HAWLEY

In THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY 1.59 a Latin poem entitled Ver Pulcrum was printed, together with a translation of the poem into English. At that time nothing was known to us of the author, Mr. Edward W. Hawley. We have since learned that Mr. Hawley is a very busy lawyer of Minneapolis, whose formal classical and linguistic studies lie twenty years behind him. In answer to a query whether he had any more Latin verses on hand, Mr. Hawley wrote:

Almost before I knew it, I was foolishly trying to frame in Latin verse an answer to your letter. And what was still more unfortunate, the meter that *insisted* on possessing me was the Sapphic (possessing me, I mean, after the manner of Mark Twain's "Punch, brothers, punch; punch with care", etc.), which meter always seemed to me as difficult to compose in as any, partly because of the very large classes of words that refuse absolutely to conform themselves to its complicated, and highly artificial, though (as exemplified by its use in Horace) most pleasing grouping of quantities. . . .I . . . felt, however, an unconquerable aversion to sending you any Latin verses composed by me at this time, unless I could succeed in making them flawless as to quantities.

At last, however, I have brought myself to send a stanza. You virtually asked me three questions: (1) Whether I wrote the verses Ver Pulcrum, etc; (2) Whether I had any more Latin verses to send you; (3) What observations, if any, I might want to make with reference to the writing of Latin verse.

My idea was to compose one Sapphic stanza in answer to each of these three questions, but thus far I have been able to work out only one stanza.

Later, Mr. Hawley sent two more stanzas. In these there were some errors in quantity, a matter not surprising in view of the fact noted above that twenty years of life as a busy lawyer and political reformer have elapsed since Mr. Hawley practiced the writing of Latin verse.

I give Mr. Hawley's stanzas, slightly modified by Professor George D. Kellogg, of Princeton University:

Si rogaris me faceremne versus
quos super nomen mihi pervideres,
haud velim captare senex dolose:
  sum reus ipse.

Si tamen captes aliud poema
ex eodem, me piget hoc referre,
"Quam senem temptare tenella facta
  stultius est nil".

Heu! nihil possum tibi me roganti
de poesi reddere praeter hoce,
"Hic labor" certe, "est opus hoc, Latine
  versificare".

I would translate thus the first stanza into Sapphics, says Mr. Hawley:

"If you make me plead to the charge of writing
One small Latin poem I signed I answer:
"Lie I cannot; guilty am I, as written
  in the indictment".

A free rendering of the other two stanzas would run as follows:

"But if, notwithstanding, you seek to obtain another poem written by the same person, it chagrins me to be forced to make this reply: "Nothing is more foolish than for an old man to attempt the deeds of youth".

Alas! I am unable to make any reply when you ask me to write on the art of composing verses in Latin, save this: "This is the labor, this the task, to write verses in Latin".

It is most refreshing to find a man immersed in the cares of a large practice and deeply engaged in municipal politics still keeping up his interest in the writing of Latin verses, an art which he learned under the late Professor F. D. Allen. Another

passage in Mr. Hawley's letter has its deep interest, a reference to the composition by him last summer, as he rowed about "one of the most beautiful of Minnesota's ten thousand lakes", of a translation of an Ode of Horace into English Sapphics. One is forcefully reminded of what Cicero says, in his Pro Archia, of *Haec studia*.

There was an interval of several months between the date at which Mr. Hawley sent his first stanza and that at which he forwarded the other two. During this time I put before Professor George D. Kellogg, of Princeton University, the ideas which Mr. Hawley was seeking to embody in Latin Sapphics. Mr. Kellogg wrote the first stanza as follows:

Si rogaris me dederimne versus
qui meo iam sub titulo feruntur,
tum senex nolim memorare falsa:
sum reus ipse.

He then continued as follows:

The sentiment which Mr. Hawley sets forth as part of his projected final stanza,

Hic labor certe est, opus hoc, Latine
versificare,

from the preceding lacuna, the jingle in *versificare* and the initial *hic*, suggests the famous story of Vergil's challenge,

Sic vos non vobis
sic vos non vobis
sic vos non vobis

especially since Vergil filled out with *nidificatis*, etc. I am, therefore, sending you two strophes filled out on this principle, the former answering the question whether he had any more Sapphics on hand, the latter containing a suggestion to those who aspire to write Latin verse.

Heu! rogatus nec reperire versus
nec meae possum moderare Musae:
"Hic labor certe est, opus hoc, Latine
versificare!"

Si quis est verum cupidus poeta
cui beato sic fieri libebit,
"Hic labor certe est, opus hoc, Latine
versificare!"

C. K.

THE NEW YORK LATIN CLUB

Seventy-three members of The New York Latin Club listened with much pleasure to the paper of Professor Frank Frost Abbott of Princeton University at the meeting on May 14. The subject, Some Reflections on the Pronunciation of Latin, gave opportunity of hearing the latest theories on the much-discussed matter of the Latin accent reviewed by a scholar thoroughly competent to analyze them and to draw trustworthy conclusions. The first point made was that while syncope and weakening of unaccented vowels show us that the speech of everyday life was marked by a stress accent, the retention of long unaccented vowels and the statements of grammarians make it probable that in literary circles accent was a matter of pitch. Hence the traditional conflict of word-accent and ictus in verse disappears. The second point, maintained was that the word-group, not the single word, was the unit in pronunciation. Proof for this was found in statements of Quintilian, word-groups with a single accent in Plautus and Terence, the omission of 'points' in inscriptions, etc. On the basis of these considerations Professor Abbott discussed the treatment of 'elided' final syllables, and concluded that slurring is the only practicable method of reading. By the Romans, however, the final and the initial vowel in such cases were treated as concurrent vowels within words were treated, e. g. in *cogo, dego*. Lack of space makes it impossible to enter into further details (it is hoped that the whole paper will appear in THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY): it remains to say that the general purpose of the paper was to show that in the pronunciation of Latin, even in prose, liaison obtained as in French, and that the final consonants of words were assimilated to the initial consonants of the following words even as within the individual word itself the first of two consonants repeatedly was assimilated to the second.

The following officers were elected for next year: President, Mr. E. W. Harter; Vice-President, Professor N. G. McCrea; Secretary, Mr. J. C. Smith; Treasurer, Mr. W. F. Tibbetts; Censor, Miss Anna P. MacVay.

EDWARD C. CHICKERING,
Pro-censor.

To M. Edmond Rostand, Author of Chanticler.

En tibi iunguntur miro luctantia nexu:
Gallus natura Gallus et arte tua.

You deftly joined what ages kept apart,
And what has come by nature, give by art.

F. P. D.

THE WASHINGTON CLASSICAL CLUB

The tenth regular meeting of The Washington Classical Club was held in the reading room of the Prints Division of the Library of Congress on Saturday, May 7, at 11.30. The President, Mr. Sidwell, introduced the Librarian of Congress, Mr. Putnam, who welcomed the members of the Club and offered to them the resources of the library. Mr. William Warner Bishop, Superintendent of the Reading Room, described the collections possessed by the library which are of interest to students of the Classics. He said that the library is especially rich in works on archaeology, proceedings of societies, publications of European universities, works on numismatics and catalogues of European manuscripts.

Reverend Henry J. Shandelle, S. J., of Georgetown University, with the help of Mr. Parsons, Chief of the Division of Prints, had chosen some of the most interesting books, prints and manuscripts for exhibition to the Club. At the close of the meeting the members were delightfully entertained at luncheon by the courtesy of Georgetown University.

The CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY

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So much is said now-a-days in many quarters about the use of translations in the teaching of Latin that I sometimes wonder whether our teachers are really convinced of the essential value of reading what the ancients wrote in the language in which they expressed their ideas. For aside from the proneness of translators with even the best intentions to make mistakes in their renderings, there is always the impossibility of actually rendering the original with all its implications and connotations into a language so different in all its components as our own. I find over and over again that in the best translations I am reading renderings which are not Latin at all but English. Often the translator has tried his best to produce the effect of the original, but often again he has obviously abandoned the attempt as hopeless. For example note the translation of Vergil 6. 338-339 in the most recent version:

Qui Libyco nuper cursu dum sidera seruat
exciderat puppi, mediis effusus in undis.
Who, as he whilom watched the Libyan stars,
had fallen, plunging from his lofty seat
into the billowy deep.

Without emphasizing that the translator has rendered *medias....in undas* instead of what stands in the text, we note that no attempt has been made to translate *effusus* at all, for 'plunging' can not be regarded as a real attempt to give the image. And no one who knows Vergil would admit that the rendering of the whole passage is Vergil at all. It is in reality English, and rather poor English, based remotely upon Vergil. It is the same with most of the translations.

I am moved to these remarks by the pleasant story told by Mr. Gilbert Murray in his inaugural lecture on The Interpretation of Ancient Greek Literature (Oxford, 1909) of the late Mr. Labouchere, who, if alive, would doubtless be much in favor of doing away with the study of the Classics in the schools. The story with some criticisms is as follows:

I remember about twenty years ago reading an obituary notice of Bohn, the editor of the library of translations, written by Mr. Labouchere. The writer attributed to Bohn the signal service to mankind of having finally shown up the Classics. As long as the Classics remained a sealed book to him, the ordinary man could be imposed upon. He could be induced to believe in their extraordinary merits. But when, thanks to Mr. Bohn, they all lay before him in plain English prose, he could estimate them at their proper worth and be rid for ever of a great incubus. Take Bohn's translation of the *Agamemnon*, as we may presume it appeared to Mr. Labouchere, and take the *Agamemnon* itself as it is to one of us: there is a broad gulf, and the bridging of that gulf is the chief part of our duty as interpreters. We have of course another duty as well—our duty as students to know more and improve our own understanding. But as interpreters, as teachers, our main work is to keep a bridge perpetually up across this gulf. On the one side is Aeschylus as Bohn revealed him to Mr. Labouchere, Plato as he appeared to John Bright, Homer as he still appears to Mr. Carnegie. I will go much further and take one who is not only a man of genius, like Bright, but a great poet and a Greek scholar, Euripides as he appears to Mr. Swinburne; on the other side is the Aeschylus, the Plato, the Homer, the Euripides, which we, at the end of much study, have at last seen and realized, and which we know to be among the highest influences in our lives. This is not a matter of opinion or argument. What we have felt we have felt. It is a question of our power to make others, not specialists like us, feel the same. It is no impossible task. Like most others, it is one in which a man sometimes succeeds and sometimes fails, and in which he reaches various degrees of comparative success. There is not a classical tutor in this room who does not know that it can be done, and that he can himself do it[1].

Mr. Murray goes on to explain that the task is not an easy one. For we have to take into consideration so many elements. And it is not surprising that a large proportion of our students get into their minds but a very small part of what they actually read. In the case of poetry there is often a surface appeal to the emotion, which many mistake for appreciation. But in the case of literary prose, the amount of study and reflection which the teacher needs before he can interpret aright is such that we may well hesitate to ask that the attempt to interpret aright be made at all. But nevertheless the material is there; it is our business to make use of it. Shall we teachers be content to be interpreters like those of Bohn? It so, why complain that our students get nothing out of Classics? It is a great thing to be an interpreter of a great mind! Why not accept the post with awe and try to live up to the duties of our priesthood? It is a matter of congratulation that so many do. It is encouraging to think that that number is increasing every day.

G. L.

[1] See Mahaffy's sound remarks on this general subject in What have the Greeks done for Modern Civilization, 23 ff. C. K.

THE FEELING OF THE ANCIENTS FOR NATURE, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO QUINTUS HORATIUS FLACCUS

The Feeling of the Ancients for Nature is so large a subject that I must state my limitations of it at once in order to show that I purpose no exhaustive treatment but only a suggestive sketch. I shall outline first of all the literature of the subject, taking it up in historical order, then try to state in a general way certain characteristics of the feeling for nature among the Greeks and the Romans. Lastly, to illustrate the proper method of approach to antiquity, I will analyze the feeling for nature in Horace.

The first epoch-making work in the comparison of the ancient and the modern feeling for nature was Schiller's essay, Über naive und sentimentalische Dichtung, written in 1795. Schiller contrasts the naive nature feeling of the ancients and the sentimental feeling of the moderns, and declares that it seems strange that among the Greeks so few traces of a sentimental interest in nature appear. He writes as follows:

> If we recollect the beautiful nature which surrounded the ancient Greeks, if we recollect in what intimacy this people lived under its happy sky with free nature, how much nearer to simple nature were its conceptions, sensations, and customs, and how faithfully she is pictured in its poems, it must seem strange to us that so few traces of sentimental interest, with which we moderns cling to natural scenes and natural characters, are found among the Greeks. The Greek is eminently correct, true and circumstantial in his descriptions of nature, but no more so, nor with any more cordial interest than he manifests in the description of a costume, a shield, a breast-plate, a piece of furniture or some other mechanical product[1].

In making this generalization, Schiller had Homer in mind as the Greek, and it is this generalization of his, based on so limited a part of Greek literature, that set the tone for the traditional view of the Greek feeling toward nature. But even Schiller himself saw that so sweeping a contrast between ancient naiveté and modern sentimentalism could not hold and in the same essay he points out a sentimental tendency in Euripides and among the Romans, in Horace, Vergil and Propertius. Moreover, his poem, Die Götter Griechenland, recognizes the deep feeling for nature in the Greek mythology. His essay, however, set the traditional view for many years, the view that emphasized the sharp contrast between the ancient feeling for nature and the modern.

The first critic to dissent from the conventional view was Jacobs; he sensed even in Homer a real feeling for nature and his work was followed by that of Alexander von Humboldt who in his Cosmos admitted that the Greeks had a deep feeling for nature, but declared that this simply did not find expression in nature description for its own sake.

[1] Hempel's translation, 2.554-555.

He says:

> The description of nature in its manifold richness of form as a distinct branch of poetic literature was wholly unknown to the Greeks. The landscape appears among them merely as the background of the picture in which human figures constitute the main subject. But absence of nature descriptions does not prove absence of susceptibility to the beauties of nature where the perception of beauty was so intense[1].

Humboldt's belief in the deep nature feeling among the ancients was carried out by Metz in his treatise Über die Empfindung der Naturschönheit bei den Alten, but his work met no wide recognition, for it disregarded entirely the historical method of treatment, placing Ovid beside Homer, Ausonius beside Sophocles and Euripides, Plato beside Horace. More significant is the work of Woermann (1871[2]), who in a study of the feeling for landscape among the ancients, an introduction to a study of their landscape painting, maintained that the subject could be investigated only by an historical study of individual writers and an exposition of the genetic process of development. Friedlaender in a suggestive study in his Darstellung aus der Sittengeschichte Roms (1881), maintained that the feeling for nature among the ancients was not less lively and deep than the modern, but was confined to narrower boundaries; that in general the ancients responded only to the charming and the bright, while roughness, wildness, majesty to them shut out beauty.

By far, however, the most stimulating and instructive work done on the subject is that of Alfred Biese in his book Die Entwicklung des Naturgefühls bei den Griechen und Römern. Biese gives first in an introductory chapter an historical resumé of the work done in the field, then studies in three chapters "the naive feeling for nature in Homer", "the sympathetic feeling for nature in lyric and drama", and lastly, "the sentimental-idyllic nature-feeling of the Hellenistic period and the Empire". The historical method is used throughout and every statement made is supported by quotations or references. The same line of treatment is carried out in the study of the Roman feeling for nature and the volume must be the point of departure for all future investigators of any period, author, or problem in this field.

In English work, three writers must be mentioned in view of their contributions to the thought on the ancient feeling for nature. Ruskin's name is famous for two dicta: first, that "the pathetic fallacy" in nature description is essentially modern, and second that the Greek ideal of a landscape was composed of "a fountain, a meadow, and a shady grove". Ruskin, to be sure, modifies both statements, admitting that in certain Greek writers there were traces of the pathetic fallacy, and that this ideal of landscape was peculiarly Homer's. Yet to him as to Schiller, Homer was *the*

[1] Cosmos 2.373-374.

[2] Über den landschaftlichen Natursinn der Landschaftmalerei.

Greek and his generalizations were to his own mind justified. J. C. Shairp in his Poetic Interpretation of Nature criticized Ruskin's idea of the Greek ideal of a landscape as based almost entirely on the Odyssey and pointed out that in the Iliad the similes take their descriptions of nature from every source, mountain, forest, sea in storm, cloudy sky, so that not only the tame and the domestic in nature are appreciated. A more significant treatise for the subject is S. H. Butcher's essay on The Dawn of Romanticism in Greek Poetry[1]. In this essay, Butcher points out that the distinction between ancient and modern, classical and romantic has been too sharply drawn and that within Greek literature itself there was preparation "for a new attitude towards the things of the heart and another mode of contemplating the universe without". He makes, however, this change of sentiment set in only from the time of Alexander with a bare suggestion of a romantic tendency in Euripides. He attributes the new feeling in the Alexandrian era to three causes: the slow death of the old polytheistic beliefs of Greece which had supported the mythological representation of nature; the foreign travel and scientific research which brought about close observation of nature; and the rise of great cities in the Alexandrian age which produced a sentimental regret for the loss of country life.

Certain works on special periods suggest the line which recent work in the field has followed. H. R. Fairclough's admirable thesis on The Attitude of the Greek Tragedians toward Nature is a scholarly and detailed study. Its significance lies in tracing the development of the pathetic fallacy in Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides—a vital refutation of Ruskin's statement that it is modern, and in his proving that Euripides was a romanticist in his treatment of nature in his frequent use of the pathetic fallacy, in his intense love of nature, and in the longing for her solitudes expressed in his plays.

A thesis by Katharine Allen on The Treatment of Nature in the Poetry of the Roman Republic (exclusive of Comedy) is illuminating for Roman literature and suggests the possibilities of work in this field on other authors. The method followed is a detailed study of each poet in regard to (1) various aspects of nature: sky, sea, streams, mountains, woods, plants, animals; the figurative use of each; its literal representation; the epithets used; (2) his feeling and attitude towards nature: the personalization of nature; the aesthetic sense; the sense of sympathy between man and nature.

E. T. McLaughlin has an essay on The Mediaeval Feeling for Nature in his Studies in Mediaeval Life and Literature, a brief but suggestive account. The conclusion is that:

The northern poets described storm, winter, the ocean, and kindred subjects with considerable force and fulness. In the cultivated literatures to the south, natural description was mainly confined to the agreeable forms of beauty....The exterior world was not made a subject of close observation, nor was its poetic availability realized as a setting for action, or as an interpreter of emotion.

[1] In Some Aspects of the Greek Genius, 245-321.

John Veitch wrote a book in two volumes on The Feeling for Nature in Scottish Poetry, tracing the growth of the Scottish "love for free, wild nature", the tendency to indulge in minute description, and "the imaginative sympathy for the grand and powerful in nature".

F. W. Moorman is the author of The Interpretation of Nature in English Poetry from Beowulf to Shakespeare, a scholarly study in fifteen chapters of the development in the English feeling for nature and "the influence of one poet upon another and of one period of poetry upon succeeding periods".

Myra Reynolds in a doctor's dissertation studies another period of the English field, The Treatment of Nature in English Poetry between Pope and Wordsworth. The plan of her work is (1) a general statement of the chief characteristics in the treatment of nature by the English classical poets; (2) a detailed study of the eighteenth century poets who show some new conception of nature; (3) studies of eighteenth century landscape gardening, fiction, books of travel and painting. The book is both scholarly and readable.

The work that I myself have done, if I may be permitted to speak of my own dissertation, The Sea in Greek Poetry, differs from the special studies described in taking for its theme instead of a particular period, author, or kind of poetry, one special element in nature, the sea, and endeavoring to focus on it the Greek feeling for nature. I felt that the sea was so informing and vital a part of Greek life that an historical study of its appeal to the Greek mind as expressed in Greek poetry could not but yield some interesting results. The subject divided itself naturally into three parts: the mythological treatment of the sea; the sea as imaginative background in Greek tragedy; and the feeling of sympathy between man and the sea[1].

From this review of the literature of the subject we may draw certain conclusions in regard to the ancient and the modern feeling for nature. First of all, it is important to reiterate that no sharp dividing line between the ancient and the modern feeling should be made. The ancients did have intense feeling for nature. In many ways this feeling was like the modern, in other ways it was distinctly different from it. Then, secondly, appreciation of the ancient feeling for nature must be based on historical, genetic study of ancient literature, a care-

[1] There is what seems to me an admirable discussion of the attitude of the Greeks toward nature in the first chapter of the book entitled Greek Lands and Letters, by Professor and Mrs. F. G. Allinson. (1909 See The Classical Weekly 3.147-148). C. K.

ful study of individual authors in chronological order. Thirdly, certain characteristics of the ancient feeling for nature may be predicated, but extreme care should be taken in making generalizations as one dictum after another that has been made in the past has had to be modified or withdrawn. We have seen how Ruskin's statement that the pathetic fallacy in nature description was essentially modern was disproved as well as his declaration that the Greek ideal of a landscape was a fountain, a meadow and a shady grove. In the same way, Friedlaender's statement that the ancient feeling for nature was limited to the charming and the bright is by far too extreme and in line with that also is to be rejected the conventional belief that the ancients felt only fear for the sea.

Certain tendencies, however, in the ancient attitude towards the outer world may be noted and here Alfred Biese is the safest guide. I shall give some of his conclusions mingled with comments of my own. First of all, the Greek feeling for nature is manifested in an elaborate mythology. To the Greek, Pan was always abroad in the land, the nymphs laughed in the waterfalls, hamadryads hid in the oaks, and the sea was the home of Proteus, Nereus, Oceanus and a host of other gods. These beings often met man and held converse with him. So since nature's life was very near man's and very like it communion with it was natural. Homer is full of this nature mythology used in the most fresh and charming manner and indeed its use persists all down through Greek poetry. Always the Greeks felt nature so near themselves, so like themselves that it was easy to

> Catch sight of Proteus rising from the sea
> And hear old Triton blow his wreathéd horn.

Another way in which the Greeks showed their sense of the nearness of the life of man to the life of nature was in the use of metaphors and similes comparing man's life to the life of nature. From Homer down through the Alexandrians their poetry is full of these comparisons, showing on one hand keen observation of nature in the details of the pictures, and on the other voicing the sense of the inner unity of the life of man and the life of the outer world.

The Greeks moreover felt a sympathy between man and nature from the earliest times. There are traces of this feeling in Homer, but the lyric and the tragic poetry from their inherent nature developed it more fully. In the tragedians especially this sympathy is strikingly expressed by the use of nature as setting for the mood of man, for the tragedians supplemented the bare simplicity of the actual staging of their plays by a richness of mental background that compensated for any material lack. The Ajax and the Philoctetes of Sophocles are striking examples of the use of the sea for setting to mental and bodily suffering, and of a strong feeling of sympathy between man and nature (the scene so in harmony with Ajax's lonely suicide; the deserted Philoctetes finding at last companionship in rocks and woods). In Euripides in addition to this use of nature as a sympathetic background for man's moods there appears an intense longing for the lonely places of the outer world, a desire to escape from the struggle of life to their peace and healing. Hippolytus lives in the wood; Phaedra longs to escape from her passion to the mountains, or the clouds, or the sea-shore; the Bacchantes go mad with ecstasy in the joy of the forest.

In the Hellenistic period of Greek poetry, a new attitude towards nature appears; this Biese calls a sentimental-idyllic nature feeling. This new feeling Butcher, as I have said, ascribes to a rational attitude towards the old mythology, to the foreign travel and research stimulated by Alexander's conquests, and to the rise of great cities in the Alexandrian age which by the very pressure and complexity of their life turned men's thoughts to the refuge of the country. As Biese says:

> All this was reflected in their poetry. The source of poetry was no longer the free imagination, creative, full of spirit, but work in imitation of the great models, reflection which analyzed every thought and feeling and a full self-consciousness.

Self-consciousness and self-analysis produced the sentimental feeling of the time, the desire to escape from city to country in order to get more freedom for inner life produced the idyllic poetry. The change in nature feeling appears especially in descriptions of country where the shepherds sing of their loves and of their feeling for nature. Descriptions of nature are introduced first in this period for their own sake instead of simply to illustrate man's mood in some comparison or to form a background for human action and feeling.

The Roman attitude towards nature differed from the Greek in many ways. In the first place, the naiveté of the early Greek world was always strange to the Romans. Their spiritual life never had a happy Homeric childhood; from the first, rather, among the Romans, reflection and thought overbalanced imagination and feeling. Their religion had no beautiful mythology until it adopted the Greek hierarchy of gods, and their early attitude towards nature is probably fittingly represented by the writings of Marcus Porcius Cato which are purely prosaic and utilitarian in character. But early in Rome's literary history "captive Greece took captive her fierce conqueror" and the Romans in their attitude towards nature were largely influenced by the Greeks. So the points already made in regard to the Greek attitude towards nature (the mythological representation of it, the use of figures comparing man's life and that of nature, the idyllic attitude), hold good of the Roman feeling and to give some idea of what

is peculiarly Roman, it is necessary to characterize the feeling for nature of individual Latin poets rather than the tendencies of large periods of thought.

The early poets of the Republic, Ennius and the tragedians, show a borrowing from Greek sources in their pictures of nature—a borrowing from no one particular period but from any that suited their need: Homer, Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides. Lucretius is much more significant for our subject than the earlier men. In his De rerum natura, a philosophical poem written from the Epicurean standpoint, he separates the deities of the people's thought from the world ana places them in a happy, passive existence, undisturbed by wind or storm. He then explains the constitution of the universe by a simple version of the atomic theory which is still for scientific thought its basic hypothesis. This rationalistic treatment of nature elevates man who does not bow before gods, overpowered by a sense of dependence upon them, but observes with wonder and awe free nature which is his true friend. Nature also teaches man to enjoy herself and so Lucretius gives some beautiful pictures of the outer world. Through his teachings he was the founder for Rome of a knowledge of nature.

In contrast to this reflective and philosophic attitude of Lucretius towards nature, Catullus strikes a pure lyric note, making nature illustrate or sympathize with his own intense feeling. His bright days and his happiness are identical; spring stirs alike nature and his heart; his Lesbia's kisses must be as many as the sands or the stars. He paints the figure of his Attis, frenzied with religious fanaticism, against a dark background of desolate sea that suits his mood, and bereft Ariadne, standing by the pitiless ocean, is beaten by great waves of misfortune. The ardor of Catullus's feeling goes out not only to the beauty of his lady, but to beauty in the world about him and he shows almost as intense feeling for particular places as he does for particular people.

In contrast to the nature feeling in the poetry of the Republican period when the Romans were first awkwardly finding themselves in the field of literature, then closely imitating the Greeks, and at last developing two such striking personalities as Lucretius and Catullus, the Augustan age shows conspicuously an elegiac-idyllic nature feeling. In this period of peace, as the complexity of life in the city grew apace, there arose, as before among the Greeks in the Alexandrian age, the longing for eternally pure and free nature and an idyllic poetry which expressed this longing.

Vergil expresses this feeling in his Eclogues in the pictures of the life of the shepherds under the trees, in the Georgics in the picture of the farmer's life. Throughout these poems as well as in the Aeneid (where he imitates Homer in nature similes and mythology) he shows a tender, dreamy feeling for nature and a sense of the deep sympathy existing between the outer world and man. "Virgil's attitude towards nature, however, is complex", as J. B. Duff well brings out in his new Literary History of Rome. He shows that in Virgil's attitude towards nature two principles strive to assert themselves. The one

is philosophic, the other is romantic. Vergil is conscious of these contending tastes. Reverently impressed by Lucretius, he cherishes an aspiration to solve the riddle of the universe on scientific principles. Failing in this he falls back on a simple love of nature's beautiful things. He has himself placcd both attitudes side by side in the second Georgic.

First may the Muses, sweet beyond compare,
Whose acolyte I am, deep smit with love,
Receive and teach me of heaven's star-lit paths;
The sun's eclipses, travail of the moon;
Earthquakes; the force by which deep oceans swell,
Burst bars and ebb upon themselves again;
Why winter suns make so much haste to dip
At sea, what sloth besets the laggard nights.
But if tame blood at heart shall bar my hopes
To track such portions of the universe,
Then fields and brooks in glens shall gladden me,
Lover of stream and wood unknown to fame.

The elegists of the Augustan age each in his own way manifest the idyllic nature feeling. Tibullus, tender and delicate, has a love for the quiet loneliness of country life and combines with a sense of old Roman piety and with his personal passion this inner, idyllic nature feeling. Propertius's work is a mixture of mythological learning, passion, and deep feeling for the peace and charm which nature and the natural in contrast to the city and the cultivated give. Ovid shows a rich observation of nature in the pictures of his innumerable similes, in frequent personalization, and in brilliant use of Greek nature myths turning on some metamorphosis. These three elegists, Tibullus, Propertius, and Ovid, blend their nature descriptions with idyllic and erotic motives.

In the Empire, conditions tended to deepen interest in nature. More and more was life in country villas sought as relief from city luxury. The increasing study of philosophy also deepened the interest in nature and the peace and quiet of the country were sought as a relief from the moral evils of the times. But the growing interest in nature was not expressed again with the originality of a Catullus or a Vergil, but rather followed conventional lines of close imitation. Seneca is the most interesting figure for us of these latter days, for his poetry shows a broad philosophical-religious treatment of nature and teaches that the contemplation of nature leads man to a loftier state of mind.

From this brief review of the feeling for nature in Latin poetry, I wish to go back now to the poetry of Quintus Horatius Flaccus.

If one is interested in a scholarly and minute study of Horace's feeling for nature I would refer him to two books on the subject: a pamphlet on Die Natur in der Dichtung des Horaz, by Edward Voss (1889),

and a one volume treatise, Horaz als Freund der Natur nach seinen Gedichten, by Franz Hawrlant (1895). I myself will try simply to point out what Horace saw in the out-door world, and how he used nature in his poetry.

His taste for out-door life was set early by the happy fact that he was a country child. Son of a peasant father who had been a slave but had been freed, Horace was born on a farm in southern Italy. The sloping hills of Apulia and the loud-roaring Aufidus river are among his first impressions. He has a charming myth of his babyhood: how when he was lost in the woods, the doves covered him with leaves and the gods kept him from bears and vipers. He knows, moreover, out of that life with the peasants, many folk tales, country lore taught him by old wives and simple farmers. Though he left Apulia early for an education in Rome and, as far as we know, never went back again to stay, his birth-place haunted his memory and the name of Apulia reechoes through his poetry.

He went back to a country life again after many years, though not in Apulia. When his education was finished in Rome and Athens, and he had fought on the side of Brutus for a losing cause, he had gone back to Rome to find his father dead, his father's farm confiscated by the triumvirs, so that he had to struggle with both poverty and loneliness. As a relief from the monotony of a secretaryship to a quaestor, he began to write; his poetry won him the friendship of Vergil and then that of Maecenas, and that great literary patron of the Augustan age gave him in the year 33 B.C. a small farm in the Sabine hills. Horace has given us a loving description of it: its encircling mountains, its "living river near the door", its oak-trees and woodland[1]; and he makes us see towering up over his villa the tall pine which he dedicates to Diana, guardian of mountains and groves[2].

The poet tells us in various ways all that his farm and life in the country meant to him. It meant good health first of all. In a frank letter, written in response to Maecenas's urgent invitation to come to the city, he tells his patron that if he wishes him to be wholly sound in mind and truly well in body, he must let him linger on in the country[3], and to Tibullus, a brother poet, he writes of the health-giving forests[4]. The country gave him also leisure and inspiration to write. "The whole band of poets loves the woods and shuns the city"[5], he says. "The waters which flow by fertile Tibur and the thick-leaved trees are what make a man famous for a strain of lyric song"[6]. "Do you suppose that the poet can compose lyrics in the midst of the distractions and noise of city life?[7]"

Then in the country too (to follow Horace's reasoning), one may live the simple life in accordance with nature. "Here one really lives and reigns" says Horace. "Scorn great possessions. Under a humble roof one may surpass the life of kings and friends of kings"[8]. So Horace the Stoic spoke and then again a Cyrenaic mood would come upon him (and who of us does not vacillate between the tendencies of those old philosophies?) and he would praise nature for the sensuous enjoyment of the moment that she so richly gives. "Sleep on the grass near a running brook", beneath a shady tree, fragrance of roses in the air, a jug of wine at hand[9]—Horace knew the delights of all this as well as Omar Khayyam.

But the country gave Horace still more than health, poetic inspiration, the simple life of the Stoic, and Sensuous joy. It gave him an acquaintance with the farmers about him, philosophers apart from the schools with a native mother wit which made their comments on life shrewd and picturesque.

This brings me to my second point: how did Horace use in his poetry the outer world with which he was so familiar? In the first place, he was so imbued with Greek literature and life that he felt as naturally as any Greek the mythology of the nature world and used it in his verse. In spring-time, he sees in magical moonlight Venus leading the dance of the nymphs and the Graces, knows, as the heavens reverberate, that the Cyclops have forged new thunderbolts for Vulcan, knows too that on his own farm Faunus walks through his fields in all kindliness and takes care of the tender younglings of the flock, and he swears that he himself has seen Bacchus in a lonely spot teaching the nymphs and the satyrs to sing. The charm of such personalization of nature is so intense that we covet with Wordsworth the pagan vision of the gods as "glimpses that would make us less forlorn".

In his poetry again Horace shows his feeling for nature in figures comparing the life of man to the life of nature. The course of the seasons is a favorite illustration for the life of man. The snows of winter melt when the grass returns to the fields and the leaves to the trees. But summer treads fast upon the heels of spring and when autumn has poured forth her fruit sluggish winter returns. So the cycle of nature goes on, but when once we have departed where Aeneas went, we are dust and shade. Not to hope for immortality is the lesson of the changing year[10]. Innumerable similes compare man to animals. Cleopatra is the timid hare fleeing from Octavius[11], Drusus is the young eagle or a lion in pursuit of the enemy[12], Chloe is the timid fawn following her mother in the trackless forest[13], Horace himself is now the hog of Epicurus's sty[14], now the Matinian bee gathering the honey of his poems from

[1] Epp. 1. 16.1-16. [2] C. 3.22. [3] Epp. 1.7. [4] Epp. 1.4.4. [5] Epp. 2.2.78. [6] C. 4.3. 10-12. [7] Epp. 2 2.65-66.

[8] Epp. 1.10. [9] Epp. I.14.35; C. 2.3.5-12. [10] C. 4.7 [11] C. 1.37.17-21. [12] C. 4.4.1-21. [13] C. 1.23. [14] Epp. 1.4.16

every flower[15]. Illustrations are drawn too from the plant world. The color of youth is like the color of roses[16]; ruined beauty is like an arid oak-tree[17]; Achilles is as mighty as a great pine[18]. Again man is compared to a stream. Lucilius's imperfect verse ran along like a muddy brook[19]; Pindar's impetuous style was like a mountain torrent[20]. The heavens furnish other comparisons. A frowning face is like a cloud-covered sky[21]; beauty of body is like the gleam of the stars[22]; Augustus's presence is like the light of spring on the world[23]. There are scores of these comparisons which on the one hand indicate how near Horace felt man and nature to be and on the other hand give us nature pictures which show his keen observation of the outer world.

And from these pictures we find what Horace most enjoyed in nature. He delighted in running water (brooks and streams), loved trees(pines, oaks, plane-trees, and elms), was glad of flowers (the myrtle and the rose), watched animals with feeling for their beauty and a certain tenderness for the helpless victim brought to the altar and the yearlings of the flock, subject to so many dangers. He watched too the larger phases of nature: observed the changing seasons, saw moonlight and sunlight on the world, heard the echo that the rocks sent forth. Moreover, he took delight in special places and these in spite of his life in Greece were all Italian. He has told us of the corner of the world that charms him beyond all others, singing with deep affection of Tarentum's happy heights where spring is long and winter mild. He has sung lovingly too of Tibur in the Sabine hills where the rushing Anio river waters the green orchards. And he has made his Sabine farm unforgettable.

You will not find long, detailed descriptions of nature, given for their own sake. Perhaps the poem on the Fons Bandusiae (3.13) is his one nature poem. But you will find close observation and keen delight. You will find few descriptions that shew appreciation of the grand and the sublime. The sea is mentioned only with dread of danger and storm. But you will find according to my belief a very genuine love of the country for the freedom of its simple life, for the good health it bestows on all and the inspiration it gives to the poet, and for its inherent beauty.

Certain objections may be raised by those who do not consider Horace a sincere lover of nature. Horace, such persons would say, admitted himself that he was not constant in his affection for nature and he was guarded often rather than enthusiastic in his expression of feeling about it. The first statement is true. Horace does speak of himself in two places as fickle in his attitude towards country life, once in Epistle 1. 8. 12, where he declares "At Rome I love Tibur, and, fickle fellow that I am, at Tibur love Rome" and again in Satire 2. 7, where Davus, Horace's slave, brings the same charge against his master, saying "At Rome you long for the country, but in the country you extol to the stars the absent city, light-minded that you are". But these charges can hardly be taken seriously for Horace himself refuses to be taken seriously about anything, or to claim consistency[24].

Horace then will seem at last and rightly a poet who had rather a contemplative attitude than a sensuous towards nature. He does not elaborate color, sound, or touch. He sees nature virtually always in its relations to persons, either personalizing its attributes to deities, or comparing its life to man's life, or drawing from its aspects lessons for man. And yet his poems read as a whole show the large part the country played in his happiness, that he sincerely felt its beauties, and that in the quiet, contemplative habit of his temperament he loved it.

I have used Horace's feeling for nature simply as an illustration of the larger theme, the feeling of the ancients for nature, hoping by a brief study of a particular author to emphasize some of the general points I have tried to make: first, that no sharp dividing line can be drawn between the ancient feeling for nature and the modern; second, that each Greek and Latin author must be studied individually, yet viewed in the light of the historical development of his national literature and his place in it; that if any generalizations about the ancient feeling for nature can be safely made, they are that the ancients personalized nature more than the moderns, that they did not in general describe nature for its own sake, but as setting to man or as illustration of his life, and that they did not enjoy as much as the moderns the beauty of the grand and the sublime in nature, especially in mountains and the sea. But both Greeks and Romans, however much they differed from the modern way of looking at the outer world, so lived in it, so knew it that it makes the great and varied background of their poetry.

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[15] C. 4. 2.27. [16] C. 4.10.17. [17] C. 4.13.9. [18] C. 4.6.9. [19] Sat. 1.10.50. [20] C. 4.2.5. [21] Epp. 1.18.94. [22] C. 3.9.21. [23] C. 4.5.5.

[24] In Volume 4 of THE CLASSICAL WEEKLY I shall discuss in detail Epode 2 in its relation to my general theme.

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