MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY

J. G. ANDERSON

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WANTED—A POLICY.

I SHOULD be sorry if the discussion on this subject were to degenerate into personal recrimination, but Professor Kastner's attempt to justify his insinuations leaves me no choice but to say that I totally refuse to recognize the rôle he is bent on forcing on German specialists.

His amazement at my 'outburst' does not surprise me. People who are rude, intentionally or otherwise, have often cause for amazement at the result. Whether I travestied his remarks let others judge, who will perhaps better appreciate their tone than he seems able to do himself. As he claims that I misrepresented him, I must, however, point out that he tries to prove this by misquoting me. I did not, as he asserts, deduce from the passage to which I took exception, and which he repeats, that it was 'his purpose to hint' that I was 'engaged in abetting a pernicious German propaganda.' I indeed received the hint, but I knew it was unintentionally conveyed. I did not deduce that it was his 'desire to reflect on the personal honour of German specialists.' The reflection was there, but not because he desired it.

That I did not impute to him either the purpose or the desire was shown by the 'charitable construction' I placed on his words. That was why I referred to political life. In that heated atmosphere people frequently convey a great deal more than they mean. Just the other day I read the explanation of a journalist, that when he called a certain political personage a 'rascal' on a preceding occasion, it was to be regarded as a compliment! In much the same way Professor Kastner is pained at my reception of his complimentary remarks about German specialists. In all good faith he gives us German specialists the choice between being either fools or traitors (of course, he has no wish to call us either), and is naively astounded when one of us protests. Just so would the journalist I mentioned be distressed to learn that the political personage put an unfavourable construction on the innocent word 'rascal.' But political personages are assumed by tacit agreement not to consider their honour impugned by this loose use of language, which can always be explained away by pleading want of intention or desire to convey the natural implications it contains. There is no such tacit agreement of which I am aware in the academic world, and therefore I raised my protest.

The fact is, the meaning of the passage in question is not clear as Professor Kastner claims it to be, except in the

unequivocal contempt it expresses for the judgment of a considerable body of his colleagues. Or does that also go too far? It is true that Professor Kastner only speaks of lack of confidence in the 'advice' of German specialists, and probably it is not his *purpose* or *desire* that we should deduce from that his contempt for their judgment! To the German specialists he has the 'honour to count' as personal friends one hears him saying: 'Dear people, I have the greatest respect for your patriotism, your intelligence, your learning and your judgment, only for heaven's sake spare me in the future your advice. Oblige me in your present "painful position" by preserving a "becoming" attitude of reserve.'

Let us take it at that. Professor Kastner's attitude to German specialists is completely friendly, entirely respectful, and, as his language shows in the passage he reprints, of a most engaging courtesy, only he does not desire their advice. In the circumstances, however, that also requires some justification, which is not to be found except in certain assertions he makes about German specialists. I submit that this justification, lacks substance. The assertions are not supported by proof; they are therefore based entirely on Professor Kastner's own authority, which is undoubtedly awe-inspiring. In spite of that, I am going to controvert them. As they are not accompanied by proofs, I cannot argue against them; no, I will simply set my authority against Professor Kastner's, and the reader can choose which he prefers. I deny, therefore, that 'German specialists have been shamefully deceived,' and that they have been the victims, innocent or otherwise, of German influences. I affirm that they understood those influences much better than the majority of their fellow-countrymen, and that if they had been a more numerous and influential body the effects would not have been so disagreeable as was actually the case. I deny that German specialists as a class failed to keep an understanding watch on the life activities of the Germans. I say they were as successful as could in the circumstances be expected. Restricted as their activity was to educational circles, it could not have a direct influence on public opinion, but in this restricted circle they undoubtedly did a good deal to remove that unwariness which often produced the 'innocent and unwitting victims' of German propaganda. It is false to say that German specialists gave no warnings. They did so frequently in the sphere to which they belonged. I deny that, as Professor Kastner supposes, they aimed at 'infusing an element of German culture into our academic and social life.' Applied to us as a class, these words have no meaning, especially with reference to social life. As regards academic life, Professor Kastner may be thinking of such things as the 'sending of French specialists to complete their education in Germany, or the importation by an English University of a German professor of the classics, but he cannot make German specialists responsible for these. He is simply confusing German influence in general, which was undoubtedly much greater than it ought to have been, with the influence of German specialists in particular, which was nearly nil, although (if not because) it was opposed to the other. I venture to say that there is not a German specialist in the country who has not in the past been equally disgusted at two things—on the one hand the public ignorance and indifference which allowed German elements a position of influence and authority to which they were not entitled, on the other the indecent haste of certain circles to set up Germany as a model for indiscriminate imitation.

I deny further that the rôle I assigned

to teachers of foreign languages 'is to be that of alert watchmen on the look-out to snap up what "profit" they can, in the spirit of the famulus Wagner.' Wagner's spirit is ignoble, not because he wishes to profit from intercourse with his master, but because his idea of profiting therefrom is mean and selfish. There is no parallel between this spirit and what I said about the rôle of the modern language student and teacher. I made it plain that the 'profit' I had in view was the benefit of English culture and the English nation. That is no ignoble or selfish aim for an Englishman. If Professor Kastner means to say that he would rather 'break stones' than put his knowledge of, and sympathy with, the French nation to the service of English culture, I for one find it hard to grasp his position at an English University.

Admittedly much indeed depends on how we define national 'profit' or 'advantage.' I think, however, that anyone who has read my remarks on former occasions carefully will perceive that I conceive it as twofold: Firstly, the study of foreign languages gives us knowledge, and the power that springs therefrom. Secondly, it enables us to assimilate foreign elements for the creation of new values in our own culture. These two benefits are not of equal rank; the second is the higher and therefore the final aim. If the second is neglected, the first is misused. We see that in the case of the Germans. No nation probably has so much knowledge of foreign nations, and no nation has for years profited so little for its own culture from such knowledge. That comes out in their curious inability to understand the psychology of other nations, and is the reward of pursuing knowledge for the sake of mere power. This selfish pursuit of knowledge solely as an instrument of power is the true Wagnerian spirit and it is the spirit of Germany, but I repudiate the suggestion that I wished it to be imitated. On the other hand, the nation that pursues knowledge as a means of self-purification has a right to the power that such knowledge brings, because it will not misuse it. For that reason I have insisted on the study of foreign languages in the service of English culture.

I deny that the '*raison d'être* . . . of the teaching, as instruments of culture, of German literature and the German language has vanished.' As this, however, is the 'logical conclusion' of Mr. Campbell and not one of Professor Kastner's unsupported assertions, I will devote a little argument to it. We must distinguish between primary and secondary instruments of culture. To the first belong the Mother Tongue and its literature, and these alone. To the second all foreign languages and literatures. Now, the individual's culture is simply his own small individual share in the culture of the nation to which he belongs; it is therefore indissolubly associated with the Mother Tongue, which is in the nature of things the inevitable instrument for acquiring it. [We need not here separate language and literature any longer, as Professor Kastner unnecessarily does. The study of literature is the use of the language as a means of culture, and the two are not therefore separate instruments.] This use of the Mother Tongue gives a man's culture its content and its depth, its national spirit. The use of foreign languages as instruments of culture adds directly nothing to these, but it widens a man's outlook and enables him more easily to project his national sympathy into the region of that broader sympathy which perceives the human basis of all nationalities, the humanity of all mankind, not merely of a fraction. At the same time it stimulates the creation of new values in the native culture, by drawing attention to the necessary onesidedness of national culture. It leads through comparison to a stand-

point from which we can judge the amount of distortion which all national and therefore more or less onesided development necessarily brings. From this it follows that no foreign language can ever replace the Mother Tongue as an instrument of culture without the sacrifice of nationality and therefore of the culture which is best suited to us. It follows also that all foreign languages belong to one class, and have all therefore a theoretic claim to be studied. Of course, this breaks down at once in practice as far as the individual is concerned, but not immediately so far as the nation is concerned, which can meet the difficulty of numbers by co-operation among individuals. But though all foreign languages are in a distinct and subordinate class by themselves compared with the Mother Tongue as instruments of culture, it does not follow that all are of quite equal importance to us. It is, however, by no means easy to decide their relative importance on theoretic grounds. One thing, however, seems clear, namely, that the historical position of modern foreign tongues in education does not depend solely on our estimate of the respective æsthetic values of their literatures. Thus, if German stands before Italian, it is not because by general consent German literature is superior to Italian in æsthetic value. The importance of German as recognized heretofore depends, therefore, on historical reasons. First-class or not, German literature overshadowed others which æsthetically considered might, and ought to, have been close competitors for our attention. We could not, indeed, have prevented German from attracting more of our attention than Italian, Spanish, or Russian, but that was no excuse for a very thoroughgoing ignoring of these. To base on this, however, a claim for the complete exclusion of German is unjustified. Such a claim demands the proof either that the historical reasons which forced German on our attention had lost their intensity, or that the use of German as an instrument of culture had had deleterious effects. As regards the first, it is clear that the historical forces have not weakened but increased in intensity. Not for friendly but for the reverse reasons the old indifference to Germany, widespread outside academic circles, has disappeared. Germany as an enemy secures more of our attention than as a friend. The soul (and therefore the literature which reflects that soul) of the enemy cannot be indifferent to us. The war has produced a flood of books and articles which seek to explain it to us, and have awakened curiosity in quarters where such never existed before. As regards the second point, the deleterious effect of German as an instrument of culture, we cannot judge this by merely referring to cases like that of a well-known personage who claimed Germany as his 'spiritual Fatherland.' Such people had not used German obviously as a proper instrument of culture; they had made a primary not a secondary instrument of it, and had in fact put it in the place of the Mother Tongue. Nor can the 'innocent and unwitting' victims of German pretensions be pressed into the argument.

These had at best the 'little knowledge,' which is a 'dangerous thing,' and could have no pretensions to use German as an instrument of culture. There remain the serious students of the German language. I suggest that they might be tested by an inquiry as to their willingness to face the responsibilities of the crisis. Did the young men who had studied German at our Universities lag behind their fellows when the call to arms came? I have never seen it asserted that they did, and my own experience of them convinces me that they did not. I venture accordingly to say, that if we test German in its proper class as a secondary means

of culture, the war has changed nothing. As such it has become even safer than it was before, for if there was any temptation before the war to an enthusiasm which might lead people to put it in the position of a primary instrument of culture, that has certainly vanished. And regarded as a secondary means it has probably gained in value, because the more clearly the soul of Germany is perceived to differ from and be repugnant to our own, the more a man's culture is widened by learning to regard it as a natural evolution under given circumstances from the same basis of general humanity which we all start from. Even the war has not upset the fundamental unity of mankind.

And having reached this point, let me say in passing that in this tremendous conflict nothing seems to me as a student of humanism so touching nor so inspiring as the unanimity with which the English nation have remained true to the principle of the fundamental unity of mankind. There is an English culture which extends from the highest to the lowest, which embraces as firmly the multitude that knows no language but its own, as the few who know many languages, and which is truly orientated to the lodestar of humanity. The Germans have hated us. We have refused steadily to hate them in return. The simplest Tommy in the trenches chuckles unaffectedly over their Hymn of Hate. The Germans have committed against us every crime which humanity forbids. We have refused proudly to pay them out in kind. They have done their best to place themselves outside the pale of humanity. We have firmly kept them and ourselves within it. Even in their most devilish transports we have not allowed ourselves to forget that we were dealing with human beings, and have honoured in them the humanity which they defaced. We have shown that the English language carries with it a culture of which ourselves and the world may be proud.

To return—I think that the sudden outburst against German as an instrument of culture arises largely from a lack of appreciation for the distinction between the primary and secondary classes mentioned above, and that this is caused principally by the old mistake of discussing the position of foreign languages without reference to English. So long as this mistake was made the outburst was natural and inevitable. German as a primary instrument is now obviously impossible. Of course this ought always to have been perceived, and as a matter of fact I think I can claim for English specialists in German that they did not make the mistake referred to, which explains why, to Professor Kastner's surprise, they now refuse to be silent and learn the lessons of the war as he teaches them. I do not claim any special credit for German specialists on this account. It was natural that in the study of a culture (or Kultur) so individual as that of Germany and so different from our own, they should be led to reflect on the relation of its study to that of English culture, and to perceive the distinction I have drawn. The temptation for French students to regard French as a primary instrument of culture is probably much greater. With the soul of the French nation so akin to our own as it has become, the possibility of substituting French for English must be much more alluring than the corresponding process in the case of German. The idea of assimilating ourselves to our gallant Allies does not awaken any such misgivings as that of assimilation to the 'Huns.' One cannot very well protest against it without throwing cold water on a natural and generous enthusiasm, and this would be an ungracious and disagreeable task at the present moment. At the same time the German specialist has a right to protest

against being treated as if his standpoint to German was just the same as that of enthusiastic French students might be to French. We have had a much more difficult problem to face, and we have a right to claim that our solution of it should be heard with respect, and not silenced with taunts about our supposed innocent and unwitting victimization. Professor Kastner says that our position is 'painful.' Well, we endure it as Englishmen have borne much that is painful before and will do again. But I must remind him that the recognized English way of treating people who are held to be in a painful position is not 'to hit a man when he is down.' Professor Kastner has by no means got us on the ground as yet, as he has probably discovered by this time. He may have reason to regret that when he thought we were down, he did not act as English fair play demands of those who think so.

As I anticipated, Professor Kastner, thus admitting his position among the extremists, now asserts that I drew a red herring across the track. He is bold in so doing, for I showed very plainly, not by mere assertion but argument, that the position of foreign languages cannot be properly discussed without reference to the position of English. The claims of Russian, Italian, and Spanish are, I admit, pressing, and I am glad to note that they are receiving attention. But the claims of English are far more pressing, although it is perhaps not very surprising that Professor Kastner, with so many 'instruments of culture' ready to his hand, has nothing to say on this head. I repeat that the question is not merely one between German and various other foreign languages, it is one between English, as a primary instrument of culture on the one side, and foreign languages as secondary on the other. And we cannot have a healthy condition as regards the latter, if the former is ignored and neglected, as it has been in the past. Education will not profit one whit by adding to the number of foreign languages taught at school, if in the meantime English is not put in its proper place. If this were done the question of the order of merit of the foreign languages would soon be decided, for, with five or six on the list, it would be impossible to make all of them compulsory, and those who wanted to learn would settle the matter.

I could contradict everything that Professor Kastner says about German specialists, but the exercise is wearisome. I have probably said enough to show that as a class we are not in the least likely to be terrified into silence and self-abnegation even at the dread nod of the terrific Kastner. We believe that real knowledge of Germany is a necessity for our national life, that such knowledge cannot be had without the assistance of the class of students to which we belong, and that this assistance will be more highly valued after the war than before it. In this firm confidence we intend to continue to play that part in educational discussions to which we consider ourselves entitled, and which we expect, in spite of our 'painful position,' to receive from the English sense of fair play.

* * * * *

I have still a word for that diverting personage Dr. Rouse. He has really succeeded in convincing himself that 'German as taught at school . . . aims at producing sympathy for German ideals' because members of this Association prove the fact by the warmth, not to say the hilarity, with which they greet his efforts to cleanse the nation from the 'dazing and bamboozling' power of Germany. Unfortunately for himself, Dr. Rouse's hatred of the enemy is only equalled by his contempt for his fellow-countrymen. He could not a little while ago characterize a monumental piece of German stupidity without adding that it

took all England in for a century—about the unkindest reflection on the mental capacity of Englishmen which was ever formulated. But if he is afraid that those of us whom he considers to deal professionally, as it were, in 'sympathy' with German ideals are making a great success of the business, I can perhaps set his mind at rest on that point. As a sympathizer of this sort it is clear that in Dublin I must have had an unusually promising field for propagating what Professor Kastner calls my 'victimization.' In spite of this I somehow missed my chance. This is proved by the alacrity with which a large proportion of those whom I considered serious students of German hastened voluntarily, on the outbreak of war, the men to the army, the women to serve in Government offices. Curiously enough, the latter generally armed themselves with testimonials from this particular 'sympathizer,' and, more curiously still, these testimonials do not seem to have disqualified them from serving their country, although they came from one so obviously debauched by German bamboozlement that he earned his living by teaching German to his 'innocent and unwitting' countrymen. As regards these men I have perhaps to regret that my efforts to 'Germanize' them were so unsuccessful. If it had been otherwise one or two might be still alive, and others would not be suffering from wounds and other hardships, endured at the hands of those with whose ideals I had taught them to sympathize (according to Dr. Rouse). No, Dr. Rouse may be easy in his mind; the power to bamboozle and daze only resides in your real Germans. We English specialists in German have none of it. We are, if he likes, only 'dazed' ourselves, and somehow that seems to protect those we teach! To adopt a more serious tone: Dr. Rouse has got into a panic. In this timorous state of mind he thinks that the only way to escape from the hunter is, ostrich-like, to hide our heads in the sand and try to ignore his existence. But the best protection against German bamboozlement is to be an Englishman and to understand the bamboozlers. I am quite convinced that if the late Cecil Rhodes and the authorities of the University of Oxford had possessed that knowledge of German ideals, and the 'sympathy' therewith, which can be derived from English specialists in German, the University mentioned would never have been forced to take the rather humiliating step of applying to Parliament for powers to abrogate that egregious institution, the Rhodes scholarships for Germans. I can remember with what indignation and disgust I heard as a student in Germany of the foundation of these scholarships. But this was not a case in which the Germans bamboozled us. We bamboozled ourselves, and the cause was ignorance of the people with whom we were dealing.

R. A. WILLIAMS.

In the December number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, Professor Kastner, quoting from a previous article, says: 'It is this lack of appreciation of the lessons of the war which makes us suspicious of the strong Germanic element in the Sub-Committee, and really disqualifies any of our German specialists from figuring on any Committee such as the one in question. *They failed to warn us in the past, and they cannot blame us if we have no confidence in their advice for the future.*'

Looking back to 1914, I should say that it is not in the least surprising that our German specialists 'failed to warn us in the past,' for the simple reason that the majority of them were Germans. Of the twelve principal chairs of German in the British Isles—I refrain from mentioning names; the *Handbook of the Universities of the British Empire* supplies sufficient information—eight were held by Germans,

one by a neutral, and only three by natural-born British subjects. There was no chance of a professoriate so composed guiding public opinion in purely British interests. Its attitude in national matters was inevitably apathetic.

I also notice that out of eleven professorships of French at the same Universities only five, apparently, are held by natural-born British subjects. In the unlikely event of our present Allies developing the predatory instincts of the Imperial desperadoes who have plunged Europe into war, I fear that our present French professoriate, too, would 'fail to warn us.'

I am heartily with Professor Kastner in his desire to eliminate German influence, but with all due respect to our Allies, and to neutrals, I do not propose to substitute other foreign influences for it. Let us by all means provide for the study of as many more languages as possible at our Universities and commercial schools—the secondary schools are a more difficult problem—but in my opinion to rush to the study of other languages and to abandon German, merely because our enemies speak it and have, for a generation at least, disgraced it, is simply an exhibition of hysterics. Of course, Professor Kastner makes it quite clear that he himself does not advocate such a policy. While I am prepared to advocate the study of practically any modern language, European or Oriental, I think it must have a more sober and solid foundation than mere sentiment and war-excitement.

Convince the public that we study German, not to Germanize ourselves or serve pro-German interests, but to extract from the study of the language, the country, and the people the maximum of benefit, both intellectual, moral, and material, *for ourselves*, and the study of German will then become respectable, but only if control and organization are vested in purely British hands. To my mind, it is hardly fair to say that our German specialists—*i.e.*, the British-born ones—were 'shamefully deceived.' They were simply powerless.

In any case, I fancy it will be discovered later on that the few really British professors of the language we possess have not been idle since the war began, whatever may have happened before.

G. WATERHOUSE.

CHRONIQUE FRANÇAISE.

POÉSIE.

Voici un autre poète bien différent de Claudel, dont nous avons parlé dans le numéro de décembre, 1916, et qui ne semblait pas avoir été créé pour être un poète de la guerre. C'est Paul Fort, 'Prince' élu des poètes français après Verlaine et Léon Dierx, et qui prend sa principauté, comme il convient, avec une bonne humeur souriante. Ce prince, qui est bon-prince, est bien un poète de France et surtout un poète d'Ile-de-France : il a la clarté, l'élégance aisée, la 'gentillesse' d'un Charles d'Orléans ; et c'est justement cette gentillesse, ce quelquechose de naïf et de spirituel, d'enfant qui s'ouvre à la merveille toujours nouvelle du monde et de bon-enfant, d'aimable trouvère et de mousquetaire qui semblait l'écarter à jamais de chanter les horreurs et les sublimités de la guerre monstrueuse. Mais la France a été menacée, la terre de France envahie, ses chères villes, Reims, Senlis, la Ferté, bombardées, incendiées, souillées : comment se taire ! Paul Fort a fondé, dans les premiers mois, un journal, un journal en vers, un *Bulletin lyrique de la Guerre*, dont il est le directeur et l'unique rédacteur ; c'est son 'war-work' à lui de chanter, et nous y gagnons tous ; il a dit au jour le jour les tristesses et les espoirs et 'nos belles victoires' ; et on peut trouver qu'il est le mieux lui-même et le meilleur poète dans les courts poèmes, ceux qui sont le plus loin de la bataille, ceux où il exprime des sentiments simplement humains et qu'aucune touche de violence un peu grossière ne vient gâter. Il a dit aussi nos enthousiasmes pour la Belgique, pour Joffre, pour l'Angleterre :

'All right! Vieille Angleterre, oui, nous aimons d'amour
Tes jeunes, gais soldats, frais, beaux comme le jour!
Oui, notre Marseillaise *écoute en frémissant*

'La petite chanson chère aux soldats anglais: "Sommes-nous tristes? non" ou le Tipperary!
Oui! nous sentons l'honneur de lutter auprès d'eux,
Charmés de leur bravoure et par tous leurs yeux bleus!

'Angleterre! Angleterre! à présent nous t'aimons,
Grande-Bretagne entière, oui! nous t'aimons d'amour!
Tes beaux jeunes guerriers, oui! nous les adorons,
En Artois, sur la Marne et vers Ypre et toujours!
Ma mie, si tu savais combien elle est aimée
En France ta Méprisable Petite Armée,
Qui sans cesse grandit, grandit aux yeux
Ecarquillés d'horreur du monstre populeux.' . . .*

Henri Ghéon, plus jeune, est un poète de la guerre, qui est 'aux armées'; il est un de ces intellectuels et artistes que la guerre a brutalement arrachés à leur rêve de beauté, à leur monde idéal, personnel et égotiste même quand il n'était pas égoïste, même quand leur art voulait se faire 'social' et chanter les grands sentiments humains; la guerre, les jetant soudain dans les plus rudes et tragiques réalités, leur a enseigné à nouveau la *Foi en la France*,† et souvent leur a donné le désir d'une foi plus vaste encore: 'per Patriam ad Dominum' dit le sous-titre de ce livre. Ils s'essaient à chanter comme ils peuvent ces nouvelles et fortes impressions, ils essaient d'oublier leur souci de la forme pour une simplicité plus directe:

'Oh! pour l'instant, il ne s'agit pas de bien dire! . . . Je ne suis pas sûr de mes mots, mais je parle,
Car je suis sûr de mon amour;
Ainsi je jette au vent page après page
Et mon cœur me semble moins lourd.' . . .

Ils essaient, et ce souci nouveau est émouvant certes, et cette communion avec les simples, les camarades de la tranchée ou de la batterie, et ce désir de proclamer cette communion, de la sceller par cet art même qui isolait auparavant le poète. Ce sont des essais, ce ne sont aujourd'hui que des essais; l'avenir dira si, de ces émotions qui bouleversent les âmes, et parfois les retournent, les *convertissent*, une poésie grande et saine, une poésie nationale et humaine sortira un jour. . . .

PROSE.

Les poètes, du reste, s'écrieraient tous aujourd'hui avec Paul Fort: 'Je ne serai jamais le poète qu'il faut pour te chanter, à guerre! On te madrigalise et ma plume déjà coquette avec les mots!' et ils ajouteraient tous: 'Il sortira du front, le barde nécessaire.' . . . D'autres que les poètes éprouvent souvent cette lassitude, cette impuissance de la poésie; les seuls livres qu'on supporte alors de lire, ce sont les livres des soldats qui racontent leurs aventures. Un des plus émouvants de ces récits est celui de Paul Lintier,* un tout jeune homme qui a été tué tandis que s'imprimaient les pages de son livre. Il est émouvant, ce récit, parce qu'il est sans prétentions—mais non sans art—et parce qu'il ne déguise rien. Il dit, sans y insister non plus outre mesure, les horreurs et l'envers sans poésie de la guerre; il dit le courage des hommes, le sacrifice consenti, et aussi la peur horrible de la 'carcasse' qui tremble. On y voit la bataille par les yeux d'un combattant; on y voit par exemple comment une grande bataille peut être perdue en Belgique, ou gagnée sur la Marne, sans que les soldats sachent pourquoi ni comment, sans même qu'ils le sachent qu'après coup, par le recul de notre armée ou de l'armée allemande.

C'est venir bien tard, c'est venir trop tard que de parler de *Gaspard*† maintenant que tout le monde l'a lu depuis longtemps. Ce livre, qui a eu le prix Goncourt, a été un des vifs et légitimes succès des deux dernières années. Ce n'est pas le journal d'un soldat, mais c'est un livre écrit certainement par un soldat, et le type de soldat qu'il nous montre est bien français. Plutôt que français Gaspard, marchand d'escargots, rue de la Gaîté à Montparnasse, et socialo d'avant la guerre, est le parisien, le parisien-faubourien. C'est un type inoubliable: les yeux verts fureteurs et le nez de travers, le bagoût intarissable, la verve drue, pittoresque, ahurissante; débrouillard, boute-en-train, averti et blasé et naïf quand même; par dessus ou par dessous tout, le cœur le plus franc, le meilleur cœur du monde.

Il y a les journaux des combattants; il y a aussi les journaux des non-combattants, de ceux qui, à l'arrière, ont aussi à souffrir et à 'tenir,' et sans gloire. Un des plus intéressants à tous points de vue est celui du peintre Jacques

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* *Poèmes de France. Bulletin lyrique de la Guerre.* Par Paul Fort. Librairie Payot, 106, Boulevard St. Germain. Fr. 3.50.

† *Foi en la France.* Par Henri Ghéon. *Nouvelle Revue Française*, 35 et 37, Rue Madame, Paris. Fr. 3.50.

* *Avec une Batterie de 75: Ma Pièce.* Par Paul Lintier. Plon-Nourrit Ed., 8, Rue Garancière, Paris (6). Fr. 3.50.

† *Gaspard.* Par René Benjamin. Arthème Fayard Ed., 18-20, Rue du St. Gothard, Paris. Fr. 3.50.

Blanche. Des premiers de ces 'cahiers'* écrits immédiatement avant la guerre, et en Allemagne, on peut dire qu'ils sont des documents historiques. Il y a sans doute les fines impressions de l'artiste entraîné à voir et à noter ses impressions: 'ce pays,' lit-on entre cent autres choses, 'est prodigieux, écrasant par la perfection du voulu, de l'obtenu, du realisé, comme un magasin Dufayel idéal. Vous n'avez qu'à presser un bouton pour que l'objet de votre souhait vous soit, à l'instant même, servi sur un plateau avec un salut du porteur.' . . . Il y a l'artiste qui étouffe dans cette société montée comme une mécanique, dans cette atmosphère d'Exposition Universelle, d'Opéra et de gros luxe de parvenu. Mais il y a aussi le français qui s'effraie de la sourde menace, qui voit la formidable machine de guerre toute prête à rouler sur la France. . . . Il y a des épisodes étranges jusqu'au fantastique; ainsi cette réception chez la duchesse de Saxe-Meiningen, sœur du Kaiser, où tous les hôtes délirent de joie sur le meurtre de Serajevo et dansent 'la danse du scalp' autour du cadavre. Puis vient la guerre, la tragédie de ces jours indicibles—fièvre et cauchemar; c'est la disparition d'un monde, la coupure nette, définitive presque comme la mort avec la vie d'avant, la chute dans l'inconnu; les épisodes, les choses vues, se succèdent: c'est les anglais à Rouen, des conversations, les premiers brisés de la grande tourmente; il y a comme un éclat livide sur ces pages hâchées, douloureuses. Et toujours, par dessous, on revient à l'autre drame, invisible du dehors et silencieux celui-ci, d'une vie qui perd en un instant ses intérêts, ses raisons d'être, qui se survit, d'une famille qui se désagrège, d'êtres qui n'osent s'entre-regarder dans la terreur de trouver soudain un étranger à la place de l'être aimé. Il faut ajouter que c'est le grand drame vécu par une sensibilité frémissante d'artiste; il ne faudrait donc pas juger ce cas comme typique dans sa forme particulière; il l'est pourtant en montrant à quelle profondeur les familles françaises ont été et sont encore ébranlées, éprouvées.

Il faut savoir, dans une chronique, passer avec aisance 'du grave au doux, du plaisant au sévère,' car une chronique doit tendre à refléter les mille aspects de la littérature, reflet elle-même des mille aspects mouvants de l'âme d'un peuple. Or, il y a—qu'on s'en réjouisse ou qu'on s'en afflige, qu'on les aime ou qu'ils ennuient—il y a les humoristes de la guerre. Les journaux composés par nos soldats dans les longs loisirs de la vie des tranchées nous en révèlent par centaines. J. de la Fouchardière était un humoriste avant la guerre déjà et amusait les lecteurs d'un grand journal populaire par des fantaisies souvent spirituelles. La fantaisie dans l'Araignée du Kaiser* est de la plus folle espèce, de la plus débridée: merveilleuse machine volante, mystérieuse 'foudre,' espionnages, enlèvements, le doktor Julius Hazenfratz, sa gélatineuse épouse et ses inventions diaboliques et cocasses, le lieutenant Rudolf von Betterman 'plongeur' à l'hôtel de la Riviéra et officier du Service spécial, sans oublier l'incomparable et saveureux mécano parisien Boulot! Mais pourquoi, selon la formule usée, parler de fantaisie 'folle et débridée' quand le même matin les journaux parlent des exploits des 'tanks,' des bonbons à bacilles semés par les aviateurs dans les villes roumaines, et que 'l'homme qui a dîné avec le Kaiser' raconte sa conversation avec le frère de l'ex-ambassadeur d'Allemagne à Constantinople, 'flunkey' dans un hôtel de la Haye. . . .

Méprisant une fois encore cet art des transitions qui, toujours d'après Boileau, est une partie si essentielle et si difficile de l'art d'écrire, revenons au 'sévère' qui est décidément le plus intéressant. De ces livres sérieux, 'graves' (au sens latin et théologique) il y en a dont il suffit de nommer l'auteur pour recommander le livre. Ainsi les études d'A. Chevrillon† qui explique à la France sa grande alliée l'Angleterre en armes avec le même art probe et la même probe pensée qu'il expliquait jadis l'Angleterre, ses écrivains et son âme du temps de paix. Ainsi la nouvelle brochure de Camille Jullian,‡ l'historien dont nous parlions il y a deux chroniques et le grand honnête homme dont la pensée sur la guerre est celle de la meilleure France universitaire, et même de la meilleure France tout court.

A côté de l'historien français de la Gaule, il faut placer l'historien italien de la Rome antique G. Ferrero.§ 'Français,' 'italien' sans doute, mais latins d'abord tous les deux, deux beaux types de latinité, et si semblables par ces dons communs de raison, de modération, de claire analyse, de bon sens et de souci moral! Ferrero n'est pas un de ces érudits cantonnés dans

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* *Cahiers d'un Artiste.* Par Jacques Blanche. *Nouvelle Revue Française* Ed., 35 et 37, Rue Madame. Fr. 3.50.

* *L'Araignée du Kaiser.* Par J. de la Fouchardière. Librairie Payot, 106, Boulevard St. Germain. Fr. 3.50.

† *L'Angleterre et la Guerre.* Par A. Chevrillon. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 1916.

‡ *La Place de la Guerre actuelle dans notre Histoire nationale* (cours d'ouverture au Collège de France). Par C. Jullian. Bloud et Gay Ed., 7, Place St. Sulpice. Fr. 0.75.

§ *La Guerre européenne.* Par G. Ferrero. Payot et Cie., 106, Boulevard St. Germain. Fr. 3.50.

quelque coin de siècle passé, séparés de la vie par une muraille de livres. Ses réflexions sur l'Amérique il y a quelques années prouveraient à elles seules le contraire ; la contemplation passionnée du présent éclaire pour lui les luttes du passé, l'étude du passé lui donne le recul nécessaire pour juger le présent. L'historien, l'analyste des textes et des évènements, on le trouvera dans plusieurs de ces essais : 'Qui a voulu la guerre ?' 'la Belgique, clef du monde,'* 'l'Italie dans la guerre européenne.' Mais l'historien sait qu'il y a au bouleversement actuel des causes plus profondes et lointaines, et le moraliste intervient dans ces admirables études où Ferrero interroge le principe même de notre civilisation et ses deux grandes croyances mystiques : Patrie et Progrès. Il montre les dangers, les illusions de ces deux fois modernes qui sont les vraies causes de la guerre, cette 'Tragédie d'Orgueil.' Nous avons substitué, répète sans cesse Ferrero, le principe de quantité à celui de qualité ; nous avons voulu la conquête matérielle du monde, nous nous sommes énivrés des conquêtes qui augmentaient la force, la richesse, le bien-être, et nous avons oublié ou méprisé les idéals de perfection d'autrefois—art, morale, beauté, justice—nous sommes retombés dans une autre barbarie savante, cruelle, atonique.

En somme, ce que demande, ce qu'espère Ferrero—et avec lui Bergson, Boutroux et tous ceux qui pensent—ce n'est rien moins qu'une Réforme, une Révolution morale qui donne une âme à l'immense corps de notre civilisation industrielle ; sans quoi cette guerre ne sera qu'une effrayante boucherie préparant une autre boucherie plus effrayante encore, et où, cette fois, notre monde risquera de sombrer sous l'œil ironique de l'Orient et de l'Afrique.

Dans cette rénovation espérée quelles seront la part et la place des Eglises et de la pensée chrétiennes ? On s'en préoccupe partout. Mgr. de Vauroux, avec d'autres, voit la cause du mal dans le Kantisme et le remède dans un réveil de la philosophie catholique.† D'autres philosophes français ont prouvé qu'au contraire l'Allemagne actuelle et ses méthodes étaient en contradiction directe avec les principes Kantiens. Bien plus que toutes les discussions voici deux petits livres qui montrent—avec quelle clarté émouvante !—que la foi chrétienne n'est pas à l'agonie. Ce sont les lettres, les dernières lettres, de deux jeunes soldats, de deux enfants. L'un est protestant, fils d'un missionnaire français en Afrique anglaise :* l'autre est catholique, d'une de ces familles de province où se conservent les solides traditions de la bourgeoisie catholique et lettrée ;† l'un était étudiant à la faculté de théologie protestante de Montauban, une des places fortes des Huguenots, l'autre a écouté les leçons du philosophe catholique Blondel dans la charmante vieille ville d'Aix-en-Provence. Le protestant a plus d'inquiétude de conscience, de gravité raisonnée, le catholique plus d'abandon, un plus grand amour de la nature ; mais qu'ils sont semblables au fond, ces deux purs soldats du Christ que marque au front le même signe d'élection ! Et quels enfants sortent toujours de cette vieille terre chrétienne de France ! Alfred Cazalis, Léo Latil étaient nés chrétiens, Ernest Psichari ‡ s'est fait chrétien ; il s'est fait chrétien par un long travail et une longue lutte, par la volonté, par la raison, par un travail constant de l'âme sur elle-même, par un approfondissement du patriotisme aussi : 'Tous les grands sentiments,' écrivait Barbey d'Aurevilly, 'sont de grandes croyances, et toutes les grandes croyances ne s'appellent-elles pas ?' Nous avons parlé déjà ici d'Ernest Psichari, cet aîné des petits-fils de Renan, de ce soldat de la brousse africaine qui allait revêtir la robe de St. Dominique quand la guerre vint l'appeler à un autre sacrifice. L'ami qui, dans cette belle et brève biographie, raconte le lent et pénible dégagement de cette âme dans son ascension vers la plus pure lumière est un des deux écrivains qui sous le pseudonyme d'Agathon publièrent avant la guerre cette fameuse Enquête sur les jeunes gens d'aujourd'hui. Le destinée de ce jeune homme qui avait pour devise 'prendre contre son père le parti de ses pères' est symbolique de beaucoup d'autres. 'Voici nos destinées et voici notre chef' s'écrie le biographe ; l'histoire de Psichari 'c'est l'histoire exemplaire de notre âge, c'est, fraternellement soufferte, partagée, vécue, la Passion de toute une jeunesse, avec elle accomplie dans le sang de la plus belle mort.'

Qu'il existe un mouvement de renaissance religieuse qui prétend s'incarner dans la pensée et dans l'art, on en a la trace et la preuve dans le mouvement même de la librairie. Nous avons

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* On lira avec intérêt sur ce même sujet la brochure de l'écrivain belge M. des Ombiaux: *France et Belgique.* Ce que les Allemands voulaient faire des pays envahis. Ce que nous ferons d'eux. Bloud et Gay Ed. Fr. 0.75.

† *Du Subjectivisme allemand à la Philosophie catholique.* Bloud Ed.

* *Alfred-Eugène Casalis.* Editeurs de *Foi de Vie*, 48, Rue de Lille, Paris.

† *Lettres d'un Soldat : Léo Latil.* Bloud Ed. Fr. 0.75.

‡ *La Vie d'Ernest Psichari.* Par Henri Massis. Librairie de l'Art catholique, 6, Place St. Sulpice, Paris. Fr. 2.50.

eu l'occasion de citer dans cette chronique deux noms d'éditeurs : Bloud et Gay, et *Foi et Vie*. Les premiers, en rajeunissant l'antique maison catholique, lui donnent une extension nouvelle par leur esprit d'intelligente entreprise, tout en conservant la tradition ; l'autre par sa revue alerte et vivante, ses numéros d'art, ses conférences, ses publications poursuit malgré la guerre, son œuvre dans le protestantisme. Une autre tentative intéressante à signaler est celle de la Librairie d'Art catholique. Son but est de renouveler l'iconographie pieuse dont on sait trop la lamentable pauvreté, et de donner des éditions où la pensée des meilleurs écrivains catholiques, le dessin des meilleurs artistes et la technique même de l'impression concourent pour aboutir à une véritable édition d'art. Les exemplaires que nous avons sous les yeux sont vraiment des réussites. Citons seulement parmi ces délicieux petits volumes les belles prières de l'abbé Sertillanges (tous deux illustrés de vignettes par Maurice Denis*), et les cinq prières de Francis Jammes.† Le délicieux poète, si chrétien déjà alors qu'il était païen, écrivait jadis les 'prières pour qu'un enfant ne meure pas . . . pour avoir une femme simple et pour entrer au Paradis avec les ânes.' Il écrit aujourd'hui les 'Prières à l'usage d'un soldat, De la femme d'un soldat, Des enfants d'un soldat, Du père d'un soldat, De la mère d'un soldat.' Quel accent et quel sens nouveaux prend la 'Prière pour qu'un enfant ne meure pas' maintenant qu'elle passe par le cœur et la foi 'du père d'un soldat'!

PIERRE CHAVANNES.

'ATMOSPHERE' IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSON.'

'Der Marmor ist ein seltsames Material.'
GOETHE : *Italienische Reise.*

IF a pupil gets very little else from the study of a foreign language, he should at any rate be conscious of, and grow accustomed to, the 'atmosphere' of the country whose language he seeks to learn—or, more usually, whose language it is sought to teach him. The successful attempt to introduce 'atmosphere' into language lessons has a threefold reward : (i.) It breathes life and interest into the subject ; (ii.) it conveys an impression of its market value ; (iii.) it is a material aid to the acquirement of the language itself.

Let us begin with what one may call the external aids to the cultivation of this atmosphere. Inasmuch as a chemical laboratory, or a geography room, or even a swimming-bath, is considered a necessary adjunct to a modern school, so, too, is a language room a necessity and not a luxury. Why provide a swimming-bath or gymnasium when the pond or playground are both available ? Simply because the need for such is obvious to the majority of people. To appreciate intellectual needs requires a higher mentality and a broader sympathy in education. The expenditure on a swimming-bath, therefore, meets with popular support, whereas the equipment of a language room is looked upon with disfavour or utter indifference and as a waste of money. Latin, Greek, French, and German can be, and have been, taught for generations past in the ordinary classrooms with varying success. That a very small minority have learned under these conditions to love and appreciate the languages and their masterpieces is all but totally overlooked.

The language room is necessary (i.) to contain and to display to advantage the equipment which should be regarded as essential to the best educational interests of the language instruction, and (ii.) to provide the means for ensuring the continuous, the 'pervading,' character of the atmosphere which it is sought to create.

'Atmosphere' is a creation of instruction and environment taken together, but environment is a factor so often regarded 'en gros' but so seldom 'en détail.' The instruction, it is allowed, must not be haphazard, nor should environment be any more so. Environment requires a home in which to develop and exert a maximum influence. Peripatetic environment is bound to diffuse and to rarefy on its wanderings. It will scarcely be denied that a chemical laboratory is suffused with the 'chemistry atmosphere.' The mere fact that a special room and special equipment are provided tends to impress pupils with the importance of the study of chemistry. Why should not other subjects have the same advantage ?

Now to the equipment of this room let us proceed. If not in its main furniture, then in its accessories, it might well resemble a foreign classroom. Collections of pictures, maps, diagrams, and photos should here be housed. These should not be chosen at random or merely as opportunity of acquirement affords. They should be specially selected to illustrate lessons in a scheme, reading-matter in the textbooks and

* *Aux Morts de la Guerre : Prière à ceux qui sont partis*, et *Prière de la femme française pendant la guerre*. Fr. 1.

† *Cinq Prières pour le temps de guerre*. Fr. 1.50.

authors read, and characteristic phases of the daily life of the inhabitants of the country. Naturally, prints of the famous men connected with the latter would be included. Thus names become more than print, and places than mere localities. Among the collections of pictures place should be given to illustrative sketches done by pupils. It is not suggested that these should adorn the walls, for it is surely advisable to have but few well-chosen pictures, striking in subject and artistic in execution, which it is intended to hang upon the walls to be so often before the eyes of the pupils. These it is convenient to hang in frames which allow for the occasional changing of the picture. Books of photographs taken by the teacher whilst abroad are sources of peculiar interest, mainly because of the personal relation in which the teacher himself stands to them. Albums of views form convenient helps to the visualization of foreign scenes, but these should be used only in true illustration, not forced, that is, upon an apathetic class at an unsuitable time. The lantern and the Kinematograph are, too, excellent aids in producing vivid impression. Interesting relics, collections of coins, stamps, and so forth, which otherwise lie unheeded in the school museum, are most certainly better placed for service, if a home for such be found in the language room of the country to which they belong.

The reference library is an important item of the equipment. Before all else, the needs and ability of those for whom it is intended must be taken into consideration in selection. The success with which the selection has been made may be more or less estimated by the frequency of use to which works in this collection are put. The teacher, in the main, supplies the incentive for its use. The exercises he sets may go a long way in this direction, but still further will go his own power of interesting his pupils to the extent that they, of themselves, seek for more. In the case of modern languages, guide-books and railway time-tables should certainly find a place, and, too, a periodical, a boy's paper, and even menu cards.

Foreign correspondence—between individuals of two schools—has come to stay, and gives, if no other results follow, a practical turn to study, as well as an added interest.

And now a few words upon the prime factor in the case—viz., the teacher. Obviously, he must speak the language fluently, and be thoroughly conversant with the manners and customs of the nation whose tongue he has to teach. This applies with equal force to the classical languages, if work of real and lasting value is to be done by the majority and not by a small minority of pupils. For modern language teaching extended residence abroad—a year at least—is essential. No classical teacher should consider his training complete without having visited Italy or Greece. One has only to recall the effect which the visit of even such a genius and lover of the classics as Goethe had upon his 'Gemütsleben' and appreciation of Latin to see how beneficial such a visit may be. (*Vide* Letters from Rome written towards the end of 1786.)

A great aid to the creation of atmosphere is the teacher's manner. Not the language alone must he speak; he must take to himself the manners and modes of the foreigner to achieve complete success. His teaching must not depend too closely upon a textbook. He must, to a large extent, make his own choice as to subjects and courses of study. Daily life, manners, customs, and institutions, should loom large in his lessons, particularly in the early years. Later, reading circles and theatricals should prove sources of interest and instruction. Occasional visits to a theatre, where a play is presented in the foreign tongue being studied, are advantageous. Songs, of course, should play their part. At least three-fifths of every class can memorize with remarkable ease, when 'atmosphere' is present. Music should not be neglected. The end of term is often a particularly good time at which to devote a part of a school session to the music of some particular nation whose language has been studied; the necessary talent so often lies at hand in masters, boys, or friends.

It is still a moot point with us as to whether a modern language should be taught by a foreigner. The disadvantages are well known. The presence of such teachers in English schools is due chiefly to the lack of capable English teachers. It is advantageous to hear French or German spoken by natives of those countries. Would not the disadvantages be done away with if a system of peripatetic teachers were introduced—foreigners appointed to go the round of a group of schools to give occasional lessons in their language? In no German State school does one find an Englishman or Frenchman upon the regular staff, and yet French and English are admittedly better taught there than French and German here.

A. W. Pegrum.

INDUCTION AND DEDUCTION IN TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

In the pursuit of art and science, inductive thought is essential to the formulation and development of the material sciences, while deduction is essential to the acquisition of the arts. When a person wants to master an art, he must know the general principles relating to his particular trade, and the properties of the several materials with which he works, and must have an adequate amount of practice in handling the materials and adopting the general principles. This means that the student of every art takes the general principles and properties for granted, and works upon them so as to attain his ends. This is, clearly, deduction. As for the properties and general principles above referred to, they are the concern of the scientist who takes up for his work the study and formulation of, as well as the improvement upon, scientific knowledge. Art, therefore, begins where science ends, and works upon the achievements of science as its basis.

These considerations lead us to suspect the validity of certain principles laid down for teaching foreign languages—as, for instance, English to the Indian student. Writers on linguistic methods insist upon the teaching of grammatical rules by the inductive method. The student is supposed to have gained some command over word-forms and sentence-structure, without first knowing the rules, by pursuing linguistic acquisition on the lines followed by children in learning their mother-tongue; and later on in the course he is made to formulate for himself a set of rules on a classification and examination of individual cases. This procedure seems, from the foregoing considerations, to be in diametrical opposition to the services which deduction and induction are meant to render and are capable of rendering. When the student is picking up language he is acquiring skill in speaking, reading, writing, and so forth. As such they require, rightly speaking, to start with a knowledge of the general principles, followed by an adequate amount of practice and exercise with the material in hand with the full consciousness of the rules governing language, which alone can enable the child to follow the instruction with intelligence, without having to follow it up by blind imitation.

To illustrate, tell the child that nouns form their plurals by adding *s* to them, and then make them do some exercises bearing upon the rule. This, in my humble opinion, would be a more natural and logical method of teaching a foreign language than making a child but a blind imitator. Instead of recommending the deductive method such as is described above, writers on linguistic methods purposely prohibit the said course and recommend instead a scheme of lessons at a later stage on the lines of induction. When the students have already acquired the correct use of words, word-forms, and sentence-forms, it would not be necessary to know the rules afterwards. None of the innumerable speakers do know the rules relating to their mother-tongue, and they are no way worse for their ignorance.

But here it may be adduced as an argument that since a child acquires its native language by imitation, any language may be taught likewise. This is a fallacy of ambiguity, since the language in the case of the child-learner is the mother-tongue, learnt under peculiarly favourable conditions, and that in the example quoted above it is a foreign language to be learnt under very different conditions. If they want to obviate this difficulty by asserting that both the native and the foreign languages are identical and can be taught by identical methods, it has to be urged that the two are totally distinct, not only in the matter of mental conditions of learners and facilities surrounding them, but also with regard to the stages of the two sets of learners—the one learning in the imitative stage of life, and the other in the reflective and reasoning stage. This view is amply supported by the fact that a native language is acquired very easily in the natural course, while the acquisition of a foreign language in the class-room, in spite of the thousand and one very skilfully laid schemes and courses, is as yet a failure, as was observed by Karl Breul: 'The true method has not yet been discovered either here or abroad.' If impressiveness should be the aim of the advocates of the inductive method, it is, at best, a superfluity, and cannot be calculated to be any way instrumental to the acquisition of the several linguistic arts, like the deductive method. If they insist on the adoption of the same for the educative value of the method, it is altogether a different thing, not in any way conducive to the efficient and intelligent grasp of the foreign language.

We thus see that the views of the reformers of linguistic methods with regard to the deductive

and inductive methods are based upon a misconception, firstly of the scope and serviceability of the two logical systems, and secondly upon a logical fallacy of the ambiguous term to which the false analogy of the foreign language with the mother-tongue has led.

To conclude, permit me to point out the desirability of bearing in mind, firstly, that the several parts of linguistic acquisition are so many arts as distinct from sciences secondly, that the inductive method prescribed in the later stages is, at the best, a mere superfluity, and no way instrumental to linguistic acquisition; and, lastly, that foreign languages can be more intelligently and efficiently taught by the deductive method.

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L'ÉTYMOLOGIE DU MOT 'FERT.'

From 'Le Temps.'

Nombreuses sont les versions qui tendent à expliquer les quatre lettres du mot *Fert*, inscrit sur le collier de l'Annonciade remis, à l'occasion de la fête nationale, à M. Poincaré par l'ambassadeur M. Tittoni, au nom du roi d'Italie. Il convient toutefois de ne pas attacher trop d'importance aux diverses fantaisies qui se sont donné carrière à ce sujet. Par exemple, il est douteux que la formule, 'Frappez, entrez, rompez, tout,' ait jamais pu servir de devise à un ordre de chevalerie qui doit avoir un mobile plus élevé que celui d'une brutalité grossière et barbare,

De même, l'explication, *Fortitudo Ejus Rhodum Tenuit* (Par sa vaillance il conserva Rhodes) ne paraît guère plus probante. Le fait consistant dans la seule conservation de l'île de Rhodes est trop particulier et ne suffit pas pour servir d'objet à une institution d'ordre général. En outre, le mot *Ejus* est indéterminé. En effet, auquel des princes de la maison de Savoie aurait pu se rapporter ce pronom lorsque Amédée VIII., qui mourut en 1490, ajouta le mot *Fert* à l'ordre fondé en 1362 par son oncle Amédée VI., dit le 'Comte Vert'? Ni lui ni ses prédécesseurs n'avaient participé à aucun siège de Rhodes. En supposant même qu'il faille lire *Regnum* au lieu de *Rhodum* et comprendre que la vaillance des comtes et des ducs de Savoie ait maintenu leur règne ou un règne quelconque, reste l'impropriété d'une désignation individuelle (*Ejus*) lorsqu'il s'agit de toute une lignée de souverains, grands-maîtres de l'ordre et protecteurs de la foi. Il aurait fallu *Illorum*. Mais alors cela ne cadrait plus.

Enfin, l'interprétation *Femina Erit Ruina Tua* (la femme sera ta perte), rappelée récemment par un de vos collaborateurs, et que le P. Valfré appliquait à Victor-Amédée, premier roi de la dynastie, est une spirituelle allusion aux vicissitudes amoureuses de ce prince et n'a évidemment aucun rapport avec l'objet et la destination de l'ordre de l'Annonciation. On pourrait conjecturer ainsi à perte de vue sur le sens à donner à ces quatre lettres, comme le font les loustics sur les trois lettres P. L. M., qui, tout en désignant la Compagnie Paris-Lyon-Méditerranée, prêtent à des interprétations fort diverses, plus saugrenues les unes que les autres. Ce sont des jeux d'imagination. Ce ne sont pas des étymologies.

La vérité est beaucoup plus simple en ce qui concerne *Fert*. Le malheur, pour les fantaisistes qui ont exercé leur imaginative sur ces quatre lettres, est qu'elles ne sont pas, comme on pourrait le croire, les initiales de quatre mots différents. Dans aucune des inscriptions authentiques, monuments, médailles ou monnaies, on ne trouve après chacune de ces lettres le point indicatif de l'abréviation. Elles se suivent sans solution de continuité et ne forment en réalité qu'un seul mot. Or, ce mot n'est autre que *Fert*, troisième personne de l'indicatif du verbe latin *fero* (je porte): il—ou elle—porte. Un bref aperçu de l'ordre fondé par Amédée VI. permettra de se rendre compte de l'exactitude étymologique de cette interprétation.

Les ordres de chevalerie, au moyen âge, avaient tous un caractère à la fois militaire et religieux. Dès le temps de la première croisade, lorsqu Pierre l'Ermite rapporta d'orient l'usage du chapelet qu'il répandit parmi les fidèles, la chrétienté avait à se défendre, de l'est à l'ouest de la Méditerranée, contre l'agression des Sarrasins, propagateurs par les armes de la foi de Mahomet. Il fallait donc, pour défendre la civilisation chrétienne, opposer un dogme à un autre et rallier tous les combattants sous l'étendard d'une même foi. C'est ainsi qu'un symbole religieux servait de guide aux chevaliers armés: le 'Saint-Graal' pour ceux de la Table-Ronde, le cri 'Monjoye et saint Denis' pour les preux de Charlemagne, le 'Temple' pour l'ordre créé à Jérusalem par Hugues de Payns.

Amédée VI. de Savoie, prince à la fois très pieux et très belliqueux, fonda, dans le premier

quart du quatorzième siècle (1326), un ordre de chevalerie nouveau en prenant pour type de sa création le rosaire institué par saint Dominique. Celui-ci, au siècle précédent, avait résumé à l'usage des chrétiens les principales vérités de leur foi, en triplant le chapelet de Pierre l'Ermite et en le composant de quinze dizaines d'oraisons correspondant aux quinze mystères de la religion chrétienne, dont cinq joyeux, cinq douloureux et cinq glorieux. En l'honneur de ces quinze mystères, le fondateur de l'ordre limita à quinze le nombre des membres qui devaient les composer.

Or, le premier de tous ces mystères était celui de l'Incarnation. Il se manifeste dans l'histoire évangélique par l'annonciation à Marie des hautes destinées qui lui sont réservées : elle enfantera le Sauveur. D'où à raison de l'importance de ce mystère, le nom d'*Annunziata*, qui finit par être donné en Italie à l'ordre fondé par Amédée VI. Ce nom, un peu défiguré, est passé en France sous la forme 'Annonciade,' qui n'est nullement, comme le croient quelques-uns, synonyme d'Annonciation. C'est une simple déformation du mot latin *Annuntiata :* il exprime non la chose, mais la personne à qui est annoncé le mystère et qui en est elle-même l'objet. *Annuntiata* condense en un seul mot l'incarnation du Verbe et peint d'un trait la jeune Vierge à qui cette faveur est promise. Imbu de cette croyance, Amédée VI. combattit vaillamment pour la foi. Il fit en Orient une expédition d'une année, prit la ville de Gallipoli et fit son entrée à Constantinople. Ayant mis le siège devant Varna, il délivra l'empereur Jean Paléologue, prisonnier des Bulgares, et le rétablit sur son trône. En souvenir de ces exploits, un monument s'élève aujourd'hui à Turin, sur la place Madame : il représente le 'comte Vert' armé en guerre, un Sarrasin terrassé à ses pieds.

Son fils, Amédée VI., dit le 'Comte Rouge,' lui succéda. Puis ce fut Amédée VIII., son neveu, premier duc de Savoie (1416 : érection en duché du comté de Savoie par l'empereur Sigismond). Cet Amédée VIII., dit le Pacifique, et surnommé le Salomon, dont la sagesse édifia les Constitutions de la Savoie, avait eu par surcroît celle d'abdiquer. Elu ensuite par le concile de Bâle, il devint anti-pape sous le nom de Félix V. Mais après l'élection du nouveau pape Nicolas V., à Rome, Amédée réunit un concile et déposa les insignes pontificaux, renonçant à la papauté comme il avait renoncé au pouvoir politique.

C'est lui qui, ramenant l'ordre du Rosaire fondé par son illustre prédécesseur Amédée VI. au culte principal de l'Annonciation, lui donna pour devise ce mot *Fert* qui, depuis quatre siècles, a tant exercé la patience des savants et des érudits, probablement parce qu'il est trop simple et trop facile à comprendre. Etant donné le caractère du prince très pieux qui a fait choix de ce terme pour caractériser l'ordre de l'*Annunziata*, il n'est pas douteux que c'est un sens mystique qu'il faut lui donner, et non pas l'une quelconque des significations profanes, politiques ou simplement baroques qu'il a plu à d'innombrables commentateurs de lui attribuer.

Or, le sens rigoureusement théologique du mot *Fert* pour définir le mystère de l'Incarnation, ne saurait être contesté. La mère du Sauveur a *porté* pendant neuf mois son fils dans ses flancs. Le *fructus ventris tui* de la Salutation angélique autorise et même nécessite cette acception. Louis Bouilhet, dans son poème de la *Colombe*, accentue la valeur de cette expression dans le beau vers par lequel il représente la mère de Jésus :

'Pâle éternellement d'avoir *porté* son Dieu.'

Enfin, le mot fertile, *fertilis*, qui a pour racine le supin *fertum* du verbe *ferre*, porter, nous donne une confirmation nouvelle de cette étymologie. Un terroir fertile *porte*, en effet, avec abondance et variété, les fruits de la terre. C'est le sens qu'il faut attacher au nom géographique 'la Ferté,' si répandu en France, et qui désigne non pas un lieu fortifié, comme pourrait le faire croire une fausse assimilation avec le mot *fortis*, mais un lieu fertile, favorisé des productions du sol.

THE IDEAL EXAMINATION.

FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF ONE FRENCH TEACHER.

THE ideal examination should, as we all know, find out what the child knows, not what he does not know. It is for this reason that there are to be found so many devotees of the oral examination, elastic as it is, and so admirably adapted to probing into the knowledge of the individual. The organization of our schools makes it difficult, however, to make the ordinary terminal examinations of this nature. One may give what is called an 'oral' in addition to the written examination, but the utter disproportion in the time allotted is apt to be mirrored in a corresponding disproportion of marks. Leaving external examinations out of the question, for these concern only a small percentage of the children in a school, can we possibly find time to

give an oral examination that is not a mere farce?

Let us take a class of beginners in French taught on the Direct Method. For our present purpose we may define the Direct Method as including a large amount of Phonetics, oral work on pictures, actions, and so on. What is the fairest way of testing this work done in the first year? Undeniably by means of an oral examination. Yet there are the practical difficulties of getting time enough for each pupil, of marking and of keeping one's standard unchanged.

For some years I gave a written examination value 40 per cent. and an oral value 60 per cent., but the oral, even with such an important item as Dictée, did not really seem worth so much when one had only five minutes per child for reading, questions, and poetry, etc. To have asked for more time would have meant a considerable increase in the total number of examination hours and some increase in organization, owing to the necessity for supervision and the difficulty of finding anything but preparation for the class to do while the French oral was in progress. I decided to try and compromise. The form, therefore, that I find it most convenient for my first year examinations to take is as follows: Ear-training is tested in the 'written oral' by a Phonetic Dictée, to which is added a short Dictée in ordinary script if bridging has been done. A comprehension-test follows. A tale is told in French twice, and the class then write in English as fully as possible what they have understood of it. It is astonishing how much detail they remember, and how they reproduce the simplest of tales in quite flowing English. The cloven hoof of literal translation does not show itself in this test. The reproduction-test consists of listening to a story told by the mistress and then reproducing it in phonetic script. Later on ordinary script is allowed. Free composition consists of the reproduction of some known material, such as description of a picture, ear-training being tested only in the first three questions. Other questions consist of auto-dictation at the bridging-over stage, writing down from memory of poetry learned, grammar questions in the form of sentences to be completed and the other missing-word puzzles which we call Reform exercises, but preferably sentences to be made containing given words.

The real oral examination is held at another time, and each pupil is asked exactly the same questions. They read a small piece of phonetic script chosen to test pronunciation of certain sounds. They are asked to say isolated sounds, and even questioned about tongue and lip positions for certain sounds. They recite a very short piece of poetry as an intonation and fluency test, and where time allows questions are put and value given for speed and accuracy in answering, or a small picture is shown and value given for the amount of descriptive work done in two or three minutes. However, even if there were only enough time for reading aloud the mouth-training would be tested fairly well, and the two examinations combined would make as fair an all-round test as one can get in the time.

It would be extremely interesting to know what forms of examination other people find suitable for pupils trained on oral methods at this or any other stage.

J. Titterton.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

[*The Modern Language Association does not endorse officially the comments or opinions expressed in this column.*]

SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' WAR RELIEF FUND.

The above Fund has been inaugurated by the Assistant Masters' Association in order to help dependents of Secondary School teachers (whether members of the Association or not) who have been killed in the war. Nine other associations, including the Head Masters' Conference and the Modern Language Association, are represented on the Committee, and eight others are probably coming in. The Teachers' Guild and the University Women Teachers' Association have already issued appeals to their members, and other associations contemplate doing so. The Assistant Mistresses' Association have made a subscription from their General Fund.

At the last Committee meeting six cases were considered, and grants amounting to £40 were made to carry on till December 16. The total commitments now amount to £200 per annum; the subscriptions, to date, amount to £1,139. It is considered necessary to raise this amount to £5,000 in the first year. A hundred and fifty deaths have been reported, and fifteen cases have, so far, been considered.

At the meeting of the General Committee of the Modern Language Association on Saturday, December 16, it was decided that an appeal for subscriptions should be made in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING to members of the Association, while the question of a donation from the funds of the Association was referred to the Finance Sub-Committee.

Further information will be supplied by the Hon. Secretary of the Fund, Mr. G. D. Dunkerley, 124, Mildred Avenue, Watford. Subscriptions should be sent to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr J. Hart-Smith, Polytechnic School, Battersea, S.W., to whom cheques crossed a/c Secondary School Teachers' War Relief Fund, London and South-Western Bank, Sutton Branch, should be made payable.

All cases are thoroughly investigated, and a proper distribution of the Fund is guaranteed, the circumstances of each beneficiary being carefully looked into at regular intervals. Members of the Modern Language Association who are not already doing so are earnestly invited to help.

S. A. RICHARDS.

(Representative of the Modern Language Association on the Secondary School Teachers' War Relief Fund Committee.)

MODERN LANGUAGE SCHOLARSHIPS.

CAMBRIDGE.—*Gonville and Caius:* K. Povey, Whitgift Grammar School, £60; J. Harrison, Manchester Grammar School, and P. A. Batty, Mill Hill School, £40. *Emmanuel:* A. Ebbutt, Tonbridge, £60.

THE TEACHING OF RUSSIAN.

At a meeting of the Council of the Hull Chamber of Commerce and Shipping, the President announced that Captain Samman, a local shipowner, had promised a gift of £10,000 to form an endowment fund for the teaching of the Russian language to Hull students. Captain Samman intimated that he was greatly impressed with possibilities of great trade in future between Hull and Russia.

The following is taken from *El Comercio:*

Ayer, a las 3 p.m., se veri ficó en la Legación de Francia, una ceremonia sencilla como simpática. Mr. Edmundo Brown, el distinguido professor muy conocido en Quito, recibió de manos del Sr. Boeufvé, Ministro de Francia, la condecoración de las Palmas Académicas, con las que el Gobierno francés quiso apreciar el valor de sus esfuerzos y trabajos a favor de la causa de los aliados. Estaban presentes, el Sr. Ministro de Inglaterra, Sr. Encargado de Negocios de Bélgica y los miembros del Directorio del Comité de las Colonias Aliadas. El Sr. Boeufvé ofreció una copa de champaña en honor del nuevo condecorado.

Felicitamos muy sinceramente a Mr. Brown, por la bien merecida distinción de que ha sido objeto.

In commenting on the recent visit to Italy of Mr. Lloyd George, the Rome correspondent of the *Morning Post* makes some remarks that are of peculiar interest to Modern Language teachers. He describes the success of the Conference, but regrets the Premier's one serious disqualification —that of nearly all our statesmen—his ignorance of French. He then goes on:

'The stay-at-home Briton scarcely realizes what we who live abroad have seen continuously throughout this war, how much we lose as a nation owing to the fact that the British Cabinet Minister—save very, very rare exceptions—speaks no language but his own. Let me give some examples. Last year there was an important British Mission in Rome. During the early stages of its existence (before a young Englishman, born in Italy, was unearthed and added to it) there was not one of its staff who could speak or write French, and its letters to Italian officials were in English, which those officials could not read, and therefore had to send to an interpreter. On one occasion a letter was sent back with the polite and natural request that the writer would use either Italian or French. Later in the year a very important British Agent arrived here, a Member of Parliament, who had actually been a Naval Attaché, and an Italian Minister, with whom he had to converse through an interpreter, in French, expressed to me his amazement that a man of such culture and position should not be able to conduct a simple conversation in that language. Some years ago, when Rome was (what it has long ceased to be) an easy and pleasant place for a diplomatist to earn his pension in, there was here as British Ambassador a gentleman, otherwise charming, who knew no Italian, and who was therefore obliged to obtain his knowledge of Italy at second-hand through French-speaking Italians—not at all the same thing as first-hand converse.

'SIR RENNELL RODD.

'It is one of the merits of Sir Rennell Rodd that he speaks and writes Italian well; but a long list might be compiled of British diplomatists unable to see the Italians as they really are because they did not know their language. If we are to be a nation with a voice in Con-

tinental affairs and a share in Continental commerce the first reform in our educational system should be this: to insist that every educated Briton speaks French, as William the Conqueror long ago ordained in one of his laws. For, as regards interpreters, as the Italian proverb expresses it, *traduttori traditori;* they are always at the best a makeshift; they may be incompetent, or, even worse, dangerous. The average Briton is as intelligent as the average foreigner; but he is sorely handicapped by his linguistic defects. This should be remedied at once by a practical nation. Those who have studied Turkish history know how much their ignorance of other tongues and the consequent need of using interpreters cost the Turks.'

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ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

E. G. Phillips, Teacher at L.C.C. Literary and Commercial Institutes, is serving in the R.A.M.C.

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Conference of Educational Associations, 1917.—The report of the meetings of the Conference of Educational Associations is in the printer's hands, and it is hoped to publish by the end of February. The Report will contain the Master of Balliol's address and the papers that were read at the meetings—about thirty in all. Copies, if ordered before publication, will be 1s. 9d., post free; if ordered afterwards, 2s. Orders to be sent to the Secretary, 9, Brunswick Square, London, W.C.

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LES LANGUES VIVANTES.

From 'Le Temps.'

M. Henri Hauvette, professeur de langues et littératures de l'Europe méridionale à l'université de Paris, publie, dans la *Revue de l'enseignement des langues vivantes*, un article du plus haut intérêt sur ce que devra être l'enseignement des langues vivantes, dans nos lycées et collèges, après la guerre.

Quelle place, d'abord, fera-t-on à l'allemand? Il va sans dire que, comme tout esprit réfléchi, M. Hauvette n'en admet ni la suppression radicale, ni la diffusion excessive. La victoire des alliés saura proportionner le châtiment à l'infamie, mais on ne rayera de l'Histoire ni la pensée des philosophes qu'eut l'Allemagne de jadis, ni l'œuvre des savants ou des poètes qui l'illustrèrent autrefois et qui la répudieraient aujourd'hui. La langue allemande sera simplement mise dans les études, à sa place et à son rang. 'Langue des destructeurs de Reims et des incendiaires de Louvain, écrit M. Ernest Denis, professeur à la Sorbonne, elle ne reconquerra plus la faveur que lui avaient value cinquante années de travail méthodique et d'intrigues.' Ceux de nos collégiens qui se destinent aux hautes études et à la carrière militaire devront 'lire' l'allemand, et plus tard, feront utilement un séjour outre-Rhin. Car cette langue sera pour nous, selon le mot de M. Hauvette, un 'instrument d'information.'

Il nous faut aussi des 'instruments de pénétration.' A quoi nous aurait-il servi de payer de notre sang la victoire de la civilisation et du droit, si la France ne devait accroître sa puissance de rayonnement dans le monde? La plupart de nos lycéens, peut-être tous—la question se posera en temps opportun—apprendront l'anglais. Ils l'apprendront en signe nouveau d'union intime avec vos vaillants amis contre la fureur hégémonique de la Prusse, et aussi parce qu'avec l'anglais et le français on va loin dans le monde—en passant par les Etats-Unis. On apprendra de plus en plus l'espagnol ou l'italien. De même, pour le russe, Comme le note M. Hauvette, si nous ne pénétrons pas davantage dans les pays qui parlent ces langues, les Allemands recommenceront à s'en emparer. En dernière analyse, on voit apparaître, pour tous les élèves de l'enseignement secondaire, l'obligation prochaine de connaître deux langues vivantes.

Il importera, toutefois, que ce progrès ne soit pas acheté au prix d'une diminution de la culture générale des esprits. Il ne doit pas porter atteinte aux humanités classiques. Il irait à l'encontre de l'influence française et de notre grandeur véritable, s'il impliquait, à un degré quelconque, l'élimination du grec ou un nouvel affaiblissement du latin, moelle des études secondaires. Rappelons, avec M. Albert Sarraut, qu'on ne peut plus, sans aveuglement, toucher à cette culture gréco-latine, à cet idéal et cette civilisation, dont l'Allemagne a conspiré la destruction.

Il la condamne, en effet. De là, sans nul doute, les articles du professeur Ostwald, ennemi juré des humanistes, père de ceux qui vont lançant les pastilles incendiaires et les liquides enflammés. De la encore les instructions officielles du kaiser, qui prévient les universitaires contre le danger de développer dans les esprits, 'par l'étude trop sympathique du grec et du latin, l'amour de la liberté et du droit que respirent les chefs-d'œuvre de la littérature latine et grecque. . . .'

On se plaît à penser que notre enseignement secondaire mettra à leur place, sans les opposer ni sacrifier les uns aux autres, l'idéalisme et l'utilitarisme, les humanités et les disciplines plus immédiatement utilisables.

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In a recent issue of the *Observer* Professor Wyld has a long letter on 'The Dropping of the

A. When is it a Vulgarism?' He characterizes the pronunciation of the *h* in *humour* as a vulgarism of the 'bogus refinement' type, a spelling pronunciation which grates on the ear almost as much as the sounding of the *l* in Holborn, which is often heard nowadays in the 'Tube.' Mr. Jones, in his English Pronouncing Dictionary, gives the pronunciation of *humour* with silent *h* as 'old-fashioned.' It is this same 'bogus refinement' which leads even educated persons to write and say 'a historical narrative' instead of 'an historical'—the correct form. To say 'a historical' is almost as bad as to say 'an unit.'

The *Almanac Hachette* came too late for notice in the December number. It contains a large amount of matter, well illustrated, dealing with the War, and of the highest interest to teachers and students of French. Every French teacher and every School Library should possess a copy.

Our readers will be interested and gratified to learn that ten more members of the M.L.A. of South California have become subscribers to MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. The *Modern Language Bulletin*, the qnarterly organ of the Association, is very interesting and stimulating.

In connection with the Fifth Annual Conference of Educational Associations, held in the University of London, the Simplified Spelling Society held a meeting at which a number of interesting and valuable addresses were given. Professor Walter Rippmann, M.A., Chief Inspector of Schools under the University of London, presided. In opening the proceedings,

The CHAIRMAN said that there had been a greater interest in education, which had led to a willingness to listen to proposals for spelling reform. In 1916 they had had 50 per cent. more inquiries than in the previous year, and some of these had come from such distant places as Hong Kong and Western Australia, and also from the trenches in France and Salonica. There had been enrolled twice as many new members, among whom were Mr. Steer, an ex-President of the National Union of Teachers, and Dr. Gray, formerly Headmaster of Bradfield College. Circular letters had been sent to educational societies, and one result had been that the National Union of Teachers had passed a resolution strongly approving of spelling reform. The movement for a reform in education was helping them considerably; the teaching of the mother-tongue was all-important in this respect. This was a subject that had been extraordinarily neglected. There were schools where to all intents and purposes it was not taught at all, where English was treated as a subject that could always be squeezed a little more, so as to give more time to other subjects—of which we tried to teach too many to children under twelve. To get more time for teaching English it was first of all desirable to postpone the teaching of some of these other subjects—notably French, or whatever might be the first taught foreign language. Beyond that it was necessary to make a better use of the time devoted to teaching English. Time was wanted for writing, both as far as the form and the content were concerned. We wanted clearness of form in order that writing might be a good means of communication, and we wanted the children to learn to write fluently and expressively. More time was wanted for reading, partly to teach the children how to read quickly, which was of very great importance. For that purpose it was necessary that there should be a quick recognition of words, and this necessitated a uniform spelling. More time for reading was also needed from the point of view of content, in order that our children might gain knowledge and cultivate appreciation. More time was also needed for speaking. This was partly in order that the form of speech might be good—that it might be clear speech, with the individual sounds coming out well owing to good voice production, and free from individual peculiarities which distracted attention from the thought. We were very much more uniform in our speech to-day than we used to be, but there was still a great deal of difference—of unnecessary and undesirable difference—between the speech of different classes of society. The indirect gain from a simplified spelling was not less important than the direct one. A sound method of teaching would be introduced in place of an irrational one. It was impossible to estimate the enormous amount of harm that was done by having such a grossly perverse and irrational thing as our conventional spelling was brought into the children's education at the very outset. The child was introduced by it into a study in which one of the most natural and important processes in education—that of reasoning from analogy—was summarily displaced. The logical processes employed in other studies might correct in time the mischief thus done; but not always perfectly, as was shown by some of the arguments advanced against spelling reform. The faculty which had been muddled in childhood was apt to remain muddled for the rest of one's life. Spelling reform would also be of enormous value from the commercial and international points of view.

The Rev. Professor W. Emery Barnes, D.D., Peterhouse, Cambridge, said that he had found that our English spelling was not only a stumbling-block in the way of the education of children, but also in that of the education of grown men. He thought spelling reformers should not wait for a Royal Commission before making a beginning; the members of this Society might introduce some reformed spellings, at any rate, into their own correspondence. For example, the final 'e' might be omitted from such words as 'hav,' 'giv,' and 'gon.' A great deal of spelling reform was needed in the English language if it was to hold the position it ought to hold in the world. We must be content ultimately with nothing less than making *English spelling a science;* for this it was necessary that each sound of the language should be expressed as simply and as shortly as possible.

Miss S. Burstall, M.A. (Manchester High School for Girls), spoke on the question, 'What can the Schools do?' She said that children had to live in the world as it is, and it was necessary for them, therefore, to learn the conventional spelling. She thought teachers in giving this instruction should, however, affirm openly to their pupils their disbelief in the accepted spelling, deplore the waste of time it caused, and explicitly declare their regret at being obliged to put this burden on their pupils. Another thing that might be done was to teach the boys and girls English phonetics; for this the Simplified Spelling Society's scheme would be useful. Thirdly, she thought the schools ought to begin teaching the reformed spelling of certain words. A list of such words might be drawn up, as had been done in the United States, and the Board of Education asked to allow such forms to be used. She suggested, among others, such changes as 'plow' for 'plough,' 'sent' for 'scent,' 'theater,' 'tho,' 'labor,' 'program,' 'dout,' 'woolen,' 'gage,' and 'boro.'

R. W. Macan, Litt.D. (Master of University College, Oxford), spoke on 'Spelling Reform and Commerce.' He said we might take it for granted that spelling was not a natural datum or divine revelation, but was simply a purely human invention—much more so than speech or language—for practical purposes; that to be a satisfactory and efficient instrument it ought to be rational, easy, and simple; that the existing English spelling was, however, irrational, difficult, complicated, and very badly adapted to its purposes. But no adequate reform was possible without Government action, and here a difficulty arose. All knew what politicians were, and there were no votes in simplified spelling. Still, a Government which had placed an expert at the head of the Education Office, and which had summoned an Imperial War Conference, might yet come to look at spelling reform as an imperial question.

Speaking of what had been done in various parts of the Empire, Dr. Macan said that the process of simplifying Dutch spelling had made very considerable progress in South Africa. The Government there had as yet taken no active steps to simplify English spelling, but some other people were awake to the importance of the subject. The subject was of special importance in South Africa, where the English language was in competition with the Dutch. The same bilingual problem arose in Canada. French was far from impeccable in the matter of spelling; still, it would be an enormous gain from the imperial point of view if English spelling were simplified, and it was thereby made easier for all Canadian children to learn the language. In India there was an enormous population interested, without knowing it, in this reform. English was widely taught in Japanese schools. He had been told that the Japanese did not find English spelling extraordinarily difficult; but the reason given was that the characters with which the Japanese wrote their own language were enormously complicated and delicate. The moral of that was, not to leave English spelling alone, but to change the Japanese spelling!

Professor M. V. Trofimov (King's College), speaking as a Russian, said that his own language was very difficult to learn, and that Russian business men ought, therefore, to learn English, which was a comparatively easy language to acquire. Thus the reform of English spelling became a matter of great international importance. As a devout friend of England, he was anxious that the English character, the English aspirations, and the classical works of English literary genius and political philosophy, should be known throughout the world. The importance of the reform must also be recognized on practical grounds—at least, from the Russian point of view. English spelling was a real punishment to a Russian of average education; and there was a humorous story in his country that it had been intentionally invented so as to be a barrier to the national ideas and views of the English people. In their pursuit after the simplification of things, men of practical genius quite realized that the reform of English spelling would save much time and effort. It would make a broader way for the English language in Russia.

* * *

The Simplified Spelling Society has sent a letter to the Secretary of the Reconstruction

Committee appointed by the Government to consider educational reorganization. This letter strongly urges the claim of English Spelling Reform to the serious consideration of the Committee, sets forth the advantage of Spelling Reform, and offers to place before the Committee all the information and evidence that has been collected by the Society.

CORRESPONDENCE.

[*The opinions expressed in this column are those of individual contributors, for which the Association takes no responsibility.*]

MÉRYON'S ETCHINGS OF OLD PARIS.

LOVERS of the Cité and of art will be glad to know that an extremely cheap set of prints from Méryon's etchings of Old Paris can now be obtained from Messrs. Young, publishers, Liverpool.

It was in E. V. Lucas's *Wanderer in Paris* that I first read of this artist. Mr. Lucas evidently takes it for granted that the reader is familiar with the name, for he begins his first mention: 'One of Méryon's most powerful and impressive etchings represents the Tour de l'Horloge and the façade of the Conciergerie.' But I was, perhaps shamefully, ignorant of the work of one who now fascinates me in strange measure. For eighteenpence the purchaser will not expect facsimile reproductions, but the prints, though somewhat reduced in size, are not only clear, but printed on a paper of which the tone gives full effect to the balance of light and shade in the original etchings. Of the twenty reproduced in the book, at least eight are worth framing.

It is interesting that in his second paragraph (p. 20), Mr. Lucas wishes 'before it is too late that Mr. Muirhead Bone would devote some time to the older parts of the city.' Well, Mr. Bone is now drawing in France. I see that he has drawn Amiens Cathedral. It is but a step from there to Notre-Dame, and the beautiful, apparently lithographed, reproductions of his work (*Country Life* offices, two shillings a folio of twenty drawings) are also well worth framing, when peace has made the price of frames less prohibitive.

H. M. O'G.

EDUCATIONAL MODERN LANGUAGES.

BEFORE the readers of the December number come to the letter of 'An Englishman,' they will have seen in Mr. E. H. Parker's article, at p. 209, the statement that the French have no stress in their language. This will have enabled them to estimate the value of the criticism in your anonymous correspondent's letter. The language that he uses, whether in plain American slang or, more coarsely still, disguised in a gutter 'lingo,' precludes any answer from me, for his professions of politeness do not mitigate his evident intention to insult.

I hope that the Modern Language Association may see fit to express an opinion whether the contributor of an article, and in the present case an invited one, should be exposed to public insult from an anonymous member or reader who does not agree with some statement in the article.

EDWARD NICHOLSON.

MAY I, as a member of the Modern Language Association, protest against the un-English tone and manners displayed in the letter signed 'An Englishman' in the December number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING? Why should Mr. Nicholson be insulted with vulgar slang because the writer does not agree with his statements? It is not what one would expect in academic circles from a 'gentleman,' who is presumably a teacher of languages. Anyhow, in my opinion, 'An Englishman' is quite wrong, and Mr. Nicholson quite right, with regard to the tonic accent in French. It is generally accepted that the tonic accent is, to all intents and purposes, wanting in French. Of course, the Latin tonic accent played an important part in the formation of the language, but, its mission once fulfilled, it would seem to have retired, leaving the logical, rhetorical, and metrical accents in possession.

Mr. Nicholson deserves our thanks for his article, if it does nothing more than set us thinking about language study in this country. He has treated languages from one point of view, the linguistic, and has left out the literary. His arguments seem to me weighty. In this country various languages have been studied in the past for no better reason, apparently, than because they were fashionable. Italian was dropped, although its merits are great. German was adopted, although its merits are on the whole small. French holds the field, and is likely to continue to do so for many reasons, whatever its merits may be. If only we had more of such articles as Mr. Nicholson's, we might in time be induced to examine more closely the whys and wherefores of

modern language studies in England. It would be a distinct gain educationally.

ANOTHER ENGLISHMAN.

YU *versus* U.

MR. E. NICHOLSON'S interesting discussion of the sounds of the word *you* appears to me to be considerably marred by an error due to our faulty terminology. Why does he call this sequence of sounds a Diphthong, and say that the French *ll* has 'lost its consonantal basis to become =*y*,' thus implying that *y* is a Vowel? Assuming for the present that Diphthongs are rightly and conveniently so called, is *you* one of them? Surely not. Except where it is merely a substitute for *i*, the letter *y* stands for a simple sound, which might precede any vowel, and is actually found preceding most, as in *yard, yam, Yare, yet, yea, year, ye, yacht, yawn, yoke, young*, and, lastly, in the sound-sequence under discussion, *you*, in which *y* precedes the vowel of *pool*. Now, since all these words are Monosyllables, the *y* in each must either be a Consonant, or, being a Vowel, must form Diphthongs (or possibly Triphthongs) with the succeeding sounds; otherwise the words would be Dissyllables. Will Mr. Nicholson assert that each of these words is, or begins with, a Diphthong? Quite apart from phonetic principle, it would be both unprecedented and highly inconvenient to reckon them as such. But upon the question of principle *y*, not being Syllabic, is not a Vowel, and not being a Vowel cannot form Diphthongs. In MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING for November and December, 1915, I advanced reasons for the opinion that the term 'Diphthong' is a misnomer, the sounds denoted by it, however they may have originated, being now composed not of two sounds only, but of a series—not Diphthongs, but Polyphthongs; and I also pointed out what I take to be an admitted discrepancy between the terms Vowel and Consonant, that they are not truly antithetical. Now if instead of Diphthongs we spoke of Polyphthongs, and if instead of using the term Vowel as antithetical to Consonant we used its true opposite Syllabic, it would, I think, be more evident that *you* does not come under the one head, nor *y* under the other; and a common mistake, by no means confined to Mr. Nicholson, would not be so often made. A false terminology is a fruitful source of error.

On another point, could Mr. Nicholson substantiate his assertion that it is because the dentals *d*, *t*, and *th* 'do not accept *y* readily,' that we, or many of us, now speak of *pikchers, forch'ns*, etc.? On looking through initial *du—*, *tu—*, and *thu—* in Walker's Dictionary, I find there is not given a single word pronounced *doo—*, *too—*, or *thoo—*, while there are many pronounced *dew—*, *tew—*, and *thew—*. I take it that Walker was, to a great extent, describing facts as well as prescribing fashions, and the *y* in *due, tune*, etc., appears to be as easily pronounced and to have been just as fully accepted, at all events in stressed syllables, as those in *cue, few, new*, and *pew*. If it now tends to be suppressed or supplanted by *zh* and *sh*, may this not be an effect of the shortening process to which language is normally subject, and not because *y* is difficult, but because *zh* and *sh* are easier? I suspect that most of the changes traced by Mr. Nicholson are due to this constant cause, nor, indeed, does he say much that is inconsistent with such a view, but he does not expound it himself. However, we owe him thanks for his criticism of the pronunciation scheme of the Oxford Dictionary, which, nominally giving a highly refined analysis of sounds, practically makes numerous and simple mistakes.

A. D. WILDE.

ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING.

THE General Meeting was held at University College, London, on Tuesday, January 9, Mr. H. L. Hutton in the chair.

The Hon. Secretary read the annual report, which was adopted.

The Hon. Treasurer's report was not formally submitted to the meeting, as it had been impossible to secure auditors, but it was announced that it was of a satisfactory character.

A short report from the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, who regretted his inability to be present, stated there was a good flow of articles and letters for the magazine, but that he would like to receive more articles from members.

On the motion of Mr. Brereton, seconded by Mr. S. A. Richards, a vote of thanks was accorded to Mr. Anderson for his services.

A letter was read from Professor Robertson, who stated that, though the deficit on the *Modern Language Review* had been somewhat larger than usual, the terms to members of the Association would not be raised during the coming year.

A vote of thanks to the Editors was moved by Dr. Boas, seconded by Miss Pope, and carried unanimously.

It was announced that the following members had been elected to serve on the General Committee:

Professor Baker, University of Sheffield.
Miss Batchelor, Bedford College, N.W.
E. Bullough.
Rev. H. J. Chaytor, Plymouth College.
Professor L. E. Kastner, Victoria University, Manchester.
Miss Murray, Girton College, Cambridge.
A. A. Somerville, Eton College.
Miss Strachey, Newnham College, Cambridge.
M. V. Trofimov, King's College, W.C.
Professor R. A. Williams, Queen's University, Belfast.

Mr. Somerville moved:

1. That interned aliens and alien enemies living abroad shall cease to be members of this Association.
2. That henceforth no German or Austrian shall be admitted to this Association. This rule shall not be affected by naturalization during or after the war.

A discussion followed, which was adjourned at twelve o'clock until five in the afternoon, when a further debate took place. A division was taken, and there voted—

For the first resolution	...	17
Against	...	38
For the second resolution	...	4
Against	...	46

[See 'Extract from Proceedings of General Committee' on p. 31.]

Mr. S. A. Richards moved, on behalf of Mr. Hargreaves, the following resolution:

> That, in the interests of education, it is very desirable that modern languages should be taught in schools solely by persons of British nationality, and the policy of the Association should be directed towards the attainment of this end.

The motion was seconded by Mr. A. M. Saville.

Mr. Kirkman sympathized with the resolution, but thought it a little too stringent. He moved the substitution of 'as a rule' for 'solely.'

This was seconded.

Mr. Mansion did not like the resolution, as under present conditions it was practically aimed at French teachers. He thought the time for raising the question was inopportune.

The amendment was put, and carried by 10 to 7.

The meeting was now getting thin, and the hour late. It was therefore resolved that the consideration of the question be postponed till next year.

In the afternoon papers were read as follows on 'The Place of Modern Foreign Languages other than French in School Curricula":

Italian, Signorina de Castelvecchio, King's College, W.C.
Russian, Mr. E. G. Underwood, B.A., B. ès L., B.Sc., Eton College.
Spanish, Dr. E. Alec Woolf, B.A., D. ès L., Hackney Downs School, N.E.
German, Mr. Marshall Montgomery, M.A., formerly Lektor in English, University of Giessen.

We hope to give at least some of these in future issues.

On Wednesday, January 10, as announced, MR HUTTON moved: 'That the organization in schools of advanced modern humanistic education, without Latin and Greek, is one of the educational needs of the moment.' He began with a strong plea for the better and wider teaching of English. The first essential was the study of one great literature, and for Englishmen that literature must be English, because for us English was the greatest of all literatures. The years that we devoted—many of us exclusively—to the intensive study of Greek and Latin masterpieces must not blind us to the equal, though dissimilar, merits of our own great authors, whom we have not studied with the same minute accuracy, enduring concentration, or wide intelligence. It was often urged that the literatures of Greece and Rome contain valuable elements that are not to be found in English. The obvious retort was that English contained valuable elements not possessed by Latin and Greek. It was often argued that English alone was too narrow a training. In the Bible, however, we had a second literature ready to our hands, of which we made curiously little use. It was the literary expression of a great nation in its history, science, and law, in its songs and sermons and letters. Further, some of the masterpieces of Greek and Roman literature might be studied in translations. This was all that was possible for many boys and girls. For scholars who were more gifted, or had a longer school career, we could add one foreign language, which by common consent would be French. French literature contained elements that we do not find either in English or the classics. The anxious choice of the right word, the sense of the beauty of pure structure, and other qualities of French prose, were now widely recognized. The English and French humanities should form the foundation for all higher humanistic study, whether classical or modern. The equivalents of the

great classical authors could be found in modern literatures.

After discussing this point in detail, Mr. Hutton went on to refer to some current fallacies about the classics. Owing to the influence of science, the last century was obsessed with the value of origins. But Latin and Greek were not really at the source of our civilization, which had been pushed further back, its record being enshrined, not in literature, but in art. With singular distortion of the facts, the classical champions had long asserted that their studies were 'disinterested,' whereas modern languages were tainted with commerce, and this in the face of immediate rewards in rich scholarships and Government appointments. The favourite sneer of the ignorant classicist had been that modern languages were a soft option. He remembered a challenge to a distinguished headmaster who had publicly asserted that anyone could do French prose with a grammar and dictionary, but that Latin prose required a trained intellect. He had a trained intellect, but did not accept the challenge. Culture on a large scale, based on our own language, and perhaps on a foreign language, existed all round them on a large scale amongst women. It was a fallacy to suppose that the classical student would generally go on to a study of his native language and literature. It was also a fallacy to suppose that translation into Latin or Greek was the only way of concentrating the attention on the form and content of great authors. As a matter of fact, the whole of the analysis took place in English, before the act of translation. There was a traditional antagonism between the claims of the classics and those of modern languages, but the parties had taken a long step towards unity in recognizing the priority of English and French. Still, the rivalry persisted and made necessary some reference to current arguments. All the leading representatives of the classics did not use them; some recognized the validity of the argument for modern languages. This was something new, and the logical consequence was the desirability of a complete education in modern languages, in conjunction with other necessary elements, equal in value to that in Latin and Greek.

Miss BERRYMAN (Notting Hill High School) would be sorry to see Latin and Greek excluded. To use English as an instrument of education we needed exceptional teachers, and a long period must elapse before those who were now undergraduates could grasp the possibilities of English. Much of the best English literature belonged to a time when men were soaked with the classics. Nothing in modern literature could supply what the classics could give, though she recognized th merits of French literature. Writers of Greece and Rome lived in an age which was not concerned with the development of material things; even Elizabethan and medieval England were spiritual in a different sense, because the idea of material development was beginning to gain ground. Mr. H. G. Wells had imagined a race who would spend their lives applying scientific knowledge to material needs. This is what was absent in the classics, contact with which brought people into touch with a higher ideal. The tendency would be to base education on science and mathematics, and we wanted the classics as a makeweight.

Mr. C. G. STEEL (Rugby) said he would largely agree with the motion so far as pupils leaving school at sixteen were concerned. For those who stayed till eighteen he wanted Latin, and especially for those who could not tackle Greek. He had two reasons. The first was the practical reason that Latin was the source of the Romance Languages, which would probably form the basis of the linguistic training of the next generation. The second reason was that Latin was valuable ethically, socially, and politically. After illustrating this at some length by examples drawn from Roman history and literature, he dealt with the argument that these things could be studied as well in translations. He thought this a fallacy, because you could make the ideas more thoroughly your own by working hard at the language in which they were embodied.

Mr. RIPPMANN seconded the motion, but he did not altogether like the reference to Latin. No foreign language should be attempted before twelve, so as to give time for plenty of English. Teachers should pay proper attention to good speaking, which would be a help to children when learning French. Some grammar was also wanted (applause), also a good vocabulary, and the understanding of the exact meaning of words. The power of free composition in English should be more developed. We wanted fewer languages, but better taught. It was futile for children who left school at sixteen to learn more than two languages, and many ought not to learn two (applause). It was particularly for those who left at sixteen that this humanistic education was wanted. The County and Municipal Schools were supremely important, and splendid material, which had formerly run to waste, had been discovered in them. We wanted opportunities for the rapid acquisition, between sixteen and eighteen, of a second language, which in some cases would be Latin. Advanced humanistic education without Latin was incom-

plete. The demand for Russian was insistent. He suggested omitting the reference to Latin and Greek.

Mr. BRERETON dwelt on the necessity for English, and said that some children ought not to learn even one foreign language.

Mr. CROFTS wanted to know whether the motion implied the abolition of the classics. Translations were second-hand information, and he did not like such information.

Dr. MACAN was prepared to support the motion as it stood. He did not interpret it as a plea for the exclusion of Latin and Greek, but rather as suggesting that a really humanistic education is possible in schools and universities on some other basis than the classics. English was the corner-stone. The antithesis between humanities and science did not lie so much in the subjects taught as in the spirit of the teaching. The real antithesis was between humanistic studies and the teaching of science as a purely technical thing, useful for trade and money-making. In his opinion, Mr. Steel had hardly done justice to translation. You can get the content of a book in a translation. He would not exclude translations into French and German. Personally, he liked Voss's Homer better than Lord Derby's. We were all in favour of omniscience, but for practical purposes it was necessary to make a choice.

Mr. Hutton accepted Mr. Rippmann's suggestion, and the resolution was passed in the following form with one dissentient:

'That the organization in schools of advanced humanistic education based on modern languages and literatures is one of the educational needs of the moment.'

For the first time in its history the Association had to go without a Presidential Address. M. Paul Cambon, the French Ambassador, who had undertaken to deliver the address, was unexpectedly detained in Paris, and found it impossible to attend the meeting. Notices were inserted in *The Times* and *Morning Post* of January 8, and it is hoped that these saved a good many people a useless journey to University College. Keen regret was universally felt at the absence of the Ambassador; but everybody understood that if at such time as this the Association selects as President one so occupied as M. Paul Cambon with public business of the highest importance, members must not complain if the exigencies of that business prevent his appearance on the platform. We look forward to hearing His Excellency on some future occasion, and meantime we offer him our cordial thanks for accepting the Presidency for the year. And we express our gratitude to M. Cammaerts for having at short notice come at twelve o'clock instead of five, and delighted a large audience with his readings.

REVIEWS.

[*The Association does not make itself officially responsible for the opinions of reviewers.*]

1. *What is Phonetics? An Answer to this Question in the form of Twelve Letters from a Phonetician to a Non-phonetic Friend.* By HAROLD E. PALMER. Pp. 60. Price 2s. International Phonetic Association (D. Jones, University College, W.C.).
2. *La Phonétique appliquee à l'Enseignement de la Lecture.* Par PAUL PASSY. Pp. 20. Price 1s. (members, 6d.). International Phonetic Association.

The main arguments in favour of phonetics are clearly put forward by Mr. Palmer in No. 1, and the chief objections to the study are adequately met. It is difficult to imagine any non-phonetician remaining unconverted after a study of this pamphlet. It may be read with profit by those who are already converted. No. 2 is the outcome of an experiment recently made by Dr. Passy. For details, we refer our readers to the *brochure* itself, and content ourselves with giving his conclusions textually: '1°, Par l'emploi d'un alphabet phonétique il est possible d'apprendre à lire aux enfants beaucoup plus vite et mieux qu'en employant l'orthographe usuelle. 2°, C'est en employant la méthode synthétique ou méthode des mots qu'on arrive le mieux à interesser les enfants à ce qu'ils font et à provoquer chez eux l'attention qui conduit aux progrès rapides.'

Petit Cours préparatoire: A Two-Term Course in Phonetics. By L. H. ALTHAUS. Pp. 87. Price 1s. 4d. Black.

Miss Althaus is nothing if not thorough. She is a strong believer in Phonetics and the Direct Method in the teaching of

modern languages. From the first lesson to the end there is not one word of English and not one printed in orthographic spelling. The exercises on pronunciation are numerous and excellent. An eight-page pamphlet provides ample lesson notes for the teacher. There are numerous illustrations. In teaching vocabulary Miss Althaus is a whole-hogger, and says: 'Il n'est point nécessaire d'employer l'anglais pour enseigner le vocabulaire.' We do not agree with such an unqualified statement. Time is certainly often lost by not using English, and you cannot always be sure that the pupil has grasped the meaning. In the very first vocabulary lesson occur *voici, voilà,* and *où est*. It is surely better to give the meanings of these in English. How can the teacher convey to the pupil without translation the meaning of *voilà la salle?* We fully admit the principle, but it is one which may often be more honoured in the breach than in the observance. We have no doubt that in the hands of a capable teacher this manual will give excellent results. The author rightly emphasizes the importance of sound-drill. Stress has been indicated, and there are, at the end, exercises on intonation. Miss Althaus recommends transition of phonetic to nomic script to be made at the fourth term. The artist might have given a better representation of *un tailleur* (p. 63), and no washerwoman would hang out stockings as depicted on p. 58. The book is attractively arranged and is well printed.

Black's First German Book. By L. H. Althaus. Pp. 135. Black.

In this clearly printed and well-arranged manual Miss Althaus gives us a rigorous application of the Direct Method in teaching German. The first thirty lessons may be had separately in Phonetic Script. There are numerous useful exercises in sound-drill, but these are naturally of greater value when used with the Phonetic Edition. The book is accompanied by a pamphlet, giving invaluable *Lesson Notes* to the teacher. The remarks made with regard to vocabulary in the above review will also apply here. On p. 8, if no English is to be used when the teacher writes *C* on the board and says *C ist ein Laut,* it is more than probable that the pupil will understand *Laut* to mean letter. The Grammar Exercises and Drill are adequate, and the reading passages are well chosen and interesting. The pictures, of which several are in colour, add greatly to the attractiveness of the book.

Les Ailes de Courage. Par George Sand. Edited by F. B. Kirkman. Pp. 119. Price 2s. Cambridge University Press.

This latest volume of the Cambridge Modern French Series (Middle Group) makes an excellent text for a Fifth Form. The Exercises are unusually well done, the grammatical ones in particular. There are no notes, but a 'lexique' of the more unusual words is provided. The printing is all that could be desired, and the attractive binding is more suitable to a drawing-room than to a class-room.

Bondar's Russian Readers. No. 2: Юмористическихъ разсказовъ. Humorous Stories. By A. P. Chekhoff. Edited by D. Bondar, M.S.P. Pp. 84. London. 1916. 2s. net.

No. 3: Семейное счастье; or, Family Happiness. By L. N. Tolstoy. Part I. Edited by D. Bondar. Pp. 88. London. 1916. 2s. net.

Here we have the second and third of Mr. Bondar's readers. In Modern Language Teaching of December, 1915, we took the trouble to point out to the editor of 'Пиковая дама' how he might improve upon that, which was the first of his readers. He has, it would seem, deliberately adopted three of our suggestions without having the courtesy to acknowledge his obligation: (1) to write a short prefatory note on the author, (2) to place a vocabulary at the end of his books, (3) to find a more suitable way of marking the accent. We made other suggestions, of course, which he has comfortably ignored, particularly that relating to pronunciation.

Let us look at the two volumes before us. It does not appear why Mr. Bondar has placed Chekhoff's book before Tolstoy's story; Chekhoff is infinitely more difficult, because he is more colloquial. A selection from Chekhoff needs very careful handling, and calls for a great many more 'notes' than are given in No. 2. Word-lists in such a book give very little assistance to the reader, who may understand every word in a sentence, and yet utterly fail to grasp the meaning of the whole. From the Chekhoff volume it would seem that the word-for-word 'crib' idea of editing a book is ridiculous and puzzling to the reader. Any teacher of language could tell Mr. Bondar, M.S.P., that adjective in Russian cannot always be translated by adjective in English, verb cannot always be given for verb, adverb for adverb, noun for noun. We speak in *phrases,*

not in *words*. Russians do not do otherwise. Doesn't our editor know that the meanings of words vary with the context? He seems to have taken his text, looked up the meanings of a given word in his dictionary, and jotted down the first meaning that caught his eye, whether it suited the context or not. Thus, 'ложечка' is translated 'little spoon,' instead of 'pit of the stomach' (p. 51).

We think the note on Chekhoff at the beginning of No. 2 should have been in English. In No. 3 no 'life' of Tolstoy appears. Perhaps we are to conclude from this that the earthly pilgrimage and labours of the great master are too well known to the English-speaking world to be repeated! They are perhaps as well known and understood as the 'Soul' of Russia!!

Is 'собраніе' the Russian word for 'selection'? Why not 'выборъ'? Isn't 'Семейное счастье' better translated as '*Domestic* Happiness'?

The vocabulary for Chekhoff occupies three pages, that for Tolstoy four, and the *minimum* of information is given in them. We are not even told whether a word is a noun, an adverb, a preposition, or an alligator!

Mr. Bondar has rendered a great service to many older students by providing reading matter for them; they are, of course, grateful to him for it. But these things will not do for the 'younger generation.' Not by any stretch of a generous imagination can these books of Mr. Bondar be termed even 'school' editions. They are not editions; they are, as we have hinted, merely a species of 'crib.' The elaboration of a 'method' must take some time; but when one is set forth most of the editors of present-day texts and grammars and helps and stop-gap guides to Russian will find that all their baggage will inevitably be swept into the limbo of forgotten things. Therefore we thank Mr. Bondar ere it is too late.

The accentuation is faulty in some cases, especially on 'gerunds.' The marks, however, are in the proper place, and the text is much pleasanter in consequence. Finally, we think that the editor should have given references to edition (volume number) of Chekhoff used.

S.

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Miscellaneous.

READMAN, BASIL. Aide-Mémoire of Everyday French Words and Phrases. Pp. 80 (40 text +40 lined blank)+about 150 lined blank. 4to. Price 3s. net. Blackie and Son.

GRAMMONT, M. Traité pratique de Prononciation française. Vingt-trois figures dans le texte. Pp. 231. Price fr. 2.50. Delagrave.

GERMAN.

Grammar, etc.

WRIGHT, JOSEPH: A Middle High German Primer. With Grammar, Notes, and Glossary Third edition, rewritten and enlarged. Pp. 213. Price 4s. 6d. net. The Clarendon Press.

GERSTÄCKER, F.: Der Wilddieb. With Introduction, Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary. Pp. vi+100+86. Price 1s. 8d. Harrap.

PHONETICS.

JONES, DANIEL: An English Pronouncing Dictionary (On strictly Phonetic Principles). Pp. 419. Price 6s. net. Dent and Sons.

PALMER, H. E.: A First Course of English Phonetics. Pp. 89. Price 2s. 6d. net. Heffer and Sons.

PERRETT, WILFRID: Some Questions of Phonetic Theory. Part I. Pp. 110. Price 2s. 6d. net. University of London Press (Hodder and Stoughton).

O'GRADY, HARDRESS: English Dictation for Home-Work. Pp. 56. Price 1s. 4d. Constable and Co.

RUSSIAN.

RUSSIAN READER. Turgeniev's Poetry in Prose. With Accent Notes and Vocabularies. By B. A. Rudzinsky. Pp. 60. Price 1s. 6d. net. H. S. Marshall.

BONDAR'S RUSSIAN READERS. No. 3. Family Happiness. By L. N. Tolstoy. Part I. Pp. 88. Price 2s. net. Effingham Wilson.

FORBES, NEVILL. Word for Word Russian Story Book. With Interlinear Phonetic Transcription and Translation Accented and Annotated. Pp. 55. Price 1s. 6d. net. Blackwell, Oxford.

FORBES, NEVILL. Second Russian Book. A Practical Manual of Russian Verbs. Pp. 336. Price 3s. 6d. net. Clarendon Press.

FREETH, FRANK: A First Russian Reader. Part I.: Russian Words in Common Use, with Pronunciation and English Equivalents. Part II.: Easy Colloquial Phrases. Part III.: Graduated Exercises rendered into English. Pp. 79. Price 2s. 6d. net. Kegan Paul.

SOLOMONOFF, J.: Russian Composition. Consisting of Anecdotes, Fables, Passages from English Standard Authors. With Vocabulary to each Passage, and Grammatical Notes. Part I.: Elementary. Pp. 57. Price 1s. net. Kegan Paul.

SPANISH.

BARNILS, PERE: Vocabulari Català-Alemany de l'any 1502. Pp. 205. Barcelona: Institut d'Estudis Catalano. 1916.

WAXMAN, S. M.: Exercises in Spanish Composition. Based upon A Trip to South America. Pp. 100. Price 1s. 6d. Harrap.

FUENTES, V., and FRANÇOIS, V. E.: A Practical Spanish Grammar. Pp. 313. Price 4s. 6d. net. New York: The Macmillan Company.

['A minimum of rules and a maximum of exercises.']

VARIOUS.

KRAUSE, C. A. The Direct Method in Modern Languages. Pp. 139. Scribner's Sons.

JONES, W. H. S. How we Learn. A Short Primer of Scientific Method for Boys. Pp. vii + 64. Price 1s. 6d. Camb. Univ. Press.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

GENERAL COMMITTEE.

A MEETING of the General Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, January 27.

Present: Mr. Rippmann (chair), Mr. Allpress, Miss Althaus, Mr. J. G. Anderson, Miss Ash, Professor Atkins, Miss Batchelor, Mr. Cruttwell, Miss Hart, Messrs. Kirkman, Rev. Dr. Macgowan, Mansion, Miss Murray, Messrs. Payen-Payne, Perrett, Dr. Prior, Miss Strachey, Mr. Trofimov, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from Miss Allpress, Professor Baker, Mr. Bullough, Mr. Chouville, Mr. Odgers, Mr. S. A. Richards, and Mr. Siepmann.

At the outset of the proceedings Mr. de Payen-Payne was voted to the chair.

Mr. H. L. Hutton was re-elected Chairman, and the Hon. Secretary was desired to express to him the Committee's appreciation of the work done by him last year.

The minutes of the last ordinary and two special meetings were read and confirmed.

Mr. Rippmann was elected Vice-Chairman, and thereupon took the chair.

The other officers were re-elected.

Mr. Twentyman, Signorina de Castelvecchio, and Dr. E. A. Woolf, were co-opted members of the Committee.

The following were elected to serve on the Executive Committee: Mr. R. H. Allpress, Miss Althaus, Miss Ash, Professor Atkins, Miss Batchelor, Mr. Bullough, Miss Hart, Messrs. D. Jones, Macgowan, Mansion, Payen-Payne, Prior, Richards, Miss Strachey, and Mr. Twentyman.

The Finance, Exhibition, Languages, and Examinations Sub-Committees were reappointed; those on the Teaching of Modern History and Evidence for Government Committee dropped.

The Russian Sub-Committee was reappointed, and the Association's representatives thereon re-elected.

The question of the reappointment of the University Chairs Sub-Committee was postponed.

On the recommendation of the Finance Sub-Committee, it was agreed that £3 should be contributed to the expenses of the Russian Sub-Committee.

It was agreed that the alphabetical members' list should be reprinted, but not the topographical list.

The Examinations Sub-Committee submitted proposals for an examination in modern languages alternative to the present Senior Local Examination. It was recommended that the examination should consist of—(*a*) Oral Test in Dictation, Reading, and Conversation; (*b*) Written Test in Translation into English and Free Composition. The report was adopted.

Miss Strachey reported resolutions passed at the Conference between the Council of Humanistic Studies and the Royal Society's Neglect of Science Committee.

Miss Ash, Messrs. Atkins and Hutton were appointed to draw up a statement of the aims of modern language teaching for the use of the Conference.

A letter from Professor Kastner, suggesting that the meetings of the General Committee should be held in some central town instead of London, was, owing to lack of time, referred to the Executive Committee.

The following eight new members were elected:

Miss F. M. Baldwin, Prior's Field, Godalming.

Miss E. Grimshaw, B.A., Girls' Secondary School, Hastings.

Mlle. Le Roy, University College, W.C.

Miss M. E. Phillips, B.A., Peckham County Secondary School, S.E.

Miss Louise Rossel, Westburton, Sidcup

J. Paddock Scott, M.A., 73, Priory Road, Anfield, Liverpool.

Miss E. M. Turner, B.A., Peckham County Secondary School, S.E.

Miss Agnes L. Williams, M.A., Bede Collegiate School for Girls, Sunderland.

The following new members were elected on January 9:

Miss M. L. Barker, M.A., Penrith Grammar School, Cumberland.

Miss M. A. Boulton, Yeadon Secondary School, Yorks.

Miss Gladys M. Davies, B.A., Co-High School for Girls, Altrincham, Cheshire.

Nevill Forbes, M.A., Reader in Russian, Taylorian Institution, Oxford.

Miss Gassett, B.A., Surbiton High School.

A. P. Goudy, M.A., University Lecturer in Russian, Cambridge.

Mlle. M. E. E. Grémaud, Secondary County School, Walthamstow.

Mlle. M. Jourdan, Dulwich High School, S.E.

Miss E. C. Morgan, B.A., County School for Boys, Wrexham.

H. J. Purkiss, St. Andrew's, Southborough, Tunbridge Wells.

Miss F. E. Roberts, M.A., Girls' High School, Wigan.

Professor G. A. Rudler, D. ès L., University of London.

Mme. Rudler.

Miss M. G. Skipworth, Lady Margaret Hall, Oxford.

Professor A. Terracher, D. ès L., Litt.D., Liverpool University.

EXTRACT FROM PROCEEDINGS OF GENERAL COMMITTEE,

JANUARY 27.

MR. SOMERVILLE moved that a referendum, as suggested at the General Meeting, be taken upon the following proposals:

That the Association desires to record—

1. Its abhorrence of the crimes committed by the German nation against humanity.
2. Its wish that interned aliens and enemy aliens living abroad should cease to be members of the Association.
3. Its decision that no German shall become a member of the Association until Germany has given evidence of repentance for her crimes and guarantees for the future.

Dr. MACGOWAN seconded the first and second resolutions, but suggested that the third be withdrawn; to which course Mr. Somerville agreed.

The substance and wording of the resolutions were then considered at length and with great care.

The first resolution was passed unanimously in the following form:

The General Committee reaffirms its abhorrence of the crimes committed against humanity during the war under the authority of the Central Powers.

The second resolution was passed, with one dissentient, in the following form:

The General Committee resolves that interned aliens, and enemies living abroad, all of whom are already suspended, shall cease to be members of the Association.

It was unanimously agreed that the following note should be appended to the second resolution:

The General Committee recognized that the question of the readmission of such persons must necessarily be left over for future decision.

Mr. SOMERVILLE, being of opinion that these resolutions gave satisfactory expression of the attitude of the Association, concurred with the view generally held by those present that no referendum was necessary, and, with the consent of the Committee, he accordingly withdrew his proposal for a referendum.

YORKSHIRE BRANCH.

A MEETING of the Yorkshire Branch of the Association was held on November 30 in the Girls' Modern School, Leeds. The subject for discussion was, 'How the French Boy learns to Write,' a study of the teaching of composition in French schools. The attendance at the meeting was, unfortunately, not very large, owing to unfavourable weather conditions, but we were glad to welcome several visitors interested in the teaching of English composition. Miss Althaus, who took the chair, had to express her regret that two of the speakers were unable to attend,

owing to illness. She then introduced Miss Titterton (Girls' Modern School) and Mademoiselle Bourzès (Doncaster High School), whose papers gave a survey of the theory and practice obtaining in French schools. Miss Titterton gave a careful résumé of the most important points raised by Professor Rolls Brown in the recently published book which gave its title to the discussion. For the period of a year the author studied the practice of French teachers in Lycées and Colleges, and observed the systematic building-up of vocabulary and the teaching of grammar in the lower forms, the use of explications de texte in the higher forms, and the teaching of composition proper from its earliest beginnings. The speaker did not follow Professor Brown in his application of these methods to American education, but concentrated on the actual practice in France and its results. Mademoiselle Bourzès, who followed, gave some delightful souvenirs of the teaching of composition from the pupil's point of view. The absolute necessity for a 'Plan' was strongly emphasized by her, as by the book already quoted. She delighted the audience by producing one of her own compositions done in her school-days, plan and all, together with the criticisms of the teacher, which do not seem to err on the side of leniency in France. Mademoiselle Bourzès concurred very heartily with the statements made by the first speaker, and showed that there was complete uniformity in method, whether of teaching girls or boys.

A vote of thanks was proposed by Miss Lowe (Girls' High School, Leeds), who took the chair towards the close of the proceedings.

The Committee for 1916-17 was elected as follows: President, Dr. Gunnell, Leeds University; Vice-President, Miss Althaus; New Members of Committee, Misses Backhouse and Robertson, Mr. Hodgson. The Secretary, Miss Macgregor, was re-elected.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

All contributors are requested to send in matter by the 24th of each month, if publication is urgently required for the issue following.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 15th of February, March, April or May, June, July, October, November, and December. The price of single numbers is 6d. net.; the annual subscription is 4s. 8d. Orders should be sent direct to the Publishers, A. and C. Black, Ltd., 4, Soho Square, London.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, Cuilrathain, Harpenden, Herts.

The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Association, but those whose subscription for the current year is not paid before July 1 are not entitled to receive it.

The Annual Subscription to the Association, payable on January 1, is 7s. 6d., and should be sent to the Hon. Treasurer, Dr. W. PERRETT, 58, Erskine Hill, Hendon, N.W.

Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, Steeple, Kingsway, Gerrards Cross.

The MODERN LANGUAGE REVIEW, a Quarterly Journal of Medieval and Modern Literature and Philology, edited by Professor J. G. Robertson, and published by the Cambridge University Press, is supplied to Members of the Association at a special annual subscription of 7s. 6d., *which must be prepaid*. It should be sent with the membership subscription (15s. in all) to the Hon. Treasurer. Those who wish to take in or discontinue the REVIEW should communicate with the Hon. Secretary.

The attention of Teachers is drawn to the collection of French and German School Books, carefully selected by a Sub-Committee, and known as the Travelling Exhibition. It may be inspected on applying to Mr. Twentyman, Board of Education, Whitehall. A Catalogue (sent *gratis* to members) has been issued of all sections except Reading Texts, of which a separate and minutely detailed list is being prepared. For particulars of conditions on which the Exhibition may be loaned apply to Miss Hart, as below.

The Hon. Secretary will be glad to receive from members the addresses of well-educated families on the Continent willing to receive English guests, which can be recommended to students and teachers wishing to study abroad. The addresses of houses where an English guest is not likely to meet any other English people are specially desired. Names of families should not be sent unless the member can recommend them from personal knowledge. Full particulars should be given.

Communications on the under-mentioned subjects should be addressed to the persons named:—

Exchange of Children: Miss BATCHELOR, Bedford College, Regent's Park, N.W.

Magic-Lantern Slides: H. L. HUTTON, 2, College Gardens, Dulwich, S.E.

Residence Abroad (Women): Miss SANDYS, 30, East St. Helen's, Abingdon; **(Men)**: The Hon. Secretary.

Travelling Exhibition: J. E. MANSION, B.-ès-L., 10, Sudbrooke Road, Wandsworth Common, S.W.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, Berkhamsted School, Herts.

N.B.—Applicants for correspondents are requested to enclose list of pupils, giving names, ages, and addresses, and a stamp for reply.

Correspondence on all other subjects should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary.

It is urgently requested that all Postal Orders be crossed.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY J. G. ANDERSON

VOLUME XIII. No. 2 March, 1917

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AFTER THE WAR.*

I.

IT is safe to say, that after the War, however it ends, our views of every kind of activity which connects us with foreign nations will be deeply influenced by the enthusiasm and the hatred which the War has kindled. Few people will wholly escape the bias of either kind engendered by the terrific struggle. Even the neutrals we shall tend to regard as possible allies, and as sources from which we may draw future supplies of food and munitions, or as peoples with inconveniently independent ideas of their own rights, who have to be cajoled or overridden as politely as may be. And these feelings will tend to colour our attitude towards the languages they severally speak.

Still, we must expect the permanent motives which lead people to study foreign languages gradually to reassert themselves. These motives, we know, are extremely different. My colleague, the Professor of Chinese, gave in his first year's report of his department an account of the various aims with which his students had severally attacked the formidable problem of mastering that language. One was a merchant, one a philologist, one a missionary, and one a lady who was going out to marry a missionary. Thus, commerce, science, religion, and the home, were all represented, and one might well ask what side of our civilization was left out. This example may, at least, help us to a rough working division of the purposes for which foreign languages are learnt. Thus they are learnt either primarily, in order to operate upon the speakers of the language in question, or else, primarily, for our own benefit or culture. The first class of motive may assume at least four distinct varieties. It may relate to war, administration, commerce, or religious propaganda. Preparation by linguistic study for *war* is hardly known even to industrious Germany, except in the case of her formidable neighbours; but for that it is vigorously practised. We know, on the other hand, how effectually the intellectual indolence, which used to be professional good form with the English officer, resisted the need of learning Russian for a generation at least after it had become our universal expectation one day to have to fight Russia at the gates of India.

Secondly comes the case of government and administration. This only

* Address to the Modern Language Association (Lancashire and Cheshire Branch), November, 11, 1916.

arises, of course, when the 'foreign' language belongs to a race governed by the same central authority; and here we must recognize the admirable work done in India in so far subduing the natural linguistic inertness of Englishmen that a large proportion of Indian Civil Servants acquire competence in one or more dialects. But how much is left to do, and how often knowledge stops short at the point requisite for the barest minimum of intercourse! In the government of a foreign race, always a doubtful and dangerous occupation, England may fairly claim to stand high; she has governed, or at least honestly intended to govern, justly; but in her justice there has always been more of the impartiality which treats all mankind as equal than of the insight which interprets their infinite differences; more of the integrity which is compatible with a rather stupid want of perception than of the closer understanding of men and of races which rests upon the sympathetic apprehension of their aims, their character, and their history; and this apprehension can but rarely and imperfectly be had without the clue of their language.

Thirdly there is the important branch of foreign language study which seeks what we have come to call 'commercial penetration' of the foreign country. The phrase has acquired a sinister sound for us, and, as practised by Germans, we are ready to treat it as an insidious way of preparing the ground for war. But there is a good deal of envy in our horrified holding up of hands at the thoroughness with which the German commercial penetrators had done their work; and little of value is to be hoped from a frantic endeavour to improvise modern language study for the sole purpose of catching up the Germans and snatching their trade. And, so far, the systematic organization of foreign studies which did not exist before, has made little progress. One may say that without overlooking the splendid individual munificence which has been shown here and there in endowing the study of Russian, or the formation, just announced, of an influential Anglo-Spanish Society for the promotion of the study of that language. But in any case commercial aims give no guarantee for the deeper and more scholarly study of the language. They make for a glib practical mastery of colloquial speech, of business phrases, of the technique of the things the Russian wants and we can supply; and the Russia they lead to the knowledge of is the purely economic Russia which consumes and produces material goods, and whose spiritual wants and energies, except as translated into desire for commodities, are irrelevant and out of account. No abundance of commercial language courses can for a moment supply the need of the higher study, for which the resources exist only at the Universities. But the commercial motive is so much more powerful in our community that we must welcome all the help it can give to the initiation and early steps in foreign language study. It is so powerful that, even in the case of German, and among comparatively uneducated people, it can overcome the natural if illogical prejudice fostered by the bitter conflict and the tragical losses which the War has brought into almost every home in the land. In a club of working women, consisting of several hundred clerks and shopgirls, it was recently proposed, among many other educational activities, to start a class in German. The secretary shortly after received from one of the members a letter almost incoherent with indignation, commenting on the shameless proposal to study the language which ought to be trampled and crushed out of existence, etc. The secretary read the letter to the committee of working women

chosen by the members from among themselves. At the end the whole committee burst into a roar of laughter, and one pronounced the general view by saying: 'I think we need take no further notice of this.' That, I trust, indicates the reception which German after the War, in the field of commercial languages, will find among the rank and file of the learners. No doubt a real exclusion of trade with our present enemies after the War, should it come about, must react upon the study of German for business purposes. But it may well, if we are wise, invigorate the study of the languages of the neutral and foreign world outside Germany, which by our tariff policy we shall have driven into Germany's arms. In any case it will be doubly needed if Free Trade England contended in rather less than equal terms with the traders of Protectionist Germany in the markets of America and Asia; we may otherwise expect a pretty spectacle when the English trader returns to the same conflict with the same supple and accomplished rival, but himself hampered by his tariff and the consequent dearness of all production, and little, if any, better equipped in language; while his rival, now no mere trade competitor, but a bitter and determined enemy, will bring against him all his old resources, above all the chief of them, his superior mastery of the mind and language of the customer.

But we here, in the Modern Languages Association, are after all concerned chiefly with the second order of motives for learning a foreign language, which regard it not as an instrument for manipulating the foreign civilization, but as a means of enriching our own. Now here, too, we may admit that, as regards our Allies, the War has created a good deal of rather factitious, but still not to be despised, openness of mind. The French are our Allies, and we are genuinely eager to apprehend the soul of France; the Russians, up to the very eve of the War regarded with deep suspicion, are accepted with silent misgiving as friends; and we make a yet more resolute cult of the 'soul' of Russia, because we have so profound a distrust of the political and institutional 'body' in which that soul resides. We need not at present discuss how far this cult is guided by critical insight; in so far as it leads to sincere and thoroughgoing study of Russian mind and character, it is all to the good.

But when the cultural value of a language is in question, different and much subtler problems have, of course, to be faced than when we are merely considering the value of a language for commercial penetration or theological propaganda. It is here a question, not of extending a business, but of building up souls; not of getting the nation's exports to a higher figure, but of enriching or consolidating our national civilization. And, conversely, the penalty of failure, through unskilful or injudicious study of the foreign language, may be, not merely that so many prospective customers or contracts go, say, to Germany instead of to us, but that we have wasted precious energies and precious time, and instead of enriching our souls and doing something to fortify and consolidate our civilization, have contributed to the forces which tend to sap and disintegrate both. I propose, before dealing further with the practical applications, to consider for a moment the general educational problem on which this kind of dilemma turns.

II.

I was reading the other day a passage bearing upon these matters in Mr. W. B. Yeats's autobiographical account of his childhood and youth, just published. He tells us how when at school at Dublin he came home one day with a subject for an essay from *In Memoriam:* the

saying, ascribed by Tennyson, apparently, to Goethe, 'that we can rise on stepping-stones of our dead selves to higher things.' His father, the painter, denounced the subject as the sure way of teaching hypocrisy; and pacing the floor, with indignant eloquence, 'Don't write on that,' he exclaimed, 'but on Shakespeare's "this above all, to your own self be true, and it must follow, as the night the day, you cannot then be false to any man."' Tennyson's saying and Yeats's criticism represent two attitudes towards every kind of ideal, including the ideal of acquiring a foreign language. For the one, the process of filling one's soul with a richer content, and thus killing, probably, some prejudices or fatuities which throve on its ignorance, is an evolution from a lower to a higher spiritual state. The other sees in every aspiration to be something you are not a kind of treason to that which you are. We are here in the neighbourhood of platitudes, the menace of which everyone who has been through a course of educational training will contemplate with apprehension. But the platitudes would not be as stubbornly persistent as they are if they were not mixed with profound truths and unsolved problems. At any rate, we can see that danger lies in both directions, and salvation in both, and that ideal aspiration and truth to one's own soul, are both not a whit less vital, because it is fatally easy for some people to be drawn like flame up the chimney by some overpowering influence, and for others to shut and bar all the soul's windows lest it should be contaminated by breathing any air but its own. Either way, it is clear, lies spiritual death; but it is not so clear how we ought to proceed in order to avoid the opposed perils. 'Why, nothing simpler,' says worldly common sense. 'Steer between them—*medio tutissimus ibis.*' But here, as usual in educational matters, the counsel of worldly commom sense is worse than idle. Whether he means it or not, and probably it is just what he does mean, he will be taken to mean: Study your foreign language by all means, but don't carry it too far; get a general reading knowledge, but don't waste your time over intricacies which only matter for pedants and grammarians! This is the doctrine of Mr. Brooke in 'Middlemarch,' and everyone—at least, every Middle Victorian—knows what sort of rudder it proved in his desultory mental voyagings. With most people the precept of the golden mean is only too apt to be construed as an injunction to do everything half-heartedly—in England more especially, where we are apt to welcome every pretext for representing intellectual strenuousness as something abnormal or unhealthy. One has to drive it home again and again that the way to a really golden moderation lies through passionate excess, and not through politic caution; it is ardour, chartered and controlled, not methodic and regulated plodding, which in spiritual things wins the race.

If, then, the doctrine of the mean will not help us, what are we to say about our problem, as between outstepping self and being true to it? The trouble is, I think, that we conceive of self too rigidly. Instead of conceiving self as a given unit with fixed limits, let us rather conceive of our intellectual life as a function of two opposite sets of impulses. Here we have a number of desires and appetencies reaching out into the endless wealth of the garden of life, and tending everywhere to attach themselves and form isolated and independent sub-selves absorbed in particular kinds of experience. And on the other side you have a central controlling force which seeks to relate these centrifugal desires to itself, and to make them coherent parts of its own relation to the

world. Both these elements are present in every man, but the equation which expresses their relation is infinitely various. You may have a man of wide interests, whose powerful personality lives in and through them all, so that though he may be, like Goethe, poet, statesman, man of science, and much else, all at once, you still feel him to be a massive unity, foursquare to all the winds that blow. On the other hand, he may have a mean and narrow range of interests and yet strike us as not the master, but the prey, of them all—a bundle of impulses, not fronting the winds foursquare, but veering like a weathercock according as they shift and change. Or, again, he may be inflexibly persistent, constant, like Cæsar, as the northern star, yet gain his fixity by shutting out the winds altogether, breezes which restore and regenerate as well as those which disturb and destroy.

The War has been fruitful of fatuities at which in other days we should have laughed, and an example of this last kind of temper came appositely into my hands a few days ago. The secretary of a British playgoers' club formulated the policy of the club, and incidentally of the modern English drama, in terms like these: 'We are in possession of a dramatic tradition second to none; we must shut out all foreign influences; they will only divert us from our true path,' and so forth. There is no final distinction between this national egoism and the attitude of the person pilloried in Goethe's epigram, who says he is of no one's school but his own. 'That is to say,' comments the poet, 'I myself, and no one else, have made myself a fool.' The playgoers' club counsellor wanted us to be 'true to ourselves,' but his sole prescription for it was to keep well-blinkered eyes fixed upon our own past, and reproduce it as faithfully as we may —a prescription which seeks a cure by inoculating us with the disease of abject self-imitation, a disease deadly in art and not less deadly in life.

We have, in short, to recognize as our ideal aim, not a tempered balance between opposite courses, but simultaneous and continuous conduct of two distinct processes, the union of which is the condition of growth, as growth is the condition of life—the one process a gathering in of fresh material; the other an assimilation of it to our needs. The first, if it were pursued alone, would lead to that scattered incoherence which annuls all definite action; the second, if it were pursued alone, would lead to the mechanical uniformity which annuls intelligent action. The one threatens death by disintegration, the other by stagnation; the saving truth is that the way to meet and parry both menaces is not to carry on each procedure half-heartedly, but to carry on both energetically together. The more you gather in, provided you integrate it, the more you live; and the better integrated you are, provided your integration is won by mastering experience and not evading it, the more you live too. A mind which is inexhaustible in gathering in, but does not completely assimilate, may be equal in vigour to one which keeps its intellectual integrity unimpaired, but has less zest of acquisition. But both clearly fall short of the mind which exerts both these kinds of energy concurrently. The vital point is that unity and multiplicity are not antithetical or inconsistent, but may concur and even co-operate.

A tragedy of Shakespeare may impress us with an even more powerful sense of unity than a tragedy of Racine, just because its unity is elicited from more elements by a more masterful effort of creative will.

But even Shakespeare, though we choose to call him universal, is very far from gathering all life into the powerful

synthesis of his drama. And the limits to what the most versatile sensibility and the strongest assimilative power can build into the fabric of a mind are narrow enough. And evidently the conditions differ with the kind of experience we confront. One kind may be so remote from our past that even if we continue to annex it our progress is a gymnastic *tour de force* like that of a circus-rider riding two horses at once; another may differ so slightly that we assimilate it almost without effort, but purchase our steadiness and security at the price of remaining almost exactly where we were. The most favourable condition is where the experience comes, as it were, half-way to meet us; in other words, where it is profoundly akin to something in us, and yet exhibits, springing from the common root, some new and fortunate variation.

Almost all vital and creative union, whether in intellectual matters or elsewhere, is of this kind. We speak of friendship or marriage as most prosperous when founded upon unlikeness. But it would not be so unless some deeper kinship underlay the unlikeness. And so the influence which helps us forward must appeal to something which is in us already, but to which it opens up new applications and developments.

Now, what is true of the influence of individuals upon one another applies also to the mutual influence of national cultures. The influence presupposes some common ground. But this common ground may have been reached in very different ways. It may rest (1) upon actual race affinity. But (2) it may rest upon common experiences, upon that participation, for instance, through generations and centuries, in the same traditions and the same ideals, which moulds the mentality of nations, as, *mutatis mutandis*, that of individuals. Or (3) it may rest upon neither race affinity nor common experience, but upon some natural mental affinity such as may draw the most alien in race and in experience together—such as, in individual friendship, drew together, by their common joy in the romance of adventure, Desdemona and the Moor. So some saying of a great poet worlds away from us in space and time and utterly alien in blood, some phrase of Confucius or of Omar Khayyam, some pathetic half-line of Vergil, may strike the common chord which makes us kin.

It is on this third type, to speak of that first, that rests, I conceive, one of the strongest grounds for maintaining closer relations with the culture of Greece and Rome. There may be racial affinity through our Romance strain with Rome; but what really counts is rather the power with which Greece and Rome in their finest moments interpreted our common humanity. Among modern nations there are some whose cultural appeal to us through language and literature is similarly based neither upon racial unity nor on historic connection, but upon this universal interpretative power. For most English devotees of Italian and of Spanish—I am not here speaking of commercial utilities—Italian is above all the language of Dante, and Spanish the language of Cervantes; and Dante is, with Shakespeare, the supreme example in modern literature of the genius which belongs to all times through being intensely and passionately the child of its own. Dante, out of his remote Middle Ages, speaks home with a strange penetrating intimacy to us, and has, in my view, a claim to an indefeasible place in our culture. And a like power of speaking home to us out of a milieu even stranger to our history and to our blood than Dante's, exercised by a few great Russians in our own time, has made many of us ready to acclaim their people, whom a little while ago we counted as

semi-oriental, cousins of the Tartar, our spiritual brothers.

But the languages which actually count the most with us are bound to us by closer and stronger ties of affinity than these. If we look to the *second* kind of affinity, founded upon historic connection, it is natural to think first, and chiefly, of France. The Entente Cordiale has no doubt done much to turn the English Channel from a moat which kept our deadliest enemies at a distance into a regrettable barrier between old comrades and near kin. But however we discount this fervour of the new attachment, we must recognize that it has cleared away some of the traditional and futile prejudices which raged during the Napoleonic war and long survived it, and has allowed real bonds and affinities to come into view. People now applaud with enthusiasm when you tell them that England is more Romance than Teuton, and that our centuries of warfare with the French were only the less amicable aspect of an intimacy which told deeply upon the culture of both, and most deeply precisely during those periods—the thirteenth, fourteenth, and the eighteenth centuries—in which their outward conflict was most prolonged: in the eighteenth century, above all, when Locke set going currents of psychological and political thought without which there would have been a different Condillac and a different Rousseau; and when Montesquieu and Voltaire, on the other hand, set a mark upon historical study without which Hume and Gibbon would have been other and far less than they were. The ideas of Bentham were famous in Paris while his very name was all but unknown in Westminster, where he lived; while the ideas of the French Revolution came among us as a fermenting yeast, which a great part of English political and social thinking, during the nineteenth century, was occupied in mixing, variously qualified and accommodated, with our native dough. The result of all this is that, quite apart from whatever racial kinship there may be between us, England and France possess a kind of staple of common ideas and traditions, in virtue of which the ideas which diverge find access and even welcome, like strangers introduced by what Dickens taught us to misname a 'mutual friend.' And, in the immediate future at least, the strangers come with such excellent credentials and with so hearty a disposition in their favour that the offices of the 'mutual friend' are needless; we fall in love with the French virtues before we understand precisely what they are, and are ready to embrace them without waiting to be formally introduced. Nothing, in short, stands in the way of the most intimate and fruitful friendship—nothing save that something, tough, stubborn, insular, which, for better or worse, makes us the worst of imitators and the clumsiest at assimilation, so that, for instance, while we have abundance of capital sinewy English prose, it is only once or twice in a generation that a Pater or a Dobson reaches that peculiar exquisiteness which is almost a common possession of the highly trained French man of letters!

III.

If we ask which of our three types of affinity connect us with Germany and German culture, it is clear that the situation is widely different. That historic bond of incessant and fruitful intercourse, in which France and England for centuries laid their minds together, as Johnson said approvingly of Thurlow, and moulded each other even when fighting to the death—of this, between England and Germany, there has been almost nothing. Till two years ago we never fought except as allies, and we

regarded one another with the coolness, little removed from contempt, which the terrific struggle of this War, whatever feelings it may substitute, will at least have banished for ever. We had never hated them, nor had they, though we were rarely popular among them, ever hated us; and accordingly we had never made the least approach to that love of which hate, as every novel-reader knows, is the unerring prognostication. Mere geographical conditions kept us very effectually apart. While France was a neighbour, actually visible across the Channel, Germany was cut off from us by the more wealthy, populous, and highly civilized Flanders, and had the character, up to the middle of the eighteenth century, of a vast, rude hinterland, where all the conditions of life were more elementary and uncomfortable. The great things of the German Middle Ages —the lyrics of Walther, the *Parsifal* of Wolfram, the *Nibelungenlied* — never reached us at all by the faintest breath of repute. Even the mighty convulsion wrought by Luther hardly counted with us as a German act, for half the German people resisted it. Leibniz, another giant, wrote in French or Latin. When, towards the end of the eighteenth century, it began to be rumoured that there were Germans who could write what Englishmen might find it not unentertaining to read, the perversity of our taste for very long brought only the less excellent or the downright inferior matter within our ken. The masculine power of Lessing was wholly unknown to a fashionable world which rushed to witness the maudlin sentimentality of Kotzebue. Goethe's *Götz*, which anticipated the Waverleys by forty years, and was translated by Sir Walter himself in his youth, made no impression. Schiller's *Wallenstein* translated by Coleridge, was sold for waste-paper in London, and the translator himself groaned over the dulness of his task. *Faust* itself, the one great poem of the century, overcame the barriers of insular prejudice exemplified in Lamb's description of it as 'a canting tale of seduction' with extreme slowness, if it has wholly overcome them yet. Coleridge, who brought home so many spoils of German thinking, remained obtuse to Goethe to the end. The first book penetrated with German character and German ideas, though only after they had been wrought into the mental substance of a great genius, was Carlyle's *Sartor*, and that fact was one of the chief impediments to its success.

Where, then, are we to look for that common basis, in the German and the English mind, which I spoke of as the ground and condition of mutual fertilizing power? First, and most obvious, but also most weighty, we find it in kinship in race and speech. I do not wish to prejudge complex questions of ethnology, but kinship is a safe term. Whatever in us or in the Germans may be, Celtic, or pre-Celtic, or Slavonic, it is hardly doubtful that we are linked together in race through Danes and Normans as well as through Anglo-Saxons. And this kinship touches what is most elemental and primeval in us. If it does not embrace the flower of our civilization, it goes down to the roots. If in the modern developments of their culture the two peoples are far apart, even, some declare, poles asunder, in their primitive instincts they are very near. The divergent habits of the two languages to-day cannot disguise their unity of plan and make. The same root ideas and root feelings underlie, and can often still be felt pulsing through the texture of both. It is not merely because the words are etymologically akin that the German 'Heimath' comes to us invested with of something the same tender appeal as our native 'home.' A great French philologist once deplored the degradation, in

French, of the word 'fille,' and envied the Germanic peoples their words of untainted loveliness, 'maid' and 'Mädchen.'

And deeper even than language lie certain fundamental strains of nature which find expression in ethical ideals not always conveyed in the same forms of speech. Such ideals I find in *truth, freedom, personality.* Both the strength and the weaknesses of the Germanic peoples are closely bound up with them. All early observers found them distinguished by fidelity, 'Treue,' being true to one's tribe or one's chief; and something of the fervour of this personal devotion still distinguishes our 'truth.' 'Veracity' is an abstract conformity to reality; truth is something 'which shall deliver, it is no doubt.' Deeply ingrained both in German and in English nature lies a relish for frank, even blunt sincerity, for honest outspokenness, and a corresponding disdain or suspicion of rhetoric, casuistry, finesse. Luther's 'Hier steh ich, kann nicht anders,' expressed the momentous refusal of Germanic mind and will to submit, in vital matters, to be put off with plausible half measures or diplomatic chicanery. A vindication of the unswerving singleness of truth against the pliant accommodations of Jesuit morality was the soul of Pascal's *Provincial Letters,* and Pascal has been counted one of the most English of French great men. And it was in *sincerity* that Carlyle, in whose genius the inner kinship of English and German character was manifested in a rare degree, found the vital quality of heroic souls.

No one, again, who recalls the whole history of the Germanic peoples will dispute that passion for *freedom* which struck all foreign observers from Tacitus onwards. The Englishman of to-day, who looks down in scorn or pity upon the slaves of the Kaiser, should recall what we are told of our common ancestors in the forests of Germany, whose ideas of social bonds and State organization were manifested in their habit of living in isolated and fiercely independent homesteads, dressed in decidedly *négligé* costume. Had they been called upon to cast their votes for Hegel or Herbert Spencer—the State *versus* Man, or Man *versus* the State—there is no doubt which of their two descendants would have carried the day. German history is the record of the gradual shaping of an organization in which they could still have free play. Half a century ago no one in Europe would have diagnosed the trouble of Germany as an excess of mechanical uniformity; they would rather have contrasted its loose collection of little States with great compact polities like England and France. And let no one suppose that in becoming a compact polity also, those independent wills were simply surrendered. Some surrender was inevitable. But the aspect of the matter which we mostly lose sight of in England is that they would not have been surrendered if they had not also been in some sort fulfilled. The German State has some grave defects, of which we are exceedingly well aware: what we recognize less commonly is that, in many vital points, it does not override, but provides the organized carrying out of, the general will. The German people demands education with an urgency unhappily beyond any parallel here, and the German State provides the organ by which that national demand is carried out. The carrying out of such a national demand, even by compulsion, may be vital to freedom, while governmental *laissez faire* may infringe and hamper freedom precisely because it refuses to compel. Practically all England, except some boys and girls who disliked going to bed by daylight, desired to have summer-time last May; but not one of us could have had it if Parliament

had not made it compulsory on us all. It was a crucial case of the compulsion which sets free. And not a little of the compulsion by which in English popular belief the Germans are enslaved is similarly a compulsion which sets them free. Thus, however different the ways of the two polities, the demand for freedom subsists in and underlies both. And if there is less room, as there assuredly is, in Germany than with us for the democratic ideal of freedom, which makes every man the master of his fate, there is less there, also, of the licentious degradation of that ideal as the power of doing whatever you like. For the loftiest thinkers of either country freedom means ultimately, and has its highest sanction in, the right to do your duty; and Milton, claiming liberty as the condition of obeying the will of God, differs in phrase and accent, but not in essential purport, from Goethe's Faust when he declares that freedom is not something that is merely received and enjoyed, but something that must be daily won.

And then, lastly, the sense of *personality*. This closely touches the other two aspects of which I have spoken. For the demand for full self-expression and the joy in it is one of the strongest impulses to the demand for truth and to the demand for freedom. But it often makes for a more radical and revolutionary type of freedom than that I have just described; and thus the paradox arises that German history can show, together with the most highly organized State structure, the most extreme examples of individualism. Nowhere in the world, in fact, has the philosophy which builds upon the individual been carried to dizzier heights. Kant founded his ethics upon the profound conception of a kingdom of persons, each an end in itself; and in days when negro slavery was still rampant his doctrine that the supreme crime against humanity lay in treating those 'ends' as 'means' had a cogency which is still unexhausted when applied to slavery less openly violent, and to slaves of another colour. It is possible to regard all the German philosophy of the great age as a prodigious exaltation of the ego, a seeing the universe in the ego, as Malebranche saw all things in God; and a brilliant philosophic critic, Professor Santayana, has recently published a book, *The Egotism of German Philosophy*, which performs with extraordinary wit this very operation. The great movement of 'Sturm und Drang,' just before the French Revolution, and the Romantic School just after it, carried the worship of individuality to lengths of which in England hardly anyone dreamed. Godwin and Shelley were isolated and derided prophets of a faith which, with far more wealth of cogent appeal and far more resounding effect, was promulgated by Herder and Wilhelm von Humboldt and Fichte, which captured the imagination of Carlyle and reverberated in thunder through the pages of *Hero-Worship*, and now in our own time animated the hectic and frenzied eloquence of Nietzsche.

Such, then, I take to be some of the features of the common nucleus which, with all their sharp diversity, the English and German peoples have in common; the nucleus which, as I said at an earlier point, is presupposed in all fruitful influence. Because, however variously commingled, truth, freedom, personality, are deep-seated needs of us both, we can the better learn of one another to correct what is narrow or one-sided in our way of regarding them. It is now a commonplace, even with the most determined enemies of German culture, that we have much to learn from it in 'organized' efficiency. We have, perhaps, a surer instinct for facts, a more unimpeachable rule of thumb; the German is more skilful in marshalling and grouping the facts

which by more methodic processes he apprehends. We rejoice, or used in bygone days to rejoice, in our freedom from Government control; the German achieves through that control a freedom in some points equal or superior to our own. And while our education does more to call out character and the power of self-control, German education does more to foster talent by providing for every kind of gift its proper sustenance. None of us doubts, few wise Germans doubt, or doubted before the War, that they have to learn from our more spontaneous instincts, our less restricted life, our more self-contained and self-governed ideal of character. But English culture, too, will become only richer and deeper when we have learnt to appreciate more perfectly the part which method plays in the search for truth, the framework of institution and law in the evolution of freedom, and strenuous intellectual discipline in the shaping of personality. The danger is that the easier and more superficial elements of this German contribution should be borrowed, and the more profound and vital ignored. Officialdom, whatever its opinion of Prussian bureaucracy, has cordially rejoiced to find itself armed with powers of controlling private life which sometimes go beyond even Prussian example. But it has shone much more in the kind of control which checks and obstructs activities than in that which releases and promotes them; it has gone to school, too often, not with the highly trained and educated German official, but with our good old English Dogberry. This partial and superficial adoption of the easily imitable elements of another culture may be more disastrous than complete abstention. And it is the part of those who stand, as we do, for a thoroughgoing and penetrating apprehension of whatever foreign culture we engage in, to see to it, so far as our scope and power extends, that the study of German and of German nationality in our schools and Universities be of the kind which will help to make this loose cloak of imitative Prussianism an unfashionable, discarded garment, by showing that what Germany can teach us is not organized obstruction, but a more fruitful, use and application of the spiritual instincts and gifts which the two great peoples have in common.

I have dwelt upon our future relation to German culture, for it is here that one naturally expects to find the acutest difference of opinion. Yet I doubt whether the most formidable task imposed upon associations like ours will lie in urging the mere retention of the study of German language. It will be too useful, too practically advantageous, whether for war or peace, in sharpening the sword or in forging the ploughshare, for the ostrich-cry of exclusion to find any prolonged echo even in the most ' patriotic ' quarters. Our most serious task, I take it, will not be to secure its due place to German, but to secure and maintain ideal and cultural aims in the study of all modern languages. The struggle, always severe in England, between the ' practical ' men and the idealists will be enormously accentuated when, after the War, all energies and resources are called in with crying urgency to restore the economic waste and retrieve the material loss. The prodigious part played by mechanics and chemistry in the War will stir a fierce demand for the concentration of all educational effort upon the natural sciences, and all linguistic effort upon preparation for the mastery of foreign technical treatises and commercial correspondence. We hear already an impatient clamour for the abolition of Latin and Greek, and even headmasters of famous classical schools are found telling us that we are destined to ' eclipse or Empire ' according as we retain or condemn these elegant but

unpractical studies. That England has to face a great and imperatively needed call upon her practical energies, but she has to put herself and her whole economy to school and see to it that her vast material resources are made more serviceable to the people as a whole, I am the last to deny. But in that rebuilding of England for which we are helping to train the next generation, now under our charge, it is not the material framework only that must be called unto play. Teachers are a part of the spiritual power, and it is their function in the national economy to co-operate in sustaining and enriching the nation's soul. Now, upon the soul of England the War has shed a wonderful, yet strangely mingled light. She has risen to heights of self-sacrifice which have astonished her most devoted sons. But she has also shown not less astonishing lapses from the heights she seemed to have attained, has succumbed to diseases which she seemed to have outgrown, and has sought to cure them by remedies equally obsolete. If the War has braced and stiffened, it has also twisted and warped. Education of all kinds is needed, and I venture to assert that of the highest kind the need is most supreme. Never had the teacher who sees in himself not a caterer of bread and butter, but a shaper and quickener of souls, a higher function than in England to-day; let us see that we are true to it.

C. H. Herford.

MEMORANDA (ADOPTED BY THE GENERAL COMMITTEE).

INTRODUCTORY MEMORANDUM ON THE LANGUAGE PROBLEM.

The whole question of Modern Language teaching in our schools and Universities should be considered from the widest standpoint—that of national needs, not only utilitarian, but also humanistic.

To satisfy national needs in the Government services, civil, military, and naval, in business, including banking and journalism, in education and in scholarship, we require a supply of British-born subjects familiar with foreign languages and foreign countries.

Not only must the great European languages and countries (*e.g.*, France, Germany, Russia) be studied, but opportunities must be offered for the study of the smaller countries (*e.g.*, Denmark, Holland, Serbia) and their languages, and of Asiatic and African tongues and races.

In order to secure a supply of efficient linguists, the first consideration is the supply of efficient teachers.

We must recognize that the number of those expert in some of these languages will be small, and that provision cannot be made for teaching all of them in the scheme of general education in schools. But arrangements must be made to secure a constant and efficient supply of teachers of all. This must not be left to chance or to the action of the laws of demand and supply.

The supply of even a small number of experts will diffuse some accurate knowledge of countries sadly lacking at present, and check the diffusion of misstatements. There is a mass of traditional misstatements as well as a mass of complacent ignorance to destroy. Provision must be made for the teaching of all important languages in continuation schools, evening institutes, or Universities. In London, in particular, it should be possible to learn any language from well-qualified teachers in public institutions.

We must recognize that individual pupils, even in schools where the leaving age is eighteen, cannot learn all the five most important languages (French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish).

It is by organization and standardization that large national results can be obtained, and it is with these rather than with the production of small numbers of highly trained experts that the schools are concerned.

In the attainment of large national results the teaching in the *girls' schools* will play a leading part. If the future mothers now in our schools are able to stimulate the interest in some foreign language in their homes, much will be done to solve the national problem.

The committee, while not discriminating between the claims of the various languages, wish to express the strong opinion that there is need for all these languages to be more fully studied than at the present time. The solution of this problem

is only to be hoped for from such an arrangement of the curricula as will pay due consideration to local conditions and requirements, and by providing far greater facilities in our secondary schools and elsewhere for the study of *alternative* languages.

The efficient study of the mother-tongue should be made the basis of all language-study.

MEMORANDUM ON FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN BOYS' SCHOOLS.

It is desirable that the study of foreign languages in preparatory schools or departments (where any such study is undertaken) should be confined to one modern language, or one modern and one classical language — that a second classical language should only exceptionally be studied before the age of thirteen or fourteen. In this connection it is vital that a second classical language (probably Greek) should not as a rule be a subject in the scholarship examinations of the public schools.

In the (great) majority of cases (it is realized) the first modern language will be French, and first classical language Latin.

While French might well be taught as a special subject in certain selected elementary schools where efficient teachers are available, it is not advisable that the study in such cases should be begun before the age of twelve.

In the secondary or continuation stages of various types up to the age of fifteen to sixteen, in the case of pupils coming from neighbourhoods where the home influences are unfavourable, not more than one foreign language should be studied, while even in some instances it is conceivable that no foreign language at all might be taken; and in other schools the choice should be confined to two foreign languages at most, except in the case of pupils of fourteen who will probably stay on beyond the age of sixteen.

The following list of types is given here by way of illustration, without any claim to make it exhaustive:

Greek-Latin Type.
Latin and Modern Languages.
Modern Languages and Science.
Science and Modern Languages.
Commercial and Modern Languages.
Technical and Modern Languages.

1. *Greek-Latin Type.*—This is the usual type to be found among the large public schools or schools which have a classical side. In the case of boys entering a school at the age of twelve, we think that a minimum of four periods a week for the modern language is highly desirable for such people as have already been studying the subject. In the case of beginners, we consider that a daily period is necessary at least for the first year. For schools in which the entrance age is later, the periods in the class of entry and in the subsequent classes should not fall below four a week, and on separate days up till the age of sixteen.

We think that the chief aim of the modern languages should be humanistic. In the widest sense this naturally involves some knowledge of the history and geography of the country and its people. Care should be taken to maintain a high literary standard in the choice of authors.

2. *Latin and Modern Languages.*—There are two varieties of this type. One is to be found in certain types of public schools in which Latin is regarded as of equal importance with modern languages, and another in which Latin is treated as an alternative to a second modern language. In both cases we consider that the modern language, whether studied alone or in conjunction with Latin, should be allotted a daily period per week for the first two years if the general age of entrance is twelve. In cases where it is higher, the curriculum for those over fourteen should provide a minimum of four periods a week at least if a second or even a third language has to be started at that age. The second or third language, whether French, German, Spanish, Russian, or Italian, if started at this age, should be allotted a daily period per week.

The aim again in this case should be to make the teaching humanistic, with a good literary standard. Some commercial specialization might be attempted in the case of some of the pupils in the last year of the course.

3. *Modern Languages and Science.* — This course is to be found on the modern side of some of the public schools and in County Council and municipal schools. The pupils before the age of twelve may or may not have studied a modern language in the preparatory department. The subject should, however, be begun in earnest by all after the age of twelve. In such cases we think one period a day is necessary till a second modern language is begun, when the periods assigned to the first language should not fall below four a week. In cases where no second language is taken, the daily period should be continued throughout. Here again the main aim of the teaching should be humanistic, with some possible commercial or technical specialization in the last year.

4. *Science and Modern Languages.*—This type is a variant of the preceding. It is to be found in

schools or sides of schools in which the principal stress is laid on science, and only one modern language is taken, unless the second is studied merely from the point of view of enabling the pupils to read scientific works in that language. In such schools the modern language should have allotted to it a daily period. The main aim of the teaching should be humanistic, with some possible commercial or technical specialization in the last year.

5. *Commercial and Modern Languages.*—This type is to be found in certain sides of the secondary schools and in the central (or higher elementary) schools. In the former type two modern languages are sometimes to be found, and in the other one modern language is the rule. We are of opinion that a daily period in the first modern language is desirable, and that if and when a second modern language is begun the periods allotted to the first should not fall below four per week. The curriculum of the first modern language should remain humanistic till the last year, when some commercial teaching might be attempted. In the case of these second languages the teaching might be given a commercial bias in the second year.

In all cases in which commercial or technical specialization is necessary it will be found advantageous to reserve it for the end of the course.

6. *Technical and Modern Languages.*—This applies to technical sides in Central schools, to Trade schools, Junior Technical schools, Professional schools for cooks, waiters, bookbinders, etc. In all these the predominant aim is to give the pupils such a *utilitarian* knowledge of the modern language as will be of advantage to them in their future occupations. Thus the pupils in the technical sides of central schools may require some speaking knowledge of the language if they go abroad, as is probable after the war. The future waiter will want to know the French vocabulary of waiting, the future cook of cooking; the future bookbinder will find it to his advantage to be able to read about books on his craft in French. The future printer will discover a knowledge of elementary French words and spelling useful as a compositor. In all these different cases the time allotted to the subject must be measured by the precise aim to be attained; a year's course of four periods a week might suffice for the printer, the cook and waiter would need at least a two years' course, and the future engineer who desires to learn the language for colloquial purposes will take at least as long.

The Committee look on the age of sixteen as that at which more intensive specialization may be begun. It is at this age that a large number of the pupils have passed a qualifying examination for entering the University or have reached the requisite standard for passing such an examination. The amount of time to be devoted to modern languages in the case of such boys will vary very largely with the degree of specialization considered necessary, whether the pupils be working for a classical, history, mathematical, science, or modern language scholarship, or intending to pursue their general education at the University, or preparing to enter the higher walks of commerce and industry or those professions that do not necessarily require a University degree.

The Committee assume that candidates for classical or historical scholarships will keep up their study of the modern languages in view of the importance of these subjects for their later work. This would more easily follow if a modern language were definitely included as a subject for such scholarships. We think in such cases three periods a week are desirable, and if one such period were assigned to private reading, there would probably be little loss and a possible gain to the student. Of course, in the case of pupils who have still to pass a qualifying examination for the University, such as the Higher Certificate of the Joint Board, the subject would still be studied as a regular school subject.

In the case of candidates for mathematical or science scholarships who had previously studied Latin and modern languages or modern languages only, or even only one modern language, the retention of a modern language in their curriculum appears to the Committee as an indispensable humanistic element, especially as the Committee hope that the conclusion of the war may see the abolition of compulsory Greek, which would provide a certain amount of free time that could be thus devoted to a more advanced study of the modern humanities. In the case of pupils working for modern language scholarships, owing to existing University requirements, some time would have to be devoted to Latin, with a view of passing certain preliminary examinations in such cases where the subject has not already been taken up by the pupils.

As regards the modern languages studied by the pupils, we think that as heretofore a choice should lie between English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Russian, and other foreign languages. Probably the first foreign language chosen would be in most cases French.

In the case of those intending to pursue their education at the University by working for a pass degree, including a modern language (or lan-

guages), the teaching of the modern language or languages should be largely humanistic, and five periods a week at least to each should be given in the school curriculum, whether one or two languages are attempted.

In the case of those who are proposing to study only one modern language at the University, with or without a subsidiary language (Latin, English, German, or the like), the Committee, while deprecating undue specialization, consider that more time should be devoted by such students while still at school to the particular language and literature of the country they are studying, including possibly history. When such students are hampered by having to keep up too many subjects by scholarships or other requirements of the University, the Committee expresses the hope that such requirements may be modified to allow of more time being given while at school to the particular language the student is proposing to specialize in. The Committee suggests that such students should during the last two or three years devote one and a half hours a day to the subject over and above the ordinary period given to it.

In the case of pupils intending to enter commerce at seventeen or eighteen, the main language should be that which is likely to be most useful to them in their subsequent career. The teaching of the language should, if necessary, deal with a knowledge of commercial terminology or with the language of economic or scientific writings. In cases where the future commercial man will not directly need a modern language the teaching should continue on humanistic lines. At this age there is no harm in a pupil studying other foreign languages solely with a view of getting such a knowledge as will enable him to read and understand the foreign language. This applies alike to pupils who have had either a predominantly modern language or scientific training. It also applies to those who are proposing to enter technical institutions in engineering or chemistry, and who desire to be able to read about their subject in another language.

As regards those pupils who are preparing to enter the numerous professions for which a University degree is not a *sine qua non*, the Committee, while recognizing the need of a definite standard of attainment being demanded from candidates for entrance, feel strongly that the teaching of modern languages in the case of pupils over sixteen would largely benefit if certain common equivalents established by the University could be substituted for the present multifarious examinations conducted by the various professional bodies concerned.

The Committee are also strongly of opinion that in training colleges where students do not follow a University course, the facilities for the optional study of a modern language should remain unimpaired.

The Committee take for granted that an adequate amount of time will be allotted to homework in modern languages after the first year.

MEMORANDUM ON FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN GIRLS' SCHOOLS.

It is desirable that the study of foreign languages in preparatory schools or departments should not, as a rule, be begun before the age of ten. This language in the majority of cases will be French.

While French might well be taught as a special subject in the higher elementary schools, *when efficient teachers are available*, it is not advisable that the study in such cases should be begun before the age of twelve.

It is rather to be recommended that the teaching of English grammar should be revived and encouraged in all schools in the early stages. The total ignorance in this subject, which comes to light when the foreign grammar is begun, is a very serious handicap to the modern language teacher.

In the secondary or continuation stages of various types up to the age of fifteen to sixteen, in the case of pupils coming from neighbourhoods where the home influences are unfavourable, not more than one foreign language should be studied, while even in some instances it is conceivable that no foreign language at all ought to be taken; and in other schools the instruction should be confined to two foreign languages at most, except in the case of pupils who will probably stay on beyond the age of sixteen.

The 'compulsory Greek' difficulty is more acutely felt in girls' schools than in boys'; it is therefore vital that Greek should not, as a rule, be an examination subject for students going on to Oxford or Cambridge.

It is much to be desired that more encouragement be given to specialists in the way of University scholarships. Under present conditions the competition is intense, and scholarships mostly go to girls who have had some exceptional advantage—*i.e.*, travel abroad or foreign governess at home—so that poorer girls have little or no chance.

The fact that German, or any other second modern language, is usually an alternative to Latin, or another second modern language, is

a very serious disadvantage. The intelligent scholars who are going to be teachers, or who are going to the University, invariably take Latin, and the second modern language is left to the 'B divisions,' who mostly leave early, and, being generally of considerably lesser intelligence, accomplish remarkably little.

It does not seem possible to class girls' schools according to type characterized by *special sides*, as in boys' schools. Domestic science is included in the ordinary curriculum of all secondary schools, and specialization, except in some of the dual schools, rarely begins before sixteen in any subject.

Girls' schools practically class themselves according to the leaving age of their scholars, and very largely according to the number of the scholars and the percentage of staffing. In larger schools, with larger staffs, much more in the way of classification is possible. Difficulties of organization in the smaller schools, especially in the dual schools, are enormous.

The following list is submitted by way of illustration, without any claim to make it exhaustive:

1. Girls' High Schools, including some of the older and larger endowed grammar schools, the G.P.D.T. schools, and some of the larger municipal and county secondary schools in London and provinces, also boarding schools or colleges. *Leaving age, seventeen to nineteen.*

2. The newer High Schools for Girls, variously styled Municipal High Schools, County or District Secondary Schools, (small) Grammar Schools (offshoots of old foundations for boys). *Leaving age, fifteen to seventeen.*

3. Dual Schools. *Leaving age, fifteen to seventeen*, with the majority *leaving at fifteen or earlier.*

4. Higher Elementary Schools. *Leaving age, fifteen.*

5. Commercial and Technical Schools.

1. *Girls' High School Type.*—These schools cannot strictly be said to have definite 'sides,' as the term is used in boys' schools. Specialization, as a rule, does not begin till seventeen; in some schools the year before, and in some the year after matriculation.

On Specialization much freedom of choice is allowed as to subject, and the time allotted to foreign languages varies considerably, according to the aim or career in view.

Where Modern Languages or Classics at this stage figure as the 'Special side,' as much as two hours per day may be, and are, given.

In these schools French is often begun at seven or earlier (in the Kindergarten); but even in the case of the large schools, where staff conditions allow of really graded and consecutive instruction, it is a question whether much would not be gained if the study were deferred until the age of ten. The French games and songs, etc., learned at the Kindergarten and transition stage rarely do more than encourage slovenly and careless habits of speech, and blunt the keenness of interest when study of the language is begun in earnest.

In schools where only three or four periods can be given at this stage, it is highly recommended that no foreign language should be begun till a later age.

Where French is not begun till eleven to twelve a daily period is also recommended, at least for the first year, with a minimum of four periods afterwards, when a second foreign language is begun. The second foreign language is mostly begun at twelve to thirteen, and it is not desirable that it should be begun earlier.

In these schools special subjects, like Domestic Science (Housecraft, Hygiene, etc.), have a place in the ordinary curriculum up to the age of sixteen; after this there are what may be called special sides for secretarial training and housewifery.

For these scholars it is certainly desirable that the study of at least one modern language as a part of their general education be continued, and that it should be humanistic in character until the last year, when in the secretarial department some commercial specialization might be attempted. Four periods a week would seem to be advisable. There are some girls who cannot study even one modern language with profit.

The chief aim of the modern language teaching throughout the school should be humanistic. In the widest sense this necessarily will involve some knowledge of the history, geography, and people of the country. Care should be taken to maintain a high literary standard in the choice of authors.

2. *The more recently established High Schools, with earlier leaving age (Fifteen to Seventeen).*—These Schools, whether styled Municipal High Schools, County Secondary Schools, District and Secondary Schools, or Grammar Schools, vary little in character. Their aim, and to some extent their material, is the same as that of the older High Schools; their school course, however, being clipped at both ends, very considerably restricts their powers. The better pupils generally work for one of the leaving examinations. Provision is made for the few who stay on and wish to go on to a University or a training college or to specialize in any way, but these few rarely are enough to constitute more than a little

group, who work mainly alone with the help of special coaching.

Many of these schools begin French in a Preparatory or Lower School Department at the age of ten to eleven, or even at nine to ten; but the intelligence of children who enter at this age is so undeveloped that extraordinarily little is done in the first year, and the time would probably be much better spent on English generally, and on English speech sounds and grammar in particular. If, however, the foreign language is begun at this stage, nothing less than a period, however short, is to be recommended for the first two years, with a minimum of four periods on separate days after the second year or after the second language is begun. The second foreign language, often Latin, is usually begun at the age of thirteen to fourteen, after the second year of the more serious study of French.

Not less than four periods should be allotted to it.

[NOTE.—Smaller schools, small staffs, heterogeneous classes, because scholars enter throughout the year.]

One difficulty which is acutely felt in the smaller schools is the impossibility of continuity in teaching. Scholars enter all the year round, mostly knowing no French; and owing to the smallness of staff, are drafted, according to their age, into classes that have been doing good work for one, two, or perhaps even three years. This constitutes a very serious check on the work of the class as a whole. These scholars enter in twos and threes, and therefore cannot form a division of themselves.

It is much to be desired that some regulation could be made which would convince parents of the real disadvantage it is to their children when they do not enter at the beginning of the school year.

The aim of the modern language teaching should be humanistic in the widest sense, as defined for Type 1, with possible commercial specialization in the last year.

3. *Dual Schools.*—These schools differ from the Secondary or Grammar Schools for girls in that the difficulties of time-tables are aggravated, at least in the smaller schools, and in that the leaving age is often fourteen to fifteen. In the larger schools very much more is possible, and much is indeed accomplished in the way of organization.

Many of these may be considered to have special sides in the third or fourth year, where girls definitely join a B (commercial) division, and substitute Shorthand, Book-keeping, and Commercial English for Latin, or specially take Domestic Science and extra French. In most cases they are not allowed to specialize before the age of fourteen to fifteen.

The importance of modern languages seems keenly felt, and five periods seem to be the rule for French during the first two years.

The second language (German or Latin) is begun at the age of fourteen (sometimes at thirteen), mostly in the second year of the school course, but occasionally in the third, and rarely less than four periods are allowed for it.

After specialization has begun, the time spent on modern languages varies considerably according to the aim and requirements of the scholar.

In the case of students proceeding to the University, who take French and Latin, no further foreign language is required, but in all other cases, as French is, in practice, compulsory in all schools, students of any other modern language are as a matter of fact obliged (at least where a University requires Latin) to study three languages at school. This inequality seems to us to require consideration. Although classical teachers maintain that it is impossible for girls to take matriculation Latin in two years, the thing is done, and the modern language teacher is often expected to get her scholars through in the second modern language in that time, although very much more is expected of the candidate.

4. In *Higher Elementary Schools*, a modern language may be begun at twelve and get the usual three to four year course. It should certainly be taught with a humanistic aim, and the scholars should learn something of the history, geography, national institutions, and customs of the people. A daily period throughout the course is desirable, or a minimum of four periods per week in the second and third years. When possible, some commercial bias may be given to the modern language teaching in the last year.

5. *Commercial and Modern Languages.*—This type is to be found in certain secondary schools where sides are formed for commerce and domestic science at fourteen, preparatory to the subsequent training offered by the commercial and technical evening schools.

We are of opinion that a daily period for the first modern language is desirable, and that if and when a second modern language is begun, the periods should not fall below four per week. The curriculum of the first modern language should remain humanistic till the last year of the course, when some commercial teaching might be attempted. In the case of these second languages, the teaching might be given a commercial bias in the second year. In all cases where commercial

or technical specialization is necessary, it will be found advantageous to reserve it for the end of the course.

6. *For Schools of the Type 'Technical and Modern Languages'* (*see Memorandum Boys' Schools*).—If the words 'dressmakers and *interprète-vendeuses*' be added in paragraph 6 after the words 'cooks, waiters, bookbinders,' the same recommendations would seem to hold good for girls.

7. *Training Colleges.*—The recommendation that the facilities for the optional study of a modern language should remain unimpaired holds good also for girls' schools.

MEMORANDUM ON ITALIAN.

THE chief claims of Italian to be studied in England, not only by University students and the general public, but also in the schools, are—

1. Its intrinsic linguistic value.
2. The beauty and wealth of its literature.
3. The importance of Italian literature to English students for the elucidation and illustration of their own, and the position occupied by the study of the Italian language and literature in the tradition of English learning.
4. Utilitarian, especially commercial, reasons.

The Italian language possesses certain qualities, such as the clearness of pronunciation which it requires, its strongly marked rhythmical accents, and the great variety of its metrical forms, which tend of themselves to intensify the learner's appreciation of *form* in speech, and give it, from this narrow point of view, great educational value as a school subject. But its essential qualities are of much greater importance, and lead to the same conclusion.

Italian is generally grouped with French as being a sister language. This custom is justified within limits by certain similarities, but it undoubtedly obscures in popular estimation much more important differences—differences as essential as those existing between the two peoples.

'In the matter of accidence and syntax Italian presents indeed features very similar to those of French, and affords the same opportunities—where such are desired—for grammatical drill of the formal kind. Further, its etymological stock, its vocabulary, is largely the same. But there the analogies end. Where it differs fundamentally from French is in the spirit and flavour of the language. As this is a matter upon which the usual way of thinking constantly proves misleading, it may be worth while to emphasize this point.

'When we move from France to Italy, we are not merely on a different soil, among a different people. We are placed in the midst of a different historical scenery, face to face with a different temporal perspective. In France (and in French) we are conscious of the Gallic wit and nimbleness, refined by the feudal polish of the times which created a united France, and standardized into a republican uniformity of a very high level of speech. The historical associations of the language, as of the monuments of France, are predominantly those of the seventeenth century, and of the Revolution. Italy opens before us, by the side of the picturesque diversity of her local colouring, a quite different vista. We are led by a remarkable continuity of descent, not only into the almost still living presence of the great men of the Renaissance, but beyond them, through the monumental spaciousness of her remains, the traditions of her craftsmanship, the memories of Diocletian, Trajan, and Marcus Aurelius even among the humblest folk, into that of ancient Rome herself. Few things in the spiritual experience of Italy, vouchsafed to the stranger, are as impressive, nay, as startling, as this direct, almost familiar, contact with that great Past. Not the least factor in that impression is the language. It is a fact, apparently trivial but really of tremendous significance, that throughout the whole of its history, the language has never ceased to be essentially intelligible to even the common people—the language not only of Petrarch and Dante, but of Rome herself; and that the greatest names of the history of Europe are to the Italian "of the family." No other Latin tongue has preserved to the same extent the Latinity of its great ancestor. Although Italian has suffered the loss of the inflectional richness of Latin as much as French, it has kept much of its flexibility of diction which French has lost since the times of Rabelais and Montaigne. While French has grown rather in the direction of clarified simplicity and elegance under the guidance of the grammarians and the polite society of the seventeenth century and had to sacrifice some of its vigour and much of its homeliness, Italian has retained both the terseness and tenderness, the amplitude and concentration of its parent. Epitaphs, it has truly been said, can really only be composed in Latin and in Italian; and oratory as the technique of linguistic expansiveness is

more naturally at home in Italy than anywhere else. It is as naturally the speech of the nursery as of the Stock Exchange, and often startles us by the almost classically sharp courage and poignancy of some simple phrase in the mouth of some workman or woman of the people.'

Italian, then, makes demands on teacher and pupil which are different from those of French. Whereas French is a standardized, relatively fixed language, Italian is a language in the making, in the sense that it has diversity of excellence and that in Italian literary style differs, not only with the subject, but to a very remarkable degree with the author and the place of the utterance.

Further, French teaches accuracy of form; Italian necessitates accuracy of thought, especially in view of the subtlety of accepted constructions and of the complexity of phraseology. It is no very rare occurrence to find a verbally accurate translation of an Italian passage giving a meaning exactly opposite to that of the original. If the reader of any argument really fully developed in Italian fails to follow the main line of thought, he is almost sure to meet with immediate retribution in his misunderstanding of numerous special points.

When we come to Italian literature, we find it rich in achievements of world-wide importance inseparable from Western civilization. No one can study the Middle Ages in Europe and omit to study Dante, the Franciscan movement, and Boccaccio; or the Humanists and forget Boccaccio (under another aspect), Petrarch, Pico della Mirandola; or the Renaissance, and ignore Italy's historians (Machiavelli, Guicciardini), her painters, sculptors, architects, and epic poets (Ariosto and Tasso). Nor is it possible to study the counter-reformation and ignore Paolo Sarpi's history of the Council of Trent; or the world of modern discoveries, thought, and institutions and ignore Galileo, Vico, Beccaria, Rosmini, and a succession of Italian patriotic writers during the period of the Risorgimento, in whose works better than in any of the other fully autonomous modern nations can be studied and analyzed the mysterious forces of conscious nationality. Lovers of travels and students of geography owe much to Italy, from Marco Polo, through Christopher Columbus, and Amerigo Vespucci, down to the present Duke of Abruzzi. At the present time various branches of science are conspicuously represented in Italy by the Sen. Marconi, the Duke of Abruzzi, Padre Alfani; so is agriculture by the International Institute of Agriculture in Rome; history by Professor Pasquale Villari; archæology by Commendatore Boni and by Professor Lanzani; philosophy by Benedetto Croce and Giov. Gentili; the study of art, æsthetical and historical, by Corrado Ricci. Poetry has Carducci, only lately dead; and for form, whatever may be thought of its contents, much of the work of Gabriele D'Annunzio.

And all this literature, which has so great a value for Western civilization, is at the same time profoundly national. The unbroken stream of tradition, of aspirations, and of culture in the literature of all the various parts of the peninsula, maintained and voiced Italian unity throughout the periods of her political disruption and of foreign rule. The Italian national element, the people as a whole, can always be found there, in the various but continuous phases of its development.

A knowledge of Italian is also necessary for understanding the Italy of to-day. It cannot be too clearly grasped that it is impossible really to understand Modern Italy without having at least such knowledge of the language as will make the reading of modern books and daily papers an easy task, and travelling in Italy an opportunity for direct observation and pleasurable intercourse with Italians. As a united nation, Italy is young and is daily growing. What in Italy we call 'the Third Rome' is not only a development of the two earlier Romes (the Imperial and the Papal—the ancient and the Renaissance); it is also a *new* thing, by virtue of the new forces of the modern world which have combined there with the old traditions. It can be understood by direct observation alone. And upon the mutual understanding of nations depends the success of that common action which must decide the future of the civilized world.

As to the relation of English literature with Italian it is almost superfluous to recall the close intellectual intercourse which has always obtained between the two countries. From Chaucer to Shakespeare, Byron and Shelley, Browning and Walter Pater, the inspiration has often come to English writers from some Italian subject; and Hobbes and Ossian and Edward Young were among the chief influences in Italian literature of the eighteenth century.

Among the living Dante scholars of widest repute are three Englishmen, the Hon. W. Warren Vernon, Paget Toynbee and Edmund Gardner; and perhaps among the best actors of Shakespeare we may count Salvini and Zacconi, who are Italians.

For commercial purposes also it is of very great importance that Italian should be studied in England, as also English in Italy. Before the war, German trade with Italy had assumed the character rather of 'peaceful possession' than of 'peaceful penetration'; and the reasons were not only the great (and praiseworthy) energy of the Germans in 'pushing' their goods, the quality of the goods themselves, their relative cheapness, the favourable conditions of deferred payment on which they were sold, the adaptability of the German makers, the acceptance of all orders, however small, and the use of the metrical system of weights and measures; but also the great accessibility of German catalogues, the immediate and full reply sent in excellent Italian to any inquiry, however trifling, the intimate acquaintance of the Germans with local conditions and the constant 'nursing' of the market by commercial travellers who sometimes were Italians employed for the purpose, but often were Germans perfectly acquainted with the language and habits of their customers. When machinery had been sold to a firm, say for the starting of some new manufactory, the German traveller always called once a year to overhaul the machinery and repair it if necessary (the parts were standardized, and so could easily be renewed in the intervals); and all the countless German travellers who filled Italian second-class hotels and railway carriages spoke and wrote Italian fluently. Now we hope to replace German imports by British ones, and to have a good market for Italian agricultural and industrial products in England; it has also been agreed that banking facilities shall be greatly improved. But before this exchange of goods and credit can be put on anything like the footing required for competition against Germany it is obviously necessary that there should be in England a large number of clerks who can read and write, and if need be speak, Italian; of catalogue-compilers also competent to do the same; and of commercial travellers who, besides knowing the language, have grasped enough of the mind, manners, customs, and even foibles, of the nation that speaks it, to be able to do their business intelligently and expeditiously.

Italian is also spoken by a considerable part of the population in Egypt, in the Italian colonies in Africa, and in the various States of Southern America. And the amount of trade to be captured is remarkable. In the five years ending on December 31, 1912, the average of imports and exports between Italy and the chief countries now at war were as follows:

	Percentage of Total Imports from		*Of Total Exports to*
Great Britain and Ireland	15·6		9·7
British India and Ceylon	4·1		1·5
Egypt	0·9		2·3
Australia	0·6		0·4
France	9·5		10·2
Russia	6·4		2·0
Totals	37·1		26·1
Germany	16·7		14·4
Austria and Hungary	9·1		8·5
Totals	25·8		22·9

With the United States both imports and exports are between 12 and 13 per cent.; with Canada, 0·3 and 0·1 respectively. With South America, imports from South America, 5·5 per cent.; exports to South America, 11·6 per cent.

One remarkable feature about imports from Germany is the enormous disproportion between raw materials and manufactured articles. In the five years ending in 1912 the value of raw materials imported from Germany into Italy was **56·848** thousand francs; that of semi-manufactured articles, **144·877** thousand francs; that of fully manufactured articles, **409·495** thousand francs.

From Great Britain the corresponding numbers are, in the same order: **333·403**, **103·667**, and **127·079** respectively. A very large proportion of the goods bought from Germany, and notably the vast amount of machinery, could and should be provided by Great Britain.

We may then conclude that by reason of its own intrinsic value, in the interests of true culture, and for reasons of practical utility, the study of Italian should be encouraged in England, and should be pursued as far as possible also during the years which each succeeding generation devotes to the early training and the direction of its faculties.

MEMORANDUM ON SPANISH.

In view of the importance, political and commercial, of the Spanish-speaking countries of the world, and the important rôle which they are probably destined to play in affairs, it is essential that we should devote a greater amount of attention to Spanish than we have hitherto done.

We can no longer afford to ignore the importance of a language spoken by over ninety million people inhabiting nineteen different countries, and

so widely separated as Spain and the Philippines. The claims of Spanish to a place in the curriculum of our schools must now be seriously considered.

It is here intended to show the importance of Spanish as a literary, linguistic, and commercial study, and its claims to consideration in educational circles as a 'second' foreign language, and perhaps in some exceptional cases as a first foreign language—that is, in those districts which have a more intimate connection with Spain and Spanish South America (Bristol, Liverpool, Southampton, etc.).

The claims of Spanish literature are ample and strong. From the earliest times to the present day Spain has produced great literature. From the writers of the 'Silver Age,' Martial, Quintilian, and Seneca, to the writers of to-day, Blasco Ibanez, Pereda, and Galdos, the chain is almost unbroken. In Spanish there is a considerable body of first-rate literature suitable for school reading. Spanish literature is virile, lacking almost entirely the sensual tone found in other Romance literatures. The classic masterpieces of Fray Luis de Leon, Cervantes, Tirso de Molina, Lope de Vega, and Calderon de la Barca, combine realistic vision with the portraiture of typical local traits.

Realism has always been a dominant note in Spanish literature, and to-day Spain possesses what is generally acknowledged to be an important realistic school of novelists.

The works of Fernan Caballero, Perez Galdos, Pardo Bayan, and Blasco Ibanez deserve their wide repute. South American writers are now winning a place in the foremost ranks, and some of them, such as Ruben Dario and Bello, are recognized leaders.

In Romance, History, Lyrical Poetry, Epic Verse, and Literary Criticism, Spanish writers can challenge comparison with those of any other nation, while 'in its wealth of dramatic writing Spanish is unrivalled' (Walter Pater).

From the *commercial* point of view the study of Spanish is of the utmost importance, if not a matter of imperious necessity, to the Englishman.

South America has long had extensive commercial relations with England, and up to the end of the last century was almost an exclusive market for us; but owing to our neglect of Spanish and our consequent inability to appreciate conditions in Spain and in South America, our proportion of the South American trade has gradually declined, in spite of the fact that the Spanish South American States are benevolently inclined towards England.

The potential sources of wealth of the Argentine, hile, Peru, Cuba, the Philippines, and the Central American States, are still largely untapped, and when their time comes Spanish will achieve an even greater importance than to-day, when it is the second commercial language of the globe. It is of importance not only in Spain, Central and South America, Cuba and the Philippines, but in the Levant, where the descendants of the Spanish Jews, exiled several centuries back, still speak the language of their forbears. Salonica and Smyrna are the chief cities in the Levant where Spanish is spoken.

'Spain is the country in Europe richest in mineral wealth' (Geikie), for there are few minerals known to commerce which cannot be found there. The Rio Tinto copper-mines are the most famous in the world, and the South Wales smelting industry is largely dependent for its supplies upon the mines in the north of Spain.

Now that Spain is enjoying a period of peace and comparative prosperity, she may again develop her natural resources and make of herself a power in Europe. The possibilities of the country are great, for with adequate irrigation Spain may again become what she was in years gone by—one of the granaries of Europe. Under the rule of the present King, Alphonso XIII., Spain has made great progress on the path of prosperity, and there is no reason to fear that this progress will be stayed.

England's trade with Spanish South America and Spain exceeds in value £120,000,000 per annum, and English capital to the extent of £700,000,000 is invested in Spanish-speaking countries.

The importance of our commercial relationship with these countries may be judged from the following statistics (1910):

	BRITISH	
	Imports. Per Cent.	*Exports.* Per Cent.
France	9·3	6·6
Germany	6·3	10·6
Russia	4·9	3·4
U.S.A.	21·6	11·6
Spanish America and Spain	9·8	11·8

Although the net value of English trade with Spain and South America is increasing, the proportion of English imports compared with German and American imports into South America is decreasing. If we had still (in 1913, last normal year) the proportion of the South American trade that we had in 1893, the value of our South American trade would be almost double what it is at present.

Our influence has been adversely affected by our neglect to study local conditions. Latin

America had always sought England and things English, and we now have an opportunity of arresting the decline of our influence, and by a study of the language of these countries of attaining to a better understanding of them and their needs.

Since it is generally acknowledged that women are destined to play a more prominent part in the commercial world than they have hitherto done, the study of Spanish in girls' schools should also be encouraged.

It is important to note that a good working knowledge of Spanish may be given in a year to a class which has previously done some Latin or French, averaging in age between fourteen and fifteen years, taking four periods per week. In two years such a class can obtain a knowledge that will enable it to appreciate the beauties of Spanish literature as well as the stereotyped formulæ of commercial Spanish.

A second modern foreign language is not usually taken in schools before the age of fourteen, and since the leaving age of the greater number of our secondary schools is sixteen to seventeen years, the second modern foreign language chosen should be that of which a knowledge adequate for ordinary needs could be acquired in this time. Spanish, because of its simplicity of idiom and syntax, is particularly suitable as a second foreign language. Its spelling being phonetic, the pronunciation offers little difficulty even to young pupils.

The importance of Spanish as a school study is being increasingly demonstrated. Many of the leading schools in London and the provinces have included the study of Spanish in their curricula (City of London, Hackney Downs, St. Olave's, St. Dunstan's, Liverpool Institute, Manchester High School, Sedburgh, Cheltenham, Bradford, Bristol, George Watson's, etc.), either as an alternative to German or as a separate subject, while several education authorities (Manchester, Lancashire, Liverpool) are advocating the inclusion of the study in the curriculum of secondary schools. In every Commercial Institute in London and in the vast majority of Commercial Institutes in the provinces Spanish forms a part of the curriculum, and from information received is attracting an increasing number of students.

Chairs have been established at London, Liverpool, and Leeds Universities, and lecturers, readers, or teachers in Spanish are to be found at Bristol, Birmingham, Dublin, Oxford, Cambridge, Glasgow, Edinburgh, and Nottingham.

While the popularity of Spanish as a school study is increasing in the larger towns and in the industrial and commercial centres, it is but little taught in the country schools; many headmasters urge the difficulty of adopting more than one modern foreign language, and also the difficulty of obtaining qualified teachers. This is the chief problem to be faced, but there is little doubt that the demand for qualified teachers at adequate salaries would evoke a fair supply. Many teachers of French are qualifying as teachers of Spanish, and it is from this source that the supply for some years must come.

Opportunities for the study of Spanish are to be found in Holiday Courses at

Madrid (December and January),
Burgos (August and September, January),
Santander (August and September),

and the expense of such courses compares favourably with that of courses in Switzerland, Germany, or South-East France. The fees for courses vary from 45 to 70 pesetas a month (1 peseta is about 8½d. to 9d.), and good accommodation may be had from 35 pesetas a week.

The Universities of Spain and their degrees are open to foreigners equally with Spaniards, and the reputation of the Universities of Madrid (La Central), Barcelona, and Valladolid is very high. The fees are low, and in some cases merely nominal. The chief Universities of South America (Buenos Aires and Santiago de Chile) are free or subject to merely nominal charges to any 'student proving himself capable of profiting by a course of study.' A leaving school certificate is a sufficient qualification for entry to courses at these Universities.

To encourage the training of graduates of English Universities as specialists in modern languages in general, and in Spanish in particular, better inducements should be offered. A yearly salary of £150 to £200 is not a good enough reward to tempt an English graduate to devote a year, or two years, to study abroad, and it is the graduate, with his literary and linguistic training, who should be encouraged to study abroad, and so qualify as a specialist in modern languages. Although the raising of the standard of salaries will do away with the present dearth of *qualified* teachers of Spanish, adequate measures must be taken to guard against the influx of unqualified teachers. Preference should be given to teachers of British nationality, and a foreigner's knowledge of his native tongue should not be accounted, as hitherto, a *sufficient* recommendation to a position as language teacher in British Universities or schools. We have suffered too much from this evil.

The lack of Spanish textbooks suitable for English students is now being remedied, and many English houses are publishing texts and grammars written for classes in English schools.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

[*The Modern Language Association does not endorse officially the comments or opinions expressed in this column.*]

THE Alphabetical Members' List has been reprinted. Any member who has not received a copy is requested to communicate with the Hon. Secretary.

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The Hon. General Secretary of the Polyglot Club, 5 and 6, Clement's Inn, Strand, would be grateful to anyone presenting any copies of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING mentioned below, or would be pleased to hear of second-hand copies of the same:

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,,	XI.	,,	4.

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In reference to the proposed Ph.D. degree at Oxford the writer of 'Post-Graduate Work and Degree Titles' in *The Times Educational Supplement* of March 1 has made some very pertinent remarks which are far from complimentary to our leading Universities. He points out that in this country degree titles are far too numerous, and that there is no agreement as to what they mean or ought to mean. In short, there is chaos. At Oxford and Cambridge the Master's degree in Arts no longer connotes post-graduate work, but merely lapse of time and the payment of a fee. At the Scottish Universities it connotes a course of undergraduate study, and is the equivalent of the B.A. at English Universities. Furthermore, Oxford has invented two Bachelorships (B.Litt. and B.Sc.) to label post-graduate work, 'an indefensible trifling with University tradition.' This trifling has made post-graduate studies at Oxford a failure, and hence the attempt to introduce the Ph.D. degree, of which the 'currency has become debased,' owing to the conditions under which it is obtained in Germany. In fact, Germany forces all students to do post-graduate work, without undergoing undergraduate instruction, whether they are fitted or not. So that the Ph.D. degree is generally worthless. The writer makes a number of recommendations, chief among which is that the Bachelor's degree should be reserved for undergraduate training, and the Doctor's degree for post-graduate work. As we know, the French University has two Doctor's degrees in Arts: the D. ès Lettres and the 'Docteur de l'Université.' The latter, of less value than the former, but of considerably greater value than the Ph.D., is intended for foreigners. The unfortunate point is that holders of the 'Ph.D.,' the 'D. ès Lettres,' and the 'Docteur de l'Université,' are all by courtesy dubbed 'Dr.,' and the general public, and even the educated public, do not discriminate.

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The Birmingham Town Council having resolved to withhold from the University the annual grant of £15,000 if Professor Wichmann were allowed to retain the chair of German, the Professor has solved the difficulty by resigning.

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LECTURES IN FRENCH AND SPANISH. — If tickets for these Lectures are not found in this number of the Magazine, members who wish to have them should write to Miss Batchelor, Bedford College, Regent's Park, N.W.

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Un lieutenant aviateur plein d'élégance entre dans un magasin anglais d'orfèvrerie près de l'Opéra et fait quelques emplettes. Soudain un employé reconnaît l'aviateur. C'est le fameux Guynemer. Et lors que celui-ci se présente à la caisse:

'Tout est payé,' lui répond le caissier.

Les employés de la maison s'étaient rapidement cotisés pour avoir 'l'honneur' de faire une politesse au jeune héros français.

Et celui-ci heureux et confus porta aux lèvres le cadeau qui venait de lui être offert d'une façon si touchante. Il abattra le prochain vautour boche au cri de: 'Hourrah! for England!'

♣ ♣ ♣

The *Schoolmaster* occasionally publishes schoolboy howlers. We present it with the following from its own editorial headed 'Super-Trash' in its issue of March 3. It says that 'The editor of *J'ai Vu* . . . declared that higher education in France had been made into a halfpenny bazaar of German super-trash: "*On a fait de l'enseignement supérieur en France un sous bazaar de la sur-camelote Germaine.*"'

REVIEWS.

[The Association does not make itself officially responsible for the opinions of reviewers.]

A Practical Spanish Grammar. By FUENTES and FRANÇOIS. Pp. xiv + 251 + 60 vocabulary. Macmillan and Co., New York. $1.25 (4s. 6d.).

The aim of the authors of this work is 'a minimum of rules and a maximum of exercises,' and in the main they have succeeded in their attempt at simplicity. In some cases, however, this straining after condensation has led to lack of clearness, while the treatment of some of the most important features of the language is rather sketchy. On the whole, this book is a pleasant change from some Spanish Grammars that we have seen; the exercises are well planned, varied, and abundant. The accentuation is up to date, and the review chapters especially useful. The nomenclature of the tenses is American, and in some cases confusing, while the fact that 'no attempt has been made at elegance in style,' at times is rather evident.

There are fifteen full-page illustrations and sixty pages of vocabulary.

Traité pratique de Prononciation Française. Par MAURICE GRAMMONT, Professeur à l'Université de Montpellier. Pp. 231. Paris, Librairie Delagrave. Price 2fr. 50c.

There are several standard works on the historical development of the French language, but there has been a great want of a full and trustworthy manual of the pronunciation. Professor Grammont has added to his many philological and phonetic works the present treatise on the principles and practice of spoken French. The first part deals with the vowels and consonants with the thoroughness which his work in experimental phonetics has enabled him to attain. The number of words given as examples is so extensive that they occupy an Index of sixty columns. There are many useful remarks on the faults he has observed in the pronunciation of foreigners. The second part of the manual deals with words when they are linked in groups or parts of a sentence, where they come under 'group-drill,' and their pronunciation may be affected by elision, hiatus, *liaison*, and other circumstances of their position. The section on the *E caduc*, the vowel that may fall off at the end of words or even within them, is excellent.

The important subject of stress, the shifting stress of French, so different from that of our strongly tonic language, and so influenced by the particular emphasis of the phonetic group or sentence, is treated in a manner that is, to say the least, enlightening. That of rhythm already treated so well in our author's *Le Vers Français*, is explained in the section on rhythm and the musical movement of phrases. Numerous extracts from classic or other prose and verse are given for the application of the rules. Useful as this treatise will be to the French student, it will be invaluable to the English teacher of French who, with fair pronunciation of the language, wishes to improve it, and the consequent pronunciation of his pupils, by good knowledge of its principles.

Exercises in Spanish Composition. By SAMUEL M. WAXMAN. Pp. 69 + 30. Price 1s. 6d. Heath.

This small book, excellent in conception, might have fulfilled a very useful purpose, for the number of text-books on the teaching of Spanish composition is woefully small. The author, however, has marred his work by the loose style and phrasing which pervades the whole of his book. To ask our pupils to translate into Spanish such sentences as 'We used to call you a grind' (p. 5), 'My, what a man!' 'Come right back,' 'Haven't you finished those confounded examinations yet' (p. 22), 'Biff, Bang' (p. 22), 'I did not "flunk" them' (p. 22), 'Another chore!' (p. 23)—to choose only a few of the solecisms to be found in this book—is neither to teach them good English nor good Spanish: and this work abounds in such phrases.

It is a pity that, in his desire to obtain idiomatic translations, the author should have made use of such very poor English, for the material on which the twenty-five lessons are based, including, as they do, much interesting information about South America, could have been much better utilized.

The Cambridge History of English Literature. Vols. xiii. and xiv. Edited by Sir A. W. WARD, Litt.D., F.B.A., and A. R. WALLER, M.A. Pp. xi + 611, and xii + 658. Cambridge University Press. 1916. Price, 9s. net each.

With these two volumes, a great undertaking reaches its conclusion, and the student's first word must be one of gratitude to those who conceived and to those who have carried out the work. In a valedictory note, the editors point out the difficulties in the way of such a task, which 'are certainly not least formidable when the work follows the co-operative system,

practically indispensable in the case of a history so vast in its dimensions and so varied as that of English literature.'

No unbiassed critic can claim that these difficulties are in every case overcome; to expect such success were to expect a superhuman achievement. But the Cambridge History gives an adequate survey of English literature; it provides the necessary biographical details which link the writers with their work and with the times in which they live; the critical and historical matter is sufficient to direct the student to the road along which he may profitably pursue his researches, while the bibliographies in most cases give him at any rate the principal sources from which he may obtain further information. These volumes are, then, indispensable adjuncts to any library, and to say this is tantamount to saying that they fulfil all reasonable claims that may be made upon them. If we may venture to paraphrase Dr. Johnson's assertion about his Dictionary, the editors knew very well what they were undertaking, and very well how to do it, and they have done it very well.

We think, nevertheless, that these two volumes, which deal with the latter part of the nineteenth century, are, in the nature of the case, less satisfactory than some of their predecessors. It is more difficult rightly to appraise contemporaries, and most of the contributors are discussing either the friends and prophets of their youth, or, harder still, the men whom their fathers delighted to honour. The attempt to see their subjects in the right perspective is often beyond them, and there is a tendency, only sometimes successfully resisted, to take refuge in the dull, the platitudinous and the safe, rather than to risk an original outlook. Further, the treatment of individual authors is curiously disproportionate. Professor Robertson begins with an excellent chapter on Carlyle, which is full of knowledge, literary acumen, and recognition of his moral force. But Carlyle's greatest disciple, whom many of those best fitted to judge would certainly not rank lower than his master, is dismissed with 'others'—many others—in a chapter on Critical and Miscellaneous Prose, which does not even give him pride of place. Professor Walker is, we think, old-fashioned in his estimate of *Sesame and Lilies* as still, 'the most popular of Ruskin's writings.' He seems unaware of the increasing influence of Ruskin's work on the present generation, for it is certainly a mistake to say that he 'is now passing through' a 'period of depreciation.' Among many curious omissions in the bibliographies contributed by G. A. B. (it is strange to find that so many of the authors are content to leave the most important part of their work as literary guides to another!) we note that of W. G. Collingwood's *Life of Ruskin* and J. A. Hobson's *John Ruskin, Social Reformer*. Both these are far more important than any of the Ruskin criticism which is included in the bibliography (vol. xiv., p. 524), and we are afraid this example is typical of the insufficient knowledge or of the careless eclecticism of the compiler. At any rate, the bibliographies to these last volumes are inferior to those of the earlier periods.

But to return to the text of the volumes under discussion. Professor Saintsbury, who, with all his eccentricities and mannerisms of style, provides the least heavy reading in these two volumes, certainly does not suffer from lack of independence. It is characteristic that in his chapter on the lesser poets he should include names which the present reviewer is certainly not alone in meeting for the first time; it is surely equally *sui generis* to dismiss Francis Thompson with the faint praise that he was more of a scholar than John Davidson, and that the opening stanza of 'The Hound of Heaven' is 'undeniably fine.' One statement at least of Dr. Saintsbury is, by the way, implicitly, if not explicitly, denied by his editor. Thus we read of Macaulay's best poetry, that anyone who denies its claim to that title 'had best be met by the silence, the smile, and the not too obvious shrug, which are suitable to Ephraim when he has irrevocably announced his junction with idols.' We suppose Sir A. W. Ward must thus be greeted when he says that the *Lays* 'will probably long be loved by the young, and by all for whom graphic force and an easy command of ballad metres constitute poetry.'

Such contretemps are doubtless unavoidable in so composite a work, and at least they have the advantage of proving that literary guides are not to be accepted as infallible. We wish there were space in which to discuss the racy chapter on Dickens, which lays the modern reader under a great debt to Dr. Saintsbury, whose appreciation is infectious and yet tempered by judgment; or Mr. Hamilton Thompson's sane account of Thackeray or of the 'Rossettis, William Morris, Swinburne, and others.' Professor Grierson's chapter on the Tennysons is full of good things, and his description of Tennyson's workmanship is quite admirable. He has obviously passed through his own period of 'reaction' to a new standpoint of appreciation,

enjoyment, and critical balance. Sir Henry Jones is rather one-sided in his estimate of Browning, upon whose teaching he lays stress, to the almost entire exclusion of his poetical qualities. Professor Lewis Jones contributes a satisfactory chapter on Arnold, Clough, and James Thomson; Mr. W. T. Young writes adequately on the Lesser Novelists and on Meredith, Samuel Butler, and Gissing (a curious combination !); Sir A. W. Ward treats the Political and Social Novel, and Professor Jack, the Brontës. Volume xiv., apart from its chapters on historical, biographical, and critical prose, goes farther afield for the bulk of its subject-matter. Professor Sorley contributes the last of those admirable accounts of the Philosophers, which are a special feature of the Cambridge History, and one which is particularly welcome to non-philosophical lovers of literature. There are chapters on Journalism and on the Literature of Sport and of Travel, on the Literature of Science, on Education, and finally, on Anglo-Irish Literature, Anglo-Indian Literature, English-Canadian Literature, the Literature of Australia and New Zealand, and on South African Poetry. In some of these there is, necessarily, more talk of promise than of attainment, but this record of our national literature would be incomplete without a record of what has been written by the sister-nations. As E. B. Watermeyer (South Africa) phrases it:

> Together they have been in weal and woe;
> Together they have stood to breast the foe;
> A name of future days, in Time's far scope
> May tell perhaps the nation of 'Good Hope.'

But Englishmen and their comrades from overseas have yet another, even a closer bond —that of their mother-tongue and the great literature which belongs to them all alike. The editors of the *Cambridge History of Literature* must have had this in mind when they decreed that the last chapter of all in their monumental work should be written by Mr. Murison on 'Changes in the Language since Shakespeare's Time.' And the first paragraph in this chapter begins with a reference to the 'world-wide expansion' of the use of English, thus reminding us that the importance of the fact cannot be exaggerated. 'Outside the British Isles, the language has followed the flag, and is spoken all over the Empire.' That being so, it is safe to prophesy a world-wide expansion of the Empire's literature, with a richness and variety born of new lands and a new outlook, but rooted far back in the island-home of the race.

The Oxford Book of American Essays. Chosen by BRANDER MATTHEWS, Professor in Columbia University. Pp. xi+508. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1914. Price 5s. net.

Professor Matthews, in his Introduction to his attractive little volume, rightly insists that English literature 'is one and indivisible, and that the nativity or the domicile of those who make it matters nothing.' It is nevertheless true, as he points out, that American literature, for all that it is 'a condition of English literature,' has a flavour of its own, and that American writers 'cannot help having the note of their own nationality.' His collection of representative essays is all the more welcome on that account. Many of them might fittingly find a place in any collection of English essays, but their peculiar value is enhanced when they are allowed to stand for the country of their birth. The American point of view and attitude towards letters and learning as well as the American contribution to literature, are more easily grasped and appraised, especially by the foreigners who use the same mother-tongue and have the same literary ancestry, when there is an opportunity to pass easily from one essayist to another and to realize the richness and variety of their work. 'Originality is simply a fresh pair of eyes,' as Thomas Wentworth Higginson puts it in his paper on 'Americanism in Literature'; so long as the American can look forward with faith and hope and 'the consciousness of a new impulse given to all human progress,' so long as 'he sees as much scope for his own inspiration as if never a book had appeared in the world,' 'he has the American spirit.' This spirit appears again and again in the volume before us—in Thoreau's delightful essay on 'Walking,' in Lowell's *On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners*, and in Whitman's Preface to *Leaves of Grass*, to instance only three of the chosen examples. It is naturally less evident in the earlier essayists, Benjamin Franklin, Washington Irving, and the rest, but Professor Matthews has made his selections so wisely that the gradual unfolding of national consciousness and the promise of its future achievements are alike made manifest. Clearly, the American essay, though it traces an honourable descent from the British family, has struck out a line for itself, vigorous and independent, while retaining much of the virtue of the old stock. *The Oxford Book of American Essays* can safely be recommended to those who find enjoyment and companionship in the two delightful little

volumes of selections from English essayists already published by the Oxford Press.

A Mediæval Anthology, being Lyrics and other Short Poems, chiefly religious, collected and modernized by MARY G. SEGAR. Pp. viii+132. Messrs. Longmans, Green and Co., 1915. Price 2s. 6d. net.

Many readers will doubtless welcome this mediæval anthology and be glad to see for themselves specimens of Early English lyrics, though these necessarily lose a good deal by their modernization. Miss Segar has kept as nearly as possible to her originals, however, and in many cases only a few words are changed. Her choice of poems is, in the main, admirable, and she has managed to include much of what is most attractive in Middle English religious and secular lyric poetry. The brief extracts from narrative poems are inevitably less representative and perhaps spoil the unity of the volume, but the work is so well done as a whole, and room is found for so many favourites, that one hesitates to find fault lest one may appear captious. The religious poems are evidently selected *con amore*, and it is pleasant to think that a wider public may now welcome such gems as:

> I sing of a maiden
> That is makeles,

or the delightful

> Lully, lulley, lully, lulley!
> The falcon hath borne my make away.

The Introduction errs on the side of attempting to prove too much in ten pages. French influence on mediæval poetry is a big subject; English mysticism and its relation to nature-worship is at least equally important, and Miss Segar has not space in which to develop her arguments satisfactorily. What exactly does she mean, for instance, by the word 'supernatural' in the following sentence: 'He loved his women fair and fresh and simple, yet none more than he realized their supernatural freedom'? She has, too, a nasty trick of inverting her sentences (*e.g.*, 'Always was its dominant note intellectual; always, too, was its form clever and intricate'), which detracts from their force. These are, however, minor blemishes in a book we can heartily recommend to those who cannot read Middle English in the original.

Should a new edition be called for, there are typographical errors which need correction—*e.g.*, on p. 1, l. 11, 'mytte' *for* 'nytte'; and on p. 56, in the first note, 'zeorne' *for* 'georne.'

Iacop and Iosep: a Middle English Poem of the Thirteenth Century. Edited by ARTHUR S. NAPIER. Pp. xxxii+41. Oxford: Clarendon Press. 1916. Price 2s. 6d. net.

Lovers of Early English literature are indebted to the late Professor Napier for making this delightful poem accessible and providing it with the scholarly apparatus necessary for its full appreciation. But while the student will rejoice in the clear summary of phonological and grammatical peculiarities and the adequate annotation, the text is in itself so attractive that the ordinary reader of Middle English may well be recommended to face its difficulties with the aid of the admirable glossary which is provided. The Bible narrative is naïvely told, but with thorough grasp of the human and dramatic elements; the characters are carefully differentiated, and the rendering is in no sense a lifeless reproduction of the original. The writer has learnt the difficult art of beginning,

> Wolle ȝe nou ihere wordes swiþe gode
> Of one patriarke after Noees flode?
> Nellic ȝou nouȝt tellen of þis flodes grame,
> Bot of one patriarke, Iacob was his name.

And the no less difficult art of ending, when he has finished his story, which is throughout well constructed and proportioned, with none of the tags and irrelevancies so often found in mediæval literature. Every touch tells. Thus, when Joseph is brought from prison to interpret Pharaoh's dream, he is pale and lean, but on account of the Queen (substituted in this version for Potiphar's wife) no man dare commiserate him. When the brethren discover themselves to Joseph, he goes out to weep for bliss. 'Sore he is alonged his breþren to kisse.' When Jacob hears that Joseph still lives, he casts away his crutch, and rides along, singing like a child, 'For the loue of Iosep nou ich am ȝung and wild.' The old story lives anew in its mediæval dress, and forms a welcome addition to our knowledge of thirteenth-century literature.

Defoe's Robinson Crusoe. Edited with an Introduction and Notes by W. P. TRENT, Professor in Columbia University. Pp. xxxiv + 360. Messrs. Ginn and Co.: The Athenæum Press, 1916.

Professor Trent is probably the greatest living authority on the life and work of Defoe, so that this small edition of *Robinson Crusoe*, based upon his more elaborate one, is thoroughly trustworthy from the point of view of scholarship. The frontispiece and title-page of the first edition are reproduced; the Introduction

gives an account both of the writer and his book, and there are even notes, some of them perhaps superfluous, to explain the not very abstruse text. The book is well printed in bold type on good paper; there are adequate, if not very beautiful illustrations, and the only fault to be found with it is the weight. If so elaborate a school text of *Robinson Crusoe* be really necessary, this appears to fulfil all legitimate demands upon editor and publisher.

SUGGESTED ALTERNATIVE TO PRESENT SENIOR LOCAL EXAMINATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES.

(*See* § 33 *of Summary of Association's Recommendations.*)

THE General Committee wish to recommend that a Direct Method Examination in Modern Languages should be provided as an alternative to the present Modern Language Test in the Senior Local and other external Examinations.

A strong argument in favour of this course is the growing demand for such an examination on the part of a considerable section of the teachers. Surely this is a claim which cannot very well be denied. The argument that pupils trained on the Direct Method can and do distinguish themselves in the present examination does not take into account the extent to which examinations react on methods of teaching, and the natural objection on the part of teachers and pupils to undergoing a test that does not cover their whole field of study, or attaches to portions of it a value quite disproportionate to the time and trouble they have devoted to them.

The course we advocate is in accordance with the policy of not discouraging new methods of teaching, and is the best means of testing the real extent of the demand for an examination on Direct Method lines, as well as the validity of the claims of its exponents.

It is hardly necessary to add that the examiners for such a test should be teachers with practical experience of the Direct Method.

The Committee recommend that the examination should take the form of the following tests:

A. *Oral test* (compulsory) consisting of—

1. *Dictation.* This should be given by the teacher in the presence of the external examiner; but it might be given by the examiner himself, if in his judgment this seemed to be desirable. The passage chosen should be easy and short (about 80 words).
2. *Reading aloud.*
3. *Conversation.*

Two alternative methods of examining are recommended; either—

(*a*) Reading taken collectively as a class and followed by conversation individually; or

(*b*) Both reading and conversation individually.

(N.B.—It is sometimes found helpful to allow the next candidate in rotation to come into the room for a few minutes before he or she is required to undergo the examination.)

As the best material for testing reading aloud and conversation the Committee recommend a text, or texts, of about 6,000 words in length, which the candidate has previously prepared, and which the school has chosen and the examining body approved.

Conversation on general topics—*e.g.*, the weather, meals, the theatre, garden, and the like, should be a subsidiary test, used only at the discretion of the examiner.

B. *A written test* (compulsory), lasting three hours, and consisting of—

1. *Translation* into English of unseen passages, one of which should be simple verse. For purposes of differentiation ('recognition,' etc.), the examiners would probably find it desirable to set two prose passages, one of which would be more difficult than the other.

All these passages should be short, containing about 100 words of prose and 75 words of verse. Their vocabulary should be varied, and should not involve abstract conceptions which are above the candidates' mental level. In choosing the passages stress should be laid rather on difficulties of construction than on those of vocabulary. Disconnected idiomatic sentences for translation should not be set, as this fosters unsound methods of teaching.

2. *Free composition*, which should take one of the following forms:

(*a*) A narrative of about 250 words, with a well-defined plot, should be clearly read aloud in English twice by the invigilator to the candidates, who would then write it out in the foreign language with the aid only of headings in the foreign language given them in the printed examination paper. These headings should not

be given in the form of sentences—
e.g., not
'César arriva sur la place';
but
'Arrivée de César sur la place.'

(*b*) As an alternative choice: A skeleton outline for expansion, given in the foreign language. This test may take the form of the continuation of a story begun in one of the passages for translation.

The Committee consider that in this alternative examination ability to write the foreign language should be tested solely by means of free composition, and that there should at this stage be no translation from the mother-tongue into the foreign language.

They also consider that in view of the standard attainable by candidates for the Senior Local Examinations at the end of so short a period as four years, there should be in this alternative examination no external written examination on any special texts.

With regard to grammar, they desire to reaffirm the principle stated in the Report on External Examinations, adopted by the General Meeting of the Modern Language Association on January 10, 1911, that in the Senior Examination the special grammar test should be eliminated. They add that this principle has already been put into practice by the University of London in its Matriculation and Senior School Examinations; and by the Joint Board of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge in their School Certificate Examination.

Standard.—The Committee is of opinion that the low percentage usually required for a pass is a serious defect in the present system of external examinations. They believe that it would encourage thoroughness in teaching if the papers set were somewhat easier, and a higher percentage of marks demanded for a success. They recommend, therefore, that the percentage required for a pass should be raised, and that the papers should be such that a well-taught candidate of average abilities should be able to obtain this higher mark.

Marks.—The following allocation of marks is suggested as suitable:

Oral: Reading and conversation, 25 (maximum); dictation, 10 (maximum), with a pass minimum of 15 on both taken together.

Written: Translation of unseens in English, 30, with a pass minimum of 10; free composition, 35, with a pass minimum of 15.

The Committee are of opinion that candidates should be required to reach a pass standard in the oral as well as in the written part of the examination.

February, 1917.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

A MEETING of the Executive Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, February 24.

Present: Mr. Hutton (chair), Mr. Allpress, Miss Althaus, Miss Ash, Professor Atkins, Miss Batchelor, Mr. Bullough, Miss Hart, Messrs. Mansion, Prior, Richards, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from Messrs. D. Jones, Macgowan, Payen-Payne, Perrett, Rippmann, and Miss Strachey.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Letters from Professor Kastner were read, in which he suggested that the meetings of the General and Executive Committees should be held at some central town instead of in London, in order to give provincial members a better chance of attending.

In the discussion that arose a general desire that the Branches and provincial members should have the chance of taking a more active part in the work of the Association was evinced, but it was felt that there were great difficulties in the way of accepting Professor Kastner's proposal.

Finally, on the motion of Professor Atkins, it was resolved that after the War the experiment be made of holding one General Committee a year in some provincial centre.

Also, a sub-committee, consisting of Mr. Mansion (convener), Miss Althaus, and Mr. Richards, with power to co-opt, was appointed to consider the possibilities of closer co-operation between the Branches and the General Committee in the administration and policy of the Association.

It was further resolved that as an experiment the minutes of Committee meetings should be circulated amongst members not present.

Mr. Bullough brought forward the question of appointing a sub-committee for Italian, and referred to the movement in the Royal Society of Literature for promoting a closer intellectual connection between the Allied countries. A letter from the British Italian league on the subject was received.

It was resolved that a sub-committee for Italian be appointed, with powers and constitution similar to those of the Russian sub-committees. Signorina de Castelvecchio, Mr. Brereton, Mr. Bullough, and Professor Kastner, were appointed to represent the Association, the first named to be invited to be Hon. Secretary.

It was resolved that the name of the magazine be changed to 'Modern Languages,' with 'Modern Language Teaching' as a sub-title the change to take effect next year.

It was decided that the Memoranda on Languages and the Report on the Alternative Examination for Schools should be sent to the Government Committee.

Miss Batchelor brought forward the question of lectures in London for members and others. After some discussion it was decided that two such lectures be given, in May and June respectively, the first in French, the second in Spanish, and that each member should have one ticket, to be sent out with the March number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

Miss Batchelor reported that she had given evidence on the Exchange of Children before the Government Committee, and received a sympathetic hearing.

The following new members were elected:

Miss Rachel Alcock.

W. Fassnidge, M.A., Southampton Grammar School.

Miss D. J. Kingston, B.A., March High School.

ANNUAL REPORT FOR 1916.

The number of members elected during the year is 56; resigned, 29; deleted for non-payment of subscription, 40. The number on the roll is therefore slightly less than last year. About eighty members are known to be on Active Service. Seven members have fallen in the course of the year.

The Report on Appointments to University posts in Modern Languages has been completed and issued to members and to the Press.

The revision of the Catalogue of the Travelling Exhibition has been completed, and copies of the list are available for members.

The Association sent representatives to the Conference of the Classical English, Geographical, Historical, and Modern Language Associations, initiated by the Historical Associations. At this Conference resolutions were passed which have been published in the Press. Later, the Conference was merged in a Council of Humanistic Studies, of which representatives of the British Academy and of the Five Associations form the nucleus.

In June the Chairman and Mr. Somerville had an interview at the War Office on the subject of the supply of interpreters. The results were published in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING for July. A list of members qualified to act as interpreters in German has been since sent to the War Office, and we have been informed that of these two are already employed in a linguistic capacity, two others have been interviewed, and steps will be taken to get into touch with the others.

Miss Allpress reports that during the year 530 applications for correspondents have been received from English scholars (273 boys and 257 girls) and 481 from French scholars (194 boys and 287 girls). The supply of French correspondents, therefore, does not at present meet the demand.

The Languages Sub-Committee has produced a Report on Foreign Languages in Boys and Girls Schools, and others on the claims of the principal European languages to a place in the curriculum of Secondary Schools.

A Sub-Committee for Russian has been appointed. It will consist of the Professor, Readers, and Lecturers in Russian at the Universities (four of whom have accepted membership), four members appointed by the MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION (these include the officers), and co-opted members. Its functions will be to collect data, act as an advisory body, and interest itself in the development of the teaching of Russian. The constitution and terms of reference to the Sub-Committee have been published in full in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION AND THE GOVERNMENT COMMITTEE.

The following were selected to give evidence before the Government Committee as the representatives of the Association:

Miss Althaus, Organizing Mistress of Modern Languages, West Riding and Yorkshire.

Miss Ash, Assistant Mistress, St. Paul's School for Girls, W.

Professor Atkins,* Professor of German, King's College, W.C.

* Professor Atkins was unfortunately prevented by illness from appearing before the Committee.

Professor Baker, Professor of French, University of Sheffield.

Mr. H. L. Hutton, Senior Modern Language Master, Merchant Taylors' School, E.C.

Mr. W. G. Lipscomb, Headmaster, Bolton Grammar School.

Dr. O. H. Prior, Assistant Master, Rugby School.

Dr. R. L. G. Ritchie, Lecturer in French, University of Edinburgh.

The following Reports and Memoranda were submitted:

Report on University Appointments.

Report on External Examinations for Schools (1911).

Report on Holiday Courses, Part II. (1912).

Memorandum on the Case for the Modern Humanities.

Memorandum on History and the Modern Humanities (with Schemes for the Teaching of French and German History).

Memorandum on Modern Languages in Civil Service Examinations (Div. I.).

Report on Foreign Languages in Boys' Schools.

Report on Foreign Languages in Girls' Schools.

Report of Committee for the Exchange of Children (1912-13).

Two Reports on the Preparation of the Modern Language Teacher.

Also a Summary of Evidence and Recommendations (printed elsewhere).

The following Resolution was passed by the General Committee on December 9:

> That as the Association in its official capacity does not represent any particular Method, it does not propose to delegate any of its members to give evidence on its behalf before the Government Committee on the subject of Method.

The following members of the Association gave evidence either as representatives of other bodies or on the invitation of the Government Committee:

Professor L. E. Kastner (University Teachers' Association).

Mr. Cloudesley Brereton (London County Council).

Mr. J. S. Norman (Preparatory Schools Association).

Mr. A. A. Somerville (Assistant Masters' Association).

Mr. S. A. Richards (Assistant Masters' Association).

Miss Hargraves (Assistant Mistresses' Association).

Miss Loveday (Assistant Mistresses' Association).

Miss Batchelor.

Mr. von Glehn.

Mr. D. Jones.

Miss Lowe.

Mr. B. Minssen.

Mr. H. Nicholson.

Mr. Mansfield Poole.

Mr. W. Rippmann.

Dr. Rouse.

Professor Savory.

Mr. O. Siepmann.

Mr. W. W. Vaughan.

And others.

LANCASHIRE AND CHESHIRE BRANCH OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

Activities during the Session November, 1915, to November, 1916.

November 20, 1915.—Mr. A. Kirk, of the Manchester University, gave a paper on the subject 'Goethe and an English Point of View.' This was followed by the Annual General Meeting, at which new officers were elected, and the programme for the session was discussed. The Rev. W. A. Parker-Mason, Headmaster of the Hulme Grammar School, Manchester, kindly consented to be President of the Branch for the new session.

February and March, 1916. — Members attended two of the Spring Session meetings of the Institut Français in Manchester, by arrangement with the Committee of the Manchester Branch of the Institut.

November 11, 1916.—Professor Herford, of Manchester University, gave his presidential address. Subject: 'Modern Languages after the War.' This will probably appear shortly in Modern Language Teaching. At the Annual General Meeting preceding the address only routine business was discussed.

November 25, 1916.—Members attended two demonstration French lessons given at the Grammar School, Bolton, by Mr. Archer. These roused much interest.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION, YORKSHIRE BRANCH.

Two meetings have been held this year. The members of the English Association (Yorkshire Branch) were invited to Mr. D. Jones's lecture

on 'Intonation,' which took place on April 1, in the Thoresby High School, Leeds. Lantern slides were shown and gramophone illustrations used. The address was followed with deep interest, and a few questions were asked at the close.

On November 30, a meeting for discussion was held in the Girls' Modern School, Leeds, when Miss Titterton (Girls' Modern School) read a paper on 'The Teaching of French Composition in French Schools.' She dealt very clearly and concisely with the principal points considered in Professor Brown's work, *How the French Boy learns to write.*

Mademoiselle Bourzès, Municipal High School, Doncaster, followed with a very charming and instructive address on the same subject. She laid special emphasis on two points—the importance of the *plan* in composition and essay-work; the serious attention given to the teaching of *grammar* in French Schools.

The two speakers were cordially thanked for their excellent papers. Miss Lowe brought the meeting to a close.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

All contributors are requested to send in matter by the 24th of each month, if publication is urgently required for the issue following.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 15th of February, March, April or May, June, July, October, November, and December. The price of single numbers is 6d. net.; the annual subscription is 4s. 8d. Orders should be sent direct to the Publishers, A. and C. Black, Ltd., 4, Soho Square, London.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, Cuilrathain, Harpenden, Herts. [N.B.—**Temporary address** during School Term: ST. JOHN'S SCHOOL, LEATHERHEAD.]

The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Association, but those whose subscription for the current year is not paid before July 1 are not entitled to receive it.

The Annual Subscription to the Association, payable on January 1, is 7s. 6d., and should be sent to the Hon. Treasurer, Dr. W. PERRETT, 58, Erskine Hill, Hendon, N.W.

Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, Steeple, Kingsway, Gerrards Cross.

The MODERN LANGUAGE REVIEW, a Quarterly Journal of Medieval and Modern Literature and Philology, edited by Professor J. G. Robertson, and published by the Cambridge University Press, is supplied to Members of the Association at a special annual subscription of 7s. 6d., *which must be prepaid.* It should be sent with the membership subscription (15s. in all) to the Hon. Treasurer. Those who wish to take in or discontinue the REVIEW should communicate with the Hon. Secretary.

The attention of Teachers is drawn to the collection of French and German School Books, carefully selected by a Sub-Committee, and known as the Travelling Exhibition. It may be inspected on applying to Mr. Twentyman, Board of Education, Whitehall. A Catalogue (sent *gratis* to members) has been issued of all sections except Reading Texts, of which a separate and minutely detailed list is being prepared. For particulars of conditions on which the Exhibition may be loaned apply to Miss Hart, as below.

The Hon. Secretary will be glad to receive from members the addresses of well-educated families on the Continent willing to receive English guests, which can be recommended to students and teachers wishing to study abroad. The addresses of houses where an English guest is not likely to meet any other English people are specially desired. Names of families should not be sent unless the member can recommend them from personal knowledge. Full particulars should be given.

Communications on the under-mentioned subjects should be addressed to the persons named:—

Exchange of Children: Miss BATCHELOR, Bedford College, Regent's Park, N.W.

Magic-Lantern Slides: H. L. HUTTON, 2, College Gardens Dulwich, S.E.

Residence Abroad (Women): Miss SANDYS, 30, East St. Helen's, Abingdon; **(Men)**: The Hon. Secretary.

Travelling Exhibition: J. E. MANSION, B.-ès-L., 10, Sudbrooke Road, Wandsworth Common, S.W.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, Berkhamsted School, Herts.

N.B.—Applicants for correspondents are requested to enclose list of pupils, giving names, ages, and addresses, and a stamp for reply.

Correspondence on all other subjects should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary.

It is urgently requested that all Postal Orders be crossed.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY J. G. ANDERSON

VOLUME XIII. Nos. 3 and 4 May-June, 1917

PLACE OF RUSSIAN IN SCHOOL CURRICULA.

THE memorandum on the study of German recently adopted by the General Committee states as follows the four chief factors in the value of a language as part of an educational curriculum:

1. Its formal value as an instrument of mental training.
2. The value of the intellectual and artistic treasures enshrined in it, and its contribution to modern thought.
3. The proximity of the country, and the extent to which travellers visit it for educational and other purposes.
4. Its utilitarian value from a commercial and military point of view.

All the languages which are being discussed this afternoon have, of course, their value under these four headings—some more and some less—so that what we have to determine is which has the highest aggregate value; and this we must do quite dispassionately, for, as the memorandum says, 'the question should depend on the widest considerations, and not so much upon any feelings, whether of friendship or hostility, to the people or peoples by which the language is spoken.'

Now, it is because I have become convinced that, if we are to have as part of our regular curriculum a third modern language after English and French, that language should be Russian, which is at one and the same time the most valuable from the utilitarian point of view, and the most profitable as a subject of study for its own sake, that I should like to give some of my reasons for making this claim for it.

Let us take first the last of the four points—that of mere usefulness. There is no need to remind ourselves that we have in Russian a language which, with only slight variations, is spoken by something like 120 million people. That in itself is a fact of such tremendous commercial significance that it would be difficult to overemphasize it. It means that Russian is the instrument of speech of the greater part of two continents; that its use in respect of mere geographical expanse and population is second only to English.

A knowledge of Russian, therefore, opens to us the possibility of intercourse with a very much greater number of people than any other language, English only excepted. Russian forms the basis for a study of the other Slavonic languages; and if we add the peoples of Serbia, Poland, Montenegro, Bulgaria, and of other Slav countries, we bring the total population concerned to something like 170 millions. And this addition is an important one. As it was in the past, so undoubtedly in the future, the key to peace or war in Europe will be in the Balkans. This is a matter which surely concerns every Englishman and Englishwoman to the utmost. We have seen more than once how a proper understanding of this problem, based on a knowledge of the languages of the people concerned, on the part of a few intelligent Germans has been turned by them to great advantage. And we have seen what a corresponding ignorance on the part of a few Englishmen has meant for us.

As French is the key language to the languages of the other Latin countries, so is Russian to Slavonic languages. We should not, then,

make Spanish or Italian our second language, because they are of the same family as French; we should not make German our second language, because in English—and it is to be hoped that English itself will soon play a much larger part in our curriculum—we already have a language of the same family as German; but we should make Russian the second language, because it is the key language of a large and extremely important family which is otherwise unrepresented.

Again, Russian provides a link between East and West—between Asia and Asiatic languages and Europe and European languages. Of all European languages, not even excepting Ancient Greek, Russian is the most closely akin to Sanscrit. The advantages of this study to the Anglo-Saxon race, which guides the destinies of a great Oriental Empire, are too obvious to be enlarged upon.

In the spheres of commerce and of international policy, then, the superiority of the Russian claim to that of Italian or of German can hardly be contested. But how does it compare with Spanish? The commercial development of the Latin countries where Spanish is spoken has been going on apace, and a comparatively advanced stage has been reached. There is already severe competition. The main activity is confined to the New World, so that the Monroe Doctrine can be advanced with some cogency, and the claim of Japan as a near neighbour is not without its particular relevance.

As compared with this, the commercial development of Russia is all in the future. The influence of the chief external pioneer of Russian trade—Germany—can be looked upon as for some time to come, and to a very considerable extent, eliminated from the sphere of action. England has the main opportunity of filling the vacuum thereby created, and England will no doubt in this be in the position of most-favoured nation. As to the proximity of the country, the War has brought Russia nearer to us even than Germany was to us before; and people will visit Russia for purposes other than merely commercial as freely as they formerly visited Germany.

The learning of Russian, then, provides us with an instrument of infinite value in the field of commercial enterprise both among Russians and among other Slav peoples; and as a means of understanding their motives, their ideals and ambitions, the most direct way to the accomplishment of permanent peace in Europe.

Now as to the first and second factors in the memorandum. The arguments in favour of Russian as a subject of purely educational value are of even greater weight.

Without agreeing with a certain school of thought, which holds that the chief educational value of a subject lies in its being hard, and without suggesting that Russian *is* hard, we shall find ourselves on uncontroversial ground (it is the often-repeated opinion of two very well known Englishmen chiefly distinguished as Latin and Greek scholars, but also learned in Russian) in saying that the value of the Russian language as a mental discipline is no less than that of Greek or of Latin. The memorandum says that to those who believe in the value of formal linguistic training German should appeal, because it is a highly inflected language. If that is so, Russian should make an even stronger appeal. Its seven cases, the aspects of the verb, the elaborate system of prepositions—we have here all which should go to make it the ideal of the 'make-it-hard' school.

But let there be no misconception on the question of difficulty. A certain professor of modern languages said recently that he thought that Russian was too difficult to be used to any extent for commercial purposes, and that as English is easier, the Russians must learn English instead. This is an attitude which cannot be too severely deprecated. It is, at least, one which is being extensively repudiated in practice. In one not very large town in England at the present time the numbers of commercial students at evening classes for languages are, I believe, approximately as follows: For French, 1,000; for Russian, 300; for Spanish, 150; for German, 80. What is to become of the scholarships and the professorships in Russian which have already been founded if we are to take this professor's advice?

Germany owed her commercial success in Russia before the War more to a knowledge of Russian on the part of her business men than perhaps to any other one factor. She did not owe it to the intrinsic value of her general trade methods, nor would she ever have accomplished it had she left it to Russians to learn German.

The professor's argument might equally well be applied to French, or German, or Spanish. They are all harder than English; and it is scarcely too much to say that, once the initial difficulties are overcome, it is easier to acquire a thorough knowledge of Russian than it is of French, and that to attain excellence in French is harder than to attain it in any other language. The general idea that Russian is difficult can in a great measure be traced to the attitude of mind of those who have not gone quite so far as to master the alphabet. But we know that average boys master the Greek alphabet in a couple of lessons, and it has been my experience that, if it

is presented to them in sound-groups, the same boys will have no greater difficulty with the Russian alphabet than with the Greek. The average boy, after about three months' work, reads Tolstoy in the original with no greater trouble than he reads Cæsar after three months.

But in addition to its accidence, which gives it qualities similar to Latin and Greek, the peculiar subtlety of Russian as an instrument of expression should commend it to the 'humanistic' mind; it is a subtlety which is without rival in developing a sense of logic and an appreciation of fine distinctions in style. Shades of meaning can be conveyed in Russian as they can in no other language. The very fact that Russian is the most untranslatable of languages (into English) is a reason for learning it rather than German, the English versions of the classics of which are almost equal in value to the original.

There is, too, its very abstraction. It is often advanced in favour of Latin and Greek that the unique merit they have which modern languages have not lies in their abstractness—their far-awayness. Now the far-awayness in time of Latin and Greek is made up for, to a considerable extent, by the far-awayness in space of Russia, by the diversity and the strangeness to us of the Slavonic roots, and by the general remoteness of Russian life and ideas.

The Slavonic roots do, of course, tend to make it a difficult language for us; but when compounds are resolved into their elements, when account is taken of the very large number of onomatopœic words, and of the simplicity of its syntax, it will be realized that there are compensations, and that the sum total of difficulty is not really larger than in the case of the other languages, ancient and modern, which already form part of our curriculum.

As to the second point—the value of the intellectual treasures enshrined in the language. It is extraordinary how seldom protest has been made against the common assertion that the study of German opens to us an unrivalled field of accomplishment in the arts and the sciences. Gladstone, when he advocated Italian as an alternative for German, had no large following; and there are too many people to-day who are ready to accept anything German as the last word, not merely in efficiency in system and organization, but also in attainment in literature and in art. I would venture to assert that in German art—music apart—there is nothing worthy of imitation; that German literature, apart from Heine in form (and he is, of course, wholly un-German in temperament) and Goethe, whose thought is almost entirely unoriginal, is for the most part third-rate stuff, and that German science and organization have been very considerably overrated.

It is said that a knowledge of German is necessary for scientific purposes. This may be so, but that a few specialists must have it for technical purposes need not be adduced as a reason for making German a part of our regular curriculum. Germany has no names in science which can be set beside those of Newton, Darwin, Huxley, and Perkin, though it has produced a very large number of second-rate men who have done an immense amount of very necessary spade-work. This is true not only of science in the narrow sense, but of literature, of philology, and of the Higher Criticism.

Again, Kant, Hegel, and Nietsche, are great names in philosophy, but their writings are for the few, and there is less reason here than in literature for going to the original language in which they are written.

In all these branches of knowledge we shall find that in general Russia has given to the world work of value at least equal to that of Germany, and that she has more than one name greater than those of the greatest Germans. Tolstoy as artist, as reformer, and as prophet, is incomparably the greatest name in Europe in the nineteenth century; Turgénev, of whose perfection as a stylist Taine went so far as to say that there had been nothing like it since Sophocles; Dostoiévsky, Púshkin, and Gógol, are in literature all names of the first rank.

In scientific discovery of a far-reaching nature Germany has no accomplishment which can be set beside that of Mendeleev's discovery of the periodic law of the elements, or of Metchnikov's researches in medicine, which changed the whole current of thought in the scientific world of the time. In more practical schemes Russian achievement has probably never been equalled even in the land of the Panama Canal; the Trans-Siberian railway, the military highway through the Caucasus, are marvels of engineering, colossal in their conception and execution; the emancipation of forty million serfs by a stroke of the pen, the prohibition of the sale of vodka, are political ventures of extraordinary daring and magnitude, which time has amply justified. We must remember, too, that we are legislating for the future, and the question is not so much what has been produced as what *will be* produced. Russia is only just beginning to awaken, and the vitality of the Russian race and the widespread interest in science, in art, and in literature, show sign of greater promise than perhaps any other nation in the world at the present time. Almost as many cheap classical

reprints are sold every year among Russian peasants as copies of the *Daily Mail* in England among the middle classes. In the matter of politics, misunderstanding of Russia has been even more widespread. Though in its imperial * form an autocracy, Russia is in some essentials —particularly those of local self-government— more democratic even than France or England. Germany has manhood suffrage and England has not, but in which country do the people really have more voice in their own government? Russia has for centuries had very real provincial self-government. She has to-day over 12,000,000 co-operators — both actually and relatively a greater number than any other great Power in the world. The spirit of the Russian people is one of reawakening, of reform, of co-operation, of freedom, of true religion; it is, in fact, a spirit of the spirit as opposed to the materialism of Germany. And it is by contact with this spirit that the material Western races, and especially ourselves, have most good to gain by an understanding with Russia—an understanding which can only be arrived at through study of its language and its arts.

There is, too, an unexplained affinity between the Russian and the Englishman. Russians say that of all foreigners only the Englishman really successfully learns their language. This may be explained by certain similarities of grammatical usage, and especially that of the accent, which in Russian and English only of European languages falls strongly on one syllable in a word.

And here I should like to emphasize one point. If any real progress is to be made in the teaching of Russian (as of other foreign languages) in this country, then that teaching must be done exclusively by Englishmen and Englishwomen. This has been frequently debated of late, but it is impossible to overrate its importance. It cannot be too frequently insisted that the failure of modern language teaching in this country, whether at school or University, is due to one cause more than all others combined—that the teaching has been done by foreigners, and that at least 90 per cent. of those foreigners have been so ill-equipped, academically and pedagogically, that they would not have been permitted to teach in the primary schools of their own countries. England offers far smaller rewards—both pecuniary and social—to the teaching profession than any other country of first-rate importance; and, sentimental considerations apart, the properly qualified foreigner has a better career in his own country. This must always be so. Let us, therefore, relegate the position of the foreigner in this country to that of the Englishman in the foreigner's country—that is, to an entirely subsidiary and temporary function.

If modern languages, whether as a practical or as a humane study, are to find their real place in the educational system of this country, they must be treated as classical languages, and be put upon the same footing as Latin and Greek. And the teachers of modern languages must be of the same calibre as the teachers of Latin and Greek. The classical master—so called—has generally devoted seven years exclusively to the subjects he teaches: the last two or three years at school, and the whole of his three or four years at the University. The modern language teacher must do the same. In most other countries he has already done so for many years past.

Our course, then, in Russian (as in other modern languages) is not to fill all the newly created professorships with 'natives,' but if so filled the holders must be given to understand that the post is merely temporary; and we must impress upon the Board of Education the necessity of making provision whereby Englishmen and Englishwomen may continue their studies for a year or more in Russian schools and Universities, and then return to supply the demand for teachers here. All this is, of course, quite obvious to everyone who has given the matter any consideration; there is, none the less, a very real need for the Modern Language Association to take steps to bring immediate pressure to bear upon responsible authority if an early improvement is to be made in the supply of qualified English teachers of foreign languages—and this will be especially the case with Russian. Modern languages will remain an exotic and a mere sideshow in our educational system unless an early solution of this problem is sought and found.

I would submit, then, that Russian, above all other modern languages, deserves to be given a place in our educational system next after English and French, because on all grounds, whether as a practical or as a humane study, Russian in the aggregate has the greatest claim.

E. G. Underwood.

* The Revolution has since added to the list of achievements on a large scale.

WANTED—A POLICY.

I HAVE not the time to take up again the whole question which the title of this note implies, nor do I intend to imitate the tone adopted by Professor Williams in his reply to my article in the December number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. I propose to confine my attention to one or two points in his rejoinder which appear to me to require correction. Before doing so, however, let me say that I am in entire agreement with Professor Williams in his contention that all foreign languages are in a distinct and subordinate class by themselves compared with the mother-tongue as instruments of culture. This is a truism, and, like many other truisms, however obvious, it will bear repetition. If I accused Professor Williams of drawing a red herring across the track, it was because this truism had no immediate relevancy to the problem under discussion, which concerned only the foreign languages, none of which, so far as I am aware, has ever been put forward as a rival to the mother-tongue as an instrument of culture. The subject of my thesis was that our German specialists as a body (to be included in that class one need not be a professor of German, or even a chairless teacher of that language, as Professor Waterhouse appears to believe) had failed to warn us in the past, and that they cannot blame us if we have no confidence in their advice for the future. I tried to show that their failure was largely due to the fact that they had paid too much attention to the Germany of the *past*, and that in so doing they had neglected Germany as she is *now*. Instead of attempting to meet my arguments with counter-arguments or proofs to the contrary, Professor Williams merely makes a series of unsupported assertions, which I challenge him to substantiate. The only fact he can quote in contradiction of my statement that our German specialists failed to apprehend the spirit of modern Germany is a reminiscence of his student days in Germany—not so long ago—how the news of the foundation of the Cecil Rhodes Scholarships for Germans at Oxford aroused feelings of indignation and disgust in his bosom. Even on *that* point, I may say incidentally, I am in disagreement with him. I prefer to regard Cecil Rhodes' scheme as a well-meant, though one-sided attempt towards the realization of that international understanding which, though deferred indefinitely by the conduct of Germany, may yet prove to be the only path to salvation. However that may be, I see no ground, in the absence of further evidence, for not adhering to my point of view, which is that our German specialists as a body have been the innocent victims of an unfortunate hallucination, which, let us hope, has been happily dispelled by the events of the last three years. Professor Williams, however, views these events in a different light; according to him, 'if we test German in its proper class as a secondary means of culture, the war has changed nothing.' Apart from the fact that the war has exposed all fictitious values, this statement appears to me to contain the capital error which lies at the base of Professor Williams's whole argument. He has not yet grasped apparently that *culture*, for which I should say the nearest German equivalent is *Bildung*, is the opposite of *Kultur*. This is one of the lessons which the war has driven home with irresistible force. The Kultur was there before, less naked and unlovely, it is true, because it had not yet had an opportunity of doing its work completely, but the revelation of it in all its ghastliness and the apprehension of it by every one of us are due to the war, which has shown how poisonous seed falling on propitious ground can infect a whole nation. We see that Kultur, in its less hateful aspects, may be defined as the organized efficiency of a nation in the broadest sense, while the aim of culture is the enlightened individual, conversant with the best values of the past and sensitive to the best values of the present. Modern Germany has practically no culture, has less by far than she had a hundred years ago, and does not apparently desire it. That explains why some of our German specialists with their eyes fixed on Germany's *past* still insist on depicting a Germany that is (alas!) no more. From the point of view of culture the Western nations have very little to learn from Germany, nothing certainly which they cannot better find in their general inheritance. If we feel that our national culture requires strengthening or bracing, let us turn to the spiritual instincts and gifts of which our Allies have so abundant a store, and let them in their turn share in the rich treasure of our native culture, all co-operating (more eagerly than ever now that a new star has risen in the East) for the emancipation and ennoblement of mankind, and grimly bent on eradicating the canker that is eating at the very vitals of civilization. Lest I be again accused of being prejudiced, may I at this point be allowed to quote a passage, from the much-abused and misunderstood Nietzsche, in which, with prophetic insight, he lays his finger on the sore, and at the same time derides the narrow, close-blinkered national-

ism which is one of the many forms that Kultur assumes: 'Not only have the Germans entirely lost the breadth of vision which enables one to grasp the course of culture and the values of culture; not only are they one and all political (or Church) puppets; but they have also actually put a ban upon this very breadth of vision. A man must first and foremost be "German," he must belong to "*the* race"; then only can he pass judgment upon all values and lack of values in history—then only can he establish them. To be German is itself an argument. "Deutschland, Deutschland über Alles" is a principle; the Germans stand for "the moral order of the universe" in history. . . . When I listen to such things I lose all patience, and I feel inclined, I even feel it my duty, to tell the Germans, for once in a way, all that they have on their conscience. *Every great crime against culture for the last four centuries lies on their conscience*' (*Ecce Homo*, translated by A. M. Ludovici, p. 123). In another passage he puts it more tersely: 'Wherever Germany extends her sway *she ruins culture*.' The war then, in the broader sense, as an eminent American scholar said recently, 'may be regarded as a conflict between the metallic, half-mechanical kultur of Prussianized Germany and the more flexible civilization of States that have inherited culture or aspire to it'; and in a further passage, which is particularly instructive to us teachers because it warns us against the fetish of German scholarship, he adds these pertinent words: 'In the field of scholarship Germany is in the main laborious, accurate, and small-minded. *Her scholarship is related not to culture, but is a minor expression of Kultur.* Such scholarly men of letters as Darwin, Huxley, Renan, Taine, Boissier, Gaston Paris, Menendez y Pelayo, Francis J. Child, Germany used to produce in the days of the Grimms and Schlegels. She rarely does so now. Her culture has been swallowed up in her Kultur.'

I do not mean, of course, to imply that we have nothing to learn from Germany's organized efficiency, from the less odious aspects of her Kultur which have made her so formidable a foe in the present world-conflict, though we should not forget that our performance and that of our Allies in the way of organized obstruction are 'not so bad' for beginners. The danger is that we should be over-impressed by the achievements of German Kultur, or rather, certain manifestations of it, and that with short-sighted servility we should place upon ourselves fetters which we might find more difficult to cast off than to put on.

L. E. KASTNER.

THE TEACHING OF FRENCH GRAMMAR.

THE Reports on the teaching of French in London schools, lately issued by the Board of Education and the London County Council respectively, at any rate agree in this—that there is need for improvement in the teaching of French grammar. The Board is particularly severe on this point, but its criticism appears to be justified by the amount of unsystematized, invertebrate, and ineffective teaching with which the inspectors came into contact, and to which the Report bears witness. To some of us this has not come as a surprise.

The Board is anxious not to lay the blame on the Reformers, who, we are told, never intended that the teaching of grammar should be neglected.* The Reformers themselves have often impressed this upon us of late, but was it always so? Fifteen or twenty years ago it was not uncommon to hear the case stated in somewhat the following form: 'Look after the talking, and the grammar will look after itself.' 'Parlez, parlez toujours, et après cela, parlez!' cried Herr Direktor Walter. Be that as it may, intentions, we know, are not always effectual except for paving purposes. The difficulty of hammering home the grammar in systematic fashion, especially in the case of large and often none too homogeneous classes, is, in my opinion, one of the inherent weaknesses of the Direct Method, at any rate when continued beyond the early stages, and the attempt, on the part of so many teachers, thus to continue it throughout the second and third years is, I believe, largely responsible for the state of things described in the Report.

Such second-year Direct Method textbooks as have been produced have not proved satisfactory and are not in general use.* Consequently, those teachers who feel it incumbent upon them not to modify their method after the first year are constrained to base their instruction on the authors read in class.† As regards grammar, they are faced by the following alternatives: (*a*) They may teach it systematically and progressively as a thing apart from the rest of the teaching and

* Board of Education Report, § 66.

* L.C.C. Report, p. 8: *Textbooks*.

† Board of Education Report, § 96.

the practice of the language. This course will, I believe, justly meet with condemnation from all. Thus, when the L.C.C. Report tells us that 'in such cases (*i.e.*, where the author is the basis of instruction) a regular grammar, preferably a skeleton one, is absolutely needed for the Middle School,'* we may assume that such a book is recommended for reference only. To return to the practice of learning chunks of grammar in isolation would be a reactionary step indeed. (*b*) The other alternative consists in teaching the grammar as it arises in the course of reading the continuous text on which instruction is based. This method precludes the possibility of taking grammatical facts or rules in any approved order, or of hammering in and clinching one point at a time, for, unfortunately (or fortunately), authors do not compose their works with a view to grammatical instruction or the exigencies of class teaching. The first page may bristle with subjunctives, while a good supply of examples of (say) concord of adjective and noun may not be forthcoming till considerably farther on in the book. Use is frequently made, in the pursuit of this method, of texts with sets of 'reform' exercises sandwiched in at regular intervals. Such exercises are good for occasional revision, but far too discursive and haphazard for the systematic teaching of grammar. Attempts have been made to render these exercises progressive, but the task is an impossible one. It is only by the rarest chance that any particular section of the text illustrates the particular points of grammar which the compiler wishes at that stage to deal with. (I speak from experience.) If he sticks to his syllabus in writing his series of exercises, the connection between these and the text will be a very slight one indeed; so artificial, in fact, as to be of little value.

Another serious disadvantage inherent in this method is the fact that such periodic interruption kills the pupils' interest in the author. Let us have clean texts for reading and special passages on which to base our grammar teaching. I am convinced that the practice of attempting to teach grammar from a continuous text in which the pupil is confronted with all sorts of grammatical facts at once, and in which such facts are met with haphazard, thus preventing systematic and progressive study or the driving home of one point before another is attacked, is responsible for the greater part of the vague, hesitating, slipshod half-knowledge of which the Board's inspectors complain.

When the first year, with its special attention to pronunciation, is over, we must work systematically upon a grammar syllabus if the field is to be covered, whether by the *beginning* (as the Board suggests) or the *end* of the third year (as most teachers would recommend). Let each dose of grammar have its accompanying passage in French, specially chosen to illustrate the facts that are to be hammered in, its questionnaire, its grammatical exercises, its exercises in composition, all based upon the text studied. Such passages should, of course, be interesting, chosen from good authors, and each complete in itself—not a snippit, like a measured length of continuous text. In each lesson let the grammar be set out clearly, with plenty of examples, preferably from the text, and *let it be learnt*. If this plan is followed, grammars, whether skeleton or otherwise, will be limited to their proper function—purposes of reference—and the time spent in compiling a *cahier de grammaire* far more profitably employed. (The *cahier de grammaire* method is also open to the objections already noted—discursiveness and lack of progressiveness. Grammatical facts are entered in the order in which they occur in the course of reading, not according to natural sequence.) 'The French instructions to teachers,' we are reminded, 'specially state that grammar "must be taught in a most methodical way," and the German official documents dwell on the need of hammering in certain main points, and especially of revision.'* Is grammar likely to be taught in 'a most methodical way' if the teacher, having no textbook after the first year, trusts to the inspiration of the moment and the casual suggestions of the particular page of the author that the class happens to be reading? Are the 'main points' likely to be 'hammered in' if they are taken haphazard, in no particular order, and following fast each upon the other's heels?

If anyone doubts the practicability of selecting suitable extracts to exemplify certain definite points of grammar, let him try *Heath's Practical French Grammar*, Part I., for the second year, and Allpress and Lafitte's *New French Grammar* for the third. These books I consider excellent for Middle School work. I need not apologize for mentioning them, since others are noted in the L.C.C. Report. While such books are to be had, why should the teacher waste time in collecting his own (probably inferior) materials? In spite of the objection to 'sticking to the book' (an objection that can easily be carried too far), it is not likely that any teacher, however brilliant, can constantly, and for a number of different classes, extemporize lessons which can compare, as regards systematic and effective instruction,

* L.C.C. Report, p. 8: *Textbooks*.

* L.C.C. Report, p. 13.

with those of a carefully compiled and deliberately thought out course such as I have described.

When the essentials of accidence and syntax have been mastered (*i.e.*, by the end of the third year, *pace* the Board of Education), we can resort to freer methods, less trammelled by system and routine. Grammar now needs only to be kept up and (as regards syntax) extended. This extension may well take place gradually as points arise in the course of reading. English can now be almost totally excluded, except in so far as translation, as an art in itself, is practised, whether for examination or other purposes. To concentrate on conversation or free composition before the grammatical field has been traversed is to attempt to make bricks without straw. It is impossible for our pupils to speak or to write even simple French correctly (except in the case of exercises purposely confined within the limits of the grammar so far studied) until 'the whole of the accidence and the essentials of syntax' have been mastered. It will save time to get this done first. From long experience, a considerable period of which was devoted to the enthusiastic practice of what is known as Direct Method teaching, I am convinced that the only way to get this done is to hammer in the grammar systematically bit by bit. It is not enough to teach grammar incidentally as it arises; it must, in the Middle School, be made the basis of the instruction.

After writing the above, I have had the pleasure of reading Mr. Stanley Leathes' address to teachers of French, entitled 'Why should we learn French?' In it he says a great many excellent things in a very excellent way, but, having dealt with his chosen theme—one that he is certainly as well qualified as anyone to deal with—Mr. Leathes falls victim to the apparently irresistible temptation of telling the teacher how to teach, and that after saying, on the previous page, 'I can only indicate ends; it is for you to study and perfect means.' As some of his dicta bear upon the subject I have in hand, I cannot refrain from referring to them here.

The statement that 'the precision, the elegance, the exactitude, of the pronunciation [of French] are repugnant to our organs of speech' would be more correct if 'habits' were substituted for 'organs.' There is, I believe, no reason for supposing that a Frenchman's organs of speech differ materially from ours.

Few will disagree with the statement that 'the oral method of teaching foreign languages is universally admitted to be best for the earlier stages,' if it means that the teaching in these stages should be *largely* oral, but what is the exact meaning of the succeeding sentence: 'In French the oral teaching should be longer continued [presumably, than in the case of other foreign languages] and more rigorous in its requirements'? What is *the* oral method, to begin with? The question of the claims of written and of oral work is one of degree, on which different teachers will naturally differ within certain limits, but what is meant by 'longer continued'? Has anyone ever advocated dropping oral work at any stage, or dispensing entirely with written work in the early stages?

Of the three ends we have in view in teaching French, Mr. Leathes puts speaking first, then reading, and lastly writing. Many of us would prefer the order reading, speaking, writing, but the important thing to remember is that these three functions of language cannot be isolated in teaching. Just as it is true that 'for the appreciation of French literature a thorough training of the ear is necessary,' so it is also a fact that in order to speak French correctly or to read it with understanding it is necessary to be able to write at least simple French correctly. At any rate, we may confidently state this, that English pupils, spending nineteen-twentieths of their time in speaking and hearing English, will only be able to speak French or to read it aright when they have mastered the grammar, and that the written exercise, the writing of French, is the best way, is an indispensable way, of hammering in this grammatical knowledge. 'Writing maketh an exact man.'

This brings us to the following: 'Until something of scholarship is reached, the writing of French should be regarded as an aid and a supplement to the teaching of speaking and reading. Free composition should therefore be continued longer in French, and translation from English should be introduced later than in some other languages.' With the premise I agree, but the conclusion seems to me a case of *non sequitur*. The usual, and certainly comprehensible, argument in support of free composition as against translation is that we wish to teach our pupils to write French, to express their thoughts in the foreign idiom directly, without the intermediary of even mental translation. On the other hand, those who advocate translation from the mother-tongue into the foreign language do so because they believe it to be an excellent linguistic discipline in itself, a valuable means of instruction, the best method of imparting, testing, and putting into practice grammatical knowledge—a purpose for which, it is contended, free composition is unsuited. I would submit, therefore, that the terms of the conclusion should be transposed. Let translation be used as a means to an

end leading up to original composition in French, which is only practicable when 'something like scholarship is reached.' To write good French prose is, we know, one of the most difficult things in the world. It involves a great deal more than an assured knowledge of the grammar, but this is, of course, an essential condition. Of course, the translation of advanced, literary English into French is also an extremely difficult task, and one which, I think, should not be so generally attempted as is the case. By the time English pupils are able to try their hand at this, they should be able to write good, straightforward original French prose, expressing their own ideas directly in the foreign language. Such translation is, however, a very different thing from the turning into French of simple English sentences or simple English narrative specially constructed so as to be within the pupils' powers, and to involve only that amount of grammatical knowledge which he has so far assimilated and which requires at the time to be tested and practised. In this simple form, correct English can, without difficulty, be put into correct French; the direct equivalents do exist; there is no wide difference in the point of view of the two languages. It is only when we wish to write on a higher plane and to deal with more abstract topics that the clash of idiom makes of such translation an exceedingly difficult art.

Finally, I am glad to find Mr. Leathes stating definitely that 'French history should be approached, like all history when that is possible, through literature.' That seems to define our position with regard to the demand which has lately been made that the French teacher should include the teaching of French history with that of the language. Now, it is evident that our pupils must master the language before they can familiarize themselves with its literature; much more, then, must this be the case with regard to history which is to be approached through the literature. We must concentrate on the language first. Even then many of us find that most of our pupils leave school before they are ready to attack the literature. I am afraid nothing more can be attempted in this direction than the explanation of such historical allusions as occur in the course of the small amount of reading we are able, under present conditions, to get through in our classes. And that small amount of reading should, I think, be devoted to modern rather than classical authors, to *belles lettres* rather than to history.

S. A. Richards.

THE I.P.A. SCRIPT IN INDIA.

It has often occurred to me that students of the Romance languages of Europe might profitably devote some attention to the cognate modern languages of India, if only for this reason, that in India the daughters of the popular Sanskrit, known as Prakrits, have not wholly destroyed the previously existing languages, as popular Latin, for instance, killed the old Gallic speech in France. Hence, in India we can actually *see* the Prakritic tongue with its copious vocabulary in the act of ousting the indigenous languages, can observe by what processes the change is effected, can note that while a new vocabulary is adopted, the people who borrow it retain from their primordial language not only racy idioms, but a significant phrasal accent which affects the pronunciation of the borrowed words. If French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, and Rumanian differ from one another, these differences must largely represent differences between the languages originally spoken before the Latin vocabulary was adopted. The change of *vocabulary* is complete, so that in French, for instance, we are told that only twenty-five Gallic words survive. But it is at least probable that Gallic habits of pronunciation and idiom still survive. If there were still Gallic tribes surviving in, say, the caves of the Dordogne, we might have actual proof of whether this is so. In India this kind of experimental proof is still possible. Thanks to the I.P.A. alphabet, it is possible to give a (necessarily brief and summary) account of how non-Aryan peoples adopt an Indo-European vocabulary.

As France took over the Latin alphabet when it borrowed the popular Latin vocabulary, so the great Hindu languages of modern India—Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati, and Bengali—took over the Sanskrit alphabet as well as the vocabulary of one or other of the Prakrits, the popular forms of Sanskrit. They were more fortunate than we Europeans were, for the Sanskrit alphabet is based on a definite and reasoned phonetic theory: it is neither redundant nor deficient. Hence we are in a position to know with great accuracy how Sanskrit was pronounced. We know how Bengalis pronounce the same words, written in the same letters. We can, with I.P.A. script, make a correct

record of the aboriginal speech of Bengal. In Koch Bihar, for instance, the educated classes, from H.H. the Maharaja downwards, talk Bengali, but the common people still talk the primitive Bodo speech of the country. The differences in mere syllabic pronunciation between Sanskrit and Bengali are remarkable and interesting and can, thanks to I.P.A. script, be recorded. The differences in phrasal accent are less easily set out in print, but I will try to find room below for a word on that subject also.

The Sanskrit alphabet, as now usually transliterated, is very easily learnt. It is as follows:

	Vowels		Surds.	Sonants.	Nasals.	Semi-vowels.	Sibilants.
	Short	Long					
Gutturals..	a	ā	k	g	ṅ	—	h
Palatals ..	i	ī	c	j	ñ	y	ś
Cerebrals ..	ṛ	ṝ	ṭ	ḍ	ṇ	r	ṣ
Dentals ..	ḷ	ḹ	t	d	n	l	s
Labials ..	u	ū	p	b	m	v	—

There are also four diphthongs—namely, e (a+i), ai (ā+i), o (a+u), and au (ā+u). To the ten surds and sonants must be added the ten aspirated forms of these letters, for each of which a separate character is provided. These are usually transliterated kh, gh, ch, jh, etc. The queer vowels, ṛ, ṝ, ḷ and ḹ are pronounced, rɪ, ri, lɪ and li, and are a mere pedantic result of the phonetic theory that all sounds are pronounced in one or other of five parts of the oral cavity.

Now let me give, in I.P.A. script, the sound of these symbols in Sanskrit and Bengali respectively:

1. *Sanskrit.*

	Vowels		Surds.	Sonants.	Nasals.	Semi-vowels.	Sibilants.
	Short	Long					
Gutturals..	ʌ	*a*	k	g	ŋ	—	h
Palatals ..	ɪ	i:	tʃ	dz	n	j	ʃ
Cerebrals ..	rɪ	ri:	t	d	ɳ	r	ʂ
Dentals ..	lɪ	li:	t	d	n	l	s
Labials ..	u	u:	p	b	m	v	—

Diphthongs, e, aɪ, o, au.

The dental letters are pronounced by touching the tips of the upper teeth with the tongue; the cerebral letters by touching the base of the upper teeth. Palatal n is just our n when pronounced with a palatal letter. Compare these sounds with modern Bengali:

2. *Bengali.*

	Vowels		Surds.	Sonants.	Nasals.	Semi-vowels.	Sibilants.
	Short	Long					
Gutturals..	o	a	k	g	ŋ	—	h
Palatals ..	ɪ	i:	tʃ	dz	n	j, dz	ʃ
Cerebrals ..	rɪ	—	t	d	ɳ	r	ʃ
Dentals ..	—	—	t	d	n	l	ʃ
Labials ..	u	u:	p	b	m	b	—

Diphthongs, e, oi, o, o^{u}.

It will be observed that owing to the new pronunciation of the three sibilants, of y and of v, we have redundancy. The sound of w is written as the symbol oy between two vowels, the latter of which is, I think, always ā. (The y is merely a 'hinge letter'; oa is much the same as French *ouah*=our *wa*.)

So far, the transition of sound is easily recorded, and easily grasped by anyone familiar with I.P.A. script. But a and ā also undergo another change, a very interesting one, for which readers of M.L.T. may be able to suggest parallels in Romance languages. Bengalis seem unable to pronounce the fairly common compound consonant kṣ, which becomes kkh. So also compounds of other consonants with a following v or y are shirked by Bengali tongues. If the compound consonant is initial, it is lengthened; if it is in the middle of a word, it is doubled.

Thus the written word svīkār is pronounced ʃ:i:kar; pretya is pronounced pretto.

But that is not all. An initial compound of this sort, if followed by a or ā, modifies the sound of subsequent (1) a or (2) ā. A medial or final compound modifies the sound of a *preceding* (3) a or (4) ā. This will easily be seen from the following examples:

(1) kṣamā=kh:ema; vyathā=b:etha; vyakti=b:ektɪ.

(2) kṣānta=kh:ænto; tyāg=t:æg; vyāpār=b:æpar.

(3) akṣar=oɪkkhor; kalya=koɪllo; satya=ʃoɪtto.

(4) sākṣī=ʃækkhi:; mānya=mænno; bādhya=bæddho.

This rough summary gives the principal differences between the pronunciation of the same words in Sanskrit and Bengali respectively. It remains to give as brief an account as possible of the dominant phrasal accent of Bengali. It is mainly an accent of duration, and is initial. Thus, in poetry, it occurs on the first

syllable of a verse, and on the first syllable after each cæsura. Bengali verse is 'syllabic' in the same sense as French verse, and, as in the French alexandrine, rhythm is due to the accent attendant on cæsura. In fact, the *payār*, the heroic verse of Bengali, singularly resembles an 'alexandrin renversé.' The phrasal accent *follows* a pause, instead of preceding and announcing a pause as in French. As in French, the dominantly audible syllables are long syllables, followed by several clearly but rapidly pronounced atonic syllables. (Students of French verse will please believe that I make these dogmatic statements as rough and tentative approximations merely.)

Finally, may I venture to say that the symbols *tʃ* and dz will be considerable obstacles to the adoption of the I.P.A. alphabet in India? This is much to be regretted. No one can doubt that the still numerous unwritten languages of India should be recorded in I.P.A. script. I heartily regret that it was not in use when in my distant youth I made records of some of the languages of North-Eastern India: Kachari, Tippera, Aka, etc. Moreover, even in the case of languages which use the Sanskrit alphabet, the I.P.A. alphabet can be put to good use, as I have tried to show above. But take a case like this: A frequent complaint in the magistrates' courts in Bengal is that someone has used kutsit badjabān. The pronunciation of this, as written in I.P.A. script, is kut*ʃ*it boddzoban. But this is also the I.P.A. record of the possible phrase kucit badjabān. Yet no Bengali has any difficulty in avoiding the assimilation of t and *ʃ* into the sound which in English we write as ch. I cannot give a similar instance for dz, since the sound of z does not occur in Bengali. But most people who study Indian languages will be inclined to agree with what Mr. W. L. Thompson says in his article on 'Reprɪzente*ʃ*ən ɔv t*ʃ*, dz' in *Le Maître Phonétique* of May, June, 1914. It is difficult to resist a suspicion that these symbols were originally employed by Frenchmen, because, for them, ch is associated with the sound it has in *chose*, and j with the sound it has in *jamais*.

However, I am no phonetician, and I have no desire to be dogmatic on this point. I will merely repeat that if we could keep c and j for the sounds of Indian c and j, we should find it easier to get Indian scholars to use the script now in universal use in Europe. It is worth while to make some concession. The Indians were acute and observant phoneticians before our era, and early reduced the assimilations and other phonetic changes of Sanskrit to definite rules, by which, alas! the spelling of Indian modern languages is still governed, though these rules no longer represent the existing phonetic facts.

J. D. Anderson.

MEMORANDA (ADOPTED BY THE GENERAL COMMITTEE).

MEMORANDUM ON THE TEACHING OF RUSSIAN.

The question of the study of Russian in schools is much more complicated than that of French or German, or even of Spanish and Italian. Unlike the first two languages, it has no tradition or body of teaching experience behind it; unlike the last two, it lies much more off the beaten track of common knowledge and ideas. This 'exoticism' may act as a stimulant to the venturesome; but it acts equally as a repellent to the cautious and indolent, and affects the status assigned to Russian in popular estimation more powerfully almost than the practical difficulty of introducing it in schools.

The War has indeed greatly influenced the attitude of the public and of educationalists to the question of Russian studies. Considerable enthusiasm has been roused for the language and for the necessity of a closer understanding between the two countries. To this extent an attempt to introduce Russian into school-teaching has probably become easier. But in justice to the language and the people of Russia, it must be said that the study of Russian is not any more desirable now than it was, in fact, before the War. Apart from certain practical considerations brought to the fore by the present situation, but also easily overstated, the claim made here for its consideration derives its weight by no means directly from the actual political relations between the two countries.

The complexity of the question renders it all the more necessary to distinguish between what is *desirable* in respect of Russian studies and that which is *possible* for giving effect to such hopes or ideals.

A.—Desiderata.

1. Practical.—The *practical* advantages to be derived from a study of Russian have fre-

quently been urged. Here the War and its probable consequences touch the question most directly. But it is precisely here that clearness of vision is essential. The advantages are generally *professional*, mainly *commercial*, and to some extent *scholastic*.

Our future trade relations with Russia are necessarily obscure. They will depend upon a number of circumstances, among which the *rapprochement* between our countries is a powerful but only very vague factor. In practice much more will depend on certain internal changes in Russia herself: the extent, for instance, to which she is being industrialised at the present moment; the extent to which she will, in consequence, be able herself to supply in future the technical resources and the skilled labour for her industrial production, and the degree of permanency which her present industrial organization will assume. In short, the necessity should not be overlooked, to which Russia, like every other country, has been awakened by the War, of rendering herself as self-supporting as possible. For that purpose Russia is placed in particularly favourable circumstances. She possesses in European Russia, and more especially in Siberia and Turkestan, possibilities greater than any other country in the almost unique combination of mineral and agricultural wealth. Even in her European territory the geological survey, carried out by the University of Moscow and to be completed in another few years, constantly adds to the former by new discoveries. Mongolia has attracted some time ago the attention of Russian economists as a cattle-rearing centre quite as vast as that of Argentine or Australia. These circumstances place our future business relations with Russia upon an especially important plane, and should give pause to the attitude, not quite unfamiliar here, which regards Russia as a potentially rich but actually poor country, ready to absorb the benefits of our exports. Russia will not improbably be able to supply herself with a large proportion of machinery, agricultural implements, dairy appliances, and electrical apparatus which she used (decreasingly) to import from here. At the same time, she will not only be ready but obliged (in order to secure a normal rate of exchange) to supply us on a larger scale than ever before with precisely those things which we either do not or cannot produce ourselves—viz., food and, at no very distant date, minerals. Yet we may be able to assist her materially in the development of her own resources, as for some time to come she may not be able to support the enormously increased industrialization entirely unaided, and has to compete, especially in Siberia, against American, but particularly Japanese, enterprise.

In respect of purely commercial relations other factors and changes will influence our business dealings almost equally strongly. Russian commerce is struggling to free itself from German tutelage, under which it has stood for nearly 200 years. Whether she will succeed or not remains to be seen. Geographical proximity, commercial backwardness, German methods, and our own lack of initiative and our caution, may render such an ideal unattainable. A great deal will depend on her own enterprise in adapting herself to future conditions, and on her wisdom in utilizing her human material. Equally important are the changes in the commercial treaties between herself, ourselves, and Germany, and changes in her commercial legislation and her business methods. The legal difficulties encountered in business dealings have admittedly restricted our trade relations in the past, and the widespread system of secret commissions still in vogue is both a scandal and a most serious obstacle to business-like intercourse.

These and similar factors, lying apparently quite outside linguistic questions, should be recognized by both sides, when people talk with vague enthusiasm of an unprecedented development of our trade relations. They do not, however, detract in the least from the importance of Russian as a study. They rather emphasize the necessity of a knowledge which cannot be obtained otherwise than by a familiarity with the language of the country. The question whether or no such changes do take place will affect the rate of increase of our trade relations rather than the increase itself. The foregoing considerations suggest that what will be required is not a passive buying-and-selling process, but an active and resourceful trading development. Men with a knowledge of Russian will be needed as agents, representatives, and correspondents, as managers of works and agricultural exports. If the proposed 'foreign trade bank' is actually established, a concrete career will be thrown open for men with linguistic qualifications, and instruction in at least the rudiments of the language at school will provide access to positions both lucrative and attractive in later life.

There is, further, the opening of a scholastic career, both here and in Russia. In this country such a career is, indeed, part of a vicious circle. If Russian is to be taught in schools, teachers will be required, and the teaching of Russian

now will help to secure a supply in the future. The question of University studies may also be conveniently mentioned here. It is hardly sufficiently realized that, if Russian is to be studied at the Universities as it admittedly should be, some preparation at school is essential. The failure of our Universities to develop vigorous Russian schools is directly due to the absence of any such preparation. It not only places intending students of Russian at a grave disadvantage compared with students of French and German, but renders a regular 'rotation' of students impossible. As far as Russia is concerned, the want of teachers of English is likely to become acute. The Russian educational authorities appear, in contrast to ourselves, to prefer foreign teachers. The access to such posts requires, however, the passing of an examination instituted a few years ago by the Ministry of Education. Though it would be easy to arrange for the exemption of Englishmen in subjects of general education, in which they have passed a recognized test here, the Russian authorities insist very rightly upon knowledge of Russian itself.* An elementary knowledge of Russian is consequently essential for securing such appointments, which offer not inconsiderable attractions.

2. EDUCATIONAL.—*Educationally* the study of Russian appears desirable on three counts: *historical*, *literary*, and *linguistic*.

If we claim to-day that Russia as a country, a nation, and the home of a literature and civilization, should be studied for educational reasons, it must be remembered that as recently as in the generation of our fathers, Russia was regarded as our enemy *par excellence*. Such are the vagaries of political history. The consequence is that, combined with our usual ignorance of the country and its people, the general attitude towards Russia should inevitably display a survival of certain prejudices, exaggerations, and misjudgments, which only education can correct. Many such prejudices appeal to the political bias which our democratic habits have developed; others rest upon differences of religious dogmas and institutions; others, again, on humanitarian grounds. The general effect is a composite picture, in which facts and fictions, enthusiasms and condemnations, are combined in a presentation as grotesque in its totality as inaccurate in its details. Russia appears as a purely agricultural and therefore eminently peaceable country, yet, on historical evidence, as an essentially aggressive polity; its Government is 'a despotism tempered by assassinations,' in practice as malicious and stupid as it would like to be far-sighted and benignly patriarchal; its bureaucracy and upper classes as corrupt and selfish as only a closed corporation can be, while almost all former reforms were initiated by members of its aristocracy from sheer public-spirited philanthropy; its peasantry is presented, according to the point of view, now as the living emblem of humaneness and patient self-sacrifice, now as drink-sodden and barbarous, and its culture either shrouded in the darkness of the Middle Ages or permeated by a peculiar spirituality destined to regenerate the world. To disentangle these confusions, to temper the exaggerations, and to introduce some perspective into such a picture, requires knowledge which can hardly be obtained by 'reading about it' in translations. A sane judgment and an historical appreciation both of Russia's achievements and of the causes of her shortcomings have become a matter of urgency and moment ever since Great Britain abandoned her 'splendid isolation,' and has been forced by historical necessity into closer contact with the Continental Powers.

Russian history and civilization would be objects eminently worthy of study even if they were of less practical importance than they have come to acquire for Britain.

The Russian Empire, united in one continuous territory, comprises almost as great a variety of races as that of Great Britain and her colonies, and her colonization has been as marked and successful a feature of her national life as it has been in our own. Politically in her formation and growth, first as a bulwark to the Tartar flood threatening European civilization; then as an empire aspiring to the heritage of lost Byzantium; later thrown open to Western conceptions of commerce, industry, and political life by the imperious will of Peter the Great; stemming the tide of Napoleonic conquests; creating the Balkan States and taking upon her shoulders the protection of Christendom in the East; and finally achieving one of the most stupendous internal reforms which the world has witnessed: Russia is for the historian a subject as engrossing as it is illuminating. The educational value of her history is all the greater as the basis of her life and the conditions of her national being differ radically from the nature and history of all Western nations.

If her intellectual life (in the Western sense of philosophical and scientific thought) appears —and in part is—of relative youth, it is neither

* This regulation has been temporarily suspended.

more negligible in point of fact nor less brilliant on that account. 'Metaphysical passion,' the devotion—often extreme and uncompromising—to ideas, is perhaps one of the most striking traits of Russian character. To speak of her literature may be superfluous. Its influence during the nineteenth century, though small in this country, has been profound and lasting on the Continent. Some of its outstanding names are household words even here. To mention others as yet unfamiliar to English ears might savour of the foolish attempt to impress the reader with celebrities to him unknown. They are, however, gradually coming into their own even among the general reading public (as, for instance, Aksákov from among the older writers, or Kuprín among the moderns). But certainly two features of Russian literature, of importance educationally, deserve mention: the fact that Russian literature, by reason partly of its youth and partly of circumstances, has hardly ever reached that degree of divorce from actuality which Western literatures frequently display, and reflects, therefore, more directly currents of thought and problems of human life; the second feature is the delicate balance—one of its artistic triumphs—of realism, often frank and unflinching, and a spirituality which finds in it its emblem and embodiment.

A language is, after all, simply an avenue to knowledge and understanding. This would be a mere platitude were it not that the study of a language is persistently regarded, in this country at least, as a mere accomplishment, which, like caligraphy, is pleasant and attractive, but enables you neither to say more nor to think or know more than you otherwise would. It is studied as if its possession were an end in itself, and this form of intellectual snobbery, so widespread among the general public, is encouraged by the scholastic profession in the belief of furthering 'scholarship.' Yet it is not for the sake of the language and its mere possession that a language is ever acquired, nor should it be studied for that sake (except by the philological specialist), but for the sake of that insight which the possession of a language carries almost unconsciously with it, and of that knowledge which it renders indirectly accessible. In the case of Russia this is all the more important, as the greater part of the information, becoming available through translations, reflects the views of the translator and the financial forecasts of his publisher rather than the actual conditions of things. Nowhere is impartial vision more constantly distorted by harshly conflicting political opinions, by business interests, by diplomatic intrigues, and the whole topical actuality of the present situation. Government repression and the curtailments of free speech appear to have rendered Russians more suspicious and sensitive and more adept at meaning more or meaning other things than they say than almost any other people in Europe. Under these conditions it is much more important that a man should be able to read for himself, and form his opinions for what they may be worth, than to be spoon-fed by fanatics or cranks.

About the language itself it is practically impossible to make any *general* statement worth making. But a few remarks on some special aspects may be permitted. As far as its educational possibilities are concerned, all the particular advantages claimed for German are offered by Russian to an equal extent. It has the reputation of being very difficult. As an unqualified statement this is certainly untrue. There is a great difference between reading Russian and speaking or writing it. The former is relatively easy, the latter difficult. The language is distinguished (1) by its highly developed inflections, (2) by its facility for forming compounds. In this second characteristic it resembles German, though carried to a higher pitch. The elements of compound words retain more fully their original meaning, and it is this feature which imparts much more concrete picturesqueness to the language and renders the reading so much easier. It is probably no exaggeration to say that knowing 500 words puts one into actual possession of another 2,500 for reading purposes. The obverse is the considerable difficulty in the right use of such compounds, with their peculiar, often very subtle, shades of meaning. The accidence is rich, but rather less chaotic than in German. That of the verb is relatively simple, though complicated by the peculiar Slavonic feature of the 'aspects' of the verb. The 'aspects,' denoting the difference between single and habitual, complete and incomplete, definite and indefinite action, correspond approximately to the difference between *imparfait* and *passé défini* in French, but extend over the whole conjugation; they make great demands upon a sense of language and logic, and constitute, perhaps, the most intricate part of the whole grammar. The syntax is extremely simple, and presents no difficulties for English students. The stress accent displays disconcerting vagaries. But this is a difficulty not unknown in other languages, and can be met by practice and the use of accented texts. The pronunciation, except for certain sounds and habits of speech, is no particular obstacle. A proper phonetic treatment would speedily overcome such difficulties. By far the most formidable difficulty which ex-

perience has revealed is the acquisition of a working vocabulary. Russian offers very few identities or even striking resemblances with Western tongues in this respect. But it cannot be sufficiently emphasized that this obstacle, almost insurmountable to the adult, is child's play to the young. Their power of rote memory, if used before it gives place to associational memory, makes Russian a peculiarly fitting study for schools.

3. Political and International.—Already last year a number of Chambers of Commerce in Russia approached the Ministry of Education with the proposal to introduce regular instruction in the language of the Allies. Quite recently the Ministry has issued a decree giving effect to this ideal and making English compulsory in all (secondary ?) schools under its jurisdiction. The question presents itself: What are we going to do in return ? The step taken by Russia appears to be inspired as much by the ideal motive of an intellectual *rapprochement* as by practical, commercial reasons. But an intellectual *rapprochement* must rest upon a mutual, not a one-sided understanding; and there seems to be a widespread feeling in this country that from a national point of view our relations demand a special effort. Schemes are afoot, organized by Chambers of Commerce and educational authorities, to encourage and promote the study of Russian.* Several benefactions have set up classes for Russian at some of the Universities. Scholarships have been founded at one of the Oxford colleges, and Entrance Scholarships are offered at several colleges at Cambridge. Increasing numbers of people are learning it privately. The feeling seems to be spreading even in the Government services. Already for some time special increases in salary have been given, both by the War Office and Foreign Office, to members of their services who acquire a knowledge of Russian. The reconstruction of our Consular service in Russia has been mooted. Are the schools, who could do more than any other institution in the way of preparing the ground for future extension of knowledge and organized study, going to stand aloof ? It must be remembered that even a little preparation would make all the difference between interests left lying fallow and the soil at least cleared and, if only superficially, ploughed.

To speak of future political developments would be futile prophecy. But if one thing stands out from the present chaos of interests it is this: All future political happenings, both here and elsewhere in the civilized world, will be far less the outcome of Government politics and far more the results of national sentiment than they have ever been in the history of the world since the disappearance of the small City-State. The prospects of civilization and of peace will depend on the degree of personal enlightenment which will inspire and support such a national will. From this point of view, far more than from that of a special class interest, whether commercial, industrial, military, or diplomatic, an education in matters Russian is a national need. Russia and Great Britain are the two countries in the Eastern Hemisphere which by reason of the territory occupied by them, of the resources and wealth they possess, and of the enormous influence which they wield over a vast number of peoples—above all, because of the similarity of the tasks before them, and of the differences in the spirit with which they approach their solution—must before all others reach a fuller, saner, and more intimate understanding of each other than they achieved in the past. To hope for this without a knowledge of each other's idioms is a vain and foolish hope.

B.—Possibilities.

To turn from what is desirable to what appears attainable.

1. Actual.—A general summary is here appended of the present state of the teaching of Russian in the Universities and schools. (See Appendix.)

2. Future.—It will probably be admitted that the extent of Russian teaching at present realized in Universities and schools is in no sense a measure of what could be done. Our present teaching suffers under several disadvantages. Not the smallest is the very lack of interest which Russian has attracted until recently. Against this we may balance the present enthusiasm for the language, but we have no assurance that it will last in its present strength. It is probable that it will decline rather than grow, and steps should be taken without delay to substitute for the actual uninstructed enthusiasm a permanent and enlightened interest by placing the study of Russian upon a well-organized basis, and by establishing it as a more or less habitual subject of teaching. Here, again, it is desirable to lay stress upon the connection of University with school studies, and to point out that a more extensive study at the Universities, prepared by courses at school, would in many ways be effective for rendering Russian more permanently a part of our educational equipment.

(*a*) If any development of the study of Russian is to be secured beyond the point now

* *Cf.*, for instance, the letter addressed to the Foreign Office by the Manchester Chamber of Commerce on October 6, 1916.

reached by individual enterprise, an organization must be set up capable of removing some at least of the disabilities referred to above.

Such an organization would probably start with the assumption that Russian is never likely to become a first language in schools, and would therefore never be taken up before the age of fifteen or sixteen. It would consequently be taken either as an alternative to Spanish or German, or as a third language with either Spanish or German. The combination Spanish and Russian presents no advantages, either educational or practical. But the combination German and Russian would be valuable not only commercially, but also educationally. From the commercial point of view it may be said that it is almost as valuable to know the language of your competitor as of your client. Educationally the fact is important that the general 'make-up' of Russian, its use of compounds, and many idioms show great similarity with the corresponding features of German, and a knowledge of German unquestionably places a pupil at a considerable advantage, in spite of the difference in the actual vocabularies. The position of Russian as a third language, with German as a second language, has, therefore, much to recommend it in place of Russian or German as alternatives.

(*b*) It is hardly to be expected that Russian will ever be taught in *all* schools. Some principle of selection is therefore required to obtain the best results with the simplest and most adequate means.

This is largely a matter of the 'classification' of schools:

(1) Russian should form part of the curriculum of certain commercial and technical schools, *either* such as devote themselves to branches of technology or commerce of special utility for trade with Russia, *or* in districts prominently connected with Russia by business relations.

(2) Practical courses should be included in military and naval schools.

(3) At the same time care should be taken against the error of creating Russian studies exclusively for practical purposes. We should thereby not only neglect other aspects of Russian equally important, but would defeat our most important object in introducing Russian in schools—viz., that of preparing pupils for advanced University courses, of securing future teachers, and generally setting up an 'educational tradition' in Russian. The extent to which this object can be served depends neither on the commercial bias of certain areas nor on the actual needs of certain professions, but on the far-sighted policy of educational and scholastic authorities and on the supply of teachers.

(*c*) The lack of teachers is, indeed, one of the principal difficulties of the present situation. A considerable number of persons—the actual numbers are quite unknown—are at present engaged in teaching, many with little or no qualification for the work. This is to some extent inevitable, and no slight is intended against many who have offered their services deliberately as stop-gaps or provisional helpers. But many others see in the actual situation rather a chance of securing positions for which they are in no sense fitted. University authorities, governors of schools, and headmasters, should exercise the greatest caution in making appointments which can afterwards be cancelled only with great difficulty and never without giving offence. Here some advisory body is needed to whom application could be made for counsel and suggestions.

The remedy for the lack of teachers is threefold. They can be either trained or imported. Training will naturally take some time, and provision should be made to secure it. Importation could be resorted to in conjunction with the Board of Education, perhaps on the lines of the arrangements made with the French Government. But in no case should such arrangements be of a permanent character.

The third—really supplementary—means is the mobilization of all forces at present available and their most effective use. For this purpose, again, some central body is required to collect the necessary data (as to numbers, local distribution, and qualifications) and to make the necessary adjustments to meet the demands of schools. It is here that 'classification' would mean a great economy of forces; for, with a little organization, one teacher could probably attend to a whole area or conveniently divide his time between several schools from some central point. Such an arrangement would also go far to meet the financial difficulty which small classes impose both on schools and teachers.

(*d*) Lastly, some organization is needed for collecting and sifting an adequate teaching apparatus. This includes both grammars, text-books, and readers, but also pictures, maps, slides, phonographic records, and books for library use. Unless organized, a great deal of unnecessary duplication and overlapping must result from scattered efforts, entailing much needless expenditure, where money, as it is, is a not inconsiderable difficulty.

A special side-issue of this point is the development of means for phonetic teaching, which has produced such excellent results in the case of other languages.

APPENDIX.

For the information contained in the appended statement concerning the teaching of Russian in this country I am indebted for the greater part to the individual Authorities, University Registrars, Headmasters, and Education Committees, who replied to my inquiries with the greatest kindness. The information concerning Scotland has been most courteously furnished by the Scottish Education Department. The information presents the situation as it was in November-December, 1916. The figures refer to the number of students.

I.—ENGLISH UNIVERSITIES.

Name.	*Total.*	*Elementary.*	*Advanced.*	*Remarks.*
Birmingham ..	—	—	—	No courses are held at present, but a Russian lecturership has been established, and work begins in the New Year, under Dr. L. Segal.
Bristol	11	11	—	Evening course, Lecturer: Dr. Maximilian Nierenstein.
Cambridge	6	4	2	Three of these are members of Newnham and Girton, reading for Honours Course. Reader: Mr. A. P. Goudy.
Durham: Armstrong College, Newcastle	60	48	12	Courses arranged by Faculty of Commerce. Day classes, three times a week; attendance, 9. Evening classes, twice a week; attendance, 51. Lecturer: Mr. H. G. Coundouroff.
Leeds	—	—	—	Classes have not yet begun, but a Committee is sitting to consider the organization of a Russian Department.
Liverpool	5	2	3	There are no students for the Honours School. The school has been much affected by the war, as under the Military Service Act most of the elementary students are sent to the School of Commerce.
London: King's College	35	22	5	The total includes a commercial class. Other courses, literary and elementary. Lecturer: Mr. Trofimov.
Manchester	22	—	—	4 classes held (adv., comm., convers., elementary). 16 out of the 22 students are evening students. Director: Prof. Sedgefield, assisted by Mr. A. S. Mindel.
Nottingham: University College	44	29	15	Day classes, 11; evening classes, 33, combined with a course on Russian History. Lecturer: Mr. B. Slepchenko.
Oxford	11	10	1	The total gives 9 women, 2 men, none of them reading for Honours Course. Lecturer: Mr. N. Forbes.
Sheffield	45	40	5	Lecturer: Mr. G. A. Birkett.
Southampton: University College	—	—	—	There were courses in 1914-15: 7 men. 1915-16, 5 men desired to form a class, but no teacher was available. Dr. Hill would restart courses if a suitable teacher could be found.

II.—SCHOOLS.

All the schools which replied to letters of inquiries are given in the subjoined tables, even if no Russian courses are being held. At the same time the list is not intended to be exhaustive. The time-limit set for the presentation of the Memorandum made it impossible to make inquiries of *all* schools in England.

Name.	*Total.*	*Elementary.*	*Advanced.*	*Remarks.*
Bradford Grammar School	No courses.	—	—	
Brighton College ..	No courses.	—	—	The matter has frequently been considered.
Bristol Gram'ar School	No courses.	—	—	
City of London ..	15	15	—	Taught as extra subject (2 hours a week); the pupils were selected from about 35 applicants. Good progress is reported. Teacher: Mr. Trofimov of King's College.
Charterhouse ..	No courses.	—	—	
Cheltenham	3	3	—	Next term Russian is to be introduced into the general curriculum; at present taught as extra. It is proposed to take it as alternative to German, 4 hours a week.
Chigwell	No courses.	—	—	Owing to small size of the school, it has not been found possible to include Russian.
Clifton	No courses.	—	—	The matter is awaiting a favourable opportunity.
Dulwich	1	1	—	'There seems to have been lack of response on the part of the pupils.'
Eton	16	16	—	3 hours a week extra; boys keen. Teacher: Mr. Underwood.
Eastbourne College ..	No courses.	—	—	
Haberdashers: Aske's	No courses.	—	—	
Haileybury	No courses.	—	—	
Harrow	No courses.	—	—	'Although we have been considering the subject.'
Highgate School ..	No courses.	—	—	It is hoped to start classes next year, if a suitable teacher should be available.
Holt School, Liverpool	30	—	—	As an extra subject.
Gresham School, Holt	No courses.	—	—	
King Edward School, Birmingham	No courses.	—	—	The question is under consideration, 'but the great difficulty seems to be to find a suitable teacher. If you can throw any light upon this, the Headmaster will be very grateful.'

Name.	*Total.*	*Elementary.*	*Advanced.*	*Remarks.*
King's College, Wimbledon	No courses.	—	—	
Leeds Grammar School	No courses.	—	—	
Leys, Cambs ..	3	3	—	4 hours a week. Good progress. Teacher: Mr. Goudy.
Liverpool College ..	No courses.	—	—	'No Russian here as yet.'
Malvern	No courses.	—	—	The Headmaster is of opinion 'that the language is better suited for intensive study than to fill 2 or 3 hours in the already rather overfull time-table of the young Mod. Lang. Student.'
Marlborough ..	No courses.	—	—	
Mill Hill	No courses.	—	—	
Oundle	20	8	12	Arrangements were made already before the war.
Owen's School, Islington	No courses.	—	—	But one boy is learning Russian out of school hours.
Radley	No courses.	—	—	Classes will probably be established in the New Year.
Repton	2	2	—	Not as part of the regular curriculum. One of the staff is competent to teach it.
Rugby	No courses.	—	—	
Shrewsbury	No courses.	—	—	
St. Paul's	No courses.	—	—	
Perse, Cambs ..	No courses.	—	—	But the introduction of Russian is projected.
Princess Helena College (girls)	60	60	—	The three highest forms do 2 periods a week. All are beginners. Teacher: Mr. Trofimov, King's College.
Stoneyhurst	No courses.	—	—	At present. Last term there was 1 pupil; one of the masters is competent to teach Russian.
Tonbridge	22	15	7	A subject since 1915.
University College, Hampstead	No courses.	—	—	
Wellington	No courses.	—	—	
Winchester	No courses.	—	—	
Wolverhampton ..	No courses.	—	—	
Whitgift, Croydon ..	No courses.	—	—	

III.—SCHOOLS, COLLEGES, AND INSTITUTES UNDER JURISDICTION OF EDUCATION COMMITTEES.

Education Committees.	*Total.*	*Elementary.*	*Advanced.*	*Remarks.*
Birmingham ..	31	14	17	At Municipal School of Commerce. 2 hours a week for each class. Teacher: Mr. C. Pashkovietzky.
Birmingham and Midland Institute	49	32	17	Each course 1½ hours weekly. Assisted by Birmingham Chamber of Commerce. Established September, 1915, with 31 students. Teacher: Mr. C. Pashkovietzky.
Bradford	281	267	14	One of the schools is an ordinary secondary school. Another is a commercial institute.
Brighton	9	9	—	3 hours a week. Last session the number was 20.
Cardiff	30 (?)	15 (?)	15 (?)	'Two classes of between 10 to 20.' Courses started 1915 at Technical College. Teacher: Miss Malony.
Derby	24	15	9	Started 1916 at request of Derby Chamber of Commerce. Teacher: originally Mr. A. E. Guerney; now Mr. S. Khromchenko.
Hull	40	—	—	Started in Central School of Commerce in September, 1914 (!). Supported by Chamber of Commerce. (Party of young students taking Russian as first language, which the authorities consider unsatisfactory.)
Leamington	9	—	—	Started in autumn, 1916.
Liverpool	93	21	9	Commercial travellers — The High School of Commerce maintained by Liverpool Chamber of Commerce.
		40	13	Commercial students — The High School of Commerce maintained by Liverpool Chamber of Commerce.
Leeds	25	25	—	Day and evening classes (five times a week); 11 students. Evening classes (twice a week); 14 students.
Leicester	73	—	—	3 classes held per week of 1½ hours each. Teacher: Mr. B. Slepchenko.
Middlesborough ..	7	7	—	Started last winter and well attended until 'groups' were called up; now only 7. Teacher: Mr. Katz.
Northampton ..	13	13	—	2 hours a week. Course was started by Mr. G. Dabert until he was called up; continued by Mr. Bimstone.
Sheffield	63	52	11	Central Evening School. Course started 1915, three evenings per week, 2 hours each. Teacher: Mr. L. Glattman. Progress satisfactory.

Education Committees.		*Total.*	*Elementary.*	*Advanced.*	*Remarks.*
London	Aided Institutions	3	—	—	Bermondsey Settlement.
		5	—	—	Borough Polytechnic.
		90	—	—	City of London College.
		74	—	—	Regent Street Polytechnic.
		25	—	—	Toynbee Hall.
		23	—	—	Wandsworth Technical Institute.
		12	—	—	Working Men's College.
		5	—	—	Day School of City of London College.
	L.C.C. Technical Institute	9	—	—	L.C.C. Norwood Technical Institute.
	L.C.C. Evening Commercial Institutes	33	—	—	The Balham.
		11	—	—	The Brixton.
		25	—	—	Choumerd Road.
		10	—	—	Catford.
		10	—	—	Fulham.
		18	—	—	Greenwich.
		11	—	—	Haverstock Hill.
		27	—	—	The Hugh Myddelton.
		81	—	—	The Hugh Myddelton (Bolt Court).
		86	—	—	The Marylebone.
		14	—	—	Northwold Road.
		36	—	—	Paddington.
		23	—	—	Plough Road.
		30	—	—	St. George's Row.
		9	—	—	Upper Hornsey Road.
		23	—	—	William Street.
		11	—	—	Woolwich.

N.B.—The L.C.C. have sanctioned the introduction of Russian into the curriculum of the Council's Secondary School under certain conditions (such as the existence of a qualified teacher, parents' consent, etc.). Application was received from one school, but refused, as it was impossible to satisfy all conditions.

IV.—SCOTLAND.

(*Figures kindly supplied by the Scottish Education Department. They include only institutions inspected by the Department.*)

Centre.	*No. of Students of Russian.*
Glasgow and West of Scotland Commercial College	61
Dundee Technical College	50
Aberdeen: Robert Gordon's Technical College	54
Aberdeen: Robert Gordon's Secondary School	10
Classes at eighteen centres under the Continuation Class Code ..	391

MEMORANDUM
ON
THE STUDY OF GERMAN AFTER THE WAR.

In considering the position of the study of German after the War, it is necessary to view the question dispassionately, and any changes introduced during the course of the present War should be calmly and seriously weighed. Any precipitate action at the present stage likely to jeopardize the future position of the study is therefore to be deprecated. The question of the inclusion or exclusion of any particular language should depend upon its value to the Nation in the widest sense, and not so much upon any feelings, whether of friendship or hostility, to the people or peoples by which it is spoken.

In the special case of German at the present juncture we cannot dispose of the problem by any hasty generalization. To say, for instance, that if German was a ' good subject ' before the War it is a good subject now, contains such an admixture of the false and the true that it tends more to confuse than to clear the issue. We shall do better to recognize the fact that the War *has* changed, and changed for some time to come, the conditions under which we live and work, and to adjust our point of view to the new circumstances which have arisen.

The value of any particular language as a part of the educational curriculum, and its claims to be made a staple subject, depend upon an aggregate of various factors, of which the following, if not the only ones, are at any rate the chief:

1. Its formal value as an instrument of mental training.
2. The value of the intellectual and artistic treasures enshrined in it, and its contribution to modern thought.
3. The proximity of the country and the extent to which travellers visit it for educational and other purposes.
4. Its utilitarian value from a commercial and military point of view.

Of these values three are affected in a greater or less degree by the War, and only the first remains entirely unchanged.

1. To those who believe in the value of formal linguistic training German, as a highly inflected language, should appeal, as possessing those very qualities for which Latin is held to be so valuable.

2. Of the contributions of German-speaking countries to European thought in science, literature, and philology, as well as in the more debatable subjects of history and philosophy, only experts in these special fields can speak with full authority; but we feel sure that the large majority of them would strongly deprecate any denial of the utility to other nations of those contributions.

3. Travel in Germany and Austria and personal intercourse with the two nations will doubtless be on a very small scale after the War, and so far that inducement to learn the language will to a large extent be lost. At the same time the loss of this aid to learning will render necessary still greater efficiency in the training of our experts at home.

4. It is not possible to give any exact forecast of the commercial relations of England and Germany after the War, but whatever form they may assume, there is no doubt that a knowledge of German and German conditions will be required for commercial purposes. In the future it will be even more necessary than in the past that there shall be in responsible quarters people possessing an adequate knowledge of German and all that the study of German in the widest sense should imply.

If we enter upon that longer competition with Germany by which this War, whatever its issue, is bound to be followed, or the unequal terms suggested by some extremists—namely, that the Germans shall fight equipped with our language, learning, and science, as well as their own, while we rely only on ours—the disadvantage to us is obvious. If we are to remain their enemies, we shall be more formidable enemies for knowing their language and making use of their science and learning. If we are ultimately to resume normal relations with them, the argument becomes unnecessary.

In view of all the facts now known, we imagine that few would maintain that the attention devoted to the study of German in our schools and Universities before the War exceeded the limits justified by the importance of a knowledge of German and the German-speaking countries. We hold that it in no way adequately reflected that importance. [See ' Study of German in Secondary Schools '; Letter to the President of the Board of Education (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, October, 1909); and Report on the conditions of Modern (Foreign) Language Instruction in Secondary Schools (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, March and April, 1908).]

The study of German has inevitably suffered during the War, but we are of opinion that to allow any further diminution to take place, or even to accept the present reduced scale as permanent, would be to the national disadvantage.

THE LOST VALUES OF THE ALPHABET, AND HOW TO RECOVER THEM.*

THE alphabet is the greatest factor in progressive civilization. To show truly what the alphabet has done for humankind in its progress towards civilization is beyond the power of a few simple words. To find a comparison for the boon that the alphabet has been to men we must follow flights of Oriental imagination. It is the magic horse, that could transport a man thousands of miles in a moment; it is the invisible cap by which we can be there without being seen; it is the power to see and hear at a distance. But it is more than the gift of some mighty magician or fabulously wealthy king to another. It is the gift of a people to all peoples. It is for all, not for a few, nor for a privileged caste, to use and to conceal from the multitude. It is the symbol of the liberty, equality, and fraternity of the early Christians' dreams, and the means whereby we shall attain these.

We received the alphabet from Greek hands, whence has come so very much of European culture. But it originated with an Asian people. We may well pause to ask what we have ever done for Asia in return for this transcendent gift of a phonetic alphabet.

How have we guarded this priceless treasure? We have allowed it to fall half into ruins, and for centuries no voice of warning was lifted to preserve it.

We have been far more careless with our alphabet than other European peoples. Our standards as to accurate sound notation have always been lower. Where we have more variations of sound than other peoples, we have no letter variations to denote them. Like the Dutch, we have resorted to a makeshift of two-letter notation for vowels, but we have neglected to form intelligent, uniform habits of using even this digraph makeshift.

For the twelve recognized vowel sounds in English, we have only five vowel letters.

For the *ah*-long sound, 'the leader in all alphabets,' heard in the word *father*, we have no letter-mark to distinguish it from *ah*-short, unless the letter 'u' set beside the 'ah' letter in some words having the consonant 'n' may be so considered, retained in the words *aunt* and *launch*. The association of *ah*-long letter with the 'r' trill consonant following it usually implies this sound, as in the word *hard*, but it also shares this denotation with *o*-broad, as in the word *ward*. We have an unfortunate English eccentricity in naming the first letter of the alphabet 'eh,' and in using it for that sound.

Eh-long is denoted in six different ways, all commonly used: first, as in *eight*, *veil*, *neighbour*; second, as in *late*, *wake*, *cave*; third, as in *paid*, *laid*; fourth, as in the adjective *great*, and the noun *steak*; fifth, as in *they*; sixth, as in *day*, *stray*; and in the word *fête* we borrow the usual representation of it in the Latin languages.

The one-stroke letter is the representative of *ee*-long in the languages of our neighbours. We use this notation in a good many words—*machine*, *police*, *caprice*, *mosquito*, *unique*, and others, but in our commonest words we have very conflicting representations of it—by one monotype, and by five different digraphs, or seven, if the words *key* and *people* are reckoned. The monotype for *ee*-long is seen in the words *he*, *we*, *cede*, and in several common prefixes, *pre*, *de*, and others; and the various digraphs for 'ee' are found in the words *feast*, *leap*, and about forty of similar spelling; in the words *see*, *feel*, and some forty others of common use; in the words *yield*, *priest*, and several others; and in *deceive* and a few others.

O-long is denoted by 'o' in the words *no*, *post*, but takes a silent letter after it in the words *note*, *pose*; and the digraphs used for *o*-long are as in *coat*, *boast*, and a few similar uses; as in *own* and *crow!* and (very unreasonably) as in *foe* and a few other cases.

O-broad is variously denoted in a few score of common Anglo-Saxon words, its worst representatives being in *water* and *walk*, and in *caught* and *fought*.

The short vowels are most numerously used, and the present usual forms of our five vowel letters should be retained for them, as all students agree. Our trouble with these is to get rid of the foolish digraph makeshift which has been carelessly used to denote both long and short vowels in such words as *mead* and *meadow*; and in one very important word, the verb *to read*, it is impossible in script and print to indicate, by the orthodox spelling, the difference between 'I read' (present tense) and 'I redd' (past tense).

The only short vowel which needs special attention is *u*-slurred, as in the words *but*, *crust*, and many others, and the very frequent prefix

* A paper read at the meeting of the Ontario Educational Association, at Toronto, Easter, 1917.

un-. This sound, according to Dr. A. J. Ellis, was not used before the middle of the seventeenth century, and we may wish, but probably wish in vain, that English north-countrymen could restore to us the old full pronunciation of the fine vowel 'u,' instead of which our Lancashire men are copying Southern English now, and naturally sometimes go a little farther, and pronounce 'bull' like 'bulge' and 'cull.' Before long, more of our *u*-sounds will be degraded into *u*-slurred, inevitably, unless our present infinitely muddled notation is reformed.

It is necessary to look at, and also to 'read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest,' a synopsis of our vowel notation, so that we may feel the full shame of it as we ought to feel it.

Our Vowel Notation.

Ah-long: ant, ark, launch, half, mast, staff, laugh, last, aunt.

Ah-short: an, amity, stand, pat, lattice, alkali.

Eh-long: age, hate, eight, they, take, great, care, yea, hey-day, exclaim, hair.

Eh-short: edge, yes, learn, friend, leopard, bread, read, heard, any, men.

Ee-long: ease, be, he, priest, seek, seize, cede, proceed, read, hear.

Ee-short: it, bit, build, Briton, forfeit, kin.

O-long: oak, lo, soul, don't, obey, note, post, coal, foe, show, sew.

O-broad: awkward, for, all, broad, water, walk, nought, naughty, plausible.

O-short: on, not, doll, was, wan, alter, often, quantity.

U-long: ooze, true, prove, lose, rule, moot, shoe, do, two, fool.

U-short: put, wood, could, look, wool, sugar, full.

U-slurred (seventeenth-century 'u'): under, cub, dove, done, sprung.

Diphthong Sounds.—Au: owl, out, loud; *ai:* aye, ride, kind; *iu:* you, use, unity, few, mute; *oi, oy:* oil, joy, alloy, foil.

Our children get no benefit from a phonetic alphabet as regards vowel sounds. Every word must be learnt separately as though it were a Chinese ideograph. There is not a word in the English language that anyone, from hearing it pronounced, can spell, nor from seeing it printed can with certainty pronounce.

Vowels may be considered the most elementary and essential sounds of spoken languages, and language might, perhaps, with careless peoples, slip back wholly into vowels, were it not for the check of the visual language of print. The Londoner is apt to degrade the word 'hill' into 'yeo.' And a conversation in Scotch vowels has been reported, which concerned the purchase of some woollen goods. ''Oo'?' queried the customer. 'Ay, 'oo',' was the reply. 'A' 'oo'?' pressed the customer, who was then assured, 'Ay, a' 'oo'!'

Yet in visual language the consonant letters are the letters which give words their distinctive forms, their usually ascending and descending character providing a good outline, while the vowel shapes are squat and rounded.

In changing and modifying the vowel letters, we do not disturb the familiar word-shapes in the same degree as in altering consonant letters. In fact, reform of vowel notation, while most needed, can also be accomplished with least annoyance to the present generation, or those of them who shrink from seeing changes.

Tampering with consonants in print is irritating to many. True vowel notation will do away with the necessity of doubling consonant letters as we now do in the attempt to indicate shortness of the preceding vowel, which is one of the difficulties of English spelling.

Moreover, the most antiquarian of language scholars can scarcely suppose that with our confused uses of vowel letters much 'history in the language would be wiped out,' as the late Professor E. A. Freeman feared. Professor Freeman's influence probably counted for something in keeping us self-satisfied and lazy, and ignorant of what a true phonetic alphabet means. He was in the line of Dr. Johnson, who so unfortunately stereotyped our muddled spelling. As the guest of a lively hostess he was aptly described as 'a nice old bear.' He was a great Old-English scholar, no doubt, but incapable of grasping a big practical problem of reform.

With our vowel notation once rationalized, we shall be able to ask our historical friends some gentle little questions about consonants. Whether, for instance, they might not be satisfied with reading about the gutturals which our ancestors sounded in the words 'fought' and 'thought,' instead of recalling these gutturals every time they read or write these words; or whether they would prefer restoring the sound of them, as in the true Scotch pronunciation.

English spelling is a barrier placed at the gate of knowledge which prevents many from ever becoming truly literate. The precious school-time of all is wasted in memorizing this arbitrary and illogical spelling, and this memory work is actually made the test of education! A complete alphabet and the intelligent use of it can be learnt in a few days, as was proved by the missionary, James Evans, who gave the Cree Indians an alphabet for their language which they were able to use in a week, and some of

them mastered it in one day. A German has truly said of English schools: 'The standard to be attained is set very low, and the achievements are tragic, thanks largely to the incredibly antiquated spelling and the complicated money, weights, and measures tables' (*Kölnische Zeitung*, 1916).

Why are our University magnates content to see our alphabet half in ruins? I do not fully know; but I do confidently assert that their contentment could be shattered once for all if every trained and conscientious teacher would clamour for alphabet restoration. We must have a true alphabet to teach. Where there is a will there is a way—with professors. I do not commend the way of the great revolutionists who spoke the saddest word ever heard in a revolution: 'We do not need learned men.'

Our best hope lies in the teaching profession. A teachers' charter would insist upon true and progressive reform of language notation. Such a charter would demand the due recognition of the noblest of all professions by the granting of professional degrees. The M.A. degree is never equivalent to a teacher's training, and should never be so regarded. University powers should never pass into the hands of those who are ignorant of the psychology of teaching. To University ignorance of teaching is due the neglect of the foundations of learning.

But not only teachers are responsible; all should love and cherish our language. We cannot safely leave the restoration of alphabet values to anyone who may come forward to do the work, whether professionally or as a hobby. We should watch and test such work as carefully as that of building a house in which we are to live. Millions of our children and of their children in every generation are to live and move and have their mental being in the English language. Every letter and every turn of every letter should be scanned. The attempt recently made (no doubt with good intentions) to thrust the digraph method of vowel notation upon the English language in perpetuity should be a warning to us. This two-letter notation, so wasteful of time and space, is most faulty of all, from the point of view of teachers' psychology. It would appear in many common Latin-derived words at present free from it. The proposal of this makeshift cannot arouse the enthusiasm and spirit of self-sacrifice necessary in a great reform. Fortunately, this method is not at all favoured west of the Atlantic.

The importance of recognizing Continental values in letters is a weighty consideration, for we have suffered too much from Anglo-Saxon singularities. But the valuable work of the French phoneticians must not blind us to the interests of English notation. We were warned in the Sweet article on Phonetics in the *Encyclopædia Britannica:* 'It is well suited for French . . .' but it is 'an attempt to make a special adaptation of the Romic basis to the needs of the French language into a general notation for all languages.'

The Phonotype Alphabet of Sir Isaac Pitman is, I believe, the best basis we have to work upon, giving slight but distinct modifications of our present letters to denote the sound modifications. Some changes of the Pitman letters may be needed, and some slight strokes may have to be thickened as more suitable for the typewriter. The letter for *eh*-long is excellent; it is a rounded form of the capital E. *Ah*-long should have a rounded form of capital A, instead of Pitman's reversed 'a,' which is psychologically faulty. This will readily form into the two diphthongal characters needed. For *ee*-long, a frank compromise between our 'i' and 'e' letters has been suggested, having most of the one-stroke letter of Continental usage; it has a rounded hook top and a dot. There is a very good letter for *o*-broad, an 'o' having a kind of kidney shape, shortened. The Pitman *u*-long is distinguished by a slight descending elongation of the second limb. A narrow form of the capital U-shape, as in several other proposed vowel lists, has been recommended for *u*-slurred.

Every exponent of a reform has some cherished detail to dwell upon. I wish to be champion of the letter 'y,' on which some spelling reformers seem inclined to lay violent hands and to divert from its present usual functions. This 'consonantal-vowel' letter, as it has been called, begins or ends many familiar, and, I may say, beloved, English words—*yes, yesterday, youth, you, they, lovely, funny, joy;* and many other pleasant or characteristic English words. 'Y' is harmless retained for optional use in beginning and ending words, as equivalent to *ee*-short (i), for the present, at least. Thus the continuity loved by scholars would be less broken and our alphabetical books of reference less disturbed.

The necessary vowel changes, modifying letters, will not be painful, and we shall see little of them for several years outside of the schools in which they are adopted for our children. This reform is advocated not as a pleasant pastime, but as an imperative duty. The study of it is, however, most interesting.

A most important avenue of hope lies in the great need of India for Romanic letters.

The duty of providing a phonetic alphabet for optional use in the 147 languages of India cannot long be deferred; and what we can give away we

can surely provide for ourselves. If we push this reform, the great duty of our Empire, we are helping ourselves also. At the present time we are allowing one man, the Rev. J. Knowles, to work at this reform in loneliness and difficulties, without even funds necessary for printing, though his experience and linguistic knowledge are most valuable to us for the work.

I believe the educationists of Canada are more alive to the great issues of education than others, and that they have a great deal in their power.

DORA FORSTER KERR.

PLACE OF SPANISH IN SCHOOL CURRICULA.

UP to the time of this present war the study of Spanish in England had been for the greater part the pursuit of placid scholars and curious travellers. We know with what haste Thomas Shelton turned to the task of translating *Don Quixote* as soon as the first Brussels edition came into his hand. From that time to the present no country outside Spain has given to the study of Spanish life and literature more ability and time than England. To-day, however, the plane of Spanish is raised above that of the savant or the dilettante. Worthy, and more than worthy, of the labour and time spent upon it by those who loved the language, Spanish now must enter the plane of utility, and its claims to consideration in educational circles must be considered.

Why do we teach any foreign language in our schools? And what claims has Spanish in particular that we should include it in our curriculum? The value of a language may be placed under three headings:

1. Its utilitarian value, either in the commercial world or for purposes of travel.
2. Its literary value.
3. The linguistic value of the language.

I have placed the utilitarian or commercial value first because I believe that our education in the future is to be more materialistic, and that studies will be included in the curriculum, not only because of their value as mental training, but also because of their usefulness in after-life. Education has for long been divorced from commerce, but England, as a commercial nation, will tend to mould her education more in conformity with her commercial needs.

The study of Spanish for the Englishman is a matter not merely of importance, but of imperious necessity. In that greater struggle which is to come after this present war—the struggle for markets wherein to earn the wherewithal to pay for the war and to live—those countries unaffected by participation in this war will be the dictators of the commercial world. In order to help to pay our expenses we must be able to sell our goods in foreign markets. Where are those markets to be? Of all the great buying nations of the world South America is the most important. France, Germany, Russia, Japan, and Italy will have little to spend on imports, and will all endeavour to extend their markets so as to bring in money. They will all concentrate on the one great non-manufacturing country, South America, and unless we are to lose our great American trade we also must concentrate our efforts in that direction.

What are we offered in return for our efforts?

South America contains a Spanish and Portuguese speaking population of over 70,000,000. Spain has 21,000,000 more, and the population of Spanish and Portuguese speaking countries in other parts of the globe brings up the total to over 100,000,000. From Cuba to the Philippines, from Chile to the Hispano-Hebraic towns of the Levant, there are in all twenty-two States where Spanish is spoken, and next to English it is the most important commercial language in the world. Outside Germany and Austria, German has little commercial importance, Russia is the language of only one country—although a large one—Italian has a limited sphere of utility, but Spanish is the language of twenty-two countries, all with differing needs and aims. Is not the trade of these countries a prize worth striving for? The South American States are benevolently inclined towards England, but owing to our neglect of Spanish and a consequent neglect of Spanish interests there has been a decline in English trade. England's trade with South America in 1913 totalled over £120,000,000 in value. Furthermore, English capital to the extent of over £600,000,000 is invested in South American railways, waterworks, canals, and industries. The importance of our relations with South America may be judged from these figures.

Our imports from South America in 1913 totalled 9·8 per cent., being surpassed in total only by the U.S.A. Our exports to South America and Spain totalled 10·4 per cent., but in 1909 South America was our largest customer. We have gradually been losing our monopoly of South American trade because we have neglected to study local conditions and requirements, and we now have an adverse balance where a credit used to be. Germany and the U.S.A. are both taking the trade which we once had, and we are losing a fair prize.

We must keep and increase our hold on the trade of South America, but how are we to do

this? We must send out men who know and appreciate local needs, men who know Spanish, for the Spanish trader will prefer to deal with the man who can study him and his requirements. Germany is preparing for a trade conquest in South America. Every German prisoner who has passed his 'abiturienten' examination is now learning Spanish, and unless we are to fall behind in the race for this trade prize, we also must learn it and teach it in our schools, for the resources of Cuba, the Philippines, Spain, and South America are still largely untapped, and, when their time comes, Spanish will achieve an even greater importance than to-day.

We are compelled to buy from South America, for it is one of the chief sources of our food supply, and we must pay in merchandise. If we do not secure a great part of the import trade of South America, we must lose heavily. Let us learn Spanish, and so learn to cultivate the nations which will once again be our greatest customers if we but take the trouble to provide for their needs.

The claims of Spanish literature are ample and strong. From the writers of the Silver Age—Seneca, Martial, and Quintilian—to this present day, the chain of great writers is almost unbroken. The classical masterpieces of Fray Luis de Leon, Cervantes, Tirzo de Molina, Lope de Vega, and Calderon de la Barca, combine realistic vision with the portraiture of typical local traits. Realism has always been a dominant note in Spanish literature, and to-day Spain possesses what is generally acknowledged to be one of the most important realistic schools of novelists in the world. The works of Pareda, Juan Valera, La Condesa Padro Bazán, Fernan Caballero, Perez Galdos, and V. Blasco Ibañez, deserve the international repute which they have earned.

South American writers and poets are winning a place in the foremost ranks, and some, such as Ruben Dario and Bello, are recognized leaders.

In romance, history, lyrical poetry, epic verse, and drama, Spanish writers can challenge comparison with those of any other nation, while Walter Pater says that 'in its wealth of dramatic writing, Spanish is unrivalled.' Coventry Patmore is even more eulogistic. For school use there is a very wide choice of reading matter, for Spanish literature is virile, imaginative, and clear, while the sensual note found in the literatures of the other Romance tongues is not to be found in the works of the great Spanish writers. The language which has no great literature is indeed a poor one, but Spanish can claim equality with the best. The task of learning the language would be amply repaid only by the pleasure and knowledge which the Spanish and South American literatures afford.

As a linguistic and mental training, Spanish has many advantages. A Romance language, it is akin to Latin, French, and Italian, and offers little difficulty to any student possessing a knowledge of any of these languages. Its beauty of phrase and sound and the luxuriance of its idiom make it an excellent school study, apart from its utilitarian value. Its spelling is almost phonetic, for with rare exceptions there is in Spanish one sound for each sign and one sign for each sound, and thus it is very easy for an English student to acquire a good pronunciation of Spanish, which has only five different vowel sounds. The chief difficulty in the study of Spanish is the irregular verb, but even this is not so difficult as in French or Italian, and can be reduced to a very simple system.

We must remember that the student who takes up the study of a second foreign language does not do so before the age of fourteen to fifteen, so that the comparatively limited time available must be taken into consideration in determining its nature.

A good working knowledge of Spanish may be given in a year to a class averaging fourteen to fifteen years in age, which has already studied either Latin or French, taking four periods a week. In two years such a class can obtain a knowledge of Spanish that will enable it to appreciate the beauties of Spanish literature, as well as the stereotyped formulæ of commercial Spanish.

Since it is generally recognized that women are destined to play a greater part in the commercial world than they have hitherto done, Spanish is an ideal study for Girls' Schools. In what is, perhaps, the largest Girls' School in England, Spanish has been included in the curriculum with, I am told, excellent results. 'The girls love the study and make progress, so much so that at the end of the second year they were able to begin to translate an English novel into Spanish. Such a rate of progress is, I maintain, not possible with any other language.

I have received letters from many schools in which Spanish has been included in the curriculum, and in no case has there been cause for regret.

For its linguistic, literary, and commercial value, Spanish should be included in the curricula of the schools of this commercial nation. No other language offers the facilities and advantages presented by Spanish, and the beauty of the Spanish language was acknowledged by Charles V., that polyglot monarch, Emperor and ruler of half Europe, when he told the Papal Legate that he spoke 'Spanish to his God, French to his mistress, Italian to his servants, and German to his dogs.'

E. A. Woolf.

SOME NOTES ON THE RUMANIAN LANGUAGE.

THE Rumanian language is probably one of the most composite languages in existence. It is made up of elements taken from different languages, which occur, according to the Rumanian lexicographer Cihac, in the following proportions: 3,800 Slavish words, 2,600 words descended from popular Latin, 700 Turkish, 650 Modern Greek, 500 Hungarian, and 50 Albanian words. Besides these, there are in Rumanian a certain number of words which have hitherto resisted the efforts of scholars to explain. The Romance part of the Rumanian language is particularly interesting, as it contains a number of words proceeding from the Latin which have disappeared from other Romance tongues. Such are 'inteleg' (*intelligo*), 'armasariu' (*admissarius*, a stallion), 'arunc' (*erunco*, to weed out), 'ata' (*acia*, sewing-thread), 'bour' (*bubalus*, a buffalo), 'fat' (*fetus*), 'gangur' (*galgulus*, a bird, loriot), 'lucru' (*lucrum*), 'placinta' (*placenta*), 'secere' (*sicilis*, a sickle), 'vitreg' (*vitricus*, a stepfather).

Rumanian differs from other Romance languages by the fact that, though its vocabulary of the words most used in ordinary life, as well as its grammar and inflexions, are mainly derived from the Low Latin, yet the majority of its words come from non-Latin elements—namely, from the languages cited above. The Latin element in the language, then, bears to the non-Latin element much the same relation as Anglo-Saxon to the French element in the English language. Rumanian falls into three main dialects: the Daco-Rumanian, spoken in the region west of the Danube; the Macedo-Rumanian, mainly spoken in the Turkish provinces; and the Istro-Rumanian, spoken on the Istrian coast. Of these, the Daco-Rumanian is by far the most important; it is the dialect of Rumanian literature, and is spoken by 95 per cent. of the whole Rumanian people. When the Roman colonists occupied the country, it is agreed by all authorities that they found in possession a population speaking a so-called Illyrian, or Dacian, dialect, of which modern Albanian is a more or less near descendant; and this dialect has affected the form in which Latin passed into Rumanian. Rumanian is in some respects best grouped with Italian, in virtue of certain features which these two languages possess in common. The most striking of these is the disappearance of final *s*; this treatment of final *s* has largely influenced the declensions and the conjugations in this group. In the Western Latin languages it is the accusative which assumes the function of every case, even in the plural; but this arrangement could not hold good for this group, because of the coincidence which would have occurred with the characteristic sound of the singular. *Annos, dominas, panes*—in this group the nominative of the first and second declensions was employed (*dominæ, anni*), and the plural of the third conjugation was formed after the model of the second (*pani*). In the same way, in order to distinguish *laudas, taces, scribis* from *laudat, tacet, scribit*, the *i* of the fourth conjugation was maintained and introduced into the other conjugations—*cf.*:

Italian: Anno, anni; donna, donne; pane, pani; lodi, loda; taci, tace; scrivi, scrive; dormi, dorme.

Rumanian: An, ani; doamna, doamne; pine, pini; lauzi, lauda; taci, tace; scrii, scrie; dormi, doarme.

As against the French: An, ans; dame, dames; pain, pains; loues, loue; tais, tait; écris, écrit; dors, dort.

The syntax of Rumanian has been affected by Albanian in the post-positive position of the article—domin*ul*—in the same way in which the Scandinavian languages have been affected by the Finnish—*cf. Politiken*, etc.; and it is further supposed that the numerals 11 to 19, formed by the insertion of *spre*=*super* (11=*un-spre-zece*, one upon ten), are formed on the model of Albanian and Bulgarian. The three languages agree in the non-possession of an infinitive, which is formed by the theme of the verb and a particle—thus, *a face*, to do. But it is possible to construct sentences in Rumanian which may be understood by anyone conversant with Latin and any modern Romance language. As an example I take the following passage from Wechsler's *Praktisches Lehrbuch*:

'Curiositatea este o dispositiune fericita.
Curiositas est una dispositio felix

si laudabila cand ne face sa ne instruim
sic laudabilis quando nos facit sic nos instruamus

de lucruri utile, sa ornam memoria
de lucris utilibus, sic ornemus memoriam

nostra cu fapte interesante: insa cand
nostram cum factis intéresants—(but) quando

o dirigem spre futilitati si afaceri
illam dirigimus supra futilitates (and) affaires

intime altor omeni, ea devine un
intimas alterorum hominum, ea devient unum

viciu degustatoriu, adeca indiscretiune.
vicium dégoûtant adeoquo indiscrétion.'

On the other hand, it is possible to find many

sentences mainly composed of Latin words, which are, however, hard to detect as such—*e.g.*:

'Negutatorul fricos nici nu castiga nici nu pagubesce.' (A timorous merchant neither gains nor loses much.)

'Audi cum cruntul dusmanu asalta noastre ziduri?' (Dost hear how the cruel enemy assaults our walls?)

The Rumanians employ, in order to represent the thirty-one sounds of their language, the Latin alphabet. They formerly employed the so-called Cyrillian alphabet, which contained thirty-six letters. This alphabet had the advantage of having a separate letter for every sound, but it had the drawback of concealing the Latin origin of Rumanian by its use of Slav letters, and it was for this reason rejected, as the Rumanians are very proud of their origin, and are endeavouring to exhibit in every way the Latin elements in their language.

On the other hand, the Latin alphabet, which, including the letter *j* (a late addition), possessed twenty-five letters only, was incapable of rendering all the sounds even of spoken Latin; the modern Romance languages feel the want even more keenly, and find themselves obliged to use one and the same symbol for several sounds, sometimes, however, using diacritical or other signs to mark the new function of the letter. An instance is French *g*, which before *e* and *i* sounds like *j* in *jour*, or like *z* in *azure*. Thus, in Rumanian, *c* is used to express the sound of *c* in *cera* in Italian (tsche); *e*=*ye*; *j*=French *j* in *jour*; *s*=*s* in English *son*; *ş*=*sh* in *sh*one; *ţ*=*tz*, etc.

The Cyrillic alphabet is so called after Cyril (A.D. 820), the Apostle of the Slavs, who with Methodius converted the Bulgarians to Christianity, and created the alphabet of the Old Church Slavonic. This alphabet is based upon that used by Byzantine Greeks, and was employed in the translation of the Bible, which laid the foundation of Slav literature. The days of the week come from the Latin (genitive)—*Luni, Marti, Mercuri, Joi, Veneri*. The numerals are from the same source—*un, doi, trei, patru, cinci, sase, sapte, opt, noasa, zece*—but from 11 to 19, as noticed before, the Albanian and Bulgarian have influenced the formula *un-spre-zece*, etc. The word for 100 is Slav (*suto*)—*cf.* Russian *sotnia*.

It may be interesting, in order to show how mixed a language Rumanian is, to cite some of the suffixes in use:*

(*Au*)tomn*atec* (Latin *-aticus*), belonging to autumn; acr*eala*, Slav suffix *-éli*, acid; vectri*men* (Latin *-imen*), old age; putre*june* (Latin *-ionem*), idleness; uns*oare* (Latin *-oria*), ointment; ars*ura*, a burning; cinep*iste* (Slav *ischt*), hempfield; laptag*iu* (Turkish suffix), milkman.

H. A. Strong.

EN CLASSE.

From 'Le Temps.'

—. . . Élève Gourdache, dit M. l'instituteur Poireau, votre copie!

L'élève Gourdache, qui avait fini sa dictée depuis cinq minutes et occupait subrepticement ses loisirs à dévisser un des pieds de son pupitre, fit glisser dans sa main gauche, avec une silencieuse adresse, la vis qu'il tenait dans sa main droite, et de celle-ci tendit son cahier, les yeux pleins d'une fausse candeur. M. l'instituteur commença de lire:

'. . . L'un des crimes qui furent le plus justement reprochés à l'Allemagne au cours de cette guerre fut la destruction de la *Lusitania*. . . .'

—Vous n'écouterez donc jamais ce qu'on vous dit? gronda M. Poireau, découragé. Vous ne comprendrez donc jamais ce qu'on vous dit? Je vous ai suffisamment expliqué, pourtant! Je vous ai expliqué que ce n'était plus l'Académie française, que ce n'était plus les bureaux du ministère de l'instruction publique qui dictaient les lois de la grammaire. Ce sont les journaux, et principalement les journaux du matin. Et cela se conçoit, cela est rigoureusement raisonnable. Car on l'a dit bien souvent, qu'est-ce que la grammaire, sinon l'usage? On ajoutait, aux siècles de réaction et d'obscurité, 'l'usage des honnêtes gens,' entendant par là le beau monde. Mais il n'y a plus d'honnêtes gens, il n'y a plus de beau monde, il n'y a plus de conversation. A la place, il y a les journaux. Quand on a lu son journal le matin, et puis le lendemain, et puis le surlendemain, on parle comme son journal, c'est inévitable.

'Or les puissants écrivains et les admirables philologues qui rédigent ces journaux ont proclamé une loi, une grande et nouvelle loi qui déracine la langue française de ses bases antiques et lui donne un aspect imprévu, aussi puissant qu'original: c'est que l'article ne doit plus s'accorder avec le genre du substantif qui le suit, mais avec le genre, j'ose dire, pour être plus clair, avec le sexe de la chose que représente ce substantif. Lusitania est du féminin quand ce

* Cited by Tiktin in Gröber's *Grundriss*, p. 457.

vocable signifie, en latin, le pays allié appelé en français Portugal. Mais quand il représente un bateau, un paquebot, un navire du sexe masculin, enfin, il faut dire le *Lusitania*.

—J'ai compris, déclara l'élève Bouquin.

—Qu'est-ce que vous avez compris ? demanda M. Poireau, mécontent d'être interrompu.

—Par exemple, répondit l'élève Bouquin, on devrait s'exprimer ainsi : 'Pour visiter la Lusitanie, pays où les oranges sont excellentes et à bon marché, je suis monté à bord du *Lusitanie*.'

—C'est exact, affirma M. Poireau. Élève Bouquin, vous aurez un bon point. L'exemple est très bien choisi.

—Et moi, fit l'élève Bouchut, intervenant, je trouve au contraire qu'il est idiot.

—Monsieur Bouchut, dit sévèrement l'instituteur, les dernières circulaires ministérielles nous conseillent d'encourager chez les enfants un esprit de libre discussion qui doit développer leur intelligence et leur sens critique. Mais il convient d'observer dans ces discussions les règles de la modération et de la courtoisie. Retirez le mot.

—Je le retire, concéda Bouchut. Mais je persiste à juger que l'exemple est mal choisi, ou bien que la phrase est incorrecte. En effet, il faut dire : 'Je suis monté à bord du *Lusitanie* pour visiter le Lusitanie,' puisque si, derrière le mot *Lusitanie* pris dans le sens du navire, il y a l'objet paquebot, qui est du masculin, derrière le mot Lusitanie pris dans le sens de pays, il y a l'objet pays, précisément, lequel est aussi masculin.

—C'est juste ! réfléchit M. Poireau. Élève Bouquin, je vous retire votre bon point et je le transporte à l'élève Bouchut, dont je vais lire la dictée : cet enfant me paraît avoir perçu l'esprit de la nouvelle loi grammaticale.

Mais à cet instant, de nombreuses protestations se firent entendre. Elles furent accompagnées de contre-protestations. Le débat devint confus.

—Il a tort ! Bouchut a tort ! . . . Lusitanie est un pays, mais c'est aussi une république, et 'république' est du féminin. . . . Oui, mais avant c'était un royaume, et 'royaume' est du masculin. . . . Ça ne prouve qu'une chose : c'est qu'il fallait dire 'le Lusitanie' avant la révolution, et 'la Lusitanie' depuis la révolution. D'abord il faut bien qu'une révolution change quelque chose !

Là-dessus, M. Poireau commença de se trouver embarrassé, parce que toutes ces observations, toutes contradictoires, étaient toutes justes.

—Il faut appliquer la loi, affirma-t-il vaguement, et sans préciser davantage de quelle manière il la fallait appliquer. . . . La preuve, c'est que le ministère de la marine a cédé devant les journalistes, le ministère de la marine lui-même : il dit le *Lusitania*, comme eux, après avoir essayé quelque temps de lutter. Voyez-vous, la puissance des journalistes est irrésistible : et ils se plaignent de la censure ! . . . Je vais lire la dictée de l'élève Bouchut :

'L'espoir des empires centraux, disait celle-ci, fut que la guerre ne durerait que quelques mois. La conviction de l'état-major allemand était qu'en six semaines, deux mois au plus, Paris serait prise.'

— . . . Prise ? fit M. Poireau avec hésitation, prise ? Cela est choquant. On dit que Paris est beau, ce me semble, on ne dit pas qu'il est belle. On écrit qu'il est impulsif et généreux, non pas qu'il est impulsive et généreuse.

—Monsieur, répliqua Bouchut avec assurance, c'est une ville !

—Je n'y avais pas songé, admit M. Poireau après avoir médité, et cette raison suffit. Paris est une ville, c'est même une capitale, ce qui fait deux raisons. Donc il faut dire qu'il n'a pas été prise. L'ancienne grammaire était d'un avis différent. Elle posait pour principe qu'il fallait s'en référer à l'étymologie, à l'origine latine. Paris venait de *Parisii*, qui était un pluriel masculin. Il était donc masculin. Rome venait de *Roma*, qui était féminin. Elle était donc du féminin. Comme Mantoue, Toulouse et Marseille, qui sont tirées de *Mantua*, *Tolosa* et *Massilia*. Si l'on s'en tenait à cette règle, il faudrait écrire que Monastir a été pris par les alliés, car ce nom vient de *Monasterium*, qui est neutre. Mais puisque personne ne sait plus le latin, comment respecter cette règle ? Les journalistes impriment donc que Monastir a été prise par les alliés, par la raison que c'est une ville. Mais alors Paris. . . . Bouchut, vous avez encore raison ! Continuons.

'. . . L'énergie de la France fut la même sur tous les points du territoire. De Cette à la Rochelle. . . .'

La Rochelle n'avait pas changé de genre. Honteusement, et sans l'avouer, M. Poireau s'en applaudit.

'. . . De Cette à la Rochelle, et du Gros-Caillou au Villette. . . .'

— . . . Le Villette, demanda-t-il, où mettez-vous cette localité ?

—On disait auparavant la Villette, répondit Bouchut, mais puisque c'est maintenant un quartier, après avoir été un village !

—Bouchut, soupira M. Poireau, vous avez raison !

'. . . Et du Gros-Caillou au Villette, elle fut égale. Cette indomptable espérance fut récompensée par la victoire de la Marne. Quelques personnes ont attribué celle-ci à l'intervention de

Jeanne d'Arc, mais on ne saurait être assuré qu'il y soit pour rien.'

— . . . Qui, il? interrogea M. Poireau, déconcerté cette fois.

—Jeanne d'Arc, monsieur, répondit Bouchut, levant des yeux candides: puisque c'était un guerrier, et que c'est en qualité de guerrier qu'il a sauvé la France.

—Allons! conclut M. Poireau, résigné:

'. . . On ne saurait être assuré qu'il y soit pour rien. Mais ce qui est certain, c'est que la résolution des femmes de France ne le céda point à celle de leur devancière. Infirmières ou paysannes, dans les travaux des champs comme dans les œuvres de guerre, elles ont su montrer la même indomptable courage.'

—Ici, avoua Bouchut, j'ai peut-être été un peu loin, en apparence. Toutefois je suis logique: du moment que la qualité 'courage' appartient à une femme, j'ai estimé que le possessif devenait du féminin. . . . Il est inutile de continuer, monsieur: je crois avoir, dans le reste de cet exercice, scrupuleusement observé les sains principes de la loi nouvelle. C'est ainsi que j'ai écrit que la victoire de la Marne—la Marne est une rivière, et rivière est du féminin—avait évité à nos armées de se retirer jusqu'au Seine, et du Seine au Loire: ces cours d'eau sont des fleuves, et 'fleuve' est du masculin.

—C'est idiot! ne put s'empêcher de crier M. Poireau. C'est complètement idiot!

Mais toute la classe, levée, protesta.

—L'esprit de libre discussion, qui doit développer l'intelligence et le sens critique, ne saurait empêcher d'observer les règles de la modération et de la courtoisie! . . .

PIERRE MILLE.

SUGGESTED ALTERNATIVE TO PRESENT SENIOR LOCAL EXAMINATION IN MODERN LANGUAGES.

(*See* MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING *for March, p.* 60, *Section B.*)

FREE COMPOSITION TEST.

IT may perhaps interest readers of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING to hear that a Free Composition test, on the lines suggested by the General Committee in the above Report, was set as an Interschool Competition in the West Riding, Yorkshire, on March 9, 1917.

The age regulation, restricting the competition to candidates who were fifteen on August 1, 1916, proved somewhat unfortunate, excluding alike those who were sixteen at that date and those who, though at the right stage and well prepared, were not fifteen till after that date. Nine schools, however, competed, and sixteen papers were sent in.

In each case a complete form took the examination, and of the papers written, two from each school, chosen by the teacher, might be sent in for adjudication by the examiner, Mr. L. de Glehn.

On the lines suggested (Section B in the Report), a story was read aloud by the teacher and the appended headings written on the blackboard. The prize was awarded to Daisy Hill (aged sixteen and five months), of the Secondary School, Harrogate, whose reproduction with the story and headings is printed below. Bracketed next to her in order of merit were Flora Lister, of the Dewsbury Wheelwright School, and Donald Hill, of the Elland Secondary School. It is satisfactory to note, in a first experiment, that though this test was a new one to all the competitors except one, five of them came out in the First Class, seven in the Second, and only two in the Third Class.

THE STORY.

La Cuisinière et le Cocher.

A gentleman discovered one day that there had long been a dispute between his cook and his coachman. They could not settle which of the two was to fetch the milk from the farm for breakfast. That was why the milk was generally late, and sometimes did not appear until the meal was over.

So the master summoned both his servants, that he might hear what each had to say and settle the point once for all.

The cook complained that the coachman lounged about the kitchen, doing nothing the best part of the morning, and yet was so ill-natured that he would not fetch the milk for her, although he saw she had not a moment to spare. The coachman alleged it was none of his business.

"I see," said the gentleman; and turning to the cook he continued: "You admit it is your business to fetch the milk, but you say you have not time to do so." Then addressing the coachman, he said: "And you, my fine fellow, you admit you have the time to fetch the milk, but contend that it is not your business. Well, what *is* your business in this establishment?"

"To take care of the horses and clean and drive your carriage, sir," replied the coachman.

"You are right," said his master, "and I do not expect you to do more than your duty. Accordingly, you will get up at six every morning, put the horses to, and drive the cook to the farmer's for the milk. This, I hope, will enable you both to perform your duty to my complete satisfaction."

With that he walked out of the room, and from the next day onward the milk was punctually served every morning.

Headings: Découverte du sujet de dispute entre les deux domestiques.—Ce que fait le maître.—Ce que disent les deux domestiques pour se défendre.—Réponse et décision du maître.—Résultat.

PRIZE VERSION.

La Cuisinière et le Cocher.

C'était un beau jour d'été; le soleil brillait, les oiseaux chantaient joyeusement, lorsque M. Dubois descendit l'escalier de sa maison. Il se levait toujours de bonne heure, ce monsieur; l'horloge de l'église voisine avait sonné huit heures comme il sortit de sa chambre-à-coucher. Le bean temps était si attirant—si attirant: et M. Dubois allait à la chasse ce matin-là avec son ami M. Cosson. Sifflant gaiement, il ouvrit la porte de la salle-à-manger. Le couvert était mis; le repas était bien entendu, seulement—il ny avait pas une goutte de lait. Or, M. Dubois raffolait le lait frais. Impatienté, il sonna la bonne. Une minute—deux minutes—cinq minutes; personne ne vint. "Ces coquins de domestiques!" murmura-t-il. "Que diable font-ils?" Tout en colère, le maître alla à la cuisine à grandes enjambées; ouvrant brusquement la porte, il cria: "Marie! Marie! où es-tu?" et il entra dans la cuisine. Là, il trouva que ses deux domestiques étaient de mauvaise humeur. Jacques, le cocher, était assis sur la table, mangeant un gros morceau de pain, et regardant du coin de l'œil la cuisinière Marie, qui jetait du charbon sur le feu. À l'entrée du maître, ils se retournèrent. Le cocher sauta vite de la table et fit semblant de travailler. Le maître les affronta tout enragé. "Comment diantre se fait-il qu'il n'y ait pas de lait?" demanda-t-il. "C'est toujours la même chose; je ne puis jamais en avoir pour mon déjeuner; j'ai envie de vous renvoyer tous deux."

"Ce n'est pas de ma faute," répliqua la cuisinière en faisant sa moue; "j'ai trop à faire pour aller à la ferme, et je ne suis pas de force à faire deux choses en même temps."

"Et Jacques?" insinua le maître.

"Va te promener," s'écria Jacques, "ce n'est pas de mon affaire."

"Mais voyez, Monsieur," dit Marie, "il n'a rien à faire." "Tu as tort," répliqua Jacques en fronçant les sourcils, "je . . ."

"J'ai raison," interrompit la bonne, "tu n'es jamais en train de travailler; je m'en tiens à ce que j'ai dit; tu es diablement paresseux."

"Eh bien, Jacques," lui dit le maître, "tu penses que ce n'est pas de ton devoir que d'aller chercher le lait?" "Oui, parbleu!" répondit Jacques, en haussant les épaules; "je n'ai qu'à soigner les chevaux et la voiture." "C'est bien ça!" dit le maître; "et Marie n'a pas le temps d'aller chez le fermier; eh bien, Jacques, je t'ordonne à l'avenir, d'amener Marie à la ferme, dans la voiture; cela me semble la meilleure façon de régler la dispute."

Cette décision convint à tout le monde; et c'est ainsi que dès lors, M. Dubois ne manquait jamais d'avoir du lait pour son déjeuner.

DAISY HALL
(Harrogate Secondary Dual School).

Free Composition is somewhat frequently considered to afford no adequate test of a candidate's knowledge, whether of vocabulary, grammar, or idiom; all difficulties, it is said, can be so easily evaded; he is not obliged to say anything in the foreign language that he does not feel certain about; he is not kept to the point, as he would be in translating from his own tongue into the foreign one.

The Prize Composition (and it may be added all the compositions sent in for adjudication on March 9) hardly seem to bear this out. Their very errors show only too well how far the writers have or have not assimilated actual grammar, how strong or how weak is their vocabulary, how really understood or how parrot-like is their knowledge of idiom.

A test such as the above seems to combine the advantages of both forms of test suggested in the Report, in that it not only provides material, but gives unlimited scope for invention, whereas the expansion of a skeleton outline rather handicaps the candidate who lacks inventive powers.

One noticeable feature of all the compositions was the absence or extreme rarity of translation; the one or two instances being the rendering of "he *won't* go," "he *won't* do it," by "il n'ira pas," "il ne le fera pas," by certain candidates.

The examiner pronounced judgment during a pause halfway through the Recitation and

Reading Competition in French which took place in Leeds on March 24, 1917, and his remarks and criticisms were eagerly listened to by the assembled teachers and competitors.

For the Oral Competition there were forty-four competitors in four sections: twenty-two juniors and twenty-two seniors. The competition, especially in Sections I., III., and IV., was extremely keen, and there were no less than three ties, who all had to be re-tested in reading at sight. In Section I., open to candidates under twelve, the marks obtained were very high; the articulation was very good, and the main faults were deficiency or exaggeration of expression and misplacement of tonic accent. Section III. was also excellent; and although the average mark was badly lowered by four weak candidates, it reached a level of 64 per cent. on the remaining twelve. Section IV. (average mark 68 per cent.) came through three of its tests—memory and two prepared reading tests, (*a*) phonetic, (*b*) ordinary script—with great credit, the weak point being of course the fourth—*i.e.*, the reading at sight.

At a time when trains are few and travelling difficult, the fact that there were ten more competitors in 1917 than in 1916 seems to prove that the Competition is increasingly felt to be a useful stimulus. The examiner's helpful criticisms and untiring patience invariably act as an inspiration to fresh effort throughout the year, and in proportion increases the debt of gratitude owed to him by the West Riding schools.

L. H. Althaus.

PROPOSED REGULATIONS FOR THE MODERN AND MEDIEVAL LANGUAGES TRIPOS.

A Summary of the Report of the Special Board for the Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, as Published in the *Cambridge University Reporter* for February 27, 1917.

With a view to providing for a probable large increase in the number of students seeking an Honours Degree in Modern Languages after the war, the Special Board for Medieval and Modern Languages have drawn up and published a new scheme for the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos.

There are two important new features about this scheme:

1. English, which has hitherto formed an integral part of the Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, is to be detached and to form a separate Tripos.

2. In the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos, as indicated by the title, the centre of gravity is to be shifted from the medieval to the modern language, and the Tripos is to be divided into two parts.

Part I., in which two languages must be offered, is to consist of six papers of three hours each—*i.e.*, three papers in each language: (i.) Passages from works in the foreign language for translation and explanation; (ii.) passages from English works to be translated into the foreign language; (iii.) an essay in the foreign language bearing on literature, history, or institutions. A candidate for Honours in Part I. may substitute for the Essay Paper the History Paper in Part II. of the same language.

Part I. is to be preceded by an Oral Examination, in which the candidate must satisfy the examiners before he can proceed to the written examination.

Part II. Here the candidate can offer either: (1) *Literature and History*, consisting of five subjects chosen from (*a*) a group representing one language, or (*b*) two groups representing different languages; or (2) *Historical and Comparative Philology*, in which the candidate must also offer five subjects.

In either of the examinations of Part II. a thesis on an approved subject may be substituted for one of the papers.

In the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos the languages provided for are French, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian, and Slavonic, but students may present themselves for examination in other modern languages at their own expense.

Various Ways in which an Honours Degree may be obtained.

I. In Two Languages.—(1) By taking Parts I. and II. (Part I. at the end of the first or second year, Part II. at the end of the third or fourth). (2) By taking two sections as in the past, either both at the end of the third year or one at the end of the second year, the other at the end of the third or fourth year.

Definition of a section: "A composite exami-

nation consisting of *one* language in Part I., together with three subjects from the group representing the same language in Part II."

II. In One Language only.—By taking a section followed by Part II.

Example of the One Language Scheme: French.

A. *Section.*—Part I., French Papers. Part II.,* (i.) French Literature, Thought, and History from 1495-1688. (ii.) French Literature, Thought, and History from 1688-1870. (iii.) A special period or subject in French Literature.

B. *Part II., History and Literature.*—(iv.) French History since 1800, with special reference to social and economic conditions since 1848. (v.) French Literature, Life, and History before 1495, in connection with specified works from which shall be set for translation and explanation, or discussion.

Supplementary Subjects.—(xxi.) Provençal Literature before 1500, in connection with social and general history, with passages from specified Provençal works for translation and explanation. (xxii.) A special subject in Comparative Literature. (xxiii.) The history of the French Language, with passages from specified French works earlier than 1500 for translation and explanation. Or

Part II., Historical and Comparative Philology.—(i.) The history of the French Language, same paper as (xxiii). above. (vii.) Vulgar Latin and Romance Philology. Every candidate will be expected to show a knowledge of two at least of the Romance languages. (viii.) Latin in relation to the other Indo-European languages. (xi.) The early history and distribution of the Indo-European languages in connection with the early history of civilization. (xii.) The principles of language, including phonetics. If preferred, other subjects can be substituted bearing on the Germanic, Celtic, or Slavonic languages.

III. A Part of the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos, combined with a Part of Another Tripos.—(1) Either part of the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos may be taken as a second part after Part I. of another Tripos; for instance, a student having taken Part I., History or English, can complete his Honours degree by taking Part I. or II. of the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos. (2) A student having obtained Honours in Part I. of the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos may complete his degree by taking Part I. or II. of another Tripos—for instance, History or English.

This scheme has certain obvious advantages over the present Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, chief among which are:

(1) The separation of English from foreign languages. (2) The greater facilities offered for specializing in one language only. (3) The important place given to history proper, to the history of social and economic conditions, and to a knowledge and understanding of foreign modes of thought. (4) The greater prominence given to the study of contemporary literature. (5) The wide range of choice offered to the candidate.

K. T. Butler.

Since the above was written the Special Board for Medieval and Modern Languages has published a revised report containing (*Cambridge University Reporter*, May 8) the two following amended proposals:

1. In Part II., 'Historical and Comparative Philology,' 'a candidate who enters for Paper vii. (Vulgar Latin and Romance Philology) shall be allowed to take as subjects of his examination one or two of the following subjects—viz., v., xi., xviii., xxi.—in the Examination in Literature and History.'
2. In Part II., 'History and Literature,' certain papers 'shall contain one or more specified questions which, *at the option* of the candidate, may be answered in the foreign language; and credit shall be given for excellence in this respect.'

With regard to the Oral Examination, the amended proposal is that a candidate who has not passed the Oral Examination shall be debarred, not from presenting himself for the Tripos, but from obtaining the mark of distinction, or from obtaining any mark that would show that he had gained honours in any particular language. (Regulations 28 and 33.)

* These numbers refer to the papers as numbered in the Report.

SUMMARY OF EVIDENCE AND RECOMMENDATIONS SUBMITTED TO THE GOVERNMENT COMMITTEE ON MODERN LANGUAGES.

(A) The Subject-Matter of Instruction.

(1) *The Modern Humanities.*

(See Report on the Case for the Modern Humanities.)

1. Modern Languages should be regarded as a branch of the Humanities, which term should include language, literature, history, geography, and the arts. The term 'Modern Humanities' may be used to denote the study of these subjects through the media of English and modern foreign languages.

2. The case for the Modern Humanities should not be examined in isolation from the general time-table.

3. The study of the Modern Humanities, in the full sense, as defined above, is as necessary in the interests of Commerce and the Public Service as for the purposes of general education, culture, and knowledge of the world.

4. Instruction in Modern Languages in schools and Universities should therefore aim primarily at—

(*a*) The cultivation of correctness and fluency in the spoken and written language.

(*b*) The cultivation of the capacity to read and appreciate the best literature in the language.

(*c*) The imparting of accurate information about the people and their land—

(i.) Daily life and ways, character and ideas.

(ii.) Geography, political, historical, and economic.

(iii.) History, including the history of institutions, law, and commerce.

(2) *Languages to be Taught.*

5. To satisfy national needs in Commerce and the Public Service we require a constant supply of British-born subjects, familiar with all important foreign languages and countries, including those of Asia and Africa; and provision for teaching all of them should be made at Universities, Colleges, and other places of higher education throughout the country, the work being divided amongst the various institutions as may seem feasible.

6. It is impossible to include even the five most important languages of Europe—French, German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish—in the ordinary school curriculum, even when the leaving age is eighteen. Speaking generally, it is not desirable that boys and girls should attempt to learn more than two modern languages, or that the smaller schools should attempt to make provision for teaching more than two. In large schools alternatives may be offered to the pupils.

7. The schools are concerned with the training of large numbers for large national results, rather than with the production of small numbers of highly trained specialists; provision, however, should be made, where possible, outside the time-table, for the few gifted linguists to be found at the top.

[The evidence of the Association on the claims of German, Italian, Russian, and Spanish to a place in the curriculum was by permission reserved.]

(B) Organization of the Teaching.

8. Thorough instruction in the mother-tongue is the only sound basis for instruction in foreign languages. This instruction is concerned with (i.) Good speech and pronunciation; (ii.) self-expression in speech and writing; (iii.) intelligent reading and recitation; (iv.) the understanding of the language of books; (v.) elementary notions of grammar.

Note.—The teaching of English grammar has been almost abandoned in the elementary schools, the consequence of which is that the children who come from those schools have not that comprehension of the elements of grammar common to all languages which is necessary for the learner of a foreign tongue. A little instruction in grammar should be given to all children. It is recommended also that the teacher should employ phonetic methods as an aid to good pronunciation. A careful mouth and ear training is one of the foundations of linguistic work, either in the mother-tongue or a foreign language.

9. Further, instruction in the English Humanities—*i.e.*, English literature, history, geography, and art—is the only sound basis for instruction in the Humanities generally, and provision must therefore be made in the time-table, not only at the early stages for the elementary instruction referred to in § 8, but for the continuous study of the English Humanities at all stages.

10. The first foreign language to be learnt will, in the great majority of cases, be French, and the English and French Humanities should therefore form the foundation of all higher humanistic study, whether classical or modern.

11. It is desirable that the study of foreign languages in preparatory schools or departments should not, as a rule, be begun before the age of ten, and should be confined to one modern language, or one modern and one classical language, and that a second classical language should only be exceptionally studied before the age of thirteen or fourteen. It follows from this that a second classical language should not as a rule be a subject in the scholarship examinations of the Public Schools. A period of two years should, as a rule, elapse between beginning the first language and beginning the second.

12. While French might well be taught as a special subject in the higher elementary schools, *when efficient teachers are available*, it is not advisable that the study in such cases should be begun before the age of twelve.

13. In the secondary or continuation stages of various types up to the age of fifteen to sixteen, in the case of pupils coming from neighbourhoods where the home influences are unfavourable, not more than one foreign language should be studied, while even in some instances it is conceivable that no foreign language at all ought to be taken; in other schools the instruction should be confined to two foreign languages at most, except in the case of pupils who will probably stay on beyond the age of sixteen.

14. The aim of the Modern Language teaching in all schools should be in general humanistic. As already explained, this includes some knowledge of the literature, history, and geography of the country concerned. Even pupils whose course does not extend over more than four years should cultivate an elementary acquaintance with these. Care should be taken to maintain a high literary standard on the choice of authors.

15. The teaching of French history in secondary schools is discussed, and a method which has been used with success is outlined in the paper 'History and the Modern Humanities.'

16. In schools where the curriculum is of the Commercial-Modern Languages type some teaching of the commercial language may be attempted in the last year of the course; where the curriculum is Technical-Modern Languages, the aim of the language teaching must be purely utilitarian (see Memorandum on Foreign Languages in Boys' Schools, §§ 5, 6; Girls' Schools, §§ 4, 5, 6).

17. The number of hours per week which ought to be assigned to Modern Languages in various types of curricula, and the general aims of the teaching, are discussed in the Memoranda referred to in the last section. Two very important principles are (*a*) that it is better to begin with *one* foreign language, giving to it the whole time available, than to begin with two, dividing the time between them; (*b*) that wherever a foreign language is begun it is necessary to assign to it one period a day for at least a year, even if the period be of half an hour only, and that this is in the end economical of time. These principles are gaining ground, but are not yet universally recognized.

18. Two serious hindrances to Modern Language work in many schools are (*a*) the entry of pupils at various times in the year; (*b*) the entry of badly prepared pupils at a late age—*i.e.*, twelve to fourteen. It ought to be possible for the authorities at least to diminish the first evil by means of regulations; the second will exist until inefficient private schools are driven out of existence. These evils affect the whole work of schools, but especially subjects which, like languages, need very careful organization and homogeneous classes.

19. A serious hindrance to Modern Language work in many schools is the lack of uniformity and continuity in the teaching. Full liberty to teach in his own way is accorded to each teacher, and the consequence is that different methods are used in different classes. This want of organization is now less marked in the local grant-aided and inspected schools than in the non-local schools. The Association urges that it is essential that in schools where there is a modern side or Modern Language department, the teaching in this side or department should be under the effective control of the responsible head of the department, who should be consulted in the appointment of his colleagues in the department, and from whom less teaching should be required, so that he have time for visiting their classrooms.

20. A reduction in the hours of class teaching has been rendered essential by the reform in the methods of instruction. The newer methods make a much greater demand than the old upon the time and energy of the teacher. No specialist Modern Language teacher should be required to teach more than eighteen hours a week. The present average must considerably exceed this.

21. For the efficient teaching of languages, as of all subjects where much individual work by the pupil and individual attention by the teacher are required, it is necessary that the classes should be kept small. Twenty is the desirable maximum number, and the separate classification of the pupils into sets of twenty for Modern Language work is to be recommended.

(C) The Teacher.

22. The most important factor in education is the teacher, and the supply of well-prepared and efficient teachers is perhaps the gravest problem which Education Authorities have to face. This applies to Modern Languages even more than to other branches of the curriculum for two reasons: (i.) We have in the past relied largely upon foreigners, and in the future we must rely on ourselves; (ii.) the preparation of the Modern Language teacher is longer than that of other teachers, inasmuch as it involves a period of residence abroad.

23. The essential condition of obtaining a supply of capable teachers is the provision of sufficient remuneration, including pensions. If this condition is not fulfilled, it is improbable that other measures will be more than partially successful. In this matter the Modern Language Association expresses a general agreement with the recommendations put forward by the Assistant Masters' and Assistant Mistresses' Associations.

24. Even when salaries and pensions are put on a satisfactory basis, a large number of Modern Language scholarships tenable at the Universities will be needed in order that the same encouragement may be given to Modern Languages as to other subjects.

25. All the highest, and much of the other, Modern Language teaching in schools should be done by Modern Language specialists, but much will still have to be entrusted to teachers with whom the Modern Language is a second or subsidiary subject.

26. For the specialist or fully qualified teacher a year's residence abroad, spent under such conditions as will insure a thorough study of the language, is essential; for the other teachers six months may be considered sufficient.

27. The Association attaches great importance to teachers of language receiving a pedagogic training.

28. For the maintenance of his efficiency the Modern Language teacher finds that short visits to the Continent at frequent intervals are necessary. In this connection Holiday Courses are useful, a discussion of the merits and shortcomings of which will be found in the Memorandum on Holiday Courses.

29. A number of Local Authorities give small bursaries to teachers to enable them to attend Holiday Courses, and it would be well if the number of such bursaries were increased. It is very desirable also that some at least of these bursaries should be tenable at recognized institutions other than Holiday Courses, or even available for residence with carefully selected families. The Report on Holiday Courses shows that these courses are not always suitable for teachers who wish to live in a wholly foreign atmosphere. It must be remembered also that the teacher should acquire not only fluency in speaking the language, but also first-hand knowledge of the people.

30. For teachers who are unable to go abroad, short Holiday Courses in England are useful for purposes of gaining information and new ideas about both their subject and the teaching of it.

31. It is much to be desired that teachers should have the opportunity of spending a longer time—three or six months—abroad every few years. For this it would be necessary (i.) that arrangements should be made for supplying the place of the teacher in the school for at least one term; (ii.) that his or her salary should be continued in full, or financial assistance given in some other form. The idea of a 'Sabbatical Year' for teachers—a system which obtains in some of the United States—also might well be kept in mind.

[The views of the Association on the Preparation and Training of the Modern Language Teacher will be found in the Reports on that subject.]

(D) Examination and Inspection.

32. The work of Secondary Schools is to a great extent conditioned by the Examinations for Schools conducted by the Universities and other bodies. The views of the Association on the best type of examination in Modern Languages are set forth in the Report on External Examinations for Schools.

Note.—Two important clauses—those on Composition at the Senior and Junior stages (pp. 5 and 6)—were carried by a majority only at the General Meeting of the Association. This points to a divergence of opinion on these points.

33. While the Association regards the suggestions in the Report as embodying the best type of examination for the generality of schools, it recognizes that there are kinds of language teaching for which they are unsuitable. It therefore desires to see other types of examinations admitted as alternatives, so that no hindrance may be put in the way of the various modern methods of teaching now in vogue. The question of the form such alternatives should take is at present under the consideration of the Association.* Sober and well-

* A scheme has since been produced, and will be published in Modern Language Teaching.

considered experiments in language teaching should be encouraged by all possible means at the present time.

34. It is desirable that the standard of the existing External Examinations for Schools should be fixed and maintained by authority.

35. The Association wishes to urge strongly that no certificate of having passed an examination in Modern Languages at any stage should be granted to a candidate who has not passed an Oral Test in Conversation, Reading, and Dictation.

36. It is desirable that there should be representatives of teachers on all examining bodies, in order that these bodies may be kept fully in touch with developments in teaching.

37. The Association urges that Inspectors should be chosen from persons who have had long and successful experience of teaching.

38. The system which obtains in at least one district of appointing an Organizing Master or Mistress of Modern Languages who visits the schools and advises the teachers about their work is to be recommended.

39. It is desirable that there should be continuity in the character of the inspection, and this would be best secured by arranging that the same Inspector should visit the school on a number of occasions in succession.

(E) Subsidiary Aids to Teaching.

40. The Association considers that the following subsidiary aids to teaching deserve recognition and encouragement:

(i.) Exchange of children during the holidays, and for longer periods, between English and Continental families.

(ii.) International correspondence between school-children.

The Association has machinery for both these purposes. The exchange of children is described in the Report of the Exchange Committee for 1912-13 (last full year before the War); the Report of International Correspondence for the present year shows that, even under the present unfavourable circumstances, about 500 English and French boys and girls exchange letters.

(F) University Appointments.

41. The question whether or to what extent it is desirable that foreigners should be appointed to University Chairs and Lectureships in Modern Languages has recently been under the consideration of the Association. At present the majority of such posts are filled by foreign scholars, and there seems little inclination on the part of the University authorities to recognize the merits of British-born candidates. This acts as a discouragement to British scholarship, and it is doubtful whether it is beneficial to Modern Language students. The question is examined in the Report on University Appointments, and the most important conclusion arrived at is that the ideal would be a professoriate consisting as a rule of British-born subjects, and that, while British candidates have laboured under many difficulties in the past, the adoption of the recommendations made in the Report for the better payment of the junior members of University staffs, and for the assistance by the State of post-graduate study abroad, would make it possible more and more to appoint British-born subjects as the responsible heads of Modern Language departments at British Universities.

(G) Civil Service Examinations.

42. The low marks assigned to Modern Languages and History in the examinations for the Civil Service (Division I.), as compared with those given for Classics, discourages the higher study of the Modern Humanities. It is suggested that the marks given for the combination of Modern Languages and Modern History should be the same as those given for the combination of Ancient Languages and Ancient History. The subject is discussed at length in the Memorandum on the Place of Modern Languages in Civil Service Examinations (Division I.).

(H) Research.

43. It is desirable that there should be adequate provision for research work in connection with the Training Department of a University or with the Board of Education, this work to take the form of conducting in experimental schools, and in collaboration with experienced teachers in other schools, careful experiments with a view to perfecting both the methods and the conditions of Modern Language teaching.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

[*The Modern Language Association does not endorse officially the comments or opinions expressed in this column.*]

The news of the death of Edward Leopold Milner-Barry comes as a shock to many of those who had the privilege of being his fellow-workers or his pupils. Vigorous in physique and in intellect, he was cut down by heart disease at the age of fifty, when we might well have hoped for many years of further helpful activity. My own recollection of him goes back just thirty years, when he and I were the only candidates for the first scholarship in Modern Languages at the University of Cambridge. His success led him to migrate from Pembroke, where he had spent his first year, to Gonville and Caius, into the corporate activities of which he entered with zest. Having previously spent some time at German Universities, he found no difficulty in securing a First Class in Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos. He received appointments at Bedford College and at Wren's; but he soon felt drawn to secondary school work, and for many years he was a well-loved and important member of the Mill Hill staff. During this period he did valuable service on the committees of our Association and of the A.M.A.; for some time he acted as editor of the organ of the latter association. Milner-Barry then took up academic work once more, as Professor of German at the University College of Bangor. Soon after the outbreak of the war he joined the R.N.V.R.; he had reached the rank of Lieutenant-Commander when his untimely death occurred. His friends will never forget his kindly, genial personality; our Association owes much to his sound judgment; everyone always felt that he could place implicit confidence in Milner-Barry. To his wife and family we offer our respectful sympathy in their great bereavement.

W. R.

The General Committee, on May 19, on the motion of Mr. Allpress, seconded by Dr. Macgowan, unanimously requested the Chairman to write a letter to Mrs. Milner-Barry, expressing the sympathy of the Committee with her in her bereavement and their sense of the loss that the Association had sustained through the death of her husband.

* * *

ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

Maurice H. Wood, of Stamford Grammar School, Lieutenant, 4th Lincolnshire Regiment, was mentioned in despatches last June. He has since been transferred to the Royal Flying Corps.

E. Creagh Kittson is serving in France as Second-Lieutenant in the Intelligence Corps.

Captain S. S. Jenkyns, 6th Battalion Rifle Brigade, has been wounded and is now in England.

N. W. Ross, of Pierremont Hall, Broadstairs, is Lieutenant-Interpreter at Prisoners of War Camp, Stobs Castle, Hawick.

Rowland G. Wright, British Orphan School, Slough, is Second-Lieutenant in the 3rd Battalion East Surrey Regiment, and is at present attached to the 17th Battalion Liverpool Regiment.

V. W. Alexander has been serving with the Friends' Ambulance Unit abroad, but is now at Bootham School, York.

J. L. Fryers, Merchant Taylors School, is serving in France as an Intelligence Officer, with rank of Lieutenant.

J. A. Gibson, Tiffin's Boys' School, is serving as a Gunner in the Royal Garrison Artillery.

C. D. Linnell is serving in the Censor's Office.

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To list of Reports and Memoranda (see March number, p. 63) add:

Tabular View of Regulations for Examinations in Modern Languages, prepared by Mr. A. E. Orange.

* * *

A Professor of Moscow University wishes to purchase a complete file of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, with the view of presenting it to the University Library. Offers to be addressed to the Hon. Secretary.

* * *

Mr. Walter Ripman will deliver a course of ten lectures, with practical exercises, on English Phonetics, in connection with the Summer Course for Students of English Speech, held under the

direction of Miss Fogerty, at the Royal Albert Hall, from September 1 to 14, 1917. The fee for these lectures is one guinea. They will be held daily at 10.30 a.m., and Mr. Ripman's 'Sounds of Spoken English, with Specimens' (published by Dent at 3s. net) will be used. Arrangements can also be made for private tuition in English, French, and German Phonetics. Intending students are requested to communicate with Mr. Ripman (at 45, Ladbroke Grove, London, W. 11), or to call at the Albert Hall on Saturday, September 1, at 3 p.m. Particulars of the Summer Course can be obtained from the Secretary, School of Speech Training, Royal Albert Hall, London, S.W. 7.

THE RUSSIAN INSTITUTE.

An interesting international work of amity is carried on by the Russian Institute, 27, Sandys Row, E.C. It was founded at the beginning of 1916 with the double object of providing an educational centre for Russians desirous of learning the English language, literature, history, and constitution, and to enable the Englishman to make acquaintance with Russian institutions. This object is attained by means of classes, lectures, library, and a club, which alone has something like 200 members. The founders of the Institute feel that it fills a great want in London. Indeed, so much is this the case that it has already outgrown its present quarters, and there is need of larger premises. In order to help to obtain these a Russian concert was given on Saturday night at Camperdown House, Aldgate. It already costs some £300 a year to run the Institute, most of which is raised by voluntary contributions, and Saturday's effort was made to create a nucleus for the larger scheme. The contributors to the programme were Miss Lena Kantorovitch (violin), Mme. Eugenie Ratmirova, Miss Zoia Rosovsky, Mr. Julian Bonell, Mr. S. Kramskoy, Mr. Valdimir Rosing, Signor Manlio du Veroli, and Mme. Rosing. There was a very good attendance, and the concert was followed by a ball.

FROM THE "MORNING POST."

Mr. William John Courthope, the well-known English writer and historian of poetry, and at one time Professor of Poetry at Oxford, died on April 10 at Wadhurst in his seventy-fifth year. His father was the Rev. William Courthope, rector of South Malling, Sussex. From Harrow he went to New College, Oxford, took first-class honours in Moderations and Greats, and won the Newdigate prize for poetry in 1864 and the Chancellor's English essay four years later. He seemed destined for distinction as a poet, his volume of *Ludibria Lunæ* being followed by the remarkably fine *Paradise of Birds* but his quality afterwards found expression in the field of criticism. His literary career is associated mainly with his continuation of Whitwell Elwin's edition of Pope, which appeared in ten volumes, and the better known "life" of Addison in the English Men of Letters series. In 1885 he brought out his *Liberal Movement in English Literature*, while his tenure of the Chair of Poetry at Oxford, from 1895 to 1901, resulted in his elaborate *History of English Poetry* and his *Life in Poetry*. He dealt with English poetry as an organic whole, its unity being the result of the natural spirit and thought in succeeding ages. In 1887 Mr. Courthope was appointed a Civil Service Commissioner, becoming a First Commissioner five years later, and being made a Companion of the Bath. He was made an honorary fellow of his old college at Oxford in 1896, and was given the honorary degrees of D.Litt. by Durham in 1895 and of LL.D. by Edinburgh University in 1898. Mr. Courthope married in 1870 Mary, eldest daughter of John Scott, His Majesty's Inspector-General of Hospitals, Bombay.

CORRECTION OF DATE.

The Spanish Lecture by Dr. Villasante, Lecturer in Spanish to the University of London, King's College, on "La literatura e la historia de España hasta nuestros dias," will be given at King's College, Strand, at 5.15 p.m. on Monday, June 18. The date on the ticket issued in the March magazine was erroneously given as June 15.

A SCHOOL OF SPANISH AT CAMBRIDGE.

The Vice-Chancellor of Cambridge University has received from donors who wish to remain anonymous the sum of £10,000 for the endowment of a School of Spanish. The donors state: "We wish that this sum should be devoted to the improvement of the teaching of the Spanish language, literature, and history, and of the spoken tongue, having regard to the relations of this country with Spain and the Spanish-speaking countries of America. The precise allocation of the income to be derived from the endowment we are prepared to leave to the discretion of the University, acting on the advice of its Board of Modern Language Studies."

A correspondent sends us the following list of recent French novels that should be read: *L'adjudant Benoît*, by Marcel Prévost; *L'appel du Sol*, by Adrien Bertrand; *Gaspard*, by René Benjamin; *Le Miracle du Feu*, by Marcel Berger; *Le Feu*, by Henri Barbusse; and *L'histoire d'un simple soldat*, by H. Riou.

⁂

ПѢТУ́ХЪ И ЖЕМЧУ́ЖНОЕ ЗЕРНО́.

Contributed by J. P. S.

Навóзну кучу разрывáя,
Пѣтýхъ нашёлъ жемчýжное зернó,
И говорúтъ: «Куда́ оно?
Какáя вéщь пустáя!
Не глýпо ль, что егó высóко такъ цѣнятъ!
А я бы, прáво, былъ гораздо бóлѣ радъ
Зерну ячмéнному: онó не стóль хоть вúдно,
Да сы́тно».

Невѣ́жи сýдятъ тóчно такъ:
Въ чемъ тóлку не поймýтъ, то всё у нúхъ пустя́къ.

Krilóf: *Fables*, II., 18.

⁂

OXFORD.

The following elections to scholarships and exhibitions are announced:

Magdalen College: Exhibitions in modern subjects, B. Barnes, Manchester Grammar School; O. W. Mitchell, R.H.A.S. Owen's School, Islington.

Lady Margaret Hall: The "Old Students'" Scholarship of £70 a year, C. M. Canning, Ladies' College, Cheltenham (History); the "James Cropper," Scholarship of £50 a year, C. Anson, Manchester and Clapham High Schools (German); the "Mary Talbot" Scholarship of £40 a year, to H. M. Snelgrove, Croydon High School (French); the "Anne Chalmers Bennet Clark" Exhibition of £20 a year, to I. M. A. Naylor, Queen's School, Chester (History); an Exhibition of £20 a year, to G. M. Wood, Edgbaston High School (History).

St. Hugh's College: College scholarships of £35 a year, to G. M. Spurway, Ladies' College, Cheltenham (History); and £25 a year, to N. P. Clark, Clapham High School (History).

Somerville College: To a Clothworkers' Scholarship of £50 for three years, M. A. Brett, Lady Eleanor Holles's School, Hackney (English); to a Coombs Scholarship of £50 for three years, G. D. Desmond, City of London School for Girls (English); to Exhibitions of £25 for three years, J. J. M. Aldridge, Ravenscroft School and Southampton College (Natural Science); D. May, Lady Eleanor Holles's School, Hackney (History and English); C. W. Savery, King Edward's High School, Birmingham (English); to an Exhibition of £20 for three years, B. M. Robinson, Nottingham High School (English).

⁂

Eric Ll. Gruchy, of Victoria College, Jersey, has been elected to a King Charles I. Scholarship at Pembroke College, awarded for French.

⁂

RUSSIAN.

The Senate of the National University of Ireland has admitted Russian to be one of the languages in which candidates for matriculation may be examined.

Russian classes have been established at University College, Cork.

Mr. Henry Musgrave proposes to contribute £10,000 towards the endowment of a chair of the Russian language and literature in Queen's University, Belfast.

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THE DUTCH LANGUAGE.

Mr. J. E. A. Reyneke van Stuwe's lecture on the Dutch Language, at University College, February 20, brought to an end his series on "Dutch Literature and Language." These lectures have an associate interest with a scheme of the University of London to develop the Dutch studies in this country; and in reply to thanks expressed by Mr. F. C. Stoop, on behalf of the Dutch colony in London, Professor W. P. Ker, who was in the chair, indicated that it was the intention of University College to persevere with this effort. Mr. Reyneke van Stuwe's first point was to establish the fact that Dutch is a distinct language, and not a dialect of the much younger German, as an ignorant popular opinion supposes. Of similar origin are English (particularly Scots) and Frisian, both more alike than either is to Dutch. The lively conversation struck up between Frisian fisher girls and the Newhaven fishwives at a fisheries exhibition which brought them together—unintelligible to the Dutch Consul-General who overheard it—is an unanswerable illustration of their common elements. The lecturer's examples of the greater similarity of passages from Shakespeare, and other older English writers, with their translation into Dutch, than with modern English versions, entertained the audience, and his account of the Flemish movement (necessarily wary at this moment), and that of the development of South African Dutch (with its influence on the literature of Holland) were also of much interest.

CORRESPONDENCE.

[The opinions expressed in this column are those of individual contributors, for which the Association takes no responsibility.]

MR. RICHARDS AND THE DIRECT METHOD.

I SHOULD be sorry, though late, to allow some of Mr. Richards's statements made in the December MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING (p. 215) to pass unchallenged. I have time and there is space only to note the following:

To describe Max Walter's 'Parlez, messieurs, parlez toujours et après cela—parlez' as a correct summary of his view of the aim and method of modern language teaching seems to me a mere travesty. I have heard and read Max Walter, and certainly never understood him to overlook the claims of written work and grammar.

Mr. Richards's statement that the Direct Method champions are yielding ground and tending to a compromise is largely due to a misconception of what the Direct Method is; to the notion implicit in his remarks here and elsewhere that the Direct Method teacher is wholly against the use of translation. That has never been the view of those responsible for the introduction of the method into this country, nor has it been their view that grammar should be neglected. No doubt there is a good deal of slipshod teaching at present in the schools, and it is fashionable among a certain class of inspector, examiner, and 'level-headed teacher' to put it down to the Direct Method. They fail to distinguish, however, between the method and the user of it, and lay the blame wrongly upon the former, chiefly because they have never taken the trouble to find out what Direct Method means, notwithstanding that it ought to be part of the business of a 'level-headed' person to know what he is talking about.

F. B. KIRKMAN.

FRENCH PLAYS AT THE COURT THEATRE

Will you allow me to draw the attention of teachers of French to the great advantages offered to their pupils by the management of the Court Theatre, who are giving in French a series of plays acted by Parisians. The design of those responsible for the performance of these plays is to enable English people to get to understand spoken French, and it is quite certain that no better chance could be offered them than that of hearing the very best French spoken by probably the best actors in the world. It seemed to me, however, that the greater number of the audience were French, judging by the conversation which I heard in the foyer; and it seems to me that it is a great pity that at a time like this, when so many are lamenting their ignorance of French, more Englishmen and Englishwomen should not take advantage of this opportunity of hearing the best French spoken by the best French speakers. Possibly an appeal to the management might be successful in procuring the privilege of attendance for schools or students at a cheap rate. The upper gallery seemed to me to be almost unoccupied, and I am sure that the actors would like to feel that the gallery provided for the 'gods' contained an intelligent and enthusiastic audience. It is also possible that if the French management were certain that it was acting as a great educator, it might put upon the stage some French classical plays.

I have heard the piece which is actually being played at the Court Theatre criticized as unsuitable for the edification of young people. I can only say that I regard it as a charming laugh-raiser and infinitely preferable to our disgusting problem plays.

HERBERT A. STRONG.

GERMAN AFTER THE WAR.

Is not the suggestion to drop German as a subject for study rather like cutting off our nose to spite our face? Whom are we intending to punish? Ourselves or the foe? I cannot imagine any policy more likely to suit their book. No doubt but that in the past our neglect of languages—their own included—has been a great handicap to us and a help to them. For years they must have been steadily fostering hatred towards us, but did they on that account banish the study of English from their schools? On the contrary—although, of course, the permanent language teachers were not of foreign nationality.

Because we now mean to devote more attention to Italian, Spanish, and Russian, than we have hitherto done, there is no reason why we should let German drop. It will still be a living language, spoken throughout a large part of

Europe. It is nonsense to say that after the war we shall do no more trade with Germany. The indemnity that she will have to pay will be paid partly in goods, and this will make a certain amount of intercourse inevitable. German is still largely the language of science, and there are many scientific books written in German of which no English translation exists.

German is still the language in which many beautiful and standard works have been written. Because the present-day Germans have brought shame on the language of Schiller and Goethe, shall we deprive ourselves of the pleasure and advantage of first-hand acquaintance with treasures which are the property of the whole civilized world? Have the Germans banished Shakespeare from their theatres?

As for the danger of becoming pro-German simply by dint of learning that tongue or reading with enjoyment beautiful works written in it—well, there is no danger. The language of German literature was formed long before Prussia emerged with Frederick the Great from her barbarian obscurity, and will doubtless continue long after she has sunk back into it. If we admire what is—or was—admirable in the German genius, shall we not hate all the more what the Germans have now become? While for those who will learn the language from a purely commercial point of view there is no danger, for if the German nation is hateful then personal intercourse can hardly teach us to love it.

NORA ISAACS.

YU *versus* U.

Mr. A. D. Wilde's objection to my calling *yu* a diphthong is a matter of term rather than of meaning. For what is a diphthong?

The N.E.D. says it is 'a union of two vowels pronounced as one syllable; the combination of a sonantal with a consonantal vowel,' that is of a pure vowel with a consonantal or semi-vowel, *i* or *u*.

In Mr. Wilde's article 'The Speech-Sounds of English' he recognizes 'five polyphthongs in *decayed, skyed, cowed, code, decoyed*.' I do not see why he should not admit a sixth in *used;* why allow a diphthong to *boy, oil,* and refuse it to *you, Europe?* For the *i* may either precede or follow the other vowel. Thus in Provençal *iéu, iai* are recognized triphthongs.

Y is like the *Avare's* domestic, Maître Jacques—"Est-ce à votre cocher, monsieur, ou bien à votre cuisinier que vous voulez parler; car je suis l'un et l'autre." *Y* doffs its consonantal coat and becomes *i*; coat-on for written *you,* coat-off for *use.* At the next house a coachman-cook does the same for *won* and *one.* And when these two answer to their alphabet-names, *y* borrows his fellow's coat to appear as *wy,* while *w* does the same in order to appear as double-*yu*.

Mr. Wilde asks whether I assert of several words with initial *y* that they begin with a diphthong? Certainly they begin phonetically with the same diphthong as does *union,* a word containing two diphthongs, those in *you, young,* and in Provençal words such as *iéu* (L. *ego*) and *iòu* (L. *ovum*), for Yod is busy in several languages.

In reply to another question, I am sorry if I did not make it clear that, both historically and actually, the dental consonants do not admit the intrusion of *y* before free *u* as readily as do the gutturals and labials. That the vulgar pronunciation of *duke, tune, odious* removes the difficulty, by changing the dental to an inhibitory consonant which renders the intrusion of *y* almost impossible, is only another way of stating Mr. Wilde's view that the substituted consonants are easier, for the evasion of the difficulty shows that this exists. It may be shorter to say *juke,* etc., but ease, not shortness, is the apparent object. When the dental consonant does not admit of change, *y* may be rejected by the uneducated tongue. It happens that I have received a letter from a Liverpool correspondent in which she says: 'It seems strange that uneducated people talk about a "noo dress" or "stoowed fruit."' The explanation is that education of the tongue, at home or at school, usually enables it to pick up *y* between a dental and free *u,* while the tongue requires no training to pick it up when under the influence of a guttural or labial. But with *n* or *st* there is no possible evasion by change of the consonants, so the uneducated tongue simply rejects *y* in such words. I did not think it necessary to explain the buccal action by which the tongue picks up *y* spontaneously after some consonants, unwillingly after others, while it rejects it after the inhibitory consonants unless forced by fashion to admit it in the case of those which, like *j* and *l,* have less resisting power. J. H. Fabre has told us the story of the parasitic insect which, cuckoo-like, waits at the entrance of the burrowing-bee's gallery to deposit its egg rapidly on the provision which the bee is dragging into the nursery. In the same way Yod seems to slip in between a non-inhibitory consonant and free *u*; it settles on the vowel and establishes a diphthong. Some consonants accept the

intruder, others resist it successfully, others evade it by a change.

Yod has no monopoly of this parasitism; a parasite of *u*, this semi-vowel is itself a parasite of *o*, producing the diphthong in Mr. Wilde's example-word *code*. This diphthong, giving *o* a trail of *u*, is usually hidden, but it shows itself in *low*, *snow*, etc., often in this form taking the place of an original final consonant. To the liquids *y* and *w*, *r* and *l* do what might be called a *chassé-croisé* of parasitism, substitution, appearance, disappearance, which influences the pronunciation of many languages.

I thank Mr. Wilde not only for the opportunity he has afforded me of clearing up any obscure points in my article, but also for a courteous criticism which, if not changing my views, will yet be useful to me in the treatment of related subjects.

EDWARD NICHOLSON.

APATHY IN THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A meeting of the Manchester branch of the Modern Language Association was held on Friday, March 23, when Miss Lowe, headmistress of the Leeds Girls' High School, read a paper entitled "A Consideration of National Epics." Miss Lowe said that the times in which we are living would afford material for a great epic, and it was not unfitting that at this moment we should consider past records of national prowess. The great epics of the past are interesting both for the light they throw on the times at which they were written, and on the times of which they relate the deeds. The speaker studied in detail four great epics, the "Iliad" and "Odyssey," the "Nibelungenlied" the "Chanson de Roland," and the "Cid," and showed that these poems possess many characteristics in common. The paper was profoundly learned, and roused in the hearers a desire to know more of the great works mentioned. It is a privilege to listen to such lectures, and the Modern Language Association is fortunate in being able to enlist the help of such speakers.

Unfortunately, however, very little advantage is taken in Manchester of the opportunities offered by the Association. There have been several excellent lectures in the last few years, and at each one the audience has been a handful. The lectures have taken place on different days and at different hours, so that it cannot be said the scarcity of numbers has been due to the inconvenience of the time. Some people argue that at the present moment there are too many calls on time to allow of educational meetings, but as the meetings of the Association only take place four or five times a year, I think that on these rare occasions people might relinquish their other occupations in favour of the Association which is the bond of union to those engaged in teaching Modern Languages.

I find from MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING that all the branches of the Association except the Lancashire and Yorkshire branches have been suspended during the war. Does this not point to a lack of keenness on the part of Modern Language teachers? Since Modern Languages are still taught in schools, it is evident that there must be many teachers who are not at the front or engaged in war work, and who could help to make their association as flourishing as the historical or other educational associations. There are many complaints about the weakness of Modern Languages in schools. If we ourselves were more enthusiastic and gave more time to all matters connected with our subject should we not fire our pupils with the same zeal, and achieve more than by grumbling at conditions which it is difficult, and sometimes impossible, to alter?

E. M. G.

BOOKS FOR BRITISH PRISONERS OF WAR.

May I once again appeal to your readers on behalf of the thousands of our men, now in enemy hands, who are craving for solid literature with which to improve their minds and relieve the tedium of their captivity. The British Prisoners of War Book Scheme (Educational) is the only war charity which provides educational books for these men in accordance with their expressed needs, and the continued requests for books which daily reach me from the camps, coupled with the regular acknowledgments of parcels, show that our consignments reach their destinations, and that never was the work we are doing in this field more necessary nor more appreciated than at present.

From Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, Turkey, and Asia Minor come insistent appeals for books on almost every subject, and your readers will render us, and the captives for whom we work, a great service if they will send me a list of any volumes they can spare. They will then be advised as to which books we shall be glad to accept and to have forwarded to us. I should, perhaps, add that we have no need of fiction, and no use for out-of-date technical books or books in bad condition; we also have a sufficiency of works in the dead languages.

Those who care to know something about the really great educational work which is going on among British prisoners may be interested in reading a little booklet entitled 'Student Captives,' which we have just published, and which may be had on application to me.

ALFRED T. DAVIES,
Chairman of the British Prisoners of War Book Scheme (Educational).

Office: Board of Education,
Whitehall, S.W. 1.

In reference to the above appeal from Mr. A. T. Davies for Books for British Prisoners of War, it may be mentioned that the appeal to members of the M.L.A. is specially for Modern Language Books, Dictionaries, Grammars (with keys if possible), Readers and Authors (modern), Commercial Correspondence, etc. The languages mostly in demand are English, French, German, Russian, and Spanish. Readers and authors in the last two are badly wanted. Languages in less demand are such as: Italian, Scandinavian languages, Dutch, Polish, Arabic, Turkish, Hindustani or Urdu, Hindi, Nepali, Tamil, Chinese, Japanese, etc. For Indian soldiers we want books for them to learn English from, such as are used in Anglo-vernacular schools; also authors in Urdu, Hindi, etc., and arithmetics in the native languages. I hope my fellow members of the M.L.A. will respond liberally.

HAROLD W. ATKINSON.

DEAR SIR,—I notice that at the meeting following the annual meeting (reported February), a member, Mr. Ripman, said that 'No foreign language should be attempted before (the age of) twelve,' and that this sweeping declaration was not controverted by any experienced teacher present. In this, some important considerations seem forgotten. It has been truly said, I think by Goethe, that he who knows only one language does not know that one. A glimpse into the possibilities of another tongue is of much psychological value. Foreign language teaching is best begun in object and picture lessons, which are not suitably given earlier than the elaborate tasks laid upon pupils in their teens. These, together with reading lively foreign nursery-tales, are comparatively restful lessons for children, who are compelled to do so much hard work in school, and give them a pleasant beginning to what should be an interesting study. That knowledge of a second language should be more widespread among English people is surely too obviously important to need urging at the present time. D. F. K.

REVIEWS.

[*The Association does not make itself officially responsible for the opinions of reviewers.*]

Some Questions of Phonetic Theory. By WILFRED PERRETT. University of London Press, Ltd., 1916. Price 2s. 6d. net.

The author records a number of very interesting observations on the proper pitches of the mouth-cavity in different vowel configurations, and corrects results obtained by Helmholtz and other early workers in this difficult field. As is well known, there have been great discrepancies in the recorded pitches. Mr. Perrett's contribution is most valuable and welcome, coming as it does from a highly expert phonetician. In his application of his results, however, to the physical theory of vowel-quality, he is, I think, less happy. He directs a vigorous, and somewhat heated, attack against the original 'fixed pitch' theory as formulated by Helmholtz, a theory already shown to be inadequate by the later researches of Auerbach, Hermann, and others. Some of his arguments seem open to criticism from the physical standpoint. For instance, he urges the impossibility of reconciling the continuous change in vowel quality with the finite number of harmonics of a given note which lie in the range of the tones of the mouth-cavity. The reasoning seems to imply that a resonator can affect the quality of a note only when its proper pitch coincides with one of the harmonics of the note. But the quality of the sound heard depends on the relative strengths of the harmonics, and these will be influenced by the forced oscillation of a body of air, even when the pitch of the latter is different from that of any harmonic. Those harmonics which lie nearest to a proper tone of the air-mass will be relatively strengthened in comparison with others which lie farther off. So the change in quality will be as continuous as the change in the proper tones of the cavity, when the form and dimensions of the latter are continuously altered.

Again, the author describes a very interesting feat, performed by Mr. Daniel Jones, and successfully imitated by himself, in which, by giving the proper form to the mouth-cavity, different harmonics of a hummed note are

picked out and strengthened by resonance. He urges as a fatal objection to the received theory that this is heard as a separate note and not as vowel-quality added to the hum-note. An analogy to this may be found in the case of a 'mixture-stop' in an organ. Here a range of harmonics, with their intensities properly graded in a diminishing series, produces merely a distinctive quality in the fundamental tone. But if these harmonic intensities were increased sufficiently we should have the upper tones as separate notes of a chord. And within a certain range it is easy to hear either the quality or the chord by a transfer of attention.

Ohm's law, the harmonic theory of quality, and the resonance-theory of audition, rest on a great mass of evidence drawn from different parts of acoustics. Like all scientific theories, they are held only so long as no other theory furnishes a better framework for the phenomena. I do not think they are seriously shaken by Mr. Perrett's lively attacks. W. B. M.

Bocheland. By THEOBALD BUTLER. London, William Heinemann. 2s. 6d. net.

This book is an agreeable and instructive *causerie*, published towards the end of 1916, on its author's return from two years' residence in Germany during the present war. Mr. Butler, whose knowledge of Germany and the Germans covers a period of forty years, has much that is interesting to relate on the German mental attitude towards England and France, the arrogance of their officers, their amazing table manners and Press, which latter is dragooned by the authorities. The public opinion of the country, which the Government ignores, and the 'cancer of hate' past curing existent in the Fatherland also come in for mention. But while he affords plenty of material for his readers to form their opinions, he omits to give a general summary of his own impressions. This, in view of his long residence in various parts of the country, would have had a formative effect on British public opinion, and in his next edition we suggest that some such *résumé* should be added.

Despite the book's discursive character, however, Mr. Butler provides his readers with plenty of facts, many of which are really quite funny, and members of the association could not fail to be interested in Chapter XXIV., which deals with the abortive efforts of the patriotic Teuton to eliminate all foreign words from the language.

The attempts made in the seventeenth century to provide the Jews with surnames of a geographical, physical, or trading nature appear to have had some peculiar results, if we may believe Mr. Butler's informant, 'a professor of history,' who assured him that there are still in existence Austrian Jews bearing the suggestive names Kanalgeruch and Temperaturwechsel!

We can strongly recommend this book as a pleasant companion on a railway journey.

W. S. M.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE.

A MEETING of the Executive Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, March 31.

Present: Messrs. Hutton (chair), Allpress, Atkins, Miss Althaus, Mr. Bullough, Miss Hart, Messrs. Macgowan, Mansion, Perrett, Richards, Ripman, Miss Strachey, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from Miss Ash and Mr. de Payen-Payne.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The Hon. Secretary reported that Signorina de Castelveechio, Mr. Trofimov, and Dr. Woolf had given evidence before the Government Committee on Italian, Russian, and Spanish respectively, but that his attempts to find a representative to speak for German had failed.

It was agreed that no action should be taken on the Report of the University Appointments Sub-Committee at present.

The Statement of the Claims of Modern Languages, printed below, was agreed to.

It was agreed to make a grant of £3 to the sub-committee, subject to the approval of the Finance Sub-Committee.

The question of changing the name of the magazine was reconsidered, and it was agreed that it be referred to the General Committee.

The following statement on the allocation of hours to Modern Languages was drawn up, in answer to a request from the Neglect of Science Committee:

> 'A Modern Language requires a daily period (*i.e.*, not less than five hours a week) during the first two years; after that four periods is sufficient. A second language should not be begun till two years after the first is begun.'

Letters from the Rev. A. J. Ashley, Corresponding Secretary of the Church Esperantist League, and from three members of the Association were read, asking that the Committee should discuss the claims of Esperanto.

It was agreed that an opportunity for a deputation to be heard should be arranged.

It was agreed that a meeting of the General Committee should be held on May 19.

The following new members were elected:

C. E. Brittain, M.A., M.Sc., Grammar School, Normanton.

Miss P. I. Brown, B.A., High School, Bedford.

Signorina Dobelli, Bedford College, N.W.

Miss Joyner.

Miss V. C. Murray, Grassendale, Southbourne.

Miss Emmeline Paxton, tutor in German to Society of Oxford Home Students.

Miss O. M. Potts, High School, Bridgnorth.

L. L. Squire, B.A., Watford Grammar School.

Miss M. J. Wyly, B.A., Tottenham Grammar School.

A meeting of the General Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, May 19.

Present: Mr. Hutton (chair), Mr. Allpress, Miss Althaus, Miss Ash, Messrs. Atkins, Brereton, Bullough, Signorina de Castelvecchio, Messrs. Chouville, D. Jones, Macgowan, Mansion, Payen-Payne, Perrett, Richards, Rouse, Miss Strachey, Mr. Trofimov, and the Hon. Secretary.

Letters of apology for absence were received from Miss Allpress, Lady Frazer, Messrs. J. G. Anderson, Odgers, Ripman, Woolf, and Professor Savory.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

On the recommendation of the Finance Sub-Committee, it was agreed that a grant be made, as last year, to those branches that desire it.

The sub-committee for the annual general meeting was reappointed.

The proposal that the name of the magazine be changed to 'Modern Languages and Modern Language Teaching, the official organ of the Modern Language Association,' was rejected by 9 votes to 8.

The proposal that after the war the experiment be tried of holding one General Committee meeting a year in some Provincial Centre was rejected by 11 votes to 0.

A letter from the Cambridge Syndicate for Local Examinations, announcing that they proposed to arrange for the Alternative Examination suggested by the Association, was read, and heard by the Committee with much satisfaction. The Regulations for the new Examination will be found below.

On the report of the sub-committee for Russian, it was agreed that the sub-committee should use its best endeavours to form a working agreement with the United Russia Societies Association, provided it be understood that no examination shall be instituted by the sub-committee involving the issue of a diploma in competition with existing examinations.

It was agreed that Sir Henry Newbolt should be invited to be Chairman of the sub-committee for Italian.

The following five new members were elected:

Miss Winifred Johnson, B.A., Kendrick Girls' School, Reading.

Miss B. Lochore, Haberdashers' Aske's Girls' School, Acton, W.

Miss Molony, Lecturer in Russian at Cardiff and Newport, Mon.

Sir Henry Newbolt, M.A., D.Litt.

J. M. Villasante, LL.D., Lecturer in Spanish, King's College, W.C.

THE ESPERANTIST DEPUTATION.

At its meeting on May 19 the General Committee had the pleasure of receiving a number of supporters of Esperanto, who came to urge the claims of Esperanto to a place in the school curriculum. The deputation was organized by the Church Esperantist League, but the British Esperanto Association was also represented. The Rev. A. L. Curry, President of the former body, headed the deputation, and the Rev. A. J. Ashley, Corresponding Secretary, introduced the subject, and Miss Truss, of the L.C.C. Commercial Institute, Balham, a member of the M.L.A., also spoke. Questions were then asked by members of the Committee. Several of these referred to the difficulty children would find in turning English idiomatic expressions into Esperanto. Others related to the difficult sounds of the language. In answer to the question whether Esperantists really understood one another, one member of the deputation stated that when he was an officer at an International Congress, he had conversed with persons of thirty different nationalities without difficulty. The point whether Esperanto would tend to form dialects was raised; the answer was that this was a question for the future, not for the present. As illustrating the fact that Esperanto is a living language, it was stated that new words are now being formed to translate the theological terms used in the Book of Common Prayer. The spread of Esperanto in China and other Eastern countries was described, and the support that it is finding in the commercial world was mentioned.

Time did not admit of the Committees discussing the educational question which the deputation raised. This had to be reserved for a future meeting.

THE NEW ALTERNATIVE IN THE CAMBRIDGE SENIOR LOCAL.

The Cambridge Syndicate, in their Regulations for 1918, announce the following alternative syllabuses in French in the Senior Local Examination:

A. The paper will consist of (1) passages for translation into English; (2) two passages of English for translation into French: as an alternative to the harder passage, subjects will be given, on one of which candidates may write a short composition in French. In order to pass, candidates must reach a certain standard as a whole. They may be rejected for weakness in either (1) or (2). In order to gain the mark of distinction they must reach a higher standard in the subject as a whole, and must also reach a certain standard in (1) and in (2).

B. Candidates will be required to reach a certain standard both in Spoken French and in a paper which will consist of (1) passages of French for translation into English; (2) free composition in French. They may be rejected for weakness in either part of the paper. In order to gain the mark of distinction they must reach a higher standard in the subject as a whole and must also reach a certain standard in (1) and in (2).

The Examination in Spoken French will consist of reading aloud, dictation, and conversation. Candidates may, but are not obliged to, offer a portion of a French author, containing at least 6,000 words, on which, if approved by the Syndicate, the conversation may be partly based.

It is to be observed that Syllabus B applies to French only.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

All contributors are requested to send in matter by the 24th of each month, if publication is urgently required for the issue following.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 15th of February, March, April or May, June, July, October, November, and December. The price of single numbers is 6d. net.; the annual subscription is 4s. 8d. Orders should be sent direct to the Publishers, A. and C. Black, Ltd., 4, Soho Square, London.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, Cuilrathain, Harpenden, Herts. [N.B.—**Temporary address** during School Term: ST. JOHN'S SCHOOL, LEATHERHEAD.]

The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Association, but those whose subscription for the current year is not paid before July 1 are not entitled to receive it.

The Annual Subscription to the Association, payable on January 1, is 7s. 6d., and should be sent to the Hon. Treasurer, Dr. W. PERRETT, 58, Erskine Hill, Hendon, N.W.

Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, Steeple, Kingsway, Gerrards Cross.

The MODERN LANGUAGE REVIEW, a Quarterly Journal of Medieval and Modern Literature and Philology, edited by Professor J. G. Robertson, and published by the Cambridge University Press, is supplied to Members of the Association at a special annual subscription of 7s. 6d., *which must be prepaid*. It should be sent with the membership subscription (15s. in all) to the Hon. Treasurer. Those who wish to take in or discontinue the REVIEW should communicate with the Hon. Secretary.

The attention of Teachers is drawn to the collection of French and German School Books, carefully selected by a Sub-Committee, and known as the Travelling Exhibition. It may be inspected on applying to Mr. Twentyman, Board of Education, Whitehall. A Catalogue (sent *gratis* to members) has been issued of all sections except Reading Texts, of which a separate and minutely detailed list is being prepared. For particulars of conditions on which the Exhibition may be loaned apply to Miss Hart, as below.

The Hon. Secretary will be glad to receive from members the addresses of well-educated families on the Continent willing to receive English guests, which can be recommended to students and teachers wishing to study abroad. The addresses of houses where an English guest is not likely to meet any other English people are specially desired. Names of families should not be sent unless the member can recommend them from personal knowledge. Full particulars should be given.

Communications on the under-mentioned subjects should be addressed to the persons named:—

Exchange of Children: Miss BATCHELOR, Bedford College, Regent's Park, N.W.

Magic-Lantern Slides: H. L. HUTTON, 2, College Gardens, Dulwich, S.E.

Residence Abroad (Women): Miss SANDYS, 30, East St. Helen's, Abingdon; **(Men)**: The Hon. Secretary.

Travelling Exhibition: J. E. MANSION, B.-ès-L., 10, Sudbrooke Road, Wandsworth Common, S.W.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, Berkhamsted School, Herts.

N.B.—Applicants for correspondents are requested to enclose list of pupils, giving names, ages, and addresses, and a stamp for reply.

Correspondence on all other subjects should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary.

It is urgently requested that all Postal Orders be crossed.

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THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY J. G. ANDERSON

VOLUME XIII. No. 5 July, 1917

THE MONTESSORI SPIRIT AND THE TEACHING OF FRENCH.

IT is in answer to a letter that appeared last autumn in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING that I write the following account of an experiment carried out in a boys' public school. In many girls' schools some such plan is already followed, but I do not think it is usual among boys.

The study of Montessori methods and of the work in the teaching of English of Mr. Caldwell Cook at the Perse School, set me thinking how best to utilize the spontaneous spirit, the 'play-way,' in the teaching of French. Freedom of choice, the expression of personality, lie at its root. Why not let boys choose their own books? A common book is necessary on which to base lessons on grammar and composition, but rapid reading is the quickest way to the acquirement of a vocabulary, and for rapid reading there is no need for every boy to have the same book. Quite the contrary. Individuals differ very much in the pace at which they read, and who does not know the weariness of waiting for the laggards?

It was in the upper third form (*i.e.*, in the top set of the third block), where the need of spontaneous expression makes itself most clearly felt, that we first instituted the *livre particulier*. From the French form library, the boys were invited to choose each his own book, and a preparation-time was given for private reading. To make sure that the privilege (it was so regarded) was not abused by lazy boys, the class were told that they would be expected to give orally, in form next day, some account of what they had read. And this plan, which has been constantly followed, has proved of the utmost value in giving practice in oral composition and conversation. For instance, I know of no better way of making pupils grasp the difference between the use of the imperfect and that of the past definite. It is the only way of getting some boys to speak French; the shyest and most tongue-tied will talk when he has something so definite and interesting to talk about. Since the plan was adopted, the written work has improved, and the whole standard of comprehension in French has risen. A fourth-form boy used the word *prévenir* very aptly in a composition, and, on being asked how he came to know it, said: 'Je l'ai vu dans mon livre particulier.'

Then, the *livre particulier* is a boon for the quick boy who has always finished his corrections first. No time is wasted. His own book interests him, and he is immersed in it while the master is still explaining obvious faults to the slow. And boys form a habit of reading French; very few of them limit their reading to the forty minutes in preparation, as the library register proves.

It is interesting to find that 'silent reading' as a means of learning a language is backed by the highest scientific authority. I quote from a letter from Dr. Jessie White in *The Times* Educational Supplement of March 22, 1917: 'Dr. Montessori shows why silent reading should come before the reading aloud, which is a complex process involving (1) proficiency in the mechanism of associating graphic and auditory images, (2) interpretation of the sense, and (3) expression of it with dramatic feeling by means of the voice.' These remarks refer to reading in the mother-tongue by young children, but they are equally true of reading in a foreign language. This letter of Dr. Jessie White's follows one from Miss Charlotte Mason, in which she strongly advocates silent reading followed by 'telling,' and shows the wonderful progress in English made by children who practise it.

For silent reading to be of full value, it is

essential that boys should have a preliminary sound phonetic training. Private reading has, as its natural corollary, much reading aloud by the teacher, when the boys listen without books. The book so read must be simple enough and have a clear, strong interest. I have found Lichtenberger's *Mon Petit Trott*, and the old favourite *Mémoires d'un Âne*, excellent for this purpose in III. A. Last term I read the greater part of *La Chanson de Roland*, done into modern French, to the fifth, and *Aucassin et Nicolette*, also in modern French, to IV. B.

As private reading proved such a success in III. A, it was adopted in other divisions, one lesson and one preparation a week being allotted to it; the Remove, the lowest form in the upper school, at the request of the boys, will begin next term. The success of the plan depends, of course, on the right choice of books. The golden rule is that no boy is obliged to finish a book that he finds uninteresting; for 'uninteresting' nearly always means 'too difficult.' I see that IV. B. and III. A (*i.e.*, 48 boys) are together responsible for 275 exchanges during last term. Some of the books only number 30 to 40 pages, but on the other hand I find recorded *Le Voyage au Centre de la Terre* and *Les Aventures de Monsieur Pickwick* (Nelson's edition). The fourth and third forms usually take books from the form library, which vary in difficulty from *Victor et Victorine* (Lady Frazer) and *Soirées chez les Pascal* (F. B. Kirkman) to *La Petite Fadette*. Most of these have vocabularies, an advantage in books for rapid reading. The sixth and fifth take books from the school library; and although boys in the fifth are allowed to read Dumas and Jules Verne, the cleverer ones are encouraged to choose books of a higher literary quality.

I add a list of some of the books read during the Christmas and Lent terms by the fifth form, excluding general favourites of Dumas, Jules Verne, and Daudet.

Notre Dame de Paris (2 vols.); Les Misérables (2 vols.); Les Misérables (abridged); La Mare au Diable; Les Maîtres Sonneurs; François le Champi; La Petite Fadette; Antoinette (Romain Rolland); Histoires Extraordinaires (Traduction de Baudelaire); Contes des Bords du Rhin; Contes Choisis de Maupassant; Contes du Lundi; Merveilles de l'Instinct chez les Insectes (Fabre); Mémoires de Saint Simon (Édition Nelson); Histoire de France (Lavisse), vol. v., 1re partie; Le Barbier de Séville; Ruy Blas; Hernani; Marion de Lorme; Molière, vol. iv. (Hachette).

Some books are taken out and read every holiday. I note about twenty-seven entries this last time, but there are generally more.

ROSE WELLS.

FRENCH VOCABULARIES BY CATENATION.

OF systems and devices for the acquiring and retention of vocabularies in foreign languages the number is legion, and the majority are well thought out and scientifically applied. My sole reason for suggesting the addition of yet one more system to those already in vogue is that, perhaps, its merits are not so well known nor its practice so extensive as in the case of other methods. It will perhaps be as well, at the outset, to give as clear a definition as possible of catenation. Catenation is the linking up of two extremes, one of which is known and the other sought for, by means of intermediate steps or links in the chain of thought. It is a process the value of which is too well known to those interested in the development of memory training to need any further commendation here. Suffice it to say that experience shows that there are few extremes, however widely severed in appearance, which cannot be ultimately linked up in a more or less satisfactory manner. To take a simple illustration of a practical nature: Probably not a few of us have had the unpleasant experience of starting out to visit a parent or stranger, and suddenly finding that we have contrived to mislay the address and forget essential points; or, worse still, we may start out with the requisite knowledge impressed on our memory, and yet, after various unexpected meetings and the starting of numerous trains of thought, we find that the details have slipped us. Recently I had to visit a man of the name of Crouch, whose address was, The Hut, Dunmow Hill (I refrain from giving further details). Starting with The Hut, the easiest item to remember, as one extreme, I proceed to catenate as follows: Hut, low, bend, *Crouch*; hut, low, bend, *mow*, etc. If this process is repeated and pictured carefully three or four times, it will take a lot to eradicate it entirely from the memory. Of course, the process may be equally well applied to much more complicated subjects.

My principal object here, however, is to emphasize the possibilities of the method in acquiring, and above all in retaining, French vocabularies. But, before proceeding to a few illustrations as applied to French, it is impor-

tant to insert one or two cautions. In the first place, it is well to say emphatically that catenation has no part or place in the elementary stages of instruction. During the first two years of French, when the pupil is constantly learning to associate concrete objects and pictures with sounds, the employment of catenation would be superfluous, and probably even harmful, if attempted. It may be said at once that the method is only suitable for pupils who have done at least three or four years of French, who have already acquired a fair working vocabulary of French with a good English vocabulary, and who are not altogether devoid of inventiveness and a sense of humour. A few further cautions need to be clearly stated: The system must never, of course, be employed (1) where the sense of a word is already known; (2) where the sense can be fairly easily gathered, with a little thought, from the context; (3) where the sense can be obtained on some sounder and more scientific basis—*e.g.*, families of cognates: *se fier, se confier, se défier, la méfiance*, etc.; the laws of association, such as, *les divers vêtements qu'on porte;* or the law of opposites, especially with reference to adjectives: *léger, e.g.*, should not be learnt apart from *lourd*; *diligent* should at once suggest *paresseux*, etc.

Having exhausted these and other methods of vocabulary-building, it may be pertinently asked what place and value is left for catenation. The answer is that it is peculiarly helpful in assisting pupils to retain that very considerable but essential category of less common words which cannot so readily be classified under other headings. Let me illustrate by means of a few words of the type indicated recently catenated by a class of pupils in their fourth year of French. Extremes are printed in italics, intermediates in ordinary type.

Palissandre,-palace-gardens,-roses—*rosewood*. *Enchère*,-chair,-furniture,-sale — *auction sale*. *Bibelots*,-bib,-babies,-little things—*knick-knacks*. Etc.

The reverse process may be used equally effectively:

Network,-net,-disentangle,-resolve — *réseau*. *Apron*,-drawer,-table—*tablier*. *Basin*,-blood,-animal,-vet—*cuvette*. Etc.

Of course, in many cases the number of intermediates can easily be reduced to two or even one. Again, a key may be found from a word similar in appearance already known, *e.g.*, *le manchon* (gas-mantle). Starting with *la manche*, we get sleeve,-mantle—*gas-mantle*. A sense of humour is valuable—*e.g.*, *dindon*, 'dined on,'-Christmas dinner—*turkey*. Such a method may appear at first sight not particularly scientific or edifying; but I take it that the vital point is, Do the pupils retain such vocabularies much longer and more satisfactorily than by the usual method of looking a word out in the dictionary and forgetting it? On this point I have not the slightest hesitation in affirming that words so catenated, especially if the pupil do his own catenation (and this is a very important point), are retained in a most surprising and gratifying manner, so that the old plaint of the teacher, 'I cannot think how you can have forgotten that word; we had it only the day before yesterday,' steadily becomes less often heard. After a while pupils become quite keen, and will often rapidly suggest catenations where it is the best way out of the difficulty. It may then, I think, be stated with confidence that the system is really valuable for the retaining of that additional few hundred words which make all the difference between a good and a poor vocabulary in the case of a pupil of average ability who has been learning French for three or four years.

Professor James, in his famous Gifford Lectures on 'Varieties of Religious Experience,' has made it clear to us that no variety, however seemingly insignificant, is to be despised, provided it has any fruits to show and a real following; so, too, with teaching methods and suggestions: we must weigh them and find out what their merits are by actual experience, even though those merits may seem to be relatively insignificant.

CECIL H. S. WILLSON.

THE PRONUNCIATION OF LATIN.

EVERYONE interested in the maintenance of Latin as one of the main subjects of British education must be glad that, owing to the exertions of the Classical Association, the traditional way of pronouncing Latin like English has been changed. Many scholars and many teachers, however, have come to the conclusion that this change is not for the better, and can only be justified on the principle once enunciated to the present writer by a liberal-minded and progressive lady—viz., that even a change for the worse is better than no change at all. Certain disadvantages in the new scheme of pronunciation are obvious; the question to be considered is whether these disadvantages are countervailed and justified by corresponding

advantages. The first defect in the scheme, and a very obvious one, is that, as it coincides with no Continental scheme of pronunciation, it effectually disposes of Latin as a spoken *lingua franca* for learned men, which must be a source of sorrow to all except, perhaps, the Esperantists. In this respect it is no better than the discarded pronunciation which rendered our Latinists so incomprehensible to Continental scholars. In the next place, it cannot be spoken of as the universally accepted scheme for Britain itself, *quod ubique, quod omnibus accipitur*. For many of the private schools object to it as laying too great a burden on the intelligence of their pupils, and many of the public schools have refused to accept it on the ground that it is unreasonable. The older Universities seem to have given it a mild approval; at least, it is used, apparently, in some colleges, while it remains unadopted in others. But many of the youths who have left the Universities lately seem to have drifted back to the Anglified pronunciation. Of course, the new has been elaborated and thought out by the best British scholars of the day, and is therefore not lightly to be discarded, nor, indeed, to be harshly criticized without due consideration and understanding of their point of view. But from my point of view it is much to be wished that certain modifications might be introduced into the scheme, which would render it not merely more widely acceptable, but likewise more intellectually useful, and would bring it more into harmony with the pronunciation of Latin adopted on the Continent. All must admit that a uniform pronunciation is desirable. I have seen several instances of the hardships imposed on boys who have passed from a school where the old fashion of pronunciation was in force into one where the new was adopted, and *vice versa*. I know also the inconvenience which was felt by the fact that even under the old régime no universal scheme was in vogue. At Winchester we had some peculiarities of pronunciation which were traditional, and as such highly prized; Ireland had other peculiarities; and Scotland had its own traditional method, approaching that of the Italians. And it may here be remarked that the scheme recommended by the Scottish Education Office for adoption in Scotland is not the same as that adopted in England; it involves less departure from the traditional pronunciation used to the North of the Tweed. My wish is that a scheme of Latin pronunciation may be propounded which shall approximate as nearly as possible to the Continental methods of pronouncing Latin. These do indeed differ in slight particulars from each other, but only in slight particulars, and it is safe to say that the best model for us to follow would be that of the Curia at Rome. The main thing to insist on is that the vowel sounds should be those of the Italian language. I agree with the remark made by the learned Professor William Ramsay in his *Manual of Latin Prosody*, that 'it will not be going too far to say that, in those particulars in which their pronunciation differs from that of the other nations of Europe, there is a presumption at least that they have derived this from their mighty ancestors.' I do not wish to dispute the fact that the modern scheme may, and probably does, represent more or less truly the pronunciation of Latin in the more educated circles of Rome at certain periods of classical times, although opinions differ as to the correctness of certain sounds which the new scheme recommends to be adopted. It seems, for instance, unfortunate to admit that a word like *volvo* should be pronounced 'wolwo' (thus separating it from our 'revolve' and Italian 'rivolgerie'), when we find that the *v* sound is in inscriptions constantly replaced by *b*, as Bixit, Berna—a mistake which would not easily have arisen if the letter *v* had really been pronounced as *w*. As a matter of fact, I conjecture that it was pronounced like the Bavarian sound of *w* in *wohl*, something between *v* and *w*; so would it not be wiser to hold in this case to the old method? After all, the changes from Latin into Romance were very gradual, and admitting that '*K*ikero' was spoken in classical times instead of '*C*icero' and that *æ* was pronounced as *ai*—which is at least doubtful—it should be remarked that these changes occurred while Latin was yet a spoken language, though not spoken as in the time of Cicero. It must also be remembered that, even if the new scheme reproduces the sound of the letters as heard in classical times, it is quite impossible to reproduce the intonation, the pitch, the cadences, etc., which are quite as important as the letter sounds.

It seems to me of enormous importance to utilize the Latin language as an easy and profitable method of learning the Romance tongues, which promise to be more important than ever after the war, when our alliance with France will render it more desirable even than it is at present to study the language and literature of our neighbours. Yet in how few schools is any connection between the parent Latin and its daughters systematically taught, or even hinted at! Again, the passing of Latin into Romance might be used to illustrate the processes known to philology, such as the gradual

changes of morphology and semasiology, and this with the great advantage that such processes may thus be exemplified to the learner by the growth of languages which he knows, instead of by instances drawn from Sanscrit, etc., which he probably has to take for granted.

H. A. Strong.

CHRONIQUE FRANÇAISE.

La guerre a été la grande épreuve des valeurs; beaucoup de grandeurs fictives se sont effondrées, des valeurs cachées ont été soudain révélées, plus rarement des valeurs connues et reconnues ont été confirmées et ont reçu un nouvel éclat. Ce dernier cas est celui du cardinal Mercier. Ce prince de l'Eglise était aussi un prince de la pensée: il est un de ceux qui, sous l'impulsion de Léon XIII., avaient essayé de rendre une vie nouvelle à l'enseignement de St. Thomas; professeur, puis président de l'Institut de philosophie thomiste de Louvain, l'abbé Mercier avait manifesté les qualités d'un dialecticien et d'un métaphysicien supérieur; ce scolastique, cet ascète au long corps consumé, au regard ardent et pensif, était pourtant soucieux de la pensée de son temps, et c'est au contact des sciences modernes, 'étudiées d'après leur méthode,' qu'il voulait rajeunir la philosophie médiévale, 'la philosophie *éternelle*.' Ce métaphysicien allait s'affirmer organisateur, et l'homme d'étude homme d'action quand, nommé archevêque de Malines, il allait se trouver à la tête de l'Eglise de Belgique et, par là même, mêlé à la vie politique de la Belgique: on sait comment, dans le petit royaume, politique et religion se pénétrent. Mgr. Baudrillard raconte comment, aux grandes fêtes de Louvain en 1909, le cardinal Mercier 'conseiller du Roi, primat de l'Eglise belge, universitaire lui-même apparaissait comme le trait d'union, le nœud central de toutes ces forces unies. . . .' Mais le cardinal Mercier allait, bien plus sûrement que par cette action, entrer dans la grande histoire quand en 1914 il se dressa dans sa faiblesse contre l'envahisseur et lutta pied à pied contre la force brutale avec les seules armes de la pensée et de l'intégrité morale. Ce sont les phases de cette lutte, ou les pièces de ce procès, que nous donne ce livre,* depuis la fameuse lettre pastorale 'Patriotisme et Endurance' de Noël 1914, jusqu'aux protestations contre les déportations de 1916. Une partie de ces lettres et discours est catholique, et reste plus ou moins étrangère à ceux qui sont étrangers au catholicisme. Mais la protestation du cardinal s'inspire de principes plus généraux, elle fait appel à une conscience plus vaste, à *la* conscience tout simplement, et c'est ce qui fait sa force: 'Je serais indigne de cet anneau épiscopal que l'Eglise m'a mis au doigt, de cette croix qu'elle a posée sur ma poitrine, si, obéissant à une passion humaine, j'hésitais à proclamer que le droit violenté reste le droit, que l'injustice appuyée sur la force n'est pas moins l'injustice!'

Une autre personnalité que la guerre a grandie, et qui ne cesse de grandir et de grandir encore, c'est celle de Péguy. C'est que Ch. Péguy pouvait être discutable comme écrivain, avec des parties certaines de génie, mais il était autre chose qu'un écrivain: 'Il était Péguy, grand par la force, grand par la conscience et le caractère. Il était le premier des soldats qui écrivent, et le premier entre les artisans qui pensent. Peu d'hommes ont agi sur leur temps plus que lui. . . .' Nous avons parlé ici de Péguy au lendemain de sa mort glorieuse au premier jour de la bataille de la Marne; cette mort n'était que l'aboutissant logique, le couronnement mérité et désiré d'une belle vie pure de croyant et de combattant, et son nom restera associé avec celui de l'immortelle victoire de la Délivrance. Sa vie du reste n'avait-elle pas été toute dominée par la pensée, la vision, l'amour de Jeanne, depuis son enfance à Orléans où sa pauvre femme de mère rempaillait les chaises qu'elle louait à l'église St. Aignan jusqu'à ses derniers poèmes, ce *Mystère de Jeanne d'Arc* qu'il déroulait volume après volume avec la foi, l'amour, et la patience d'un artisan des cathédrales. Il faut connaître Péguy pour comprendre, en ce fils des petits vignerons des côtes de la Loire, l'âme paysanne française la plus profonde, et pour comprendre en ce passionné batailleur d'idées l'âme d'une des élites françaises. Voici deux petits livres qui y aideront: l'un est la biographie simple et émue écrite par un ami, un disciple, avec des citations de Péguy qui renseigneront sur l'écrivain ceux à qui le temps manque pour une plus complète connaissance;* l'autre, très différent et écrit sur un autre plan, par un ami aussi, mais par un égal dans l'ordre de la pensée, par un pair. Nous

* *Per Crucem ad Lucem.* Lettres pastorales, Discours, etc., par le Cardinal Mercier, Archevêque de Malines, Primat de Belgique. Bloud et Gay, Ed., 7, Place St. Sulpice, Paris (6e). Prix fr. 3.50.

* *Charles Péguy.* Lettre-préface de Mme. Charles Péguy. Par Ch. Sylvestre. Bloud et Gay, Ed., 7, Place St. Sulpice, Paris (6e). Prix fr. 1.50.

parlerons prochainement de Suarès, une des hautes figures des lettres françaises actuelles et une des moins connues. Signalons seulement aujourd'hui cet entretien élevé, et même un peu hautain parfois, ce poème en prose, si intelligent pourtant et où l'esprit critique se lie intimement aux élévations du cœur, cette noble plainte d'un grand esprit sur un grand esprit, cette confidence à mi-voix d'un ami sur un ami.*

Nous sommes loin de Péguy avec 'l'honorable' Tittoni, sénateur, ambassadeur d'Italie à Paris; il est, nous dit M. Hanotaux, 'un homme qui sait la politique sur le bout du doigt; il a le savoir et le savoir-faire, la main et le tact, c'est un humaniste intellectuel et un praticien; il représente excellement la génération italienne actuelle, celle qui, ayant reçu de ses prédécesseurs l'Italie libre et unie, compte bien laisser aux générations futures une plus grande Italie.' C'est un beau type d'homme et de latin que ce diplomate italien, cultivé et fin, mais volonté énergique, souple et claire, et qui a joué un grand rôle dans la crise européenne actuelle; plusieurs des qualités qu'il partage avec ceux de sa génération contredisent l'idée que 'l'homme dans la rue' anglais se fait habituellement de l'homme du sud: 'la loyauté dans la réserve, le bon sens froid, une sorte de méfiance instinctive des grands mots et des grands gestes. . . .' Il n'est pas non plus de langue plus opposée à celle de Péguy qui 'veut donner à sa pensée tous les tours et toutes les inflexions de la conscience,' qui ne choisit pas et donne sa pensée avec ses variantes, ses digressions, ses tâtonnements, et ses reprises, que la langue châtiée, retenue et discrète de l'homme d'état: 'Il n'est pas une ligne de ces discours,' dit encore M. Hanotaux, 'qui ne mérite une lecture attentive et réfléchie.'†

On lira avec plaisir deux autres brochures de la même collection qui donnent des discours et articles de MM. Mithouard et Denys Cochin,‡ car on devinera en elles deux autres belles personnalités françaises. M. A. Mithouard est maire de Paris, ou, pour être plus exact, président du conseil municipal de Paris, il est architecte, directeur d'une revue littéraire, *L'Occident*, et poète lui même; M. Denys Cochin lui aussi d'une vieille famille de bourgeoisie parisienne est académicien, député, philosophe, hélleniste et ministre d'état. L'un et l'autre sont des savants, d'une science claire et vivante, ils n'ont rien de cette race dont parle Montaigne 'des ânes chargés de livres'; ils sont mêlés à la pensée et à l'action de leur temps. Ce souci des hommes politiques pour la littérature est, du reste, bien dans la tradition française; nous en avons nombre d'exemples fameux, et d'autres qui le seront: Paul Claudel, le poète le plus hardi depuis Raimbaud, n'est-il pas l'actuel et très sage ministre plénipotentiaire de France au Brésil?

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Si la guerre est une épreuve pour tous les caractères qui y sont mêlés de près ou de loin, elle agit sur ceux qui la font comme un puissant réactif qui fait ressortir l'image confuse qu'elle précise en l'approfondissant. Il y a en ce moment un grand et cordial désir en Angleterre d'éclairer d'intelligence la foi en la nation alliée: pourquoi ne pas lire les livres des soldats? C'est là, plus que dans beaucoup de poèmes et de romans d'avant la guerre, qu'on verrait s'ouvrir les trésors que l'âme française, par une sorte de pudeur, cachait aux regards; c'est là aussi sans doute qu'on prendrait une vue plus large et plus complète de la France, car ce ne sont pas seulement les écrivains de profession qui les écrivent ces livres, mais beaucoup de ceux qui, sans la grande tourmente, n'auraient jamais parlé. Lettres écrites à la maison, aux êtres chers, et publiées en souvenirs, ou récits des choses et des hommes vus, ces livres nous font entrer dans l'intimité de quelques unes des 'familles spirituelles' de France: En voici quelques uns pris parmi les plus récents.

Ferdinand Belmont, né dans Lyon, 'industrielle et mystique,' était d'une de ces familles de vieille bourgeoisie de Savoie où se perpétuent les traditions de haute tenue morale, de vertus familiales et de foi chrétienne. Il appartenait à cette génération passionnée et grave et qui se préparait pour la grande tempête qu'elle sentait venir et où elle allait s'engouffrer. Comme le disait le paysan savoisien dont parle M. Bordeaux en apprenant la mort du second de ces fils: 'Dieu les a trouvés prêts.' F. Belmont était sans doute préparé dès avant la guerre, mais cette œuvre secrète de préparation nous la voyons se poursuivre et s'achever jusqu'à la paix complète et l'acceptation définitive dans ces lettres qu'on ne lira pas sans une admiration émue. Ce n'est pas du reste une lecture aride: ce jeune capitaine de vingt-quatre ans, à l'âme si grave et tendre, qui travaille ainsi à se

* *Péguy*. Par André Suarès. Émile-Paul Frères, Ed., 100, Rue du Faubourg St. Honoré, Place Beauvau, Paris. Prix fr. 3.50.

† *Le Jugement de l'Histoire sur la Responsabilité de la Guerre*. Par Tommaso Tittoni, avec Préface par M. G. Hanotaux, de l'Académie Française. Bloud et Gay, Ed.

‡ *Quatre Discours et une Conférence*. Par Adrien Mithouard. *Le Dieu allemand*. Par Denys Cochin, de l'Académie Française, Ministre d'Etat. Collection 'Pages Actuelles.' Prix fr. 0.60.

détacher de la vie* était un artiste qui savait d'autant plus le prix de cette vie qu'il envoyait toute la beauté : la nature l'enchante, que ce soit les forêts des Vosges, les plaines tristes des Flandres, les dunes de sable du nord ou, de nouveau, ces montagnes dans la splendeur de l'hiver où la mort l'attendait ; et s'il poursuit l'examen de sa conscience, et s'il remue les grands problèmes qu'imposent—avec quelle force nouvelle ! le drame inouï et la mort voisine, il ne se désintéresse pas de la vie extérieure : épisodes de la vie ralentie des tranchées ou des combats sanglants dans les hautes vallées d'Alsace, la rencontre d'une troupe anglaise, ses hommes, les villes de repos, il décrit tout cela en croquis d'une étonnante justesse et d'une belle sobriété. Dans sa préface, M. Henry Bordeaux rapproche ces lettres des *Récits d'une Sœur* et de la correspondance de Maurice et d'Eugénie de Guérin 'pour leur sincérité, pour leur saveur familiale et provinciale, pour leur intimité profonde, leur sentiment de la nature, leur ferveur religieuse. Mais quelquechose est nouveau dans leur accent. La mort les recouvre comme l'arche d'un pont une eau vive. Dans la courbe un morceau du ciel se reflète et l'eau frissonne. . . .'

Maurice Dide† raconte quelques uns des héroïques combats autour de Metzeral que racontent aussi les lettres de F. Belmont ; tous deux, l'un capitaine et l'autre médecin-major, dans ces fameuses troupes des alpins, 'les diables-noirs'; tous deux de même éducation puisque Belmont était médecin aussi avant la guerre ; mais là s'arrêtent les ressemblances. F. Belmont écrit pour les siens, il est aussi un chrétien qui s'analyse et pense son âme à haute voix. Ce sont des récits que nous donne M. Dide, il écrit pour rappeler aux camarades les heures vécues ensemble, pour rappeler aussi le souvenir des morts qui, hélas ! 'vont vite'; il n'est pas mystique, ni 'cocardier,' c'est un esprit scientifique, il observe et dit ses observations ; ce n'est pas de lui qu'il parle, mais des autres, des officiers et des soldats, de *Ceux qui Combattent et qui Meurent.* Son livre, plus objectif, complète l'autre. Dans ces récits, plus émouvants d'être sans hautes prétentions littéraires, nous voyons fleurir les plus beaux sentiments de courage, de désintéressement, d'abnégation, de virile amitié, et de gaité aussi : la Revue jouée sous les sapins des Vosges ajoute au portrait une touche bien française. Quels beaux types d'hommes, depuis le brave ordonnance Face d'Ane jusqu'à ce héros si noble, le Commandant N. ! 'Nulle époque ne connut plus admirable floraison de sentiments surhumains.'

Voici un tout autre type d'homme et un tout autre livre.* L'auteur, avocat au Palais de Justice, et 'ayant franchement dépassé l'âge de la mobilisation,' ne put résister au désir de se dévouer et réussit enfin à entrer dans une formation de la Croix-Rouge derrière la ligne de feu dans les Flandres. Il raconte ses expériences avec une bonhomie et un cœur qui lui gagnent l'amitié. Il a vu de son ambulance beaucoup de choses—les grandes attaques allemandes sur l'Yser, la première surprise des gaz, les fusiliers marins de Dixmude, les 'demoiselles au pompon rouge' dont le goffic a écrit l'épopée, les zouaves et les territoriaux, les troupes et les souverains belges ; il a travaillé côte à côte avec la Croix-Rouge anglaise et l'ambulance de Lady Bagot, cousine de Lord Beresford, et il dit l'admiration française—où se mêle un peu de stupeur—pour certaines de ces audacieuses amazones anglaises. Et tout en racontant, sans le vouloir il se raconte, et comment n'être pas séduit par cette physionomie si française ! Me Henri-Robert nous le présente, le 'sympathique géant, le quatrième des trois mousquetaires, le légendaire Porthos,' portant sur sa figure 'les qualités morales du robuste compagnon de d'Artagnan : la bonté, le courage, et la belle humeur.' Il y a en effet dans le bon géant qui se penche sur les souffrances avec une tendresse maternelle, il y a au-dessus du simple infirmier volontaire comme l'ombre d'un panache, du vieux panache français ; ce panache, c'était une grande générosité et une sorte de naïveté de cœur.

On voit flotter aussi l'ombre de ce panache au-dessus des récits du lieutenant Péricard,† le héros de l'épisode désormais immortel de 'Debout les morts !' Dieu sait pourtant si la guerre actuelle s'accomode du panache ! C'est sans doute que le lieutenant Péricard, engagé volontaire, est lui aussi de l'autre génération déjà. Il a passé pourtant par les pires horreurs de cette guerre, ces souvenirs ont été écrits à Verdun, et ce n'est pas pour rien que ses cheveux sont devenus blancs. On ouvre avec curiosité le livre de l'homme

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* *Lettres d'un Officier de Chasseurs Alpins*—Capitaine Ferdinand Belmont. Préface d'Henry Bordeaux. Plon-Nourrit et Cie., Ed., 8, Rue Garancière, Paris (6e). Prix fr. 3.50.

† *Ceux qui Combattent et qui Meurent.* Par Maurice Dide. Payot et Cie., 106, Boulevard St. Germain, Paris. Prix fr. 3.50.

* *Dans les Flandres.* Par D. Bertrand de Laflotte. Préface de M. le Bâtonnier Henri Robert. Bloud et Gay, Ed. Prix fr. 3.50.

† *Face à Face.* Par le Lieutenant E. Péricard. Préface de M. Barrès, de l'Académie Française. Payot et Cie., 106, Boulevard St. Germain. Prix fr. 3.50.

auquel un cri sublime dans une minute d'exaltation surhumaine a valu d'entrer vivant dans la légende. On est surpris d'abord de trouver un sensible, un rêveur, un imaginatif, un bourgeois français tendre père d'une fillette qu'il adore et qui a—lui-même nous le dit en souriant—un peu de Don Quichotte (telle histoire d'un 'hamac indéchirable' qui la première nuit de tranchée envoie son orgueilleux possesseur dans la boue, rappelle même les déconvenues de Tartarin au désert). On est surpris d'abord: n'aurait-il pas mieux valu ne savoir du soldat que sa clameur d'épopée? Mais on s'en veut bientôt de cette hésitation: l'homme tel qu'il se dit ainsi avec sa simplicité, son bon sourire, et son bon cœur de français est plus beau que le héros factice qui s'ébauchait dans l'imagination, c'est vraiment un homme.

Et tous ces soldats, tous ces héros, sont de simples hommes, et c'est leur grandeur. C'est l'impression qui reste quand on a fini l'admirable et terrible livre d'Henri Barbusse.* Celui-ci était, avant la guerre, un artiste, un écrivain; soldat il a été cité deux fois à l'ordre du jour, il a passé par la fournaise; le cerveau enfiévré encore mais les yeux clairs, il a écrit ce livre qui est une épopée et qui est un procès-verbal, une constatation. C'est un des livres sur la guerre qu'il faut lire. Octave Mirbeau, avant de mourir, lui a fait décerner le prix Goncourt, mais non sans résistance, car c'est un livre qui ose dire les choses de la guerre qu'on évite généralement de dire. C'est un livre courageux parce que c'est un livre vrai. Vrais hommes du peuple aussi les soldats qu'il décrit, et le langage qu'il leur prête est la vraie langue des tranchées. Il y a aussi dans ce livre la flamme d'une foi: de la foi socialiste, ou humanitaire; il est un acte de condamnation de la guerre et qui oserait, l'ayant lu, ne pas souscrire à ce verdict et refuser de s'associer à sa malédiction?†

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Terminons par deux citations. La première est empruntée au livre de Barbusse; c'est le moment avant l'assaut:

'On est prêt. Les hommes se rangent, toujours en silence, avec leur couverture en sautoir, la jugulaire du casque au menton, appuyés sur leurs fusils. Je regarde leurs faces crispées, pâlies, profondes.

'Ce ne sont pas des soldats: ce sont des hommes. Ce ne sont pas des aventuriers, des guerriers, faits pour la boucherie humaine—bouchers ou bétail—ce sont des laboureurs et des ouvriers qu'on reconnaît dans leurs uniformes. Ce sont des civils déracinés. Ils sont prêts. Ils attendent le signal de la mort et du meurtre; mais on voit, en contemplant leurs figures entre les rayons verticaux des baïonnettes, que ce sont simplement des hommes.

'. . . Ils ne sont pas ivres, ni matériellement ni moralement. C'est en pleine conscience, comme en pleine force, et en pleine santé, qu'ils se massent là, pour se jeter une fois de plus dans ce rôle de fou imposé à tout homme par la folie du genre humain. On voit ce qu'il y a de songe et de peur, et d'adieu dans leur silence, leur immobilité, dans le masque de calme qui leur étreint surhumainement le visage. Ce ne sont pas le

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* *Le Feu: Journal d'une Escouade.* Par Henri Barbusse. Ernest Flammarion, Ed., 26, Rue Racine, Paris. Prix fr. 3.50.

† Le prix Goncourt a été partagé entre le 'roman' de Barbusse et un autre livre de soldat: *L'Appel du Sol* d'Adrien Bertrand (Calmann-Lévy, Ed.). Ce dernier livre est aussi un beau et noble livre: d'un réalisme moins poignant que celui de Barbusse, de forme et de langue plus convenues—mais d'une haute tenue—il s'inspire aussi d'un autre esprit. Car c'est un livre qui a un sens, une direction, une inspiration, et une pensée; les héros—que ce soit le sergent Vaissette, disciple de Lucrèce et de Voltaire, le capitaine de Quéré, catholique mystique, ou le lieutenant Lucien Fabre—ont tous le goût français de s'analyser, de tirer au clair les mobiles qui les poussent dans l'action, le sens caché de cette guerre qu'ils font. Le dialogue philosophique s'élève naturellement du récit—à la veille de l'assaut, dans la tranchée d'approche, le soir d'une défaite—d'autant plus haut que l'exaltation du soldat s'accroît de la mort plus proche. Le mineur syndicaliste d'hier et le paysan demi-endormi et docile, l'universitaire humanitaire et incroyant, et le traditionnaliste illuminé d'une foi au surnaturel, pourquoi agissent-ils de même, pourquoi sont-ils égaux dans le don entier d'eux-mêmes? Quel est cet instinct qui, plus profond et puissant que leur croyance rationnelle, les pousse également? C'est *l'appel du sol;* ils ne sont plus qu'une cellule de la nation, une partie de son sol; c'est la patrie entière qui veut vivre et s'incarne en eux, 'la puissance du sol s'est faite chair en nous.' Il est assez naturel que cette guerre exalte à la fois, par son horreur, l'internationalisme idéaliste d'un Barbusse, et, par les souffrances de la terre de France déchirée et sa valeur quasi religieuse apprise à nouveau, le nationalisme à la Barrès qui, même chez un jeune protestant comme M. Bertrand, individualiste par définition, semblerait-il, identifie si absolument le sol et la patrie.

Il y a d'autres livres de soldats que nous aurions aimé signaler. Signalons seulement les trois suivants: *Le Journal d'un Simple Soldat* par Gaston Riou, *Sous Verdun* par Genevoix, et les *Lettres d'un Soldat* (1914-1915). Nous aurions parlé de ces livres qui méritent d'être lus si tous trois n'avaient été traduits en anglais, le dernier tout récemment avec une préface de M. Chévrillon et une introduction de M. Clutton-Brock.

genre de héros que l'on croit, mais leur sacrifice a plus de valeur que ceux qui ne les ont pas vus ne seront jamais capables de le comprendre. . . .'

L'autre citation est de Charles Péguy :

'Peuple soldat, dit Dieu, rien ne vaut le Français dans la bataille,
Et rien ne vaut aussi le Français dans la croisade.
Peuple, les peuples pharisiens te disent légers,
Parce que tu es un peuple vite.
Tu es arrivé avant que les autres soient partis.'

PIERRE CHAVANNES.

MEMORANDUM ON THE UNIVERSITY PREPARATION OF THE TEACHER BY THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION COMMITTEE REPRESENTING THE UNIVERSITY TEACHERS.*

§ I. *Ideal Curriculum of the Modern Language Student.*—If we may take it that the aim of a University is, briefly stated, to give to its arts students knowledge, width of outlook, intellectual and æsthetic training, the curriculum of the Modern Language student, who gives three years to the course, should be framed to include the following subjects of study:

A. The use of the written and spoken language, furthered by—

(*a*) Translation from and into the foreign language.

(*b*) *Explication littéraire*, oral and written.

(*c*) Essays on the prescribed works or more general literary subjects.

(*d*) Discussion classes in the foreign languages.

B. Literature, including—

(*a*) The critical study of some of the principal authors of the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries, and of representative works of the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries.

(*b*) The study of some of the mediæval masterpieces as examples of literature.

(*c*) General French literature.†

C. (*a*) Historical phonetics and syntax and semantics to give some understanding of linguistic phenomena, a surer basis to the knowledge of modern French (and a more scientific mental training).

(*b*) Old French to enable students to read the mediæval literature, and to illustrate the historical development of the language.

(*c*) (Optionally) Elementary Romance philology, with a view to giving a sound foundation to the learning of other Romance languages.

D. A working knowledge of social history.

E. In first-year work some subsidiary subject related to the above course of studies.

F. In the third-year work some further subject chosen by the candidate, and approved by the faculty, would be desirable.

§ II. *Examination Scheme.*—The final examination testing this course should consist of—

1. Translation into the foreign language.

2. Translation from the foreign language.

3. An essay on a literary subject chosen from the works studied (or on a more general literary topic).

4, 5, 6. (At least) Three papers on literature, one or more including questions testing knowledge of social history. Each paper to be of three hours, with a choice of not more than three questions in each paper, the object being to test the knowledge which should have been acquired during the study of prescribed texts and general literature (and the student's method of handling such questions).

7, 8. Two papers testing knowledge of Old French, of historical and modern phonetics,* and historical syntax.

(9. One special or additional subject paper to give more scope to the student's individuality.)

10. An oral examination consisting of—

(*a*) Oral examination in which knowledge not tested in the papers might be judged.

(*b*) Oral examination in the foreign language, including dictation, both ordinary script and phonetic pronunciation, and colloquial fluency.

(*c*) (Optionally) *Explication orale*, the subjects being announced on previous day, and the candidates being allowed to prepare their subject with their ordinary tools.

§ III.—Suggestion has been made that the University course for the Modern Language teachers should be differentiated from that of other modern language students, and narrowed down to make it more practical. Such a differentiation seems to us likely to be highly prejudicial to the interests of the individual student

* Submitted to Government Committee.

† The width of reading required for the general literature must depend on the length of the course and the number of subjects offered in the examination.

* Unless already tested in a previous examination.

and the teaching profession, and mainly on the following grounds:

(*a*) No one more than a teacher has need of the completest possible mental training.

(*b*) The establishment of separate courses for intending teachers must tend to cut them off from other students reading Modern Languages, and this segregation is bound to be both bad in itself and likely to place the students affected in a position felt by other students to be inferior.

(*c*) Many students do not decide on their profession until well on in their University career.

§ IV. *Residence Abroad.*—Residence in the foreign country for a minimum of six months at some time before or in the course is essential in the case of teachers, and advisable for all students reading Modern Languages.

§ V. *Training.*—We do not suggest that a candidate with this preparation is fully equipped to undertake the business of class teaching. He should devote at least one further academic session to acquiring pedagogical skill. Since few Universities provide in their departments of education experts in all the subjects of the school curriculum, the intending teacher of foreign languages might obtain permission to attend courses at a foreign normal school, and observe the methods of teaching languages as part of his professional education, returning to take up practice in school under the guidance of the department of education of the University in which he has graduated.

§ VI. *Recommendations.*—When we pass from the ideal to the actual, it must be admitted that the present University curricula do not by any means always correspond with the ideal outlined above. The main causes of the discrepancy seem to be: the premature admission of students to Honours courses; the overloading of the syllabus; the lack of correlation of the different parts of the work; the failure to keep sufficiently in touch with modern thought and life. In all these respects the Universities vary greatly. In consequence, therefore, we submit the following recommendations, most of which are already in practice in one or more of the Universities:

(1) The standard of admission to Honours courses in Modern Languages should be raised, and ordinarily no student allowed to read for Honour Finals who does not possess satisfactory correct grammatical knowledge and ability to read the language easily.

(2) Residence abroad of at least six months, with systematic study of the living language, should be insisted upon either before or during the course.

For this purpose major scholarships would be of the greatest assistance—indeed, necessary in many cases.

(3) Over-great multiplicity of subjects should be avoided:

(*a*) Intermediate examinations should be planned in relation to the Final (*e.g.*, in addition to the language specialized in, and perhaps a second, the examination might well include phonetics and some wide period of European history).

(*b*) The final examination should include one main foreign language only, and should have two years devoted to preparation for it.

(In this connection it would be well to emphasize the importance of the schools rightly correlating the subjects taught by one and the same person. The old combination of French with German should be eliminated; French united with Latin or English, German with English subjects. This is important not only because it is the only way to enable intending teachers to master thoroughly the language they are specializing in, but also in view of the greater strain involved by the use of the direct method.)

(4) More care should be taken to correlate the different branches of higher study; social history and literature, literature and language, philology and the Modern Language.

(*a*) Social history should be included more generally in the curriculum.

(*b*) In the study of philology, more stress should be laid on the phonetic basis of changes in pronunciation and on the history of construction and semantics, so that the linguistic work may become the basis of the study of diction and style.

(*c*) In the study of literature, more time should always be allotted to the study of versification and diction, perhaps by the method of the *lecture expliquée*.

(5) Literature old and modern should be studied as literature, and more care taken to help students to form independent judgments and to gain some understanding of the principles of æsthetic criticism.

(6) Further opportunity of studying quite modern, but not contemporary, literature might be afforded in a 'special' subject or elsewhere.

GENERAL MEMORANDUM ON PREPARATION OF THE FUTURE TEACHER IN FRENCH AND OTHER MODERN LANGUAGES.*

SEVERAL years ago the Modern Language Association appointed a committee to consider the preparation of the future teacher, whether specialist or subsidiary. Subsequent experience, while confirming the value of certain parts of that report, has revealed the need of modifying it in certain directions.

As regards the preparation of the specialist teacher, it is now clear that the Universities in too many instances have not considered sufficiently as a problem by itself the curriculum most suitable for the future specialist in Modern Languages. Under the undue influence of German ideals, the study of language and literature in our Universities has tended too exclusively, as far as the future teacher is concerned, to the acquisition of expertness in textual criticism and philological erudition, to the detriment of the study of the *living language* and the people.

Research no doubt is an excellent thing, but too often the subject chosen for research by the student, under the direction of the professor, has had little effect in increasing his command of the Modern Language and Literature he will have to teach in the schools. A stay abroad, hitherto generally at the student's expense, may help to fill up the gaps in his knowledge, but such a course is often rather remedial. It has frequently to be largely devoted to redressing deficiencies which, had the University course followed by the student been more suitable, would never have come into existence.

In setting out below the bare essentials required in the preparation of a specialist teacher, we have, after much consideration, decided to deal explicitly with French. First, because the number of teachers of French largely exceeds the total of those teaching other Modern Languages; and, secondly, because each foreign nation lays stress on different branches of its language teaching: France, for instance, laying more stress on *belles-lettres*, and Germany on philology—at least in the University if not in the schools. To try and draw up a scheme applicable to all languages might only complicate a task which, if French alone is taken, is comparatively clear. Thus, while we believe that the courses for other languages should largely approximate to that given below for French, it is possible that a larger share might be given to the study of philology in German—assuming, of course, that a due knowledge of the modern German language and literature can be gained in a shorter time by the student, thus setting free a certain amount of time for that purpose. Other such variations might be desirable in the case of Russian, Spanish, or Italian.

What, then, are the really main indispensable requirements for a teacher of French?

One would say—

(*a*) A real command of the spoken language, implying power to speak fluently, idiomatically, and with a correct accent, and to distinguish between what is and what is not good French. Ability likewise to write really idiomatic literary French, not the mere literal *mot à mot* translation that is often accepted in its place from University candidates.

(*b*) A good knowledge of the chief authors of the sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries, and some acquaintance with a few masterpieces of early and mediæval times; together with a knowledge of the general outlines of French literature, with a few indispensable notions on the evolution of the language.

(*c*) Some real knowledge of French history and life.

These appear to be absolute minima in the equipment of a really efficient teacher of French. If he possesses knowledge in other branches of French, whether philosophy or philology, so much the better, but these requirements come first. In drawing up any programme of study, these must first be provided for. If any time is left over, which one doubts, it can be devoted to the study of some other branch. But we cannot too strongly insist that no amount of philological or other study will compensate, as is implied in many of the present syllabuses, for an ignorance of modern French literature, or for inability to write decent French prose, or to distinguish between what is or is not good French.

Those who are concerned with the teaching of French in our secondary schools have a right to demand that these indispensable minima should receive first and foremost attention as far as candidates for the teaching profession are concerned.

Now, without interfering with the existing University programmes, which are probably a

* Submitted to the Government Committee on Modern Languages.

good preparation for the future philologist or for the person whose tastes tend rather in the direction of verbal scholarship than of *belles-lettres*, it would seem to be quite feasible to meet the needs of the future French teacher by creating in all instances, where it seems necessary, an *alternative* subject or subjects in modern French language or literature alongside of the existing ones.

It is easy to see, by a glance at many of the existing courses, how overweighted they are from the philological side, whether one takes London, Oxford, or Cambridge; though in the last instance there is provided an alternative course which is less philological than those at the other two. We believe that a scrutiny of the programmes of the provincial Universities will reveal the same defects in varying degree. As an extreme case we may take the London course for the B.A. in Honours in 1916, in which no author was set beyond the seventeenth century. Many other examples, some of them less extreme, might be given. It seems, however, unnecessary to do so, because the object of this memorandum is not to dilate on what appear to be patent defects, but to put forward what appear to be necessary and practical remedies.

Assuming, then, the vital need of an alternative course, it should, we think, lead up to an examination of the following nature. (Such an examination might, of course, consist of two parts, but that is a matter for internal arrangement by the University concerned.)

(*a*) A French essay of three hours on a single subject to be selected out of several.

(*b*) Translation into French of a really idiomatic type, quality being regarded as at least as important as quantity, and the length of the paper being framed accordingly.

(*c*) Translation into English based on the programme of authors indicated above; whether some should be specifically set or not is a detail.

Here, again, a high standard of English should be demanded, which has not always been the case, owing to the comparative ignorance of idiomatic English on the part of some of the foreign examiners, and to the inordinate length of the papers set.

(*d*) A knowledge of French literature, to be tested by two or three questions to be selected from a larger number, such questions to involve the exercise of real critical and literary ability rather than the mere reproduction of facts and textbook *clichés* about authors or periods, candidates writing the answers in French to be marked on a higher maximum.

(*e*) A general knowledge of French history, to be tested in the same fashion.

(*f*) A short paper on phonetics and a phonetic dictation test.

In (*d*) and (*e*) the mere knowledge of salient dates and isolated facts might be tested at an oral examination. The candidate's powers of *lecture expliquée* should also be tested, as well as his powers of giving an *explication orale* in the language. The same *lecture expliquée* could be utilized to probe the candidate's knowledge of syntactical points or of historical grammar on its broad lines, or of semantics.

For higher examinations like the London M.A. (where a thesis has to be selected), candidates, whether destined for or actually in the teaching profession, should be encouraged to take up some comparatively modern literary question which will be of direct use in their future career. The thesis should, of course, be in French, and the other part of the examination should bear first and foremost on the modern side of the language, and be conducted mainly in French.

In this case, as for the Honours B.A., some general notions of the growth and development of the French language would be advantageous; but the philology should be studied for the sake of the literature, not the literature for the sake of the philology. A modicum of philology is no doubt necessary to enable the student to read the *Chanson de Roland* and other masterpieces of early or mediæval times, but it is hard to see that it need be much greater than the corresponding amount of ancient Greek that the student of classics requires to know in order to understand and appreciate Homer. He wants to be able to recognize the forms when he comes across them, but there is no need for him to learn to conjugate or decline the various parts of antiquated speech.

As regards the question of taking up one or two languages, we are strongly of opinion that candidates for Honours at least should only take up one language, with preferably a subsidiary subject, which might either be a second language (English, Latin, German, etc.) or Continental history, or any other subject the candidate desired later on to teach as a subsidiary subject.

If more thorough-going reforms were instituted, we should like to see the oral side largely extended in the direction of the methods in vogue in France, not only for the B.A. degree, but also for the M.A. Everything that increases the candidate's powers to handle the language orally is of direct value to the teacher in the exercise of his craft.

A still more wide-reaching reform which is necessary in some Universities is the much-

desired reduction of subjects to be taken in the intermediate and even final examinations. Nothing would give French in such cases a better chance of being taught in a really adequate fashion.

Another desirable reform is extension to all Universities of the practice of allowing students to attend a selected University abroad for part of their course. This is already done with success in some Universities. In others the arrangement is either a dead letter or non-existent. The whole point is that work done abroad must be allowed directly to count for the examination the student has in view.

Again, the temporary exchange of professors between French and English Universities, or the invitation of a French professor to give a course of lectures, would likewise help to improve the standard of knowledge and bring the candidates into touch with the best side of French life and thought.

But our Modern Language teachers will always be at a disadvantage in comparison with their colleagues in France till the requisite State aid is given for a definite stay abroad, preferably, I think, in the middle of their University career. Now that the Government is proposing to create major scholarships for science, it cannot do less for Modern Languages. Appointment of candidates for these posts might be left to the Universities. Scholarships should be awarded by nomination rather than by examination, care being taken that a sufficient number are awarded to candidates who show a real humanistic and literary ability as against the mere possession of philological erudition.

We are strongly of opinion that time and money must be found for pedagogical training. This should be given by the University training authorities, assisted if possible by the readers or lectors, as far as the special training in the teaching of French is concerned. In the interim something might be done in this direction if the larger local authorities would insist on teachers hitherto untrained taking up a course of training provided by them as a condition of all future appointments.

If, as we believe, the branches of the subject indicated above are indispensable for the subsidiary teacher, then it follows that the examination for such teachers should, *mutatis mutandis*, as far as French is concerned, follow the same lines, but, naturally, considerably less would have to be demanded. It should be a *sine qua non* with such teachers that they can speak with reasonable accuracy and fluency and a good accent, write fairly idiomatic French prose, and have some knowledge of French literature and history. It is a certainty that with these students there is no room for excursions into philology, whether the examination be in French alone, or French be only one of several subjects. As regards the examination itself, a test of the scope and standard of the London certificate, with additional papers in literature and history (which could be answered in English), would give us an extremely useful type of subsidiary teachers. If it be allowed to take the examination separately, it might with advantage be open to students who were only able to reside for a short period, and successful candidates in such cases might receive a diploma to which the French *certificat d'anglais* offers a certain analogy.

There still seems to be a widespread belief that the teaching of French on modern lines is equal in educational value to the teaching of *courrier* French. To imply that there is no literary French to be learnt and acquired is an indirect insult to a nation which, as far as teaching the technique of literary art goes, is far in advance of ourselves.

Why the professors of French in our Universities did not years ago protest, when the insinuation was made, is hard to explain. They had only to invite their classical colleagues to send a deputation to Paris to be present at one of the examinations like the *agrégation* to realize once and for all the futility of the accusation. If such a deputation is ever sent, it probably will come back, not only thoroughly converted, but also, very possibly, furnished with a certain number of useful ideas for improving classical and English studies.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

[*The Modern Language Association does not endorse officially the comments or opinions expressed in this column.*]

The recent movement in Germany for purging the language of all words of foreign origin is not a new one. We have before us a work published by Teubner in 1882, *Wörterbuch von Verdeutschungen entbehrlicher Fremdwörter* (194 pages), in which the author, Dr. H. Dunger, endeavours to give German equivalents to a large number of foreign words. We select a few *à titre de curiosité*: Adjectiv = *Eigenschaftswort*; club = *geschlossene Gesellschaft*; dekolletiert = *in aus-*

geschnittenem Kleide, or *mit enblösztem Halse;* Diät = *gesundheitsgemäsze Lebensordnung;* Jury = *Geschwornengericht;* Kosmetik = *Verschönerungskunst;* Kosmogonie = *Weltentstehungs-Weltschöpfungslehre;* Pathos = *heftige Gemütsbewegung;* Phase = *wechselnde Erscheinungsform;* Strategie and Taktik are both given as *Heerführungskunst;* System = *Gruppe von zusammengehörigen Dingen.*

In *The Times Educational Supplement* of May 17 there is an outspoken article on the future of German in England, which voices what many have long thought, but have not dared to say. It will serve as an antidote to Professor Herford's paper in the March number of this journal, and also as a solace to those who thought that I, as Editor, should not have published that article. Lack of space forbids quoting at length, but one or two quotations may be given: 'The Germany of old . . . is in reality as dead as Kant and Goethe and Schiller themselves.' 'On humanistic grounds . . . the German language, as written and spoken for the last fifty years, has now nothing to offer our children. It never had; but this we did not always realize.' 'If literature means the teaching of form, form is to be found less in German than in English, much less than in French, far less than in Latin.' 'It helps us far less to the understanding of our own language than do French and Latin.' (Recent science has established the fact that the English and Germans are not closely related ethnologically.) 'German is certainly not an educational language.' The writer goes on, however, to state that 'the language must be studied in the national interest,' and 'be learnt by many individuals . . . as an unpleasant necessity. But in the general scheme of education for the training of the mind and character it need have no place.'

In the succeeding numbers of the *Supplement* the cudgels for German have been taken up by some Germanists and others. Dr. Kenwood points out that German has an unmatched medieval literature, but admits that, of the languages taught in schools, its literature is the poorest. Professor Waterhouse boldly asserts that German literature is of the same importance as Greek. Mr. Marshall Montgomery pleads for the historical spirit, and draws attention to Professor Herford's article in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. It may be not inopportune to quote here the opinion of *Les Langues Modernes* in reference to that article: 'Il nous paraît bien que M. Herford allonge un peu abusivement la liste des traits de cousinage quand il cite au nombre des ressemblances le commun amour des Anglais et des Allemands pour la liberté et pour la vérité. Les temps ont marché depuis Carlyle, et il nous semble que ces deux assertions, la dernière surtout, ne sont guère faites pour flatter nos alliés.' In the *Supplement* for June 14 Mr. Beatty endeavours to 'cool the atmosphere' by discussing in reference to German the various reasons for studying a language. On the third point—mental training—he says that German is an excellent example of much that should be avoided, and dubs it 'a mechanical construction, without atmosphere; a superior Esperanto.'

By a strange coincidence the post which brought me *The Times Educational Supplement* brought me a marked copy of the *Liverpool Daily Post and Mercury*, containing an account of a prominent article in the *Deutsche Tageszeitung* by Professor Sigismund, dealing with the question of the English and French languages after the war. According to the Professor, neither French nor English, particularly the former, will receive the same attention as in pre-war days. 'No German child will ever again be sent to France as an "exchange child," and certainly never to England.' 'French must be reduced to an optional subject,' but 'English may still be tolerated for reasons economic and political.' The Professor writes with great contempt for French literature. On the ethical side of the question the Professor uses strong language: 'The Celtic-Roman varnish has fallen from the French, and all that is left is the half-bestial Homo-Mediterraneus of primeval days. The language of these *apaches* does not really deserve to be carefully studied in German schools.' From a political standpoint he says that English writers and English ways should be studied. 'We could have strengthened our national sentiment by copying their lordly ways.' Æsthetically, 'English is for us much more important than French. Even on the side of morality there is a slight preponderance in favour of the English.'

J. G. A.

ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

H. G. Easterling, King Edward's School, Stourbridge, has been posted to the Royal Flying Corps as air mechanic.

A French family residing in the country near Paris wishes to engage a tutor for two boys, aged thirteen and fourteen, during the summer months. The father is absent on military service. A salary of £10 to £12 a month, in addition to board and residence, is offered. Anyone wishing for further particulars should write in the first instance to the Hon. Secretary, Modern Language Association.

OXFORD.—The examiners in the Honour School of Modern Languages have issued the following class list:

Class I.: James H. Wilson, Trinity College, in French.

Class II.: Alexander G. Fite, Christ Church, in French, and also distinction in the colloquial use of the language.

Classes III. and IV.: None.

Women.

Class I.: Dorothy S. Ramage, Lady Margaret Hall, in French, and also distinction in the colloquial use of the language.

Class II.: Florence M. Campbell, Somerville College, in French; and Mabel Davies-Colley, St. Hugh's College, in French.

Class III.: Ivy C. Gurney, Somerville College, in French; Hilda K. Macdonald, St. Hugh's College, in French; and Frances I. Savory, St. Hugh's College, in French.

St. Hilda's Hall: The Council of St. Hilda's Hall, Oxford, has awarded the following open Exhibitions: Exhibition of £25 per annum to Miss L. Y. Sadler (L.C.C. School, Fulham), in English; Exhibition of £20 per annum to Miss J. L. Perkin (Maynard School, Exeter), in German; Exhibition of £20 per annum to Miss E. A. Ellis (St. Stephen's High School, Clewer), in French. The Dorothea Beale Memorial Scholarship of £50 per annum for pupils of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham, has been awarded to Miss E. J. d'A. Poignaud in English. All the above are tenable for three years.

The following elections to Scholarships and Exhibitions have been announced:

St. John's College.—To Exhibition in Modern Languages and Literature: Francis G. Berthard, Gresham's School, Holt, in French; Alexander Vidarovitch, Belgrade Gymnasium and St. John's College, in English. Mr. Vidarovitch is one of the Serbian students in England maintained by the Serbian Relief Fund. He was admitted to St. John's College as a free student, passed Responsions and Moderations by the end of his second term, and is now reading for the final Honour School of English.

CAMBRIDGE.—The Special Board for Mediæval and Modern Languages have appointed Dr. R. Piccoli (Padua) to be teacher in Italian for the year ending September 30, 1918.

The following Honours List has been issued:

MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN LANGUAGES TRIPOS.

[The names in each class are arranged in alphabetical order.]

Class I.: F. L. Attenborough (A*), Long Eaton County School and Emmanuel; V. S. E. Davis (a, C*) (Sp.F.), Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury, and St. John's.

Class II.: P. A. Gasper (b), St. John's.

Class III.: None.

Women.

Class I.: F. Allbook (a, E) (Sp.G.*), Girton; M. E. Hulme (a, C) (Sp.F.), Newnham; W. B. Seddon (C) (Sp.F.*), Newnham; A. Selby (A, B), Newnham; D. Varley (a, E) (Sp.G.*), Newnham; G. A. Watson (A, c) (Sp.F.), Girton; M. G. Wilby (A, C) (Sp.F.), Newnham; G. E. Willett (a, E*) (Sp.G.), Girton.

Class II.: L. M. Blenkinsop (a, e) (Sp.G.), Girton; M. E. Cowper (a, c) (Sp.F.), Girton; K. M. Ealand (c, e) (Sp.F., Sp.G.), Newnham; E. A. W. Edge (a, b), Newnham; M. L. Edwards (c, e) (Sp.F., Sp.G.), Newnham; M. D. Evans (a, c) (Sp.F.), Girton; M. M. F. Hird (c, d) (Sp.F.), Girton; M. I. Kingsmill (a, c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; L. Y. Pode (a, c) (Sp.F.), Girton; K. M. L. Simpson (c, e) (Sp.F.,* Sp.G.*), Girton; N. M. Smith (a, c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; B. Wall (a, c) (Sp.F.), Girton; C. H. Walters (c, d) (Sp.F.), Girton; H. M. Westbrook (c, e) (Sp.F., Sp.G.), Newnham.

Class III.: M. W. Cooper (a, c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; M. F. B. Cullen (a, e) (Sp.G.), Newnham; M. T. Elton (c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; E. M. L. Fullalove (a, b), Newnham; M. F. Guthrie (a, c), (Sp.F.*), Girton; A. M. Hall (a, b), Girton; D. G. M. Hamer (a, c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; E. G. Hardy (a, c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; N. A. Haworth (a), Newnham; F. K. Kneese (a), Newnham; E. Linday (a, c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; M. Mellanby (a, e) (Sp.G.), Newnham; M. Perfect (a, b), Newnham; W. E. Rahtkens (a, e) (Sp.G.), Girton; I. H. Robinson (a, c) (Sp.F.), Girton; R. W. Rosier (a), Newnham; R. Samuel (a, c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; K. Shelton (a, e) (Sp.G.), Girton; R. M. Smith (a, c) (Sp.F.*), Girton; P. Stevenson (c, e) (Sp.F., Sp.G.), Girton; M. Vine (c, e) (Sp.F.), Newnham; L. Vinson (a, c) (Sp.F.), Newnham; V. E. Webb (a, c) (Sp.F.), Girton.

Ægrotat: I. Lush (c, e) (Sp.F., Sp.G.*), Newnham.

The letters a, b, c, d, e, appended to the name of a candidate denote the section or sections in which he or she has passed. A capital letter denotes that a candidate is placed in the First Class for proficiency in that section; the asterisk denotes special distinction. Sp.F. indicates that a candidate has passed the Oral Examination in French. Sp.G. indicates that a candidate has passed the Oral Examination in German. The asterisk denotes distinction.

The following scholarship has been awarded at Newnham College: Modern Languages Scholar-

ship of £50 a year for three years to Miss A. M. Glen, High School for Girls, Norwich.

The following award has been made at Newnham College: The Gilchrist Studentship of £100 for one year to Miss W. S. Nayler, Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos.

The following entrance scholarships and an Exhibition for three years, from October, 1917, have been awarded at Girton College, Cambridge: Clothworkers' Scholarship of £60 to Miss D. E. Rhodes, Leeds High School, for French and German; Skinners' Scholarship of £50 to Miss E. G. Morice, Ipswich High School, for French and English.

The Tiarks German Scholarship has not been awarded.

The following awards have been made at Girton College:

The Old Girtonians' Studentship of £55 to Miss D. W. Black (Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos 1915, Class I., French and German); the Fanny Metcalfe Memorial Prize of about £4 18s. to Miss E. C. B. Burrows (Intercollegiate Examination in Medieval and Modern Languages 1917, Class I.); the Charity Reeves Prize of about £3 for English to Miss G. A. Watson (Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos 1917, Class I., English and French).

LONDON.—The following awards of Entrance Scholarships have been made at the Royal Holloway College, University of London:

Scholarship of £60 for three years to Miss K. P. Michell, French and English (Godolphin and Latymer School, Hammersmith).

Scholarships of £50 for three years.—Miss C. M. Catterns, History (Bromley High School); Miss I. C. D. Cooper, French and History (North London Collegiate School); Miss M. Downes, English and Latin (Altrincham County High School); Miss R. M. Niven, German with credit for English (Manchester High School); Miss M. R. Richardson, English with credit for Latin (Milham Ford School, Oxford); Miss D. E. Wallis, Classics and History (Winton House School, Ealing).

The following awards have been made at University College: Andrew Entrance Scholarship (Modern Languages, History), P. E. Graham (Dulwich College); L. M. Rothschild Prize (French), Beatrice J. Schlumberger; Hermann Silver Medal (German), Phyllis M. Smith.

On March 21 the Senate of the University of London appointed a Committee for the Promotion of Scandinavian Studies, with Mr. Edmund Gosse as chairman, Professor W. P. Ker as vice-chairman, the Provost of University College, Dr. T. Gregory Foster, as treasurer, and Dr. W. W. Seton as secretary, to consider and advise the University College Committee and the Professorial Board as to the steps to be taken for developing the study of the language, literature, and history of the Scandinavian countries—Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. The Senate were encouraged and helped by the sympathy and advice of the Ministers of the three Scandinavian countries.

We have now received the following statement signed by Mr. Gosse as chairman:

'The Committee find that Scandinavian studies have, apart from occasional lectures, been represented in the University by the teaching of Icelandic. In these circumstances, it appears desirable that the efforts of the Committee should be directed, in the first instance at all events, towards the provision of teaching and opportunities for study of the modern languages and literatures of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. It is the desire of the University that ultimately the Scandinavian languages and literatures shall, as nearly as the different circumstances permit, be placed on the same footing in regard to teaching and research as the other modern European languages. That aim would require for its realization the appointment of a professor who would guide and organize the department as a whole, and would himself be responsible for the lectures on the literatures and histories of the Scandinavian countries. He would require as lecturers, or assistants, a representative of each of the three countries. While keeping in mind this ultimate aim, which would involve an expenditure in salaries of some £1,500 a year, the Committee deem it expedient to initiate the movement by appointing three lecturers, one in each of the three Scandinavian languages and literatures, for an experimental term of three years. It is of the utmost importance that the lecturers selected should be scholars of standing, and the Committee feel that they cannot obtain services of the standard required unless they can offer a salary to each of the lecturers of at least £300 a year. For the experimental period of three years the Committee would therefore require a sum, say, of £3,000 to cover the salaries of the lecturers and the incidental expenses. They appeal, therefore, through the University representatives, on the one hand, more particularly to British subjects who are interested in promoting Scandinavian studies; and, on the other hand, through the representatives of the three countries concerned, to the members of their national communities resident in the United Kingdom for help in this project.'

Communications relating to the scheme may be addressed to the Secretary, Scandinavian

Studies, University College, London (Gower Street, W.C. 1).

It is proposed to establish a Camoens Chair of Portuguese Language and Literature in the University of London, King's College, on the lines of the Cervantes Chair of Spanish, as a tribute to the intellectual achievements of Portugal, and as the best means of promoting the study of the language, history, social and economic conditions of Portugal and Portuguese-speaking countries. The scheme has been most favourably received. The Portuguese and Brazilian Ministers have expressed their gratification at the proposal, and have consented to be Honorary Presidents of the Committee now to be formed. Sir Maurice de Bunsen, formerly British Minister at Lisbon, has accepted the chairmanship of the Provisional Executive Committee, the Hon. R. C. Parsons is Hon. Treasurer, and Professor I. Gollancz is Hon. Secretary. Sir Frederick Cook (Visconde de Monserrate) and Mr. Herbert Cook have inaugurated the Professorship Fund by a generous donation of £1,000.

A Committee has been constituted to consider and advise the Senate, through the University College Committee and the Bedford College Council, as to the steps to be taken for the development of Dutch studies, with power to raise funds for the endowment of a Chair of Dutch.

⁂

It is not out of place to record in these columns that in the year 1917 a book could be published on *The Upbringing of Daughters* by Mrs. Catherine Durning Whetham, the wife of a Fellow of Trinity and an F.R.S., in which the following sentence occurs:

'I don't even like to hear people talking a foreign language with the—to them—unnatural pronunciation of a native.'

What has been the good of all our efforts if, after twenty years of the Direct Method, a presumably educated woman can write in this strain?

⁂

Several inquiries about French families with whom teachers could reside during the summer holidays were received last year, and some have come in this year. Any member who is acquainted with a family willing to receive guests would do a good service by sending the name and address to the Hon. Secretary of the Association.

⁂

To the List of Schools taking Russian (see p. 85, Nos. 3 and 4) should be added Wolverhampton Technical School, with 29 pupils. Teacher, Mr. Pashkovietzky.

⁂

Leeds.—Señor José Castillejo has accepted an invitation of the Council to advise them in the development of the work and studies of the Department of Spanish Language and Literature, a Chair for which was recently founded by Lord and Lady Cowdray. Señor Castillejo was formerly Professor of Roman Law in the Universities of Seville and Valladolid, and since 1910 has been attached to the Spanish Ministry of Public Instruction.

⁂

Birmingham.—Dr. F. E. Sandbach has been reappointed temporary head of the German department for one year from October 1 next. Dr. Sandbach will be assisted by Miss Winifred Lee.

⁂

Russian.—Our attention has been called to the fact that more complete and later information in the teaching of Russian in Public Schools is available in the pamphlet issued by the Russian Sub-Committee.

⁂

Arrangements have been made for the institution of two new classes—one for elementary German and the other for advanced French—at the L.C.C. School of Languages, Bolt Court, Fleet Street. The new classes begin to-day, and will be continued on each succeeding Saturday afternoon until July 21 next. In connection with the elementary German class (which is in addition to the intermediate German class already in existence), it may be explained that many of the soldiers on leave from the Western front state that even a slight knowledge of German is often found useful; while there are other obvious reasons to be found for providing increased facilities for the study of German, particularly in the case of those who may have business interests in neutral countries where that language is extensively used. The fees for both the German and French classes are nominal.

CORRESPONDENCE.

[The opinions expressed in this column are those of individual contributors, for which the Association takes no responsibility.]

THE PLACE OF RUSSIAN.

WHILE I have seldom read a more interesting article on Russian than the one contributed by Mr. Underwood to the last number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, I am sorry that he should go out of his way to disparage German. Russian literature may be all that Mr. Underwood claims —I am quite willing to accept his estimate as a basis for discussion—but his assertion that 'German literature, apart from Heine . . . and Goethe . . ., is for the most part third-rate stuff,' is unfortunate. Surely a case for Russian can be established without disparagement of German. No one at all conversant with German claims for it that 'it opens to us an unrivalled field of accomplishment in the arts and sciences,' and I do not think it is wise to make any such pretentious claim on behalf of any language, living or dead—except, for us, English alone. All the chief modern foreign languages are approximately equal in general importance, and what may be claimed for one may be claimed more or less for any other. The interests of modern languages in general will not be served if we wrangle among ourselves as to the comparative values of our special studies. Let the wrangling, if there is to be any, take place in other camps. Let the classical scholars wrangle over the comparative merits of Latin and Greek, or the mathematicians over algebra and geometry, or the scientists over chemistry and physics.

The present passable condition of German studies in general is the result of at least thirty years of experiment and adaptation. It will take just as long to establish the study of Russian. Moreover, a place for German in schools was fought for and honestly won at the expense mainly of classics. If our Russian specialists think that the claims of Russian to be taught in schools merit attention, let them win another victory for modern languages at the expense, say, of mathematics. I have distinct recollections of time wasted at school in the remoter bogs of algebra and geometry by boys who were looking forward to scholarships in modern languages at the Universities.

In conclusion, while I am indebted to Mr. Underwood's article for a very clear account of the claims of Russian, it would be useful to have the opinion of our Russian specialists on the following points:

1. What would have become of our newly found enthusiasm for Russian if the Golitzin Ministry had concluded a separate peace with Germany?

2. What will be the effect of Russian type and Russian script on the eyesight of growing boys and girls, which is already severely overtaxed?

G. WATERHOUSE.

VOWEL FREQUENCY.

I believe some reviews of frequency are useful to students of the English alphabet, though frequency is not the only test of the importance of letters, sounds, or words. A live piece of language is in some ways better for estimating sound-frequency than specimen lists of words; and I have counted the vowel-sounds in the first half of President Wilson's speech to Congress of April 2, obtaining the following relative frequencies: *Ah*-long, 50; *ah*-short, 341 (50 being in *ands*); *eh*-long, 186 (45 preceding *r*); *eh*-short, 329 (107 preceding *r*); *ee*-long, 290 (138 in *the*); *ee*-short (*i*), 495, and with *y* notation included, 495 + 84; *o*-long, 75; *o*-short, 263; *o*-broad, 101 (*or* being included); *u*-long, 63; *u*-short, 59; *u*-slurred, 126. Diphthongs: *Au*, 39 (about half being in the word *our*); *ai*, 103 (of which 20 are now represented by *y* and 17 by *i*); *iu* or *yu*, 29; *oi* or *oy*, 8.

Have any correspondents suggestions regarding the future representation of syllables now shown variously as *ar*, *er*, *ir*, *or*, and *ur*?

D. F. K.

THE I.P.A. SCRIPT FOR INDIAN LANGUAGES.

May I be permitted to correct an erroneous impression conveyed by a remark of Mr. J. D. Anderson's in his article on the phonetic transcription of Indian languages? He suggests (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, p. 75) that the International Phonetic Alphabet would show no difference between two Bengali words which appear in ordinary Roman as *kutsit* and *kucit*; he apparently assumes that they would both be written [*kutʃit*] in international phonetic transcription. There is some mistake here. It is a fundamental principle of the I.P.A. that *when two words of a given language are pronounced differently, they shall be written differently*. I cannot say for certain what would be the appropriate way of writing these Bengali words, since no adequate analysis has yet been made of the sounds. But if it is the case that the Bengali sound written c in ordinary Roman is an 'affricate,' having

much the same formation as our sound of *ch*, it would probably be best to represent it by the ligature symbol made up of *t* and *ſ* (see *Maître Phonétique*, 1913, p. 130, l. 34); *tſ* with separated letters could then be used to denote *t*+*ſ* (the value of the *ts* in *kutsit*), or, if greater clearness were required, a hyphen could be inserted between the two letters. (This latter expedient is sometimes required in transcribing English. Thus, in writing phonetically the word *courtship* a hyphen should be placed after the *t*, in order to show that the word is not pronounced as if written *core-chip*.)

The same plan can be adopted with other affricates. Thus, the affricate [*ʦ*] is a common sound in India, and languages are doubtless to be found in which it has to be distinguished from the group *t*+*s*. The difference could be shown by using the *t* and *s* ligature for the affricate, reserving the separate letters (with or without a hyphen) for the group *t*+*s*.

DANIEL JONES.

REVIEWS.

[*The Association does not make itself officially responsible for the opinions of reviewers.*]

A Modern Spanish Grammar. By E. ALEC WOOLF, B.A., D.Litt. Bell.

Dr. Woolf has aimed at providing a 'thorough and practical course in Spanish Grammar and Composition for English-speaking students, which can be covered either in one year or in two, according to the ability of the student and the amount of detail learned. This is the kind of grammar which the schools badly need: most existing grammars are eminently unpractical, and only seem thorough to a superficial student who wades through lists of unnecessary verbal forms without realizing that they are all formed according to simple rules.

Among the attractions of this book are its insistence upon the use of *Usted*, the varied nature of the exercises, and the useful lists in Appendices II. and III. The principal fault would seem to be the postponement of relative, possessive, and interrogative pronouns until the last three lessons of the course.

A special word of praise must be reserved for all that constitutes the 'get-up' of the book, more especially the admirable clearness of the type. It is to be hoped that the rather large number of misprints which we have noticed will soon be corrected in a second edition.

E. A. P.

Wordsworth's Tract on the Convention of Cintra. Published 1809, with Two Letters of Wordsworth written in the year 1811, republished with an Introduction by A. V. DICEY. Oxford Library of Prose and Poetry, Humphrey Milford, 1915. Pp. xl+244. Price 2s. 6d. net.

To reread Wordsworth's *Tract* in these days is to realize afresh the profundity and honesty of his political thought during the greatest period of his career. The pamphlet is surprisingly apposite to present conditions, and was well worth reprinting as a volume of the admirable series of which it forms a part. Professor Dicey's Introduction not only puts the average reader into possession of the historical events which led up to the Convention of Cintra, but also explains its unpopularity and the reasons for the storm that broke about the heads of its authors. 'The Convention encroached upon the rights of the Portuguese Government, and humiliated and insulted a country to the aid of which we had come as its ally.' Wordsworth does not always rise above the popular clamour of the day, and his criticism of the military provisions of the treaty is often at fault. But 'his statesmanlike insight into the folly of insulting allies, whom we professed to deliver' from foreign dominion, is in itself sufficient to raise his tract above mere partisan politics. However, his indignation against the Convention was aroused on grounds of even more lasting importance than this.

Wordsworth maintained, as did Mazzini and Cavour, that national independence is essential to the possession of civil liberty, and to every sort of spiritual and even material advance. 'And freedom in the long run, combined with independence, will put an end to laws and customs which have become oppressive and a hindrance to human progress.' Or, in Wordsworth's own words: 'Wherever the heaving and effort of freedom was spread, purification must have followed it.'

Further, 'Every independent nation, and above all England, is interested in the maintenance of the national independence of every other country'; and, thirdly, 'No state ought to possess irresistible military power so as to menace the legitimate independence of other countries.' Wordsworth's language on this point is, as his editor says, emphatic and almost prophetic: 'Woe be to that country whose military power is irresistible!' . . . If a nation have nothing to oppose or to fear without, it cannot escape decay and concussion within. Universal triumph and absolute security soon betray a State into abandonment of that discipline, civil and military, by which its victories were secured.'

Lastly, Wordsworth wished for the creation

of a new 'balance of power, which should guarantee the independence of each separate nation.'

With these views about Nationalism, it was inevitable that Wordsworth should denounce the Convention of Cintra with all the force of which he was capable. It was the duty of a powerful State, such as England, to defend, not to betray, the independence of weaker nations, 'to wage a holy war of liberation against the oppressor.' But the Convention, and that at the very moment of victory, insolently ignored the sovereign rights both of Portugal and of Spain, in a manner 'foreign to the very idea of equal alliance.'

Professor Dicey points out that, apart altogether from the immediate impression made by Wordsworth's pamphlet, its permanent effect lies in its exposition of the doctrine of Nationalism and in its prescience with regard to foreign policy. He even maintains that, except in so far as this has coincided with the statesmanship of the poet, it has not in general been a success; nay, further, that Wordsworth showed more foresight than most statesmen or than most nationalists in perceiving that Napoleon might find imitators and that a State might arise, where 'at the head of all is the mind of one man who acts avowedly upon the principle that everything which can be done safely by the supreme power of a State may be done.'

In conclusion, the Introduction draws attention to the sources of Wordsworth's statesmanship, and of the power which his words of political advice possess for Englishmen. 'Wordsworth is, from his whole tone of thought, intensely interested in tracing the connection between his political beliefs and his moral creed, and especially the connection between these beliefs and the feelings of ordinary men.

> 'In common things that round us lie
> Some random truths he can impart;
> The harvest of a quiet eye
> That broods and sleeps on his own heart.

'These words describe what Wordsworth would himself call his "principles." They provide the foundation of his politics no less than of his moral philosophy. His quarrel with statesmen is that they do not understand human nature, or, in other words, that they fail to take into account the common feelings which rule the souls and guide the action of ordinary men, and hence, for example, do not perceive that the rightful detestation of foreign tyranny is a far stronger and more widespread feeling than the desire for some perfect constitution, or for what is known as good government. ... It is ... the success of this effort to place himself in harmony with the best and strongest feelings of human nature which makes sentences from Wordsworth's *Tract* ring as true and have as much meaning' to-day as when they were first written. It is, too, the success of this effort, combined with his power to interpret those feelings, which go far to make Wordsworth a great poet, strong in his verse, as in his prose, to inspire all those who 'speak the tongue that Shakespeare spake.'

Chatterton and His Poetry. By JOHN H. INGRAM. Poetry and Life Series. Geo. Harrap and Co., 1916. Pp. 151. Price 1s. 4d.

Mr. Ingram is already known to scholars by his work, *The True Chatterton*, published in 1910, as the greatest authority on this 'heir of unfulfilled renown.' In the little book before us, he makes the results of his scholarship accessible to the ordinary reader. Incidentally, he also reprints, in their original form, some of the best of Chatterton's poetry, so that the student has within his reach, at a most moderate price, a satisfactory text and an admirable life of the poet.

There is no need to repeat our former praise of this series, of which Mr. W. H. Hudson is editor in chief. It is enough to say that this volume reaches the standard of the best of its predecessors: in some respects it is better and more original than any we have seen, and we can heartily recommend it to all who wish for an introduction to one of the truest poets of the eighteenth century.

The Rise of English Literary Prose. By GEORGE PHILIP KRAPP, Professor of English in Columbia University. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1915. Pp. xiii+551. Price 6s. 6d.

Since the appearance of Professor Ker's masterly introduction to Craik's *Prose Selections*, no attempt has been made to cover the ground traversed in this readable volume by an American scholar. Professor Krapp carefully maps out his material in his Preface, and carries out, with praiseworthy competence, the scheme there proposed. His book has not the brilliance of Professor Ker's summary treatment of the same theme, but it is far more detailed and fills a real gap in the history of literary forms.

Professor Krapp's subject is the development of prose as a literary medium from the middle of the fourteenth century, when the renewed national feeling showed itself 'in the cultivation of the English language as the proper expression of the English people,' until 'the close of the sixteenth century and the opening of the seventeenth century mark the end of the great originating period in the development of English prose.' His main thesis, to which all else is subordinated, is 'to trace the growth of a temper and attitude of mind towards the use of speech,

to show the development of taste and feeling for prose expression.' Consequently he does not attempt to be exhaustive, but deliberately omits to mention such writers as do not, to him, seem to be significant in the history of prose. On the other hand, he dwells at length on the importance and influence of the various translations of the Bible, and of the Book of Common Prayer. He traces the steps by which controversial writing and theological discussion gradually provided a suitable instrument for exposition and straightforward argument. A study of the 'courtly writers,' with their 'aureate terms,' Latinized speech, or flowery writing, provides the necessary companion picture of the development of artistic expression. Finally, an admirable chapter on Bacon brings us to the confines of modern prose amid the endeavour to place it 'where English writers ever since have laboured to keep it, in the everyday world of established experience, of good order and of sound sense.'

This sentence, together with some of Professor Krapp's omissions, gives a clue to the weakness as well as to the strength of his survey.

It is clear that he is more interested in plain, everyday sensible prose than in more elaborate forms of writing. It is more than a lack of proportion, which leads him to devote three or four pages to *Piers Plowman* and to dismiss Malory in as many lines. Few of those who have read the former will be convinced that in it the broken-down alliterative line is generally nothing more than prose: none who love the *Morte d'Arthur* and remember its history and the plaintive note of its romantic prose—so difficult to analyze, so easy to appreciate and to hear—will agree that it does not occupy a 'pivotal position in the development of English letters which lends to other works unusual historical significance.'

One would be glad to challenge other statements—*e.g.*, that 'Chaucer's prevailing interest being in men and manners, one might suppose that prose would have been for him a more appropriate form of expression than verse . . . the use of metrical form by Chaucer was largely an accident of time.' But we have no space in which to do so, nor would it be fair to dwell upon minor points which appear to be open to criticism, when to do so would inevitably lay disproportionate emphasis upon them.

The survey of the growth of English prose is so successful as a whole that we prefer to advise the student to seek out its merits for himself, and to form an independent opinion on its errors of judgment. He will find Professor Krapp's own style clear and forcible, if not eloquent, though here also 'there are occasional slips' which mar the reader's pleasure. Thus 'eligible to' may possibly be an Americanism, but that is certainly not the explanation of the following loose construction on p. 6: '. . . written when he was more interested in the composition of . . . works of devotion than he was, later, which were thriftily turned to account in the elaboration of the plan of the *Canterbury Tales*.' But again, such blemishes must not be taken as typical.

Second Russian Book. By NEVILL FORBES, M.A. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1916. Pp. xii+336. 3s. 6d. net.

This book is, according to the sub-title, a 'practical Manual of Russian Verbs.' The first fifty-four pages of the body of the work deal in an intelligent manner with the endings and forms of the verb in its different 'aspects,' moods and tenses, much in the manner of Mr. Forbes's Grammar, to which references are made throughout. From p. 54 to p. 324 numerous verbs are passed in review, while the forms and uses are plenteously illustrated by selected examples. Two short appendixes follow, and at the close we have a Russian and an English index.

Very good! Students will find the examples entertaining and instructive.

But as we are engaged in the 'elaboration of a method,' we must not shirk adverse criticism.

1. On pp. 1 and 2 and systematically in the conjugations throughout the book, the author uses his 'phonetic script,' and refers us to the 'phonetic' section of his Grammar. Thank goodness he does not give, as he should do, to be scientific, the transcription of every sentence of Russian example! Readers of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING will remember that in our 'Footnote on Phonetics' in Vol. XI., No 3, p. 93, we set forth our opinion of Dr. Forbes's phonetics. We could have dealt more trenchantly with it, and we could do so now; but we think the best plan is to ignore it and to advise all students to do the same. This will not detract very much from the value of the book before us. Perhaps in passing we ought to 'warn' Mr. Forbes that no Russian outside a lunatic asylum—and none inside for that matter—ever spoke Russian as he wishes his English readers to speak it. Mr. Forbes should know that if a Russian intended тяни́те to be pronounced 'tyanyitye' he would write it 'тьянъитье' which is absurd!!

2. We do *not* agree with what we may call the 'chemistry-bottle' method of teaching a language;—first nouns, then pronouns, then

adjectives, then verbs, etc. No child ever learns its mother-tongue like this, and no sane Englishman wants to learn Russian in this fashion.

Fi kee! (=funny kid); baits! (=the holly bites or stings); wi' up! (=wind—a certain toy —up); ca' Mavi' (=catch Mavis—name of child). 'Out of the mouths of babes and sucklings,' we might learn to 'elaborate a (better) method' for the teaching of Russian! The above examples are from the language of a child of two and a half years. Perhaps we ought to add that the observer was not a fond parent, but one who, being loaded with the ever-increasing cares of this our modern world, has not yet deemed it advisable to increase his heavy burden in an otherwise praiseworthy undertaking. As far as 'method' goes, we must say we prefer (with the child above) the 'slice' method of language instruction, and that from the beginning. Let us take 'slices' of Russian, the verbs with the nouns, the adjectives with the nouns, the adverbs with the verbs, and so on. We shall find it more interesting, more useful, and more rational.

3. To illustrate the uses of his verbs, Mr. Forbes has introduced many carefully chosen examples. Each of these is followed by an English translation. This method has its pitfalls, as we think we can show. Let us take a few examples:

По́ѣздъ до́лго не идётъ=The train is long in coming.

This should be 'a long *while* in coming.'

Больно́й уже́ хо́дитъ=The patient (m.) is now able to walk.

Она́ хо́дитъ въ тра́уерѣ=She is wearing mourning.

These two occur on the same line! We wonder why she is wearing mourning, when *he* can walk.

Эта моне́та не хо́дитъ=This coin is no longer in use.

Хо́дитъ слухъ=There is a rumour.

Why? These two likewise are set *side by side*.

Пріѣзжа́йте ка́къ-нибудь въ Россію!= Come somehow to Russia!

They don't want undesirables in Russia. No more Rasputins!

Я нёсъ таре́лки, она несла́ бло́до, они́ ничего́ не несли́=I was carrying the plates, she the dish, and they nothing (!)

Она оста́вила у насъ свои́ перча́тки, свой носово́й плато́къ, свою́ су́мочку и свой зо́нтикъ=She left behind at our house her gloves, her handkerchief, her little handbag, and her umbrella.

What on earth did she take with her?

'But,' says some tender-hearted reader of these lines, 'these are only examples.' 'Examples of what? Of Russian foolishness? Nay, rather of English—— ?'

Nothing will be gained by adding to this list. We have marked many, many examples of foolish sentences. Again, in some places the English is faulty. We, who live south of the Tweed, do not say, '*Shall* you sit down?' but '*Will* you sit down?' No English speaker says, 'I am taking lessons OF the Russian language' (see p. 163). What does this mean—'I have already put you in two lumps of sugar'? (see p. 150).

The author of this book should have read through separately and without any reference to the context first the Russian, then the English examples. By so doing he would have avoided many of these silly sentences.

It is interesting to note that the author gives (after the verbs) a number of other words (nouns, etc.,) from the same roots as the corresponding verbs. But he calls these 'cognate' words. It is better to leave this term 'cognate' with its usual meaning—*i.e.*, related words in *other* languages.

We understand that a third book will deal with the 'other parts of speech.' May we entreat Mr. Forbes to consider whether, after that book appears, he will not recast the whole series, dish up the whole of his valuable stuff in a more tasty form, and—changing the metaphor slightly—subscribe to the 'Slice-method?'

In conclusion, we may say that this second book is much more interesting and useful than the first, because it gives other parts of speech *besides* verbs.

S.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A MEETING of the General Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, June 30.

Present: Mr. Hutton (chair), Mr. Allpress, Miss Althaus, Miss Ash, Miss Batchelor, Messrs. Brereton, Bullough, Signorina de Castelvecchio, Messrs. Chouville, Cruttwell, Miss Hart, Messrs. Macgowan, Mansion, Perrett, Ripman, Robertson, Miss Strachey, Mr. Woolf, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from Miss Allpress, Miss Murray, Messrs. Odgers, Payen-Payne, Richards, and Professor Savory.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The Chairman reported that he had signed a

protest against the dropping of Italian at the Birmingham Midland Institute.

The Committee proceeded to fill the casual vacancy caused by the death of Professor Milner-Barry. There being a tie between the next two candidates at the election last January, a vote was taken, and Mr. Underwood, of Eton, was elected.

On Esperanto the Committee passed the following resolution, on the motion of Mr. Ripman:

> 'That the Deputation of the Church Esperantist League be thanked for their visit, and be informed that the Committee cannot recommend the inclusion of Esperanto in the curriculum of Secondary Schools.'

The scheme for the representation of Branches on the General and Executive Committees hereto appended was considered, and ordered to be submitted to the provincial Branches for their opinion.

The following recommendation of the Finance sub-committee was adopted, and ordered to be sent with the scheme: 'The Committee, having considered a suggestion for the payment of the expenses of these representatives when attending Committee meetings, decide that if the provincial Branches show a willingness to make a contribution towards the travelling expenses of their representatives, they will consider whether the financial position of the Association allows of a contribution from the Central Fund.'

A Report from the Joint Committee of the Board of Medieval and Modern Languages (University of London) and the Modern Language Association was received.

Attention having been drawn to the prejudicial effect the new Regulations of the Board of Education for Secondary Schools might have upon Modern Languages, a sub-committee, consisting of Mr. Fuller (convener), Miss Hargraves, Messrs. Richards, and Ripman, was appointed to report on the matter.

On the motion of Dr. Woolf, it was agreed that a sub-committee for Spanish be formed with constitution and powers similar to those of the Italian and Russian sub-committees, names to be suggested next time.

On the motion of Professor Robertson, it was agreed that the University teachers on the General Committee should be constituted an Academic sub-committee to consider academic questions and to make suggestions for the inclusion of academic topics in the programme of the General Meeting.

A sub-committee, consisting of Miss Hart, Messrs. Mansion, Perrett, and the Hon. Secretary, was appointed to inquire into the possibility of of reviving the Lending Library.

The next Committee meeting was fixed for Saturday, September 29.

A list of seventy-five members, whose subscriptions were two full years in arrears, was referred to the Finance Sub-Committee for examination.

The following nine new members were elected:

M. L. Barst, Ph.D. (Brussels), Dartford Technical Institute.

Miss M. Brander, Girls' Secondary School, Stourbridge.

Fred Bullock, A.C.I.S., Secretary of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons.

J. Grisdale, Bede Collegiate School (Boys), Sunderland.

Miss Gwyneth Keys, Hoe Grammar School, Plymouth.

L. T. Mullord, Churcher's College, Petersfield.

Miss A. T. Scott, B.A., Girls' Grammar School, Bingley, Yorks.

Professor H. A. Strong, M.A., LL.D., Emeritus Professor of Latin, Liverpool University.

Miss G. E. Stubbs, Hornsey County School, N.

REPRESENTATION OF PROVINCIAL BRANCHES ON THE GENERAL AND EXECUTIVE COMMITTEES.

1. In order to bring provincial members into close touch with the administration of the Association.

(*a*) Minutes of the meetings of the General and Executive Committees shall henceforth be communicated to the Hon. Secretaries of the provincial Branches.

(*b*) *In cases where the Branch is not already represented on the General and Executive Committees, the Branches shall be invited to appoint one member each, from their respective local committees, as representatives of the Branches at the meetings of the General and Executive Committees of the Parent Association.

2. The Branch representatives shall be additional to the Executive Committee as elected at the first meeting of the General Committee, and to the General Committee itself.

3. The Branch representatives on the General and the Executive Committees shall be entitled to vote.

4. No Branch representative shall sit on the General and Executive Committees for more than three years in succession.

CLAIMS OF MODERN LANGUAGES

(FOR HUMANISTIC COUNCIL.)

1. Foreign modern languages form a necessary part of the equipment of searchers after truth in all branches of study. The specialist must be in a position to use the results achieved by research in other countries.

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* In the original recommendation of the Branches Sub-Committee, the clause 'In cases . . . Committees' did not appear.

2. These languages are the only means of studying on first-hand evidence the great living races, a knowledge of which has a scientific and practical value. These races form one of the most important elements in the constitution of the world in which we live, and are therefore an important subject of scientific study. Our relations with other races are matters of everyday concern for all in a world where international problems are questions of life and death. Citizens of a free, self-governing country cannot delegate a study of these races to a few experts, and a first-hand study is impossible without a knowledge of their languages: without this knowledge successful co-operation and successful competition are alike impossible.

3. For the searchers after truth each language and literature deserves æsthetic as well as scientific investigation. Each contains elements of artistic, intellectual, and moral value. Each is an independent mode of expression. A knowledge of each language, therefore, widens artistic, intellectual, and moral experience. In his investigations the student will have to consider the relation of form and matter to one another; in method he will have the advantage of being able to interrogate the living man as well as the records of the past and present.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

Sub-Editors: Miss ALTHAUS; Mr. H. L. HUTTON; Mr. DE V. PAYEN-PAYNE; Dr. R. L. GRÆME RITCHIE; Miss E. STENT; Professor R. A. WILLIAMS.

All contributors are requested to send in matter by the 24th of each month, if publication is urgently required for the issue following.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 15th of February, March, April or May, June, July, October, November, and December. The price of single numbers is 6d. net; the annual subscription is 4s. 8d. Orders should be sent direct to the Publishers, A. and C. Black, Ltd., 4, Soho Square, London.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, Cuilrathain, Harpenden, Herts. [N.B.—**Temporary address** during School Term: ST. JOHN'S SCHOOL, LEATHERHEAD.]

The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Association, but those whose subscription for the current year is not paid before July 1 are not entitled to receive it.

The Annual Subscription to the Association, payable on January 1, is 7s. 6d., and should be sent to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. W. PERRETT, 58, Erskine Hill, Hendon, N.W.

Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, Steeple, Kingsway, Gerrards Cross.

The MODERN LANGUAGE REVIEW, a Quarterly Journal of Medieval and Modern Literature and Philology, edited by Professor J. G. Robertson, and published by the Cambridge University Press, is supplied to Members of the Association at a special annual subscription of 7s. 6d., *which must be prepaid*. It should be sent with the membership subscription (15s. in all) to the Hon. Treasurer. Those who wish to take in or discontinue the REVIEW should communicate with the Hon. Secretary.

The attention of Teachers is drawn to the collection of French and German School Books, carefully selected by a Sub-Committee, and known as the Travelling Exhibition. It may be inspected on applying to Mr. Twentyman, Board of Education, Whitehall. A Catalogue (sent *gratis* to members) has been issued of all sections except Reading Texts, of which a separate and minutely detailed list is being prepared. For particulars of conditions on which the Exhibition may be loaned apply to Miss Hart, as below.

The Hon. Secretary will be glad to receive from members the addresses of well-educated families on the Continent willing to receive English guests, which can be recommended to students and teachers wishing to study abroad. The addresses of houses where an English guest is not likely to meet any other English people are specially desired. Names of families should not be sent unless the member can recommend them from personal knowledge. Full particulars should be given.

Communications on the under-mentioned subjects should be addressed to the persons named:—

Exchange of Children: Miss BATCHELOR, Bedford College, Regent's Park, N.W.

Magic-Lantern Slides: H. L. HUTTON, 2, College Gardens, Dulwich, S.E.

Residence Abroad (**Women**): Miss SANDYS, 30, East St. Helen's, Abingdon; (**Men**): The Hon. Secretary.

Travelling Exhibition: J. E. MANSION, B.-ès-L., 10, Sudbrooke Road, Wandsworth Common, S.W.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, Berkhamsted School, Herts.

N.B.—Applicants for correspondents are requested to enclose list of pupils, giving names, ages, and addresses, and a stamp for reply.

Correspondence on all other subjects should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary.

It is urgently requested that all Postal Orders be crossed.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

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UNIVERSITIES AND STUDENTS' LIFE IN RUSSIA.

THE character and conditions of student-life in Russia are an outcome of the social and political history of the country. From the earliest days of their existence the Russian universities were drawn into the drift of the political life of the country, which made a strong impression on their national character. Their social tradition is distinctly democratic; their academic history is one long struggle for internal independence and for freedom in thinking and teaching; their corporate union is based on allegiance to the social ideal.

The social vocation of the Russian universities, to uphold the tradition of national ideals, makes them differ greatly in spirit and intellectual outlook from the universities of other countries. The Russian university of to-day is a seat of scientific instruction and research as well as a social body animated by an ardent desire to serve the country in her aspirations to a brighter and happier life. A glance at the historical position of the Russian universities will explain much that seems at first sight so strange and peculiar in the character of the Russian student.

The Russian universities did not arise spontaneously from the desire of the intellectual minority for organized scientific instruction, as was the case with those institutions in England. They were brought into being by the will of the Imperial power, which hardly realized the true function of the higher centres of education. Peter the Great ordered the establishment of a university college for 'glory amongst foreigners,' and even much later the students were regarded as merely preparing for future service as State officials. Mr. Flerovsky, author of interesting reminiscences of 'The Three Emperors,' says that at the time he passed out of Kazan University 'every student, on leaving the college, had to enter the State service; the bureaucracy and the War Office claimed all the educated people, and apart from the Civil Service an educated man saw no other means of earning his living.' As State institutions the universities in Russia are maintained and administered by the Government, the whole system of organization being imported from Germany. The early University Statute of 1804 granted universities certain corporate rights and a degree of autonomy. The professors constituted an independent council who elected the rector and the deans, and had the actual control of the management and teaching. This autonomy was, however, all on paper. The universities were in fact subjected to the most rigid supervision and control on

the part of the Government, which interfered with the inner order of the institutions as well as with the work of instruction.

The paralyzing effect of the controlling force of the State reached one of its highest points in the time of Nicholas I., an age of pious obscurantism, humble servility, and revolting hypocrisy. The fate of Russian education suffered greatly under the violent rule of the Emperor Nicholas. While the Russian people began to appreciate the value of education and crowded the schools, the reactionary Government perceived political danger in encouraging national education. 'As the aspirations for learning are extensively spreading all over the country,' stated Count Uvarov, the then Minister of Education, 'the time has arrived for us to take care that these excessive aspirations for the higher subjects of instruction should not break the order of civil ranks, inspiring young minds with longings for superfluous knowledge.' In five years' time the same partisan of ignorance suggested certain practical measures for preventing young men from gaining access to the schools: 'Considering that the higher and secondary educational institutions have beyond comparison increased the influx of young men of the lower classes of society, for whom any higher education is absolutely useless, being a superfluous luxury bringing them out of their primitive state without any advantage either to themselves or to the State, it is necessary to increase the fees for instruction, not so much for raising funds for the schools as for reducing the claims of youths to education to a certain level in conformity with the social life of different classes.' All these kind and advanced suggestions were introduced into the new University Statute of 1835, which destroyed the last fiction of academic freedom. The university councils were deprived of jurisdiction over their own members. The administrative and financial functions were controlled by curators, who were also responsible for internal discipline at the universities. The rectors and the deans had still to be elected, but they did not exercise any considerable power. The number of students in each university was reduced to three hundred; and the children of the poorer classes were debarred from entering the universities. Under these depressing and trying conditions the spirit of the university scholars sank very low, and their social life presented a picture of utter degradation.

After the European revolution of 1848 the grip of reaction stamped out all traces of an intellectual movement in Russia, and the universities felt more than ever the pressure of the restraining hand. In 1849 for the right of electing the higher university officers was substituted appointment by the Government, which sought to turn the universities into police institutions by subjecting them to the supervision of the governor-generals. The Government authorities issued orders, regulations, and directions concerning the method and spirit of university instruction. In 1850 the deans were ordered to take care that 'the courses should contain nothing contradictory to the teachings of the Orthodox Church or to the spirit of State institutions.' The study of the Imperial laws of the European countries 'involved in the riots and revolutions' was excluded from the prescribed curricula, and was later replaced by studies in artillery and fortifications. The very name of the philosophical faculty was destroyed, the science of philosophy being regarded as injurious and useless. Professor Dmitriev recalls that even problems such as the date of the establishment of the Russian State and the correctness of Greek pronunciation were solved by the orders of the State authorities. The cynical

attitude of the Government towards the universities was perhaps best of all shown by the appointment of the police inspector in Harkov as Professor of Philosophy at the local university. The students were subjected to a scrupulous supervision, and they were inspired with the idea that their vocation was not to do any serious work or to be trained intellectually and morally, but to show their respect to the appointed officers and to the State. The stifling atmosphere of suspicion and oppression rendered miserable both the students and the professors.

But despotism can never crush a high-spirited people, and in the gloom of political reaction which raged in Russia under the Nicholas régime appeared the early pioneers of spiritual and political revolt. They were Professor Granovsky and the student Petrashevsky. The former was perhaps at that time the only man in Russia who enjoyed the general admiration of educated people for the straightness of his vigorous mind and responsive heart. In his appreciation of Granovsky's personality, the famous political exile, Alexander Herzen, said that 'owing to Granovsky the Moscow University had for the moral prestige of Russia as much importance as the defence of Sebastopol.' The cause of progress and liberal education in Russia became with Professor Granovsky the vocation of his life, strong as passion and firm as conviction. In his inspired teaching he asserted independence of thought and research, and thanks to men like him the standard of science in Russia was not captured and trodden down by the partisans of reaction.

While Granovsky was enthusiastically fighting a battle for the independence of the university, a courageous and eloquent young man, Petrashevsky, was striving to deliver the students from the depths of their apathy and ignorance by inspiring them with the ideas of Socialism. He established libraries and reading circles in the university towns. Under the influence of fresh ideas rich and poor students lived together in social communities. The Russian student began to change his frame of mind, and in his pursuit of the new social ideal gradually turned into a revolutionary.

The change in home politics after the Crimean War, when 'the Russian people were released from imprisonment,' gave a fresh impulse to the students' movement in Russia. The universities have practically swept away all the stupid regulations imposed upon them since 1848, and established a strong nucleus of internal freedom. Restriction in the number of students attending the universities was removed, and new members poured in. The university councils regained their original rights, and became once more the centres of the corporate life. All these changes were embodied in the new University Statute of 1863.

The tenor of the intellectual evolution of the educated Russians at that time was characterized by their revision of the traditional values of Russian culture. It was the age of 'Nihilism,' but not of that 'Nihilism' which is absurdly abused in some sensational novels to be bought at cheap book-stalls. The clumsy term 'Nihilism' was introduced by Turgenev in his famous novel *Fathers and Sons* to describe a certain frame of mind which was peculiar to some Russians in the 'sixties. It should be noticed that life in Russia depended for centuries on established tradition. Religion as a spiritual guide, the autocratic power of the Tsar at the head of the political organization, the authority of the official and of the landlord in social intercourse, the absolute influence of the head of the family in private life—these were the pillars which supported Russian civilization in the past. A certain part of the Russian intellectual classes who were

unable to breathe in an atmosphere of hypocrisy declared a violent war on the religious, political, and family authorities, and 'Nihilism' was the first stage of the negative a Russian thought of in the 'sixties. 'The "Nihilist,"' explained one of Turgenev's heroes, 'is a man who bows to no authority, who accepts no principle on hearsay, however generally it may be esteemed. . . . We act in the name of that which we consider useful. In our days what is most useful? Negation. Therefore we deny.' The Nihilists derived their inspiration from their own life and work. The majority of them came from the ill-treated and the oppressed classes of society, where traditions could not strike deep roots. The country called for work, and they understood that 'life is a workshop and man a worker who labours there.' They were practical to the core, and based their ideas on the knowledge of positive facts. 'Words and illusions perish, but facts remain,' said one of the forerunners of the movement. Their unconventionalities and extremes were mere outward manifestations of their strong dislike for stale traditional customs and manners. The Nihilist creed neglected altogether the political and social problems, and soon failed to exercise any considerable influence on the rising generations which were gradually driven into the political struggle.

In 1884 the Minister of Education, Count Tolstoy, signed the death-sentence of autonomy of the universities by introducing new regulations which were later extended with the purpose of preventing the entrance of the poorer classes to those institutions. With avowed, open cynicism, the educational authorities explained that 'it is necessary to clear the gymnasia (*i.e.*, Grammar School) of the children of coachmen, cooks, washerwomen, and hopkeepers. These children, unless exceptionally gifted, must not depart from their station.' The Government wiped out from the universities everything that had a shadow of corporate character. The students were treated as separate visitors to the universities, and were strictly forbidden to have any meetings or to establish any guilds. Special inspectors were appointed to carry out a regular police control over the proceedings of the students inside the universities. In their private life they were also surrounded by an atmosphere of supervision and espionage, and there was no end to their just complaints against the police, who used to break into their homes and conduct thorough searchings. The police raids became topics of several humorous songs composed by the students, whose youthfulness always saw some lighter sides in their unhappy life. One song delights in describing the awkward position of a horde of raiders who were racking their brains over a bottle of *oleum ricini*, being unable to make out whether it was dynamite or some other explosive matter.

The intolerable régime established at the Russian universities by the new regulations gave rise to a series of fresh disturbances amongst the students. But the movement was still confined to purely academical demands, although the influence of revolutionary ideas gained ground among a very considerable number of students, and the 'Nihilist' type of the Russian university student of the 'sixties developed into a revolutionary soldier fighting for the social and political freedom of his country.

The first political encounter of the Russian universities with the forces of reaction took place in 1899, when students all over Russia refused to attend their lectures, protesting unanimously against the violent interference of the police in their academical and private life. The Government was taken unawares, and

suppressed the movement with all the cruelty of brute force.

After the unrest was stamped out by the destruction of many young lives, the Government appointed, as usual, a special Commission to investigate the causes of the students' troubles. Some officials on the Commission were known to be honest and liberal men, and a hopeful feeling set in among the students and their friends that their claims would be duly considered, but the efforts of the head of the Commission, Lieutenant-General Vannovsky, to redeem the autonomy of the universities proved a complete failure. An Imperial Order of July 29, 1899, introduced drastic regulations and threatened to force the students into the army for a period of two or three years for having created disturbances. That measure produced a stupefying impression on the rest of the students in Russia, and for some time they could not see any effective way of fighting for their cause. In 1901 students of the Harkov University organized street demonstrations, and their example was followed by other universities. At their meetings they demanded the abolition of the Temporary Regulations of 1899, the return of all their comrades from military service, and radical reforms of the universities on the principles of autonomy. The students' movement was largely supported this time by the leaders of progressive thought in Russia, and a body of professors, men of letters, and lawyers addressed a letter to some of the Imperial Ministers explaining the causes of unrest. The public attitude towards the struggling universities had grown much more sympathetic, and the students' demonstrations were upheld and joined by the working classes. The Government's oppression and disregard for the national aspirations linked together all the forces of progress in the cause of freedom. The Second General Congress of the representatives of all the Russian universities was held in 1903, and passed a final resolution in favour of a political campaign, arguing that a free university can only be established in a free country. In 1905 Russia experienced a short period of freedom, and the national universities obtained autonomy, which they enjoyed for about two years. It was a time of great initiative and constructive work towards raising the standards of academical life. The halls, passages, and lecture-rooms were crowded with enthusiastic young men. Numerous societies and organizations sprang up to feed and clothe the poor, to provide lodging, financial support and employment, and to look after the intellectual and moral needs of the students. The doors of the universities were thrown open to all who sought higher education, and the uniforms of matriculated students mixed with the plain smocks of the workman and country teacher. Crowds of students flocked from one lecture-room to another, and the largest halls were not capable of accommodating the people who streamed in to attend a lecture by a popular professor. Every corner of the universities throbbed with activity. The general and the class libraries could hardly serve their readers. As one who passed through a university at that time I am convinced that the old walls of Petrograd University had never before seen a happier crowd, excited yet reserved, full of boisterous spirit and fun, yet earnest.

One of the most attractive and pleasing features of a Russian student's life is its broad and deep spirit of fellowship. The word 'Comrade' is the best introduction amongst Russian students. It is the key to a student's heart. The name of 'student' wipes out all social distinctions and binds together university men as one compact band of comrades. The standard of knowledge

and instruction attained by the Russian universities in the later stages of their history stands very high, and the Russian student was at all times a true convert to science; but his studies did not prevent him from coming to the aid of the sufferings of his own people, and he always succumbed to the social needs and claims of his time. His scientific aspirations did not degenerate into scholastic pedantry, of which Germany is the pre-eminent home, and his social sense taught him to regard the university as much a school of citizenship and humanity as a seat of scientific work and research.

A Russian boy or girl generally passes two stages before entering the university. At the age of seven children attend an elementary or a preparatory school, where they usually stay for about three or four years. Those whose means allow are sent, after some additional training to enable them to pass the examinations, to a higher secondary school, called the Gymnasium or the Real School, where they remain from seven to eight years, provided they make sufficient progress. The Russian system of higher secondary education aims at providing a general training which, being efficient in itself, may serve as an introduction to future studies at the universities or at the technical high schools.

After passing the final examination at the secondary colleges, the majority of young Russian boys and girls proceed to the higher educational institutions.

In the autumn of every year Russian students whose homes are in the provincial towns or villages start off to their Alma Mater encouraged by the blessings of their parents and laden with presents from their friends. Some of them have a very long way to go, and they provide themselves with food, travelling rugs, and the inevitable teapot. To make the long journey short, they go in small batches, which always include two or three genial persons who provide the fun. If you happened to be in their company you would at once get an insight into the character of the Russian student. In one corner of the railway-carriage you would notice a group discussing with youthful enthusiasm and in dead earnest some philosophical, literary, or social topic they had common interest in. Agitated and impetuous, they argue their points, some with the proficiency of a skilful controversialist, and some with the awkward slowness of a bookworm. They are so animated that you can overhear all that they hate, love, or adore. If you are a good judge of human nature, you can guess all the faults as well as the virtues likely to result from the sincere emotional force animating their minds. But a boisterous song striking up at the other end of the carriage puts a sudden end to the discussion, and all join in, accompanied by the 'balalaika.' The musical repertory of Russian students is inexhaustible in its volume, though it is lacking somewhat in variety of thought and sentiment. They express in their songs their profound devotion to the country and the people, their hopes for freedom, and their admiration for the martyrs of revolution, while their topical songs describing encounters with the police, adventures of youth, and iniquities of academical life, are full of merriment, wit, and sarcasm.

On his arrival at a great university town, such as Petrograd or Moscow, the student encounters his first trials. He may still be rich in home-made cakes, but the state of his purse was lamentable from the moment he paid for his railway-ticket. He loses no time in reaching the parts of the town nearest to his Alma Mater, and begins to look round for lodgings. In time of political troubles it was always a very unpleasant pilgrimage, because the housekeepers would

not have as their lodgers 'those riotous students.' To save trouble, some of the landladies used to explain in the advertisements posted outside their houses that 'students and persons possessing dogs are humbly requested not to call.' In his search for rooms the student has to climb several flights of stairs, for Russian houses in the large cities are built in flats, and the majority of our strivers after higher education can only afford to live in a garret or an attic. But he is never tired of hunting for rooms, as a comfortable home is of vital importance to him. He would willingly cut down his other expenses, such as those for food, but he must have a quiet, cosy corner for his studies. In spite of the great pains taken to secure home comfort, Russian students, particularly new-comers, often suffer from noise, lack of light, dampness and cold in their rooms. This makes them leave their lodgings early in the morning and settle in some quiet corner of the school building for their studies. A lady student writes: 'I am daily compelled to go out, being unable to study on account of the merciless noise made by the children.' Or 'the flat of four rooms is occupied by thirteen people; there are some little children, and the lodgers have some visitors every day; in the adjoining room a student plays a "balalaika" which is out of tune.'

A picture of the social conditions of the students' life in Russia would necessarily be a very vague one, unless it were illustrated by comprehensive statistics. For this purpose one may utilize the data supplied by an inquiry made at the Statistical Seminary of Bestuzhev High College for Women in Petrograd. The object of that inquiry, arranged in the autumn of 1909, was to investigate the material position and the academical life, and to portray the intellectual outlook of women students. The picture presented by this report may be considered, after some insignificant alterations here and there, as typical of the whole community of Russian university students.

From the point of view of the social rank and the occupation of the fathers of Russian students, they constitute a mixed body. The greater percentage of women students at Bestuzhev College came from the so-called liberal professions 24·4 per cent.; further sections belonging to the Civil Service, 13·5 per cent.; tradesmen and manufacturers, 13·9 per cent.; pensioners, 9·9 per cent.; landed proprietors, 8·3 per cent.; owners of property or capitalists, 7·5 per cent.; the clergy, 5·6 per cent.; employees in commerce and industry, 4·8 per cent.; employees in transport, 2·2 per cent.; artisans and workmen, 2·4 per cent.; peasantry, 1·7 per cent. In spite of some restrictive measures introduced by the Government of Alexander III., against the invasion of the universities by 'the children of washerwomen,' the latter were never lacking in personal sacrifice to enable their boys and girls to obtain a university education, and in the census papers of some Russian students occur statements such as 'Mother is a domestic servant and father is a school caretaker,' which show that the washerwomen came out victorious. Although the percentage of students from the lower classes is slightly smaller than that from the families of higher social standing, the democratic spirit animating the Russian people as a whole gives to Russian universities a distinctly democratic tone. During the last decade the influx of students from the peasant, professional, and working classes has greatly increased, and the universities and higher technical schools may be described from the point of view of their social composition as educational institutions for the sons and daughters of the representatives of mental and manual labour in the country.

The average income of the Russian student varies from three to three and a half pounds a month, but in numerous cases the amount is much less, being sometimes only twenty-five or thirty shillings a month. The majority of women students at Bestuzhev College—namely, 52 per cent.—receive allowances from their parents; 35 per cent. depend on their home allowance, supplemented by an income derived from other sources; and only 0·7 per cent. live entirely on their personal earnings, obtained by giving private lessons, teaching at the schools, working at offices, making translations and journalistic work, etc.

The chief and most costly item of the student's expenditure is his lodgings, the majority of Russian higher schools being non-residential. On an average they spend from twenty to twenty-five shillings per month for rooms, often sharing them with two or three friends. The size of a student's room is sometimes a little larger than that of a prison cell, and a small table, a pair of wretched chairs, and a villainously uncomfortable bed, comprise all its furniture. After paying for their quarters, the students have very little money left for other expenses, and it would not be an exaggeration to say that the majority of them live on the brink of starvation. Over 12 per cent. of the Bestuzhev students have no 'regular' dinner—*i.e.*, they do not dine every day; 16·9 per cent. spend less than 3½d. on their dinner; 32·5 per cent. spend from 4d. to 5d.; 17 per cent. from 7½d. to 10d.; and only 2·1 per cent. over 10d. 'Paying for their dinner not more than 3½d., our students, we may just as well say, have no dinner at all,' says one of the contributors to the above inquiry.

To relieve their social needs the students establish organizations, such as labour bureaus, dining-rooms, mutual aid societies, etc. With the help of these institutions and animated with the great vigour of their aspirations, the Russian students traverse their hard path of education with the hopeful feeling of overcoming all difficulties.

As the vanguard of the liberative movement, the Russian university students played a prominent part in the recent revolutionary crisis in the country. But in the great political confusion and upheaval they acted as powers of restraint, discipline, and order. The young men from the universities did themselves great credit by forming the nucleus of a civil militia to protect the new liberty of the Russian nation, and anxiety for Russia will be relieved when all classes of the people become alive to the duties imposed upon them by the solemn hour of national trial.

M. V. Trofimov.

ANNIE ADAMSON.

One of the most remarkable and original of the Modern Language teachers of our time passed away on July 6, at seventy-one, but still in the full tide of her activities. The larger part of her long life had been spent in the service of a single institution, the Manchester High School for Girls, to the reputation of which she contributed in a very notable degree. Like many other great teachers, she owed more to her own genius and personality than to any educational advantages she had herself enjoyed. These were, from the standpoint of the opportunities now open to women, meagre enough. Born at Edinburgh, in January, 1846, she attended the Maclaren Academy in that city for a few years, but already at fourteen began to teach at the Normal School. In 1866 she took a post as governess at Les Salies de Béarn, in the South of France, subsequently becoming

French mistress at the Merchant Company School in Edinburgh (1870), and afterwards (1876) for two years at an Advanced Girls' School in Germany. On her return she was appointed, in September, 1878, to the post at the Manchester High School, in which, a little less than thirty-nine years later, she died 'in harness' as she wished, having supervised classes and corrected exercises as usual the day before her death.

In 1902, the University of Manchester awarded her the honorary degree of M.A. An elder sister of the distinguished thinker, Robert Adamson, who held the chair of Philosophy at the neighbouring Owens College (now the University) for some years after her appointment at the High School, Miss Adamson brought to the study and teaching of modern languages something of his immense range of acquisition, his vigorous independence, and his masterful good sense. 'If she had had my opportunities,' he said of his sister, 'she would have gone much further than I.' Both had the hatred of abstractions which marks the best, though not the commonest, type of Scottish intellect. In him this was coupled, most fruitfully, with the speculative ardour of the race. No one did more in his time than Robert Adamson to drive home the doctrine that metaphysics, rightly understood, is no cobweb of the intellect but just the science of reality, bound as such to be in vital and continuous touch with all the concrete studies of man and nature which are so often contrasted with it to its (and their) disadvantage. In his sister's simpler mind this bent took shape, not less fruitfully, as a pronounced repugnance to all the pedantries, of whatever kind, which get between the learner and the living speech. Though she passed a long life in educating with brilliant success, and devoted all the force of her mature mind to making the education she gave real and living, she would have heartily disliked to be called an 'educationist'; and though she was in one sense among the best of educationists, no true term could convey a falser impression of what she was than that ungainly label. For the fashionable orthodoxies of teaching she had, as such, little respect or concern. If she taught French and German by the so-called 'direct method,' she had gone to school for it only, we make bold to say, with her own penetration and shrewd sense, working upon the practical problem before her. While the battle over its merits raged in the educational papers, Miss Adamson vindicated it unostentatiously by her example. Philology and phonetics, even literature and criticism, were for her subordinate, nay, irrelevant things. Not that she was not a voracious reader, or that her literary taste, if not precisely choice, did not relish choice literary things. Her shelves were full of well-read copies of Georges Sand and Flaubert, Daudet and Anatole France. But these were not part of her 'job.' The 'rigour of the game' lay elsewhere, and like Sarah Battle she 'relaxed her mind afterwards over a book.' Language did not attract her as something to be woven into dexterous subtleties of style, still less as something to be broken up into sounds or explored for roots. What she loved with passion was just the language itself, the human flow of talk, as it comes and goes in the common round of daily intercourse. To learn a new language was for her, not to acquire a new accomplishment or to win a broader base for linguistic generalizations, but to overhear another people in the familiar intimacies of its business and its 'thousand homes.' And she caught with wonderful ease and skill the changing idioms in which the 'genius' of different languages expresses the common needs and aims.

With such a disposition and with

brain-power to back it, Miss Adamson was bound, in the span of her threescore years and ten, to become what is called a remarkable linguist. And long before the close of her term of service in Dover Street a kind of legend of linguistic versatility had grown about her. Pleasant stories were current, for instance, of how, returning from Norway in a steamer crowded with people of many nationalities, she confounded public opinion in the saloon by talking with every passenger in his own language, and so elusively that they all gave her different fatherlands, agreeing only in the conclusion that one with such a gift of tongues at any rate could not possibly be English. Her acquirements, though not on the Mezzofanti scale, were sufficiently remarkable in the life of a very busy woman. She talked and wrote in six languages besides her own, and had a reading knowledge of three others. Her way was to get as soon as possible to talking, and she would invite native speakers to her house for constant practice.

But her linguistics were by no means merely a matter of personal taste. She saw and deplored the national helplessness of the English people, as a whole, in foreign language study, and set herself with indefatigable energy to overcome it in the limited but by no means uninfluential sphere which she controlled. She knew the need of linguistic mastery for both sexes in the business world of the coming generation, and she forestalled with wise prescience its demands in the training of her girls. In most schools a new language has to knock loud and long before it is admitted to a curriculum already perhaps overburdened with ' compulsory ' subjects. Miss Adamson might rather have been said to stand at the window, in watch for a new language of cultural importance to come in sight, and ready to give it an hospitable welcome when it came. Again and again, her zeal, which seemed to anticipate necessity, was justified in the sequel by hard facts; and when the necessity arrived, it found the Manchester High School, thanks to her, prepared, and often alone prepared, for it. The great enlargement in the recognized scope of women's education which went on through the whole later nineteenth century naturally favoured such enterprises; but Miss Adamson and the governing body of the school, whose wise confidence and support she throughout enjoyed, were not the less pioneers. It was thus that, when she was over sixty, a Spanish department was founded, followed by teaching in Portuguese. And the war, with its changed perspectives, had not gone far when Miss Adamson started a class in Russian, with results which have won the warm approval of inspectors.

Such versatility might suggest that Miss Adamson's knowledge of languages was both superficial and inexact. This would be quite untrue. If she cared nothing for philology, or for grammar in the abstract, for grammar in the concrete, as the structure of the living language, the bone and nerve of the speech organism, she cared infinitely, and spared no pains to make it as real for her pupils as it was for herself. She had a genius for teaching, as well as for learning, and the two were in the closest touch. As living daily intercourse was the key to her interest in language, so her way of teaching it infused the zest of dialogue, of drama, of song into the business of the schoolroom. Half her teaching was acting, she taught by gesture and mimicry, she made hard words and difficult conceptions clear by translating them into action and event. And every pupil's mind was for her, so to speak, a separate theatre, in which the dramatic process went on, of which she was herself the moving and guiding

spirit, and whose course she followed with the most alert attention and the most unfailing sympathy.

Yet such figures must not be taken to suggest that the dramatic vivacity of her teaching was a mere pedagogic device, an educational medicament deliberately administered by a coolly skilful hand. Miss Adamson was what the Germans call a *Natur*, and her most enthralling moments, even as a teacher, were when the vivacious woman in her, full of ideas, interests, and experience, thrust the conscious teacher aside, and gave free rein to her inexhaustible flow of rich idiomatic talk in the tongue she was teaching. Travel, dress, fashions, frivolities—everything came in; and her girls, it is said, loved to lure her along these unprofessional byways by artfully provocative questions. And then the eloquence of Andromaque or Esther would be cut short for that day, and the class found itself plunged into a flood of brilliant colloquial French, from which it emerged less liable than before to conduct negotiations with a Parisian modiste in the language of Racine. Naturally, this kicking of the traces did not, at the outset, escape criticism. It is to the honour of the present Headmistress of the school that she from the first understood Miss Adamson's quality, and allowed her to indulge her genius without reserve, justly confident that if her girls missed the 'wild asses' they went out to seek, they stood a good chance of picking up 'a kingdom' by the way.

Yet, with all the freedom she enjoyed, a woman of Miss Adamson's temper could not find full scope, or be wholly understood, in the school. She had the vivid sympathy with youth natural to those who grow old, as she did, with the fire of youthful enterprise undimmed; but there were sides of her mind, none the less, which emerged only in the free intercourse with her contemporaries, with men and women of all ranks, pursuits, and nationalities. If there was nothing of the 'schoolmarm' about her in the school, there were piquant suggestions of Bohemia in her life outside, a Bohemia as genial as it was harmless, needless to say! Her Continental tours of exploration through the byways of Europe were wonders of frugal and unconventional travel, and crowded with the joys known only to her fellow-practitioners of that art. Her modest drawing-room at Withington was an informal salon, where she reigned as truly as any Parisian 'queen of dazzling converse' in a circle of kindred spirits and devoted friends—professors in the University, foreign correspondents from the city, women able and unconventional like herself. There, hour by hour, the tobacco-clouds grew denser and the stream of talk never failed; and Miss Adamson, puffing a strong cigar whenever she was not discoursing of all things in the earth and out of it, took a chief share, like the true comrade and hostess she was, in both. No picture of Annie Adamson would be complete without these traits, and no one who knew and loved her virile and magnetic personality would wish them away. She was a great teacher and a large-natured, human-souled woman; her teaching drew its strength from her humanity, and the woman no less than the teacher will be lovingly remembered by the many generations of her pupils and by the great school to which she devoted the fulness of her mature life.

C. H. Herford.

THE NECESSITY FOR STOCK-TAKING.

When so much has been written about educational reform, so many conferences held, speeches made, and reports published, it seems rather audacious for one who, like myself, is absolutely unknown to suggest that reform is not required, only evolution—accelerated indeed, but on the lines on which we have been moving in the past. Has education (with a small 'e') proved a failure? Take the evidence of Sir William Robertson, who says: 'The Public School boy was not to be surpassed—he did not think equalled. At the Public Schools boys learned habits of obedience, unselfishness, loyalty, co-operation, playing for sides, and discipline—all essential to men who aspired to become leaders.' And contrast it with the trite untruth of the statement made in chapter iii., paragraph 1, of a Programme of Education Reform issued by the Education Reform Council: 'Educational progress depends upon the possibility of securing trained men and women with the necessary spirit and ability. So far as men are concerned, the situation is bad and is sure to become worse. Before the War the requisite number of men was not obtainable, and fewer were coming forward than were needed to fill vacancies; the quality was frequently disappointing.'

Now, I must protest against cant, especially the chant of depreciation, even if it is intoned by Vice-Chancellors with a choir of the supernumeraries of the educational world. This damnatory statement may be true of primary education—I have no personal knowledge to guide me, and I have no statistics to which I can refer—but so far as it refers to secondary education it is manifestly false. I have by me as I write the *Schoolmasters' Year Book* for 1904, 1910, and 1914. If one opens the 1914 edition at random and compares the staffing of the schools on any page with that of the same schools in the earlier editions one will be struck by the progress that has been made; the staff is more numerous and the qualifications of the individual members much higher. My own experience tells the same tale. I have been in charge of the Modern Language side of a London school for nearly twenty years, and the qualifications of my colleagues are infinitely higher now than they were even ten years ago. If the authors of the report lay stress on trained men, I would remind them that the Government scheme as outlined in the Registration Act has not yet had time to produce any appreciable effect.

The wonder is, not that masters in Secondary Schools are so poor, but that they are so good in view of the insufficient remuneration which they receive. The cause is to be found in the Universities and the conditions of business life. The University is for a large number of men, if not the majority, a blind alley. At twenty-two a man is not acceptable in an office where he would be the junior of lads of seventeen or eighteen; and if he has gone to the University without any special object in view, he finds that he has little or no choice. He almost certainly becomes a schoolmaster. I admit that few of these men became schoolmasters of *malice prepense* or remained schoolmasters except from dire necessity. I admit, too, that the manner in which the profession was recruited was marvellously inefficient, and the sources of supply were in danger of drying up when the Government made the mistake of insisting on training without at the same time making provision for increased salaries and pensions. But there was no reason to despair, for Mr. Lloyd George was Chancellor of the Exchequer, and the question was engaging his attention, and there was every prospect that he would be undertaking another raid on the hen-roosts of the opulent. And so it was that before the Mesopotamia Report, with its revelations of the absolute breakdown of our civil and military administration, it was my firm opinion that there was little wrong with English education.

The question naturally arises whether the optimistic opinions I have expressed are still tenable. I have quoted Sir W. Robertson's eulogy of the Public School boy; is that eulogy still to be considered as merited? The Public Schools were the nursery for officers in the Army and for officials in the higher branches of the Civil Service. Here we must make a distinction. The Government refused to pay the officer in the Army a living wage, with the inevitable consequence that the Army failed to attract the best brains even among the limited class from which officers in the Army were drawn. We have had scientific

soldiers, but they never had an opportunity of putting theory into practice. It is no fault of theirs if they have had to learn in war how to handle large masses, for in peace they had practically no men to handle. There have been failures amongst them, and costly failures, but in most cases disaster has been due to the attempt to achieve the impossible. Probably Lord Wolseley alone among modern Generals would have refused to undertake the first march on Baghdad with forces inadequate in number and equipment. This rash march was quite in accordance with the traditions of the British Army, and these traditions have much to justify them—witness the exploits of our men in the Indian Mutiny, the march of Lord Roberts from Kabul to Kandahar, and the Chitral campaign. Chance, says Cæsar, the rashest of Generals, plays a great part in all human affairs, especially in war. But constantly to dice with fortune must end in disaster. Wise provision on the part of the authorities, civil and military, is what the nation demands.

The question that we have to answer is, How far is education responsible for the failures in the past? Is it the man or the system that is at fault? If it is the man, then as far as the civil administration is concerned we are in a bad case, for there is no examination harder than that for first division Civil Service clerkships, and it must be remembered that there is also a medical examination to weed out the physically unfit. It is more probable, therefore, that those who glibly blame the system have, after all, right on their side. Alfred de Vigny, writing of military life and its blasting influence on character, says that the man is lost in the officer, and it seems to me to be even more true that the man is lost in the official. No one would deny that this was true of Germany, with its much-vaunted educational efficiency. Her administrators who are responsible for the horrors of this War may be efficient, human they are not. Yet even more damnable is the callousness of our inefficient officials who sent the crowded troop train across the burning sands of India, or threatened with disgrace the subordinate who revealed the torture of our troops in Mesopotamia; for without aim or object human life was sacrificed. The spirit of officialdom or bureaucracy, whether in a monarchy or a republic, whether the administration is efficient or inefficient, whether the administrators are responsible to a Parliament or to an Emperor, is always the same. It is narrow and exclusive; mistrustful of all outside its own charmed circle, it seeks protection under a mass of forms and schedules. It would be hard to mention a single reform that has been initiated by a Board, whether of Education or of anything else. To call upon the Board of Education to remedy the sins of officialdom is to entrust Satan with the mission of casting out Beelzebub. The whole teaching profession welcomed the first appointment of a practical man to have control of education. The great question now is whether he will become an official relying on the voice of office experts and directors of education, many of whom have been selected for other reasons than educational efficiency, or whether he will take into partnership representatives of those actually engaged in teaching. The man in the street should know that the demands on which the efficiency of education depends—such, for instance, as the adequate training and remuneration of teachers—have come from educational societies, and not from boards of governors and others who are responsible for the direction of education.

After the chant of depreciation, we have the chant of recommendation. This is not the place to treat those addressed to the teachers of other subjects. Co-ordination is a blessed word; but before joining others in the work of construction, we should do well to see whether our own tenement is as roofless or as leaky as it is generally supposed. To quote from the same report, chapter iii., paragraph 4: 'Modern Language teachers should be assisted to live abroad for a period of twelve months in a milieu [is there no English word?]) not entirely academic, in order the better to understand the character and ideals of the country [probably *people* is meant] whose language they propose to teach.' Have not the reformers of the Modern Language teacher taken a platitude and made of it a shibboleth? At any rate, it would be hard to find anyone to argue that a Modern Language teacher would not be better for residence abroad, but only very superior people would think it necessary to tell him that he must keep his eyes and ears open. He is sure to draw conclusions, but the number and certainty of them will prob-

ably be in inverse ratio to his intelligence. They should rather warn him against the danger of hasty conclusions.

'We are none of us infallible, not even the youngest member here,' is a sage remark attributed to a late Master of Trinity, Cambridge. I do not know how the matter may stand with others, but to speak for myself personally I have spent the last three years in recasting not only the ideas which I had formed in frequent visits to France and Germany of the character of the two peoples whose language I was teaching, but also my pessimistic views of the future of my own countrymen. The London County Council quite recently asked the opinion of the leading men of business about the lads in their offices. No one had a good word to say for the 'sloppy' youth—probably the younger brother of the heroes of Gallipoli and Mesopotamia and the son of the men who, in laboratory and workshop, have in a short space of time put their country on a level with Germany even in the unaccustomed art of the production of munitions of war.

The truth is we see through our own spectacles. It is well to see for ourselves; it is well also not to generalize from the little that we do see.

'And I smiled as I drove from the station, but
the smile died away on my lips
As I thought of the fools like Paget who write
of their Eastern trips.'

That Paget, M.P., made a voyage to India was all to his credit; his fault was that he came to study the East. So with us; let us travel by all means and as widely as possible, but let us not in our own persons reproduce Paget, M.P., or 'the famous foreigner—gathering material for his great work on England—Count Smalltork.'

There are doubtless other forms of cant or, rather, parrot-talk which might be mentioned, but the two examples that I have given are perhaps the most insidious; for the first implies that the teachers of to-day are inefficient, and the second sets up before one branch of the profession—the much belectured Modern Language teacher—a false ideal.

If one may assume that the main object of the Modern Language teacher is to teach the language and literature of the country with which he is dealing, the question at once arises how far he has been successful in the past. The time has come for stock-taking, and it seems to me that the heads of Modern Language sides in London and in other populous places would do well to meet together and discuss the position.

In London the need for such conference is very pressing; for there have been published recently two reports by different inspectors, and there are also two reports on these reports. But all these documents are confidential—or were, for reference has lately been made to them. Why they should not have been made public it is impossible to say. There are no terrible disclosures. I think I can say that much without any breach of confidence. But secrecy is the order of the day, and it would not do for those who rule us to be false to the spirit of the age. In any case the reports leave me unrepentant. I am firmly convinced by my own experience of nearly twenty years that Modern Languages are much more efficiently taught than they were twenty years ago, and our object should be that in twenty years hence they should be more efficiently taught still.

The question for us is how this result can be brought about.

The Modern Language teacher has three enemies to contend with—the Universities, the Inspectors, and the Headmasters. The Universities are hopeless. All that we can do is to appeal to Cæsar, and ask him to assure for Modern Languages (including English) equality of treatment with Classics, Mathematics, and Science.

The dearth of Modern Language scholarships is accountable for the dearth of pupils in the post-matriculation classes. Increase the number of scholarships, and an increase in the number of students would automatically follow. At present a Modern Language master must be a brave man if he advises a pupil, however promising, to work for a scholarship in French or German. But an increase in the number of scholarships is not enough to place Modern Languages on an equal footing with other subjects. Cambridge, indeed, has recently remodelled the Modern Language Tripos in the sense that Modern Languages are no longer to be regarded as an adjunct of medieval dialects, but their emancipation is by no means yet complete.

Is Greek or even Latin necessary for a University degree? London has answered in the negative for Mathematics and Science; but when a student is already taking two languages other than his own,

it demands of him a fourth, Latin or Greek, whilst Oxford and Cambridge require both, and from every student; but, seemingly conscious of the absurdity of their demand, they are content with the merest smattering. Can it really be seriously argued that there is any difference between the scientist educated at London without Latin and the scientist educated at Oxford and Cambridge who has crammed the modicum of Latin and Greek required of him in the course of a few months' intensive study?

When we come to the degree in Arts or Humanities we are on different ground. There is much force in the argument that a sound knowledge of Classics—and Greek even more than Latin—is essential. But, on the other hand, the majority of students at all Universities take a pass degree, and in the majority of Secondary Schools Greek is hardly taught at all, while Latin is an alternative to a second Modern Language. Four hundred years ago Latin was essential, for Latin was the one means of intercommunication between men of letters. Let there be no halting between two opinions: if Latin is still essential, let the Government enforce it in every school; if it is not essential, let them compel the Universities to grant degrees without Latin. Otherwise their latest scheme of a two years' post-matriculation course is not likely to prove successful. The subjects taught in this course are divided into three sections: Mathematics and Science, Classics, Modern Subjects; but to prevent over-specialization the students in one section must have instruction in a subject chosen from one or other of the two remaining sections. Now, as far as the Universities are concerned, this arrangement leaves the student of Modern Languages in a very unfavourable position. The cleverer boy notices the absence of scholarships, whilst the boy who only aims at an ordinary degree sees that he will be required to take up an entirely new subject, and the consequence will be that as he has had a grounding in Mathematics and Science, he will transfer himself to this latter side. This was the case in the past and will continue to be the case in future, unless equality of treatment is granted by the Universities, or unless business men reserve posts in their offices for boys who pass a higher examination at the end of the two years' work.

Incidentally, the Minister for Education would confer a great benefit on the teaching profession as a whole if he would settle the vexed question of the leaving age. The younger Universities are ready to take boys of sixteen and hall-mark them with a degree at the age when the pupils of Oxford and Cambridge are just entering on their University course. Surely the object of the teacher must be entirely different if his highest form is the Matriculation class from what it would be if he were preparing his pupils for a scholarship or to take an Honours Course at the older Universities.

On the question of Sixth Form work I believe the inspectors and the headmasters are in favour of the higher leaving age. On other questions they do not intend to be hostile, but for all that they often are. *Quot homines, tot sententiæ*, and we have no general custom or usage of the profession to which we can appeal against individual judgment. I do not mean that there should be a stereotyped scheme, but that we should have something definite, and those who recommend any variation should realize what that variation means.

Take, for instance, the question of hours. No one knows what length of time any individual headmaster or inspector will consider adequate. Of one thing only can one be ever sure, and that is that whatever the view they take they will have plenty of evidence to quote in its support. But such arguments are beside the point. If two teachers are equally good and their classes are of equal strength, and if, too, the inspector in each case has breakfasted well—for the teacher is on his trial, and, as Mr. Perker sagely remarks, an ill-breakfasted foreman always finds for the plaintiff—then the man who has three and a half hours will have a better result than the other who has only three hours a week allotted to him. The difference of a single half-hour per week means twenty full lessons in the course of the year.

Then, again, there is the set system. It is in favour at the present time, but my experience is that the boys who were in the lowest set in one block are in the lowest set in the next. They realize that they are duffers and, though theoretically it ought not to be the case, their attitude reacts on the teacher. On the other hand, the advantages of the system are obvious. The best boys, with nothing to check their growth, should flourish like plants in a hothouse.

Then there is the question of composition and the proper method of correcting it. Set prose is under the ban below the Matriculation form. It is supposed to be more educative that boys should exercise their wits on free composition. Yet every examiner knows the danger of the machine-made essay. As an alternative for the usual country walk, he may ask for a description of a hedgehog or an elephant. Now, it is not much use writing an essay on a hedgehog and suppressing the fact that he has prickles, or of an elephant and making no mention of his trunk (by the way, in a London Matriculation paper a few years ago the word used was *tronc*), simply because you do not know the words. It reminds one of what Bismarck in his 'Memoirs' tells us of the German Ambassadors who, being obliged to write in French, reported only what they could tell in tolerable French. Would not an endless amount of trouble be saved if examiners asked for a list of the essays that had been done in the individual schools, and then selected a subject which was likely to be within the scope of the candidates' vocabulary, or if he gave some necessary words and hints as to the proper treatment of the subject. At any rate, the teacher of any form up to and including the Matriculation class cannot expect a satisfactory result if he leaves boys to their own devices.

I have known schools criticized because all mistakes were not corrected, and another school because all were corrected—proof positive of the futility of such criticism. It is equally futile to base criticism on the amount of red ink which sullies what in no case should be the virgin pages of a manuscript book. Of course an excessive amount shows that something is wrong, and it is an inspector's duty to trace the evil to its source. But the maxim, the freer the page the better the work, is erroneous. For instance, Mr. O'Grady, in his excellent book on the rudiments of essay-writing in French, occasionally relates an anecdote and asks the pupils to compose a story on similar lines. An illustration of what is meant is, of course, given in or by the class. Now, which is better—to call on the class to reproduce the imitation or to give the individual members of the class leave to try their own powers of invention? There will be more red ink on a page; and as classes are large and time is limited, there may be writing by the master over the top, the which is now anathema.

I hope under the new régime, when inspector and examination have been at last co-ordinated, we shall have heard the last of these and such-like futilities. Such criticisms have only a value when the uncorrected work of pupils in the examination-room shows that they have failed to attain the proper standard. Either they can write French or they cannot. I am not speaking now of anything but what can be tested by examination.

On two points there seems a danger of reaction—one is the teaching of grammar and the other the teaching of vocabulary or vocabularies.

At one time a Modern Language teacher hardly ventured to say that he gave any rote except some pieces of poetry. French without tears was the order of the day. Is there not now a danger of a reversion to the old order of things? At any rate, I have recently seen a test-paper which contained questions that have from time, scholastically speaking, immemorial been dear to the heart of the experts who set the questions in the Cambridge Junior Locals.

All these questions are of great importance, and I think it is time that we who are responsible for Modern Language teaching should take our bearings. But there is one question which to my mind is the most important of all—the equipment of the man whom we should choose as our colleague, if the choice were given us, as it ought to be given us.

I have said that teachers generally and Modern Language teachers in particular have no occasion to don the white sheet and sit on the stool of repentance. The present generation of teachers is, in my opinion, better than the past, and we wish that our successors shall be in an equal or even a higher degree superior to ourselves.

To attain this result, is not more uniformity to be desired? In Classics, Mathematics, Science, any educated man can tell the relative value of the degree. This is not the case with Modern Languages. A Cambridge Honour degree in Modern Languages may mean special distinction in Anglo-Saxon with a pass in French, or it may mean distinction in both French and German. This is confusing enough; in any case, however, the holder of the degree is a simple Bachelor of Arts.

The M.A. degree which is bought with money covers a multitude of sins, or rather deficiencies, but the foreign doctorate covers many more. In Germany the professors take the students' fees, and in the smaller Universities a large trade was done with foreigners. A degree, as a German barrister put it to me is a proof that a man knows Classics, Science, or whatever subject he may be taking, but it is not a proof that he knows German, and yet it is for this that it is usually taken by Englishmen in England. In any case, however, the holder of the degree is nothing more than an English B.A., for the doctorate in Germany, as the degree of Bachelor at Oxford and Cambridge, is the last word in examinations.

To further the propaganda of their Kultur the Germans, in the smaller Universities at any rate, made the road to academic honours easy for foreigners. But, after all, it is the same road that the native German is required to take.

The French are too proud to lower in any way the value of the highest distinction that a University can confer, as far as their own countrymen are concerned; but with an ingenuity all their own, they have instituted a special course for foreigners, and at the end of this course, which need not last more than eight months, the candidate submits an essay in his own language, and after a public catechism in French, if approved, he is acclaimed by the title of doctor and invested with the gorgeous apparel which is the outward sign of high intellectual attainments. This is the *reductio ad absurdum* of the whole business. In other branches of the profession teachers bear the hall-mark of an English University. Should not this also be the case with the teachers of Modern Languages? In France and Germany the teaching of Modern Languages is practically in the hands of natives who may—or indeed, must—have resided abroad, but who have studied the languages they are to teach at home. About *their* academic qualifications there can be no mistake.

One ought not to make sweeping assertions without bringing some definite proofs. I have before me as I write the Cours pour Étudiants Étrangers at the University of Rennes and the Auszug aus der Promotions-Ordnung der Philosophischen Fakultät of the University of Heidelberg. In the former it is provided that every candidate desiring to obtain the doctorate of the University of Rennes shall have followed the prescribed course for six semestres—that is to say, for three scholastic years—at a French or foreign University or place of higher instruction; two of these semestres must have been passed at the University of Rennes *avec présence effective*. The written examination requires an essay *entièrement inédite* on one of the following subjects: philosophy, philology, language, literature, history, geography, or foreign literature. The essay may be written in French, Latin, English, or German. The oral examinations require the maintenance of the essay in French and the answer to three questions on one or more of the special subjects taught at the University or selected by the candidate.

It will be noted that the University of Rennes does not require that the candidate for the doctorate should have passed any previous examination. If it required a degree, no Englishman could say much against this foreign doctorate, for if he likes the title he can procure the same at home, though the money cost may be a little higher. Our own traffic in degrees is nothing else but a public scandal.

The University of Heidelberg has no special courses for foreigners, but, on the other hand, the use of the German language is not absolutely essential in either the written or the oral examination. The regulations state that 'the essay must be written in German or Latin.' Whether the Faculty will also accept essays written in other languages is dependent on the willingness of the professor responsible for the subject; in this case the special consent of the Faculty must be obtained. As to the oral examination it is stated: 'This examination is conducted in German, except when the use of another language is conditioned by the subject or is allowed in special cases by the examiner.'

I should add that the students taking the oral examination for the doctorate in philosophy are divided into four classes by the addition of the following words: I., summa cum laude, only to be granted when the essay is of the highest merit; II., magna cum laude; III., cum laude; IV., rite. There is no reason to suppose a doctor of the first category is any more master of his subject than the Englishman who has obtained first-class Honours in his own country, and there is every reason to

suppose that the fourth-rate doctor is in every way his inferior; but the foreign graduates have a handle to their names, and 'doctor' is a consecrated title from its association with the clerical headmaster. It carries weight with the British public. This does not matter in the case of other subjects—Classics, Mathematics, Science, etc.—for the value of the home degree is known and appreciated, but in Modern Languages the foreign doctor is the competitor of the British B.A. The title raises the presumption of superior knowledge, yet it need not necessarily mean that the holder has any literary acquaintance with the language of the country in which he has taken his degree. If foreign degrees must be recognized, is it necessary to recognize foreign nomenclature as well? My point is that there is a danger that, for instance, a German Dr.Ph., who is really nothing more than a graduate in Classics or History or some other subject, may be chosen in preference to an Englishman who has graduated in French and German for a post as Modern Language teacher.

R. PROWDE.

LES PROFESSEURS ÉTRANGERS DANS LES UNIVERSITÉS ANGLAISES.

LORSQU' en mars, 1913, l'Université de Liverpool m'a fait l'honneur de m'appeler temporairement de la chaire de littérature française moderne de Johns Hopkins University à sa chaire de français, je n'ignorais pas la polémique qui se poursuivait depuis un certain temps dans MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING sur la question de savoir s'il est préférable de choisir, comme professeurs de langues et de littératures étrangères modernes dans les Universités d'Angleterre, des Anglais ou des 'foreigners'; et j'ai tout lieu de croire que ma nomination n'a pas contribué à calmer l'irritation des adversaires, souvent déclarés et parfois anonymes, des 'foreigners.'

Avec l'attention la plus scrupuleuse, j'ai suivi, d'octobre, 1913, à juillet, 1914, le développement de cette polémique dans votre revue, tâchant, en toute impartialité et sincérité, de me faire une opinion. Puis la guerre a éclaté et tous les Français mobilisables sont partis, si bien que, d'août, 1914, à septembre, 1916, je n'ai pas eu l'occasion d'apprendre en France ce qu'il advenait des attaques et des ripostes échangées dans MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. Revenu provisoirement à Liverpool, je m'en suis instruit dans la mesure où me l'ont permis mes loisirs, et j'ai constaté, non sans surprise, que, depuis août, 1914, nombre de vos collaborateurs n'avaient sans doute rien oublié, mais semblaient surtout n'avoir rien appris.

Permettez-moi donc de vous adresser quelques impressions. Je dis 'impressions' et non pas 'opinions': la question en litige est en effet ou trop simple pour qu'on en discute, ou trop complexe pour qu'on la tranche hâtivement. Elle est très simple, si la loi intervient pour établir que seuls les Anglais peuvent être fonctionnaires anglais; elle est très complexe, si l'on admet que les solutions les plus simples, même imposées par la loi, ne sont pas toujours les meilleures.—Au surplus, le moment me paraîtrait mal choisi pour rouvrir le débat: à moins que l'Angleterre n'oublie brusquement les traditions de libéralisme qui sont peut-être le meilleur de sa force et de sa gloire, il serait discourtois, pour ne pas dire plus, de condamner sans les entendre des accusés dont la plupart sont absents pour remplir, côte à côte avec les soldats anglais, le plus grand des devoirs et dont quelques-uns ne reviendront plus.

Je désire tout simplement signaler quelques détails à l'attention impartiale de vos lecteurs; et je le ferai, non pas en me plaçant au point de vue du 'foreigner' qui cherche à défendre une cause qui n'est pas la sienne (somme toute, ce sont les Universités anglaises qui ont librement appelé les 'foreigners,' et non les 'foreigners' qui se sont nommés eux-mêmes professeurs dans les Universités anglaises), mais en adoptant la manière de voir qui doit être, si je ne m'abuse, celle de tout Anglais qui n'aurait, dans l'espèce, pas de désir plus cher que celui du 'fair play' et pas d'autre intérêt que celui de son pays.

Tout d'abord, il est étrange que les attaques contre les 'foreigners' aient été dirigées avec plus de fréquence et, à ce qu'il semble, de violence contre les Français que contre les Allemands (voir MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, April, 1913, p. 104 *sq.*; June, 1913, p. 139; July, 1913, p. 159 *sq.*; November, 1913, p. 221 *sq.*; December, 1913, p. 272 *sq.*; etc., etc.). On a presque toujours insisté avec une particulière complaisance sur l'exemple de la France où la loi exclut (sauf exception) les étrangers des chaires d'Université; mais c'est seulement entre parenthèses et comme en passant qu'on a men

tionné—quand on a songé à le faire—le système identique qui est celui de l'Allemagne. Il y a là une différence de traitement qu'un esprit non prévenu ne saurait comprendre et que les faits ne justifient aucunement.

Sans doute, c'est l' 'importation' de quelques Français dans les Universités anglaises en 1912 et 1913 qui a été l'occasion première et principale de la polémique: il n'en reste pas moins qu'en 1914, *même après ces importations toutes récentes*, les Allemands étaient, dans les Universités anglaises, plus nombreux que leurs collègues français (voir MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, February, 1914, p. 13, et February, 1917, p. 7-8: 'sur 12 chaires d'allemand, les natural-born British subjects n'en occupaient que 3 en 1914; sur 11 chaires de français, ils en occupaient 5'). Et si l'on voulait bien prendre la peine de ne comparer entre elles que des choses comparables, c'est à dire de compter, d'une part, les Allemands importés d'Allemagne après y avoir fait toutes leurs études et tout leur enseignement et, d'autre part, les Français importés de France dans des conditions exactement identiques, on s'apercevrait vite que la balance penchait plus fortement encore en faveur des Allemands.—On s'apercevrait aussi que, dans l'ensemble, l'importation des Allemands a été plus ancienne que celle des Français: d'où il suit évidemment que, si la nomination des 'foreigners' dans les Universités d'Angleterre a été une erreur et si les résultats du système ont été néfastes, l'erreur est plus lourde et le système plus dangereux quand il s'agit des Allemands que lorsqu'il est question des Français. Car les Allemands importés ont eu, avec le nombre, tout le temps de faire leurs preuves; il serait par contre injuste de prétendre que les Français (dont 3 au moins ont été nommés en 1909, 1912, et 1913) aient une part sérieuse de responsabilité dans l'échec du système qu'on attaque, et il faut reconnaître, comme le dit Malherbe:

> Que, si de faire bien ils n'eurent pas l'espace,
> Ils n'eurent pas le temps de faire mal aussi.

Si maintenant les lecteurs de MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING veulent bien considérer ces faits et se rappeler que, néanmoins, les 'foreigners' le plus souvent visés dans les attaques ont été les Français (qui étaient les moins nombreux et les derniers venus), ils se diront peut-être que ces attaques *ne peuvent pas* avoir été menées *de bonne foi* par des *Anglais* authentiques, sincères et 'unprejudiced,' et ils sentiront sûrement tout ce qu'il y a d'inconvenant et d'odieux dans certaines insinuations, en particulier dans l'entrefilet—*anonyme*—où il est tiré argument de la conduite du 'Dr. Kuno Meyer' depuis la guerre pour insister 'emphatically' sur 'the folly and danger of appointing *aliens* as heads of departments in any branch of national education' (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, February, 1915, p. 26). L'auteur inconnu de cet entrefilet aime sans doute les généralisations: en ce cas, il n'avait pas le droit d'écrire autre chose que *Germans; aliens* est une insulte gratuite aux Français.

Je la relève, parce que M. G. Waterhouse a semblé craindre (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, February, 1917, p. 8) que, si la France devient jamais une 'nation de proie'—chose dont il veut bien, d'ailleurs, reconnaître l'invraisemblance—les Français professeurs dans les Universités anglaises ne négligent de signaler à l'Angleterre qui les a accueillis cette dangereuse évolution.—A supposer que l'Angleterre déclare un jour la guerre à la France (l'hypothèse inverse étant absolument exclue pour quiconque connaît, si peu que ce soit, l'âme véritable de la démocratie de la France moderne), j'ignore ce que feraient ce jour-là les Français professeurs en Angleterre; mais je crois savoir ce qu'ils ne feraient pas: ce serait de se faire naturaliser Anglais au lendemain de la déclaration de guerre.

Pour terminer, je voudrais dire un mot de cette question de la naturalisation des professeurs 'foreigners,' d'autant qu'elle a été publiquement posée par le rapport du Comité de la Modern Language Association 'appointed to consider University appointments in Modern Languages,' rapport qui a été distribué avec le numéro de novembre, 1916, de MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

On lit dans ce rapport la recommandation suivante faite par le Comité (III. 4): 'Where appointments of foreigners are made to *permanent* posts, the Committee, *basing its opinion on the evidence submitted*, thinks that certain conditions should be kept in view. These are: . . . (4) that naturalization should be a *sine qua non*.'

Chose singulière, le questionnaire envoyé par le Comité distinguait bien entre Anglais et 'foreigners'; mais nulle allusion n'y était faite aux *foreigners naturalisés Anglais*. Dans ces conditions, il serait fort intéressant de savoir combien de réponses ont spontanément prévu ce cas très particulier, et quelle a été l'étendue de l'*evidence submitted*. Mais passons.

Il n'importe assurément point que j'indique ici mon avis personnel sur la naturalisation des 'foreigners'; il peut être, au contraire, très important que tous vos lecteurs *nés Anglais* sachent exactement que les effets de la naturali-

sation ne sont pas les mêmes, d'après les lois actuellement en vigueur chez les 'foreigners.' Voici les textes relatifs aux conséquences de la naturalisation des Français et de la naturalisation des Allemands:

(*a*) *Français.* — 'Perdent la qualité de Français: (1°) le Français naturalisé à l'étranger. . . .' (*Code Civil*, article 17: loi du 26 juin, 1889.)

(*b*) *Allemands.*—'Conserve la nationalité d'Etat celui qui, avant d'acquérir la nationalité étrangère, obtient, sur sa demande, l'autorisation écrite de l'autorité compétente de son pays d'origine de conserver sa nationalité d'Etat' (loi Delbrück du 22 juillet, 1913, article 25).

Il ressort clairement de ces textes qu'un Français fonctionnaire anglais *sera nécessairement ou* Français *ou* Anglais; un Allemand fonctionnaire anglais *pourra être à la fois et* Anglais *et* Allemand; il pourra être libre de choisir sa patrie selon les événements:

> Je suis oiseau: voyez mes ailes!
> Je suis souris: vivent les rats!

Si les faits sont tels, que penser de la recommandation du Comité de la Modern Language Association qui fait de la naturalisation des 'foreigners' une condition *sine qua non* de leur nomination à des chaires d'Universités anglaises?

A. TERRACHER.

WANTED—A POLICY.

IN the June number Professor Kastner throws down to me a challenge, which I hereby decline to accept. To avoid any possible misconception on the part of readers of our journal, I will shortly explain the reason for my refusal.

In an English court of law the accused is held to be innocent so long as he does not confess that he is guilty, and the charge against him has not been proved. The onus of proof falls, therefore, on the prosecution. By borrowing my metaphors from this legal procedure I can make my position clear. In the present controversy, so far as it refers to German specialists, Professor Kastner's rôle corresponds to that of prosecutor, and I may be described as one of the counsel for the defence. As Professor Kastner did not substantiate the charges he brought against German specialists (failing to warn 'us,' etc.), I have met them by a simple denial. He now challenges me to 'substantiate' my denial—*i.e.*, the prosecution casts the onus of proof on the defence! This is tantamount to admitting that the charges are incapable of proof; they fall to the ground, and I am therefore under no obligation to prove the plea of 'not guilty' which I made on behalf of German specialists.

It is true that Professor Kastner now claims that I did not meet his arguments with counter-arguments. To that I reply that I failed to observe anything resembling an argument in his remarks, in the sense in which I understand that word. What Professor Kastner apparently understands by it can be gathered from his explanation (June number, p. 69): 'I tried to show that their failure was largely due to the fact that they had paid too much attention to the Germany of the *past*, and that in so doing they had neglected Germany as she is *now*.' It is interesting to note how Professor Kastner 'tried to show' this. In Vol. 12, p. 222, second column, we find: 'To me it appears that they failed because they did not fully realize that the literature and art of a people are the true expression of its psychology; living too much in the past,' etc. A little lower down, 'They hoped, so I conceive the matter. . . .' It is regrettable that German specialists should have 'appeared' to Professor Kastner in such a doubtful light, as also that he should 'conceive' them to harbour ridiculous hopes; but will the impartial reader admit that *what appears to a person* and *what a person conceives to be the case* are arguments at all in regard to matters of fact?

Professor Kastner is reduced to strange straits in his attempt to make out that my position is untenable. In the June number again he writes: 'The only fact he can quote in contradiction of my statement that our German specialists failed to apprehend the spirit of modern Germany is a reminiscence of his student days in Germany.' The attentive reader will have noted, firstly, that I did not quote this reminiscence (which occurs in a quite different part of my last article) in order to support my denial of his statements; secondly, that I had no intention of proving that denial, because I knew very well that in the circumstances such proof was not required.

I must add a further word to illustrate the somewhat startling way in which Professor Kastner has arrived at his conclusions. From my defence of German as a secondary, not primary, means of culture he infers that I have not grasped the meaning of the word 'culture,' which, in the sense that it has in that phrase, he quite properly, if somewhat unnecessarily, ex-

plains as equivalent to German *Bildung*. How the explanation justifies his inference I cannot understand. It is fairly obvious that neither I nor anyone else could speak of 'means of culture' at all, unless the word in question bore the sense of *Bildung*. In any other sense the whole expression would be meaningless. As he obviously disapproves of the interpretation he imagines me to place on the phrase, I am further at a loss to understand how Professor Kastner can accept, as he explicitly does at the beginning of his article, my division of the 'instruments of culture' into the two classes of primary and secondary. This division would be quite worthless if 'culture' meant to me what Professor Kastner assumes it does. In consecrated phraseology, my critic cannot have it both ways. He need not expect to persuade people that when I defend German as a secondary means of culture I do not know what 'culture' means, but when I divide the means (or instruments) of culture into the above classes, I know very well.

A final word, with which I propose to terminate my share in this controversy. Professor Kastner suggests to us an aim for the co-operation of humanistic students among the allied nations. This aim is twofold: it involves the study of our Allies and ourselves, and in addition a grim determination to eradicate 'the canker that is eating at the very vitals of civilization'—*i.e.*, German Kultur. With this aim, so stated, I am in entire agreement, but it will be well to remind Professor Kastner's readers that there are only two ways of eradicating a disease—*kill* or *cure*. As we cannot kill the whole German nation, it follows that we must address ourselves to the task of curing the patients. No disease can, however, be eradicated in this way without a very careful study both of the patient and his symptoms. If we are to be 'grimly bent' on realizing this distinctly humanistic aim, it seems to me idle to debate further whether for academic reasons German is or is not a means of culture. Our determination must carry us not only to a successful issue of the present conflict, but further onward in the not less difficult work of peace. If we accept Professor Kastner's formulation of our aims, I see no reason to hesitate as to whether the study of German should be included in our programme, It is part of the responsibilities imposed on us by the civilization for which we are fighting, and if we face it in the right spirit it cannot be injurious to the culture either of the individual or the nation. I think that the 'enlightened individual,' to whom Professor Kastner refers as the 'aim of culture,' will find the true spirit in which to face our responsibility to ourselves as to our enemies in the old motto: *Humani nil a me alienum puto*.

R. A. Williams.

REPORT OF CONFERENCE OF TEACHERS OF RUSSIAN.

THE First Conference of Teachers of Russian in England was held on July 28, at 2.30 p.m., at King's College, Strand, by kind permission of the Principal, Dr. Burrows. It was arranged by the Modern Language Association Sub-Committee for Russian Studies, and proposed to deal with the following topics:

1. Qualifications of native Russian teachers.
2. Russian courses, teaching methods, and teaching apparatus.
3. Examinations for which candidates are prepared by courses in schools or institutes.
4. 'Linguistic sections,' debating societies, and other means for encouraging the use of the spoken language.

The following were present at the Conference: Rev. Dr. W. Stuart MacGowan, Chairman; Mr. H. L. Hutton, Vice-Chairman; Dr. Burrows, Principal of King's College, Strand; Mr. Nevill Forbes, University of Oxford; Mr. Goudy, University of Cambridge; Mr. Segal, Birmingham; Mr. Trofimov, King's College, Strand; Mr. Bullough, Hon. Sec. (Members of M.L.A. Sub-Committee for Russian Studies); Mrs. Zoond, L.C.C.; Miss Eisenstein, L.C.C.; Miss Molony, Cardiff; Miss M. Steine, L.C.C.; Miss E. Willis, Manchester; Mr. W. K. Adam, Harrow; Mr. S. Khromchenko, Derby; Mr. Kolni-Balozky, Walsall, Staffs; Mr. F. P. Marchant, L.C.C.; Mr. C. Pashkovietzky, Birmingham; Mr. A. Raffi, L.C.C.; Mr. Slepchenko, Nottingham; Mr. S. Shvetz, L.C.C.; Mr. M. Sieff, L.C.C.; Mr. J. Solomonoff, L.C.C.; Mr. Stiller, Bradford; Dr. Storr-Best, Coalville, Leicestershire; Mr. B. Timotheieff, London.

Until the arrival of the Chairman (the Rev. Dr. MacGowan), who had been delayed, the Honorary Secretary took the Chair, and welcomed those who had come, in some cases from considerable distances and with much inconvenience to themselves.

He explained that he hoped the Meeting would be able to pass certain Resolutions, which the Sub-Committee would undertake to bring to the notice of those who might be particularly interested in them. At the same time, even if no such Resolutions should be passed, one great result would be achieved by the Conference, in bringing together teachers from all parts of the country to meet each other, and to discuss topics of mutual interest to themselves. He hoped that this would help to relieve the sense of isolation under which no doubt many teachers suffered, and that it would promote the formation of a certain nucleus of teaching experience, which the teaching of Russian still lacked, in spite of the considerable development which it had had during recent years. He would like to take the opportunity of explaining to those teachers who had not received an invitation to this Conference the difficulties which the Committee encountered in getting into touch with all those interested in the subject, and he hoped those who were absent would not nurse a sense of grievance, but on the contrary would communicate with him, to enable him to send them notices of any further developments of the Conference.

The particular thanks of the Conference were due to the Principal of King's College, who had given them the facility of meeting there. He was sure they could rely on his sympathy and support, as he had always taken the liveliest interest in the study of Russian.

Dr. Burrows expressed his pleasure at being able to be present at least at the opening of the Conference, and explained a scheme of King's College for arranging in the summer of 1918 courses of Russian Phonetics for teachers. He stated that such courses had already been held, but he hoped that Vacation courses during the summer would enable a great many teachers who, during the school-time, were unable to attend to avail themselves of opportunities for developing their interest and knowledge in a subject which was coming more and more to be regarded as an integral part of the teaching of Modern Languages.

I.—QUALIFICATIONS OF RUSSIAN NATIVE TEACHERS.

Dr. MacGowan (the Chairman) having called on Mr. Trofimov (King's College, Strand), the proposer of the first item of the programme, Mr. Trofimov (speaking in Russian) gave a short account of the recent developments of Russian teaching in this country. The question of Russian teachers, he said, arose very suddenly, immediately after the outbreak of war. Even before the War, isolated institutions like the City of London College or Manchester and Liverpool Commercial Colleges had had very respectable classes; but the increase after the War went far beyond the teaching capacities of the country. As an illustration of the sudden rise of students he quoted the example of the Society of Arts, which before the War examined on the average 20, but now was examining 150 candidates. The consequent dearth of teachers was therefore evident. No one knew whom to

apply to, and there was considerable ignorance as to the qualifications which teachers might be expected to possess. An attempt by the Liverpool School of Russian Studies to form an Advisory Board never actually materialized.

There was an obvious difficulty in establishing such standards of qualification which would be unambiguous to the minds of educational authorities and headmasters, who themselves were generally unfamiliar with the Russian language and Russian conditions; and he regarded it, therefore, as a necessity for this Conference to work out such a standard. He therefore proposed that no Russian who had not passed a Secondary School course in Russia, and did not possess either a Moscow or Northern (Petrograd) pronunciation, should be eligible for the post of teacher of Russian in an English school. This he regarded as a natural minimum condition, as evidently those who had no right to teach Russian in Russian schools, ought equally to have no right to do so in England. The question of giving preference to teachers of Russian or of British nationality he believed to lie outside the scope of the subject immediately under discussion; but as long as Russian teachers would be required, it was essential to stipulate certain standard qualifications, expressible in some documentary form, which might be recommended to the authorities with whom the appointment of teachers rested.

Mr. Trofimov's proposal was seconded by Mr. Sieff.

During the considerable discussion which followed, Mr. Pashkovietzky urged that this standard of education was too strict, and would exclude many qualified teachers. Mrs. Zoond urged that teachers of Russian ought to be judged by the same standards as are applied to teachers of other languages. Mr. Sieff agreed with Mr. Trofimov that teachers ought to be qualified, and suggested that the Board of Education or the Modern Language Association should impose a standard qualification. Mr. Khromchenko also believed Mr. Trofimov's definition of qualification to be too narrow, and submitted that 'general intelligence' should be the main qualification. Mr. Shvetz suggested a practical demonstration on the part of the candidate, to prove his qualifications, before a mixed English and Russian Committee. Miss Steine, on the other hand, agreed entirely with Mr. Trofimov that clear and unambiguous qualifications were absolutely necessary. This opinion was also shared by Mr. Kolni-Balozki. The Chairman explained to the Conference that the Sub-Committee were quite aware of the fact that a good many teachers, otherwise perfectly qualified, were, for reasons outside their control, not in possession of documentary evidence of having successfully passed a Secondary School course in Russia; but he would like to make clear, firstly, the very great advantage of formulating qualifications such as those proposed by Mr. Trofimov in a documentary form, for the benefit of headmasters; and secondly, that in the case of those not in possession of such documents, the M.L.A. Sub-Committee had set up an Interviewing Committee, in order to assist such persons upon application and after a personal interview.

Mr. Trofimov, having removed certain misunderstandings which had arisen over the terms Moscow and Petrograd pronunciation, formulated the qualifications as follows:

The candidate should be in possession—

1. Of the standard spoken Russian of the country.

2. Of an academic standing not lower than that of a Secondary School.

3. Of a knowledge of English and general experience of teaching modern languages.

In this form the resolution was unanimously passed.

II.—Russian Courses, etc.

Mr. Raffi (teacher under the London County Council) contributed a most valuable paper on Graded Russian Courses.

The study of Russian, he stipulated, should be conducted on strictly Direct Method lines. The enthusiasm of the classes thus conducted was a testimony to the soundness of the method.

As regards the ground to be covered in a three-years course, he mapped out the following syllabus:

First Year—*Phonetics.*—It will always be a matter of opinion whether one should start with a phonetic script in this or that language. Sweet (*Practical Study*) is in favour of use of ordinary spelling where this is practically regular. Pupils ought to come with a sufficient knowledge of general phonetics on which to build a practical acquaintance with Russian pronunciation. All that will then be required will be—

(1) A brief preliminary exposition with practice in the less frequently met sounds (such as Ĭ and the palatalized consonants).

(2) An explanation of the orthoepy (the relation between the sounds and the Russian spelling, particularly as regards the treatment of unstressed vowels). This implies, of course, the use of texts supplied with accents and diæresis.

(3) Correction and phonetic drill as occasion arises.

Reading.—'Rodnoi Mir,' Part I., or a similar pictorial Russian primer specially adapted for the instruction of pupils of foreign parentage.

Grammar.—Wall-Charts (as used at King's College). Concurrently, pupils should develop a workable knowledge of grammatical theory by oral explanation and constant reference to grammatical wall-charts (Forbes's 'First Book').

Conversation.—Questions and answers on pieces read, learned by heart.

Writing.—Written characters picked up largely from pieces in italics. Dictation of pieces that have been read.

SECOND YEAR—*Phonetics.*—Continued as before.

Grammar.—As before, but with more attention to systematization (Forbes's 'Second Book').

Reading.—'Russkoye Slovo,' Part II. Great attention should be paid to these 180 stories, supplying a useful vocabulary on Russian national life (country, town, railway, education, government), as well as on general subjects (food, clothing, etc.). Special attention should be given to acquiring the most useful features of Russian phraseology. To this end a valuable asset is Trofimov's 'Elementary Russian Reader.'

Conversation.—Conversational practice should be made, as before, a prominent feature of the lessons, and the students should have no difficulty in entering into simple discussions of characters in pieces read and on the subjects that arise, or into ordinary free conversation on general matters.

Writing.—Reproduction, free composition, occasional translation from English. Study of Russian manuscript.

THIRD YEAR—*Phonetics.*—As before.

Grammar.—Forbes's 'Second Book.' Intensive study of special difficulties such as aspects. Mrs. H. M. Bernard's '100 Russian Verbs' gives complete lists of prefixes to every verb, and deserves a wider popularity.

Reading.—Easy literature, such as Chekhov's humorous stories, Pushkin's prose pieces, newspapers, and other periodicals. Martinovski's 'Russkiye Pisatei' is one of the best Russian readers.

Conversation.—Free renderings of pieces read. Reading and recitation of poetry should be clear and intelligible, and should aim at the study of clear expression, the just use of pause and emphasis, and the management of the voice. Paraphrases of verse pieces. Discussions of pieces, debates, free conversation.

Writing.—Extempore translations from English. Free compositions. Letters, ordinary and commercial.

The writing and the reading of Russian manuscript should receive constant attention. The pupils should be introduced to the most commonly employed divergencies from the ordinary shapes of written characters, and should experience no difficulty in reading Russian manuscript or in writing letters.

Mr. Raffi's statement was listened to with the greatest interest, and was much appreciated by the Meeting. As the wish was expressed that his proposed syllabus should be made generally accessible, the Hon. Sec. assured the Meeting that it should be published *in extenso* in the Report of the Conference.

Dr. Storr-Best read the following paper:

Mr. CHAIRMAN, LADIES, and GENTLEMEN,—It is with great diffidence that I venture to say a few words on the subject which now comes up for discussion, as my experience in regard to the teaching of Russian is probably a negligible quantity when compared with that of many who are here.

I should, indeed, have refused the task so kindly thrust upon me by Mr. Bullough—refused it with both hands and a blush—had I not been assured that I was merely to posit certain problems and to ask for the solution of them. I was also constrained by a vow—made in an unlucky hour as the result of fantastic and incredible kindness experienced in Russia—a vow that I would never refuse to do anything I was asked to do, however little, which might in the least degree help the cause of Russian in England.

So on my return at the end of last year from Moscow, whither I had been sent to learn—amongst other things—the Russian language, I cast about how to repay a little of my debt to those who had sent me and to Russia. Russian was introduced into Coalville Grammar School, of which I am headmaster, and a class was formed of seventeen children between the ages of thirteen and seventeen, who have met to study Russian for four periods a week. At Loughborough Technical Institute a class of adults was established, which has met each week for a lesson of two hours. There are other classes in process of formation, about which I will not now speak.

Now, as Russian is indubitably a difficult language to acquire for Englishmen—for children, by reason of its highly inflectional nature,

for adults owing to the apparent unlikeness of its vocabulary to that of any West European language—and as the wide adoption of Russian in English schools and technical institutes depends chiefly upon the possibility of teaching it successfully to children and adults of average capacity, it is obviously important that some general principles be formulated as a guide to the teacher of Russian in England. I do not mean by this that those principles which preside over the teaching of West European languages are less valuable when applied to Russian; a triple strand of associated auditory, visual, and motor images has to be woven, the usual compromise between inductive and deductive teaching has to be made, and so forth. But owing to its peculiar difficulty, I think that a special method should be devised for Russian; for, if it be taught as Latin is generally taught, the constructive and colloquial vocabulary will be long in coming; if as French, then accuracy will be hard of attainment.

One thing seems certain. It is absolutely necessary from the outset to pay great attention to grammatical accuracy, or it will never afterwards be attained. Several British merchants in Moscow who had to use Russian every day of their lives, talk it with wonderful inaccuracy, and one of them who had written business letters nearly every day for twenty years himself told me that he was obliged to make the ends of his words illegible for fear of mistakes in the cases!

You will, perhaps, then agree with me that there should be plenty of grammatical drill from the very beginning.

As to the teaching of pronunciation, you will I imagine, decide upon a standard to be adopted universally. At present, if one is to judge from transliterations, different standards are adopted in different textbooks, and I have myself heard Russians in this country read добраго as 'dobrago,' and чиновники even in Moscow pronounce говорить 'govorit' instead of 'găvărit.'

Having fixed the standard, one might then, perhaps, adapt to it the phonetic script in general use, and short texts might usefully be transcribed in it.

At present, the native Russian teacher is too lenient to us, I am afraid, conceiving a moderate approximation to the just sound to be all that the Englishman can or will compass. For example, we are allowed to pronounce the hard Russian *l* like the hard English letter heard in *hell, shall*, etc. But my tongue still ruefully remembers that in Moscow, to pronounce this ль, it had first to be flattened out, then depressed slightly at the root, and finally at the moment of voice emission had to strike smartly the upper teeth. It was only after a month's drill—a few minutes every evening—that I was able to satisfy my teacher, and even then frequent lapses from virtue occurred. Again, we have in no English word the exact sound of Russian soft *l* heard in жаль, etc.; the Russian *k, t, d*, etc., are all very different from the English sounds, and the Russian в is not the English *v* in 'vanity,' but rather the German *w* in 'Wasser.'

For young children, however, I have found sound analysis much less necessary than for adults; they imitated, indeed, the 'funny sound' much better without it, the unconscious muscular adaptation being finer than the conscious. They had no difficulty, for instance, in pronouncing the Russian да after having been told that a Russian would naturally pronounce 'Dickens' as дикинсъ.

With my adult class, on the other hand, sound analysis was essential, as not only could they not pronounce, but they could not even *hear* correctly some sounds, though these were repeated slowly several times. I myself for some time misheard a sharp *s* sound at the end of Russian infinitives.

We ought to have, then, a description of Russian sounds, of the positions of the tongue, lips, etc., necessary for their right enunciation, a phonetic script and texts transcribed in it, in which not only the tonic but the phrase accent should be marked. As to transliteration in English characters, it is anathema maranatha; and as more trained teachers of Russian become available, it should vanish from the land.

I mentioned two classes which I had been studying: one of children, the other of adults. Of the first it is premature to speak, for we have been playing at learning Russian, and so far can manage only a limited and unexciting conversation about pencils, chalk, blackboards, and so forth. But the class already knows something of the declensions of nouns and adjectives; for all its members have had two or three years' study of Latin, and were from the outset familiar with the case-endings and verb-flections of a synthetic language.

Latin, by the way, I found to be a great help; it should well prepare the way for Russian as a third language in Secondary Schools. In the Public Schools Greek will help still more, through the strong resemblance of Greek syntax—especially in reported speech—to Russian syntax, and the direct borrowing in Russian of

many idioms from the Greek. Compare самъ четверть=*τέταρτος αὐτός*, удивительно сколько=*θαυμάσιον ὅσον*, знаемъ мы Васъ, какъ Вы плохо играете, etc.

The second class—of adults—has been taught in a different way. There have been in all eleven lessons of two hours each. This class has a good grip of the accidence, reads Russian with difficulty and a dictionary, has a constructive vocabulary, thoroughly learnt, of about 400 words, which should soon become 4,000; writes for me each week about two foolscap pages of translation from English into Russian—sentences only, not continuous prose—and can talk a little—slowly, but, I think, with a passable accent; in fact, is ready to be handed over to a better teacher, preferably to a Russian.

I do not know if the method we adopted will be of any interest or value. I give it, however, for what it may be worth. The first lesson was devoted entirely to the alphabet, the letters being written in groups—labials, dentals, hard and soft vowels—on the blackboard. The changes on these were rung dozens of times; then the effect of the hard and soft stops was shown in a few score of words, and so on. No attempt to pronounce by the class was allowed; it was told to think the sounds as they were heard—this lest mistakes should be made and confuse the recollection of the right sound. At the close of the lesson a short passage of Russian was read, first at a moderate pace, then very slowly, syllable by syllable, then at a moderate pace again.

At the second lesson a week later, words were written on the blackboard, were pronounced two or three times, and the class then invited to pronounce them. This seemed very successful, hardly any mistakes being made. Next came the cursive script, which was easily and quickly learned.

But it was not until the third lesson that we attacked the accidence and began to learn declensions, and to write and speak little sentences. We used a textbook which was reasonably good and contained long exercises. These were carefully done with the living voice before being written as home-work. Great pains were taken to prevent mistakes—and this seems of prime importance in the case of a language which throws so much strain upon the memory.

In this way we have gone through some eighty pages of our textbook, and have read a few short stories. One member of the class, who has rather more leisure than the others, has waded alone through Pushkin's Пиковая дама.

But, as was to be expected, the main trouble for this class of adults lay in the acquisition of a constructive vocabulary. And I imagine this trouble necessarily obtains in the case of every grown-up person who has not an abnormally strong memory; for there seems, at first, to be no apparent analogy between Russian words and those of the other European languages. Nearly every word one tries to learn is out of all connection with one's acquired 'apperception-mass'; there is nothing to tie it to, and the word put into one's mind slides out again at once.

This difficulty can, I think, be best overcome by learning *groups* of words etymologically connected, which form new masses, and stay by their weight in one's memory. Thus, taking the root прав-, one has пра́вый, пра́вда, пра́вило, правѝло, правѝтель, правѝтельница, пра́вильный, пра́вильность, правѝтельсво, правѝтельствовать, правѝтельственный, справедлѝвый, etc. Again, words are often easier to remember if coupled with their antonyms; thus, бѣдный и богатый, and so forth.

I feel sure that a textbook which should make use of this principle in its exercises would go far to solve the difficulty of the vocabulary. At present this is what happens. In the vocabulary at the head of an exercise comes the word казначей = the treasurer. In the exercise the word appears, say, in two sentences—'the treasurer has no money,' 'this is the treasurer's office.' *Soit:* the pupil translates without difficulty. In three weeks' time, perhaps, he wants the Russian for 'treasurer,' and can get as far as remembering that the word begins with к. But if he had learned the three words казна́, казначей, казначейство together, he would have forgotten none of them.

And there is another advantage in thus following a root through its developments, in that one gets a fine lesson in word-building—something of the 'feel' of the language, and practice in placing the accent.

As to grammatical terminology: We have now in the case of English, French, Latin, and Greek, a uniform terminology which is meeting with general acceptance. Of this the advantage is patent; a child can so pass from one language to another without being obliged to form a new set of grammatical concepts. But it is not necessary to press a point, which is already a *res judicata*, I imagine; so I would only ask hopefully whether Russian—a language stock, lock, and barrel Indo-European—cannot be brought into line with the other Indo-European languages in the matter of grammatical terminology. I refer especially to the 'aspects.'

Last November in Moscow I talked of this matter with my teacher—Ольга Андрéевна Старосельская—a lady of high academic status, a scholar and a grammarian. She was willing to admit that the perfective and imperfective aspects expressed the simple *act* or *fact* on the one hand with no particular reference to time or completion, and of *action, process, continuous state* on the other; that онъ отвѣтилъ, for instance, differed from отвѣчáлъ precisely as *ἀπεκρίνατο* from *ἀπεκρίνετο*, 'respondit' from 'respondebat'; only Russians, loving the picturesque, generally preferred to present the *action* rather than the *act* wherever this was possible; that perfectives formed by prefixes were altered in meaning, and were so separate verbs—so that, for example, ѣсть = edere, съѣсть = comedere; знать = nosse, узнать = cognosse; пить = bibere, выпить = ebibibisse; and so on; that the other aspects are but grammatical figments and might well disappear—for instance, that крúкнулъ exactly equalled 'exclamavit,' the notion of 'instantaneity' being merely a *deduction* from the meaning of the word in its perfective aspect.

This subject, however, calls for a more extended treatment than you would now be inclined to tolerate—at least, from me. I will just say, then, that many of us would be greatly relieved if Russian grammatical terminology could be brought into line with that recommended by the Joint Committee, and that if this were done Russian would have improved chances of being widely adopted in Secondary Schools.

Having said this, I am well content to leave the subject in stronger and more experienced hands, and as my excuse for having said so much I would plead a very warm and vivid interest in Russia, her language and literature, and a keen feeling of gratitude for Russian kindness.

Mr. Goudy gave a short summary of the various forms of teaching apparatus which might be employed with advantage, such as collections of photographs, slides, films, and phonographic records; he called attention to the phonographic records made under the direction of Mr. Nevill Forbes, which, Mr. Forbes explained, appeared to enjoy considerable vogue at the present time in the Grand Fleet.

Mr. Slepchenko (Nottingham) drew attention to the fact that none of the speakers, so far, had mentioned commercial correspondence. This he regarded as of the utmost importance, especially as most of the classes were founded with commercial objects. In his experience his pupils needed some training in commercial correspondence and some teaching apparatus for this purpose above all else.

III.—Examinations.

Mr. Nevill Forbes gave a short account of the examinations set up at present by the Society of Arts, the London Chamber of Commerce, and the London Matriculation Board, and gave the welcome information that Russian was also to be included in the Higher Certificate Examination instituted by the University of Oxford.

Mr. Slepchenko gave an admirable exposition of the function of examinations set forth in the following:

ГАРАНТИИ ПРАВИЛЬНОЙ ОЦЕНКИ УСПЕШНОСТИ ЭКЗАМЕНУЮШЧИХСЯ.

Едва ли кто будет спорить если я скажу что одной из главных причин успеха русских классов является тот энтузиазм которым воодушевлено большинство как учашчихся так и учашчих. И мы должны сделать все чтобы поддержать этот энтузиазм до тех пор, пока на смену ему придут другие более устойчивые, мотивы. Этой цели должны служить и экзамены. Я нашел личным опытом что убедить учашчихся экзаменоваться по-русски далеко не легко. Английские учашчиеся отнюдь не относятся к экзаменам легко, они положительно боятся провала. Поэтому интересы самого дела требуют чтобы экзамены были обставлены всяческими гарантиями правильной оценки успешности. Экзамены должны не только служить средством чисто механического контроля познаний учашчихся, но и поошчрять как их, так и учителя к дальнейшей работе.

Как ни тшчательно вырабатывается программа письменных экзаменов, все же они далеко не всегда являются верным показателем действительных познаний учашчихся. Каждый из нас знает случаи, когда некоторые из хорошо подготовленных учеников проваливались на экзамене, тогда как посредственные его выдерживали.

От этой односторонности письменных экзаменов должны особенно страдать классы в провинциальных городах.

Цель экзаменов—выяснить что ученик знает, а не только чего из экзаменационного листка он не знает. Поэтому в высшей степени желательно расширить практику дополнительных устных экзаменов Цель этих экзаменов должна

быть чисто проверочная:—экзаменатор должен выяснить-действительно ли учащийся недостаточно знаком с теми отделами, с которыми он не мог справиться на письменном экзамене, или же это дело случая. Экзаменатору также рекомендуется просматривать письменныя работы учащихся, проделанныя в году.

В виду ограниченности времени в распоряжении экзаменатора́, и нервности, которой подвержены некоторые из экзаменуюшчихся, желательно участие на устных экзаменах учителя, уже самое присутствие которого порою ободряет экзаменуюшчихся, в особенности же его наводяшчие вопросы.

Правильность оценки успешности только выиграет если учителю будет дано право ставить дополнительные вопросы. Но я пошел бы дальше. Я предложил бы последовать примеру русской низшей и средней школы и дать учителю право решаюшчого голоса, т.е. право ставить отметки, наравне с экзаменатором. Учитель, который работал с учеником год, два, иногда три, и знает все его сильныя и слабыя стороны, имеет полное нравственное право поддержать ученика, если он находит что экзаменатор, по случайному стечению обстоятельств, выносит о нем слишком неблагоприятное впечатление.

Мы можем только поздравить себя с хорошим началом:—наши экзаменаторы не являются лицами совершенно оторванными от учительской среды;—они сами учителя. Мое предложение является прямым развитием этой идеи. Если экзаменатор должен в то же время быть и учителем, почему учитель не должен быть членом экзаменационной комиссии когда к тому представляется случай?—Такое сотрудничество может только уменьшить процент ошибок, и от этого только выиграют все стороны:—учашчиеся и обшчество, экзаменатор и учитель.

After some discussion, the following resolution, proposed by Mr. Slepchenko, was accepted unanimously:

> Examinations should be regarded as one of the means for maintaining the interest of students in the study of Russian. To secure this object wider guarantees of a just appreciation of the progress made by students are necessary. It is therefore recommended that the system of Oral Examinations be strengthened and its scope enlarged.

IV.—Linguistic Sections and Debating Societies.

Mr. Trofimov spoke of the desirability of developing Russian debating societies and regular social meetings to hold discussions in Russian and to hear the language spoken. He gave as an illustration the very successful movement initiated at King's College, which met with the most lively support of students and others, who were glad to have this opportunity of hearing the language spoken, and making use of it themselves. He was strongly supported in this opinion by Mr. Raffi. Mr. Sieff thought that such schemes would meet with the general support both of teachers and taught. He also suggested the arrangement, after the War, of English students visiting Russia and Russian students visiting England. Mr. Marchant agreed with the former speakers, and further recommended, if possible, the invitation of Russian representative men to come and speak on behalf of their country. Mr. Kolny-Balozki supported Mr. Trofimov's ideas, and pointed out the advantages which might be derived from organizing occasional Russian dramatic performances.

The Honorary Secretary said he believed he expressed the feelings of the Conference in saying that this first experiment of holding a Conference of Teachers of Russian had proved a great success, which it might be possible to develop further. Owing to lack of time, it had been impossible to submit several of the topics raised to a full discussion, and he would suggest, if such a course commended itself to the Conference, a repetition of the experiment at a not far distant date, in order to provide an opportunity for dealing more in detail with topics of a more technical nature. He would therefore invite the Conference to express its opinion as to whether a second Conference should be held, on the date on which it should be held, and the topics of discussion.

The meeting thereupon resolved to hold a second Conference on September 15, the subjects to be as follows: (1) Phonetics; (2) Grammar; (3) Methods and Books.

After a very hearty vote of thanks to the Chairman, proposed by Mr. Segal, for his self-sacrificing labours in presiding over the discussion, the meeting adjourned.

RECORD OF THE TEACHING OF RUSSIAN.

JUST before the end of the last scholastic year I sent out a letter to about a dozen teachers of Russian at schools and institutes, with a covering letter to the head or principal, requesting him to hand it on to the master or mistress, if he approved of its contents. The substance of the letter was the request for a short statement of the year's experience in teaching Russian, with the object of gathering a nucleus, however modest, of teaching experience in Russian, and of stimulating, by the publication of such reports, a discussion of points of interest to all those engaged in the teaching of the language. I ventured to point out several topics on which an exchange of opinion might be specially valuable, such as the main difficulties encountered by pupils of different ages and different school antecedents; the question of textbooks; the position which Russian should occupy, apart from commercial and other practical advantages; the best time for beginning its study; the question of phonetic teaching, etc.

I received reports from eight schools or institutes, and I desire to record my gratefulness to their authors for the trouble they have taken at a time when school-masters and -mistresses have their hands full enough with other matters of greater urgency. The reports are printed below, in accordance with the suggestion I made in my letter.

The general similarity of their tenor is explained by the leading questions I had put; but whether they agree or—what is of even greater interest—disagree with each other, the conclusions reached by each separately cannot fail to be of interest. Some of the differences are evidently due to the different human material with which they deal: Cheltenham, Harrow, the Leys (Cambridge), and Oundle, are public schools; while Cardiff, the two Bradford reports, and Liverpool, are records from technical institutes, dealing with pupils often of more advanced age and frequently more inadequate preparation, and encountering even greater difficulties in the matter of time and continuity of instruction.

Insufficiency of time is evidently one of the greatest obstacles to any very rapid progress of the pupils. Two periods a week are quite inadequate for an intensive study, so essential for making a good beginning, or, as Mr. Goudy points out, for devoting any time for some phonetic preparation. However 'phonetic' Russian spelling is, as the Bradford reports contend, it can in the nature of things be so only relatively, and the excellent results obtained by phonetic teaching in other languages suggest that phonetics is too valuable an instrument to be neglected.

Another difficulty is that of the vocabulary. It is gratifying to find that this bugbear of adults is an obstacle far less exasperating to younger minds, and with anything like a teaching tradition it should be possible to reduce it still more—*e.g.*, by the adoption of some such scheme as that suggested by Dr. Storr-Best at the first Conference of Teachers of Russian (see p. 160). The accidence inevitably places some strain on young minds, especially if they are as unfamiliar with general grammatical notions as those dealt with in institutes (see Bradford reports). It is again a trouble which only a sufficient allowance of time can relieve.

The whole question of the 'difficulty' of the language is still unsolved. That it is generally exaggerated admits of little doubt; nor must it be forgotten that it is made up of various difficulties of different kinds, each kind of varying degree to different minds and ages. Considerably more evidence and experience is needed for an accurate estimate, and some discussion of these points may help to remove the apprehensions of many who so far have shied at the language. What seems specially worth recording is the general consensus as to the satisfactory progress achieved by pupils even under disadvantageous conditions.

A matter of particular importance is the need for a reasonable programme to be carried out consistently within a reasonable time. A two-years course, as suggested by Mr. Goudy, or, better still, a three-years course such as sketched by Mr. Raffi (at the first Conference of Teachers), or such as actually carried out at the Manchester High School for Girls, would place the whole study of Russian upon a sound and permanent basis.

A discussion of all these and kindred topics is needed to create a body of teaching experience and teaching tradition for Russian, such as exists for other languages. It was in the hope of stimulating it that I made my request to the teachers who have kindly communicated to me their records. I did so also in the belief that it might perhaps induce some of those who so far have hesitated to embark upon the teaching of the language, to make the venture.

EDWARD BULLOUGH

(*Hon. Sec. Subcommittee for Russian Studies*).

From CHELTENHAM.

Pronunciation.—The chief difficulty here seems to be in the pronunciation of the vowel ы, and of the soft sign, especially in the infinitive ending, where there is a tendency to pronounce the ending ать as if it rhymed with 'might,' and ended in an equally hard sound; but it is a difficulty that a little time and frequent practice easily remove.

I have found that beginners pronounce Russian words far more correctly, and have a better accent, if at the outset of their studies they are taught the words *viva voce*, and have no opportunity of seeing them written. When pupils learn the Russian characters, they try and assimilate them in sound to English ones, and the pronunciation suffers in consequence; but if they have already acquired a small Russian vocabulary, learned orally and pronounced correctly, before they learn the printed characters, they do not experience so much difficulty over the pronunciation; and having already in their minds a store of correctly pronounced words, they are less likely to mispronounce the new words they gradually learn.

Grammar.—A knowledge of some other inflected language is a great help to learners of Russian. There does not seem to be any particular difficulty in mastering declensions and conjugations, but there does seem to be a considerable one in applying the rules. In theory, the declensions, etc., may be well known, but when it comes to applying the knowledge, either in written work or in oral, there is a decided vagueness about verb and case endings; and much practice in exercise-writing, free composition, and conversation, is required to remove it.

Vocabulary.—It seems to me that one of the chief difficulties lies in acquiring, and learning how to use, a good vocabulary. There is so little resemblance in sound between Russian and either the Romance or Germanic languages that there are very few points at which the newly gained knowledge of Russian can be connected with previous knowledge of other tongues—much as such knowledge helps in learning the grammatical structure of the language. Personally, I have found the best way to help pupils to learn and to use Russian words is by means of prepared reading, followed by questioning in Russian on the stories read, by conversation on simple subjects, also by free composition and by translation, with especial practice in the idiomatic constructions that differ from the English.

On the whole, I should say that Russian is not an easy language, but it is one that can be mastered by patience and perseverance, and pupils who have an aptitude for languages do not find it particularly difficult.

F. M. HENLEY.

From HARROW.

Instruction in the Russian language has been given since the beginning of the present year. Considerable advantage has been taken of the opportunity of acquiring the language by boys ranging from fifteen to seventeen years of age. I am of opinion that the study of Russian might be advantageously begun two or three years sooner—namely, at the age of twelve or thirteen.

I find all pupils greatly interested in the study, and about 50 per cent. have made really remarkable progress in the time. The other 50 per cent. have maintained a steady rate of progress, greater than that made in other foreign languages under similar conditions. One boy, who only began Russian last January, and who left the school in April, could, after two months' work, read easy Russian passages, compose easy sentences grammatically, and speak a little.

I strongly deprecate any attempt to translate English into Russian, all work written in Russian being *from the first* original composition. If this method is adopted, a boy of ordinary intelligence ought to be able to read any Russian author with the aid of a dictionary at the end of one year, and I believe that at the end of the second year the dictionary might be almost discarded.

After a perfect knowledge of the letters have been acquired, pupils have little or no difficulty with the pronunciation.

I do not think that the perfect grammar for the beginner has yet been written, most being too diffuse, and those whose aim is brevity have secured it only at the cost of clearness. There is great need for a collection of graduated extracts from the best Russian authors, edited with notes and vocabulary.

From LEYS SCHOOL, CAMBRIDGE.

Owing to the limited time at the disposal of the teacher—two periods a week—it has not been possible to place Russian on a level with the other modern languages. Nevertheless, the results obtained since the subject was introduced are quite satisfactory. The three boys who began the study of Russian last year—one at the beginning of the year and two in October—have not encountered any serious difficulty

either with the pronunciation or with the grammar. They are now able to read easy prose, and the senior boy has recently begun to read a work by Turgeniev and is able to translate easy continuous passages of English prose into Russian. He has also had some practice in conversation.

Owing to lack of time, it has not been possible to pay special attention to Russian phonetics. If this had been attempted the grammar would have been neglected.

Experience shows that Russian possesses decided educational—as distinct from practical—advantages, but the language should be taken only by boys in the upper forms. A two-years course of at least four periods a week would be sufficient to enable them to leave school with a fair knowledge of the language.

From OUNDLE.

We are seeking Russia's friendship; we want a complete understanding of the people, their religion, mentality, and habits. However we strive to understand each other, we shall never do so unless we can get to know the psychology of the Russian mind. To know a nation, its literature, religion, mentality, customs, and habits, you have got to know the language. There is no doubt that Russian is a difficult language, but with a little patience, perseverance, and careful study, one can get to know it like any other modern language.

There are two main difficulties which teachers of Russian have to face. The first is that any school time-table is already so crowded that it is difficult to find time for Russian in school hours. The second is that there is a tendency among parents to desire Russian for their children simply because it will be useful commercially, and to consider only the material advantages.

I think the first of these difficulties might be easily solved by allowing boys who are seriously studying Russian to give up Latin or, if desired, German. I think it is a great pity that English people do not realize that Russian, like any other modern language, has a great educational value, as well as the practical value which they already appreciate. The Modern Language Association might do a great deal to make people understand that Russian has exactly the same value as French, for example. The Russian language will never be entirely successful until people are willing to study the language for its own sake. When a student has become familiar with Russia's great writers and thinkers—has not Tolstoi been called a world-wide 'genius,' Gogol a second Dickens, and Pouchkin a Shakespeare?—it will be easy for a boy to acquire any commercial terms he needs.

I believe that Russian ought to be started as early as possible. English people have begun to realize that it is advisable to start French for children early. Why not Russian, particularly as Russian is in many ways easier to pronounce than French?

I have found that boys after only one or two school years' study of Russian were able to sing a Russian folk-song ('Тройка') with a perfect accent. Judging from my short experience, boys are, on the whole, very interested in Russian; I believe that if Russian were part of the school curriculum they could make considerable progress in quite a short time. At the end of two years a boy of average ability could learn Russian poetry, fables by Krilov, read short stories of Tolstoi, Turgenev, Chekhov, etc., and also write simple reproductions. One of the difficulties I have had to face has been the dearth of Russian textbooks. The grammars already published are inaccurate and too difficult for beginners. The readers are spoilt by being loaded with grammar and ridiculous sentences for translation into Russian. We are in great need of a Russian Reader compiled on the model of 'Родной Міръ,' a Russian publication which I have used with satisfactory results.

WINIFRED EDGE.

From BRADFORD (*through the kindness of the Director of Education, Bradford*).

I.

1. Russian, being a highly inflected language, presents greater difficulties to the student than other non-Slavonic European languages. A good general knowledge of English grammar, which, unfortunately, appears to have been much neglected in day-schools, is of great help towards progress in the case of students who can only attend for two hours per week, and who have no knowledge of other foreign languages.

2. *Progress.*—Progress depends upon the amount of time devoted to the language, the ability of the student, and to his state of preparation. The average pupil takes Russian two hours per week, and should have a good general knowledge of the noun, adjective, pronoun, and the conjugation of the regular verbs, together with a vocabulary of 200 to 300 words, at the end of the first year. During the second year he should be able to read a simple text, and carry on an easy conversation, limited by his vocabulary.

3. *Phonetics* are not necessary in the teaching of the Russian language, as the language is naturally phonetic. If the alphabet be thoroughly acquired, the pronunciation is comparatively easy for English-speaking students, and at any rate easier than French pronunciation.

4. *Period at which to Begin.*—Russian can only be successfully undertaken after the pupil has had a good secondary education. The knowledge of English grammar—*e.g.*, the use of cases, tenses, verbs, gerunds, participles—is essential, whilst knowledge of some other foreign language is desirable.

5. *Russian* is not only of great commercial value, but it is certainly a great educational asset to the students. Its value can best be compared with that of Latin and Greek; it is more valuable than French or German, and it presents an increasing and new phase of valuable literature to the student.

The defects in the teaching apparatus are:—

(*a*) Lack of an easy and interesting Russian reader.

(*b*) Of a good skeleton grammar.

It would be most gratifying if a good firm of booksellers could make a speciality of keeping Russian books at a reasonable price.

There is great need of a simple elementary grammar, together with a simple reading book and an exercise book compiled for use with this grammar.

B. S. Stiller.

II.

The main difficulty with boys, girls, and adults is the marked lack of knowledge of English grammar, which consequently results in their being unable adequately to grasp the Russian declensions and conjugations—*e.g.*, the use of cases, tenses, and aspects of verbs, gerunds, participles, etc. Russian is not a language which can be mastered without a good knowledge of grammar.

Progress depends upon the amount of time devoted to it and the ability of the pupil. The average pupil, taking Russian two hours a week, should know the regular declensions of nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and the conjugation of the regular verbs, and should have acquired a vocabulary consisting of 200 to 300 common words, by the end of the first year, and during the second year should be able to read a simple text and carry on an easy conversation, which would, of course, depend upon the range of his vocabulary.

Period at which to Begin.—Russian can only profitably be undertaken after the pupil has had a good secondary education. A knowledge of grammar is essential and, if possible, of some other foreign language.

Educational Value.—As a mental training Russian should be as good as Latin and better than French and German. Opens up the way to an increasingly valuable literature.

Pronunciation.—Have had no experience of teaching Russian to children; all my pupils (more than 200 last session) have been over fifteen years of age. If the alphabet is properly mastered, Russian pronunciation does not present any difficulties.

Phonetics.—No need to use phonetics, as the language is phonetic in itself.

Textbooks.—No satisfactory textbooks exist at present. There is need of a simple, concise elementary grammar on scientific lines, a reading and exercise book, compiled for use with the grammar.

W. I. Kon.

From The Technical College, Cardiff.

My greatest difficulty in commencing to teach Russian was to obtain suitable books. I selected one which seemed to put things in the best way for those who had never studied a foreign language, or, in many cases, even their own.

Technical evening classes mostly consist of such students, which makes the difficulty of imparting a new language greater than it would be with those who are at day-schools or colleges.

The pupils, nevertheless, made good progress in reading and writing, but not what I would have wished in conversation. This, I consider, is the result of doing so much translation in the beginning, which induces the pupil to think in his own language, and, therefore translate too literally.

I have now procured a Russian school book (elementary), edited in Russia, and I hope that by accustoming the pupil to form Russian sentences in the Russian way from the beginning, he may be enabled to converse more easily and correctly. An elementary Russian grammar (in Russian) would be most useful.

As to phonetics, I have found them of great use in the formation of certain sounds, new to our English ears, but have not taken them up as a separate study.

Practically all the students take the greatest interest and pleasure in the study of this language, especially when they have conquered the initial stages, and were it not for the demands of our army we should now have a large number of young men studying Russian in

Cardiff. In my opinion, the fact of studying Russian is doing an enormous amount of good, in opening people's minds to the fact that Russia, far from being in that barbarous state which very many still imagine, is a most interesting and artistic country, the home of a generous-hearted, lovable people.

M. MOLONY.

From LIVERPOOL (*through the kindness of Mr. Bruce Boswell*).

1. In the multitude of its grammatical forms and the strictly logical use of them, the Russian language is as typical an Aryan language as ancient Greek, and its educational value is exactly the same. In learning Russian children are also learning to think.

2. The best age for children to begin the study of Russian is fourteen or fifteen.

3. The number of lessons must not be less than two to three hours a week, of forty to fifty minutes each.

4. If the number of lessons per week be raised to five or six, the learning of Russian at an early age would be an enormous help in learning other languages, such as French, German, or Spanish.

5. The English language possesses most of the phonetical elements of Russian, with the exception of two or three, such as the щ, sound ы, hard and soft л. These are easily picked up by children. In teaching, the student can easily acquire the correct pronunciation of Russian sounds if he hears them first from the teacher and only afterwards reads them in the book.

6. Writing the Russian language should precede the reading of printed matter.

7. Adult students do not find any great difficulty in learning Russian, if the grammar is taught logically, step by step. They admit the extraordinarily logical nature of the language, and with two hours a week throughout the session they get a good grasp of the grammar in two years.

Of textbooks, the Russian Grammar of Mr. Nevill Forbes is excellent.

V. G. GOUDIN.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

[*The Modern Language Association does not endorse officially the comments or opinions expressed in this column.*]

ESPERANTO IN RUSSIAN SCHOOLS.

A MEMORIAL, which has been widely signed, is to be presented to the Russian Minister of Education petitioning that Esperanto be taught in the schools of that country. It points out that Dr. Zamenhof, the inventor of the language, was a Russian subject, and that the gift he gave to the world is a most effective means towards that brotherhood of races which the Russian democracy so fervently desires. The memorial urges that the present moment affords a unique opportunity for introducing the language, and mentions some of the main advantages which Esperanto presents for the scholar: (1) Its logical grammar assists him to understand the grammar of the national language; (2) its rich vocabulary of international words and its method of word-building is of great assistance when learning other tongues; (3) it is a valuable exercise in clear thinking and concise expression; (4) it inspires sympathy with other countries; (5) it may be learned easily within a single school session, which is impossible with any other language. Finally, the memorial suggests that, as Russia gave to the world the long-needed international language, it should now show the world the way towards its universal acceptance.

⁂ ⁂ ⁂

A second conference of teachers of Russian took place on September 15 at King's College, Strand. A report of the proceedings will be published in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING at a later date.

⁂ ⁂ ⁂

The Hon. Secretary of the Russian Sub-Committee of the Modern Language Association (Mr. E. Bullough, Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge) would be glad if schools where Russian is taught, either as a school subject or as an extra, would inform him of the number of pupils during the present term, for the purpose of up-to-date statistics on the subject.

⁂ ⁂ ⁂

Signorina Dobelli, of Bedford College, gave a lecture to members of the Association and others on Saturday, November 10, at 3.30 p.m., at Bedford College, Regent's Park, N.W. The subject was the Italian poet Carducci.

⁂ ⁂ ⁂

The Earl of Lytton has accepted the Presidency of the Association for next year.

⁂ ⁂ ⁂

The address of Mr. H. J. Purkiss, Editor of *La Petite Revue*, is now Hazelwood School,

Limpsfield, Surrey. His home and holiday address is 13, Charlbury Gardens, Goodmayes, Essex.

ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

T. B. Wheeler, County School for Boys, Dover, is serving as Second Lieutenant in the R.F.A.

OBITUARY.

Captain L. C. Kirk was killed in action on October 9. He took a first class in modern languages at Oxford in 1911, and became an assistant master at Leeds Grammar School in the same year. He joined the West Yorkshire Battalion at the beginning of the war. He had been a member of the Association since 1911.

Maurice H. Wood, who was reported missing last April, is now known to have been killed. He was an Assistant Master at Stamford Grammar School. He was with the 4th Lincolnshire Regiment in France from February, 1915, to July, 1916. In June, 1916, he was mentioned in despatches. He was transferred to the R.F.C. in July and went to the front again last spring. It is stated that he was killed four miles behind the enemy's lines. He had been a member of the Association since 1913.

THE JANUARY MEETINGS.

The Conference of Educational Associations will be held next year at University College, Gower Street, W.C. 1, the University of London having been taken over by the military authorities.

The meetings will last from January 2nd to 12th.

A Joint Session of the various associations will be held on the afternoon of Friday, January 4, for the discussion of 'The Development of Individuality through Education.'

GENERAL MEETING.

The Annual General Meeting will be held on Friday, January 11, morning and afternoon, and on Saturday morning at University College, London.

The following items have been arranged:

M. Cambon, the French Ambassador, will deliver his Presidential Address on January 11 at noon.

In the afternoon Dr. Hargreaves will move the resolution, left over from last year—

> That in the interests of education it is very desirable that Modern Languages should be taught in schools by persons of British nationality, and that the policy of the Association should be directed towards the attainment of this end.

Mr. Daniel Jones will give a lecture, illustrated by lantern slides, on 'The Use of Experimental Phonetics to the Linguist.'

Mr. O. H. Prior (Rugby) will give an address on 'The Place of Philology in the Preparation of the School-Teacher.'

An address in French, on 'Les Relations Franco-Anglaises,' will be given by M. Henry D. Davray.

MODERN LANGUAGES CHAIRS.

From the 'Glasgow Herald.'

In passing the Ordinances for the Marshall and the William Jacks Chairs in Modern Languages —the former in French, the latter in German— Glasgow University Court have brought Glasgow a step nearer the position it ought long ere this to have occupied in regard to modern language study. The establishment of a French Chair is particularly long overdue. For a good number of years the French Department has been one of the largest in the University. Still, from our present point of view, the delay is perhaps not so very much to be regretted. Had the Chairs in French and German been established some years before the War, when the commercial importance of modern languages was not so widely recognized as it is to-day, the organization and curriculum might have hardened into an academic mould which would neither have easily allowed for the introduction of the commercial interest nor found a place for Russian. Both the academic and the commercial mind have gained in plasticity and in mutual sympathy since the War began, and the commercial and cultural claims of Russian are acknowledged to be second only to those of French.

LITERATURA E HISTORIA DE ESPAÑA.

Among the many promising signs of the new impulse which Spanish studies are now receiving is the success which has attended them in London. For eighteen years Professor Villasante has laboured with this end in view, and

it was a fitting recognition of his work that the lecture on Spanish literature and history which he gave at King's College, London, on June 18, should have been so well attended and so enthusiastically received. To the Modern Language Association, too, we owe a debt of gratitude for arranging the lecture; the chances which we have of hearing a lecture delivered in Spanish are, unhappily, all too few.

The lecturer's theme was the incomparable richness of the Spanish language and literature, and the interest of their close connection with Spanish—and, indeed, with European—history. With this subject he dealt in a most general fashion, so that we may hope his lecture was (as he himself hinted) only the groundwork on which others more detailed might later be built. Starting with the origins of the Spanish language, he showed of how many elements it was composed, described the entrance of its various extraneous components, and finally explained how the Castilian dialect gained the ascendancy over its fellows, so that it has now become synonymous with Spanish *par excellence*.

Professor Villasante then described the *Poema del Cid*—the firstborn, it may almost be said, of Spanish literature—afterwards taking his hearers skilfully through the early centuries, until he reached at length the most virile period of all, the glorious *Siglo de Oro*. We wished that he could have spent longer on the origins of the drama and on the works of the troubadours, but no one regretted the omission when he began to speak of Ruiz de Alarcon, Lope de Vega, and the even greater poet, Calderon.

'What could one say of Cervantes in so short a time that would do him justice?' must have been the thought of many of us at this stage in the lecture. Professor Villasante's solution of this insoluble riddle was doubly successful—it sent us all back to Cervantes himself, who, after all, is greater than any man's praise of him, and it summed up in the most felicitous language the great author's supreme achievement. 'Cervantes fué un conquistador el más grande de todos los conquistadores, porque mientras los demás conquistadores conquistaban paises para España, él, Cervantes, conquistó a España misma, con su obra inmortal el Quijote de la Mancha.'

Space will not permit us to recount in detail the remainder of the lecture, which dealt with the progress of Spanish literature from the seventeenth century to our own day. Most interesting, perhaps, were the passages in which was outlined the history of Franco-Spanish literary relations; most suggestive (and suggestiveness was, after all, the true aim of the lecture) the details which were given of nineteenth-century writers who, to many in the audience, must previously have been merely names. In this last section of his lecture, Professor Villasante allowed himself to speak rather more fully of recent Spanish history, and we may hope that if he finds it possible at some future date to give another public lecture, it may deal with this period, interesting alike as regards the history of Spain and her rich modern literature.

TEACHERS REGISTRATION COUNCIL.

Reconstruction in Education.

The Teachers Registration Council, as representative of the Teaching Profession, has found it necessary for the discharge of its duty under the Order in Council to consider proposals which have been made for reforms and reorganization in national education, and has adopted the following Resolutions:

1. As a fundamental part of national education it is necessary to secure more effective care for the health of children from infancy onwards and more ample provision for their physical welfare and development.

2. It is further necessary to provide against the withdrawal of children under fourteen years of age from whole-time attendance at school, and to limit very strictly the practice of employing such children as wage-earners out of school hours.

3. In no case should a child's schooling be held to be complete at the age of fourteen. Facilities for further instruction should be provided by an increase in the number of whole-time Secondary Schools, and by the establishment of part-time Secondary Schools of varying types. Attendance at one or other of these types of school should be compulsory for all young persons up to the age of eighteen, and the employment in any industry of young persons between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years, save in the case of those who attend whole-time up to the age of seventeen, should be accompanied by a statutory limitation of their hours of labour, so as to provide opportunity for attending a part-time Secondary School for not less than nine hours in each week.

4. In order that the nation may derive full benefit from the capacity of its children, there should be a much more generous and more equally distributed supply of scholarships and of grants for maintenance during the period of secondary and higher education.

The Council supports the principle of abolishing fees in Secondary Schools for the maintenance of which a Local Education Authority is responsible, and also the principle of the provision of a due number of free places in Secondary Schools which are partly maintained by State grants.

In order, however, that the nation may receive benefit from the general application of such a measure, the adequate provision of public Secondary School accommodation should be a statutory requirement in all areas, and the necessary steps should be taken to provide a supply of competent teachers by improving the conditions and prospects of teaching work.

The Council supports also the principle that no fees should be chargeable in full-time or part-time continuation schools for young persons between the ages of fourteen and eighteen years, or in other institutions for voluntary part-time education in cases where such continuation schools or institutions are mantained by Local Education Authorities.

5. In schools of all types it is necessary to provide against the classes being too large to permit of that individual care which is indispensable to physical, mental, and moral development. The number of pupils in the classes of Public Elementary Schools should more nearly approximate to that in State Secondary Schools.

6. These reforms in national education will require a large and permanent increase in the number of teachers professionally trained for the work. Such an increase necessitates material improvements in the salaries and prospects, including pensions and retiring allowances, of all grades of qualified teachers.

7. The function of educational administration is to provide opportunity. The function of the school is to develop a sense of obligation to the community and to foster individual aptitude. In order that it may achieve this double purpose, the school should be free to adjust its methods of teaching and the conditions of its corporate life to its own needs and circumstances.

8. In all educational administration and in the conduct of public examinations fuller use should be made of the services of teachers actually engaged in school work.

June 16, 1917.

OUR IRRATIONAL SPELLING.

1. The confusion of our spelling system adds greatly to the hard work of learning to read and write. It has been estimated that an Italian child learns spelling in 950 hours, a German child in 1,300 hours, but, owing to the difficulties of English spelling, our children take 2,300 hours. At the same time the irregular spelling is giving them an illogical instead of a logical training.

2. This bad spelling system continues through life to be a severe tax on memory, and is particularly distressing when the spelling memory weakens.

3. English spelling peculiarities are a source of irritation and difficulty to all foreigners with whom we come in contact. We, of all nations, ought to have rational spelling when, as rulers, we impose our language on so many peoples.

4. The merit which the English language possesses in being unencumbered with useless inflections and genders is more than counterbalanced by the irrational jumble of English spelling.

5. We ought to feel responsible for passing on the phonetic alphabet of Europe in as good shape as possible to Asian peoples. Romanic letters are to be made compulsory in all the schools of Japan. They are greatly needed in India, as the Rev. J. Knowles has so clearly shown.

6. English spelling is an obstacle to trade. And English is the language of commerce in the Far East, but, as some Japanese friends anxiously asked Lord Bryce three years ago, are we never going to reform the spelling ?

HOW TO HAVE RATIONAL SPELLING.

The Trouble.—The muddle of English spelling compels learners to memorize separately the spelling of the several hundreds of short common words, which when learnt are no guide to knowing the longer words. This Chinese method is the first training we give our schoolchildren.

The Cause.—The chief cause of the English spelling muddle is that we have only five vowel-letters to denote twelve vowel-sounds, so that each vowel-letter must have at least two values. And the confusion has been increased by resorting to two-letter notation—the digraph makeshift, used without method.

The Neglect.—The problem has never been clearly stated to the public. No Anglo-Saxon University has warned us of the loss of phonetic values, due to shortage of vowel-signs, or of the sounds in English words thereby becoming lost and confused. Accurate terminology, even, is lacking.

The Remedy.—All upholders of a true phone-

tic alphabet (one sound, one letter), agree that the vowel-letters wanting must be made up by slight but distinct modifications of our five vowel-letters.

OUR VOWEL NOTATION AND THAT SUGGESTED BY (1) THE PITMAN-KNOWLES, (2) AM. EDUC. ASS., (3) MR. A. D. WILDE, (4) S.S.S.

		(1) PASS, FAST, FAR	(2) FŪST, FŌR	(3) FAST	(4) Faast
a (ah-long) Words:	Ah, pass, fast, far	ran, glad, apt	glad, apt	GLAD	glad
(ah-short) „	At, ran, glad, apt	ɛl, vɛl, sɛl	vɛ̄l, sɛ̄l	VEL	vail
e (eh-long) „	eh, ale, veil, sail	red, eny, her	her, left	LEFT	left
(eh-short) „	red, any, her, left	grīf, pīk	grīf, pīk	GRIF	greef
i ('ee'-long) „	be, key, grief, pique	kin, list	kin, list	LIST	list
('ee'-short) „	it, him, kin, list	hɵp, fɵ	hōp, fō	HOP	hoep
o (o-long) „	no, own, hope, foe	hop, frog	hɵp, frɵg	HOP	hop
(o-short) „	on, was, hop, frog	fɔl, wɔr	fōl, wōr	WOR	taul
(o-broad) „	awe, auto, fall, war	fʏl, sʏp	fūl, sūp	FUL	fool
u (u-long) „	to, rue, fool, soup	ful, curt	ful, curt	FUL	fool
(u-short) „	put, foot, full, curt	sʊm, sʊp	sum, sup	SUM	sum
(u-slurred, 17th century *v.*) „	up, but, some, sup				

Diphthongs: *Au* *Ai* *iʏ* *oi, oy*
Aɪ *Ȧ* or I *ü* or *yu*

Let us ask for the means of rational spelling for schools. We will not think 'enithing regeular wil doo,' but do the best. And let us give a true phonetic alphabet to India.

D. F. KERR, Kelowna, B.C.

THE ALLIED UNIVERSITIES.

MAY EXAMINATIONS, 1925.

HONORS IN PEDAGOGY.

HISTORICAL ENGLISH.

(*Second Paper.*)

1. (*a*) 'Prior to the World War of '14-'18, an English-speaking child had to lern many ways of speling each of the comon vowel-sounds.'

Giv examples of at least ten ways in which the child had to lern to spel 'o' as in 'so.'

(*b*) '. . . the number of reasonable spelings that the child had to lern to avoid was an even heavier burden.'

By the method of permutations, using society as example, calculate how many spelings by analogy, exclusiv of sosiety and pseausigheathe the speler had to lern to avoid.

2. 'An irrational orthografy, including such forms as wrought, phlegm, colonel, was made an educational fetish by the scoolmaster.'—*The Scool Pilot.*

Examin this statement; account for the wor ship of the speling-book, and giv details of its method.

3. (*a*) 'The now defunct speling-book was in cronic rebelion against the child's mental nature.'

Defend or dispute this declaration.

(*b*) 'Until recently, children spent two years of their scool-life in lerning to read fairly and spel rather poorly. If we ever come to use one and the same sign, and only one, for each unshaded sound, a bright pupil wil lern to read and spel in one week.'

Would you lengthen or shorten the time factors in this statement? Fuly defend your anser.

4. Siv, sieve. Sho how each of these spelings was suported or repudiated, as the case may be, by—Reason, prejudis, fashion, economy.

5. (*a*) 'Honor, labor, tumor, and a few other "-or" words, which were formerly (in Shakespeare's time and after) corectly speld, suferd the peculiar hypertrophy of a "u".'

Relate the history of this interesting affectation.

(*b*) In what ways did good old spelings such as soverain, gess, fantom, become corupted? How did many spelings—*e.g.*, posthumous, belfry, humble-pie—conceal derivation? Use these or substitute other examples.

6. 'In Spain and Italy—countries in which each leter or digraph is used consistently as a rule—the blind lern to spel more easily than the def, whereas in this country the converse is yet the case.'

Examin the reasons.

7. 'If simplified speling and metric standard units come to be adopted, the Public Scool teachers wil not hav enuf to do to ocupy their time, and the people wil not be able to read old books.'—*From a Reactionist of* 1919.

Sho how these dangers hav been averted.

CORRESPONDENCE.

[The opinions expressed in this column are those of individual contributors, for which the Association takes no responsibility.]

THE PLACE OF RUSSIAN.

In the current issue of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING Professor Waterhouse takes exception to my assertion that—'Heine and Goethe apart—German literature is for the most part third rate.' May I say that I did not wish to attempt to make a case for Russian by disparaging German, as your correspondent suggests. The Russian language and Russian literature can, of course, stand wholly on their own merits. But my paper was one which formed part of a discussion on the respective claims of Italian, Russian, Spanish, and German, and of necessity comparisons had to be made. I think, however, that a very large proportion of students of comparative literature would be found to agree that German literature, apart from Heine and Goethe, *is* third rate, and I think that this will be found to have been the opinion of most of them *before* the present war.

It seems to me, too, that only a very superficial judgment could admit that 'all the chief modern foreign languages are approximately equal in general importance.' Surely it is universally recognized, for example, that French for Englishmen, or English for most other races, is of considerably greater importance than any other language. And surely if 'general importance' may be held to include mere educational value, French literature, as a whole, is incontestably superior to that of any other European language -English only excepted. Personally, I am convinced that in the same proportion as French has greater claims over all other modern languages, so has Russian over all modern languages after French. And I have yet to meet the person who will bring forward serious arguments to refute this claim beyond the old contention that 'Russian is so difficult,' which seems hardly relevant, even if it were true.

The root of the matter lies in this—that in making English, French, and Russian the three modern languages in the normal school curriculum, we have in English the chief Germanic language, with incomparably the most beautiful of Germanic literatures; we have in French the chief Latin language, with the completest (one thousand years) of modern Latin literatures; we have in Russian the key to the Slavonic languages and literatures, and an instrument of mental discipline superior to either English or French, and in this not surpassed by Greek or Latin. And so we have all that is best in three groups—Germanic, Latin, Slavonic. And with a mastery of these three, all the languages and literatures of Europe are accessible to us. As to Mr. Waterhouse's other arguments, I cannot believe that classical scholars ever do 'wrangle over the comparative merits of Latin and Greek, or mathematicians over algebra and geometry, or scientists over chemistry and physics,' the fact being that each unit in these pairs is complementary to the other, just as a Slavonic language is the natural complement of a Latin and a Germanic language in a modern languages group [which should not for that reason consist of two Germanic—*e.g.*, English and German—and one Latin language—*e.g.*, French].

I should be glad if Professor Waterhouse would give his reasons *why* it should take thirty years to establish the study of Russian in the same position as that of the 'present passable condition of German studies.' If it is going to take thirty years, it is never going to be done at all. The teaching and the speaking of German, the most established of all languages, in Russia was abolished by a stroke of the pen, and it has already been practically replaced by English. I do not suggest that anything so drastic and imaginative should or could be done in this—educationally at least—easy-going and long-suffering country in which we live. But I do suggest that immediate steps should be taken by private and public authorities in English and Scottish, secondary, University, and commercial education, to put Russian everywhere throughout these countries on at least an equal footing

with German, and to give it the same facilities. Russian can only find its way into the general curriculum by replacing German to some extent. It is idle to suggest that it should encroach on mathematics. No doubt many mathematical teachers have 'distinct recollections of time wasted at school in the remoter bogs' of French and German grammar 'by boys who were looking forward to scholarships in mathematics at the Universities.'

Professor Waterhouse concludes by asking two questions, which, though not 'a Russian specialist,' I am attempting to answer: (1) 'What would become of our newly found enthusiasm for Russian if the Golitzin Ministry had concluded a separate peace with Germany? (2) What will be the effect of Russian type and Russian script on the eyesight of growing boys and girls?'

As to the first, the question of a separate peace as a matter of strict logic is, of course, wholly irrelevant to the point at issue. If we are going to allow such considerations to affect our vision, we shall be blinded by the same emotions as were the Russians when they—most unwisely as I think—abolished the teaching of German. If Russia were to fail us in her friendship, would there be so much cause to avoid learning her language as there is in the case of that of Germany, who has become our bitterest enemy? If we are going to argue on these lines, then German must go *in toto*. But, in fact, we ought to learn German—and I believe we are learning German more than ever—precisely because the Germans have become our enemies.

As to the second, the question of the effect of different types on the eyesight is one which no doubt involves subtle pathological considerations. I imagine, however, that size and quality of printing have some effect, and I should like to refer to the Russian texts printed by the Oxford University Press in the only really good type which I have so far seen in England. I am not aware, however, that Russian children suffer unduly from bad eyesight, but I do clearly remember having seen a very large proportion of German children wearing spectacles, and that not merely in the pages of *Punch*.

E. G. Underwood.

YU AND ENGLISH VOWELS.

In reply to Mr. Nicholson's letter in your June number, may I say that if, as he thinks, palatal Consonants 'successfully resist' the intrusion of *y*, he hardly appears to me to explain how it is that, according to Walker's Dictionary, the *y* was just as fully established a century ago in *due*, *tune*, and other such words, as in *cue*, *puny*, and the like? However, I offered the criticism doubtfully, and if it is not accepted I do not wish to press it. As regards the so-called Diphthongs, though the question is, as he says, one of names, it is also surely one of facts, and, if I am not mistaken, of important facts too. How it may be with Mr. Nicholson I do not know, but in my mind at the back of these questions of phonetics there always looms the question of notation, because I am convinced that our present system, alphabet and spelling together, is altogether too bad to last. When England wakes, it will be one of the first things to go. It is therefore a matter of the highest importance to settle by discussion the sounds that ought to be denoted, and it is a never-failing source of wonder to me that this has not yet been done. Now, if what are called the Diphthongs are rightly defined as by the N.E.D., and do in fact consist of two sounds each, then in notation they certainly *may* and possibly *ought* to be resolved into those two sounds and spelt with a sequence of two letters, as we now spell *oil* and *out*. And I suppose this may hold even if one or both of the sounds into which a Diphthong is resolved is not used in our language independently; as, for example, Mr. Jones in his 'Pronunciation of English,' 1912, resolves the Vowel of *fly* into a (French ?) *a*, not separately used in English, followed by the English *i* of *lip*. But if, on the other hand, these Vowels consist, not of two sounds each, but, as I have contended, of a whole scale or series of sounds, then they are practically irresolvable, and must be spelt each with a single letter. Mr. Nicholson asks (in effect) if I rank the Vowel of *skyed* as a polyphthong, why not also the *yu* of *skewed*? My reply is (1) because I do not think it is of the same nature, not being a vowel uttered in the act of closing the mouth, but rightly resolved into a sequence of two sounds; and (2) because, supposing we have an option, it is far more convenient to separate *y* entirely from *i* and treat it as a Consonant, like any other. The recognition of *yu* as a Diphthong involves, as I pointed out, the recognition of other Diphthongs in *yard*, *yam*, *ye*, etc., and all these I see Mr. Nicholson admits. I find also I was wrong in saying that such a course was unprecedented, for Thomas Sheridan did the same in his Pronouncing Dictionary, and after him A. J. Ellis. But it would certainly be very inconvenient to tabulate all these sounds among the elements where the Diphthongs normally find their place, and I fail to find any reason advanced why *y* (and *w*) should *not* be treated as Consonants, which

is the most advantageous and now the normal practice.

If I may offer a little criticism of Mrs. Kerr's admirably lucid article on 'The Lost Values of our Alphabet,' she recognizes sixteen vowel-sounds, including four Diphthongs, among them this same *yu* (or *iu*), which I need not further discuss. Putting it aside, the remaining fifteen sounds fall short by three of those I tabulated in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING for December, 1915. These three are the Vowels of *air* and *err*, and the second Vowel of *soda*. To take these in order, she ranks the first as the same as the Vowel of *ale*, so that the word *bear* is the same as *bay* with the addition of an *r* : and as in Southern English the *r* is silent more often than pronounced, the two words should usually be homophones. But this they certainly are not, their sounds being amply distinguished in spite of the silence of the *r*. (2) The Vowel of *learn* and *err* she holds to be the same as that of *edge*, and (though this is not mentioned) I take it that she would pronounce and spell *burn*, which in Southern English has the same Vowel as *err*, with the Vowel of *up*. It is true that for both these opinions she has the authority of Ellis and Pitman's Phonotype of 1850, but the question is whether this treatment of the two Vowels is not the greatest shortcoming of Phonotype—at least, for modern purposes. They and the third, which remains to be discussed, are all recognized as elements by modern phoneticians, including the late Professor Sweet. (3) If the second Vowel of *soda* is not to be separately denoted, how are we to spell the numerous words in which it occurs with many different notations—*e.g.*, *carcase*, *purpose*, *porpoise*, *tremendous*, *versus*, etc. ? Probably the explanation of Mrs. Kerr's views is that she is giving us a Scotch version of English Pronunciation, in which the *r* is retained and the Vowels have not undergone the same changes as with us. But though I entirely agree that the subject is one for compromise, this should not be forgotten by the Scotch. For example, the logical method for spelling Southern English would be to drop preconsonantal *r* altogether, as it is dropped in speech; but probably it will have to be retained on account of its retention in Northern speech. On the other hand, the Scotch should not shorten the list of our Vowels and insist on making homographs of words which in Southern speech and hearing are clearly not homophones, in spite of the loss of the sound of *r*. But though I differ on these points, I should like to add that Mrs. Kerr's attitude on the subject in general commands my hearty admiration and sympathy.

A. D. WILDE.

THE I.P.A. SCRIPT FOR INDIAN LANGUAGES.

SIR,—I gladly accept my friend Mr. Daniel Jones's correction, on p. 130 of M. L. T. May I take the opportunity, however, to restate my point ? It is simply this. We need a phonetic script in India almost as badly as you do over here, though our Indian scripts are much better than the European alphabets. But the difficulty lies in getting Indians to use the I.P.A. script, and the chief part of this difficulty is in the fact that Indian phonetic theory postulates that *c* (=*tʃ*) and *j* (=*dz*) are not compound but simple consonants. Only the other day an Indian asked me whether the symbols *tʃ* and *dz* would ever have been used but for the fact that *ch* in French is appropriated for the sound of *ʃ* and *j* for that of *z*. In a French translation of the 'Panchatantra' published in 1871, I find Viṣṇu printed as Vichnou, Lakṣmi as Lakchmî, Candra as Tchandra, Jîvana as Djîvana. In other words, the French transliterator, independently of phonetic theory, naturally assumed that the French sounds of the symbols *j* and *ch* were primitive, and, to express the Indian sounds associated with those symbols, added *t* to the one and *d* to the other. If the Geneva system of transliteration of Indian languages had been framed by Frenchmen, the symbols now represented by *c* and *j* would probably have become *tch* and *dj*. The Indian, who refuses to hear a *t* in the sound of one or *d* in the sound of the other, has a prejudice against the corresponding *tʃ* and *dz* in I.P.A. script. I think I remember a contribution to the *Maître Phonetique* which shows that there are Europeans who doubt whether English *ch* and *j* are in fact made up of *t*+French *ch*, and *d*+French *j*. It is not for me to support or deny such assertions. The decision must rest with such experts as Mr. Daniel Jones himself. My sole desire was to call attention to an impediment in the way of the spread of the I.P.A. script in India. If European phoneticians are satisfied that Geneva *c*=*t*+*ʃ*, and that Geneva *j*=*d*+*z*, there is no more to be said. Indian phoneticians must just learn to write *tʃ* and *dz*.

Of course, it does not matter what symbols are used, so long as we all use the same symbol for (approximately) the same sound. Still, if we are to win the help of our Indian friends, we must humour their susceptibilities and prejudices. And, after all, I suppose all of us (and not least the venerable M. Passy himself) will admit that when the I.P.A. script was chosen it was in some respects unfortunate that French-

men had so predominant a voice in choosing its symbols since French has fewer sounds and a smaller alphabet than most other written languages. To say that is not to deny the magnificent, the inestimable work done by Frenchmen in this matter.

Mr. Daniel Jones knows me too well to suppose for a moment that I am questioning his authority or his decisions on phonetic questions. That, on my part, would be presumption and folly. I merely point out, as best I can, an Indian prejudice which has its root in the famous theory of the Five Touches of the Tongue. It is a theory which is dear to Indian grammarians, and they can at least claim that it is better than anything we had till M. Paul Passy, Mr. Daniel Jones, and other modern phoneticians, arose to teach us a better way.

J. D. Anderson.

REVIEWS.

[*The Association does not make itself officially responsible for the opinions of reviewers.*]

Lectures Classiques: Le XVII^e^, le XVIII^e^, et le XIX^e^ Siècles par les Textes. Par G. Pellissier. Three vols. Delagrave.

These volumes are published as a complement to the author's *Précis de l'Histoire de la Littérature française*, and are meant to supply the wants of students studying literary history who wish to have a first-hand acquaintance with authors. It is not necessarily the best pages of authors that have been chosen, but those best calculated to arouse an interest in French literary history, to present its various aspects, and explain its development. They are not meant to replace the *Recueil de Morceaux choisis*, but contain passages of some length from authors which are not generally to be found in the hands of students. In the seventeenth century we have long extracts from such authors as Honoré d'Urfé, Mme. de la Fayette, Chapelain, Perrault, Descartes, Bourdaloue, as well as most characteristic passages from Pascal and Boileau. In the eighteenth century we have represented, Bayle, D'Alembert, Turgot, Duclos, Condorcet, Dancourt, Marivaux, and a larger selection of the great authors than in the preceding volume, because students have fewer opportunities of studying them. There are many explicative notes and numerous illustrations. English students owe Professor Pellissier a debt of gratitude for placing such a *recueil* within their reach.

A. Haase: *Syntaxe française du XVII^e^. Siècle.* Nouvelle Edition, traduite et remaniée par M. Obert. Ouvrage couronné par l'Académie française. 448 pages. Prix 7 frs. net. Librairie Delagrave, 15, Rue Soufflot, Paris.

This well-known work is indispensable to every student of the great classical period of French literature. It is a work of great merit and industry which has been thoroughly revised and brought up to date. It is a pity there is not a Table of Contents as well as an Alphabetical Index, with references to paragraphs only. However, that is a small matter. One great feature of the book is the wealth of examples, giving the exact source from which they are taken.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

N.B.—*All books received will be noted in this column. Such notice does not preclude a careful review should the Editor consider any book of sufficient importance or interest.*

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Grammar, etc.

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The Granta Shakespeare. Edited by J. H. Lobban. Coriolanus. Pp. xxx + 185 + 26. King Henry V. Pp. xx + 158 + 34. Price 1s. net each. Cambridge University Press.

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Jones, W. H. S.: How we Learn. A Short Primer of Scientific Method for Boys. Pp. 64. Price 1s. 6d. Cambridge University Press.

Platt, Mr. and Mrs. Wm.: Stories of the Scottish Border. With 16 full-page illustrations by M. Meredith Williams. Pp. 256. Price 1s. 9d. Harrap and Co.

Sedgfield, W. J.: A Skeleton Outline of Old English Accidence. Pp. 20. Price 1s. 3d. net. Manchester University Press (Longmans and Co.).

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Courses, etc.

Moore, S. A.: Graduated French Dictations. Pp. ix + 168. Price 2s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.

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PALMER, H. E.: A First Course of English Phonetics. Pp. 89. Price 2s. 6d. net. Cambridge: Heffer and Sons.

JONES, D., and SOLOMON TSHEKISHO PLAATZI: A Sechuana Reader in International Phonetic Orthography (with English Translations). Pp. xl+45. Price 3s. net. University of London Press (Hodder and Stoughton).

RUSSIAN.

Composition.

SOLOMONOFF, J.: Russian Composition, consisting of Anecdotes, etc., with Vocabulary to each passage and Grammatical Notes. Part I.: Elementary. Pp. 57. Kegan Paul and Co.

Course.

SMIRNOFF, P. M.: A Progressive Russian Course. Pp. 195. Price 3s. 6d. net. Blackie and Son.

Grammar.

UNDERWOOD, E. G.: A School Russian Grammar. Pp. 64. Price 2s. 6d. net. Blackie and Son.

LETT, S. J.: Russian Verbs made Easy. Pp. 59. Kegan Paul and Co.

Texts.

FORBES, NEVILL: Third Russian Book. Extracts from Aksákov, Gregoróvich, Hérzen, Saltykóv. Accented and Edited with full Notes and complete Vocabulary. Pp. xii+192. Price 2s. 6d. net. Clarendon Press.

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DUFF, J. D.: Russian Lyrics, with Notes and Vocabulary. Pp. 102. Price 2s. 6d. Cambridge University Press.

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SELVER, P.: Modern Russian Poetry. Texts and Translations. Pp. xvi+65. Price 2s. 6d. net. Kegan Paul.

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TOLSTOY, L.: A Prisoner of Caucasus. Pp. 64. Price 1s. net.

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PATTERSON, W. R.: Language Students' Manual. Pp. 200. Kegan Paul.

POTEAT, H. Mc.: Selected Letters of Cicero. Pp. xii+79+131.

Breaking the Spell: An Appeal to Commonsense. With Preface by R. W. Macan. Pp. viii+57. S.S. Society, 44, Great Russell Street, W.C.

WATERHOUSE, G.: The War and the Study of German, A Public Lecture. Pp. 24. Price 6d. Dublin: Hodges and Co.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

GENERAL COMMITTEE.

IN accordance with the temporary provision for the retirement of members of the General Committee made by the General Meeting of 1916, the following will retire at the end of the year, and will not be eligible for re-election till after the lapse of a year: Miss Allpress, R. P. Atherton, Professor H. G. Atkins, H. E. Berthon, C. Brereton, Professor Herford, Rev. W. S. Macgowan, F. W. Odgers, H. M. O'Grady, W. Ripman, W. H. D. Rouse, Professor Savory, F. Storr, E. G. Underwood (eligible for re-election, not having served half the term), Professor Weekley.

Thirteen new members will be elected, two of whom must be members who have not served before.

Nominations must reach the Hon. Secretary on or before November 30.

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, September 29.

Present: Mr. Hutton (chair), Mr. Allpress, Miss Althaus, Miss Ash, Professor Atkins, Miss Hart, Messrs. Mansion, Payen-Payne, Perrett, Richards, Ripman, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from Mr. Bullough, Mr. D. Jones, and Miss Strachey.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed. On the recommendation of the Finance Subcommittee the names of sixty-five members whose subscriptions were two full years in arrears were deleted from the list.

On the recommendation of the Library and Finance Subcommittees, it was agreed that the Travelling Exhibition be used as a Loan Library, if arrangements can be made for housing it; that £5 be allocated for that purpose next year; and that the Library Subcommittee be requested to make inquiries about shelving. Also, that an appeal be made for subscriptions, on the condition that any donor be allowed to name a book or books costing not more than the amount of his donation, and to have first call upon it, provided the book or books be approved by the Committee.

A letter from Miss Barfield, of Trent College, Derbyshire, was read, asking the approval of the Committee for the formation of a new Branch in the Midlands, and stating that she had the support of fifteen future and some present members. The formation of the Branch was approved, and £2 voted to it for period ending November 30, 1918.

It was agreed to recommend to the General Committee that in future twenty should be the minimum number of members required for a new Branch.

The Subcommittee on the New Regulations for Secondary Schools submitted a report, which, after some discussion and alteration, was adopted. The report is printed in another column. It was decided that it should be sent to the Board of Education and to the educational Press.

Miss Batchelor sent a report on the lectures in French and Spanish arranged last term by the Association. The accounts showed a credit balance of £2 18s. 3d. It was agreed that two more lectures be arranged for this term and advertised in the Press.

A letter from the French Ambassador, intimating his willingness to give his Presidential Address on Friday, January 11, having been read, it was agreed that the Annual General Meeting be held on that and the succeeding day, and that the Association should participate in the Conference of Educational Associations, if suitable arrangements for the Presidential Address can be made.

A letter from the Royal Society of Literature announcing that the second meeting of the Education Conference would be held on Monday, October 8, was received. It was agreed to ask that the announcement be sent to the Association's delegates (Messrs. Brereton, Bullough, and Hutton).

A letter from a member suggesting the reduction of the subscription during the War was referred to the Finance Subcommittee.

The following seventeen new members were elected:

Miss I. E. Bouvier, B.A., St. Helen's School, Blackheath, S.E.

Miss W. G. Chinneck, B.A., Harpurhey High School, Manchester.

Miss M. E. Downes, Loughborough High School.

Miss G. M. Edwards, B.A., Secondary School for Girls, Stockton-on-Tees.

P. P. Ferry, M.A. (Harvard), King's School, Grantham.

Miss Wilmot Gascoigne, Church of England College for Girls, Edgbaston, Birmingham.

Miss I. F. Day, LL.A.

Miss W. M. Haugh, M.A., County School, Enfield.

Miss M. Jenkins, B.A., Intermediate School for Girls, Treforest, Glam.

Miss Ethel Jones, B.A., Municipal Secondary School for Girls, Bolton.

Miss H. E. Middleton, B.A., Municipal Secondary School, Brighton.

Miss D. J. Miller, B.A.

J. G. Moore, Kursy Berlitza, Moscow.

Miss H. M. Morley, LL.A., Municipal School, Scarborough.

E. H. Pointer, B.A., Sunnyside, St. Neot's, Hunts.

J. Benjamin Price, High School of Commerce, Barry, Glam.

Miss R. E. Underwood, Bradbury Higher Elementary School, Hale, Cheshire.

Several cases of notices of Committee meetings being lost in the post having recently occurred, members of the Executive are reminded that the Committee meets on the last Saturday of every month in term-time, except July. Any member who has not received a notice of meeting by the preceding Monday should write to the Hon. Secretary.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

N.B.—**The November and December numbers of M.L.T. will be published as one issue on December 15.**

All contributors are requested to send in matter by the 24th of each month, if publication is urgently required for the issue following.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 15th of February, March, April or May, June, July, October, November, and December. The price of single numbers is 6d. net; the annual subscription is 4s. 8d. Orders should be sent direct to the Publishers, A. and C. Black, Ltd., 4, Soho Square, London.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, ST. JOHN'S SCHOOL, LEATHERHEAD. [**Holiday address**: Ibthorpe House, Hurstbourne-Tarrant, Andover.]

The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Association, but those whose subscription for the current year is not paid before July 1 are not entitled to receive it.

The Annual Subscription to the Association, payable on January 1, is 7s. 6d., and should be sent to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. W. PERRETT, 58, Erskine Hill, Hendon, N.W.

Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, Steeple, Kingsway, Gerrards Cross.

The MODERN LANGUAGE REVIEW, a Quarterly Journal of Medieval and Modern Literature and Philology, edited by Professor J. G. Robertson, and published by the Cambridge University Press, is supplied to Members of the Association at a special annual subscription of 7s. 6d., *which must be prepaid*. It should be sent with the membership subscription (15s. in all) to the Hon. Treasurer. Those who wish to take in or discontinue the REVIEW should communicate with the Hon. Secretary.

The attention of Teachers is drawn to the collection of French and German School Books, carefully selected by a Sub-Committee, and known as the Travelling Exhibition. It may be inspected on applying to Mr. Twentyman, Board of Education, Whitehall. A Catalogue (sent *gratis* to members) has been issued of all sections except Reading Texts, of which a separate and minutely detailed list is being prepared. For particulars of conditions on which the Exhibition may be loaned apply to Miss Hart, as below.

The Hon. Secretary will be glad to receive from members the addresses of well-educated families on the Continent willing to receive English guests, which can be recommended to students and teachers wishing to study abroad. The addresses of houses where an English guest is not likely to meet any other English people are specially desired. Names of families should not be sent unless the member can recommend them from personal knowledge. Full particulars should be given.

Communications on the under-mentioned subjects should be addressed to the persons named:—

Exchange of Children: Miss BATCHELOR, Bedford College, Regent's Park, N.W.

Magic-Lantern Slides: H. L. HUTTON, 2, College Gardens, Dulwich, S.E.

Residence Abroad (Women): Miss SANDYS, 30, East St. Helen's, Abingdon; **(Men)**: The Hon. Secretary.

Travelling Exhibition: J. E. MANSION, B.-ès-L., 10, Sudbrooke Road, Wandsworth Common, S.W.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, Berkhamsted School, Herts.

N.B.—Applicants for correspondents are requested to enclose list of pupils, giving names, ages, and addresses, and a stamp for reply.

Correspondence on all other subjects should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary.

It is urgently requested that all Postal Orders be crossed.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY J. G. ANDERSON

VOLUME XIII. Nos. 7 and 8 Nov.-Dec., 1917

SOME NOTES ON THE PHONETICS, STRUCTURE, AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE JAPANESE LANGUAGE.

[*The substance of this article was given in a paper read at the General Meeting of the Modern Language Association at University College, London, on January* 10, 1917.]

SOME months ago I received a letter from the Modern Language Association which began thus: 'It is proposed that at the next General Meeting, by way of trying to excite a little interest in Oriental languages, there should be a lecture or address on the Japanese language, and I was desired to ask you if you would be kind enough to give us such an address.'

Although I had grave doubts about my ability to excite interest in such a subject in the space of one not very long paper, still I said I would try. Some of us older members of the Modern Language Association did even rasher things than that when we were younger. I am not very confident that I shall succeed in arousing any general interest, but I shall be satisfied myself if I do one of two things—either excite your intellectual curiosity, with the result that some of you will want to know more about Japanese, or, at least, if I make some of you mentally uncomfortable and dissatisfied with certain commonly accepted opinions about grammar.

There was this further point in the letter I received: 'It is hardly necessary to remind you that only two or three of your audience will know anything about the subject.' I have acted on this. I have started at the very beginning, and I make my apologies at this stage to the two or three Japanese scholars. I am just enough of a scholar myself, and I know just enough Japanese, to be quite sure that I am still very far from being a complete Japanese scholar.

I shall begin with a kind of elementary grammar lesson, including, of course, the phonetic side.

A good many of the phonetic and grammar examples which I give will be found in the following page of Japanese in phonetic transcription. It is taken from a work of mine which appeared some fifteen years ago. It is only a fragment; it is the first page of a story for little Japanese children.

matsujama kaŋami.

(*place-name*) *

1 etʃiŋo no kuni ni | matsu no jama to ju: tokoro ŋa arimaṣ ||
(*place-name*) *of province in pine of mountain p. say place p. be*

2 kọko wa nadakaĭ oŋ̃semba de | natsu wa kakubetsụ taksan no çto
here p. well-known baths p. summer p. especially many p. people

3 ŋa | to:ʒi ni iku | niŋijaka na tokoro de arimaṣ.
p. baths to go flourishing-p. place p. be.

4 mukaʃi | kono matsu no jama ni | o-matsu to ju: musume ŋa
long-ago this pine of mountain in (name) p. say girl p.

5 arimaʃta. || o-matsu no tʃịtʃi ŋa jo:ʒi ŋa atte | kjo:to e maĭrimaʃta
be (name) of father p. business p. have (place-name to go

6 toki ni | o-matsu wa mada tʃi:saku | hạha ni te o çịkare | mon no
time at (name) p. still small mother by hand p. take door of

7 soto made miokuri ni demaʃte || «to:san to:saŋ̃ | otonaʃkụ ʃte imas
outside to see-depart p. go-out father father obediently do be

8 kara | i: o-mijaŋe o katte kịte kudasaĭ» to | mo:ʃimaʃtareba | tʃitʃi
because nice p.-present p. buy go please p. say-when father

9 wa || «joʃi joʃi | otonaʃku matte oĭde» to hendʒi o itaʃimaʃta. ||
p. well well obediently wait see p. answer p. make.

10 mata o-matsu no hạha ŋa | «o-hajaku o-kaĭrinasaĭ» to ijeba || «joʃi
then (name) of mother p. p.-quickly p.-return-please p. say-when well

11 joʃi | omaĭ mo wazurawanaĭde | o-matsu ni keŋa o sasenaĭ jo: ni |
well you also be-not-ill (name) to injury p. not-be-made thus-p.

12 çi no moto ni ki o tske | dorobo: no jo:ʒiŋ̃ o tanomu» to | itte
fire of cause to care p. take burglar of precaution p. count-on p. say

13 dekakemaʃta. || hạha wa o-matsụ to iʃʃo ni | tʃitʃi no mieru aĭda |
depart. mother p. (name) and together-p. father of be-seen while

14 tatte mite imaʃta. || tʃịtʃi mo tokidoki | ạto o furikaette | tenuŋŭi o
stand see (a.v.) father also sometimes back p. turn handkerchief p.

15 furimas to | hạha mo tenuŋŭi o furi | o-matsu wa te o utʃimaʃta.
wave and mother also handkerchief p. wave (name) p. hand p. strike.

* In the double sense of (i.) looking-glass, (ii.) model or paragon.

The Phonetics of the Japanese Language.

This is a side of the subject in which I am particularly interested, but I shall do my best not to stay too long over it, and not to give here more than is perhaps necessary for understanding the elements of spoken Japanese. Of course I make no apology for phonetics and phonetic technicalities to all those of you who are Modern Language teachers, because I can assume that you have a good working knowledge of phonetics. But if there are others among my readers who will find this section insupportably dull, I suggest, as a pleasant intellectual amusement, that they should guess at the actual meaning of that page of Japanese *before* they look at my translation, which follows a little later. I don't expect everybody to be keenly interested in phonetics yet, in spite of the tremendous advertisement of the subject given on the London stage in *Pygmalion*.

The Japanese Vowels.

You will see at once, if you refer to the transcription, that the Japanese vowel system is simple and well defined. There are only the five vowels which you see in line 1. But for purposes of differentiation of meaning you must consider them to be ten vowels, because each of the vowels can be either short or long. 'Short' here is only a convenient way of describing a sound of normal duration, while 'long' means dwelling on the sound (and in Japanese without altering the position of the organs of speech!) for perhaps one and a half or twice the duration of a normal sound. *To*, with the vowel short, means 'a door'; *to:*, with the vowel long, means 'ten'; *ku*, short, means 'mine'; and *ku:*, long, means 'to eat' (in the sense of 'fressen,' not 'essen,' in the language of a people who have done their best to forfeit our respect).

There is no special difficulty for English speakers in the case of four out of the five short vowels. The first element of the English diphthong in 'sij' (spelt 'see' or 'sea'), or the *i* of French 'si,' are sufficiently near the Japanese *i*. Japanese *e* lies between the *é* fermé of French 'été,' and ɛ ouvert of 'net.' The *e* in the English word 'men' is not far from the Japanese sound. In the same way, the Japanese *a* lies between the *a* of French 'pas' and the a of French 'patte.' The *a* in Southern English, 'ɑ ju kʌmiŋ' ('are you coming?'), is not far from the Japanese sound. Similarly, the Japanese *o* lies between the 'o fermé' of French 'dos' and the 'ɔ ouvert' of French 'coq,' and therefore lies also between the first element of the English diphthong in 'nout' (spelt 'note') and the ɔ in English 'nɔt' (spelt 'not').

The only difficult Japanese vowel is *u*. The tongue position is not far removed from that for the English vowel in 'put,' but the difference comes in the lip position; there is practically no rounding of the lips; it must be classed as an unrounded vowel. You can arrive at it sufficiently well by pronouncing *u* in English 'put' with the lip position of ʌ in English 'but.' This vowel evidently worried the early European visitors to Japan, because we find in their writings this vowel sometimes transcribed by the consonant *f*; thus, *ʃikoku* (Shikoku) is written Shikoku, and the name of the great artist *hokusai* (Hokusai) is written Hokffsai (probably some Dutch variety of bi-labial *f* was intended).

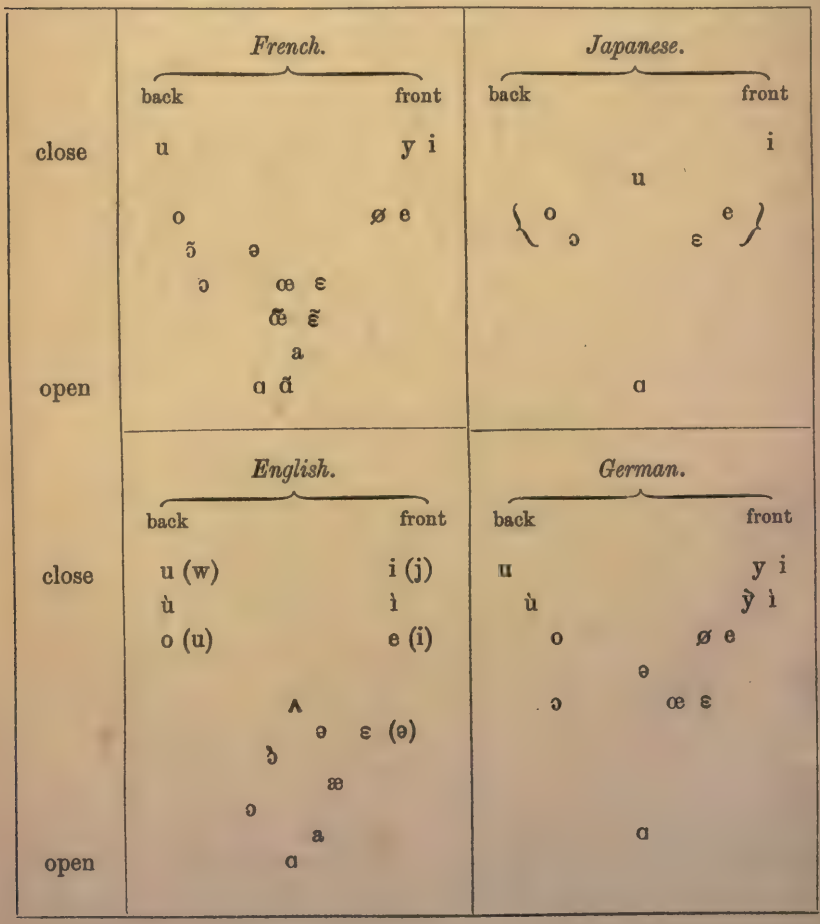
A point about the vowels you will notice at once by looking at that page of Japanese: there is a strong tendency for a vowel to be either whispered (marked with a comma underneath) or dropped when it stands between two breath consonants, or after *s* in a final syllable. Whisper in line 2 *koko*, and line 5 *tʃi tʃi*. In line 2 *çto* can also be written *ço̥to*, and

in line 12 *tske* can also be written *tsuke*. And the full form of the verb endings in line 1, *arimas*, and line 15, *furimas*, is *arimasu* and *furimasu*.

Perhaps the most important thing for English students to remember in Japanese phonetics is differentiation of meaning by *quantity*, and not only in the vowels, but also in the consonants: *ana* means 'a hole'; *anna* means 'such'; *me* means 'eye,' and *mme* 'plum-tree.' Here is a good additional example for the vowels: *tori*, 'bird'; *to:ri*, 'street'; *tori*:, 'a kind of gateway, without a gate, outside a temple.' And one warning at this point about the long vowels: they must be real long vowels, not the diphthongs which the Southern English always want to substitute for long vowels, or any final vowel, in another language. We have, most of us, heard the English schoolboy or schoolgirl say, 'S ei laə meim ʃouz,' for 'C'est la même chose.' Now, a Japanese, like a Frenchman or an Italian, does not change the tongue position during the course of a long vowel. When a Japanese wants to say the equivalent of 'thing-um-bob,' 'what's his name,' 'you know what I mean,' he says *ano ne*, and when he utters this thoughtfully, he prolongs that *ano-o-o-o-o* for ages, but it is always a pure vowel.

VOWEL SCHEME.

A Comparative Table of the Japanese, French, German, and English Vowels.



POSITION OF THE TONGUE FOR THE PRONUNCIATION OF THE JAPANESE VOWELS.

(This triangle is, of course, only a convenient fiction for phonetic purposes; I have made no attempt at physiological accuracy.)

EXAMPLES OF JAPANESE VOWELS.

Short Vowels.	Long Vowels.
ki, 'tree.'	*i:*, 'good.'
ke, 'hair.'	*e:yo*, 'the English language.'
ka, 'mosquito.'	*sa:*, 'now then!'
ko, 'child.'	*mo:*, 'more.'
ku, 'nine.'	*ku:*, 'to eat' (fressen).

THE JAPANESE CONSONANTS.

We can arrive at a sufficiently accurate transcription of spoken Japanese by using nineteen consonant symbols, or twenty if we write *tʃ* (or *tç*) as one sound, because the Japanese, like the Italian, seems to feel that his *tʃ* is a simple, rather than a compound sound.

All the usual Japanese consonants are to be found on that page of transcription except three: *p* is rare, *z* is infrequent; the third absentee, *g*, requires a special explanation. I am taking as my standard of Japanese pronunciation the educated speech of the capital, Tōkyō. But there is another variety of pronunciation which

is used by a great number of educated Japanese : it is that of the southern island, Kiushiu (*kju:ʃu:*). One of the chief differences is this : the southern speech has this missing *g* in many cases where the Tōkyō speech uses *ŋ*—*e.g.*, the nominative particle is *ŋa* in Tōkyō, and *ga* in the south.

If you examine that page of Japanese transcription, you will notice a good proportion of the familiar consonants; eighteen of them are given the same symbol as eighteen well-known English consonants in an English transcription. The most remarkable omission is the lateral consonant : there is no *l* in Japanese. The six plosives, *k, g, t, d, p, b,* are similar in English and Japanese, making allowance for certain differences in the 'basis of articulation,' a point I shall deal with a little later. Of the nasals, *m, n,* and *ŋ* are also similar to the English ordinary nasal consonants. The last, the sound in the final syllable of *tamaŋo* (egg), differs in this from English : it can begin a syllable. This may seem unimportant, but experiment will prove otherwise. We have the sound *ŋ* at the end of syllables in 'sing' and 'song,' but it will require a certain amount of practice before the average Englishman can pronounce the Japanese particle *ŋa.*

There is one more nasal sound to consider —the sound in the second *to:saŋ̊* in line 7 of the transcription. It is not only a difficult sound for foreigners to pronounce—it is a very difficult one for the phoneticians to analyze. Ask a Japanese to say his word for 'gold.' You will hear at once that his word *kiŋ̊* is something different from the more or less similar English group in *kiŋ* ('king'). You will find the French and the German grammars of Japanese equally misleading about this sound. The German cannot get nearer the truth than to tell you that the final sound of *kiŋ̊* is 'wie in Pfingsten'; but one Frenchman makes a reasonably good shot with '*n* finale a un son intermédiaire entre *n* sonore et *n* nasale française.' The sound is, I think, a variety of the breath counterpart of the voice *ŋ*, hence written *ŋ̊*, but with little or no after-sound (what is technically called the off-glide). This is one of the only three or four difficult sounds in Japanese. The first was the back vowel *u.* Of the Japanese fricative consonants, seven are not unlike the English ones represented by the same symbol. But the sound written *f* requires special attention ; the first sound of *futattsù* (one of the words for 'two') differs from the first sound of 'foot' in English by being pronounced with both lips, whereas the English sound is made, of course, between the upper teeth and the lower lip. Here, again, our worst guides are the Germans. One tells you 'ähnlich wie *h* aussprechen.' Another gets a trifle nearer with 'ein zwischen *h* und *f* mitteninne liegender Laut.' The Japanese *r* has certain features which are of interest to phoneticians, but for practical purposes the ordinary Southern English untrilled *r* of 'right' or 'wrong' is good enough.

A good practice-word for the Japanese sounds is *fuzisaŋ̊* (Fujiyama), in saying which the average Englishman contrives to make at least six phonetic howlers—*e.g.*, 'fjuwdzìsæn.'

A few words about intonation, stress, and glides.

Japanese is not a 'tone language,' like Chinese. Intonation is comparatively unimportant in Japanese. Words are not distinguished, as they are in Chinese, simply by a difference of tone.

Nor is Japanese a strongly stressed language, like English. An English sentence is a continuous succession of humps and hollows, alternations of strong stress and weak stress. In a Japanese sentence there is almost level-stress for each syllable throughout the sentence. But there is a gentle stress (nothing like

A Comparative Table of Consonants.

Japanese.

	Guttural.	Palatal. Back.	Palatal. Front.	Lingual.	Labial.
Plosive ...		k q		t d	p b
Nasal ...		ŋ̊ ŋ		n	m
Lateral ...					
Fricative ...	h		ç j	r(=ɹ) s z ʃ ʒ	f (=F) w

English (London and South).

	Guttural.	Palatal. Back.	Palatal. Front.	Lingual.	Labial.
Plosive ...		k q		t d	p b
Nasal ...		ŋ		n	m
Lateral ...				l	
Fricative ...	h		j	ɹ s z ʃ ʒ θ ð	f v w

French.

	Guttural.	Uvular.	Palatal. Back.	Palatal. Front.	Lingual.	Labial.
Plosive ...	[ʔ]		k q		t d	p b
Nasal ...				ɲ	n	m
Lateral ...					l	
Trilled ...		R			r	
Fricative ...	[h]	ʁ		j	s z ʃ ʒ	f v w ɥ

German.

	Guttural.	Uvular.	Palatal. Back.	Palatal. Front.	Lingual.	Labial.
Plosive ...	ʔ		k q		t d	p b
Nasal ...			ŋ		n	m
Lateral ...					l	
Trilled ...		R			r	
Fricative ...	h		x q	ç j	s z ʃ ʒ	f v

the violent English stress) connected with the long vowels, the diphthongs, and the long consonants, also with syllables ending in the nasal consonant *ŋ*.

Something must be said about glides, or we shall not understand the shape of certain English words which have become part of the Japanese language. During the past fifty years a very small number of common English words have been borrowed by the Japanese: ink of the European kind is called *iŋki*, books of the European kind are *bukku*, a shirt is *ʃatsu*, a railway tunnel is *tonneru*, a frock coat is *furokku ko:to*. Now for the phonetic explanation. Strictly speaking, every sound is made up of three parts: the first stage, when the organs of speech are getting into position for making the sound; the second stage, the principal one, when the required position has been reached; and then the third stage, when the organs are leaving that position. The first stage is called technically the on-glide, and the last stage the off-glide. The glides have before now played an important part in the history of language. A form 'pund' was pronounced by one group of people with a strong off-glide 'p(h)und,' by another group with a weak glide, with the result that in English we have the word 'pound,' and the German has 'pfund,' the glide having developed into a full sound. So also the on-glide of 'scribere' > 'iscrivre' > 'escrire > 'écrire.' Now to apply this to Japanese. As a rule, the Japanese consonants are followed by a strong off-glide, with the result that final consonants are not common in Japanese. The glide in Japanese develops into a vowel following the consonant. Hence, ink becomes *iŋki*, etc. This was equally true ages ago in Japan, when they borrowed *kok* and *dok* from Chinese, and made them *koku* (country) and *doku* (poison). The additional sounds in *iŋki*, *ko:to*, *bukku* are pretty instances of 'vocalic harmony.'

A word or two about the general tendencies of the Japanese sound-system, and we can leave phonetics behind. Every language has certain general tendencies which govern its organic movements and positions, constituting its 'basis of articulation.' In English we flatten, lower, hollow, and draw back the tongue, and move the lips as little as possible. In French the tongue is arched, raised, and advanced, and the lips articulate with energy. The Japanese characteristics are as follows: the tongue is (1) raised, (2) advanced, (3) flattened, (4) the muscles of the tongue are, as a rule, slack, (5) the lips remain as often as possible in the neutral position, and (6) the corners of the mouth are kept slightly apart, often leaving a slit just wide enough to show the teeth. As a result of these tendencies, rounded sounds are scarce, the closure of the labials is often incomplete, and dentilabials are not used. It is probable that both Japanese and English lose in clearness and distinctness, as compared with French, by the comparative inactivity of the lips. The back of the tongue in Japanese appears to be specially slow in its movements, while the front of the tongue changes position with special ease and rapidity. The vertical movements of the tongue are distinct and well-marked, in this respect very different from English, as we can notice by comparing the long vowels in the two languages. All these tendencies make Japanese a phonetically supple language, but less distinct (to foreign ears) and less easy to follow than, say, French or Italian.

One very last word about the phonetics of Japanese. There is a certain English learned society which interests itself in things Japanese. On the cover of its publications one always found the following phonetic instructions for the transliteration of Japanese: 'The vowels as in

Italian, the consonants as in English.' I make no comment here, because my remarks might be rude.

The Grammar of the Japanese Language.

I do not propose to deal here with the difficulties of the Japanese written language. The system of writing remains practically the same as it was a thousand years ago: it is a mixed system founded on the Chinese ideographs (the Chinese language is said to contain some 80,000 separate characters), which are used partly in their full form with their proper ideographic signification, partly in abbreviated forms having phonetic values. The written Japanese language is a dialect partly antiquated, partly artificial, whose grammar differs very considerably from that of the spoken language. Try to imagine modern English, with a sprinkling of King Alfred's vocabulary, with some of the etymology and syntax of Chaucer, and spelt like Malory or Spenser in antiquarian moods, and you are at least in the proper frame of mind for understanding the difficulties of modern written Japanese.

I shall only concern myself, in the grammatical notes that follow, with the grammar of spoken Japanese, and with only a very small part of that—sufficient, perhaps, to get a rough idea of the linguistic mechanism of our page of transcription.

That great man, Henry Sweet (in my opinion the greatest Englishman in his province of knowledge), said: 'Phonetics (and psychology) are only preparations for the science of language; language and grammar are concerned, not with form and meaning separately, but with the connections between them, these being the real phenomena of language.' I shall follow Sweet's advice, and give you now the meaning of the page of transcription. And please remember not to criticize it because it is childish: it is part of a story written for little girls, and is meant to be childish.

Translation of the Page of Transcription.

The Mirror[1] *of Matsuyama.*

In the province of Echigo[2] there is a place called Matsuyama (Pine Mountain). The hot springs[3] here are well known, and attract a good many visitors, who come to bathe, especially in the summer, so that Matsuyama is a prosperous place.

Long, long ago there lived in this Pine Mountain a girl whose name was Matsu. Matsu was only a little girl when her father had to go to Kyōto[4] on business. Holding her mother's hand, Matsu was taken outside the door to see her father go off. 'Daddy, daddy,' she said, 'if I'm a very good little girl you'll buy me a nice present, won't you?' Her father replied: 'Well, be a good girl, and wait and see.'[5] When Matsu's mother said,[6] 'Please come back as soon as you can,' the father answered: 'Very well, and you must see that you don't get ill; I know you will take care that no harm comes to Matsu, and that proper precautious are taken against fire[7] and burglars.' And after saying these words he departed. The mother and Matsu stood and watched the father together so long as he remained in sight. From time to time the father turned round and waved his handkerchief, the mother also waved her handkerchief, and Matsu struck her hands together.[8]

Notes on the Translation.

[1] The Japanese are very fond of any little play on words with a double meaning, here 'mirror' and 'model.'

[2] Echigo is a province on the west coast, opposite Corea.

[3] A place where there are hot springs. Bathing in painfully hot water is a very favourite medical treatment in Japan. I believe rheuma-

tism is far less frequently suffered than in England.

[4] Kyōto was the capital of Japan in those days.

[5] This is an improvement on the English political phrase, which omits any reference to being good first.

[6] 'Say-when' in the word-for-word translation has nothing to do with a certain form of hospitality in our country. This form is the equivalent of the present subjunctive, but has both the meanings of 'if I say' and 'when I say.'

[7] Fires are very frequent, because most of the houses are made of wood.

[8] This kind of clapping the hands is not a sign of joy in Japan.

The Particles.

I believe there is a former Cabinet Minister's authority for asking what 'those damned little dots' meant. If I were in your place I should begin by asking a similar question about the little *p*'s sprinkled all over that page of transcription. I shall therefore deal with them first. My little *p* stands for *particle*. And the particle is a very useful and very cunning thing in Japanese. It has all these functions:

(i.) It marks the syntactic relations between the noun and the verb. That is, it is the equivalent of a declension in the Latin grammar sense. But it shows the same advantage over Latin that modern English has—viz., isolation.

No marks the genitive (line 1 of transcription), *o* (or *wo*) marks the accusative (line 6). The initial *o* in *o-matsu* is something quite different (see later). *ya* generally marks the nominative (line 1).

Wa (line 2, better example in line 6) draws attention to the subject or to the object—*i.e.*, it is generally an emphatic nominative, or, less frequently, an emphatic accusative.

The vocative is marked by *jo* or *ja*. There are no instances on that page.

Ni marks (*a*) the dative, as in line 11, 'injury to Matsu.' (*b*) It also marks the locative, or is the equivalent of our prepositions 'in' or 'at' (line 1). (*c*) It can also show the logical subject of a passive verb—*e.g.*, if I rode my bicycle at night without a light I should probably have to say *zuʃsa ni ʃikarareməʃta*, 'I was scolded by the policeman' (*zuʃsa*).

(ii.) There is the second common use, already noticed, where particles or postpositions are the equivalent of our English prepositions: *kara* (line 8), *e* (line 5), *made* (line 7), etc.

(iii.) The particles correspond also to our English conjunctions: *to* (and), *ni* (and), *ja* (or), *mo* (also), *ba* (if, when), *ga* (but), etc.

(iv.) There are enclitic particles, with various functions: *to* marks a quotation. Notice the end of the speeches in lines 8, 9, 10, 12.

De is a sort of herald that precedes certain verbs, as in line 3. *De* has also other uses.

(v.) *O-*, *go-*, *mi-* have been called the 'honorific' particles.

O- often marks the second person: *tʃa* is 'tea,' specially 'my tea,' but 'your tea' is *o-tʃa*.

Ladies' names in Japan begin with the polite *o-* (*e.g.*, *o-matsu* in our text).

You notice how polite Matsu and her mother are when they address the father; *mijaye* is 'a present,' but the father's present is spoken of as *o-mijaye* (line 8). So in line 10 *hajaku* and *kairinasai* become *o-hajaku*, *o-kairinasai*.

This explains a few of the difficulties of the particle, and you have already covered a very important part of Japanese grammar.

Next, look at the beautiful simplicity of the Japanese *nouns* (line 1, *kuni*, *jama*, *tokoro*).

(*a*) Japanese shares this advantage with Latin: there are *no articles*, no 'le,' 'la,' no 'der,' 'die,' 'das,' to bother about.

(*b*) There is *no gender* to think about. Japanese scores here over Latin, French, German, etc.

(*c*) There is *no number* to think about. (A very, very few words have a separate form for the plural.) If you need to insist on plurality, you can of course say there are two or twenty, or many or few.

It is a mark of *progress in language* when you can express an idea with the least effort, and when it is not necessary to burden the sentence with the obvious, or what should be obvious to an intelligent person. Latin is, of course, one of the worst sinners in this respect, with its wearisome reminders of gender, number, and case.

The Verb.

In certain directions there is the same wonderful economy of effort, and the same flattering avoidance of the obvious or the unnecessary:

(*a*) There is only one form for all the persons: *jomu* can mean 'I read,' 'thou readest,' 'he reads,' 'she reads,' 'we read,' 'you read,' 'they read.'

It will be noticed that there is only one personal pronoun in all that page (*omai*, in line 11). The personal pronouns are only used in Japanese when there is some special reason for using them.

(*b*) But when we come to the second point about the verbs, to tense and mood, we have done with simplicity in Japanese. The Japanese verb is in this respect extraordinarily complex, and can convey as many delicate shades of meaning as modern English or ancient Greek. There are at least eighty simple or compound tenses possible for an ordinary Japanese verb. This astounding number calls for some explanation. There are, first of all, the simple tenses formed by root + one verbal ending. These might be called the 'crude' forms. Take the root *jom-* or *jon-* ('to read'). *Jomu* means 'I read,' 'he reads,' etc., and also 'I shall read.' The ending *-da* or *-ta* gives the simple past tense: *jonda* ('I did read'), *kita* ('I came'). *Jomo:* is the future tense, but it is a future with a special additional meaning: 'I shall probably read,' or 'I have the intention to read.' *Jomeba* ('if I read,' or 'when I read'), like *ijeba* in line 10. These are examples of the simplest forms. Then come a series of negative forms: *jomanai*, *ikanai*, like *wazuwawanai de* in line 11.

There is a series of tenses with *jomi-* + the ending *-mas* or *-masu* for present and future, and + *-majta* for the past, like *utjimajta* in the last line of our text.

There are also tenses formed by combining *jomi-* or *jomu-* with certain auxiliary or primitive verbs, with *aru* ('to be'), with *naru* ('to become'). Further, the present participle and gerundive form *jonde-* can combine (*a*) with *iru* and *oru*, meaning 'to be'; and (*b*) with *∫imau*, meaning 'to finish.'

There are causative forms, *jomaseru* ('to cause to read'). The form *saseru* in line 11 is the causative of *suru* ('to do').

And, finally, there are passive forms which have the curious double meaning in Japanese, *jomaremajta* ('has been read,' or 'has been able to read').

With all these permutations and combinations you will see that it is easy to arrive at eighty or ninety tenses for a single Japanese verb. As to the uses of some of these alternative forms. When are we to use *jonda* and when *jomimajta*, which both have the same meaning? In a general way, it is a safe rule in Japanese that the longer the verb form is, the more polite or the more elegant it is. The number of 'crude' verb forms in that page of transcription is less than the number of longer forms combined with *-mas*, etc.: line 1 *arimas* (instead of *aru*), line 5 *arimajta*. The examples to be found in the last line of our text need not be taken too seriously as showing the need in Japan also for giving the vote to women—*furimas*, the longer or polite form for the husband's waving,

and *furi*, the 'crude' form, when the poor wife does it.

A word about Japanese *adjectives*. Many adjectives are a sort of verb; *akai* ('red') can become *akakatta* ('it was red'); *kuroi* ('black'), *kurokatta* ('it was black'). There was something of this kind in Latin; *cf. albēre* ('albente cœlo').

There are also indeclinable adjectives, mainly words borrowed from Chinese, like *fufiyi* ('strange'). These are followed by the particle *na* whenever they are epithets. Or you can form adjectives by adding the genitive particle *no* to another part of speech—*e.g.*, *Furaŭsu* ('France') *furaŭsu no* ('French'). We have examples of two kinds of adjectives in our text—line 2 *nadakai*, line 6 *tʃi:saku* (from *tʃi:sai*), and *niyijaka na* in line 3.

Adverbs are most often formed by adding *-ku* to the root form of the adjective: *otonafi:* ('good,' 'obedient,' etc.) gives in line 7 *otonafku* ('obediently,' or 'good-temperedly'). Also *hajai* ('quick') gives *hajaku* in line 10.

We have not covered the whole of Japanese grammar by a very long way, but we have covered most of the more important things necessary for understanding our page of Japanese. I have not dwelt on the highly important point of *word-order* because the word-for-word translation under our text explains itself.

If you wish to go further in Japanese grammar I can recommend strongly the following book: *A Handbook of Colloquial Japanese*, by Basil Hall Chamberlain (Fourth Edition, 1907, or any later edition).

What can I say to advertise the value and beauty of Japanese grammar? It is no use trying to compete with the old firm in England. Here is a well-known and deservedly popular English headmaster writing in a well-known handbook for teachers published by the press of a well-known English University: 'Once (a person) has mastered (this language) he will master French, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, or any Modern Language of the Romance family in a quarter of the time he would otherwise require. . . . It is impossible to thoroughly understand English, not only literary English, but the ordinary English of everyday life, without a knowledge of (this language). . . . Of formal grammar English has next to none; Dr. Johnson was able to dismiss it in ten lines. . . . There is no training which is so well calculated to produce in a boy precision of thought and strict accuracy of statement as (this language). In every word that he writes he can make, as a rule, three or more mistakes. . . . Of all languages that can be studied with a view to the formal discipline of the mind, (this language) is recognized as the best. Many argue that (other languages) would be just as efficient, but their contention has never been practically demonstrated. (This language) is, in fact, unequalled as as instrument for the formal discipline of the mind.'

A certain 'Callisthenes' in our London press might undertake it for me, but I cannot compete with this myself. I should like to have been able to say, once and for all, that the study of Japanese grammar was the only sure road to heaven. But I cannot help thinking that the patient British public has already been asked to swallow too much nonsense about language study. After all, why not take a language on its own merits? Language is the expression of thought by means of speech-sounds. Does Japanese express thought sufficiently clearly, effectively, and economically, and has it got speech-sounds? All this is quite satisfactory in Japanese. I prefer myself to regard the grammar of a language as, to a large extent, the accumulated result of the intelligence and commonsense of the nation speaking that language. I have always dared to think that certain

German peasant dialects, with their simplified grammar, showed far more intelligence than official German. But in language the people are generally ahead of the schoolmasters. It is an age-long battle between commonsense and tradition or the pedant. It is possible that the Japanese have a certain advantage in this respect in their form of writing. Their writing is mainly ideographic; it expresses an idea, and leaves the living person to find the word and to pronounce it. Our English system gives the shape of the word, and, if it tells you anything about the pronunciation, it mostly tells you how the word might possibly have been pronounced some centuries ago. There is, perhaps, less chance in Japanese of arrest of phonetic development and arrest of progress in language. In many directions the grammar of Japanese shows the marks of intelligent handling by an intelligent people. I ask, therefore, that you should not despise, or even think less of, an Oriental language because its machinery is different from ours, or even if it dares to improve on Latin. Japanese is the language of a very highly civilized race, from whom we in the West have much to learn.

Now, what is this language? To what family of languages does Japanese belong? I have thought over this problem myself for at least twenty years. I regret to say I have only arrived at the stage of being dissatisfied with the statements or guesses which other people have made. We have at last in London (fancy waiting until 1917!) a School of Oriental Languages. If there is a student there who is in search of a life's work, and very hard work, let him investigate the affinities of Japanese from 666 B.C. to A.D. 1917. His financial reward is likely to be—nothing. Is there any connection with Chinese? I think the right answer is that, strictly speaking, there is no linguistic connection. Many words have been borrowed from Chinese, just as English has borrowed from a score of languages. But it is the mechanism of a language chiefly, and not its vocabulary, that makes for linguistic classification. I think this probably accounts for at least one of the mistakes made by my friend whom I have quoted above. I don't think he had clearly in his mind the essential difference between a dictionary and a grammar. Chinese is a strictly 'isolating' language which makes marvellously ingenious use of intonation and word order. Japanese is not a tone-language. Intonation is almost unimportant in Japanese, and it 'isolates' only to about the same extent as modern English does. Some writers have suggested a connection between Japanese and the Ural Altaic languages, others between Japanese and Malay, but I do not see myself the slightest resemblance. Does the Japanese language stand alone in a linguistic class by itself? No. There is, first of all, a dialect which broke itself off and developed more or less independently for some centuries—viz., Loochooan, the language of the Loochoo Islands, south of Japan. The connection will be obvious from a single sentence. 'It is a fine day to-day,' is in Japanese: *kjo: wa i: teŋki des(u)*, and in Loochooan: *tʃu ja i: tintʃi dɛ:biru.*

There is probably a remote connection between Japanese and Corean, although the connection on the vocabulary side is not clear now. Here is a Corean sentence:

tʃɔ:sɔnan sarame wibɔiki mimpitʃ ijolsida, kat kwa sinul pɔi miʌn ta: isaŋhɔis pɔi.

Which means: 'The Corean men wear white clothes, and this, together with the hats and the shoes they wear, all seems very strange to us.' There is nothing to suggest Japanese words in this sentence, but there is a certain

similarity in word-order, and in other parts of the linguistic mechanism.

Mr. Chamberlain has proved for us the existence of Ainu words in Japanese place-names, but there is no trace of the aboriginal Ainu influence in the Japanese language proper.

I am prepared to learn some day that there was at one time a connection between Japanese and some of the older Aryan languages. I do not find myself that the differences between the mechanism of Japanese and that of some of the older Aryan languages are greater than, say, the differences between modern English and Celtic, making due allowance for an independent development of perhaps 2,000 to 3,000 years. As to the vocabulary, I have found a reasonable connection between scores of words, but I have never arrived at a 'law,' and therefore my isolated words may be mere chance resemblances.

A last word or two. Lest the little piece we have studied should give a very false impression that Japanese is a childish language, let me finish with a few lines from a modern Japanese novel, called *Konʤiki Jaſa* (*The Golden Devil*). It will show descriptive and picturesque work of a very different kind:

Utſikasumitaru sora nayara tsuki no iro wa nioi koboruru jo: ni te, honozoroki umi wa çjo:bjo: to ſite kayiri o ſiraku, tatoeba muzaki naru jume o ſikeru ni nitari; josete wa kaesu nami no oto mo nemuye ni okotarite.

An approximate but free English equivalent is this: 'The spring mist crept over the sky; the colour of the moon was such that it seemed to give forth a sweet smell; the mighty expanse of ocean in whitish waves stretched away as if to unknowable eternity. To what shall we liken it all? It was like the dream of a soul that had never sinned. Moreover, the sound of the waves as they come and go is as if they were weary and would sleep.'

I think this is a good word to finish with.

E. R. Edwards.

AN ESSAY ON DIGRAPHS.

If we had to explain to an intelligent visitor from Mars the mechanism by which our books convey to their readers the thoughts committed to them by the authors, I suppose the first thing to say would be, that having resolved our spoken words into their component sounds and allotted a visible sign to each, we combine these into groups to be used as symbols for the words as wholes. Imperfect though the application may be through the inconsistent use of the signs for other sounds than their own, yet the undoubted principle at the bottom is *one sound one sign*. In other words, the Alphabet is phonetic. We have a confused way of speaking of Pitman's and other *phonetic* alphabets, as if the European Alphabet were not so. In reality of course it is so; only, from long neglect it has so fallen away from grace and out of harmony with the principle on which it is based as partly to justify the slur. But the first qualification to be added to this principle would be that many of the sounds are alternatively denoted, not only by signs belonging to others, but by combinations of two of them, while some in particular, having no sign of their own, are denoted in that way only. The principle *one sound one sign* is supplemented by a practice, hardly to be called a principle, of denoting one sound by two signs, which when separately used have their

own duties to perform, but when thus used in combination are called a Digraph. A Digraph may be defined as a sequence of two letters standing not for a sequence of two speech-sounds but for one only. If the name is rare enough to justify definition, rarity is certainly no attribute of the thing, for our books are full of it. Take for instance those few words last written. *Th* and *ng* in *thing* are Digraphs for simple sounds having no signs of their own, *ll* in *full* is a Digraph for a simple sound sufficiently represented by one *l*, and *ou* and *oo* in *our* and *books* are Digraphs standing, the one for what I must at present call a Diphthong, though, for reasons given in a previous article, I regard it as a unit of speech and prefer the term Slide-vowel, and the other for a simple vowel-sound sometimes spelt, as in *full*, with a *u*, to which letter it properly belongs, but more often as here with the doubled *o*. Here, then, are five Digraphs in six consecutive words; and as *are*, according to whether the *r* is sounded or not, is either a Trigraph or contains one more, we may fairly say there is one for each. Evidently Digraphs are as common as dirt, and perhaps not quite unlike it in other ways; but as they form so large a feature of our books, and I do not know where the facts can be found assembled in a convenient form, it may be worth while to put them together here as material for the subsequent discussion, with an apology for the familiarity of much that has to be said. First, however, a word further in the way of definition. Those Digraphs which, like *ou* in *our*, stand for Diphthongs, have commonly been called Diphthongs, but less so in recent times, when it has been realised that for clear ideas on the subject the additional term Digraph, first used apparently by Thomas Sheridan at the end of the eighteenth century, is indispensable as a name for the visible signs, while Diphthong is reserved for the sounds exclusively. Especially has this loose use been applied to the two forms *æ* and *œ*, in which two letters are joined to make a single type; but these, though clearly Digraphs of a kind, are best distinguished from the ordinary kind, in which the two letters remain separate, under the name of Ligatures. Diphthongs they assuredly are not, for these are not marks on paper but movements of the air of that kind which we call sounds.

Under these definitions we will now shortly consider:

1. The chief Digraphs appearing in English books and their uses.
2. Their history, but only in the barest outline.
3. Their practical effects on the Alphabet and on our books.
4. The theoretical aspects of the subject and its bearing on reform of spelling.

1. Taking first the Digraphs which stand for vowels; a very numerous kind is that which consists of two vowel-signs and stands for any one of several sounds, for Digraphs are not more consistently used than single letters. Take, for instance, *ea*, in *great, meat, bear, head, earth*, and *hearth; ie* in *fiend, friend, vied*, and *envied; ou* in *cough, couch, touch, group, soul*, and *journal; oo* in *brooch, food*, and *good; oi* in *toil, choir*, and *tortoise*. Some of the sounds so denoted are short, but most are long, as also are those in *fair, fail, fault, feel, veil, ceiling, boat*, and *broad*. In this class are the doubled vowel-signs, of which *ee* and *oo* are common and *aa* is rare, and which are also sometimes used for short sounds, as in *Isaac, coffee*, and *good*. In many words, though the two vowel-signs are separated by a consonant, yet they work together for the notation of a single sound, as for example in *bane, eve, dine, bone, tune, syne*, while in *have, live*, and *love* the sound so denoted is short. To the possible objection that these do not

fall within the definition the reply is, that a sequence of two letters is not necessarily an immediate sequence; and if that reply will not serve, then the definition must be amended, for the Digraphic action of the letters is an undoubted fact. In some cases it appears to hold even where two consonants intervene, as in *haste* compared with *hast*, but here there may perhaps be room for doubt. This kind may be, and I dare say have been, called split Digraphs. In his book on ' Race and Language ' (1894), Professor André Lefèvre states that ' the alphabet of the Javanese is agreeable to the eye and points to a true sense of art among them; but their representation of the vowels is very singular; to give only one example: the sound of *o* is expressed by the characters of which one precedes and the other follows the consonant.' A singular method, no doubt, but not in the sense of unique; and it was, perhaps, to spare our feelings that Professor Lefèvre refrained from pointing to other examples of it much nearer home. Or was it merely that habit made him insensible to the beam in our eye and that of France, where this kind of Digraph is equally familiar, while quick enough to discern the mote in the eye of Siam? Except the split variety, there is an element of reason in this first class of Digraphs to be hereafter noticed, but for a second class, used for the notation of vowels, but compounded of vowel and consonant signs, no such justification can be urged. Familiar examples are *aw*, *ew*, and *ow*; *ay*, *ey*, *oy*, and *uy*, as in *flaw*, *flew*, *flow*, *flay*, *prey*, *boy*, and *buy*. It may, perhaps, be said that in these uses the *w* and *y* are vowel-signs and not consonantal, but if so, these Digraphs are none the less superfluous additions to the numerous vowel-digraphs already mentioned. Equally familiar, though less obvious, are the combinations of vowel-signs with the letter *r*. In many words where this is silent in Southern English it is not dead but sleeping, and its presence serves not only to distinguish them in print from others, but also to indicate a different sound in the preceding vowel. For example, take *cat* and *cart*, *fen* and *fern*, *spit* and *spirt*, *cod* and *cord*, *bun* and *burn*, in every second of which the *r*, silent itself, makes a Digraph with the vowel-sign for the notation of a different vowel, and is popularly so regarded. As a question apart from their history, there is no need in the notation of vowels to resort to such combinations as these, there being plenty of vowel Digraphs without them. It is to be noticed, however, that these remarks apply only to those varieties of English in which *r*, when preceding a consonant, has become silent. Those who still pronounce the *r* in such positions have, of course, good reason for writing it, and to them it is not a case of a Digraph at all. They may also reasonably contend that since the *r* was pronounced not long ago by all, and is still pronounced by many, the letter ought not to be dropped even on a reform of spelling. And in this they would probably be right, since the sound has hardly so far disappeared as to make its retention a matter of Dialect. But whether the *r* were retained in the spelling or not, the vowel of *cart* being different from that of *cat* ought to be differently spelt, and so also with the others.

To turn now to the Digraphs used for consonantal sounds, and first those that stand for sounds otherwise undenoted, there are five such sounds in English, those in *thy*, *thigh*, *azure*, *ash*, and *-ing*. In three of these the *h* has the effect of indicating a different sound in the preceding *t* and *s*, and though we did not choose it for ourselves, probably no better choice could have been made for the purpose than that of *h*, because its sound, being mere breath, is the least articulate of all speech-sounds, and also because it

rarely occurs except at the beginning of a word, which reduces the chances of ambiguity. Compound words such as *hot-house*, *whip-hand*, are, however, only saved from ambiguity by the hyphen, and where this is dropped, as in *uphold*, *mishap*, *misshapen*, *potheen*, *posthumous*, *Ightham*, *Bosham*, *Horsham*, *Gomshall*, and many similar words and names, ambiguity at once arises, no one being able to tell at first sight whether the *th*, *ph*, and *sh* are digraphic or not. In the Oxford Dictionary it is noted that mispronunciations have consequently arisen, such as *Eve-sham* and *Peter-sham* for *Eves-ham* and *Peters-ham*. The digraphic use of *h* is, therefore, objectionable, though other letters would probably have been worse. A further objection to it is that it gives rise to an idea that the consonants of *thy*, *thigh*, *phial*, and *shy*, are in some way really compounds of *h* with *t*, *p*, and *s*. Such an idea is false, and in reality our conventional uses of *th* would be closely paralleled if, having no signs for the sounds of *f* and *v*, we were to write *pw* for both. The *h* of these Digraphs, though it takes the form of a letter, is in essence nothing but a diacritic or distinguisher to indicate that instead of the usual sound, a different sound, or in the case of *th* one of two different sounds, is to be given to the preceding *t*, *p*, or *s*. In each case the variant is allied to the proper sound of the letter; but one of the sounds of *th* is more nearly allied to that of *d*, for which reason it would be an improvement to use *dh* for the consonant of *thy*, reserving *th* for that of *thigh*, as has often been proposed, and similarly *sh* and *zh* for those of *shy* and *azure*, instead of a great variety of spellings now in use.

h rather than *g* should have been used with *n* for the sound now denoted by *ng*. The sounds of *g* follow that of *n* often enough in such words as *engage*, *ungrateful*, *danger*, so that there is frequently doubt whether the two letters are digraphic or not. Who could confidently say whether a name *Langer* would rime with *anger*, *hanger* or *danger*? And here, again, there is a vague but deep-rooted idea in many minds that the sounds of *n* and *g* are in some way compounded in such words as *sing*, *doing*, *linger*. But, in fact, the consonant written *ng* is a third nasal, not more like *n* than *m*, but differing from both, as they differ from each other, in the place at which the breath is stopped from issuing by the mouth; and our present notation of it would be exactly paralleled if, having no letter for the sound of *m*, we were to write it *nb*. The only relation between the sounds written *ng* and *g* is, that being produced in the same part of the mouth, they are easily uttered together, as also are *m* with *b* and *n* with *d*. Good words for testing this are *bumble*, *bundle*, and *bungle*, the last of which, like *longest* the adjective as opposed to *longest* the verb, would be more logically written with two *g*'s. The false belief arising from this bad notation may possibly have helped in causing the wrongful sounding of a *g* after *ng* which occurs in some Dialects of the Midlands, where Milton's well-known lines are pronounced:

> 'There let the pealing Gorgon blow
> To the full-voiced choir below. . . .'

Another class of consonantal Digraph is the doubled letter, which rarely indicates what it ought, a doubling or lengthening of its sound. Consonants are divided into explosives and continuants, the latter of which can be doubled by simply prolonging the sound, and in a few cases this is done, as in *wholly* and *fineness* compared with *holy* and *finis*. Such words, and such only, are reasonably spelt with the double letter. Explosive consonants involve, as their name implies, the release of breath after a momentary stoppage with more or less of a puff. Their doubling would, therefore, mean a double explosion, which does

not in fact occur even where theoretically it ought, in such sequences of words as *lamp-post*, *book-case*, *ought to*, much less in such words as *happy* and *attack*. Evidently, then, consonants are far more liable to be halved than doubled, and the doubling of the sign is in most cases unreasonable. But while it so rarely serves its proper purpose, there are other uses to which it is put as strange as they are familiar. One of these is the indication of shortness in the preceding vowel, as in *latter* and *marry* compared with *later* and *Mary*. So far are we from that tense of length of syllable which made the ancient Greeks and Romans treat a short one as being lengthened by two consonants or one doubled one succeeding the vowel, that we regard the doubling as having, if any, exactly the opposite effect. But the true view is that with us it has no effect at all. Not representing any modification of the consonant, the doubling of the letter does not affect the length of the syllable in one way or the other, and is only the indicator of shortness in the vowel, not its cause. Another use of the doubling is to show the incidence of stress. To write *reppelent* for *repellent* would be taken to indicate a wish to throw the stress back on to the first syllable, and *harass* and *parallel* always look as if they ought to have it on the second, *apparel* on the first. But these two rules of spelling, if rules they are, are no more consistently carried out than others. *Cat*, *gas*, *bass*, *roll*, *staff*, and many such words, violate the first; *attack*, *ally*, *harass*, and *parallel* the second; while *valid*, *second*, *pity*, *moral*, and *punish*, violate both at once. To some extent the two are in conflict. When Tennyson in his "Northern Farmer" wrote *proputty* for *property*, he no doubt intended to show not stress but shortness in the second syllable; but as this is already short, the spelling looks as if it indicated a misplaced stress on it—as if the second and third were to be sounded like *putty*. No wonder he complained of his tools and sighed for reform, and in his case the complaint was emphatically not that of the bad workman. Nothing but habit prevents our regarding both these uses as extremely odd, amounting as they do to ingenious but very roundabout methods of spelling vowel-sounds by consonantal letters. One other effect of doubling may be worth noticing. It is in some degree a guarantee that the sound denoted is the proper sound of the letter and no other. Thus, *hiss* has the true sound of *s* where *his* has not, and *off* preserves that of *f* while *of* has lost it. But the rule fails in *scissors*, *mission*, and many other words, and is probably broken as often as observed.

To go quickly through the chief remaining Digraphs, *ch* in its common use in *char* cannot correctly be reckoned among them, because it stands not for a single sound but for a sequence of two, not, however, those of the two letters, but those of *t* and the Digraph *sh*. It is, therefore, an abbreviation, useful in substituting two letters for three, and makes a pair with the still more useful *j*, which does by itself the work of the three letters *dzh*. But in its other use in *chemist* and *chorus*, *ch* is a true Digraph for the sound otherwise denoted by *c*, *k*, *q*, and the Digraphs *cc*, *ck*, and *cq*, and that sound being already so well provided for, it is more than ordinarily superfluous and unjustifiable except on historic grounds. *Gh* and sometimes *gu*, as in *ghost* and *guest*, are Digraphs indicating 'hardness' in *g*, which otherwise before *i* and *e* may or may not be 'soft'—that is, denote another and compound sound, not even remotely allied to its own, that of *dzh* or *j*. *Gh* also sometimes, like *ph*, stands for the sound of *f*. *Wh* is not a Digraph proper, but stands for the sounds of the two letters in reversed order, a curious

instance of putting the waggon before the horse. Before the Conquest the horse came first, but the Norman scribes, imperfectly acquainted with English, and probably as much disliking aspirates as Frenchmen do now, preferred to put it behind. Dr. Bridges, the Poet Laureate, in his recent book on *The Present State of the Pronunciation of English*, states that 'the old spelling (*i.e.*, *wh*) is quite reasonable'; and if it be true, as I have somewhere seen it put, that 'neither sound is heard before the other,' he is clearly right. But if, as the Anglo-Saxons seem to have thought when they spelt it *hw*, the *h* comes first—an opinion in which I cordially agree—it would be as reasonable to write *rcy* for *cry*. Though this is no true Digraph, evidently, as the letters do not stand for their proper sounds in proper order, there is a digraphic element in its nature, and it might be thought that our definition should be modified to include such cases as this and *ch* in *char*, with the split Digraphs; but perhaps if it is clear what things we are dealing with, we need not trouble further with the definition of their name. In Southern English this *h* preceding *w* is very generally dropped.

2. The histories of the more important Digraphs may be found in the Oxford Dictionary, and I do not propose to take here more than a cursory view of the origins of this method of denoting sounds by combinations of more or less inappropriate signs, my purpose being rather to examine their fitness for the purposes which they serve. Generally regarded, they are clearly seen to spring from two sources, the natural and the artificial. The majority have resulted from the continual contraction undergone by words through the decay and loss of sounds, unaccompanied by shrinkage of the spelling. *Creature*, in which *ea* is now Digraphic, was pronounced by Chaucer in three syllables (unless the final *e* made a fourth), as we still pronounce *create* with two. *Intention* was spelt by him *entencioun* and scanned as four syllables. Now, though the four syllables remain in spelling, three only are pronounced, and the last of these is a syllable without a vowel, the *n* being syllabic, while the *ti* here, as in many other words, has become a Digraph for the sound of *sh*. In *Extension*, *si* serves the same purpose. The phonetic shank of these and thousands of our words has shrunk, leaving the hose of letters a world too wide, and our language does not fill its clothes. The great majority of our Vowel-Digraphs have arisen in this way, and represent sequences of vowel sounds which have coalesced since the spelling was fixed.

The artificial Digraph appears to have been invented by the Romans, or perhaps by the Greeks of Italian cities, when they incorporated Greek words into written Latin. In some of these occurred the Greek Theta, a foreign sound having no character in the Latin Alphabet, and we may take this as a typical case. Why they should not have adopted the sign with the sound, as they did adopt *y* and *z*, is not apparent. There being no printing press in those days, they had but to write it. Presumably, they had the same misplaced reverence for their Alphabet as we have now, and were dominated by the idea, not peculiar to themselves, that new signs could not or must not be invented, nor even imported from an Alphabet manifestly of the same origin as their own. At all events, they denoted the sound by *th*, whether because they wrongly analysed it into the sounds of those two letters, or, as is less likely, because they advisedly adopted the *h* for an indicator, as being the letter least likely to lead to ambiguity in that use. It is interesting to note that the modern Greeks, confronted with a similar problem, have solved it in the same way. It is stated by Professor Giles in the *Encyclo-*

pædia Britannica that words which in Classical Greek were pronounced with a *d*, and consequently spelt with a Delta, are now pronounced with the consonant of *thy*, so that the Delta, retained in the spelling, has come to denote that sound instead of the sound of *d*. But the sound of *d* having apparently not vanished from the language, there was therefore need of a sign to represent it, and the invention of new signs being beyond the wit of modern Greece, the Digraph *nt* was adopted for the purpose. Probably it answers none too well, because the sounds of the two letters occur often enough in succession, and there may therefore be a good deal of resulting ambiguity, but otherwise this Digraph is as good as any of our own. To return however to the origin of these, it is likely, as asserted in the Oxford Dictionary, that the Romans, while denoting by *th* the sound of the Greek Theta in words adopted from the Greek, did not actually use it much in speech, but in the end, at all events, pronounced *theatrum* with two *t*'s, just as the French now pronounces *théâtre*. If this was so, it accounts for the fact that when the Roman Alphabet was applied to Anglo-Saxon speech by St. Augustine and his monks, the Digraph *th* was not at first used for the consonants of *thy* and *thigh*, with which it had to their ears no apparent connection. Instead of this, by a daring stroke of genius they imported into the Roman Alphabet the letter Thorn, something like a tailed *b*, by which those sounds, or one of them, were denoted in the Runic Alphabet which here preceded it; and, in addition, modified the Roman *d* by crossing it like a *t*, to serve the same purpose. Had they used these two signs consistently for the two sounds the solution of the problem would have been practically perfect, but scholars of Anglo-Saxon assert that they used them indiscriminately for both. Afterwards *th* was lso used for them, and as writing fell more into the hands of Norman scribes who were unfamiliar with them, it finally superseded both the other signs, though Thorn survived for a considerable time as an alternative. Many a writer has justly regretted the disuse of these two letters as a loss to our literature, many reformers have suggested their restoration, and they are freely and advantageously used by Phoneticians and in Pronouncing Dictionaries, the Oxford Dictionary among them, for the notation of the two sounds.

The doubled consonant originated both in the natural and the artificial ways. As occurring in words of Latin origin, such as *adduce, allude, common*, it is evidently natural, representing what were at some past time, however distant, lengthened or doubled sounds. But the use of it occurring mainly in words of other origins to mark short vowels, strongly smacks of artifice, and is at least in part due to it. Ormin, an Augustinian monk of the Midlands and of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, used it methodically in his metrical Homilies on the Scriptures for the former purpose, and is possibly to be credited with the invention of the contrivance. The origin of the other use of the doubled consonant, to mark the fall of stress, appears to have been natural; but the subject is obscure, and as it has no very close bearing on my purpose, I will not pursue it further.

3. The practical effects of Digraphs on the written language are two. They cause great additions to the actual length of books and the virtual length of the Alphabet. To take the latter first, if we assume the sounds of the language to number 40, 18 vowels and 22 consonants, and denote each as far as possible in one of the many ways available in our present spelling, reserving a different spelling for each, it takes 59 letters to write them all down, 32 for the vowels and 27 for the consonants, as follows:

a, aa, ai, air, au, e, ee, er, i, ie, o, oe, oi, oo, ou, u, uu, ur, b, d, dh, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, ng, p, r, s, sh, t, th, v, w, y, z, zh.

In one case, as will be noticed, a Trigraph is necessary. *A* being reserved for the vowel of *ban*, *aa* for that of *barn*, and *ai* for that of *bane*, the vowel of *bairn* is best spelt as now, *air*. If a letter be defined, as it sometimes is, as a mark for an elementary speech-sound, then a Digraph is a letter, though divided like *i* and *j* into two parts. To a learner a Digraph is a symbol for a sound as much as a single letter, but far more complicated and puzzling on account of its component parts being used separately for other purposes. If the Alphabet consisted only of these 40 simple signs and compound symbols, though it would still be a very primitive instrument, the trouble would be far less; but, in fact, the multitude of Digraphs and the inconsistent uses to which both they and the letters are put make it immensely less efficient than this would be. To what number the 26 letters of the Alphabet may be increased by Digraphs it is not easy to say. I suppose *ao* is not to be reckoned as one on account of its exceptional use in *gaol*, but *oa*, on account of its well recognized use in *goal* and many other words, is certainly a Digraph for the vowel of *old;* and there are intermediate cases which are doubtful. On the whole, there may be from 70 to 80 Digraphs in regular use excluding all doubtful cases, so that the Alphabet is brought up to about 100 signs and symbols in all. This, however, must be considered a minimum computation, as the Phonetician A. J. Ellis, in his *Plea for Phonetic Spelling* (1848), reckons that 'including Digraphs, we have not 26 but over 200 effective letters, each varying in value.' The difference is due to the fact that I have included only those cases in which I think we have an acquired sense of the digraphic action of the two letters when seen together, such as exists in the case of *oa*, but, I think, not in that of *ao*; and Ellis also includes Trigraphs. Both estimates refer only to combinations of letters, without regard to the number of sounds which each combination may alternatively stand for. By adding up the different uses of his 200 effective letters Ellis reaches enormous figures. An Alphabet of 100 distinct signs consistently used would, perhaps, not be too severe a tax even on the most moderate abilities, but with so large a number of signs used so irregularly the result is that the notation of the sounds is never thoroughly learnt. To a great extent it is easier to memorize the appearance of each word as an ideograph, or compound symbol for a word and its associated ideas, without regard to the sounds of the letters. So far as I understand, this is the essence of what is called the 'look and say' method of teaching sometimes adopted in schools. Instead of learning a rule that *gh* is a sign for the sound of *f*, and then its exceptions, the child is made familiar by means of the blackboard with the look of the words *through*, *rough*, *daughter*, *laughter*, *ghost*, and others in which it is or is not so, and learns to associate them as wholes with the words and ideas they represent. So far as this method is used, the main advantage of a Phonetic system, which is in the learning and not in the use, is thrown away, and our system is ideographic not only to the practised reader, as I think it would be in any case, but to the learner as well. The prophecy of Benjamin Franklin, now nearly 150 years old, that 'our writing will become the same with the Chinese as to the difficulty of learning and using it,' is now in course of realization. We still have a phonetic ladder for the ascent to our notation of words and ideas, but for English it was never a very good one, and is now so much out of repair as to be

largely disused. Let not the opponent of reform flatter himself that out of love and reverence for the past he is only striving to keep things as they long have been and are, for the inexorable process of loss and change in the sounds of spoken words, unaccompanied by modification of their spelling, makes things grow steadily and not so very slowly worse.

In the scheme of the Simplifyd Speling Sosyeti the number of Digraphs is immensely reduced, but they retain as many as eighteen with one Trigraph. Omitting from the Alphabet the letters *c*, *o*, and *x*, but retaining the compound *j*, they have added to the total of 23 letters the ligature *æ*, the Trigraph *air*, and the following Digraphs:

For vowels: *aa*, *ai*, *au*, *ee*, *oi*, *oo*, *ou*, *ar*, *er*, and *or*;

For consonants: *ng*, *sh*, *th*, and *zh*;

For compounds: *ch* and *wh*.

Of these *ar* and *or* are alternative spellings of *aa* and *au*, while on the other hand *er*, *oo*, *th*, and the single letter *y* are ambiguous, each standing alternatively for two different sounds. The net result is a total of 41 signs and symbols, while the 40 sounds cannot be written down with less than 57 letters, and including all alternatives, their whole scheme takes 66.

As to the Alphabet, then, Digraphs are mainly responsible for an increase of its length by about 300 per cent. to 100 signs and symbols, and even in the immensely improved notation of the Sosyeti, to a total of 41. In order to express all the sounds on paper, 59 types must be moved in the former case and 57 in the latter, and to read them these are the numbers of images that must be focussed on the retina and perceived by the brain. It is a point well worth emphasis and attention that these numbers can be reduced to 40 by the simple and obvious means of providing a letter for every elementary sound.

To turn to the effect on literature, a long Alphabet ought to mean a short book, because if the signs are in excess of the sounds the surplus can be used, like *j* and *x*, as abbreviations for two or more of the other letters—one letter for two sounds, the converse of a Digraph, which is two for one. A short Alphabet supplemented by Digraphs has, of course, the opposite effect, and, as a fact, the numbers of printed signs in our books, and even in those of the Simplifyd Speling Sosyeti, are much in excess of the sounds represented. A careful estimate of the number of Digraphs in our books is, perhaps, hardly worth while; the important part they play is obvious enough. Roughly, it may be said that there is considerably more than one for every two words, but probably not as many as three for every four. The first verse of Genesis contains eight in ten words. But it is worth while to arrive at an idea of the total excess of signs over sounds owing to Digraphs, Trigraphs, Silent Letters, and all other causes, and for this purpose I have counted both in a few short passages from various books, and entered them in the table on p. 203.

There may be room for differences of opinion as to the right pronunciation of some of the words and consequently as to the number of sounds they contain, and for this and other reasons the exactness of the figures is not guaranteed; but there is no reason to think that the corrections required would seriously affect the totals. In the first two passages of the table I have availed myself of the transliterations published by the Simplifyd Speling Sosyeti, which did not comprise a few of their most recent improvements, and the figures would, therefore, now have to be somewhat modified in their favour. In counting the sounds of the third and fourth I have used the transliterations of Mr. Daniel Jones in his *Pronunciation of English* (1912), and *Phonetic Transcriptions of*

TABLE SHOWING PROPORTIONS OF SIGNS TO SOUNDS.

Author.	Work.	—		Book-English.		Simplified Spelling.		Full Alphabet with Seven Compounds and Abbreviations.		
		Words.	Sounds.	Letters.	Per Cent. of Sounds.	Letters.	Per Cent. of Sounds	Letters.	Per Cent. of Sounds.	Per Cent. of Book-English.
Cowper ..	*John Gilpin*	1,486	4,778	5,818	122	5,587	117	4,567	96	78
H. G. Wells..	*The Star* (first two pars.)	349	1,436	1,695	118	1,655	115	1,367	95	81
Macaulay ..	*History of England* (two pars.) ..	584	2,203	2,655	120	—	—	2,083	94	78
Shakespeare	Part of Anthony's oration	268	921	1,099	119	—	—	888	96	81
Spencer ..	*Philosophy of Style* (first pars.) ..	142	566	668	118	—	—	526	95	79
Sydney Smith	Works, 1867, Vol. I., p. 168	132	509	595	117	—	—	480	94	81
Darwin ..	*Descent of Man*, 1871, part of p. 65. ..	108	421	496	118	—	—	394	94	79
	Totals ..	3,069	10,834	13,026	120	7,242	116	10,305	95	79
								Full Alphabet with Ten Compounds and Abbreviations.		
Defoe ..	*Robinson Crusoe* (first pars.)	464	1,633	1,996	122			1,518	93	76
Tennyson ..	*The Lotus-Eaters* ..	1,395	4,623	5,938	128			4,372	94	73
Sydney Smith	Part of Noodle's oration in Bentham's *Fallacies*	519	1,909	2,349	123			1,782	93	76
	Totals ..	2,378	8,165	10,283	125			7,672	93	74
	Sounds and letters per word		3·44	4·32				3·22		

English Prose (1907). The somewhat higher proportion of letters to sounds in the second part of the table is probably due to a more frequent recognition of the syllabic use of *l*, *r*, *m*, and *n* in my own reckoning of the sounds; for example, I reckon *contain* as having only one sound, the syllabic *n*, between the *c* and the *t*.

It will be seen that in ordinary books the excess of letters over sounds is about 20 per cent., and this in spite of our use of the compounds *j* and *x*, each for two sounds, *u* for the sounds of *yu* in many words like *use* and *duty*, and the ligatures of *f* with *i* and *l*, which being each one type have been counted as one letter, at least in the second part of the table. This excess is reduced in Simplifyd Speling to about 16 per cent., and if this seems a smaller reduction than might have been expected, it is because the consistent use of Digraphs necessitates inserting them in a good many words where they do not now appear, such as *aams*, *eeven*, *poot* (for *put*), and so on. A small increase of the number of letters also follows on the abandonment of *x*, and of the use of *u* for the sequence of sounds *yu*. Yet, in spite of these increases, there is a clear gain on the whole. An important reduction in the length of books cannot, however, be made without alphabetic reform. With a full Alphabet containing no abbreviations, sounds and signs would be equal

in number, and our books would be shortened by about a sixth of their length. But there seems no good reason why a few compound letters, such as *j* and *x* should not be used, though it must be admitted that the principle could be much more advantageously applied to commoner sequences of sounds, such as *st*. Much shortening can also be effected by the use of a few simple abbreviations for the commonest words, such as *and* and *the*. The last three columns of the table give in the upper part the results of using a full Alphabet, including modified forms of *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r* for the syllabic uses of the sounds, and supplemented by seven compounds and abbreviations. Five of these stand for the sounds of *yu* in *yule*, of *j* and *ch* in *jar* and *char*, and of *x* in *expel* and *exist*, and the other two for *the* and *and*. In the lower part of the table three more abbreviations have been added for the common words *of*, *in*, and *to*. As these three words with *the* and *and* by their frequent recurrence make up, according to reliable statistics, over 22 per cent. of the aggregate of words in our books and papers, it is evident that, in spite of their shortness, the saving effected by having one type for each is considerable. The use of these 10 abbreviations would make 93 signs stand for 100 sounds, doing the work now done by 125, and thereby shortening our books by a quarter of their total length, while immensely improving the notation of the sounds. One letter could be spared out of every four now printed, which means on an average more than one out of every word, and the work far better done with three. Anyone who is inclined to belittle the importance of Digraphs and treat them as pin-pricks should reflect whether, in view of the enormous daily output of our printing presses, it is a matter of small importance that a quarter of the whole should be worse than useless. A multiplication of pin-pricks may amount to a mortal injury.

Having thus reviewed the data, not, indeed, exhaustively, but with some completeness of outline, let us turn to the pure theory of the subject and the question what Digraphs are good for, if for anything at all. It is evident that with a Phonetic Alphabet of 40 sounds and a Sematic Alphabet of only 26 letters to represent them, it is not merely reasonable but necessary to resort to Digraphs or Diacritics, always on the assumption that new letters cannot be had. In their absence the Sematic Alphabet must somehow be lengthened, and the Digraph is the present way of doing this, and possibly the best. But supposing we *could* have new letters, is there any purpose for which the Digraph would serve better? It might appear at first sight that as some of our vowels are coupled as long and short—for instance, those of *pull* and *pool*, and those of *marry* and *Mary*—the long vowel would be better denoted by doubling the sign for the short than in any other way. But there are several objections. In the first place, there are in some cases two long vowels to one short—for instance, those of *nought* and *note* to that of *not*—so that they could not all be denoted in this way; in the second place, the long sound is rarely a true lengthening of the short, so that the doubling is more or less inaccurate; thirdly, there is always ambiguity, since the doubling of the letter may indicate a repetition of the sound, as that of *i* is repeated in *pitying*. Then there is the question of brevity in notation, at once so important and so little noticed. Our present spelling seems to be based on the idea that time in printing and reading is of no value whatever. And lastly, whatever good there may be in doubling a letter for notation of a long sound is much better attained by simply widening or otherwise modifying it, which equally

well indicates the relation between the two sounds without any of these drawbacks.

Equally, or perhaps even more plausible at first sight is the use of Digraphs for Diphthongs, and though I contend that these sounds are not double, as their name implies, but multiple, and ought rather to be called Polyphthongs or Slide-vowels, even so the double notation might serve to indicate the extent of the slide. In the word *oil* this reaches roughly from the vowel of *all* to that of *ill*, and in *owl* from that of *alms* to that of *pull*, or thereabouts, so that if *oi* were consistently used for the one and *au* for the other there would be less reason for complaint. Yet the same objections apply as before. There is inaccuracy and ambiguity, and why in any case employ two signs to denote what the very name 'Diphthong' shows to be in some sense a unit of sound, though in some sense also a double one? The vowel of *mind* and *by* is far better written as in those words with a single letter than with a Digraph, notwithstanding its diphthongic or kinetic nature. Then, again, if any Diphthongs are denoted by Digraphs, all ought to be so denoted. Now, according to most Phoneticians, the English long vowels are mostly diphthongic, so that a consistent application of the method would result in a considerable increase of the number of Digraphs. Accordingly, in the Alphabet of the International Phonetic Association, as used by Mr. Daniel Jones in his *Transcriptions of English Prose* (1907), while eight short vowels are denoted each by a single letter, and five long vowels by single letters with or without a following mark of length, the remaining six vowel sounds, including, with the Diphthongs of *isle*, *oil*, and *owl*, three sounds which the reader has probably been accustomed to consider long vowels, and certainly to see denoted sometimes at least by a single letter, are all denoted by two, in one case with an intervening mark of length. The vowel of *ale* is spelt *ei*; that of *air*, *e:ə*; and that of *old*, *ou*; and altogether 30 types are used to denote 19 vowel sounds. If, therefore, Diphthongs were consistently denoted by Digraphs we should have, according to Mr. Daniel Jones's analysis of English Speech-sounds, at least 6 of these complicated signs in our books, and the sounds of the language could not be printed with less than 52 types, manifestly a clumsy method, and wasteful of time, space, and eyesight. There is the further objection that the analysis of the sounds is not certain, Phoneticians not being entirely in agreement as to which of them are Diphthongic, or what are the constituent sounds of those which are so. Again, in several instances their analysis resolve these into two sounds, of which one or the other is not independently used in English, though it may be so used in other languages. Consequently, some of the best letters of the Alphabet, including *a* and *o*, are introduced by Mr. Jones only as constituents of Digraphs, never standing alone, and we are debarred from their use except in this way. But however useful these analyses of sound may be in the study of Phonetics, it should be borne in mind that the purpose of a letter in our books is, in the case of the learner, to call a sound to memory, and in that of the practised reader to form part of a compound symbol or ideograph for a word; in neither case to show how a sound is (or perhaps is not) made. For both purposes what is needed is the utmost simplicity compatible with the due distinction of each letter from the rest. There is, therefore, no need for a vowel to be analyzed into its component elements under our eyes every time it occurs, even if this could be done with exactness and certainty and the elements were English sounds, still less if the analysis is wrong or doubtful, and if the alleged elements are

sounds that have no independent existence in our language. Nor, indeed, so far as I understand, do the International Phonetic Association intend their Alphabet for general purposes, but rather for the teaching of Phonetics. At the same time, it is sometimes said that if the reform of the Alphabet is in question, that has already been accomplished by the International Phonetic Association. So, no doubt, it has; but, in my opinion, in a manner quite unsuited for general use.

If, indeed, the 40 letters needed for a full Alphabet were an excessive number, it might be desirable to push analysis to the utmost and reduce the number of elements to a minimum, even at the expense of accuracy and brevity. But a little reflection shows that it is not excessive. It is sufficient to consider the facility with which a young child manages the 40 sounds in speech, to realize the power of the acoustic memory, and if, as is practically certain, in learning to speak the words are not analyzed into their component sounds, but short words and syllables are committed to memory as wholes, that only shows the capacity of memory to be so much the more. That the visual memory is equally strong is shown by the fact that many children become in a few years efficient readers and writers of our present style, probably memorizing the visual images of large numbers of words independently and without analysis before they leave school.

Finally, as to Digraphs in the shape of Ligatures, it is evident that here we make a near approach to new letters, and the question arises whether there is any advantage in refraining from that final step. *Æ* and *æ* are the only existing Ligatures that need be considered, and any others that might be added would, in fact, be new letters, of a somewhat complicated kind. That a sound produced by the fusion of two others should be denoted by a type formed by a fusion of two letters is at first sight quite an attractive idea, but it hardly need be said that such symbols should be used for those sounds only for which they are appropriate, not as *æ* and *œ* are used at present. Both these symbols in *æsthetic* and *Cæsar*, *homœopathic* and *Phœbe*, denote the vowel of *eel* or that of *ill*, phonetically of the genus *i*, and in no way compounded of the sound of *e* with those of *a* and *o*; while in *manœuvre* the Ligature *œ* goes with *u* to denote the long vowel of *pool*, a sound belonging to *u* and having nothing to do with either *o* or *e*. Such uses cannot be justified except on historical grounds. If however Ligatures are unfit for the notation of such long sounds as these, still less are they fit for the notation of short sounds. In the Alphabet of the International Phonetic Association the Ligature *æ* is appropriated to the notation of the vowel of *add*, a sound which is short and not diphthongic. This can be defended on the historical ground that this is the sound denoted by it in Anglo-Saxon manuscripts, but on no other. Sir Harry Johnston, in his book on *Phonetic Spelling* (1914), defends it also on the phonetic ground, not that the sound is in any way compounded of those of *a* and *e*, but that it is intermediate between the two; but to this plea, however true, we must at once demur. We might just as well denote the vowel of *ell* by a ligature of *a* and *i* on the ground that it is intermediate between those of *add* and *ill*. The Simplifyd Speling Sosyeti at first used the Digraph *oe* for the vowel of *old*, not on the ground of its fitness to express the sound, which Phoneticians would preferably write *ou*, but that it is one of the commonest ways of expressing it in our present spelling —*e.g.*, *doe*, *toe*, etc. They have since substituted for this the Ligature *œ*, an undoubted improvement, inasmuch as it excludes ambiguity. But I would sug-

gest that the true solution of the problem is to go one step further and simplify this Ligature by removing all redundant and non-significant parts, leaving the circumference alone to serve as the plain widened *o* which I have advocated as the best letter for the sound.

My conclusion is, then, that the Digraph in any form is useless for any purpose whatever. Rather than employ two letters for one sound, all the advantage is on the other side, that of employing one letter for two, a single and simple sign standing, like *x* and *j*, for a sequence of sounds, or like '*&*' for a common word; call it a Hemigraph, a compound, an abbreviation, or what you will. But it should, of course, be used regularly, not occasionally like *x* and *j*, nor for the most part laid on the shelf like '*&*.' The Digraph is a disease of notation, tolerable only on the assumption, more than once noticed above as underlying all such reasonableness as we could find in the multitudinous confusions of our spelling, that we cannot have new types. But the moment this assumption is examined it is found to be one of the thinnest bubbles ever blown, and one that must surely burst before long. Thus to lay the blame on printers and type-founders is absurd. They can, and will, supply any number of new types, and print any number of old books in a new style, in response to a demand, and be glad of the job. We can have new letters whenever we want them, and in fact they are cut for other and less important purposes every day. When a reform is undertaken it ought surely to include the provision of new letters for all those elements of our Phonetic Alphabet that now lack letters of their own. At the bottom it comes to this, that there are forty sounds to spell, and the proper way to spell a sound is by a letter. Volumes might be written on the subject without much adding to or detracting from these fundamental facts. Proposals for the reform of spelling alone will arouse endless discussion, as they have always done in the past. Reform the Alphabet, and when once the new letters have been chosen, which ought not to take long, then, except doubtful pronunciations, there will be little left to discuss. With a full Alphabet it is not so much that the difficulties and confusions of notation can be got over as that they simply do not exist. As things are now, the symbolization of the English Language in print is probably worse than that of any other language of Europe; with an Alphabet so reformed by exclusion of Digraphs as to make good the simple underlying principle of notation, '*one sound, one sign*,' it would be by far the best symbolized language in the world.

A. D. Wilde.

FRENCH 'U' AND 'W.'

Both in English and French the vowel-group U comprises five sounds, including a Y-diphthong and a semi-vowel, W.

	English.	French.
Front ..	u in *buck*	ü in *bu, eu.*
Medium ..	ù „ *bush*	œ „ *peu.*
Back ..	û „ *boot*	û „ *bout.*
Diphthong	iü „ *Hugh*	iœ „ *yeux.*
Semi-vowel	w „ *one, won*	w „ *huître.*

This arrangement is merely a series showing the parallel evolution of sounds in this group from its basis *u*. French *œ* is a medium vowel, as in *pouvoir, peux, pu;* English *ù* is a medium in the three sounds to be heard in standard and dialectal pronunciations of *foot*, and the series *grove, prove, move, love*, which too often eye-rimes in our verse, point to the evolution of *û* from a primitive *o*, to which *û* tends

to adhere in our long *o*. This is a remarkable group. Only in our dialects do we find the phonetic equivalent of French *ü*, as in the Scotch *guid*; our front vowel *u* cannot be sounded without a following consonant, and the medium vowel *ù* requires to be preceded and followed by a consonant; our phonetic equivalent for French *œ* can only be represented by vocalic *r* combined with a vowel, as in *ever, centre, fir, sugar, author, murder*; and in the speech of some persons *w* substitutes itself for consonantal *r*.

French *œ* was evolved from *ů* (related to *ǒ*), but *ü* came later, establishing itself not only in the language of Northern France, but also in that of the South. A grammar of the Dauphiné dialect of the Southern language, by the Abbé Moutier, 1882, says of *ü*: "La prononciation normale de cette voyelle était *ou*; dans tout le domaine néo-latin il n'y a que le français qui admette la prononciation allemande.' This vowel ousted *ů* from the alphabet-name of the group, just as *iů* has done in our alphabet. That *ů* was the original alphabet-name is shown in the lesson given to Monsieur Jourdain by his *maître de philosophie*: Vos deux lèvres s'allongent comme si vous faisiez la moue, d'*où* vient que si vous la voulez faire à quelqu'un et vous moquer de lui vous ne sauriez lui dire que U." And when the bourgeois tries the lesson on Nicole, he says: 'Je fais la moue, U.' It seems evident that he said, '*moue ou*.' In the utterance of the two vowel-sounds *ů* and *ü* the position of the lips is exactly the same; hence English pupils learning to speak French at too late an age acquire the new vowel with some difficulty, and often utter one vowel for the other.

French *œ*—evolved from *o*, *ou*—has taken the place of those vowels in many words, as in *peuple, meurtrir, pleurer, demeurer*, etc. George Sand preferred *treuver* to *trouver* in conversation. This vowel has crept into a few Provençal words, in some districts at least: *vue* (*vuech*, Fr. *huit*) is there pronounced *vü*.

I pass to the semi-vowel W. It is sometimes divided into W, *oué*, and W with diæresis, *üé*; they are practically the same, as in *oui* and *huître*. W was used in the script of the eleventh to the fifteenth centuries, as in *ewe, liwe, wide, warir, dewerpir*, now *eau, lieue, vide* (*vuide*) *guérir, déguerpir*. It came to be used only in foreign words, with the sound of V as in its alphabet-name, reappearing recently under English influence with its true sound, as in *whist, tramway, wattman*. In the form of O, usually in *oi*, it has had a great effect on the pronunciation and orthography of the French language.

One may search the four thousand verses of the *Chanson de Roland* (1200) and find only about thirty words containing *oi*. Most of these represent Latin *o, u*, as in *noit, oidme, oil, oire, bloi*, now *nuit, huitième, oui, ouïr, bleu*; in only two words, apparently *vois, conoisse*, does *oi* represent *é*. But in this poem are hosts of words written with *e, ei*, which afterwards began to be written with *oi*, while keeping the sound *é* for centuries. The form *e, ei* was common to both the Northern and Southern languages. Conferring with the Northern poem the eleven short contemporary songs of William, Duke of Aquitaine, in medieval Lengo d'O, the following words have almost identical script and, it may be inferred, identical pronunciation:

N.	S.	=Fr.	N.	S.	=Fr.
crei	crei	crois	feiz	vetz	fois
mei	mei	moi	plei	plei	ploye
vei	vei	vois	treis	trei	trois
feid	fei	foi	dreiz	dreit	droit
lei	lei	loi	palefrei	palefrei	palefroi
reis	rei	roi	Peitou	Peitau	Poitou

I might fill a page with such words from both languages, and there is no doubt that when the Northern form was

changed to *oi* their pronunciation continued the same in the North as it is to this day in the South. Many French words with *oi* passed into English with the French sound *e, ei*.

Fr.	Eng.	Fr.	Eng.
acointer	acquaint	estroict	straight
avoine, aveine	avenage	foible	feeble
arroy	array	hoir	heir
abois	(at) bay	proie	prey
broyer	to bray	pourvoier	purvey
convoiter	covet	reçoivre	receive
convoier	convey	trois	trey
desploier	display	voile	veil

Lay (*Man of Lawes Tale*) and *fay* (*Piers Ploughman*) are *lei, fei*, now *loi, foi*. Our clumsy word 'avoirdupois,' sufferable as 'averdepois,' came to us phonetically as *aveir de peise;* in a Statute of 1545 it is 'haberdypase,' and it has about this pronunciation in dialect English. Piers Ploughman speaks of the pound that was 'peysed'; and a Statute of Edward III. refers to fish as *pessons*. Doublets of some of these words, such as *convoy, deploy, foible, poise, void*, come in later with the French form of vowel, and taking such English sound of *oi, oy*, as was then, and still is popularly, used for this diphthong.

In some French words *oi* represented the original Latin vowel:

o : moine, gloire, foyer, poison.
u : coin, croix, ivoire, angoisse.
au : oie, oiseau, joie, cloître.

But in the great majority *oi* represented Latin:

e : roi, mois, trois, foin.
i : froid, doigt, soif, poisson.

Yet, whatever the original vowel, the pronunciation was *é*, or very near it.

Some words escaped the change to *oi* (especially those with an original Latin *a*): *maître, paix, laisser, neige*, or, after the change to *oi*, returned to *e, ei : peine, veine, veiller, claie, craie, verre, peser, paraître*.

I need hardly say that *oi, oy* was pronounced *é* in all suffixes, but it was so for centuries in the body of words. This is seen in Villon's rimes (1460):

poise, aise—poyson, raison—monnoie, paye moi, mai—cloistre, fenestre—estroicte, disette moine, royne, Seine—gloire, voire (=*vère*).

The use of both forms for the same word in Rabelais, as sometimes in Villon, shows that the pronunciation of *oi* was *é :*

je voys, je vays—je foys, je fays—toile, tele voile, vele—foye, faie—voirre, verre.

A *sphere* is given as the emblem of *espoir*, and *pennes* (feathers) of *poines* (=*peines*). Friar John hints that he is thirsty by quoting *germinavit radix Jesse*, this name being pronounced *J'ai sé*, the pronunciation of *soif* since the twelfth century, when it was written *sei* as it is now in Provençal, *set*=*sé*. The use of *oi* for *é* went so far that such words as *maître, maigre, paix, sein*, etc., were written with *oi ;* at one time *duchesse* was written *duchoise ;* and the spelling *paroistre, congnoistre* set in early, and disappeared late. Many words show at the present day both forms in words akin. Thus: *poids, peser—effroi, effrayer—espoir, espérer—échoir, échéance—croyance, créance—ployer, plier—poire, péré* (perry)*—notoire, notaire—froid, Fonfrède*. Still extant in both forms of the same word are *roide* and *raide, harnois* and *harnais*. *Hoir* and *hère* (heir to poverty) are probably the same word.

In the classic verse of the seventeenth century many rimes show that *oi* was still =*é*. La Fontaine rimed *croître* with *maître, droit* with *disoit*=*disait*. Boileau rimed *cloistre* with *paroistre*=*paraître*, as Racine rimed *exploit* with *lisoit*=*lisait*. In editions of these poets brought up to modern orthography *ai* in *paraitre, disait, lisait*, is in these cases put back to *oi* so as to make an eye-rime in place of the poet's ear-rime.

The Evolution of the Modern Sound 'Oi.'

Oi changed by stages form its original sound of *é*—

1. To *oé* as in *roy*=roé; *noyer* (sb)= no-ié.
2. To *wé* as in *roy*=rwé; *boite*= bwette.
3. To *wa* as in *roy*=rwa; *noyer*= nwa-yé.

Of the exact sound in the last stage more will be said presently; *wa* must be taken as a provisional representation of it.

The first of these stages began towards the end of the sixteenth century. In 1650 Cotgrave gave *roe*, *loe* as the sound of *roy*, *loy*. This lasted for a couple of centuries in words like *broyer*, *nettoyer*, *noyau*, *moyen*, which Littré maintained were= *bro-ié*, *netto-ié*, *no-yau*, *mo-iien*. In every word of this type he gave this pronunciation, adding that which was tending to prevail in 1881, 'quelques-uns disent broi-é,' etc.

The second stage, in which *o*, acting as *w*, diphthonged the vowel, came probably through the influence of Normandy, where educated people still pronounce *moi*, *boire*, as *mwé*, *bwère*. In this stage a certain incompatibility of *wé* with *n* brought back *royne* from *rwène*, which was for some time more or less current, to the present pronunciation *reine*, contrasting with that of *roi*. It has been seen that *poine* came back to *peine*, and *voine* to *veine*, while *oignon*, *poignée*, *poignard* seem always to have had their present pronunciation=*ognon*, etc. *Coigner*, originally to strike a wedge, *coing*, took its present form *cogner*. This diphthonging stage did not affect suffixes, as in *aimoit*, *aimoient*, *françois*, *angloise*. But the anomalies of pronunciation of *oi* needed some orthographical reform. This was attempted soon after 1700; but it was only made, and very partially, about fifty years later, through Voltaire's influence. Inflexions in *oi* of verbs were changed to *ai*, hitherto only used for the preterite and future tenses, and there was a partial reform in some classes of adjectival suffixes. *Anglois*, *Ecossois*, *François* were changed to *Anglais*, etc., but *Suédois*, *Danois*, *Chinois*, *Albigeois*, etc., remained, and François, as a man's name, retained the *oi* sound. The names of provinces were changed to *Orléanais*, *Lyonnais*, etc., but Artois remained, with the Artesian well to remind us of its former pronunciation. The reform was only partial in the names of districts and in the adjectives formed from the names of towns. Bordelais, Beaujolais, Marseillais appeared, but Angoumois, Vermandois, etc., remained, and the first syllable of Blaisois points to the old pronunciation of Blois town. A century later, when Nice was joined to France, its inhabitants, hitherto Nissard, Niçard, became Niçois, and the elder Sardou, writing, in 1881, a grammar of their dialect of Provençal, entitled it, *Grammaire de l'Idiome Niçois*. Such is the influence of Paris.

In the last stage of the evolution of *oi* the diphthong changed from *wé* to *w* with a vowel which is always given as *a*, open or closed, long or short. This is only correct when *oi* is followed by final *r*, *re*; it then has the sound of open *a*, as in *art*, *Mardi*; but when free or followed by any other consonant the sound is not that of any kind of French *a*. In indicating the true sounds the French vowel-table is of little use, as the language is only allowed eleven vowel-sounds: the open and closed sounds of *e*, *a*, *o*, *œ*, with *i* and the two *u* vowels. However, the English vowels *a* and *o*, in the sounds they take when preceded by *w*, enable me to give examples of what I consider the current pronunciation of French words containing the diphthong *oi*. The

general sound of *oi* is that which we hear in *what*, with shades from the high tone of this word when coming from Irish lips to the lower tone like that in *was*, *wash*. But there is a higher sound, that in *palm*, *qualm*; and there are two lower sounds, those in *won*, *one*—almost *wun*—and in *oyster*; altogether a much wider range than could be exemplified by the sounds of any French vowels. These type words must be uttered slowly, and with the mouth well open.

I. Type 'qualm.'
Final *oir*, *oire*: *voir*, *boire*, *gloire*, *victoire*, etc.

II. Type 'what' to 'was.'
1. *boîte*, *bourgeoise*, *Pontoise*, *paroisse*.
2. *froide*, *moitié*, *soixante*, *trois-cents*, *reçoive*, *dois-je*, *poil*, *voile*, *voilà*, *cloître*, *croître*, *soif*.
3. *moi*, *foi*, *joie*, *quoi*, *choix*, *froid*, *roi*, *bourgeois*, *poisson*.
4. *oiseau*, *loisir*, *poison*, *choisir*, *soigner*, *éloigner*.

III. Type 'one,' almost 'wun.'
moine, *avoine*.

IV. Type 'oyster'; woy + a vowel.
loyer, *foyer*, *croyez*, *royal*, *royaume*.

The other vowels diphthonged by *w* do not offer any difficulties, yet some remarks may be useful.

There is a constant tendency in these times of rapid speech to diphthong *ou*, *ü*, with a following vowel.

Oué is a diphthong in *ouest*, *ouais*; perhaps in *fouet*, *fouetter*; doubtfully in *chouette*, *couette*, *girouette*, *pirouette*, *muette*; but in *jouet*, *jouer*, *rouet*, *roué*, *souhait*, *mouette* it is no more a diphthong than in *brouette*. Fashion has tried to force *wá* on several of these words, but with little success.

Ue does not diphthong; *muet*, *fluet*, *bleuet* are of two syllables.

Ouè, in *poêle*, *moelle*, is usually assimilated to the diphthong in *poil*; but it should be longer.

Oua is a diphthong in *ouate*, but hardly so in *fouace*, *fouailler*.

Oui is a diphthong in *oui*, but not in *ouïe*, *ouï-dire*, *jouir*, *jouissance*.

Oin has the nasalized vowel, as in *main*, preceded by *w*: *soin*, *moins*, *joint*, *poindre*, *pointe*.

In *Rouen*, *St. Ouen*, the nasalized vowel is hardly diphthonged. It may be noted that in *rouennerie*, *couenne*, *e*=*a*, as in *femme*, *imprudemment*, *hennir*.

EDWARD NICHOLSON.

FRENCH IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL.

THE present time seems very opportune for the introduction of French teaching in the primary school. The fact that this war has brought us into such a close connection with our nearest ally should be taken great advantage of, and we should endeavour to stamp out the queer and ignorant notions which have often been held by people who consider that any characteristics of a nation which differ from those of their own country must of necessity be ridiculous. We do not wish to hear of another local examination candidate that 'on ne joue pas à football en France parce qu'il y est une grande terreur.' The best way to appreciate a foreign people is to understand them, and if, as we all desire, this present *entente cordiale* is to continue, then the rising generation must receive a more ample knowledge of the character of our noble ally.

The writer has obtained permission from his headmaster to give instruction in French to the top standard of his school. So far the experiment has justified itself, as the boys have given the subject their best attention, and their parents are encouraging them to do the home-lessons which are set. Naturally, the aim of the course is not to teach French in the ordinary accepted sense of the term, but to instil in the pupils a love of the French language, and to fill them with a desire to continue its study after their school careers have terminated. The writer thinks that, perhaps, there are some

teachers who would like to read a short summary of the scheme adopted, and that is his object in writing this short article.

Pronunciation.

Naturally the pupils are all anxious to speak French from the outset, and thus conversation must play a very important part from the very commencement of the course. Pronunciation must receive early attention, and the best way of meeting that requirement is by giving the pupils a few general and practical rules on the subject. In spite of what may be said in favour of phonetics—and there is a great deal—they have no place in a course of this character. The writer continually emphasizes the following five points on this matter:

1. Syllables generally end on vowel sounds —not on consonant sounds, as in English— *e.g.*, ma-de-moi-selle.

2. Syllables are all about the same length— *e.g.*, in-sti-tu-teur.

3. The stress is placed on the last syllable— *e.g.*, diction*naire*.

4. Last letters—with the exceptions of *c*, *f*, *l*, and *r*—are not pronounced—*e.g.*, Françai(s), fini*r*.

5. *s* has the sound of *z* and *d* of *t* when they are followed by words beginning with a vowel or *h* mute—*e.g.*, Il est très⌣active. Quand⌣il est malade.

These rules should not be given to the pupils until occasion arises for their use. Under those circumstances they are more readily remembered.

Conversation.

These general rules for pronunciation are explained in conversation and reading. Conversation should receive its full share of attention from the very first lesson, and easy, interesting sentences must be continually employed. The writer opens each lesson by creating a French atmosphere in always saying: 'Bonjour, mes garçons'; to which the boys reply, 'Bonjour, monsieur.' Then follows: 'Comment allez-vous ?' and the reply, 'Très bien, merci, monsieur.' The next questions are: 'Quel jour est-ce ?' 'Quel mois est-ce ?' 'Le combien sommes-nous ?' to which the boys give the necessary answers. As occasion arises commands are given as indicated in the following examples:

Teacher: Toute la classe, levez-vous.

Pupils (standing): Je me lève, monsieur. Nous nous levons, monsieur.

Teacher: Asseyez-vous.

Pupils (sitting): Je m'assieds, monsieur. Nous nous asseyons, monsieur.

Teacher: Ouvrez vos livres.

Pupils (opening their books): J'ouvre mon livre. Nous ouvrons nos livres.

Teacher: Trouvez page deux.

Pupils: Voici page deux. Voici la deuxième page.

Teacher: Fermez vos livres.

Pupils: Je ferme mon livre. Nous fermons nos livres.

In speaking to individual pupils such sentences as the following are used:

Teacher: Venez ici, Charles.

Pupil: Je viens ici, monsieur.

Teacher: Essuyez le tableau noir.

Pupil: J'essuie le tableau noir. J'ai essuyé le tableau noir.

Teacher: Ouvrez la fenêtre, Henri.

Pupil: J'ouvre la fenêtre. J'ai ouvert la fenêtre.

Teacher: Fermez la porte.

Pupil: Je ferme la porte. J'ai fermé la porte.

Teacher: Retournez à votre place.

Pupil: Je retourne à ma place. J'ai retourné à ma place.

Wherever possible commands and general remarks should be given in French, whether they admit of conversation on the part of the pupils or not. Resource to the mother-tongue should be made only when the pupils show difficulty of understanding. As examples of such remarks may be mentioned: Levez la main, Baissez la main, Répétez après moi tous ensemble, Encore une fois, Ne lisez pas si vite, Lisez plus lentement.

In the primary school the pupils generally receive all their instruction from the same teacher, and thus the children are acquainted with his favourite remarks and manner of saying them, so that when they hear them in French they can guess at their meanings. Again, there is no need to expect the pupils to understand all that is said to them; the real aim at this stage is to see that they gather the gist of the remarks addressed to them.

Charts, drawn by the scholars, and referring to topics of every-day life, should be well used, and the scholars must be encouraged to take the place of the teacher in asking questions. The artists of the class should be encouraged to draw in bold outline on half imperial sheets such objects as a house, a room, a fire-grate, a garden, a set of tools, a clock-dial, a horse, a fish, a bird, various kinds of fruit, a dining-table, with common objects placed upon it, etc.

Reading.

Great care must be taken in the selection of reading matter. The first book should contain short reading-lessons on matters of general interest and descriptions of various customs of French life. A few anecdotes should also be found in the book. Above all, a *questionnaire* on each lesson is required, and the pupils in turn should be permitted to put the questions to the class. The reading-lesson should always commence in the manner already described under the heading of Conversation. The sentences in each reading-lesson should be numbered, and the pupils in turn should give the commands: 'Lisez phrase un,' or 'Lisez la première phrase,' etc.

Grammar.

Grammatical rules should be taught as occasion arises, and there should be no set grammar lesson. The Grammar Book should be used as a dictionary—*i.e.*, as a book of reference. The child cannot see any utility in learning a grammatical rule unless there is an opportunity of using it.

Under this heading comes the teaching of verbs. Wherever possible verbs should be learnt unconsciously, and that is the reason why the writer makes his pupils repeat their actions in the first persons singular and plural, as shown under the heading of Conversation. As nouns require the verb in the third person, it is well for the children to make use of nouns from the outset; *e.g.*:

J'ai un livre. (Pupil points to himself and his book.)

Tu as un livre. (Pupil points to his neighbour.)

Il a un livre. (Pupil points to a boy in another part of the class.)

Elle a un livre.

Le père a un livre.

Nous avons des livres. (Pupil makes gesture to include all the class.)

Vous avez des livres. (Pupil points to all the others).

Ils ont des livres. (Pupil points to the two boys sitting in front of him.)

Elles ont des livres.

Les pères ont des livres.

Pupils should always frame sentences as they learn the various verbs, as, for example:

'Je suis petit mais je ne suis pas paresseux.'
'Tu es petit mais tu n'es pas paresseux,' etc.
'Je parle anglais mais je ne parle pas français.'

When the conjugations are taught, the pupils must realize at once that the root of the verb is found in every tense, person, and number; thus, no matter what part of the verb 'to give' is required the root *donn* is bound to appear. Again, if children are told that by learning the verb *donner*, they are able to conjugate about 3,600 French verbs, or about seven-eighths of the total number of verbs in the French language, they will readily agree that it is well worth their while to learn it thoroughly.

The parts of speech must be presented, not in any meaningless lists, but by a series of intelligent sentences. For example, the personal pronouns may be taught in the following manner:

Je suis chez moi.
Tu es chez toi.
Il est chez lui.
Elle est chez elle.
Nous sommes chez nous.
Vous êtes chez vous.
Ils sont chez eux.
Elles sont chez elles.

As a rule, most points in grammar should be treated as they appear in the reading-book.

Vocabulary.

The reader and conversational lessons will most probably prove to be the two best means at a child's disposal to enlarge his vocabulary. To give a child a list of words with their English equivalents is not of much avail. Unless a child uses each fresh word in a sentence, thereby understanding its meaning and realizing its place in the language, much of this learning by heart will be futile. An isolated word conveys no meaning, and brings no ideas into the child's mind.

Various hints as to finding the meanings of new words should be given. If a child is told that the circumflex accent usually takes the place of the letter *s* he will be able to translate such words as *hôpital*, and *forêt*. Again, if it be remembered that *é* also often corresponds to the English *s*, then the pupils can readily give the meanings of such words as *épice* and *réponse*. They may also be told that *g* or *gu* frequently resolve themselves into *w*, as in *gages* and *guichet*.

The terminations of French words may also, with advantage, be taken into consideration. For example, most words—chiefly nouns and adjectives—ending in *al*, *age*, and *ion* are spelt the same in both languages, as *national*, *courage*, and *attention*; English verbs ending in *ise* and *use* add *r* in French as *utiliser*, *accuser*; whereas verbs ending in *ate* and *fy* change these terminations into *er* and *fier* respectively, as in *apprécier* and *sanctifier*. Again *cy* becomes *ce*; *ous*, *eux* : *ar*, *eur* : and *ian*, *ien*, as in *clémence*, *lumineux*, *directeur*, and *magicien*.

Exercises on this kind of work should be given occasionally because, exaggerated as Pestalozzi's advice is, that a child should never be robbed of his sacred right of discovery, yet it really contains a great deal of truth. It is well, however, to confine the beginner's vocabulary to words of familiar use in order to enable him to utilize them freely.

Homework.

For various reasons, the elementary schoolchild does not view homework in the same light as the secondary school scholar. It is advisable, therefore, not to give too much homework, and, as a rule, the work set should deal with revision of previous work. Very rarely, indeed, should pupils be asked at this early stage to prepare the subject-matter of a following lesson. If a short lesson can be given daily it will be found that better results can be obtained than from longer lessons at greater intervals. The homework can then consist chiefly of questions referring to the daily work. The children will appreciate this kind of work because it will be within their powers to do it reasonably well.

A. P. Le Quesne.

THE PLACE OF GERMAN IN SCHOOL CURRICULA.*

The discussion of the claims of German in this connection inevitably assumes something of the character of an apologia. As a school subject German has had a fairly long trial. It seemed to have already made good, its position was hardly challenged, it was even making headway, when the outbreak of war caused its claims to be reconsidered. If not to-day exactly in the position of 'the prisoner in the dock,' German is quite obviously 'the defendant' in the case. The prosecution has been conducted with vigour, and the charges are many and grave. I wish to say at once that I have undertaken the defence because I hold the prosecution to be ill-founded, and I, for my part, believe firmly in the study of German at school, as elsewhere. I believe this study is educative in the widest sense; that is to say, it has important and valuable results, practical, humanistic and humanitarian.

No attempt will here be made to deny the importance of the languages so ably championed by other speakers at this meeting. Possibly Spanish, conceivably even Russian, may become commercially more valuable than German. Italian, from the humanistic point of view, may fairly be regarded as, in some ways, more important. But this is not, I think, true for the mass of secondary schoolboys (and even schoolgirls) who require their third language (taken up after English and French) less for pure literature than for science, history, and philosophy. Russian is the chief new rival, but I may be excused if I make only a brief reference to that tongue. I know little of the literature and nothing of the language, and am content to refer to Mr. K. Waliszewski's *History of Russian Literature*, in which, at the outset, we are told that 'Modern civilization . . . built itself up almost independently of the Slavs. . . . The Slav race, the latest comer into the world of civilization, has always been at school, always under some rod or sway. . . . The outcome has something of the American in it and yet something of the Turkish. . . . Russia, young and old at once, has not yet found its orbit or its true balance.' In Russian literature we find 'positivism carried to the point of brutality,' but linked 'with a marked proneness to melancholy.' Even stronger pronouncements of this type are quoted from Herzen. Reference is made to the Russian's 'scant originality in his methods of thought,' and the writer adds: 'To sum it up. A people and a literature standing apart; geographically, ethnographically, historically outside the Western community.' The language receives praise for melody and diversity, but 'resembles the classic languages *and German*.' Apparently it can be still harsher and more terrible. '*Voĭna* stands for war; *voine* for the warrior.' That is soft and melodious. 'But should the warrior be called to defend his country, threatened by an invader, he becomes *Khrabryĭ, Zachtchichtchaiouchtchyĭ*. Can we not hear the hoarse whistling yell of the barbarians?' Yet there are daring people who accuse German of being ugly and guttural!

One main argument against German at present is the claim that the language and literature are bad because the Germans are vicious. But in this little attention is paid to history. Think, for a moment, of the Homeric Greeks. Their vices have been fully described

* A speech delivered at the Annual General Meeting of the Modern Language Association in January, 1917. Some alterations are due to the fact that the speech was delivered from notes.

by many writers, including Thomas Blackwell and Robert Wood. A quite modern authority, the late Professor Goldwin Smith, writing on 'The Age of Homer' (*American Historical Review*, October, 1901), gave them credit for oratory, high ideals of art, some degree of democracy, etc.; but added: 'If with these advances towards intellectual civilization we are surprised at finding homicide prevalent and punished only as a private wrong by private vengeance, piracy and marauding licensed, a general reliance for security on the strong hand rather than on the public law, no quarter given in battle, and such atrocities as the dragging of Hector behind the chariot of Achilles round the walls of Troy, the sacrifice of twelve Trojan captives at the funeral of Patroclus, or the hideous acts of vengeance committed by Ulysses in the *Odyssey*, we may bear in mind that in Italy, contemporary with the divine artists, the famous writers, and the pioneers of science were the life of crime and violence depicted in the *Memoirs* of Benvenuto Cellini, the hunger-tower, the torture-house of the Visconti, the Borgias and the Bravi.' Again, the savagery of Athens 'in her most intellectual era' was horrible—witness the Melians and the Mitylenians, while the cruelty of Alexander was more revolting than that of Achilles. So much for the Greece of Sophocles, Plato, and Aristotle. On the barbarities of Rome there is no need to dwell. Yet the languages of Greece and Rome are everywhere still called 'the classics.'

If we pass over the darker periods of the Middle Ages, to which belong some of the greatest poets in many lands, and turn to the 'enlightened' centuries that followed the fall of Constantinople, the story is too often the same. Cervantes published *Don Quixote* scarcely a generation after the end of Alva's reign of terror in the Netherlands. The Spanish Inquisition, which in Torquemada's days is stated to have burnt 10,000 victims, was still active even in the eighteenth century. Of Russia's treatment of political offenders (often literary men) I need hardly speak. One may recall the case of Turgeniev, who, in 1852, for an article on the death of Gogol, was imprisoned for a month and thereafter withdrew to Germany to live. 'There was not a people in Western Europe,' writes Mr. H. G. Wells in *The World Set Free*, 'in the early twentieth century that seemed capable of hideous massacres, and none that had not been guilty of them within the previous two centuries.' Yet all the time literature flourished mightily.*

In point of fact, the greatest men of letters have nearly always been more or less revolutionary, in conflict with the existing social order, and sometimes with law itself. Byron, the young Wordsworth, Coleridge, Shelley, Browning, even Tennyson, all bear me out. Shelley, indeed, lived, it has been said, 'in perpetual conflict with society.' So did Byron. But this phenomenon is not confined to Britain. It is, and always has been, familiar in Germany, where the writers have, in a great number of cases, openly condemned their princes and governors. The greater German authors were all pioneers of freedom, progress, and enlightenment. Here I find the *Schwerpunkt* of my argument. *It is fatal to confuse a country's literature with its politics and armies.* Great books outrun contemporary politics and ethics in Germany as elsewhere. Lessing fought the giant Orthodoxy; his most vital message is the lesson of humanity and toleration. Herder sowed the seeds of progress, proclaimed the need for the birth of 'a sentiment of solidarity between the nations,' and foretold retribution for 'the people who trampled upon the rights of their neighbours.' Goethe not only became 'the exemplar of unfettered genius' in literature, but preached, in season and out, that doctrine of self-development which, rightly understood, must upset the German political theory of to-day. His own attitude towards France and Napoleon is well known. How significant is the fact that in Heynacher's selection, *Goethes Philosophie aus seinen Werken* (1905), there is hardly a word of 'political philosophy'—certainly not one of the Bernhardi type. It is true, as Heynacher admits, 'Abgewandt hat sich der moderne Naturalismus von dem Goetheschen Schönheitsideal'; but even in Germany Naturalism may be a passing phase, at least, so far as it is merely 'of the earth, earthy.' I shall not here attempt to defend the life and works of Goethe, so often and so basely attacked; but, personally, I find the roots of all true religion in those eight lines from the close of *Faust* which begin:

'Gerettet ist das edle Glied
Der Geisterwelt vom Bösen.'

* To avoid giving unnecessary offence I shall say nothing of recorded *British* atrocities in earlier wars, nor am I concerned to defend those of the Germans in the present, so far as they are proved. The argument as to the latter that 'we are now in the twentieth century' does not affect my main point, which is, that such things have very little relation to the question of the worth of a particular country's language and literature. Incidentally, one recalls that, according to Strindberg, we are already once more 'in the Middle Ages,' the great age of art, persecution, enjoyment, and suffering. (*Cf. Legends*, 1912, pp. 179-182.)

I venture to see in Goethe a great artist, but a greater man, a being full of human passions and a godlike will to devote them to higher ends.

Of Germany's other literary men of genius I have little time to speak. They excel usually in the lyric and the drama rather than in the epic, and sometimes in content rather than in form. Among the chief lyric poets and dramatists one notes this same tendency to rebel against authority, to scourge oppression, and to proclaim love, truth, honour, and freedom as the dearest possessions of man. I can but mention Schiller, Heinrich von Kleist, Grillparzer, Hebbel (that champion of woman's individuality), and Wagner, who proclaims the end of the all-too-human gods, and teaches how:

> 'Nicht trüber Verträge
> Trügender Bund,
> Noch heuchelnder Sitte
> Hartes Gesetz:
> Selig in Lust und Leid
> Lässt—die *Liebe* nur sein.'

Among the greater lyric poets three stand out notably as fierce castigators of German vices: Hölderlin, Heine, and Nietzsche. The latter's influence has probably not been happy on the whole, but it should not be forgotten that he, too, was in revolt against baseness and a writer of splendid verse and prose.

The German novel, it may be admitted, shows a tendency to excess in detail and a certain lack of art; it lends itself only in rare cases to school use. But in the *Novelle* there is very excellent material, notably in the works of Hebbel, Paul Heyse, Theodor Storm, Gottfried Keller, and C. F. Meyer. Such novelists as Freytag, Ludwig, Raabe, Vischer, Sudermann, and Frenssen await the adult reader. For the school we need more and better selections, including history, geography, and science.

Here we reach a new and fruitful branch of our subject, the question of Germany's contribution to modern science and thought outside the range of pure literature. Those alone who look upon Protestantism as 'the renaissance of heathenism' would seem to have the right to scorn the great name of Luther. The rest can say whether the renegade monk, like Kant and Goethe later, contributed much or little to the freeing of the spirit 'von den Fesseln geistiger Borniertheit.' In the sixteenth century, 'in England's days of darkness and persecution,' Germany protected William Tyndale while he was printing his New Testament, and Luther's assertion of the right of private judgment in theology and religion 'logically led,' as Professor Paterson has declared in that admirable volume, *German Culture* (London, 1915), 'to the complete emancipation of philosophy and science from the control and embargo of the Church and to the freedom of individual thought and speech which is the accepted privilege of the modern civilized world.'

The fruits of this emancipation of philosophy and science have, I claim, been so notable in the land where it was chiefly won that our secondary schools simply cannot afford to neglect the language of that country. Otherwise they hide away from their pupils the chief key to the vast stores of German learning and science. I do not, indeed, feel certain that our classical schools as at present conducted can afford to do enough German to make the study worth while, though one year's intensive work on modern lines would prove extremely valuable. But the modern sides and the modern schools must not be allowed to fall into the easy error of despising German science and German thought through that confusion of mind which now labels everything German as rotten and immoral. Our great national failing is still our insularity. It is salutary to see ourselves as our enemies see us and our enemies through their own eyes. It is equally salutary to see Nature through the eyes of a nation to whom natural science has become an instrument of everyday life. The Germans are very likely less inventive than we are on the grand scale, but they have admittedly learnt, as we have not yet learnt, that *science pays*, and they have accumulated immense stores of scientific knowledge only accessible to those who can read their language with ease. In passing, I would also point out that practically every important book, ancient or modern, is sooner or later translated into German, which thus, even more than English, has become a key to the world's best literature.* Moreover, the Germans' power of organization has enabled them to produce numerous encyclopædic works which, except by a few fanatics, are regarded as indispensable mines of information and suggestion: it is enough to cite the names of Iwan von Müller, Roscher, Pauly, Wissowa, Kroll,

* The fact was long ago observed by Goethe, who himself had a marvellous skill in the interpretation of foreign, notably classical, thought. *Cf.* Professor Percy Gardner, *New Chapters in Greek History* (pp. 319, 320), who introduces a fine translation of a paragraph in the *Italienische Reise* with the words: 'Goethe has expressed, in a passage which cannot be too often quoted, the ultimate truth about Greek sepulchral reliefs.'

Gercke, and Norden in the one field of classical scholarship. In special fields other names readily occur, from Voss and W. von Humboldt downward through the nineteenth century. Mommsen's name is still classic, and it is mere affectation to despise the work of men like Erwin Rohde, Adolf Harnack, Eduard Meyer, Wilamowitz-Moellendorf, Heinrich Holtzmann, Hermann Gunkel, Otto von Gierke, Ernst Troeltsch, whose influence is so highly spoken of in Baron von Hügel's learned and thoughtful essays on *The German Soul*. As for the really enormous debt that natural science owes to German investigators I am content to refer any fair-minded inquirer to the amazingly learned article by Professor J. A. Thomson in the little work on *German Culture* already quoted, and to the facts collected in Merz's *History of European Thought in the Nineteenth Century*, the work of many years, and in no sense written *ad hoc*. From Thomson's article I will cite but the one half-sentence: 'for the sake of our own self-respect as truth-lovers, we must withstand the temptation to belittle what has proved itself great.'*

Of the formal value of the German language as an instrument of mental training I will say only that to me it seems to combine some of the best features of Latin and Greek. Its system of word-formation and its descriptive vocabulary make it interesting and attractive; its accidence and syntax help in the teacher's eternal war on slovenly speech and thought. Its strictly commercial value is an asset which may for a time depreciate, but this time will scarcely endure many years. To H.M. officers in all the Services, to Consuls and other servants of the State, it would seem to be a weapon and a defence. To our Foreign Office a thorough knowledge of the German mind gained through residence in the country, through conversation, and through wide reading, would have been of untold value: it is only too obvious that this scarcely existed or was possessed only by powerless subordinates. In our Universities and our military colleges the study of German must henceforth be given real weight, and a good grounding in the language is, therefore, highly desirable in the schools. The idea that the language is harsh and unmelodious arises mainly from its unfamiliarity and from two or three sounds not found in normal English. Those who know German well find it full of music, particularly in countless beautiful lyrics. German prose is, doubtless, on a lower level. It has not wholly found itself, but is full of vigour and development. There is no such uniformity as meets one in modern French, but plenty of good stylists of this and the last century, if few who reach the charm and lucidity of Goethe. Jakob Grimm, Hermann Hettner, Rudolf Haym, Erich Schmidt, C. F. Meyer, R. M. Meyer may be cited from among many masters of prose style. The vocabulary they have at their command is extremely rich and pleasing; to our English ears it often has a quaint novelty and fitness. Personally, I am inclined to envy the Germans most of all their pictorial combination-words: *Traubengestade, Berggetreue, Buchstabenmensch, Schadenfreude, Weltanschauung, Unglücksvogel, Entwicklungsstufe, Gesichtskreis, Augenblick, Schützengraben* (of which a journalist recently made ignorant fun), *Volksetymologie*, and a host of others. If the grammar is somewhat petrified the vocabulary is full of life and growth.

Finally, let me express as briefly as possible my conviction that this present war ought to end with the conclusion of peace. I have no faith in, and no wish to see a 'war after the war,' whether commercial, or social, or spiritual. The whole blame for this war cannot, in my view, be simply shouldered off on to one nation; nor shall we achieve even our own good by fostering the spirit of bitterness. There was a time when there was no need 'to worry about the Germans.' That time has passed. We must now learn to understand them in the hope of improving our relations with them. We must study the science of international preventive medicine. To do this properly we must know more of the language of our most serious commercial and political rival; and the place for this study to begin seems to me to be the school. I trust I have said enough to show that education will not suffer thereby.

MARSHALL MONTGOMERY.

* For similar German expressions written during the war, *cf.* Romain Rolland, *Au-Dessus de la Mêlée*, 40me éd., Paris, 1915, pp. 130 *ff.*: 'l'orgueil qui admire est du moins supérieur à celui qui dénigre.'

'SOME QUESTIONS OF PHONETIC THEORY.'

As some time must elapse before the publication of my *Some Questions of Phonetic Theory* can be completed, I should be glad to be allowed a little space for a reply to the criticism of Part I. of the work by W. B. M. in the June number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

My critic is evidently not a phonetician, or he would know the difference between humming and a continued 'ng,' and would not suggest that by 'a transfer of attention' the sound of 'ng' may be heard to change into different vowels, ah, oh, oo, etc. It ought not to be necessary to point out to him that before attention can be transferred it must be given. My critic has given no real attention to my reasoning and conclusions. He has not performed the simple experiments—perhaps because they require no special apparatus—by which anyone with, preferably, a bass voice, who is not tone-deaf, can determine with great accuracy, and with complete certainty as to the elusive octave, the pitch of the chief mouth-tone in any vowel he can utter. He has dropped the book into the waste-paper basket.

It is useless for W. B. M. to repeat 'from the physical standpoint' arguments which I have shown to be baseless. Harmonics of the voice cannot, in any combination analyzable by the ear with or without resonators, account for vowel-quality. The physicists and others who since Willis have attempted this problem are credited with having advocated every possible conclusion. It would be more exact to say that they have advocated a great many impossible conclusions. The existence of voiceless vowels shows that vowel-quality depends upon factors which are independent of the larynx. If for any reason a person breathes out audibly through the mouth, the sound contains vowel-quality. The glottis here being wide open, the 'vocal cords' have no more share in the production of the sound than has the windpipe. This simple fact is perhaps rather hard to grasp, the word *vowel* being generally associated with voice. But suppose, by way of analogy, that a Professor of Botany were to assert that a rose is a rose by reason of its sweet smell and its rosy redness, and one were then to show him a perfectly white, scentless rose. Would he still maintain his original assertion? It is indeed possible that your Nominalist professor might become annoyed, take your white rose, and stamp upon it. Yet a Frau von Druschki rose is certainly a rose, although no doubt by any other name it would be just as white and as completely lacking in odour. So, too, the devoiced vowels of French and Japanese remain vowels.

Phoneticians are interested in sounds, but not primarily in Sound with a big S. We want to know what the ear can hear and does hear. We are rather weary of being told that by Ohm's law the ear hears what it obviously does not hear, and in some cases what no ear ever has heard or can hear. We are willing, even anxious, to learn from the physicist, the physiologist, the psychologist. We are tired of being referred back by all these authorities to Helmholtz, who from the phonetic standpoint (I thank W. B. M. for the word) is not impressive.

W. B. M. holds that Ohm's law and the resonance-theory of audition (whose resonance-theory?) rest on a great mass of evidence. Has he ever considered these things in connection with beats? Ohm's law, as stated and *proved* by Helmholtz, teaches that 'every motion of the air which corresponds to a composite mass of musical tones is capable of being analyzed into a sum of simple pendular vibrations, and to each such single vibration corresponds a simple tone, sensible to the ear' (*Sensations of Tone*, 1885, p. 33). 'In beats,' Helmholtz says, 'the objective motions of the elastic bodies within the ear follow the simple law' (p. 160), and 'it is not till these motions excite sensation in the nerves that any deviation occurs from the law that each of the two tones and each of the two sensations of tone subsist side by side without disturbance' (p. 166). Would W. B. M. undertake to explain how and where sensations of tone can subsist *before* sensation in the nerves is excited; or, failing that, will he show how to account for beats by Ohm's law? Helmholtz's original idea, which was not his, was to provide one string in the cochlea for each distinguishable pitch of tones heard in succession. He did not here consider beats, by means of which

'there is no limit to the accuracy of comparison attainable' (Rayleigh, II., p. 433). His theory therefore requires an infinite number of vibrators, and as these cannot be infinitely thin strings, the minute cochlea must have been designed on the plan of the tower of Babel. It must be a kind of interminable whelk. To the physical eye it is not so, however. Auerbach (p. 668) still holds, like M'Kendrick down to 1900 with his shaky arithmetic, that the number of fibres present is sufficient, but, he adds in the same paragraph, if not sufficient, then it does not matter. Of course it doesn't matter. It never did. All that is necessary is to regard the basilar membrane as a membrane, not as a miniature grand piano with the long bass strings (the longest being about 1-50th of an inch) at the narrow end of the sound-board. The motion of one fibre responsible for each tone is impossible, because as I have pointed out, and W. B. M. has failed to notice, we can hear two notes of the same pitch but different quality (even when both sources of sound lie neatly along the median plane) at the same time. And for the same reason the harmonic analysis of quality in the peripheral organ is an impossibility. It would involve a synthesis—the two notes must infallibly blend into one—which is contrary to experience. The recent experiments of Dr. Yoshii and others on the cochlea of the guinea-pig are taken by Auerbach (p. 674) as supporting Helmholtz. But Yoshii's siren-notes (by no means simple tones) affected each time merely one strip of Corti's organ. The overtones left no separate trace whatever. If such experiments prove anything, then, about the human ear, they prove what Rutherford maintained long ago, that the harmonic analysis of quality, as far as it can be performed by the ear, takes place in the central organ.

Ohm's law, being a generally-always-sometimes law, a formula which notoriously fails to embrace the phenomena of beats, naturally affords an excellent ground for denying the belief of Thomas Young that rapid beats may combine into a sensation of tone! A simple measurement, such as might have been possible at any time since Thomas Young hit upon the idea of representing Father Time by a revolving cylinder, will show that if the Helmholtz estimate of the duration of resonance in the internal ear were correct, we could not hear and therefore could not by the ordinary process learn to pronounce any such word as *better, pocket,* etc. I might intone at pitch 110 the words 'What utter rot!' but the Helmholtzian ear would hear something like 'Whadt udter rodt!' When a few such points as these have been inserted in the mass of evidence on which Ohm's law and the Helmholtz theory of audition repose, their rest must become, one would think, a little uneasy. But I have not quite the same comfortable faith as my critic in the spirit of science, or rather, of *Wissenschaft*. Sometimes a scientific theory is welded as a club wherewith to dispose of unsubmissive phenomena as they may show themselves. It is then impossible for a better theory to come into existence. Some sixteen years ago, when floundering up to the waist in the slough of German Shakespeare criticism, I was moved to pen the following mild protest: 'Surely this is the most extraordinary reasoning. Not having given a subject the attention it deserves, you readily arrive at a theory. You then proceed to note that many data do not agree with your theory. You thereupon try to demolish those data one by one by flinging your theory at them. . . .' The same manœuvre has been performed more than once for the benefit of Helmholtz. No doubt it will be classified some day in dialectics as a variety of the Prussian Defence. The question which disturbs me at present is whether W. B. M. is unconsciously playing the same perverse game.

W. Perrett.

THE PLACE OF RUSSIAN.

As the question of 'The Place of Russian' seems to be attracting some attention and as other correspondents will no doubt wish to add to our growing store of information, I must ask Mr. Underwood to forgive me if I deal in a very condensed form with his criticisms of my last letter and with the new points he raises.

1. I certainly take exception to his statement that 'Heine and Goethe apart, German literature is for the most part third rate.' This is the popular view of

German and to contrast it with a learned view of Russian is unfair. It would be just as misleading to say, for example, 'apart from Tolstoy, Russian literature is negligible,' or 'with the exception of Molière and Victor Hugo, France has produced no writers of importance.' I am quite willing to accept Mr. Underwood's favourable view of Russian literature, but I decline to accept his unfavourable view of German.

2. I am sorry that I accused Mr. Underwood unjustly of wishing to make a case for Russian by disparaging German. The fact that so many others have employed this method of argument both in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING and elsewhere led me, perhaps too hastily, to credit him with a similar intention.

3. I am rather surprised that objection is raised to my general statement that 'all the chief modern foreign languages are approximately equal in importance.' My object in making it was to discount the vague and, in my opinion, pretentious claims made for French, German, Italian, Russian, Spanish, etc., by the advocates of each. I do not regard any of them as being in the same class as the mother-tongue. I believe that what is claimed for any one of them can be claimed more or less for all. If Mr. Underwood will turn to the Memorandum on the Teaching of Russian issued by the Modern Language Association Sub-committee, he will find that its authors are quite satisfied to claim for Russian advantages similar to those of German, *e.g.* (p. 13), 'As far as its educational possibilities are concerned, all the particular advantages claimed for German are offered by Russian to an equal extent.' Again (p. 2), 'In justice to the language and people of Russia it must be said that the study of Russian is not any more desirable now than it was, in fact, before the war'; and lastly (p. 27), 'Educationally the fact is important that the general structure of Russian shows great similarity with that of German, and *a knowledge of German unquestionably places a pupil at a considerable advantage*. . . .' The italics are mine.

I have not the memoranda on German, Spanish, and Italian to hand, but I think it will be found that approximately the same claims are made for each. In short, there is nothing like leather, and if Mr. Underwood pins his faith to the Russian variety, there are others who do not.

It seems to me that any attempt to decide the comparative importance of French, German, etc., is bound to be futile. Time and circumstances alter our attitude towards each, and then again so much depends on what we mean by 'importance.' It may be true, as Mr. Underwood argues, that French has claims over all other modern languages; on the other hand, there is no doubt whatever that it is Germany, not France, that has occupied the attention of the whole civilized world for the last three years. If we had paid more attention to Germany in the past, perhaps we could have dealt more easily with the present calamity.

4. My suggestion that a little time might be found for Russian in schools, in the higher forms at least, at the expense of mathematics, was perfectly serious. Chemistry and physics, in the case of boys whose linguistic ability has been clearly established, might also yield a period or two for Russian.

5. I see little reason to modify my view that it will take thirty years to bring Russian studies up to the present level of German, except that modern languages generally are bound to receive greater encouragement at the Universities than was the case when the Modern Languages Tripos, for example, was established at Cambridge, some thirty years ago. There has been much experiment and reform since then, and an entirely new scheme comes into force in 1919, the results of which will not appear for several years. The advocates of Russian cannot hope to achieve perfection all at once. Again, there is the question of teachers. For a generation or so our Universities have been turning out students qualified to teach German. On the other hand, I am informed on excellent authority that there are not a dozen Englishmen in the country who are qualified to teach Russian. Moreover, the number of Russians in this country who possess academic qualifications comparable with those of teachers of German is apparently negligible, for the organizers of our Russian studies have agreed to regard a secondary school education as an adequate qualification for a post as teacher of Russian in this country. They had of course no alternative, but the result will be that for several years yet the teaching of Russian will be mainly in the hands of a very small number of semi-qualified Russian teachers, whereas the teaching of German

is now and will remain in the hands of a fairly large body of fully qualified British teachers. All this means that it will be years yet before the level of Russian studies will approach the present level of German studies, and of course the supporters of the latter are not going to mark time.

The fact that the Russians abolished the teaching of German and substituted English by a stroke of the pen was flattering to ourselves, but proves nothing, as a stroke of the pen would certainly not create a supply of teachers of English.

6. My query as to the effect of the traditional Russian type on the eyesight of pupils was unexpectedly justified in the last issue of this journal by the report in Russian of Mr. Slepchenko's speech. The Oxford texts to which Mr. Underwood draws my attention are certainly admirable, but the difference between them and the traditional Russian type is almost as great as that between Roman and the traditional German type.

7. My second question was more of the nature of a hint than an inquiry. I contented myself with a reference to a hypothetical catastrophe because I did not wish to suggest the greater one that has now unfortunately come to pass. However, now that it is an accomplished fact, teachers of Russian will have to face it, and the test of their ability will be their success or failure in maintaining the newly founded study of Russian in spite of the complete collapse of popular enthusiasm for the subject. Their position will be by no means as awkward as that of teachers of German in 1914-15, but nevertheless the tide of war emotion no longer flows in favour of Russian as it did, and the more difficult appeal to reason must follow the easy appeal to sentiment. An excellent start has been made under most favourable circumstances, but a relapse seems to me inevitable and the advocates of Russian will have to fight hard to keep the ground they have won. There is no reason why they should be unduly discouraged. Russian can hardly fall into such bad odour as German was in at the beginning of the war; and yet the supporters of German have, I think, succeeded in convincing an almost hostile public that it can and should be studied from a rational, British point of view.

G. WATERHOUSE.

THE SPELLING OF WELSH PLACE-NAMES.

Now that spelling reform is so much heard of, may I put in a plea for the correct spelling of Welsh place-names? Many ludicrous mistakes have been made over these, some of which have become permanent, and, unluckily, have even been adopted by the natives, and yet nothing is simpler in reality than to spell them right according to sound, for Welsh is an absolutely phonetic language, and the values of its letters could easily be learnt by anyone who goes to reside there.

What happened was this: the English traveller, visiting Wales for the sake of its natural beauties or its antiquities, would inquire of the native the name of the little town or village that he happened to be in. He would then write down what it sounded like to him, and this barbarous transcription would be preserved in print, perhaps become the official English spelling of the luckless hamlet. Even such a learned and cultured man as Sir Richard Colt Hoare, when he travelled and sketched in Wales between 1800-1810, was incredibly careless over his spelling, and such blunders as 'Raidergwy' for 'Rhayadrgwy,' 'Lanwadein' for 'Llawbaden,' are by no means uncommon underneath his engravings.

Worst of all, the natives, many of whom were very backward in writing, fell in with the English orthography, which often to a Welsh eye would represent the exact opposite of the Welsh sound it was intended to convey.

For instance, the Welsh vowels *u* and *y* have the sound of the English *ee* (or more like the French *u*) and the *u* in *shudder* respectively, while *i* has always the Continental sound. Now a name spelt *Rhyddlan* would be pronounced in Welsh as an English person would say *Rhuthlan*; consequently, the English visitor wrote about *Rhuddlan* Castle, and that is now the usual spelling. Likewise, the sound *ei* in *Llandeilo*, being like the English *i* in *mile*, would be represented by an Englishman *Llandilo*. As long as the correct sound is still known it would be an easy matter to return to the correct spelling; but in many cases the natives themselves are getting mixed, and know not whether the sound or the spelling is wrong. An educated Welsh woman wanted to say the other day that it was *Rhithlan* Castle (which is

the pronunciation that *Rhuddlan* would suggest to her); and some hesitate whether they should say Llandeelo, the normal spelling now being Llandilo. *Ruthin* is another instance. The original Welsh name was *Rhyddyn*, and the anglicized form Ruthin represents the sound; but there is now a tendency among Welshmen to call it *Rithin*, giving the *u* its proper value in Welsh. The *th* by which the Englishman tries to represent the Welsh *dd* is incorrect, for to a Welshman *th* has a sharp sound as in *thin*, whereas *dd* is like *th* in *those*. And, no doubt, in time there will be a tendency among English people to pronounce *Ruthin* with the same sound as in the name *Ruth*, thus getting quite away from the original name.

Welsh names always have a meaning. Matthew Arnold has called them 'poems in themselves.' Generally they are made up of several words, which describe them. For instance, Rhyddlan Castle is so called because of the redness of its soil and walls; Llandeilo was the site of a church dedicated to St. Teilo; Tremadoc means the town of Madoc; Ynysddu is the Black Island; Ynysybwl (the last word is pronounced 'bool,' by the way) is the island of the pool; and so on. But who would recognize in Portskewet, Port-is-coed, 'the port below the wood'; or in Barmouth, 'abermawdd,' 'the junction of the Mawddach' (with the sea).

In some cases, of course, the old Welsh names have definitely been replaced by English ones, as Swansea for Abertawe, Brecon for Aberhonddu. Another mistake in the spelling of names is to use the letter *v*, which simply does not exist in Welsh. Thus, some spell Merthyr Tydvil. Again, this gives the sound as an Englishman would write it. Single *f* in Welsh has the sound of *v* in English. Therefore, it is wrong to use single *f* when wishing to convey the sound of English *f*, for this is done in Welsh by *ff*. *Treforest* ('the place of the forest') is wrong, it should be *Trefforest*; and the celebrated Vale must also be spelt Ffestiniog.

Doubling a consonant means little or nothing in English, but in Welsh the only consonants that are ever doubled, viz., *d*, *f*, and *l*, have then an entirely different sound from when they are single. *F* I have just explained. *Dd* has the sound of *th* in *that*, the sharper sound of *think* being represented by *th*. Therefore, those who pronounce the name of the Food Controller as though the last syllable were *da* are wrong in doing so. *Ll* is probably known to everybody, and as it has no equivalent in English I must be content with trusting George Borrow that it is like the *ll* in Spanish. But some words which normally have *ll*, as *llwyn* ('a grove'), in their mutated form lose an *l*, so that the spelling of *Mynyddislwyn* ('the mountain beyond the grove') with one *l* is quite correct. On the other hand, *Kidwelly* is a barbarous spelling, and might in time lead a Welshman to pronounce the *elly* as he does in *Llanelly*. *K* is not a Welsh letter; the correct spelling should be *Cydweli*. *Kilgerran*, too, is wrong; it should be *Cilgeran*—there is no point in doubling the *r* since *rr* has no recognized value in Welsh.

The danger of the absolutely phonetic language is, that if a wrong transcription is used it may ultimately damage the pronunciation. What I am advocating is not a new spelling, but a return to what should be the correct phonetic spelling of certain fixed sounds, which cannot otherwise be properly represented.

NORA ISAACS.

REPORT ON THE TEACHING OF FRENCH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF LONDON.*

THIS is a full and comprehensive document, and as it consists of thirty-three pages of closely printed foolscap, it will be of course impossible to comment upon it in its entirety. There are, however, certain salient features in it to which we would direct our readers' attention.

After a brief introduction in which he feelingly refers to the wholesale disorganization of school staffs in the boys' schools and the nervous strain under which the mistresses are working among their girls, Mr. Brereton draws attention to what must always be a factor in all education—viz., the inequality in home influence, which in some centres retards, while in others it assists, the acquirement of a foreign language (*cf.* p. 1).

This (p. 2) is followed by a retrospect of French teaching in L.C.C. schools for the past ten years, and it is encouraging to note that,

* The 'Report of the Council's Divisional Inspector on the Teaching of French in London Secondary Schools' is to be placed on sale. Copies will be obtainable from P. S. King and Son, Ltd., 2 and 4, Great Smith Street, Westminster, S.W. 1, price 2½d. a copy; post free 5d.

despite recent dislocation caused by the war, the writer considers that considerable progress has been made of late, and believes that the 'New Method' has come to stay. He recognizes, however, that certain obvious defects must be removed, and that, if increased efficiency is to be obtained, it must be more carefully systematized than at present.

In dealing with the present state of French teaching (p. 3) he dwells on some four or five defects, amongst which he emphasizes the importance which should be attached to acquiring an adequate vocabulary. Most teachers to-day will agree as to this, and all, I fancy, will back his demand that modern languages require more vigorous departmentalization, and that definite systems for the teaching of composition should be evolved and enforced. Many teachers, too, who have felt that their most strenuous efforts were nullified by their pupils' crass ignorance of their own language will fully endorse his demand (on p. 13, where he again adverts to this practical part of his subject) that the mother tongue should be regarded everywhere as the real basis of instruction in the foreign one, and that therefore there should be a close working alliance between the teachers of English grammar and, in this case, French. There is sometimes, unfortunately, a tendency, on the part of teachers and taught, to regard the two as wholly separate departments, whereas for both *language*—rather than 'languages'—is of primary importance.

His suggestions as to keeping up the teachers' knowledge of French by improving their acquaintance with its literature (p. 4) are eminently practical, though it would not be possible to carry them out till after the war. In this connection his comments on the advantages to be derived from membership of the Modern Language Association are distinctly flattering.

With regard to the hours of teaching, on which he furnishes statistics as to what is usual in Germany and France, I think that only in cases when the new method is in use, or there is a large amount of written work to be corrected out of class—*i.e.*, in senior forms—could he hope to see the French *maxima* adopted here.

The problem of the late-comer (pp. 5 and 6) is dealt with in the light of his own practical experience, and various remedies are suggested, such as the exclusion of inefficients—a drastic remedy indeed!—or shorter and more intensive courses for backward pupils. I fear that neither of these are as 'practical' as most of this writer's suggestions usually are, for the one would create an immediate parental and the other a distinct headmaster's grievance. 'Special' classes share with special legislation the fate of all arrangements invented *ad hoc*: they are a concession to a weakness which under a more carefully organized system ought not to exist at all.

But that greater differentiation should be striven for is quite obvious, and the new Regulations for the Modern and Medieval Languages Tripos (1917) afford an object-lesson of what can be done when the human mind is consciously applied to the solution of a problem.

On the subject of textbooks, which in the main he regards as satisfactory, both in the preparatory and advanced stages of teaching (pp. 8-13), Mr. Brereton has many novel and sometimes luminous remarks to offer.

All will agree with his observations on the importance of private reading and school libraries (pp. 15 and 16), and his suggestions on the systematic teaching of both free and formal composition would repay study (pp. 16-17).

In his comments on the teaching of French after the Matriculation stage the writer regrets (p. 22) that 'Modern French is often sacrificed to the premature demands of philology.' In this many, though not all, teachers would agree with him.

More actual are his views (p. 25), on the need for a good central library in modern languages for teachers. The Modern Language Association made a very laudable effort in this direction a good many years ago, but, if my memory is not at fault, it did not meet with any general success. Would the L.C.C. like to offer them a grant to re-establish it on an extended scale and in some central and readily accessible building? I commend this suggestion to Mr. Brereton; it would certainly be a valuable extension of the privileges to be enjoyed by future teachers in their preparation for their life's work.

On p. 27 the writer pleads for a closer imitation of French methods of examination, which set quality above quantity, and lay deserved stress on a candidate's power to arrange his facts in duly correlated sequence and marshal his arguments in logical and literary form. The *Entente Cordiale* having now become, as we hope, an *Alliance Eternelle*, even this *desideratum* may one day be attained.

All Mr. Brereton's concluding observations on pp. 27-29 are well worth attentive perusal, especially what he says (pp. 29-30) as to the value of French as one of the chief 'modern humanities,' as Mr. Stanley Leathes has happily phrased it.

His last four pages present a convenient table

of the various suggestions and recommendations on teaching, organization, and examinations contained in the body of the Report.

In conclusion, I may add that, as this Report itself is obviously a summary of a very large number of observations in every domain of modern language teaching and study, it will be found of considerable value to that rapidly increasing number of teachers in the present day who desire to adopt what is best in the new methods without rashly abandoning the valuable elements contained in the old. W. S. M.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

[*The Modern Language Association does not endorse officially the comments or opinions expressed in this column.*]

ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

O. T. Hitchings, of Bridlington Grammar School, is serving in the Intelligence Corps of the B.E.F., with the rank of Captain.

* * *

The Admiralty has asked for and obtained the loan of the services of Professor Savory of the Queen's University of Belfast. He has been given a post in the Intelligence Department and a Commission as Lieutenant in the R.N.V.R.

* * *

OBITUARY.

It is only recently that we have heard of the death of Second Lieutenant W. T. Young, who was killed in France last summer. He was Lecturer in English at Goldsmiths' College, S.E., and joined the Northumbrian North Riding R.G.A. in 1915. His edition of Keats's Poems has recently appeared. He had been a member of the Association since 1908.

We have received a leaflet containing a letter signed by fifteen University professors in America, and addressed to the teachers of the Romance Languages in the United States, urging the enthusiastic study of French, Italian, and Spanish, especially the first mentioned. The letter calls for volunteers between the ages of twenty-five and fifty who are willing to offer their services as teachers of French and Italian under the auspices of the Y.M.C.A., who will pay travelling expenses and provide an outfit. To such teachers a special training will be given. The salary for a single man is $1,200 a year, and for a married man $2,100, provided this salary is not greater than his present one. For further information write to Mr. Harrison S. Elliott, Y.M.C.A., 124, East 28th Street, New York.

* * *

The new Anglo-French Society is already a great success—it has secured over 500 members in two months. The Secretaries are Mr. W. Hislop and M. Henry D. Davray, and the offices are at 8, St. Martin's Place, W.C. The subscription for teachers is 7s. 6d. a year for town members, or 5s. for country members.

REVIEW.

[*The Association does not make itself officially responsible for the opinions of reviewers.*]

Hazlitt: Selected Essays. Edited by GEORGE SAMPSON. 8× 5½. Pp. xxxviii+ 251. Cambridge University Press. 3s. 6d. net.

To edit and annotate one of our more recent English classics must always be an arduous and uncomfortable task, and there will always be a variety of opinions as to how it should be managed. So much depends upon the readers for whom such work is intended, and there can be no doubt that for youthful students much must be given that seems at once elementary and arbitrary. On the other hand, where examinations are not so pressing and education in a more liberal and leisured sense is possible, the elaborately annotated edition may seem out of place. More good is done, and more real culture attained, by a continuous study or a series of essays on a given subject, than by a collection of disjointed and rather cramming notes. Mr. Sampson, however, may be held to have done well in this presentation of some of the Essays of Hazlitt, intended as they are for examination purposes and the use of students in Training Colleges. The book is, as we have

suggested, fully annotated, and the Editor has intentionally allowed himself to be discursive and to provide much miscellaneous information not strictly à propos. The plan and purpose of the book leads him to write a long introduction mainly concerned with political and literary history, and to be comparatively neglectful of serious literary criticism of his author. It is rather disappointing, however, to find so complete an absence of the critical attitude. Indiscriminate enthusiasm never really convinces even the youngest readers. It is the more pity, for Mr. Sampson has a keen and witty style very superior to the common run of editorial pedantry, and in his selection has had the happy thought to give some of Hazlitt's most interesting contributions to art criticism, which will probably come as a surprise and a revelation to the harassed examination candidate. Here, however, the annotation difficulty comes in again strongly; for notes can do little or nothing to enlighten ignorance of the actual pictures referred to, and inevitably degenerate into information mongering. This section also unfortunately takes up too much room—three essays out of thirteen—and in consequence Mr. Sampson has had to omit all the directly critical work which has hitherto formed the main staple of Hazlitt selections; nor has he been able to include the 'Spirit of the Age' Essays. We are not, however, denied the 'First Acquaintance with the Poets,' nor 'On Going a Journey,' nor 'The Fight,' and as the book is excellently printed, and indeed delightfully got up, we cannot do less than gratefully applaud.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

N.B.—*All books received will be noted in this column. Such notice does not preclude a careful review should the Editor consider any book of sufficient importance or interest.*

ENGLISH.

Criticism, Grammar, etc.

Upham, A. H.: The Typical Forms of English Literature. Pp. 281. Price 6s. net. New York: Oxford University Press.

Tucker, T. G., and Wallace, R. S.: English Grammar, Descriptive and Historical. Pp. 175. Price 3s. net. Cambridge University Press.

Hudson, W. H.: Whittier and his Poetry. Pp. 143. Price 1s. 6d. net. Harrap and Co.

Texts.

Hazlitt: Selected Essays. Edited by George Sampson. Pp. xxxviii + 150 + 101. Price 3s. 6d. net. Cambridge University Press.

Antony and Cleopatra (The Granta Shakespeare). Edited by J. H. Lobban. Pp. xxix + 176 + 40. Cambridge University Press.

Poems of Keats: Endymion, the Volume of 1820, and other Poems. Edited by W. T. Young. Pp. xxxvi + 282 + 49. Cambridge University Press.

FRENCH.

Course.

Groves, E. J. A.: A Junior French Course. First Year. Pp. xvi + 183. Price 2s. 6d. net. Blackie.

Readers and Texts.

Bell, Lady, and Trevelyan, Mrs. C.: French à la française. Book I., 64 pp. Price 10d.; Book II., 95 pp. Price 1s.; Book III., 96 pp. Price 1s. E. Arnold.

[Easy readers beautifully printed, with delightfully quaint illustrations. Each reading lesson is headed by a list of new words. There is also an alphabetic vocabulary at the end.]

Delany, M. A.: Jean-Robert Flambard: Potache. With 10 Illustrations. Pp. 100. Price 2s. Bell and Son.

Ceppi, Marc. Flips et Compagnie. Pp. 94 + 33. Price 1s. 6d. net. Bell and Son.

Colomb, J. B.: La Fille de Cariles. Adapted and edited by C. R. Ash. (Oxford Junior Series.) Price 1s. 6d.

Miscellaneous.

Old French Nursery Songs. Music arranged by Horace Mansion, Pictured by Anne Anderson. 6s. net. Harrap and Co.

RUSSIAN.

Texts.

Gogol: An Old-World Country House (*Oxford Russian Plain Texts*). Pp. 63. Price 1s. net. Clarendon Press.

Gogol: The Inspector-General (*Bondar's Russian Readers*, No. 5). Pp. 157. Price 4s. net. Effingham Wilson.

Steinhart, E. N.: Poems of Michael Lermontoff. The Russian Texts (accented) with English Verse Translations. Introduction, Notes, Biography, and Glossary. Pp. x + 36. Price 2s. 6d. net. Kegan Paul.

CURRALL, R. T.: A Russian Vocabulary with Pronunciation. Pp. 128. Harrap.

SPANISH.

PEERS, E. A.: A Skeleton Spanish Grammar. Pp. 138+xxxi. Price 2s. 6d. net. Blackie.

PIDAL, R. M.: Antologia de Prosistas Castellanos. Pp. 384. Price 4.50 pesetas. Madrid.

VARIOUS.

STORK, C. W.: Anthology of Swedish Lyrics from 1750 to 1915. Translated in the Original Metres (*Scandinavian Classics*, Vol. IX.). Pp. xxxix+265+15. Price 6s. 6d. net. New York: Henry Milford; Oxford University Press.

FINDLAY, J. J., and BRUFORD, W. H.: Sound and Symbol: A Scheme of Instruction introductory to School Courses in Modern Languages and Shorthand. Pp. 32. Price 1s. net. Manchester University Press (Longmans and Co.).

[An interesting and stimulating pamphlet describing an experiment in teaching in which incidentally Mr. Kingsford's Oxford Shorthand is recommended 'as serving most readily the purposes of a true phonetic alphabet.']

Pitman's Dictionary of Commercial Correspondence in English, French, German, Spanish, Italian and Russian. New edition enlarged and thoroughly revised. Pp. 718. Price 7s. 6d. net. Pitman and Sons.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A MEETING of the Executive Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, October 27.

Present: Mr. Ripman (chair), Mr. Allpress, Miss Althaus, Miss Batchelor, Miss Hart, Messrs. Macgowan, Mansion, Payen-Payne, Perrett, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from the Chairman, and from Miss Ash, Professor Atkins, Mr. D. Jones, and Miss Strachey.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

A letter was received from the Board of Education in reply to the Memorandum on Advanced Courses, inviting the Association to confer with the Board. It was agreed to accept the invitation, and Miss Althaus, Miss Ash, Mr. Fuller, and Mr. S. A. Richards were chosen to represent the Association.

[The place of the first named, who was unable to act, was subsequently taken by Miss Hargraves.]

The programme of the Annual General Meeting was finally arranged.

The following resolution was passed and ordered to be sent to the Minister of Education:

> That this Committee deplores the delay in proceeding with the Education Bill, as it regards the educational provisions as of extreme importance.

The following sixteen new members were elected:

Miss Cecil D. Butler, Southwell Grammar School, Notts.

Miss Gladys Cox, B.A., Girls' Grammar School, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Leicester.

Miss I. Donald, L.L.A., King Edward VII. Grammar School, Coalville, Leicester.

Miss M. D. Francis, Girls' High School, Sutton, Surrey.

Miss Majorie C. Hunter, B.A., Parkfields, Cedars, Derby.

C. Francis Keeble, B.A., Sedbergh School, Yorks.

Miss C. C. Levay, L.L.A., Parkfields, Cedars, Derby.

Miss E. H. Linnell, Girl's High School, Burton-on-Trent.

Miss E. H. B. Main, B.A., High School, Loughborough.

Miss M. Mortimer, B.A., Girls' High School, Rotherham, Yorks.

Miss M. L. Phillips, B.A., Lady Manners' School, Bakewell, Derby.

Miss Ruth M. Smith, Church of England College for Girls, Edgbaston, Birmingham.

Miss J. Sorrell, B.A., County High School, Retford, Notts.

Miss M. O. Stephens, St. Michael's School, Malton, Yorks.

Miss Bertha P. Thomas, B.A.

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, December 1.

Present: Mr. Hutton (chair), Mr. Allpress, Miss Ash, Miss Batchelor, Messrs. Bullough, D. Jones, Macgowan, Mansion, Perrett, Richards, and the Hon. Secretary.

Letters of apology for absence were received from Professor Atkins, Miss Althaus, Miss Hart, Mr. de Payen-Payne, and Mr. Ripman.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Mr. Richards gave an account of the Conference held the previous day with the Board of Education.

The Annual Report was passed.

The Sub-committee for Russian presented a Report, a summary of which will appear in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

A letter was received from the National Home Reading Union, asking for the help of the Association in drawing up a list of French books (not fiction) suitable for young people. As a preliminary step certain lists already published will be sent in.

The following twenty new members were elected:

G. C. Barter, Bournemouth School.

Miss Edith Batchelor, B.A., Eccles Secondary School, Lancashire.

Miss H. R. Bentwich, Manchester High School for Girls.

Miss M. Clutton, Birkenhead High School.

Miss P. Crump, B.A.

Miss D. M. Drought, Bedford High School.

C. H. Gaskin, B.A., Wyggeston Boys' School, Leicester.

Miss A. E. Haines, London Orphan School, Watford.

Miss M. E. L. Hare, West Ham High School for Girls.

Miss C. M. Hopkirk, Girls' Grammar School, Ashby-de-la-Zouch.

Miss E. A. Muirhead Hope, B.A.

J. Sandwith King, Wykeham House, Worthing.

Miss F. C. Maclean, L.L.A., High Pavement Secondary School, Nottingham.

Miss Wilhelmina Middleton, West Ham High School.

Miss E. W. Phare, Paston Grammar School, North Walsham, Norfolk.

Miss Malvina Steine.

Miss V. Stork, B.A., Grove School, Highgate, N.

Miss A. M. Tatham, B.A., Burton-on-Trent High School.

Miss Vining, County Secondary School for Girls, Putney, S.W.

Miss E. H. Webb, Secondary School, Heanor, Derbyshire.

MIDLAND BRANCH.

The new Midland Branch of the Modern Language Association held its first meeting on Saturday, November 24, 1917, at the Municipal Secondary School for Girls, Derby, by kind permission of Miss Keay and the Governing Body. There was a good attendance, fourteen Midland schools being represented, including such widely separate places as Leicester, Chesterfield, Burton, Southwell, Ashby, Nottingham, etc.

The following officers were elected for 1918:

Chairman, Miss M. L. Hart (Nuneaton).

Hon. Secretary, Miss M. Barfield, Trent College.

Hon. Treasurer, Mr. M. A. J. Tarver, Trent College.

Committee: Miss E. H. Linnell (Burton), Miss M. E. Munro (Chesterfield), Mr. L. Storr-Best (Coalville), Mr. C. H. Gaskin (Leicester).

A very interesting paper on 'L'Académie Française' was read by Monsieur Delepine (Ashby).

There was some discussion of the Branch's programme of activity for the coming year, including the organization of inter-school contests in Oral French; and it was decided to hold a minimum of two meetings a year, at convenient centres, the next to be, if possible, at Leicester. The number of active members who have joined the Modern Language Association, or are doing so at once, is about 35, and the Secretary would be glad to hear from other Modern Language Association members in the Midlands (principally Notts, Derbyshire, Leicestershire, and the district near) who would like to get into touch with the new branch. A good many have already been communicated with, but probably some have been overlooked.

Please write to Miss M. Barfield, Trent College, Long Eaton, R.S.O., Derbyshire.

MEMORANDUM ON PROPOSALS OF THE BOARD OF EDUCATION FOR ADVANCED COURSES.

THE Committee of the Modern Language Association are of opinion that the course of instruction in modern studies for pupils who have passed the General School examination should lead up to a Higher School examination in which it should be possible to take any of the following alternatives:

(*a*) Two modern foreign languages and the outlines of a period of European History (one section of the subject of Modern History).

(*b*) The English language and one modern foreign language and the outlines of a period of English History and of a period of European History (two sections of the subject of Modern History).

(*c*) The English language and Modern History, with two subsidiary foreign languages (at least one of which should be modern).

The Committee regret that the Board of Education in their Regulations for Secondary Schools for the session 1917-18 makes no provision for the study of English in its scheme of Advanced Courses. They believe that this may react very unfavourably on the development of Modern Studies, as there are many schools which have specialists capable of giving competent instruction in English, in Modern History, and in one modern foreign language, but no specialist who can take advanced work in two modern foreign languages.

The Board of Education suggest the advanced study of a modern foreign language and of Latin as a possible alternative. The Committee recognize that it is advisable, and perhaps essential, that those taking up Modern Studies should have a good reading knowledge of Latin. This, however, is a very different thing from the 'advanced study' of Latin; and it deserves to be pointed out that the Board of Education Regulations state that the Advanced Courses are intended to lead up to Honours work at a University, but that there is no Honours Course at any English University in which Latin and a modern foreign language are combined as main subjects.

October, 1917.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

N.B.—**The November and December numbers of M.L.T. are published as one issue.**

All contributors are requested to send in matter by the 24th of each month, if publication is urgently required for the issue following.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING appears eight times yearly, viz., on the 15th of February, March, April or May, June, July, October, November, and December. The price of single numbers is 6d. net; the annual subscription is 4s. 8d. Orders should be sent direct to the Publishers, A. and C. Black, Ltd., 4, Soho Square, London.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, ST. JOHN'S SCHOOL, LEATHERHEAD. [**Holiday address**: Ibthorpe House, Hurstbourne-Tarrant, Andover.]

The Journal is sent free to all Members of the Association, but those whose subscription for the current year is not paid before July 1 are not entitled to receive it.

The Annual Subscription to the Association, payable on January 1, is 7s. 6d., and should be sent to the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. W. PERRETT, 58, Erskine Hill, Hendon, N.W.

Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, Steeple, Kingsway, Gerrards Cross.

The MODERN LANGUAGE REVIEW, a Quarterly Journal of Medieval and Modern Literature and Philology, edited by Professor J. G. Robertson, and published by the Cambridge University Press, is supplied to Members of the Association at a special annual subscription of 7s. 6d., *which must be prepaid*. It should be sent with the membership subscription (15s. in all) to the Hon. Treasurer. Those who wish to take in or discontinue the REVIEW should communicate with the Hon. Secretary.

The attention of Teachers is drawn to the collection of French and German School Books, carefully selected by a Sub-Committee, and known as the Travelling Exhibition. It may be inspected on applying to Mr. Twentyman, Board of Education, Whitehall. A Catalogue (sent *gratis* to members) has been issued of all sections except Reading Texts, of which a separate and minutely detailed list is being prepared. For particulars of conditions on which the Exhibition may be loaned apply to Miss Mansion, as below.

The Hon. Secretary will be glad to receive from members the addresses of well-educated families on the Continent willing to receive English guests, which can be recommended to students and teachers wishing to study abroad. The addresses of houses where an English guest is not likely to meet any other English people are specially desired. Names of families should not be sent unless the member can recommend them from personal knowledge. Full particulars should be given.

Communications on the under-mentioned subjects should be addressed to the persons named:—

Exchange of Children: Miss BATCHELOR, Bedford College, Regent's Park, N.W.

Magic-Lantern Slides: H. L. HUTTON, 2, College Gardens, Dulwich, S.E.

Residence Abroad (Women): Miss SANDYS, 30, East St. Helen's, Abingdon; **(Men)**: The Hon. Secretary.

Travelling Exhibition: J. E. MANSION, B.-ès-L., 10, Sudbrooke Road, Wandsworth Common, S.W.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, Berkhamsted School, Herts.

N.B.—Applicants for correspondents are requested to enclose list of pupils, giving names, ages, and addresses, and a stamp for reply.

Correspondence on all other subjects should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary.

It is urgently requested that all Postal Orders be crossed.