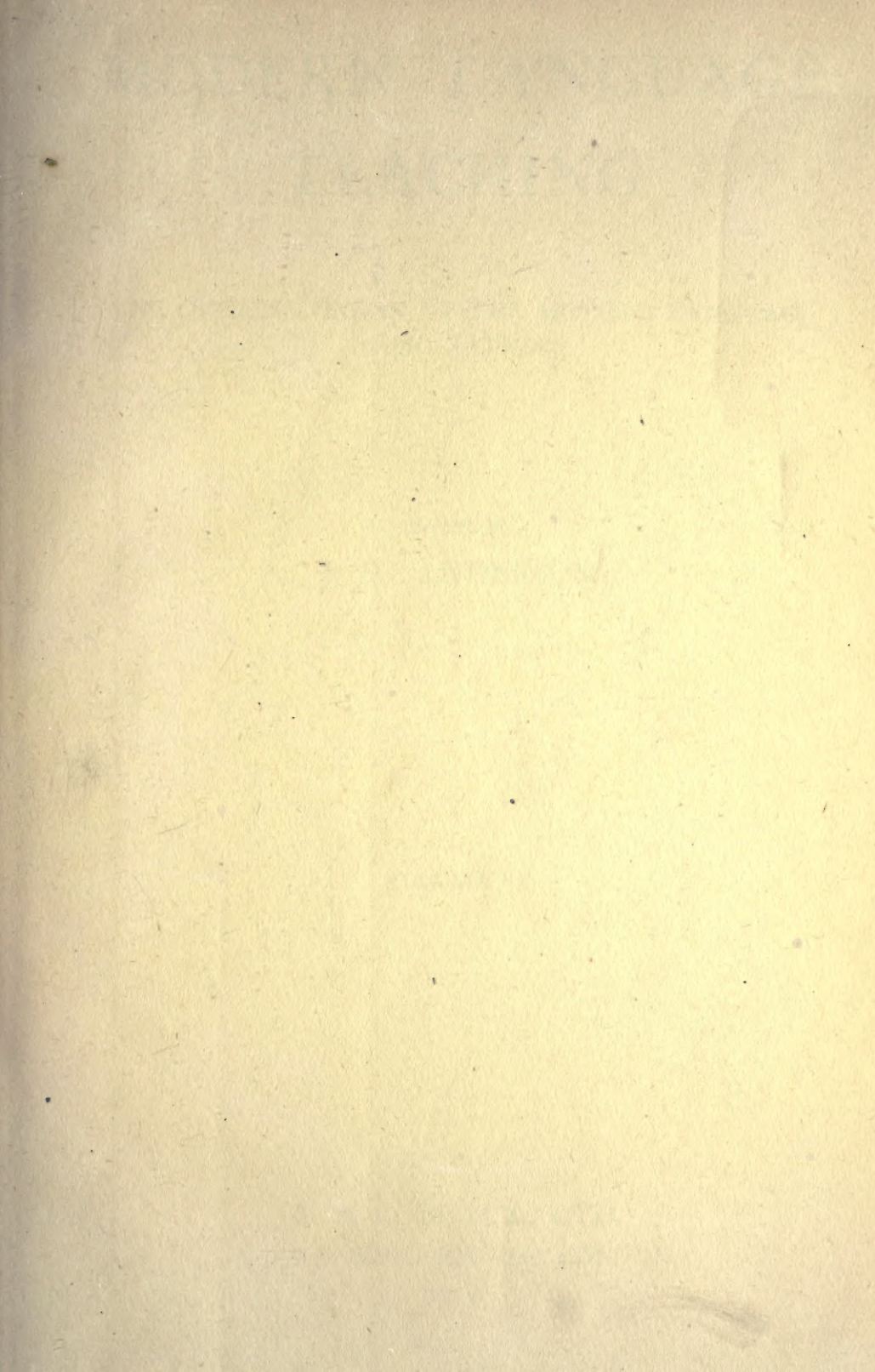


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THE
MODERN LANGUAGE
TEACHING

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MODERN LANGUAGE
ASSOCIATION

EDITED BY

J. G. ANDERSON

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EDITED BY J. G. ANDERSON

VOLUME XI. No. 1

February, 1915

BOADICEA.

C'EST en femme outragée et non en suzeraine
Que j'en appelle à vous, intrépides guerriers.
A vous de décider la vengeance qu'entraîne
Un forfait qui confond même nos meurtriers.
Vous me devez justice au nom de la patrie,
Au nom de mes enfants, au nom de votre honneur.
Je n'ai souci des pleurs de la foule attendrie ;
Etouffons de vains cris jusqu'aux jours de bonheur.
Dans nos sombres forêts, dans leur profond silence,
Les druides vous diront ce qu'exigent les dieux :
Que telle atrocité, que pareille insolence
Se lavent dans le sang à la face des cieux.
Et pourquoi les Romains se sont-ils, dans leur rage,
Couverts d'ignominie en se vengeant sur moi ?
Pour flétrir notre honneur par un sanglant outrage,
Etonnés des efforts que soutient notre foi !
Pendant neuf ans, pour elle, au fond d'un territoire
De montagnes coupé, traqué, mourant de faim,
Soudain Caractacus rappelait la victoire ;
Il nous rendait l'espoir, il nous tendait la main.
C'est où vont les héros, dans les îles lointaines,
Où Taran flamboyant conduit l'astre du jour,
Et dore la nature et ses vives fontaines,
Que repose le Brenn, au céleste séjour.
S'il était parmi vous et qu'il vît une femme
Implorante, à genoux. . . Guerriers, vous frémissiez !
Sitôt tout fût tombé sous les coups de sa lame !
Or, à vous, ou la honte ou l'honneur—choisissez !
Et, comme aux plus beaux jours des grandes épopées,
Un seul cri retentit dans un éclair d'épées,
Un cri qui fit frémir la montagne et la plaine :
Pour nos Dieux et la Reine !

V. E. KASTNER.

ANNUAL MEETING: MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

OUR Association again took part in the Annual Conference of Educational Associations, and held its Twenty-Second Annual Meeting in the West Gallery of the University of London on January 7 and 8. Notwithstanding the national crisis and the absence of many of our members at the front, the attendance was quite as good as in previous years. The addresses, papers, and discussions were of more than average interest, and much more helpful than usual. The meeting was honoured by the presence of Dr. Headlam (Board of Education) and Mr. Stanley Leathes (Chief Civil Service Commissioner), both of whom took part in the discussion on the Teaching of European History. The meeting had also the pleasure of hearing a former President, Dr. Macan, Master of University College, Oxford, who proposed a humorous vote of thanks to the President of the year for his Address.

Of the realities of the war our members were reminded by the Lecture given by Professor Dentrepont, of the University of Louvain. After a short business meeting, at which some of the Rules of the Association were altered, at twelve o'clock the President began his Presidential Address, which might be entitled, A PLEA FOR CHARITY, FOR ACCURACY, AND FOR BETTER LITERATURE:

To no Society meeting in London this week should the war appeal more poignantly than it does to the Modern Language Association. At the call of the country, many of our members have undertaken duties that prevent them being here to-day. Some are standing in peril of their lives; a few have passed out of the range of earthly peril; and all of us, as citizens, have felt the continuous weight of public anxiety, and, from time

to time, have endured a stab at the heart as we have heard of the death of some relative or old pupil.

Besides the stake that we, as citizens and teachers, have in the war, it touches us still more closely as teachers of French and German. The vast majority of our members have spent weeks and months, possibly years, not as tourists, but as residents in one or other, if not in both, of the countries that are the protagonists in this great war. We, if any, should understand the tragedy of what is happening, and we pay for that complete understanding by a deeper heartache. Some of us have sung *Deutschland über alles* in a German Kneipe. Some have watched from the great Dresden river the Whit-Sunday sun gilding the Saxon Highlands. Some have cheered, with their contemporaries, the burning eloquence of the Spanish democrat, Castelar, in the Collège de France. Some have enjoyed the freedom of the Quartier Latin, and tramped with buoyant French students through the forest of Fontainebleau, till the boots which were sold to us as students, with price and sole alike reduced, gave us a respectable excuse for calling for a halt and food. Some have felt the spell of Wagner in the Opera House at Bayreuth. Some can never forget how they laughed with Jeanne Samary, how they cried with Bartet, how they thrilled at the voice of Got and le Bargy as they listened to Molière or Racine, or Émile Augier, in the parterre of the Théâtre Français. Memories such as these—imperishable sweeteners of national bitterness—have been crowding into my mind while thinking of those days when I tried to qualify as a Teacher of Modern Languages, and therefore as a member of this Association; and as they come in their battalions I find it

hard to compose a fitting Presidential Address. The great subjects that might have appealed to me, if not to you, in an ordinary year seem trivial now. Questions, merely academic, have lost their savour.

The subject of the failure of German Culture (which in his forethought our kind Honorary Secretary suggested as a possibility) was rejected by me, and luckily, for it needs more knowledge than I have had time to acquire, and more impartiality than you are, perhaps, prepared to grant. I fall back, then (for it is, I suppose, a relapse), on just a bald statement of the appeal that this emergency ought to be making to *us* teachers above all; and here the old memories help, and I will ask you to stand with me, in imagination, by a grave-side in a now unused cemetery on the fringe of Berlin. It is the grave of a man who was not a Prussian, but a Saxon with a big admixture of Swedish blood. Rather more than a hundred years ago Germany was in the dust, almost as completely as she has laid poor Belgium now. How she raised herself you know, and you will remember that, next to the statesman Stein, to no one was her resurrection more truly due than to the philosopher-patriot Fichte. His addresses to the German people, delivered in Berlin, just in such dark days as these, 107 years ago, summoned his countrymen to throw off the yoke of Napoleon. They strike a noble note. Moral dignity and spiritual freedom, to be won by national education, were to lift them from their national degradation—and they did. We think now that the people who responded so splendidly to this trumpet summons have travestied the teaching of the great prophet; that though it was the best, it has been corrupted and become the worst. No matter; let *us* remember, even if his countrymen have forgotten them, such words as these: 'Seek not to

conquer these modern usurpers with bodily weapons, but stand firm and erect before them in spiritual dignity. Yours is the greater destiny, to found an Empire of Mind and Reason, to destroy the dominion of rude physical power as the ruler of the world.'

But if I am not careful I shall be doing what I promised not to do, and be drawing comparisons between the ideals of German patriotism at the beginning and at the end of the nineteenth century—a task that would be impertinent, perhaps, for any foreigner, certainly for any foreigner at such a time, to attempt. I have summoned you to Fichte's grave to read with me the words from the Bible that have been engraved on the obelisk that marks his resting-place. They are: 'The teachers shall shine as the brightness of the firmament, and they that turn many to righteousness, as the stars, for ever and ever.' It would be misusing my opportunity to preach you a sermon on the duty that is laid upon *all* teachers of shining and of turning men to righteousness by the witness of their own lives. The use I wish to make of this thought is to impress on *us* that each body of teachers should be guarding and reflecting some particular light—maybe a lesser light, but still a light, with power to scatter some darkness and guide some human footsteps. Years ago I remember, at a meeting of this Association, we were exhorted by our then President to become ambassadors, to help to remove the misunderstandings between nations. In all humility we must confess to failure, or to what, for the moment, seems failure. Perhaps it is, however, not presumptuous to think that now is our true opportunity. The President of the Board of Education said, in words that I have heard quoted more than once lately, that the schools are on the lines of com-

munication between the past and the future. This is well said, but do not those lines of communication run at the present moment through a dark tunnel? We have in life often to pass through such tunnels. Everyone who has gone through an operation or been stunned by a great sorrow will understand what I mean. Of how we get through such tunnels, as individuals, we cannot speak; but we do know that we have been helped by the right hands of understanding and sympathetic friends, and that our power of going on afterwards, when the tunnel is left behind, depends on the spiritual and intellectual atmosphere in which we find ourselves.

Now we are *all* going through such a tunnel—a tunnel dark, and bound to be full of smoke. True, it is lightened by the simple heroism of the armies in the fighting-line, by the imperturbable good-humour of the armies in the making, by the enduring heroism of parents and wives in anxiety and sorrow, a heroism of which I have had unique opportunities of judging in these last months; again, the breath of patriotism passing through us all does carry away some of the asphyxiating vapours that haunt this as other tunnels. But some of the ingredients of life that we are bound to value will languish and perhaps perish. Charity, not in the sense of almsgiving, but in its widest sense; our intellectual vigour; happiness, at its best the salt of life; even the humble duties that have no direct relation to the present crisis—all these need our sheltering care, now more than ever. When we come out again from the darkness into the light of day, to what sort of a day will it be? Will it be one of those murky days, heavy with darkness and cold, such as we have sometimes left on the northern side of the Alps as the train has plunged for the last long course through the St. Gothard Tunnel; or will

it be the day of brightness and warmth, that has greeted us on the Italian side, where sun and flowers conspire to tell us of the South? The answer to this question depends on those who are staying at home in England and Germany, in France and Austria, in Russia and in neutral countries now, especially on those who, though born, are too young to fight like men or suffer like women. The soldiers who have fought, whether conquerors or conquered, are certain to be chivalrous. They will have learnt from those merciless but persuasive teachers—Death and Suffering—lessons of mercy and forgiveness; they will not add to the darkness. Can we be as certain for ourselves, and for those we teach, of shining as the brightness of the firmament—of not making the world at the other end of the tunnel, whether it be near or far off, darker than it should be after so much enlightening self-sacrifice, darker than it was even when we entered it so suddenly in those early August days? If we can cling to one or two of the testing, if unheroic, duties, they will be, as it were, right hands and staunch friends to us now, and lighten our darkness later. The first duty is set out for us in a wonderful little story by Daudet which must be familiar to all of you. It is the story of how the old Frenchman gave the last French lesson in an Alsatian school after the Franco-Prussian War. He did not spend all the time, as lesser men would have been tempted to do, in bombastic praise of, or in vain lament for, the country they were all losing; he spent some of the lesson over the rules of the agreement of the past participle; and I trust that those who are going to speak to us later on the teaching of grammar will not think that I am taking the wind out of their sails, or prejudging the case they are to present to us, if I plead for the blessings we may give and receive at such a time as this, by raising

our standard of accuracy, whether it be in connection with the agreement of the French past participle or the German adjective. It does, too, require a certain heroism, in days when our minds are filled with vague hopes, vague fears, vague rumours, and still vaguer sentiments, to make our own work—to insist on others making their work—as perfect as possible in the small details that demand pains and not talents. Now and then, I must confess, my mind is haunted with the misgiving that one of the reasons why Modern Languages, in spite of much progress, have failed to convince men that they are as good instruments for the training of the child's mind and the fortifying of character as Latin and Greek and mathematics, is that we have, rightly or wrongly, attached less importance to accuracy of late years. This is not only due to changes of method and the consequent loss of time—it is due, in part, to a certain want of faith on our part; to the growth of a doubt in our minds whether idiom and style were not being sacrificed to grammatical accuracy, because the latter can be mastered with comparative ease and the former are terribly elusive; or perhaps to a fear of being charged with—

Compounding for sins we are inclined to
By damning those we have no mind to.

But let us exorcise this doubt and this fear, and no matter what method—new or old, or middle-aged—we adopt, let us see to it that the modern language lesson helps the growing mind as efficaciously as any other, to know what is right from what is wrong. During the last few years, modern language teachers have become especially conscious of one another's infirmities. Have we by any chance exacted less from our pupils as a sort of set-off for exacting so much from one another? May not the average boy and girl have consequently suffered? I

confess that my own conscience is not quite easy, and it reproaches itself for another sin of omission, a sin brought home to me by the publishers' catalogues that we receive at this time of year. Have we not paid, are we not paying, too little attention to the literature of France and Germany? I am aware that the top forms in boys' and girls' schools generally do take a dip—just a dip—into some classical author, but many go out into the world without reaching the top form. Is overfeeding them on the versatility of a romantic Greek Brigand, or on the bewildering adventures of a sufferer from the Corsican Vendetta, any excuse for starving them in the matter of French and German poetry? Just think how many men who have passed through English Secondary Schools are standing opposite their German foes and beside their French Allies to-day. To how many of them do the poems of Ronsard and Du Bellay, of Goethe and Heine and Uhland, mean anything? and is not this ignorance due to our narrow choice of books; to our want of faith in the taste of those we teach; perhaps, alas! to our own stagnation? Is not this a point on which we can resolve to go away and do better?—and may I ask those of our members who have a voice in the counsels of the universities and other examining bodies to help us? There is an evergreen dispute as to the value of set books; there can be little dispute as to the triviality of many of the books set. Again, will the universities not have more faith and offer and award more Scholarships in Modern Languages? At first the standard may not be high, but encouragement will raise it; and will they not give more real weight to some knowledge of Modern Languages in the award of other Scholarships?—especially on those for History, Science, and Mathematics. A distinguished headmaster has recently suggested in a book, that does not depend

for its brilliance only on paradox, that the educational ship should be lightened by treating Algebra and French as Jonah was treated by his fellow-travellers. Could he have said this—would he have dared to say this—if there had not been some failure on our part? I have always considered teachers of Greek and Latin lucky not least in the fact that the works they have to use are, for the most part, great books, not to be deformed even by the commentators' excessive zeal. No one who has taught the second book of *Virgil* to a comparatively low form on a Modern Side will fail to understand what I mean, or lack faith to give their French and German classes, even in the Middle School, some of the best literature to try their teeth upon.

Let us then recognize the need to bear witness, even before the conflict is over, to the fact that besides the Germany with which the newspapers have made us so sadly familiar, there is another Germany; that besides the German soldiers or officers, there are the German people up and down the country who love their homes as we love ours: people who have been kind to us in daily life and tended us in sickness—people for whom we feel, maybe, that special affection that we have for those we have laughed at and laughed with; that besides Treitschke (and Treitschke was, after all, a man of genius), there are other German historians, who have taught us of our own country as well as of Greece and Rome; that Nietzsche is not the only German philosopher; that there are other German writers besides Bernhardt; that we owe to books like the *Deutsche Lyrik* some of the happiest hours of our life; that Lessing opened our eyes to Art, Wagner opened our ears to music; that into our hearts we have taken the plays of Goethe and the prose of Heine. And if this witness is needed on behalf of our foes, is it not more urgently needed for our friends? It will indeed be sad if the

fortitude of France does not make us dissatisfied with what we know and what we teach of French literature. Such spirit and such patriotism have their roots in a deeper soil than that suggested by the French novels set out in our clubs, even by those we have seized for the school-room. No; to understand and to make others understand, we must penetrate the tenderness of the old French poets; the patriotic rhetoric of Racine and Corneille; the humour of Molière; the moving, if sometimes exaggerated, pathos of Victor Hugo. The more convinced we are of the righteousness of our cause, the more resolute we are to carry on this hateful material contest to victory—*i.e.*, until we have saved the German people from the German rulers, and until we have made a Europe where another such crime will be impossible, the more we shall fit ourselves in these hours when we, alas! must stay at home, to interpret the richness of the spiritual and intellectual inheritance which falls to us from friend and foe alike. Let us remember this to-day and to-morrow in our conference, and in our work during the year. If we do, we may shine even in this dark hour, and the world may be a little brighter when we reach the end of the tunnel.

Dr. MACAN, in moving a vote of thanks, which he did with his usual Hibernian wit, said that probably more encouragement would in future be given to the study of modern languages at the universities, where there was a growing appreciation of the importance of securing English teachers. A less palatable statement, and one which most teachers of modern languages would be prepared to deny, was that the best teachers of modern languages were those who had a classical training.

Mr. SOMERVILLE, of Eton College, seconded.

In the afternoon there was a discussion of the Interim Report on THE TEACHING OF EUROPEAN HISTORY IN CONNECTION WITH THE TEACHING OF MODERN LANGUAGES.

The Rev. H. J. CHAYTOR, introducing the Report, referred to the difficulties which had prevented a full meeting of the Committee and

to the excellent work which Miss Ash had carried out in co-ordinating the views of the members. He said that upon the general importance of the question all were agreed; as regards the manner of teaching in forms below the Sixth, much depended upon the scheme of history teaching which individual schools pursued: some gave more attention than others to European history, and divergencies of opinion on the part of members might be partly attributed to this cause. The further question, in what language historical instruction should be given by a modern language teacher, depended upon the character of the textbook in use. A book of historical extracts and an historical novel were not necessarily suitable for one and the same method of teaching. Co-operation between the history and modern language specialists was easiest and most fruitful in the highest forms. If a sixth form were studying a period of European history, the modern language master could well supplement this instruction by reading some standard work which covered a portion of the period. Examinations, particularly University examinations, were not giving adequate attention to the question, and more might be done to insure that the modern language teachers of the future had a sufficient knowledge of political as well as of literary history. There could be no complete separation of these branches, for political history influenced the development of both the literature and the language of a country.

Miss ASH (St. Paul's School) said that there were two points to be considered—Who is to teach? and Where is it to begin? In her own school, history was taught by a specialist, but a link was made by studying poetry or some literary work. Examiners should urge examining bodies to require more knowledge of history. History seemed a more humane study than philology.

Dr. HEADLAM (Board of Education) said that the discussion marked a noteworthy stage in the history of education. The reason was that modern languages had until recently been despised. But now they must claim equality with the ancient classics. It ought not to be necessary to discuss the question at all. Every teacher of the ancient classics was supposed to know and to teach the history of Greece and Rome. He was disappointed to find that previous speakers thought that history teaching should be relegated to the specialist. They could not have too much history, and it was of the highest importance that literature and history should go together. He wished to warn teachers that history should be taught from English textbooks. It was necessary to encour-

age sympathetic imagination, and to make pupils understand what was meant by *la belle France*, *merry England*, or *Das Vaterland*. The literary works studied should be the product of the period. The dissociation of German literature and German history had been a mistake. The speaker drew a moving picture of the ancient ceremonies and paraphernalia of the old German States of former days. It was impossible to forget Lessing, the hero of letters. Pupils should be taught songs—the 'Tipperary' songs of the day. To understand the tragedy of Germany we must go back a hundred years, when Prussia turned her back on Weimar. The danger was that we should exact from our pupils too little rather than too much.

Mr. KIRKMAN protested against the idea that European history should be taught by the modern language teacher as a subject. Our only reason for teaching it at all was as a background to English history. It should be taught by a specialist. Although the French or German master ought not to be expected to teach European history, he might teach the social history and customs—the points that were generally neglected by the history teacher. At the same time, co-operation was advisable. Some history might be taught from an early stage.

Mr. STANLEY LEATHES said he was an 'historian' more than anything else, for history was a summary of everything. It was impossible to separate language, literature, and history. He disagreed with Mr. Kirkman. The foreign language teacher should teach first the language, then the literature, and, in addition, the history when it comes in. He admitted the difficulty of finding suitable textbooks.

Mr. STEEL (Rugby) sympathized with the idea and with the Report. At Rugby, modern language pupils became dissatisfied with the low level of studies when they went to the university, and often took up something else. An Oxford teacher of history had told him that history students would profit by knowing more literature. He had attempted, and meant to go on attempting, to teach French history in French even from an antiquated book. Englishmen did not understand the foreign point of view. The present crisis came from ignorance and prejudice.

Mr. HUTTON (Merchant Taylors) thought there was only one satisfactory solution to the question, Who is to teach? The unity of language, literature, and history was to be found in the hands of the modern language teacher. The burden was not too great, and he should be better able to deal with history than the history specialist, who had not always sympathy or knowledge.

He did not favour the expert in any subject. The question of how much we were to teach should resolve itself into, How much could we leave out? We must not overload the minds of our pupils. Treitschke had made history a living thing for all Germans. In English schools we might be much franker, and show that there could be one absolute right or one absolute wrong.

Mr. RIPPMMANN said that the exclusive specialist was an exclusive nuisance. He thought that modern language teachers would do well to have history as a subsidiary subject. He did not believe in teaching history in the first and second years of modern language study. He warned them against putting too much faith in university bodies. It was rare to find sensible questions set. He wanted freedom in the schools, and the question solved by co-operation. Schools should choose their material better. There was too much rubbish, but more reading was necessary.

Professor SAVORY (Belfast) was surprised that no one had inquired what the smaller universities were doing. At Belfast, first year's students might offer European history as one of their subjects. For second year's students he arranged with the History Professor to give historical lectures bearing on the literature period that was being studied.

The following contribution from Professor WILLIAMS, University of Dublin, was read :

The zeal which is at present being so widely displayed in the attempt to consolidate the union between linguistic and historical studies at our schools and universities has, I am sure, the sincere approval of us all. It may therefore be not impertinent on my part to submit a few reflections anent this matter which have been suggested to me by recent events.

I am not concerned with the proposal to introduce the teaching of European history into our schools. If that has not already been done, it is high time that it should be, and the sooner the better. As regards our universities, however, it seems to me that the upholders of the necessity of such studies run some danger of doing harm through an excess of zeal, which threatens to darken the real issue under discussion. This arises from the fact that, as far as my observation goes,

they erect an altogether artificial distinction between historical studies *per se* and literary and linguistic studies. They appear to me to overlook that the latter, far from being separated from the former by a hard-and-fast boundary, are in reality a special branch of history. Of course there is some excuse for this confusion. The teaching of foreign languages involves the teaching of practical command over them as means of expression, and this is non-historical. The teaching of literature involves the æsthetic appreciation of literary works of art, and this is also not necessarily historical. It is possible therefore to conduct literary and linguistic studies with an almost complete ignoring of history, and doubtless this mistake has been perpetrated. As regards our universities at the present day, however, I very much doubt whether it is at all common to pursue the study of modern languages in this style. Surely we can claim that the position of the language and literature of any country as belonging to the historical institutions of that country, and demanding therefore a historical treatment in their study, is now fully recognized at all British Universities! I have little hesitation in claiming that the study of modern languages and literatures as practised by most modern professors of these subjects is firmly founded on a historical basis, and that their *purely* practical and æsthetic treatment is to all intents and purposes as dead as Queen Anne.

This being so, I read with some surprise in the 'Interim Report of the Subcommittee on the Teaching of European History' about 'the trained historical faculty,' which seems to be regarded as the attribute solely of the 'history specialist.' If modern language scholars of the present day have not acquired a 'trained historical faculty' from their special studies, I should like to learn what it is they have acquired. If a

nation's language and literature are a part of its historical institutions, which hardly anyone, I presume, will deny, I should like to know how their study as such can fail to give training to the historical faculty. Are historians of literature and philologists (the historians of language) generally deficient in this faculty? Does any modern professor of literature or language neglect to point out to his students the necessity of studying the 'historical background' which cannot fail to be reflected in the development of either? Whatever necessity there may be as regards the schools, I think it must be admitted that, with reference to the universities, there is little need for a strong expression of the opinion that 'some knowledge of history is absolutely essential as a background to literature.'

I must therefore give it as my opinion that under modern conditions there is little obligation for our universities to take further action (as seems to be hinted at in the conclusion of the Report) in order to equip modern language teachers 'to meet the new demands, if made.' I do not say this from any lack of sympathy with those new demands, but simply because I think the machinery for preparing future teachers to meet them is already organized and in action. The study of history is very amply provided for in two ways at our universities—firstly in the history department itself, and secondly in the linguistic and literary department. These two departments are really only divisions of one great whole, and even if a student restricts himself to linguistic and literary studies, he will in most cases be rather stupid or careless if he goes through a university course without acquiring a very considerable notion of European history. At any rate, special machinery does not seem to me to be called for in order to force modern language students to attend history lectures.

If such students can resist the stimulus to an interest in general history which comes to them naturally in the pursuit of their own speciality, it is not very likely that mechanical compulsion will be a good substitute.

As regards the suggestion which has sometimes been made to put general history for the modern language student in the place of philology, this suggestion seems to me quite likely to defeat its own end. The philology of a language is simply the history of a language. To tell a student of language that he must or may study general history, but not the history of the special subject in which he is interested, would be pure nonsense. The aim of historical study as a part of general education is to cultivate the historical faculty, the habit of regarding what exists in the light of what previously existed. It can be just as well cultivated with reference to language as to anything else which exists. To study a historical institution like language without paying attention to its history—that is to say, its philology—is simply to deny the historical standpoint. To tell a student of language that he may neglect philology, but must cultivate history, is like saying that history in general is useful, but in particular is worthless. Whether that is a good way to inculcate the historical standpoint in regard to literature or anything else is to me at least more than doubtful. At any rate, if philology does not train the historical habit of mind, then I am quite sure the fault is not in the subject, but in either the teacher or the student. That anyone who had received and profited from a decent philological training could fail to see the advantage of studying the historical background of a literary work, seems to me most unlikely. Nor must it be forgotten that a considerable part of the historical background in such cases is the history of the language in which a

literature is produced. If we relieved the *literary* student as such from the necessity of studying the history of language or philology, we should still be forced to call upon the *historical* student to supply what would then be wanting.

I really think it is time for the supporters of the historical standpoint to abandon the condemnation of a historical discipline under the pretence that they are acting in the interests of history. Let them remember, at any rate, that the history of a nation *includes* the history of its language as one of its most important institutions. Let them remember that the philologist can make a claim to contribute to the true historical appreciation of the genius of a nation, and that without his aid such appreciation must necessarily be incomplete. Let them remember that the modern science of philology is a direct outcome of the awakening of the modern historical spirit, and cannot therefore either belie its origin or be represented as antagonistic to that spirit.

I hope these remarks will not be construed as an attack on the gentlemen who laboured on the Sub-Committee. They are not intended as such. The Sub-Committee considered a practical problem, the introduction of European history into the schools, and have made some very

sensible and practical proposals. At the same time, I think they missed an opportunity of affirming what is undoubtedly true—namely, that the study of modern languages and literatures, ever since it has had a separate existence of its own, has been very consistently historical in its methods. Undoubtedly historical training does not yet receive sufficient attention in the general scheme of our educational system, but the responsibility for this does not rest with modern language scholars, who have certainly done a great deal to counteract the evil. I think it would be unduly modest on our part to allow this fact to be lost to sight, and in so doing to pay an exaggerated deference to the trained historical faculty of the history specialist. Unfortunately, modern languages are a pie in which everyone thinks he has a right to have his finger, and there are a great many people who think that they understand *our* business better than we do ourselves. It is just as well to remind such people upon occasion that the onlooker only sees most of the game when he understands it quite as well as the players. Certainly to urge the importance of history on those who cultivate essentially historical studies in a historical spirit, comes perilously near to what human nature is prone to regard as a gratuitous insult.

LES LETTRES FRANÇAISES DANS LA BELGIQUE D'AUJOURD'HUI.

(ABRÉGÉ DE LA CONFÉRENCE DE MONSIEUR DOUTREPONT.)

JE dois vous parler, ce soir, des *Lettres Françaises dans la Belgique d'aujourd'hui* ; j'entends : la Belgique d'à partir de 1880 ; car cette date marque une étape nouvelle dans l'évolution de la littérature belge.

Avant, toutefois, d'aborder le sujet, je tiens à offrir un mot d'explication, afin d'écartier tout possibilité d'erreur à l'égard du sujet de notre entretien.

La Belgique est un pays de deux races et de deux langues. À Bruxelles et aux environs, on parle le Français et un patois dérivé du Français—le Wallon. Aux environs d'Anvers on parle le Flamand. Chacune de ces langues a sa littérature, et le terme 'auteurs flamands' peut se rapporter indifféremment aux auteurs qui se sont servi de l'une ou de l'autre

langue. Cette désignation, bien qu'elle soit sujette à confusion lorsqu'elle vise des auteurs comme C. Lemonnier, E. Verhaeren, M. Maeterlinck, et d'autres qui n'ont écrit qu'en langue française, est juste, cependant, en ceci : que ces auteurs ont tous exprimé dans leurs écrits la double mentalité de leur pays. Ce que nous dirons dans la suite se rapportera exclusivement aux œuvres flamandes en langue française.

Bien que nous nous bornions, pour le moment, à l'étude de la littérature belge postérieure à 1880, il ne faudrait pas croire que la Belgique n'ait fait aucune contribution à la littérature antérieurement à cette date. Au XV^e siècle, les chroniqueurs Froissart et Commines ; au XVI^e siècle, Marnix de Sainte-Aldegonde ; au XVIII^e siècle, le Prince de Lignes, sont venus de contrées qui, depuis, ont constitué la Belgique. Au commencement de XIX^e siècle, jusqu'en 1815, nous subissions le régime français, et de 1815 à 1830 le régime hollandais. Ces périodes n'ont pas été favorables aux lettres. 'Là où il n'y a point d'indépendance politique, il n'y a point d'indépendance littéraire.'

De 1815 à 1830 la littérature, en France, devient Romantique. Ce fut en 1830 que la représentation d'Hernani assura le triomphe de la nouvelle littérature ; triomphe qui fut précédé, il est vrai, dans la salle même du spectacle, d'une bataille qui est restée célèbre. Or, le 25 août de la même année on représenta à Bruxelles *La Muette de Portici*. Aucune bataille n'eut lieu dans la salle, mais on en sortit ; on se battit dans les rues, et, la même année, l'indépendance politique de la Belgique fut acquise.

La révolution politique ne fut pas suivie immédiatement d'une révolution littéraire. La Belgique n'avait pas le temps, alors, de s'occuper de littérature ; elle avait besoin de toute son énergie pour se réorganiser, et son esprit n'eut

pas le loisir d'éclorer au soleil de la littérature.

Néanmoins, nous avons eu de 1830 à 1880 des écrivains qui n'étaient, certes, pas sans mérite ; mais ils étaient isolés, en dehors des grands mouvements littéraires. Bruxelles n'était, alors, qu'une espèce de gros bourg, et les auteurs, qu'une certaine timidité provinciale empêchaient de faire 'des éclats romantiques,' restèrent obscurs. C'est ce qui fait qu'on a dit que de 1830 à 1880 la Belgique jouissait de la liberté, de la tranquillité *et du sommeil*. Il y eut pourtant bon nombre d'œuvres, et les 'Jeune-Belgique' ont reconnu comme prédécesseurs et maîtres A. Van Hasselt, mort en 1874, Ch. de Coster, mort en 1879, et Octave Pirmez (1882).

Après le coup d'état du 2 dec., 1852, Victor Hugo, Alexandre Dumas père, E. Deschanel, Edgar Quinet, et d'autres, se réfugièrent en Belgique, et hâtèrent l'éveil de la conscience littéraire du pays. Ce ne fut pourtant, que vingt ans après, que 'les yeux s'ouvrirent' complètement, lorsque les communications avec l'étranger devinrent plus fréquentes. On commença à dire alors : 'La Belgique politique est constituée ; il s'agit maintenant de constituer une Belgique littéraire.'

Aux environs de 1880 on fonda des revues. C'est en 1875 qu'on trouve pour la première fois, dans '*l'Artiste*,' le terme 'Jeune-Belgique,' et '*La Jeune-Belgique*' fut fondée in 1880.

D'où sont sortis les hommes de lettres de la Belgique moderne?—C'est de Louvain.

C'est là, en effet, que Verhaeren, Maeterlinck, Giraud, Gilkin, et Waller firent connaissance. Ce dernier, il est vrai, à la suite d'une dispute plus violente que de coutume entre les rédacteurs de '*La Semaine des Étudiants*' et du '*Type*' fût contraint de se retirer ; il alla à Bruxelles, où il trouva '*La jeune Revue*,' qu'il rebaptisa '*La Jeune-Belgique*,' lorsqu'il

en devint le rédacteur. Cette revue attira l'attention par ses vives attaques contre ceux qu'elle appelait 'les vieux Bonzes' du journalisme, et par le spectacle de la 'comédie des frères ennemis' que les orageuses disputes du rédacteur et de ses collaborateurs donnèrent parfois au public. Néanmoins, son œuvre eut des résultats importants et se fit sentir dans plusieurs branches de la littérature—à savoir : le Roman, la Poésie, le Théâtre, la Critique littéraire, et la Critique d'Art.

C'est là ce que nous pourrions appeler l'histoire externe du mouvement littéraire à partir de 1880 ; voici un aperçu de son histoire interne.

En 1880 Émile Zola régnait dans le monde littéraire français ; c'est lui qui donna à 'Le Jeune-Belgique' le goût du naturalisme. Lemonnier avait déjà 36 ans à cette époque, et ses deux romans, *Un Mâle* et *Le Mort*, l'avaient mis à la tête du nouveau mouvement littéraire.

Dans la poésie, ce fut Baudelaire qui, plus que tout autre poète français, exerça une influence sur la poésie belge. Ses *Fleurs du Mal* (publié en 1857) continuèrent son influence jusqu'en 1880, et même plus tard. Iwan Gilkin, Albert Giraud, et Valère Gilles ont constitué un groupe baudelairien. Les traits caractéristiques de leur poésie étaient—le culte de la forme, la beauté plastique, le vers très travaillé, résonnant, et l'impassibilité dans l'âme.

Ce programme littéraire est devenu la cause de désunion parmi les poètes belges, et plusieurs d'entre eux se sont rattachés à ce mouvement littéraire assez cosmopolite d'origine,* connu sous le nom de *symbolisme*, qui cherche à exprimer, non pas des représentations exactes de choses vues, entendues, ou senties, mais, précisément, le flou, le fuyant, l'insaisissable dans la nature et dans l'homme ; et qui,

abandonnant les formes prescrites du vers classique ou romantique, adopte le vers libre, polymorphe. C'est Albert Mockel, E. Verhaeren, Maurice Maeterlinck et Rodenbach, qui, en Belgique, ont été les représentants du symbolisme.

Voilà un aperçu des courants littéraires de 1880 à 1914. Examinons maintenant l'œuvre des trois hommes qui, dans le Roman, la Poésie, et le Théâtre, se sont le plus distingués—à savoir : Lemonnier, Verhaeren, et Maeterlinck.

I. LE ROMAN.

En 1880 Lemonnier était déjà arrivé ; était reconnu comme un messie. Son œuvre (exception faite de sa critique d'art) se compose de romans, de nouvelles ou de contes, et remplit une soixantaine de volumes. La prose de Lemonnier est remarquable par le coloris. Taine avait dit 'qu'il était bien étrange que la Belgique n'eût pas de grand peintre en littérature.' C'est là un reproche qu'un ne peut plus faire à la Belgique littéraire. En 1912 un jeune critique français écrivait à propos des romanciers belges : '... obéissant à ce besoin de peindre ... leurs livres forment une suite de tableaux.'

Lemonnier a, toute sa vie, aimé l'art ; mais il a aimé la nature aussi, et, dans l'homme, ce qu'il y a de plus naturel—l'instinct. D'où des romans demi-philosophiques dont la thèse est que l'homme doit se replonger dans la nature, vivre selon ses instincts. Sa prose, merveilleuse de couleur et de relief, est gâtée parfois par la trop grande liberté qu'il se permet à l'égard de la grammaire.

II. LA POÉSIE.

Passons maintenant à la poésie, et, en particulier, à celle de Verhaeren. Verhaeren est né en 1855 dans un village des environs d'Anvers. En 1883 il publia *Les Flamandes* ; en 1887, *Les Soirs* ; et en 1888, *Les Débâcles* :—trois volumes de poèmes lyriques d'une tristesse écras-

* D'autres symbolistes d'origine étrangère ont été : Moréas, né à Athènes ; Viélé Griffin, Stuart Merrill, Américains.

ante ; c'est une trilogie noire. Accomplissant une évolution qui n'est pas sans parallèle chez les poètes, il passa du désespoir à l'enthousiasme, et est venu à la célébration et à la glorification de la vie contemporaine. Comment cela s'est-il fait ? Après 1888 il a voyagé ; il est venu à Londres, et Londres l'a intéressé. Or, l'admiration de l'activité, du tapage de la vie moderne, est inaccoutumé chez les poètes ; ceux-ci, en effet, préfèrent le silence, la solitude, et le passé. Pour ne donner qu'un exemple parmi les contemporains, je citerai Rodenbach, qui a chanté *Bruges-la-Morte*. Mais Verhaeren a vu, dans les villes industrielles, dans les usines—ces immenses ruches humaines—dans les applications de la science, une beauté, différant beaucoup de celle que les Grecs surent exprimer : la beauté de la force, de l'énergie ; et il a chanté l'ouvrier, le penseur, l'écrivain, l'homme de science. Citons, en particulier, deux de ses volumes, *Les Campagnes Hallucinées* (1893) et *Les Villes Tentaculaires* (1895), où il décrit les tristes conséquences de la prospérité industrielle, l'attraction irrésistible, brutale, des grandes villes ; l'abandon des campagnes ; la toute puissance de l'or. Ses vers sont raboteux, rugueux, mais ils sont robustes, et présentent d'admirables évocations poétiques ; ils ont un relief et un coloris rare chez les symbolistes.

Verhaeren, lui-même effrayé par ce qu'il voyait de la vie contemporaine, en est venu à ces pensées : 'Aimons-nous ; cherchons notre bonheur dans l'admiration mutuelle, dans l'aide que nous nous prodiguerons mutuellement — cherchons les dieux 'en nous-mêmes.'

À cause de son originalité, Verhaeren est un de ces poètes qu'il faut aimer ou rejeter. Mais qu'on l'aime ou non, il n'en restera pas moins un des créateurs de la littérature moderne ; il exerce actuellement une très grande influence sur les jeunes contemporains.

III. LE THÉÂTRE.

Y a-t-il un théâtre belge ? D'aucuns ont dit que oui ; d'autres ont dit que non ! Nous croyons, pourtant, que nous avons de quoi ne pas trop médire de nous-mêmes. C'est Maurice Maeterlinck qui, à l'heure présente, est le mieux connu de nos auteurs dramatiques. Mais Maurice Maeterlinck a eu bon nombre de prédécesseurs. On joue certaines de nos pièces à l'étranger : *Le Cloître* d'Émile Verhaeren, par exemple, et d'autres encore, quoique le public ne sache pas toujours quand les pièces jouées devant lui sont de provenance belge.

L'œuvre de Maurice Maeterlinck est très originale et très curieuse. C'est ce que Octave Mirbeau avait senti lorsque son article élogieux qui parut, il y a quelques années, dans le *Figaro*, jeta tout à coup l'auteur de la *Princesse Malène* en pleine gloire.

Maeterlinck commença comme catholique, mais il perdit la foi, et refusa les consolations des autres religions positives. Il cherche, depuis lors, à expliquer, à exprimer l'inconnaissable, le mystérieux monde intérieur ; cette vie intime, cachée, inconsciente pour la plupart, qui se déroule dans le silence et les ténèbres de l'âme ; ces mouvements, ces soubresauts intérieurs qui nous laissent haletants de crainte, ou qui couvrent la vie consciente d'un nuage, emplissant la pensée de vagues appréhensions, d'un sentiment de menace sans que nous en sachions la cause. Le monde entier est, pour lui, imbibé de mystère, rempli d'êtres inexplicables ; les hommes sont de pauvres petites créatures qui s'en vont à tâtons dans l'ombre, menés par la fatalité. Nous sommes, les uns pour les autres, des mondes fermés tant que nous essayons de nous révéler les uns aux autres par nos paroles ou nos actes ; si nous osions être silencieux, nous nous ferions connaître.

On le voit, les personnages de Maeter-

linck sont loin d'être gais ; ils sont angoissés. Cependant, dans le théâtre de Maeterlinck, tout n'est pas désespérance ; citons *l'Oiseau Bleu*, pièce où il développe d'une manière charmante l'idée que le bonheur que nous cherchons en vain dans le monde extérieur, et qui, chaque fois que nous croyons le saisir, s'altère, et ne nous laisse que déceptions, nous l'avons chez nous, dans notre âme ; il n'est, peut-être, pas complet ; mais il est presque aussi beau que nous l'avions rêvé. C'est là la philosophie de Maeterlinck, et elle est loin d'être pessimiste. Cette idée que c'est par la vie intérieure que nous triomphons de nos malheurs est pleine d'espoir.

La prose de Maeterlinck est belle ; il faut lire *La Vie des Abeilles* pour savoir à quel point. Nous ne dirons pas que tout ce que Maeterlinck a écrit est original (il a fait, comme tous les auteurs, des emprunts), mais nous dirons qu'il a ajouté à tout ce qu'il a emprunté le charme de son style ; c'est là une originalité qu'on ne peut lui disputer.

IV. LA CRITIQUE.

La Belgique a aussi ses critiques. Nous avons des revues, un public qui lit et

apprécie. Les étrangers, même, nous reconnaissent et parlent favorablement de nos œuvres. Tout récemment, un critique anglais disait qu'à beaucoup d'égards la Belgique est à la tête du monde, maintenant que Tolstoï est mort. C'est beaucoup dire ; c'est trop dire. Les admirateurs, les admiratrices, surtout, de la baronne de Noailles, ne laisseront pas passer si facilement, la palme à Verhaeren. Il semblerait aussi que, maintenant, tous les rêves de nos écrivains sont détruits. La guerre a attiré sur nous l'attention du monde, mais elle a apporté de cruelles désillusions. Nous ne savons ce qui adviendra de notre pays, mais de ceci nous sommes convaincus : Les Barbares qui sont chez nous pour le moment, peuvent détruire nos monuments, saccager nos villes ; mais on ne détruit pas une littérature, on ne détruit pas la fleur du courage et de l'énergie. Comme cet arbre que Verhaeren a chanté, qui, frappé par la foudre, fendu du haut en bas, et détruit plus qu'à moitié, enfonce ses racines dans le sol natal et y puise de quoi faire reverdir le lambeau qui reste, ainsi la Belgique, frappée elle aussi, et cruellement outragée, résiste encore, et peut encore reflourir.

O. T. R.

BRIEFWECHSEL ZWISCHEN EINEM DEUTSCHEN UND EINEM ENGLISCHEN LEHRER ÜBER DEN KRIEG.

SEHR VEREHRTER HERR H.,*

Ich habe Sie vor allem als einen ethisch empfindenden Menschen schätzen gelernt, darum wende ich mich jetzt an Sie mit der dringendsten Bitte, mir doch auf all die folgenden Fragen Ihre Antwort zu schreiben, auf all die Fragen, die mich sehr bewegen, da ich immer noch nicht zweifellos glauben kann, wie die

* [The recipient is an assistant-master in a well-known public school. Both names are, for obvious reasons, suppressed.—Ed.]

meisten meiner deutschen Brüder, dasz das ganze englische Volk wirklich so tief gesunken sein sollte, dasz es den Verrat an der Menschheitskultur, den der Angriff auf unser Volk darstellt, immer weiter treibt. Sie sind Engländer so gut wie ich Deutscher, nicht an Ihr politisches oder militärisches Urteil wende ich mich darum, sondern an Ihr rein menschliches, ethisches Denken, an Ihr Gewissen, das keine nationalen Schranken kennt. Welches Volk auf der ganzen Erde hat

höhere Kulturgüter zu verteidigen als die Deutschen? Wir kämpfen für das uns heilige Erbe Goethes und Schillers und Kants und Beethovens. Nicht genug, dasz unsere Helden ihre Leiber den ungeheuren Menschenmassen des halbbarbarischen Ruszland, das ja kein Kulturvolk ist und nicht weisz, was es tut, entgegenstemmen; nein, das Unerhörte ist, dasz England die Gelben und die Schwarzen und Wilde aller Völker auszer den eignen bezahlten Söldnern auf uns hetzt, uns Hunnen schimpft und nicht eher ruhen will, bis es mit den Hilfsscharen aus Asien und Afrika, mit Mongolen und Indern und Negern, das Volk Schillers und Luthers vernichtet hat. Und das alles aus reinem Geschäfts- und Konkurrenzneid, es erscheint mir ungeheuerlich. Hat nicht die Erde für zwei Platz? Warum sah England das Wachsen unsres Handels, unsres Einflusses so neidisch an, zwang uns nicht unsre überschieszende Volkskraft dazu, muszten wir nicht, gerade weil England die Unverletzlichkeit der Handelsschiffahrt auf den Haager Konferenzen nicht garantieren wollte, eine Flotte bauen? Wie konnte dieser Kaufmannsneid so stark werden, dasz sich England nicht schämt, die halbe Welt gegen uns aufzuhetzen. Ein Volk nach dem andern wird von England vor das Messer geliefert, Belgien hat England ohne wirksame Hilfe verbluten lassen, Frankreich, mit dessen Verblendung wir alle Mitleid haben und das wir als einzigen ehrlichen Gegner anerkennen—ihre Lügen und Prahlereien sind ihnen als heiszblütigen Romanen verziehen—Frankreich ist wirtschaftlich und bald auch militärisch schon verloren. Sie wissen, wie Faust zu Mephisto sagt (England, das andre ins deutsche Feuer hetzt, sei's entgegengeschleudert): 'Du grinsdest gelassen über das Schicksal von Tausenden.' Die Herren Engländer selbst sitzen daheim und suchen für Geld Soldaten zu erwerben und machen Stimmung in ihren Zeitungen

durch wahnsinnige Anschuldigungen und Verleumdungen unsrer Soldaten. Uns hier erfüllt heiligste Begeisterung. Gerhard Hauptmann hat die richtige Antwort auf all das Geschrei unsrer Feinde über die als Strafen für heimtückische Uebertfälle leider notwendige Vernichtung belgischer Kunstwerke gefunden: 'Die zerschossene Brust eines unsrer deutschen Heldenbrüder wiegt alle Kunstschätze Löwens auf.' Das ganze deutsche Volk ist seinem Kaiser gefolgt mit dem alten Lutherlied: 'Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott,' und der Geist unsres groszen Schiller zieht unsern siegreichen Heeren vorauf: 'Wir wollen sein ein einig Volk von Brüdern, in keiner Not uns trennen und Gefahr.' Wir kämpfen für die freie Entwicklung unsrer Kultur gegen eine Welt von Hasz und Neid; und so wahr es eine sittliche Weltordnung, eine höhere gerechte Macht gibt, kann Deutschland nie besiegt werden. Wir kämpfen einen heiligen Krieg, in dem unsre groszen Geister, die der Vergangenheit und die jetzt unter uns lebenden, die unablässig in Wort und Schrift begeistern und belehren, uns zur Seite stehen, denn leicht ist es uns nicht gemacht, besonders da wir gegen all die Lügen, die England, das alle Kabel beherrscht, ausstreut, ankämpfen müssen. England kämpft oder vielmehr läszt andre für seine Handelsinteressen kämpfen. Wohl las ich Stimmen aus England gegen den Krieg. Ein anfangs August gemeldeter Protest englischer Gelehrter gegen den Krieg mit uns muszte natürlich in Ihrem Lande, wo die Geld- und Sportmenschen ausschlaggebend sind, wirkungslos verhallen, und der ehemalige Minister Burns hielt eine Rede gegen den Krieg: 'Er bringe keinen Vorteil, wäre man neutral geblieben, hätte man als Hauptlieferant für die kriegführenden Staaten ein Riesengeschäft machen können.' O, diese elenden, schabigen Gründe einer Krämerseele! Man behauptet gegen den Militarismus

zu kämpfen, der von unserm Kaiser ausgehe. Sie selbst klagten, dasz man in England wenig von deutschem Wesen wisse und verstände. Von jeher hat der Engländer es unter seiner Würde gehalten, sich genau mit den Verhältnissen andrer zu beschäftigen; was weisz man in England über die Befugnisse unsres Kaisers, über seine Stellung zum Volk, über unsern Militarismus? Man verwechselt uns andauernd mit Ruszland und dem Zarismus. Oh, was würde Carlyle sagen? Hat der gute Geist des groszen Schotten keine Heimat mehr in England? Steht heute in Ihrem Vaterland niemand auf, der wie Carlyle einst 1870 Ihnen kündet, wofür heute Deutschland kämpft und weshalb wir siegen müssen? Giebt es denn neben den Materialisten, den Handels- und Krämergeistern in England keine ethisch denkenden Menschen mehr in England? Ich habe zuviel Gutes in England gesehen, als dasz ich daran ganz verzweifeln könnte. Durch den Verrat Englands bin ich in steter Gefahr den Glauben an die sittliche Grösze, an das ewig Gute und Göttliche im Menschen zu verlieren, eine letzte Hoffnung habe ich, dasz es auch in England noch Menschen wie Carlyle gibt, und darum bitte ich Sie herzlich bei allem Verständnis, dasz Sie in so hohem Masse für unser Wesen haben, schreiben Sie mir einmal, wie denken Sie als sittlich empfindender Mensch über den Krieg, den England mit Söldnern und Asiaten gegen unser Volk führt?

Ich verbleibe in der Erinnerung an freundschaftliches Zusammenarbeiten im vorigen Jahr,

IHR H. R.

GEEHRTER UND LIEBER HERR R.,

Gewisz hätten Sie eher einen Grusz von mir erhalten, wenn ich das Wie und Wohin gewuszt hätte. . . . Dasz Sie ebenso wie ich durch die schrecklichen Ereignisse der Jetztzeit tief betrübt sind,

bezweifle ich nicht. Zwar kann ich Ihnen nicht zumuten, dasz Sie all meine Ansichten und Ueberzeugungen darüber teilen, ebensowenig wie ich die Richtigkeit der in Ihrem Brief zum Ausdruck gebrachten Urteile über England zugeben kann, schon deshalb nicht, weil wir von ganz andern Voraussetzungen ausgehen. . . . Aber ist es denn Ihnen nie eingefallen, man könne Ihnen einige der wichtigsten Tatsachen vorenthalten und andere grundfalsche aufgebunden haben? Vom letzteren Fall liefert Ihr Brief Beweise genug. Sie nehmen Bezug auf einen angeblichen Protest englischer Gelehrter gegen den Krieg sowie auf eine Rede, die Burns gehalten haben soll. Es ist überhaupt nur ein solcher Protest, glauben Sie es mir, erlassen oder verfasst worden, und der war gegen die Kundgebung deutscher Professoren gerichtet und bewies die Gerechtigkeit von Englands Sache. (Es folgt eine Widerlegung anderer Gerüchte und eine Warnung vor den Lügen, die durch deutsche Spione in England, von Wolfs Bureau und *Berliner Korrespondenten* in der ausländischen Presse verbreitet worden sind.)

Ihr Brief besteht sonst aus lauter selbstgefälligen Vorurteilen ohne jede Spur von logischer Begründung. Sie nennen unser Heer ein Söldnerheer. Werden denn die deutschen Offiziere und Generäle, die den Heeresdienst zu ihrem Lebensberuf wählen, nicht auch bezahlt? Und wären sie also nicht mit gleichem Recht Söldner zu nennen, wie unsere Offiziere und Gemeinen, die diesen Zweig des durchgehends besoldeten Staatsdienstes statt eines andern freiwillig wählen? In England werden die Menschen nicht als 'Kanonenfutter' betrachtet.

Wie in jedem Lande, so gibt es wohl viele Leute auch hier, die 'My country, right or wrong' zu ihrem Wahlspruch nehmen, aber es gibt auch Hunderttausende, ja vielleicht Millionen, denen, bei aller innigen Vaterlandsiebe, die

Wahrheit und die Gerechtigkeit noch teurer sind und die keinen Augenblick zögern würden aufzustehen und vor aller Welt zu bekennen: Wir sind im Unrecht. Vielerlei gibt es, was wir in unserm nationalen Leben bedauern müssen, aber das ganze britische Volk weisz bis zum letzten Manne, dasz wir an diesem Krieg nicht schuld sind, dasz wir wohl für unsere Existenz und Unabhängigkeit aber nicht um 'zeitlich Gut' kämpfen, sondern um eine heilige Verpflichtung Belgien und Europa gegenüber zu erfüllen, Deutschland hatte dieselbe Verpflichtung, betrachtete sie aber und sein eigenes Wort bloz als 'ein Stück Papier.'

Für mich stellt dieser Krieg den Bankrott, die Nichtigkeit einer rein verstandesmäßigen Kultur dar, die, vom Geiste des Christentums geschieden, unfähig ist, das menschliche Leben zu regeln und die menschliche Gesellschaft vor Fäulnis und Auflösung zu bewahren. So ungeheuer scheint das Uebel der Welt geworden zu sein, dasz es Millionen von Menschenleben zum Sühnopfer fordert.

Wie Sie wissen, nehme ich seit 30 Jahren ein groszes Interesse an der deutschen Sprache und am deutschen Leben. Ich habe viele von Ihren Landsleuten bewundert und lieb gewonnen und zählte sie zu meinen besten Freunden. Einer Voreingenommenheit für unsere jetzige Regierung oder für irgend etwas, bloz weil es englisch ist, werden Sie mich auch nicht beschuldigen wollen, aber ich sollte doch vom Denken und Empfinden meiner Landsleute mehr wissen, als irgend ein Deutscher. Gestatten Sie mir also folgende Behauptungen.

Es ist durchaus unwahr, dasz wir als Volk irgendwelchen Geschäfts- und Konkurrenzneid gegen Deutschland hegen (spricht etwa unser Freihandel dafür?) geschweige denn, dasz er uns zu einem Kriege gegen Deutschland hätte verleiten

können. Läszt z. B. die Gelassenheit, mit der wir die Vertreibung aller Engländer aus dem englischen Hoteldienst geduldet haben, eine solche Annahme zu? Nein, dieser Neid und Hasz sind in Deutschland erlogen und das deutsche Volk zu Neid und Hasz gegen England erzogen und aufgehetzt worden zum Zwecke der Erbauung einer mächtigen Flotte, die in Verbindung mit einem unüberwindlichen Heer in stande sein sollte, Europa und vor allem 'den groszen Feind,' England, niederzuringen. Wir wissen aus deutschem Munde ganz genau, warum die Flotte gebaut wurde, und jetzt erst recht. Oder meinen Sie, die Aeuszerungen der alldutschen Presse, die Lehren Bernhardis, Treitschkes, Nietzsches u.a.m. seien uns nicht bekannt? Die schlieszen jeden Zweifel darüber aus, sie prahlen sogar damit, dasz für sie kein höheres Recht besteht als die brutale Macht und dasz Deutschland 'der Uebermensch' sei unter den Völkern. Und diese Partei hat sich der Regierung bemächtigt, das deutsche Volk belogen und betrogen und den eitlen Kaiser betört. Und dieser Krieg, diese unmenschliche, barbarische Kriegführung sind die Ausgeburt einer solchen Gesinnung, eines heidnischen 'Willens zur Macht.' Neulich besuchte mich eine Engländerin, die 8 Jahre lang deutschen Offizieren in Berlin Englisch gelehrt hat. Die pflegten ihr zu sagen: 'Wenn S. M. nicht wäre, hätten wir schon morgen Krieg.' Was diese Offiziere und andere dabei wünschten, war klar.

Belgien ist ruchlos ermordet worden. Ein kleiner Staat, der nichts verschuldet hatte, als dasz er der verräterischen Forderung eines Tyrannen zu widerstehen und seine Heimat gegen einen gewalttätigen Einbruch zu verteidigen, den Mut hatte, muszte seine Städte plündern, sein Land verwüsten, seine Bevölkerung—Greise, Weiber und Kinder—unter namenlosen Martern hinschlachten sehen; und

um diese Schandtaten zu entschuldigen und zu beschönigen, erfindet man Anklagen gegen seine Opfer, die, wie ich Ihnen beweisen kann, von deutschen Beamten und deutschfreundlichen Zeugen widerlegt sind. Ein solches Verbrechen steht in der Weltgeschichte einzig da, unverzeihlich, unsühnbar. Dasz einer, dem die Ehrenhaftigkeit, die Gerechtigkeit, die Menschlichkeit noch etwas gelten, es verteidigen wollte, ist undenkbar. Ich möchte nicht, dasz man mich einen Hunnen nannte, aber noch weniger möchte ich mich einer 'Kultur' zu schämen haben, die solche Dinge ermöglicht und billigt. Es heiszt Luther und Schiller, dem Apostel und dem Dichter der Freiheit, Kant, dem Vorkämpfer der Wahrheit, Goethe und Beethoven einer Schmach antun, will man ihre Namen im Zusammenhang mit der Gegenwart auch nur nennen. Lassen wir Schiller reden :

'Das Leben ist der Güter höchstes nicht,
Der Uebel grösstes aber ist die Schuld.'

Aber solche Ansichten sind wohl veraltet, und wer glaubt noch, dasz '... alle Schuld sich auf Erden rächt'? Gerade die Gründe, die Deutschland zu seiner Rechtfertigung anführt, bedeuten die Verneinung alles ethischen Denkens.

Weder Ruszland noch Frankreich noch England hat diesen Krieg gewollt (alle drei waren nicht darauf vorbereitet), das deutsche Volk, sich selbst überlassen, vielleicht auch nicht. Wir besitzen unwiderlegbare Beweise, u. a. an gefallenen deutschen Offizieren aufgefundenen Dokumente, dasz schon im Juni vor der Ermordung des Erzherzogs die deutsche Mobilmachung heimlich in Gang gesetzt worden war. Deutschland und Oesterreich haben Ruszland wesentlich, wie aus den Aussagen des deutschen Botschafters in Wien ('Deutschland wisse ganz gut, was es tue,' u.s.w) erhellt, herausgefordert, Deutschland hat jeden noch so ängstlichen Versuch Eng-

lands, die Differenzen zwischen Oesterreich und Ruszland zu schlichten, vereitelt und Ruszland inmitten hoffnungsreicher Verhandlungen den Krieg erklärt, sobald letzteres die ersten Vorkehrungen traf gegen die Vorbereitungen, die Deutschland seit Wochen heimlich betrieb.

Warum ist Deutschland von einem so wahnsinnigen Hasz gegen England erfüllt? Weil seine Regierung den Krieg gegen Ruszland nicht erklärt haben würde ohne die feste Ueberzeugung, England wolle und könne nicht daran teilnehmen. Erst als es zu spät war zurückzutreten, erfuhr man, dasz England für Belgien eintreten würde. Daher das Geschrei über Englands 'Verrat.' Das ist mir schon Beweis genug, dasz Deutschland den Krieg mit Ruszland, vor allem mit Frankreich gewollt und herbeigeführt hat. Wie oft haben mir Deutsche gesagt, man wolle Frankreich zugrunde richten, und wir wissen jetzt aus dem Mund italienischer Staatsmänner, dasz schon im vorigen Jahr der Versuch von Deutschland und Oesterreich gemacht worden ist, diesen Krieg zu entzünden. Hätte Frankreich (oder Ruszland) Deutschland angegriffen, so hätte es alle Sympathie von unserer Seite eingebüzt, und wenn es die Neutralität Belgiens verletzt hätte, so wäre England sein Gegner geworden. Zu dieser Frage haben wir ganz dieselbe Stellung genommen wie im Jahre 1870. Woran liegt es, dasz wir Belgien 'haben verbluten lassen' müssen? Eben daran, dasz eine Kriegsexpedition, vor allem eine überseeische, sich nicht von heute auf morgen zurüsten lässt und dasz deutsche Truppen schon lange vor der Kriegserklärung (wohl unter dem Vorwand von Manövern) an der belgischen Grenze standen. Ihr Vorwurf hebt zwar die mangelhaften Vorbereitungen Englands aber um so stärker den Cynismus und die Ehrlosigkeit Deutschlands hervor. Für den seit Jahren geplanten Ueberfall waren nicht nur strategische Eisenbahnen bis an

die belgische Grenze gebaut, sondern sogar Kanonenplattformen auf angeblich zu Fabriken erworbenem Terrain in Friedenszeiten errichtet worden. Trotzdem lügt man dem deutschen Volk vor, dies sei ein Verteidigungskrieg, und veröffentlicht ein Weiszbuch, in dem die wichtigsten Depeschen und Dokumente, die das Gegenteil beweisen, verheimlicht sind. Ich selber habe beide Weiszbücher, das deutsche sowohl als das englische, lesen und mit einander vergleichen können. Warum wird das auch Ihnen nicht erlaubt; Aber immerhin, *magna est veritas et praevalabit*, und bewährt hat sich dieser Spruch in allen Erfahrungen und Beobachtungen meines Lebens. Einmal wird auch das deutsche Volk zur Erkenntnis gelangen, dasz es zu einem bösen Angriffs- und Eroberungskrieg verführt worden ist? dann wird es ein furchtbares Erwachen geben. Indessen nehmen wir die hochmütige Verachtung und den ungerechten Hasz gelassen hin, bedauern aber schmerzlich die Verblendung eines ehemals hochgesinnten Volkes, das seine edelsten Eigenschaften verleugnet. Oder hat wirklich ganz Deutschland Nietzsches Wort zu eigen gemacht: 'Ihr sagt, die gute Sache sei es, die sogar den Krieg heilige? Ich sage euch: Der gute Krieg ist es, der jede Sache heiligt.' Jedenfalls musz es eine gewaltige Sinnesumwandlung erfahren, ehe die sittlich empfindende Welt irgendwelche Gemeinschaft mit Deutschland haben kann.

Sie erinnern sich wohl der Worte Bismarcks, wie sie Busch am Ende der Tagebuchblätter wiedergibt:

'So klagte er (Bismarck), nachdem er eine Weile schweigend vor sich hingesehen hatte, gegen uns, dasz er von seiner politischen Tätigkeit wenig Freude gehabt habe. Niemand liebe ihn deshalb, sagte er. Er habe damit niemand glücklich gemacht, sich selbst nicht, seine Freunde nicht, auch andere nicht. 'Wohl aber viele unglücklich. Ohne mich hätte es

drei grosze Kriege nicht gegeben, wären 80000 Menschen nicht umgekommen, und Eltern, Brüder, Schwestern, Witwen trauerten nicht. Das habe ich indessen mit Gott abgemacht. Aber Freude habe ich wenig oder gar keine gehabt von allem, was ich getan habe, dagegen viel Verdrusz, Sorge und Mühe.'

Freundlich grüszend,

Ihr

E. W. H.

LONDON, N.W.

LIEBER HERR H.,—Eine Verständigung über politische Dinge istzwischen uns unmöglich; ich könnte nach meinem Wissen *jede* Ihrer Behauptungen widerlegen.

Das Deutsch Ihres Briefes ist so — und —, dasz es mir doppelt leid tut, dasz Sie die Märchen englischer Zeitungen über den Einflusz Treitschkes, Bernhardis, und Nietzsches nachsprechen. Sie selbst wissen vielmehr, wie grosz der ganz andere Einflusz Schillers und Goethes auf unser Denken und Tun ist.

Die letzte, tiefste Ursache der über uns alle hereingebrochenen Weltkatastrophe ist nach meiner Überzeugung—(1) der immer wachsende Materialismus unsrer Zeit; (2) dasz die reine Lehre Christi, wie sie uns nach allen modernen Forschungen mit einiger Sicherheit *nur* in der Bergpredigt und einigen Gleichnissen erhalten ist, seit dem phantastischen Finsterling Paulus durch die Kirche mehr und mehr entstellt ist.

Wäre in den vergangenen 2000 Jahren die reine Lehre Christi verkündet worden, statt kirchlicher (katholischer und protestantischer Irrlehren) dann wäre dieser Krieg nicht.

Die Anstrengungen Englands, die Reklame bei den Rekrutenanwerbungen, wie ich sie selbst aus englischen Zeitungen kenne, die Feigheit der mächtigsten Flotte der Welt, das Herbeiführen immer

neuer Scharen schwarzer und brauner Hilfsvölker entrüsten jeden Deutschen.

Wir kämpfen einen furchtbar ernsten Kampf gegen vier Groszmächte, dasz wir das nur unter nie erlebter Begeisterung und völliger Hingabe an das Vaterland können, werden Sie verstehn.

1813 ist klein gegen alles, was wir jetzt erleben. Alle guten und groszen Geister unsres Volkes ziehen mit unsern Soldaten, allen voran Schiller, ohne den wir die Geisteskraft für diesen ungleichen Kampf nicht haben könnten. Darum sind es keine Redensarten, wenn wir mit und durch Schiller, Luther, Goethe, und Beethoven kämpfen.

Die raube Wirklichkeit des Krieges, der nur zwischen Franzosen und Deutschen offen und ritterlich geführt wird, bringt Furchtbares mit sich. Die Weltgeschichte wird später richten, wer die Schuld trägt.

Ich selbst muszte im September wegen Krankheit meine Ausbildung unterbrechen. Jetzt bin ich wieder ganz gesund und nächste Woche ziehe auch ich hinaus in den heiligen Kampf. Meine Losung ist Goethe.

Leben Sie recht herzlich wohl. Ich hasse keinen einzelnen Engländer; ebensowenig wie die englische Kultur; ich verehere Shakespeare, Carlyle, Shelley, Ruskin, Turner, und so viele andre aufs höchste.

Ich bin für vieles, was mich in England sehr förderte, dankbar und Ihnen besonders für Ihre Freundschaft.

Wenn ich den Krieg überlebe, dann, hoffe ich, können wir eine bessere Verständigung später erreichen.

Ich verbleibe Ihr

H. R.

LIEBER HERR R.,—Ihren letzten Brief eingehend zu beantworten würde zu weit und doch schliesslich zu nichts führen. Darin ist vieles, was mich tief rührt und nicht am wenigsten, dasz Sie,

wie er ja noch klarer als je beweist, in einem vorläufig unheilbaren Wahn befangen, dasz Ihre Ohren gegen alle Tatsachen taub sind, während Sie den boshaftesten Lügen Ihrer Regierung und Ihrer Presse unbedingten Glauben schenken. Nur so wären Sie z. B. fähig, von der 'Feigheit der mächtigsten Flotte der Welt' zu reden. Gegen wen also soll diese Flotte kämpfen? Etwa gegen die deutsche Flotte, 'offen und ritterlich'? Bewahre! Bloz gegen die 'ritterlichen' deutschen Minen und Torpedos, hinter denen die deutsche Flotte hockt, abgesehen von einigen Kreuzern, die, wenn sie sich vor Beobachtung sicher genug wissen, aus ihrem Versteck schleichen, um hilflose Badeorte zu beschieszen und Schulkinder und Frauen hinzumetzeln.

Dasz die britische Flotte sich nichts Besseres wünscht als sich mit der deutschen Flotte auf gleichem Fusze zu messen, weisz auch jeder Deutsche, der seinen Verstand nicht verloren oder verpfändet hat. In England würde die Bekämpfung des Gegenteils einfach lächerlich erscheinen.

Als Beispiele anzusehen für den 'nur zwischen Franzosen und Deutschen offen und ritterlich geführten Krieg' wären wohl auch die vielfache Ermordung französischer und britischer Verwundeter, wie sie von Augenzeugen, u. a., von einem meiner früheren Schüler, unwiderlegbar bewiesen ist; die Verkleidung deutscher Truppen, eine gleichfalls wiederholt festgestellte Tatsache, in französische und britische Uniformen; die vor der deutschen Angriffslinie als Schirm gegen feindliche Kugeln hingetriebenen gefangenen Belgier und Franzosen, sowie die durch Torpedos in den Grund gebohrten Handelsschiffe. Neulich schrieb mir die Tochter eines berühmten deutschen Universitätsprofessors wie folgt:

'Für mich ist auch alles unfaszbar; ich kenne keine Deutschen, die so entsetzlich handeln könnten, wie man es

hier den Deutschen zuschreibt und wie es ja auch leider zum Teil bewiesen ist. Viele edelgesinnte Deutsche haben ja gar keine Ahnung, wie schrecklich die deutschen Soldaten und Offiziere sich betragen haben, und alle denken, dasz dieser Krieg ein Verteidigungskrieg ist. Natürlich kann man sich in Briefen an Deutsche nicht aussprechen; ich höre öfters von meiner Mutter und meinen Schwestern.'

Im Jahre 1870 dauerte es Monate, ehe sich König Wilhelm und der Kronprinz Friedrich zur Beschieszung des befestigten und belagerten Paris entschlieszen konnten; jetzt macht man es sich zur Aufgabe, möglichst viele unbewaffnete Bürger, Frauen und Kinder durch Bomben umzubringen. Daran erkennt man den Abstand zwischen 1870 und 1915, zwischen dem ersten und dem zweiten Wilhelm, da hat man das Kennzeichen des modernen Deutschland, das keine Moral berücksichtigt, das Lügen förmlich zu einer Politik, ja zu einer Industrie erhoben hat, durch seine beispiellose Selbstüberhebung die Lustigkeit, wie es durch seine willkürliche Grausamkeit und Mordlust den Abscheu der Welt erregt und ihr als der eingefleischte Mephisto, der Feind des 'Guten, Schönen, Wahren' erscheint. Das Übel, das die Zwecke seiner Herrschsucht resp. 'die freie Entwicklung seiner Kultur' zu fördern scheint, nennt man gut; das Gute, das ihr im Wege steht, übel.

Wozu Nietzsche, Treitschke, Bernhardt ihren Einfluss absprechen wollen? Bei Weichert lese ich in seinem Buch über Zarathustra, dasz die Zeit ganz mit Nietzscheschen Gedanken und Stimmungen durchtränkt sei; Riehl behauptet kein moderner deutscher Schriftsteller der ernsteren Gattung werde so viel gelesen als Nietzsche; in seinen '*Philosophischen Anschauungen*' schreibt Heusner: 'Die Zeit suchte sich einen neuen Liebling und fand ihn in dem Verkünder des Evangeliums . . . vom Willen zur

Macht, in Friedr. Nietzsche. Daraus erklärt sich . . . die grosze Beliebtheit Nietzsches.'

Aber sei dem wie es wolle, so genau entspricht die Praxis der deutschen Staatsmänner, Heerführer und Publizisten den Vorschriften jener erhabenen Geister, dasz es uns gewisz einerlei sein kann, ob sie solche Vorschriften wissentlich befolgen oder selbständig für sich ausgedacht haben:

'Cease the pitiful attempts to excuse Germany's action. . . . Not as weak-willed blunderers have we undertaken the fearful risk of this war. We wanted it. Because we had to wish it and could wish it. . . . Germany strikes. If it conquers new realms for its genius the priesthood of all the gods will sing songs of praise to the good war. . . . In order that that spirit might conquer we were obliged to forge the mightiest weapons for it. . . . The fashioning of such weapons was possible only because millions of industrious persons . . . transformed the poor Germany into the rich Germany, which was then able to prepare and conduct the war as a great industry: Now we know what the war is for. Not for French, Polish . . . territories, nor for billions of money. . . . No! to hoist the storm flag of the Empire on the narrow channel that opens and locks the road into the ocean.'

So lautet es in der Übersetzung eines Artikels von Harden, die in der *New York Times* erschienen ist. Aber auch Harden verwerfen Sie wohl? Nun für jede Stimme, die Sie verwerfen, melden sich 50 andere, die ziemlich dasselbe aussagen, dasselbe, was Ihre Regierung aus Klugheit verheimlicht und erstrebt.

Was würden Sie von einem Engländer halten, der als Nachkomme Shakespeares, Miltons, sich das Recht beanspruchte, seine Nachbarn anzugreifen, zu plündern und hinzuschlachten, indem er sich rühmte, der Geist Shakespeares gehe ihm voraus

und gebe ihm die Geisteskraft für den heiligen Kampf? Oder hätte Deutschland vielleicht niemand angegriffen? Wollen Sie mir denn diese einfache Frage, womit viel zu wenig und doch ungeheuer viel besagt ist, erlauben: Hätte Deutschland diesen Krieg nicht verhindern können? Die ganze nicht-deutsche Welt antwortet: Doch, doch! und ich glaube nicht, dass es einen einzigen, nur halb unterrichteten und aufrichtigen Deutschen gibt, der sie mit nein beantworten könnte. Das *Berliner Tageblatt* soll sich etwa wie folgt, darüber ausgesprochen haben: 'The German people did not, as in 1913, wish for the war,' und 'The German people have only a fragmentary knowledge of the diplomatic prelude to the war.'

'Warum,' so fragt ein amerikanischer Schriftsteller, 'wird von der diplomatischen Korrespondenz, die zwischen Deutschland und Oesterreich vor dem Krieg gewechselt worden ist, kein Wort veröffentlicht? Ja, warum? Die Bedeutung von dem allem ist schon 'den Schwarzen und den Braunen und Wilden aller Völker' klar, und sie beteiligen

sich deshalb freiwillig am Kriege, weil ihr höheres moralisches Gefühl sich gegen Deutschlands Handlungsweise empört und sie dazu treibt.

Ihnen, lieber Herr R——, wünsche ich alles Gute, vor allem dass Sie recht bald unverletzt aus der Feuerprobe heimkehren mögen. Gegenwärtig sind Sie blind und taub. Das kann ich, der ich doppelt so alt bin als Sie, Ihnen nicht verdenken. Einmal werden Sie Ihre Verblendung los (hoffentlich möglichst ohne Schmerzen) und anders denken. Einstweilen ist Ihre Losung Goethe. Ob er aber, er mag ein noch so großes Genie sein, für sich und andere den rechten Lebensweg gefunden hat? Schon auf Grund seiner eigenen Bekenntnisse müsstest ich es bezweifeln. 'Was ist überhaupt am Leben?' fragt der Fünfundsiebzigjährige. 'Ich habe keinen Glauben an die Welt und habe ver-zweifeln gelernt.' Mir scheint es, dass 'der phantastische Finsterling' Paulus es doch zu etwas Besserem gebracht hat.

Mit vielen Grüßen, Ihr

E. W. H.

LONDON, N. W.

THE WAR AND MODERN LANGUAGES.

A SUGGESTION FOR THE CIVIL SERVICE.

BY A MODERNIST.

[From the 'Daily News and Leader.']

THAT great clarifier of ideas, the war, has brought, among other things, into startling prominence the importance of modern languages.

What is one of the main lessons of the war? The inability of nations to see each other's point of view. Why is this so? Well, mainly because it is difficult really to penetrate into the soul of a person till you know his language. His language is the key to his point of view, to his national likes and dislikes, to his ideas of honour, propriety, and decorum, to the vital things for which he lives and for which he is willing to die, to his valuation of values, as Nietzsche would have said. International junketing may bring people together. There is something in feeding

from the same trough, but only when we try to speak a man's language, and not our own, do we really abandon our own insular point of view.

We try, in fact, however clumsily, to creep into his skin, put ourselves in his place, and try to look at things through his mirror, whose angles of refraction we soon discover are somehow different from our own.

Now, we English have hitherto been complacently content to let people, if they want to, creep into our skin, and understand our point of view. Isn't it about time, in the interests of that higher civilization for which we believe we are fighting, we should try and understand the point of view of 'the other fellow,' especially if,

after the war, we have to finally abandon our splendid isolation with the object of co-operating more closely with other nations to preserve the peace of Europe?

LANGUAGE AND MENTALITY.

There are, however, possibly some persons who do not believe in those radical national differences. Let me give one crucial and, I hope, decisive instance that illustrates like a flashlight the fundamental differences in English, French, and German mentality and culture (I use the word in its best sense!). When correcting a child we say to it, 'Be good.' What does this mean exactly? It means we English appeal to that *moral* element which we believe to be the most fundamental part of its nature. Now, what does the French mother say on a similar occasion? She says: 'Sois sage, sois raisonnable' (Be wise, be reasonable). Imagine our saying to a mite of two, Be wise! Now, what does this imply? That she appeals to what the French believe to be the fundamental element in their civilization (*i.e.*, reason, or belief in reason, in the spiritual suzerainty of the *intelligence*). Or if this fails, or as an alternative, the French mother says: 'Ce que tu fais là, n'est pas beau' (What you are doing is not *beautiful*). She appeals to that other great French characteristic—the artistic, the æsthetic sense. On the other hand, the German mother does not say 'Be good' or 'Be reasonable.' She says: 'Sei artig' (Be true to the breed, to the type—be it the class, or the collectivity, or the State). And it is just this type, loyalty, that German militarists are exploiting at the present moment. Here, then, we have three distinct conceptions of life. The Englishman says, 'Be captain of your soul'; the French, 'Be the artist of your soul'; and the German, 'Place your soul at the service of the collectivity.' Only the study of Modern Languages can give us this insight into the existence of differences which is the real basis of perfect sympathy and understanding.

BUSINESS POSSIBILITIES.

So much, then, for the culture aspect of modern languages. Now for the utilitarian. This war may very likely mean a great diminution in the number of foreigners employed in English commerce during and after the war. We shall probably need in our business houses a large number, not only of foreign correspondents, but also, if the projects for extending our trade abroad are realized, a far greater number of com-

mercial travellers able to speak the language of the country they visit.

This particular branch of commercial activity has been sadly neglected in the past. We have said to our would-be customers abroad: 'We will send you price-lists in English currency, catalogues in our own language, or, as a great favour, English travellers speaking the English language; but you must work out the prices for yourselves, translate the catalogues, and act as your own interpreters to our travellers.' This most-favoured-nation treatment of English trade is an anachronism, and has got to go.

Now, if our output of persons with a good command of modern languages is to be increased, it must come through the schools themselves; and one of the best ways of putting modern languages on a solid basis, especially in the big public schools, and of relegating certain more ornamental subjects to their proper place, would be for the Civil Service Commissioners to make at least one foreign language compulsory for all their examinations, and *give higher maxima* for modern languages than they do at present. This should apply not merely to the First Division, but also to other sections of the service in which, especially in the lower grades, the recruitment is on the most wasteful lines. For one successful candidate there are in some cases four, five, and even more unsuccessful candidates; and even a certain number of the boy clerks are still, to the disgrace of the authorities, thrown out of employment later on.

WHAT THE CIVIL SERVICE COULD DO.

The question, therefore, of the subjects taken, especially in these lower grades, is one of capital importance, since they should be such as will be most likely to enable the unsuccessful candidate to obtain suitable employment elsewhere. The Civil Service Commission are ultimately responsible to the community quite as much for the failures as for the successful candidates, if they do not arrange their examinations with a view to the failures having studied such subjects as will give them a chance of obtaining their livelihood elsewhere. The Report on the Civil Service Commission is due this week. Shall we find the Commission have risen to a full sense of their responsibilities? In their keeping largely lies the future of international amity and understanding, and the destinies of thousands of our own sons and daughters who, according as the Commissioners weight the scale of subjects, may lead lives of usefulness or be found too old for skilled employment at twenty.

CORRESPONDENCE.

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

BOCHE.

There has been much discussion since the beginning of the war on the etymology of the slang word 'boche,' by which the French signify their German enemies. The following extract from *Le Temps* of December last may be of interest to your readers.—DE V. PAYEN-PAYNE.

L'ÉMINENT auteur des *Sources de l'argot ancien*, M. L. Sainéan, était plus qualifié que quiconque pour donner un avis autorisé sur l'origine du mot 'boche' et sur celle du mot 'alboche.' Il veut bien nous adresser la note suivante, que nous nous empressons de reproduire et qui résout d'une manière définitive, semble-t-il, ce petit problème philologique auquel, si nous en jugeons par les nombreuses lettres que nous avons reçues, nos lecteurs se sont vivement intéressés.

Cette note sera d'autant mieux appréciée que M. L. Sainéan termine précisément une étude sur le *Langage populaire parisien au dix-neuvième siècle* et qu'il a entre les mains, comme on va voir, toutes les pièces du procès :

Un des caractères frappants du parler vulgaire de nos jours est l'abrégement des mots polysyllabiques par l'élimination de la syllabe initiale ou finale. Les cas d'aphérèse sont particulièrement nombreux : il suffira de rappeler ici les abréviations populaires *chand* (de vin), *troquet* (mastroquet) et *zingue* (mannezingue). C'est à cette catégorie qu'appartient également *boche*, qui est tout simplement la forme abrégée de *caboche*. On a dit *tête de boche*, pour tête dure ou entêté, c'est-à-dire pour exprimer la même notion que *caboche*. Primitivement, cette expression n'a rien d'éthnique :

'Boche, mauvais sujet, dans l'argot des petites dames . . .' (Delvau, *Dictionnaire de la langue verte*, 1866).

'Tête de boche, tête dure, individu dont l'intelligence est obtuse . . .' (Rigaud, *Dictionnaire du jargon parisien*, 1878).

'Boche, autrefois les ouvriers disaient *boche* pour qualifier un lourdeau . . .' (Virmaitre, *Dictionnaire d'argot fin de siècle*, v. *Alboche*).

L'application particulière aux Allemands est ainsi un fait ultérieur. On en est redevable à un trait de psychologie populaire que résume l'expression *tête carrée d'Allemand*. L'une et l'autre remontent au premier contact avec les Allemands en 1870.

Cette spécialisation de *tête de boche* a eu lieu

dans les milieux professionnels où l'on avait recours à la main-d'œuvre allemande. En voici un témoignage technique : '*Tête de boche*. Ce terme est spécialement appliqué . . . aux Allemands, parce qu'ils comprennent assez difficilement, dit-on, les explications des metteurs en pages,' lit-on dans la *Langue verte typographique* d'Engène Boutmy, 1874.

Cette identification ethnique une fois accomplie, l'expression fit son chemin avec cette nouvelle acception. Citons cet exemple particulier au milieu des casernes :

'C'est-y que tu me prends pour un menteur ? Quiens, preuve que la v'là ta permission. . . Sais-tu lire, sacrée tête de boche ? . . .' (Courteline *le Train de 3 h.* 47, p. 74).

De là *boche*, Allemand, dernier résidu de *tête de boche* :

'I vient de décider que les *boches* fêteraient pus que deux fois l'anniversaire de Sedan' (Léon de Bercy, *Lettres argotiques*, XXV^e lettre, p. 5, dans la *Lanterne* de Bruant, 1896, n^o 65).

Quant à *alboche*, il représente ce que les grammairiens appellent un croisement, c'est-à-dire la fusion de deux mots synonymes : *allemand* et *boche*. Ce terme est naturellement postérieur à *boche* : '*Alboche*, on désigne ainsi les Allemands, Luxembourgeois, Alsaciens, tous ceux qui parlent l'allemand' (Rossignol, *Dictionnaire d'argot*, 1900). Voici deux exemples tirés du *Père Peinard*, mine abondante de bas langage contemporain :

'Y a pas jusqu'aux *alboches* qui n'aient des intentions de faire du chabonais' (27 oct., 1889, p. 1).

'On a remplacé l'aminche par un *alboche* qui a l'air bougrement godiche . . .' (27 juillet, 1890, p. 13).

Conclusion : *boche* n'a, étymologiquement, rien de commun avec *allemand*. Cette application technique spéciale accuse un trait d'expérience vulgaire : pour passer de *boche* à *allemand*, il faut tenir compte du terme intermédiaire, *tête carrée d'Allemand*.

L. SAINÉAN.

THE STUDY OF RUSSIAN.

If, as we all hope, after this war, the relations between Russia and Britain grow more and more intimate, it is probable that the Russian language will be more widely studied in this country. Indeed, many who would not have turned their attention to this rich and beautiful

language have already begun to learn it. But in order to enable students to progress satisfactorily in this study it is necessary to secure a larger supply of competent teachers, for there are few towns, exclusive of London and some of our University towns like Liverpool, Oxford, and Cambridge, where instruction in Russian can be obtained. It is also much to be desired that a good Russian dictionary should be compiled by a competent scholar conversant alike with the Russian and English languages. The large dictionary of Alexandrow is very imperfect; it is defective in many ways, and in others redundant. The dictionary should give all the aspects in use of every verb, together with the future tense, and any irregularities in the other tenses. In many cases it should give the etymologies of words, and in cases where these could be shown to be connected with words in ancient or modern languages the connection should be stated. Then simple reading books are badly needed for beginners. These readers should contain interesting descriptions of Russian life and manners, and should be progressive in the difficulty of the pieces given. The stories given in the *Sammlung Göschen* might well serve as a model for what we need, but more interesting pieces might easily be found taken from more modern authors. Good notes explanatory of the numerous Russian idioms are needed. I trust that some of the teachers of Russian in our Universities may find leisure to take this work in hand and so confer a benefit on many would-be Russian students.

HERBERT A. STRONG.

GRAMMAR.

Permit me through your columns to give voice to a grievance which is becoming well-nigh intolerable.

I have been teaching French in a Girls' Secondary School for nearly a year and a half, and what strikes me most forcibly is the ignorance of the pupils as regards the most elementary notions of English Grammar.

There are two English specialists in the school; yet, in spite of all my complaints, they make no endeavour to teach formal Grammar, their reason being that English Grammar can be taught much more effectively through Composition. By this means the pupils realize that there are right and wrong ways of expressing their ideas. This result having been achieved, why should the teacher of English waste time on formal Grammar? Why should he teach it solely for the benefit of the modern language teacher who complains of pupils who do not know a noun from a verb, who have never heard of adjectives, who are unfamiliar with the terms 'masculine' and 'feminine,' 'singular' and 'plural'? It is none of his business that a teacher of French finds himself handicapped by such ignorance on the part of his pupils. If French cannot be taught without a knowledge of formal Grammar, it is the duty, not of the teacher of English, but of the teacher of French, to impart it.

In the interests of modern language teaching, I ask, is this fair? Is the limited time of a French class to be devoted at regular intervals to the learning and digesting of some fundamental rules of English Grammar?

I should like to know what other teachers of modern languages think about these questions I have raised.

I may say, in closing, that my headmistress, on my requesting her to do so, has from time to time given a special lesson—*e.g.*, on reflexive verbs—to girls in the Sixth Form, who admitted quite frankly that they knew nothing about English Grammar.

MARIE L. BARKER.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

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

THE seditious address of Dr. Kuno Meyer, late Professor of Celtic in the University of Liverpool, to the Clan-na-Gael of Long Island, N.Y., has aroused much indignation generally and something like consternation in Liverpool. According to the Librarian of Liverpool University, the views therein expressed are at variance with his professed opinions when he was at Liverpool. Anyhow, after thirty years' residence in this country, and long-standing friendships with distinguished Englishmen, he declares himself a

long-standing enemy of England, and uses the position to which he was assisted by English friends in an attempt to stir up sedition. 'It is no reproach to him,' is the reasonable comment, 'that he remains entirely German at heart. But that he should use the position he has attained in Celtic Scholarship, and the reputation made in this country which lately won him the succession to the Chair of Zimmer in Berlin, to stab in the back the country to which he owes so much, is quite another matter.' Dr. Meyer was

originally appointed Professor of German, but he neglected the subject completely, and left the work to an assistant.

The moral which the incident emphatically points is the folly and danger of appointing aliens as heads of departments in any branch of national education.



The announcement that Professor R. A. Williams, M.A., Ph.D., Litt.D., has been appointed to the vacant Professorship of German and Teutonic Philology at the Queen's University of Belfast will be welcomed by all members of the Modern Language Association with whom he is deservedly popular, especially as he is one of the foremost champions of the principle that the literatures of foreign countries can best be interpreted to Englishmen or Irishmen by their own compatriots, who alone can fully understand the difficulties that the British have in thoroughly appreciating the beauties of French and German literature.

Professor Williams was born in Belfast in 1876, and studied at the old Queen's College in that city. He decided to specialize in Modern Languages, and read widely, not merely in French and German, but also in Medieval Latin, Spanish, Italian, and even Portuguese. In addition to his other interests he found time to make a thorough-going study of the theory of chess, ran a chess column in a Belfast paper, and was known as one of the best players in Ireland. Having been attracted by the writings of Sievers, Mr. Williams proceeded to Leipzig, where he devoted himself to the study of Sanscrit, Anglo-Saxon, Modern Languages, Philology, and Phonetics. He obtained his Ph.D. degree, *Magna cum Laude*, for a thesis on *Die Vokale der Tonsilben im Codex Wintoniensis*. From 1900 to 1902 Dr. Williams held the post of English Lecturer at the University of Halle. In the latter year he was appointed Reader of German in the University of London, where he remained till 1907. Since that date he has been Professor of German and Lecturer in Anglo-Saxon at Trinity College, Dublin, where his learning and scholarship have been so highly appreciated by the University that it has conferred upon him the degree of Litt.D., the highest honour which it is in its power to bestow. In spite of his arduous duties at Trinity College, Professor Williams has found leisure for research and publication. His well-known article on *The Phonetical Explanations of Verner's Law* has deservedly given him a great reputation as one of the few British scholars who are engaged in advancing our knowledge of Germanic Philology. As is well known, this article made quite a sensa-

tion on the Continent, and evoked enthusiastic tributes from Professors Jespersen, Vogt, Brunot, Viötor, and many others.

His *Uniformity in Language and Language Study* is a work of great originality and power, and written in that clear and incisive style of which Professor Williams is a master.

Readers of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING have learnt to appreciate the numerous articles from his pen which have appeared from time to time in these columns, and anything signed 'R. A. Williams' is at once sought out and read with eagerness.

His recent articles on the study of German literature contributed to the *Irish Times* are full of original ideas, and have given a powerful incentive to the study of German in Ireland. They are, perhaps, the best reply that has yet been made to those well-meaning persons who fail to distinguish between hostility to the nation with which we are at war, and a just appreciation of German literature, a knowledge of which will always form a most important element of a liberal education.

There is no doubt that Professor Williams has a distinguished career before him in Belfast, where his efforts to promote the study of German on sound literary and philological lines, along with a due recognition of the importance of phonetics, and the improvement of the teaching of Modern Languages will find ready recognition, and receive the most cordial support.



Highly recommended German lady, experienced teacher, seeks re-engagement or coaching by correspondence. Apply to Miss King, 168, Tottenhall Road, Wolverhampton.



Mr. A. C. Beynon has been offered an Exhibition of £50 at Jesus College, Oxford. This is the second award in Modern Languages to pupils of the Royal Grammar School, Worcester, within the last two years.



TEACHERS' REGISTRATION COUNCIL.

THE TEACHERS' REGISTER.

At the January meeting the Council was engaged for some time in the discussion of questions raised by the Board of Education's Circular on Examinations in Secondary Schools. It is expected that the discussion will extend over several future meetings, and that the final opinion of the Council will have a special weight as coming from a body representing all types of teachers.

It was announced at the December meeting that the number of applicants for registration was 4,760. A comparison of the average number of applications per week before the war with the average number during the past three months shows that the entries have been adversely affected to the number of about 1,500. In spite of this, however, it is clear that the Register is generally welcomed, and that it will gain increasing support as time goes on. It is therefore important that those teachers who wish to have their names on the first list should apply without delay.

In view of the early publication of the first Official List of Registered Teachers, on which it is desirable that the names of all qualified teachers should appear, special efforts are being made to secure early applications from those who are not already registered. The officers of the various associations are taking steps to bring before their members the importance of registering at once, and local meetings of the National Union of Teachers are giving attention to the movement.

Among recent applicants for registration may be mentioned: Dr. Michael Sadler, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds; Miss M. K. Higgs, Classical Mistress of the Ladies' College, Cheltenham; Mr. Herbert Ward, H.M. Inspector of Schools; Professor Phillips, of the Education Department in the University College, Cardiff; Mr. G. P. De Martyn, Inspector of Schools, Hong-Kong; Miss E. L. Jones, Headmistress of Park Walk School, Chelsea; Mr. R. A. Sheldon, Lecturer on Electrical Engineering, University College, Nottingham; Professor Nunn and Miss Punnett, of the London Day Training College; Dr. Hastings Rashdall, of New College, Oxford; Professor Karl Breul, of Cambridge; Canon Swallow, late Headmaster of Chigwell School; Mr. W. A. Newsome, Editor of the 'A.M.A.', Senior Master and Acting Headmaster of the Stationers' Company's School; Mr. E. H. Carter, H.M. Inspector of Schools; Miss K. M. Buck, late of the Northern Polytechnic; Mr. W. S. Carrack, President of the Worcestershire Teachers' Association; Miss Davies, of the University Training College, Liverpool; Mr. G. H. Powell, Vice-Chairman of the Parliamentary Committee of the National Union of Teachers; and Mr. J. W. Jacob, late President of the Head Teachers' Association.



LES UNIVERSITÉS FRANÇAISES AUX UNIVERSITÉS DES PAYS NEUTRES.

Les Universités Allemandes viennent de protester contre les accusations dont leur pays est l'objet à l'occasion de la guerre.

Les Universités Françaises se borneront à vous soumettre les questions suivantes :

Qui a voulu cette guerre ?

Qui, pendant le trop court répit laissé aux délibérations de l'Europe, s'est ingénié à trouver des formules de conciliation ? Qui, au contraire, a refusé toutes celles qu'ont successivement proposées l'Angleterre, la Russie, la France, et l'Italie ?

Qui, au moment précis où le conflit paraissait s'apaiser, a déchaîné la guerre, comme si l'occasion propice était attendue et guettée ?

Qui a violé la neutralité de la Belgique, après l'avoir garantie ?

Qui a déclaré à ce propos que neutralité est un mot, que 'les traités sont des chiffons de papier,' et qu'en temps de guerre 'on fait comme on peut' ?

Qui tient pour non avenues les conventions internationales par lesquelles les puissances signataires se sont engagées à n'user, dans la conduite de la guerre, d'aucun moyen de force constituant une 'barbarie' ou une 'perfidie' et à respecter les monuments historiques, les édifices des cultes, des sciences, des arts et de la bienfaisance, sauf dans les cas où l'ennemi, les dénaturant le premier, les emploierait à des fins militaires ?

Dans quelles conditions l'Université de Louvain a-t-elle été détruite ?

Dans quelles conditions la Cathédrale de Reims a-t-elle été brûlée ?

Dans quelles conditions des bombes incendiaires ont-elles été jetées sur Notre-Dame de Paris ?

A ces questions, les faits seuls doivent répondre.

Déjà, vous pouvez consulter les documents publiés par les chancelleries, les résultats d'enquêtes faites par des neutres, les témoignages trouvés dans des carnets allemands, les témoignages des ruines de Belgique et des ruines de France.

Ce sont nos preuves.

Contre elles, il ne suffit pas, ainsi que l'ont fait les représentants de la science et de l'art allemands, d'énoncer des dénégations, appuyées seulement d'une 'parole d'honneur' impérative.

Il ne suffit pas davantage, comme font les Universités Allemandes, de dire: Vous connaissez notre enseignement; il n'a pu former une nation de barbares.

Nous savons quelle a été la valeur de cet enseignement. Mais, nous savons aussi que, rompant avec les traditions de l'Allemagne de Leibnitz, de Kant et de Goethe, la pensée allemande vient de se déclarer solidaire, tributaire et

sujette du militarisme prussien, et qu'emportée par lui, elle prétend à la domination universelle.

De cette prétention, les preuves abondent. Hier encore, un maître de l'Université de Leipzig écrivait : 'C'est sur nos épaules que repose le sort futur de la culture en Europe.'

Les Universités Françaises, elles, continuent de penser que la civilisation est l'œuvre non pas d'un peuple unique, mais de tous les peuples, que la richesse intellectuelle et morale de l'humanité est créée par la naturelle variété et l'indépendance nécessaire de tous les génies nationaux.

Comme les armées alliées, elles défendent, pour leur part, la liberté du monde.

Le 3 Novembre, 1914.

L'UNIVERSITÉ DE PARIS.
L'UNIVERSITÉ D'AIX-MARSEILLE.
L'UNIVERSITÉ D'ALGER.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE BESANÇON.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE BORDEAUX.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE CAEN.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE CLERMONT.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE DIJON.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE GRENOBLE.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE LYON.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE MONTPELLIER.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE NANCY.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE POITIERS.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE RENNES.
L'UNIVERSITÉ DE TOULOUSE.

L'Université de Lille n'a pu être consultée.

OXFORD.—The following awards of scholarships are announced :

Keble College: Harry N. Lett, Hartley University College, Southampton.

St. John's College: A. J. Henschel (on the Casherd Foundation).

Mr. G. C. Bateman, of Ramsgate County School, is on active service.

Mr. M. P. Andrews is on active service, and has had to hand over temporarily the Head-mastership of the Hipperholme Grammar School to Mr. John Kemp.

Mr. Gilbert Bencher is serving in the Public School Battalion.

Mr. L. A. Gothard, of Magdalen College School, Brackley, is also serving in the above.

Professor Starkie, of Hartley College, Southampton, has enlisted.

Mr. Paget, lecturer at the same college, is interned in Germany.

There are now from twenty to twenty-five of our members absent, some on active service, others either interned or not returned from the Continent.

Three French lady students of English wish to hear from three adult English students, preferably London gentlemen, who would be willing to exchange correction of exercises, etc. Write to Mlle. L. Potier, Beaufoie, Par Les Lucs sur Boulogne, Vendée, France.

REVIEWS.

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

MacMunn Differential Partnership Method. The Things about Us and a Few Others. A Book of Easy French Conversation. By NORMAN MACMUNN. Red (Blue) Series. (For distribution to every alternate pupil.) Pp. 68 each. Price 8d. each. Bell and Sons.

The two series, one bound in red and one in blue, are each distributed to every alternate pupil. The author says: 'Their *raison d'être* is to bridge the very narrow gulf between work and play by making the work so active that to all intents and purposes it becomes play.' 'The chief aim is to give fluency and confidence and the beginning of power to think in French.' Two boys are supposed to work together, and the teacher merely goes among the class and helps. We have carefully read the author's 'Notes to Masters,' but we have failed, possibly through stupidity, to understand exactly how the partnership is worked. The two books have no con-

nection whatever. For instance, the fourth lesson in the red book deals with comparison, whereas the same lesson in the blue book deals with *quelque chose ne . . . rien* and *il y a*, with the idiom *Quel âge avez-vous?* thrown in. We might remark that there would be more reality in it if the sentence were *Quel âge as-tu?* Much more explicit details are necessary to show how the plan is worked. The author thinks that it is an advantage to have the partners working on totally different material.

Mitchell's Revised English Course for Foreign Students. A New Edition of Mitchell's Pictorial English Course. By W. WYATT HAYWARD. Pp. xxviii + 301. Buenos Aires: Mitchell's English Book Store.

The author, or rather reviser, of this Direct Method English Course for Argentine pupils (or any foreign pupils) is a strong supporter of

phonetics as a necessary adjunct of Modern Language study. The Introduction is worth reading, and states cogently the case against the old grammar method and the advantages of phonetics and phonetic script, although none of the exercises, except the oral exercises on pronunciation in Part II., are printed phonetically, and there are only sixteen pages at the end which give hints to teachers on the subject. We would suggest that in a future edition the first ten lessons or so should be given in phonetic print; otherwise the book, which is entirely in English, is well done. All the important difficult and idiomatic points in English construction are very fully treated, and there are numerous extracts in prose and poetry on which the exercises are based. Most of the prose has been composed expressly for the book. The early exercises are based on pictures.

English Grammar and Composition. Part III. : Middle School English Composition. By G. A. TWENTYMAN. Pp. 280. Price 2s. 6d. Rivingtons.

We have here a Third Year Course in English Grammar and Composition. The First and Second Year Courses by the same author have already appeared. The book begins with forty pages of recapitulation exercises, in which we are pleased to see stress laid on punctuation. Then follow grammar exercises, in which the relative pronouns, *shall* and *will*, and the subjunctive, are adequately dealt with. The third section is excellent, and the treatment of Summary, Outlines, Paraphrase, leaves little to be desired. Excellent hints are given on Beginning and Ending, and on the avoidance of common faults. The final section of forty-three pages is devoted to the thorny question of Prosody. We think the author has here attempted too much, and that some of the exercises are of doubtful value.

Teachers' Handbook to Lessons in Speaking and Writing English. Section One (299 pp.): *Language Lessons. Section Two* (301 pp.): *Composition and Grammar.* By JOHN M. MANLY and ELIZA R. MANLY. Revised and arranged for English Schools by HERBERT LEATHER. Price 3s. 6d. net each. Heath and Co.

These books might be described as a Direct Method Course of English for English pupils, and are well worth a trial. 'The scheme seeks to establish the habit of frank, free, and correct methods of self-expression in oral and written language.' In the early part of Section One the work is mainly oral, and is based on pictures, poems, fairy-tales, folk-lore, etc. The plan includes Reading, Poetry, Related Lessons, Dramatization, and occasional Dictation. No formal grammar is taught in the early stages, but

is dealt with later in a logical and progressive plan. No part of the study of English is neglected, from the study of a poem to the drawing up of a butcher's bill. The books are thoroughly practical and of great educative value. In support of this we quote some of the exercises given: 'Explain how to sharpen a lead pencil.' 'How a chicken is carved.' 'Write about a nail and a screw so clearly that anyone who had never seen either would know exactly how each looks and is used.' The following is a grammar question: 'Use the following words in sentences—baby, baby's, babies, babies.' Recapitulation is such a strong feature that revision should not be necessary. In the Teachers' Handbook the passages indicated by a heavy vertical line on the margin are not found in the pupils' book. These passages contain important suggestions for teaching.

The Mother-Tongue. Book II. : The Practice of English. Edited for the Use of English Schools by Professor J. W. ADAMSON and A. A. COCK. Pp. 363. Price 2s. 6d. Ginn and Co.

We have here another good manual of teaching English by the inductive method. It is based on the principles that composition should precede the study of grammar, and that grammar should be strictly subservient to composition. It is divided into three parts: Narrative, Description, and Exposition. Each section is preceded by not merely one passage, but by several, to illustrate various kinds. The five in narrative are—*Rumpelstiltskin*, *Moses and the Green Spectacles*, *Lochinvar*, *Australian Superstition* (Sir George Grey), *The Battle of Bannockburn* (Scott). The various exercises deal with action, outline, introduction, conclusion details, followed by exercises on paragraphs, sentences, and analysis, and lastly grammar pure and simple.

A Practical Course of Intermediate English. By EDWARD ALBERT. Pp. 272. Price 2s. Harrap and Co.

Mr. Albert has written this book as an introduction and supplement to the work reviewed below, of which he is joint author. There are five chapters: Grammar and Syntax, Style, The Complete Composition, Prose and Poetry, Etymology. The whole is an excellent example of how the inductive method may be applied to the study of English. The inflections and other phenomena of nouns are taught by the study of a selected passage, apparently written for the purpose. This is followed by suitable exercises. The definitions, mostly excellent, are printed in thick type. Style is similarly studied by concrete examples, of which the author points out the weak points and faults. It is under 'Style' that analysis and punctuation are dealt with—a

sensible arrangement. The Complete Composition is subdivided into Narrative, Conversation, Description, Descriptive Narrative, Autobiography, Letters. The chapter headed 'Prose and Poetry,' in which more stress is laid on matter than on mere form (metre) is excellently done. The chapter on Etymology is rather weak. No reference is made to phonetic change, and the student is left to wonder how *sash* can come from *capere*, or *chattel* from *caput*.

1. *Feuilles de Route 1870*. Par PAUL DÉROULÉDE. Adapted and edited by R. H. PARDOE.
2. *Contes de Guerre (1870)*. Par GUY DE MAUPASSANT. Adapted and edited by J. G. ANDERSON.
3. *L'Odysée d'un Artilleur*. Par GUSTAVE FAUTRAS. Adapted and edited by L. VON GLEHN.

The above are the latest additions to the Oxford Junior French Series. It is a remarkable coincidence that all three should deal with the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. Two of them were published before the present war broke out, and the third must have been in hand. Apart from the merits of the editing, these texts should prove highly interesting at this time. Nos. 1 and 3 will be found very suitable in army classes, as they contain a large number of military terms. Besides, it is probable that military matters will take a more prominent place in the school curriculum than they have done hitherto. From

the artistic and literary point of view, No. 2 is the best. It is also the most interesting. It has a biographical notice and some useful information on the history of French Republics and on French administration. We think, however, that such information should be placed at the beginning and not at the end. The exercises in No. 3 are arranged more methodically than the previous volumes of the series, and this is a distinct improvement. There is, in addition, a phonetic spelling of the difficult words.

A Practical Course in Secondary English. By GEORGE OGILVIE and EDWARD ALBERT. Pp. 484 + xii. Price 4s. 6d. Harrap and Co.

If this manual were in the hands of magazine writers and literary critics, and if they profited by it, we should have less of the slipshod work that is so common. It is a thoroughly painstaking and on the whole satisfactory, application of the inductive method. The work is divided into three parts: Style (including The Word, The Sentence, The Paragraph, and Figures), Form (including Poetry and Prose) and Language (more than one-third of the book). The numerous and lengthy examples are well chosen, and there are plenty of exercises. As an instance of thoroughness of treatment, we may mention that the melody of vowels and consonants is discussed, and that scansion is shown to be applicable to ornate prose.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

THE following ten members have been elected to the General Committee:

Miss Althaus, Organizing Mistress, West Riding Schools.

R. P. Atherton, M.A., Assistant Master, Haileybury College.

Miss Hart, Ph.D., Assistant Mistress, Sydenham County Secondary School, S.E.

Professor Herford, M.A., Litt.D., Victoria University of Manchester.

J. E. Mansion, B. ès L., Assistant Master Merchant Taylors School, E.C.

F. W. Odgers, M.A., Assistant Master, Rugby School.

H. M. O'Grady.

O. H. Prior, D. ès L., Assistant Master, Rugby School.

S. A. Richards, M.A., Assistant Master, Hackney Downs Grammar School.

W. H. D. Rouse, M.A., Litt.D., Headmaster, Perse School.

The following new members were elected on January 7:

Miss Karen Arup, B.A., St. Angela's High School, Forest Gate, E.

Miss M. L. Burroughs, B.A., Girls' Secondary School, Eastbourne.

Miss R. E. Clark, M.A., Girls' Grammar School, Watford.

Professor W. E. Collinson, M.A., Ph.D., Liverpool University.

A. W. Green, Mina Road Central School, S.E.

Miss Lalla Green, B.A., Kingsleigh, Wembley, Middlesex.

Professor Maurice King, Argentine Naval College, Buenos Aires.

Miss Helen J. Knipe, Technical School, Swindon.

Rev. W. A. Parker Mason, M.A., Hulme Grammar School, Manchester.

Miss L. O. Noël, Simon Langton School for Girls, Canterbury.

Miss F. M. Pertis, 135, Tooting Bec Road, S.W.

Miss F. M. Price, B.A., Addey and Stanhope School, S.E.

Miss E. M. Sadd, B.A., Hornsey County High School for Girls.

Miss F. E. Taylor, Addey and Stanhope School, S.E.

Some changes in the Rules were made at the General Meeting. As a result of these, the first part of Rule 2 now reads as follows, new portions being printed in italics :

'There shall be a General Committee, which shall consist of *forty members*—exclusive of ex-officio and co-opted members—to be elected by the Association. *Members shall be elected for three years. At least two members who have not served before shall be elected each year.*

'*Any vacancy occurring in the General Committee in the course of the year shall be filled by the Candidate standing next in order on the voting-list at the last General Election.*'

In Rule 21 the sentence, 'Members whose names have been removed from the Members' List for non-payment of subscription shall be eligible for re-election only on payment of all arrears,' was struck out, the Committee being thus left with power to settle each case on its merits.

The proposal to add a rule, 'The names of members whose subscriptions are two full years in arrears may be removed from the list by the Committee' was rejected, and an instruction to the Committee to 'consider the case' of such members substituted.

Miss Margaret T. Smith has resigned her post at the Mary Datchelor School, Camberwell, after thirty-seven years' service.

Miss Devonshire has resigned her post at the Whyteleafe County School, Surrey, as she is taking up research work for a time.

At the General Meeting a hearty vote of thanks was accorded to Mr. H. M. Cruttwell for his services as Hon. Treasurer.

A meeting of the General Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, January 30.

Present: Rev. W. S. Macgowan (chair), Miss Allpress, Miss Althaus, Mr. Anderson, Miss Batchelor, Messrs. Fuller, von Glehn, Miss Hargraves, Miss Hart, Messrs. Hutton, Mansion,

O'Grady, Perrett, Prior, Richards, Rippmann, Robert, Twentyman, and the Hon. Secretary.

Letters of apology were received from Miss Backhouse, Messrs. Brereton, Gerrans, Ll. J. Jones, Odgers, Rouse, Savory.

The Rev. Dr. Macgowan was re-elected Chairman.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The other officers were re-elected.

Sir Henry Miers was elected a Vice-President.

Miss Strachey, of Newnham College, and Mr. Fabian Ware were co-opted to the Committee.

M. Doutrepoint, Professor of French Language and Literature at Louvain, was elected an Honorary Member.

The following were elected to serve on the Executive Committee: Miss Allpress, Miss Althaus, Miss Batchelor, Messrs. Brereton, Fuller, von Glehn, Miss Hart, Messrs. Mansion, O'Grady, Prior, Rippmann, Miss Shearson, Messrs. Somerville, Storr, and Twentyman.

The Lectures and Membership Sub-committees were dropped; the others were re-elected, with the following additions:

Exhibition: Mr. Mansion.

Study Abroad: Messrs. Bridge and O'Grady.

Teaching of Modern History: Mr. O. H. Prior.

The representatives on the Committee of the *Modern Language Review*, and those on the Joint Committee with the County Councils Association, were re-elected.

It was agreed that members of the Association on active service should not be asked for their subscriptions this year, and should receive the magazine, if they desired it.

It was agreed that the President should be asked to write to the Historical Association, inviting them to form with the Association a Joint Committee on the teaching of European History in connection with Modern Languages.

A letter from Dr. Leonhardt, Assistant Master at Rutlish School, Merton, and Chief Examiner in the examinations in German conducted by the Allgemeiner deutscher Sprachverein, was read and considered. The gist of the letter was a proposal that the examinations in school should be held for two years under the auspices of the Modern Language Association, which would be represented on the Committee, but would incur no financial responsibility. After considerable discussion, the letter was referred to a sub-committee, consisting of Messrs. Bridge, Fuller, Hutton, Prior, Rippmann, and Miss Batchelor, with instructions to report to the next meeting of the Executive Committee.

The following eight new members were elected :
 Miss E. Boothroyd, Birkenhead High School.
 Miss E. Bamber, B.A., Marlborough Grammar School, Wilts.
 Miss J. E. Creese, Downe House, Downe, Kent.
 Robert D. Morss, B.A., 9, St. Martin's Street, W.C.

Miss M. M. O'Sullivan, B.A., St. Angela's High School, Forest Gate, E.
 Miss F. Page, M.A., Bedford College, N.W.
 Miss H. M. Trudgian, Secondary School, Swindon.
 Miss Olive Wright, M.A., County Grammar School, Melton Mowbray.

DISCUSSION COLUMN.

[All communications should be addressed to Miss ALTHAUS, The Cottage, Bramhope, near Leeds.]

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.

It seems necessary to point out that the opinions expressed in articles, correspondence, notes, and reviews are not and cannot be endorsed officially by the Association.

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.; the annual subscription is 4s.

Contributions and review copies should be sent to the Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, Cuirrathain, 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, 7, South Hill Mansions, London, N.W.

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: Miss HART, County Secondary School, Sydenham Hill Road, S.E.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, County School, Wood Green, N.

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 XI. No. 3

March, 1915

RUSSIAN EPICS.

FOR a sound and direct appreciation of the national characteristics of Russian life and psychology, the poetical productions of the Russian people constitute a source of great importance. In the untutored improvisations of its crude muse the Russian people has related the whole of its history; has delineated its spiritual features and the social instincts of its race; has revealed its thoughts, aspirations, and wisdom; has found an expression for every impulse of its heart. 'The folk-songs,' says Gogol, 'are the living history of the nation—impressive, glowing with the colours of truth, and laying bare the whole of the national life.' The importance of the folk-songs in the life of the Russian peasant is shown in the following inspired passage of one of the earliest students of Russian folk-lore:

'Commencing at the side of his cradle, song accompanies the Russian man during the games of his childhood and the sports of his youth, and gives expression to his earliest feelings of love. In the ears of the girls it is always ringing; and if it depicts in sombre hues the unwelcome change from maiden freedom to wedded subjection, it also paints in glowing colours the happiness of mutual attachment. To the husband and wife it suggests many a form of

loving words, and teaches them how, with croons about the "evil Tartars" of olden days, to lull their elder children. Song lightens the toil of the working hours, whether carried on out of doors, amid exposure to sun and wind and rain and frost, or within the stifling hut, by the feeble light of a pinewood splinter; it enlivens the repose of the holiday, giving animation to the choral dance by day and the social gathering by night. The younger generation grows up, and song escorts the conscript son to the army, the wedded daughter to her new home, and mourns over the sorrow of the parents of whom their children have taken what may be a last farewell. Then comes the final scene of all, and when the tired eyes are closed for ever, and the weary hands are crossed in peace, song hovers around the silent form, and addresses to its heedless ears passionate words of loving entreaty.'*

The poetical tradition current among the Russian people originated, as everywhere else, at a time beyond all historical memory. Living on the lips of the

* P. N. Rybnikov: *Collection of Russian Songs* (cited by W. R. Ralston: *The Songs of the Russian People*, p. 4).

people, and being handed down from generation to generation, this tradition has in the course of many centuries considerably changed in thought and expression, and in its present state displays some distinct features of the past, as well as some fresh strata of later times. It would seem that the nature of the traditional material, as an outcome of changing historical conditions and literary influences, would have its bearings only on the historical psychology of the Russian people. Yet it must not be forgotten that the present character of the nation, its modes of life and national outlook, were in the making for several centuries. The beginnings of the national character are to be traced in the past. The main traits of the national psychology of the Russian people were being moulded in those times when their powers were most severely tried. It was in the days of great historical events—events which impressed the national imagination and inspired the poetic genius of the people with the production of songs and legends. Following the track of events, tradition has not only recorded the mere memory of them, but also voiced the impressions made by them on the nation in its conscience and feelings. Behind the historical details of the poetic narrative looms the living mind of the people, its beliefs, ideas, and sentiments. And the psychology of the nation has a slow and gradual growth, the Russian peasant of to-day being much the same in his manner of thinking and feeling as his early forefathers.

The study of the poetical folk-lore of Russia reveals that the outstanding feature of the Russian national character is a strong bent towards the religious ideal. In the inspired words of the Slavophil writer, K. Aksakov, 'The Russian people is a people striving for salvation, at times falling into sin, but never wavering in its faith, never recant-

ing, always repentant and regenerated by its repentance.' The religious sense of the Russian people gives the key to the interpretation of its national literature. The great quest after the religious truth pervades the works of Soloviev, Dostoyevsky, and Tolstoy, and it also stamps the poetical productions of the popular genius. In conformity with the gentle and idealistic character of the Russian Slav, the chief hero of the Russian national epos is represented as more generous than the heroic personalities of some foreign epics.

Besides its importance for sociological and historical studies, the popular poetry cannot fail to excite admiration by the vigour and beauty of its images, the sincerity of its pathos, and the freshness of its fancy. The study of the art and craft of letters as manifested in folk-poetry became one of the best schools for the education of the poetic genius of several of the Russian poets, such as Zhukovsky and Pushkin. Both of them were indebted to folk-poetry for the subjects of some of their productions, as well as for the picturesqueness and expressiveness of their language. The close bond between national poetry and the literature of the educated classes, once established, has never since been severed. The assimilation of the higher and lower currents of Russian literature was much assisted by the fact that folk-lore has become one of the most thoroughly studied branches of Russian literary history since the foundation of the national Universities.

In the following essay I have briefly dealt with a few of the aspects of the epics of Russia, which constitute the largest and most important branch of the national poetry.

The Russian epic has not developed into a complete and rounded whole, as the 'Iliad' has, but has been preserved in a series of detached songs, only a part of

which have formed an independent cycle. In the Russian epic traditions we must distinguish between the early epic or 'heroic' songs and the later or 'historical' songs. The narrative of the latter is attached to a definite historical fact or person. The historical songs show a clear and close bond between the related and the authentic events or deeds as they are recorded by history. In the songs classed under the title of 'heroic,' the historical traditions and memories have lost their vividness, distinctness, and colouring, and are now hardly to be distinguished, as the original historical basis has been continually overlaid by successive layers or strata. But the artistic manners and methods of both branches of the epic songs are the same. Both display a similarity of description, episodes, poetical expressions, and formulæ. The term used by Russian students of folk-literature for the early epic songs is *byliny*, and the heroes of these songs are called *bogatyri*.* The word *bogatyř* occurs only in Russian and Polish, and was introduced among the Russians after the Tartar invasion, and was exclusively applied as a title to the Tartar 'duke.' The name of *bogatyř* was given to those who were endowed with the extraordinary physical strength used for carrying out great exploits. Accounts of such exploits of Russian athletes and warriors occur very often in Russian historical tales and chronicles, where the heroes are sometimes called by their purely native names.

The epic songs of the Russian people distinguish the 'elder' and the 'younger' races of the epic heroes, understanding by the latter name the heroes of the later historical time, the time of the Kiev Prince Vladimir. Except that they follow the march of history, the older

and younger heroes are not distinguished by tradition for any essential characteristics, though the former are described rather as superhuman beings in comparison with the latter, being endowed with titanic powers.

The most striking representative of the older generation of heroes is Svyatogor, the name being derived from 'Sviatyia Gory'—the 'Holy Mountains'—where he sojourns. He is of gigantic stature; he is 'taller than the standing forest, his head reaches to the fleeting clouds.' He is overladen and overcome by his own strength, which 'through his veins courses with right living force.' His extraordinary weight is intolerably heavy for the earth. When Svyatogor rides, 'damp mother earth reels, the dark forests shake, the streams overflow their steep banks.'

The miraculous qualities of Svyatogor appear prominently in the tales of his meeting with Ilya of Murom, who is represented in some ballads as the epic successor of the former giant. 'Ilya'—relates one story recorded by K. S. Aksalov—'not having found anyone equal to himself in strength, heard that there is one hero of matchless strength whom even the earth cannot support, and who on the whole earth has found only one hill able to bear him, and on it he lies. Ilya decided to measure his strength with him. He went to seek this hero, and found the hill, and on it was lying the hero, huge as the hill itself. Ilya strikes him a blow. "I must have caught a branch," says the hero. Ilya, exerting all his strength, repeats the blow. "Surely I struck a pebble," says the hero; turning round he caught sight of Ilya of Murom, and said to him: "Ah, 'tis you, Ilya of Murom! Strong you are among men, then be strong among them; but with me you cannot in any wise measure your strength. You see what a monster am I; even the earth cannot support me. I have found a hill, and on it I lie."'

* *Bogatyř* found its way into Russia through Mongolian sources, from Persian, where *bahadur* means 'strong, athletic.'

According to other *byliny*, Ilya met Svyatogor in the open field, and in terror before the giant he hid in an oak. There the wife of Svyatogor observed him, bade him come down and 'make love with her,' threatening, in the event of his disobeying, to awaken her husband and tell him that Ilya forced her to sin. 'There was nothing for Ilya to do: there was no persuading the woman, and there was no appeasing Svyatogor; so he came down from the damp oak, and did the deed he was ordered.' The wife of Svyatogor placed him in her husband's pocket. Svyatogor woke up, mounted his good steed, and set off to the Holy Mountains. On the way he discovered that the hero was in his pocket. He dragged him out, and asked him who he was, and how he came to be in his pocket. Ilya told him all the truth. Thereupon Svyatogor killed his wife, and swore an oath of friendship with Ilya, and called him his younger brother. They set out to go farther together, and came upon an immense coffin. On the coffin was written an inscription: 'Whosoever is destined to lie in the coffin, he shall enter it.' 'Ilya lay in it first, but the coffin turned out to be too long and too wide for him; Svyatogor lay down—the coffin fitted him. He took the lid himself, and closed his coffin. In vain did he strive then to raise the lid. It stuck to the coffin. Then said Svyatogor to Ilya: "Take my sword of steel and strike across the lid." But to lift the sword of Svyatogor was beyond Ilya's strength. Again Svyatogor called his younger brother, and said: "Bend down to the coffin, to the little chink; I will breathe on thee heroic breath." Ilya bent down, and Svyatogor breathed into him part of his strength, by the help of which Ilya lifted the huge sword of Svyatogor and began to strike the lid; but at every mighty blow there grew on the coffin iron hoops. Then Svyatogor, breathing his last in the

coffin, asked Ilya to stoop to the chink for the last time and inherit from him all his great strength; but Ilya refused, fearing that the earth would not be able to support him. This decision of Ilya was commended even by the departing hero: "Well hast thou done, my younger brother," he said, "that thou didst not obey my last command. I should have breathed on thee dead breath, and thou wouldst have lain dead beside me. And now farewell! Take for thyself my sword, but fasten to my coffin my good heroic steed. No man but I can hold this steed in hand." Then out of the chink passed his dying breath.'

In another version the end of Svyatogor is ascribed to his own strength, which is as 'onerous for him as a heavy burden.' The *bylina* relates that one day Svyatogor rode forth into the country to seek someone with whom to measure his strength. Not meeting anyone, he boasts that 'could he but find its equal in weight he would lift the whole earth.' And then he comes across 'a little wallet' which contains this weight. 'He takes his whip and pushes the wallet; it does not move. He tries to raise it with his finger, but it does not yield; he grasps it with his hand from on horseback, but it will not be lifted.' Astonished at such a miracle, 'Svyatogor jumped down from his good steed, seized the wallet with both hands, and raised it above his knees; and Svyatogor sunk into the earth up to his knees, and not tears, but blood, ran down his white face. Where Svyatogor was fixed, there he could not rise, and there was his end,' finishes the *bylina*.

Some adherents of the mythological school have seen in Svyatogor an ancient embodiment of 'the gigantic immovable clouds completely overspreading the heaven.' But such an interpretation was decidedly discredited by some other writers of the same school. Professor Buslayev brought down this image from

the clouds to the earth, and found in the stories of Svyatogor Russian beliefs in the mythic personalities representing the spirits of mountains. Later comparative investigations of Russian folk-lore resulted in a more well-grounded and likely suggestion that the type of the older hero was not an independent product of Russian national genius, but had passed to the Russian Slavs from a foreign epic, probably Byzantine. In fact, Svyatogor has no relation either to Russian history or even to Russian soil. 'He did not visit holy Russia,' says of him one of the *byliny*, and accordingly the older heroes are called sometimes 'a strange power.' In the accounts of some *byliny*, Svyatogor appears under the name of Sampson, and it is not difficult to see that the giant of the Russian tales is endowed with several attributes of the Biblical hero.

Different powers are attributed to another of the older heroes, Volh or Volga Vseslavich. This person is a werewolf—a prophetic being. His birth from a princess and a serpent is accompanied by miraculous signs throughout Nature :

'The damp earth trembled and the blue ocean raged on the birthday of brave Volh Vseslavich. Fishes went to the bottom of the seas, and birds flew high into the lofty skies. Boars and stags ran over the mountains. Rabbits and foxes hid themselves in the thick woods, and wolves and bears roamed in the pine-forests. Sables and martens occupied the islands.'

Volh grows up extraordinarily swiftly, and he soon learns all sorts of clever things. All Nature submits to his prophetic power. Turning into an animal, a fish, and a bird, he carries out skilful hunting, and by turning himself into an ant he prepares a success for his military operations.

Apart from the supernatural character of Volga, there are contained in his picture some features of actual Russian history.

His very name is associated with that of the ancient Russian Prince Oleg, who was known as a magician and sorcerer. The expedition of Volh, with his gallant retinue against the Golden Horde, reflects the epic reminiscences of the miraculous expedition of Prince Oleg to Tsargrad. Apart from the titanic character of Volh, the *byliny* represented him as a Prince, a relation of the Grand Prince of Kiev, Vladimir. He was distinguished from the usual heroes of Vladimir by his princely independence, and by his claim to have his own personal retinue. This position of Volh is illustrated in contrast to Mikula Selyaninovich, who appears as the representative of the peasant class. Volh is a conqueror like the early Princes of Russia, Igor and Svyatoslav, whose exploits are recorded by history.

Riding forth one day to the towns to receive his tribute, Volga heard in the fields a ploughman. He rode towards the sound, but not till the third day did he come to a wondrous ploughman moving with unusual swiftness over the boundless fields. After an exchange of greetings, Volga invited the ploughman to join his retinue. The ploughman drew from the plough his cream-coloured mare, and they rode on together. On the way the ploughman remembered that he had left his plough in the furrow, and he must draw it out and place it behind the bushes. Volga sent five of his retinue for the plough, then ten, and lastly all his retinue, but they could not lift the plough from its place. Then the ploughman himself rode to the plough, drew it out with one hand, and threw it behind the bushes.

Once more they mounted their horses and rode on. While the cream mare of the ploughman went at a trot, the heroic steed of Volga could scarce keep up with it at a gallop. Whenever the mare hastened its pace a little, the steed of Volga was left behind. Impressed by the

great strength of the ploughman, Volga called to him to stop and tell him his name. 'Instead of straightway answering his question as to his name,' explains Professor Buslayev, 'the wonderful ploughman described to his companion the peasant life of his own village, so as to give the Prince to understand that a common man is famous, not for the great names of his ancestors, but for his personal dignity, his personal honest labour, and his own kind treatment of his equals.' 'Spake the ploughman these words: "Ho, Volga, son of Svyatoslav! I store the rye, and I lay it in ricks. I take it home, and I thrash it at home. I take off the strips, and I brew beer from it, and I give the peasants a drink. The peasants will call me then the brave young Mikula Selyaninovich."' "

In the tales about Mikula Selyaninovich, the Russian people, as a chiefly agricultural nation, expressed symbolically their idea of land as the chief source of livelihood, and of agricultural toil as most necessary for a settled community. Mikula is a son of the village, representing village life and activity, and 'the damp mother earth herself loved him.' In the opinion of the agricultural people, the modest and enduring Mikula ranks above the cunning and clever warrior Volga, not only for his supreme physical strength, but also for his moral superiority, as the most useful worker for the whole community.

Stories of the older heroes have no intrinsic relation to the chief and completed store of Russian epic tradition relating to the city of Kiev at the time of its Prince Vladimir. The older heroes are described in faint fabulous outlines, and it is not always easy, without the risk of straining the facts, to define their actual relation to the history and psychology of the Russian people.

In the *byliny* of the Kiev Cycle the popular creative genius is inspired by the

sense of nationality, and the songs about the younger heroes become a vivid representation of the exploits and aspirations of the people, its manners and customs, the details of its daily social life.

Most of the younger heroes are associated with Prince Vladimir, who started his reign as a cruel heathen, and after his death received the title of saint for his introduction of Christianity and his zealous service to the cause of that religion in Russia. He was one of the most distinguished and most capable rulers among the ancient Russian Princes. The work of Vladimir was marked by a State instinct and knowledge of civic principles remarkable for that time. He extended considerably the possessions of his principality, and successfully repelled the raids of the nomads of the Steppe. To resist them he established new fortified towns at strategic points on the waterways towards Kiev, and he provided their garrisons from the settlers from the northern regions of the country. While maintaining the vigilant defence of Russia externally, Vladimir zealously encouraged the new religion and education among his people. He founded monasteries, built churches, and ordered the children of the well-to-do citizens to be taken and given to the priests for instruction.

The incessant struggle of Vladimir with the restless Steppe and the great religious change of his day ought to have been deeply impressed in the national mind. And, indeed, as one of his ancient biographers remarked, 'the Russian people held him in remembrance, commemorating the holy conversion.' Besides this, the personal character of Prince Vladimir, who is depicted in history and fable as a chivalrous, kind, and merciful man, was also able to inspire national admiration for him, and to make him a hero of romance.

The stories and songs of the time of

Vladimir formed the kernel round which grew the ensuing epic tradition, which constituted the so-called Kiev Cycle of *byliny*.

Most of the Kiev *byliny* describe the exploits and valour of the heroes, inspired by the idea of defending the Russian land against the wild tribes who incessantly raided the Russian plain. The struggle with these robbers of the Steppes exhausted Russia, undermining her moral and material strength. One of the Russian Princes of the twelfth century, Vladimir Monomah, has very picturesquely described the unfortunate life of the villagers of his time: 'A peasant would come out into the field with his horses to plough, and a Polovjets would arrive and strike the peasant with an arrow, and take his horse; then he would come to the village and take his wife, his children, and all his property, and even set the village on fire.' For defence against the inroads of the barbarians of the Steppes the Russians raised ramparts, built barrier towns, and set up frontier guards. The chief defensive outpost of the country against the Steppes was the city of Kiev. The strategic position of this town and its importance as the central export depot of Russian trade made it the political and economic centre of ancient Russia. Kiev achieved the national unity of the Russian Slavs, and here were established the first forms of the Russian State. After the introduction of Christianity Kiev became the religious capital of the Russian people, the holy places of which attract even to-day thousands of pious pilgrims from the most remote corners of Russia. The great national importance of the city of Kiev in the early history of the Russian people is expressed in the acknowledgment of Kiev as 'the mother of Russian cities.'

True to authentic history, which named Kiev as the centre of national interests, the epic tradition collected the Russian

heroes around the Prince of Kiev in his princely retinue. According to certain historical associations, Prince Vladimir was chosen as the representative of national unity and consciousness, and became the perpetual Prince of the Russian epic.

In conformity with the character of that epoch, the Russian heroic epic entrusted to the heroes as their chief task the defence of the Russian land from external foes. They spent their life for the most part either in expeditions or in keeping guard in the open country, so that 'neither horseman should ride, nor pedestrian walk, nor wild beast run, nor bird fly.' As soon as a black spot appeared in the fields—the first sign of an approaching raider—the *ataman* of the guard despatched a challenger to meet him, instructing him: 'If it be a Russian hero, make friends with him; but if a pagan hero, invite him to combat.'

The encounters of the Russian heroes with the foe are described in the *byliny* with all the subtlest details of the bloody mortal fray. Here is a picture of such a fight as depicted in the *byliny* of the Russian hero Diuk and the giant Shark, who 'made a broad road into holy Russia, levelling it with blazing fire and filling up the rivers and lakes with Christian folk.' Attacking Diuk, the giant Shark drew out his sword of steel, brandishing it with a whiz, and struck with it the sword of Diuk Stepanovitch. 'Once they clashed their swords—sparks flew. A second time—a groan went forth. Both heavy swords of steel were broken into pieces and disappeared from sight. Then Shark, the giant, was exceeding wrath. Straining his mighty arms, he struck Diuk in the white breast so that his bones cracked. Heavily sighed Diuk Stepanovich. Then they mingled their arms and pressed against each other with their knees. Hot blood ran in streams from deep wounds. Their strength was spent. At this

moment Diuk Stepanovich remembered his spare sword, which was heavier than the first. He drew it forth and cut off the unhappy head of Shark.'

Of all the enemies of the Steppe with whom Russia carried on a stubborn and hazardous struggle, the Tartar hordes left after them the most memorable impression in the epic history of the Russian people. The hated name 'pagan Tartar' is often applied in the *byliny* even to other nationalities, such as the Lithuanians, who pressed on Russia from the west. The Tartars approached the Russian towns in countless force. 'In the steam of the horses by day the red sun was not visible, nor by night the bright moon. Round them the grey hare would not be able to gallop, nor the bright falcon fly.' The vigilance, valour, and courage of the heroes of Prince Vladimir had to resist the destruction and ruin of the Russian land by these armies. Standing on guard, the heroes eagerly watched that 'the Tartar should not ride into holy Russia, and should not slay the holy Russian peasants.'

The most expressive and characteristic picture of a younger hero, his outlook, exploits, and relations with the Prince and the country, is shown by Ilya of Murom, a favourite hero of the Russian epic, the representative of the better and worthier ideals of that troublous and bloody age. The creative imagination of the Russian people made Ilya the soul of the Russian heroes, and concentrated in him all its sympathy, endowing this peasant's son with kindness, grace, mercy, and pity, combined with unconquerable strength and valour. 'There is one sun in heaven, one moon, one hero in holy Russia, Ilya of Murom, the son of Ivan;' so runs the national opinion of him. The *byliny* spread the glory of 'old' Ilya in 'all lands, in all hordes, in all foreign distant countries.' In distinction to all other Russian heroes, Ilya of Murom

appears in the imagination of the people as an old man, sometimes grey-haired, enjoying a moral authority among his younger beardless companions.

Concerning Ilya there has been preserved a great number of songs, the contents of which give the following chief episodes of his heroic biography:

The childhood and early youth of the Russian hero were clouded over with great sickness. For fully thirty years Ilya had no command over his legs nor his arms. One day, while his parents were in the fields, he was visited by miraculous strangers, who placed Ilya on his feet and endowed him with tremendous strength by giving him some drink. They warned Ilya not to fight with certain heroes, and, on the other hand, the mysterious guests promised him that otherwise 'death in battle is not his destiny.' These words made a deep impression on the mind of the hero, and he often repeated them to himself in the different events of his heroic life.

After the departure of the strangers Ilya went to work at clearing the fields for ploughing. He found there his father and his workmen asleep. Ilya took an axe and began to clear the meadows, dragging up the trees by their roots, and 'they all did not clear in three days so much as he cleared in one hour.' The father of Ilya, on waking up and seeing what had been done, was astonished, and could not believe that this work was done by the cripple Ilya.

Soon afterwards Ilya decided to leave his native village and start for heroic exploits. Incredulous as to his strength, his father did not wish to let him go from home, and in order to prove his might Ilya went to the River Oka, leaned his shoulders against a mountain and raised it from the steep bank, and stopped the Oka so that its current was changed. The father gave Ilya his parental blessing, ordering his son not

to 'bring evil against the Tartar nor to kill a Christian in the open field.' According to some variants, Ilya himself took an oath 'not to shed blood on his way.'

Having received his father's blessing, Ilya departed so swiftly that 'they saw when he mounted his horse, but did not see in what direction he went.' The good steed of Ilya leaped over rivers and lakes, and passed over the dark forests. Now the exploits of Ilya begin, and some stories bring him first into contact with the older hero Svyatogor, who made Ilya the heir to his sword. A description of this meeting of Ilya with 'his older brother' was made by me above, and I proceed now to describe the journey of Ilya to Kiev, whither he went to serve the Prince Vladimir. On the way to the gay capital of the principality of Kiev, Ilya met in the forest the robber Nightingale, who was sitting on seven oaks and occupied seven versts of land. He blocked the road so that 'neither by foot nor on horse could anyone pass, nor could beasts run through, nor the birds fly over.' As soon as Ilya approached him the robber began 'to bellow like a bull, to whistle like a nightingale, to howl like a dog, to hiss like a serpent, to clap his hands like a hero.'

The fantastic picture of this monster represents the type of a forest robber living in a guard-post on an oak and watching passers-by. The frequent references to robbers in the *byliny* serve as a vivid illustration to the chroniclers' stories of the misfortunes inflicted on the country by robber bands. 'Before the time of Prince John, the Kalita [fourteenth century], who freed the great principality from robbers, our fatherland,' says Karamzin, 'resembled rather a dark forest than a State. Might seemed to be right, and everyone stole who could. There was safety neither on the roads nor at home. Robbery became a

general curse to property.' The extirpation of the robber bands was one of the most important services of the heroes who were allotted by the *byliny* the task of 'riding through Russia and making defences.' Having met the robber, Ilya of Murom not only conquered him, but destroyed all his nest of robbers, and cleared the roads from violence,

Ilya kept Nightingale alive, and with his booty hastened again to Kiev, but on the road an encounter with a new foe awaited him. Some variants call this foe one of the same robbers, and others give a description of one of the Russian towns surrounded by an innumerable force of enemies. The conduct of Ilya in both these cases shows in him a calm courage and generosity towards his foes. Conscious of his unconquerable strength, Ilya, on meeting with the robbers, confines himself exclusively to a threat. 'He takes his old stout, sturdy bow; he lets fly a strong arrow into a damp, stout oak; he rent the oak asunder into four parts. At this the robbers were frightened and scattered over the open country.' When they recovered themselves they offered Ilya great booty, but he declined, saying: 'If he had to take a golden treasure, they would dig deep pits behind him; if he had to take fair garments, there would be lofty hills behind him; if he had to take good steeds, great herds would follow after him.' He also declined their request to become their *ataman* and to make them his permanent serfs. 'I am not anxious to feed your sheep,' said he to them biting, and went on farther.

Another episode of his heroic activity is concerned with the deliverance of the town of Chernigov from the Tartars, who had besieged it. The picture of the unfortunate town doomed to inevitable ruin touched the 'excitable and emotional heart of the hero.' 'Although Ilya did not wish to oppose his father, and to

know that he violated his commandments,' yet the unsophisticated logic of his simple mind suggested to him that he ought not, using the expression of Prince Monomah, 'to allow the strong to violate a man.' Arguing that 'every man takes an oath, but not every man fulfils it,' Ilya defeated all the army of the Tartars, excluding the Tartar Princes, whom he sent back home, telling them: 'Depart to your own countries, and make it known everywhere that holy Russia is not empty; in holy Russia there are strong and mighty heroes.' Impressed by Ilya's victory, the people of Chernigov began to beseech him to become governor in their town; but he refused, for he understood his vocation otherwise. 'God forbid that a hero should become a governor,' said he to the men of Chernigov. Power and wealth were not to his liking. The duty of a hero imperatively drew him to Kiev to Prince Vladimir, 'to stay and abide.'

Almost at every step on the way to Kiev, Ilya met numerous obstacles, now delivering besieged towns, now destroying robber strongholds, now clearing the earth of forests, now making bridges and laying roads. Every detail of the activity of Ilya concerns some important aspects of ancient Russian life. Reading in the light of historical evidence the stories of the *byliny*, how the hero 'guides his horse with his left hand, and with his right tears up tree-trunks and makes bridges,' the student of ancient Russian culture can form a vivid picture of the miserable state of Russian roads. There were no bridges over the rivers, nor were there ferries, and it was necessary to ford the rivers over the sandbanks. Unpassable mud and mire in the summer stopped all commerce. Even contemporary Russia, so far as the state of ways of communication is concerned, very often recalls to the traveller the epic description of the roads centuries ago.

Since a discussion of the relations of the *byliny* with the details of Russian life would require too much space, we confine ourselves to a general statement of the value of the *byliny* for sociological and historical studies, and we will follow Ilya of Murom to the Court of Prince Vladimir, where he at last arrived with a great record of civil and military exploits. The tales of Ilya concerning his achievements appeared to the Prince incredible, and, in order to show their authenticity, Ilya ordered the captive robber to whistle like a nightingale, to roar like a beast. At his roaring and whistling all in Kiev fell to the ground, and the Prince himself crawled on all fours. In spite of the lesson given him by Ilya, Vladimir invited him to live in Kiev, and the peasant hero entered the retinue of the Prince, where he occupied the leading place, thanks to his physical strength and moral influence.

Ilya neglected his hereditary plough, and took on himself the historical duty of serving his native land on the summons of the Prince, whom tradition has selected as the early representative of the national unity of the Russian people. From this time Ilya sometimes fought with terrible giants who appeared among the inhabitants of Russia, sometimes defended the Russian cities from the raids of wild tribes, and sometimes took duties as guard on the frontier strongholds. The national tradition expanded the exploits of its beloved hero to cover whole centuries, and gave him a share in comparatively late historical events. In the seventeenth century—in the age of troubles which brought the Cossacks on to the scene—Ilya of Murom became a 'brave old Cossack,' and, to complete the national ideal incarnated in the person of Ilya, tradition numbered him among the band of saints, making him a martyr-hero.

Various scientific schools in treating

Russian folk-lore have given each their own interpretation of Ilya. The comparative mythologists traced in him the ancient idea of the 'god of thunder.' The historical school, relying on the evidence of the chronicles, treated Ilya as the prototype of the uncle of Prince Vladimir, and in the epic stories of Ilya discovered the historical deeds of the famous waywode Dobrynia. The peasant origin of Ilya is considered by the students of the historical school as comparatively recent. The adherents to the theory of migration traced in the tales of Ilya much in common with tales which appear in other national epics. Some episodes—as, for example, the motive of conferring strength through miraculous drink—were introduced, in the opinion of V. S. Miller, into the Russian poem from folk-tales, and were applied to the name of the national hero rather late, perhaps not earlier than the seventeenth century. Other scholars have traced the same motive in Christian legends and in several Scandinavian sagas.

The share of written and oral tales of foreign origin in the composition of the Russian *byliny* is beyond doubt. They do not afford exceptions from the conclusion to which A. Veselovsky came, as the result of his thorough comparative studies of Russian folk-lore, that the

'national epic of every historical people is inevitably international.' The Russian *byliny* in the form that we know them to-day, were obviously derived from various elements, and in the course of many centuries. But it is also beyond doubt that the *byliny* introduced into their treatment of foreign 'migratory' subjects their epic and social details, and embellished the narrative with Russian national colour—made it, in fact, national. 'The Russian epic skeleton, being identical with that of other nations'—to quote the words of Orest Miller—'was clothed, so to speak, in Russia by a living body as peculiar as that we find in the epics of other historical nations. This living body is formed by such a conglomeration of features as does not appear in any other epic.' Accordingly, in the hands of a cautious investigator of Russian folk-lore, Russian traditional songs, in spite of their tangle of contradictions and anachronisms, can produce a great wealth of evidence as to the past history and the general trend of the psychology of the Russian nation. And 'the special value'—to conclude by quoting Goethe—'of what we call national songs and ballads is that their inspiration comes fresh from Nature; they are never got up, they flow from a sure spring.'

M. V. TROFIMOV.

LIVERPOOL.

ANNUAL MEETING—*Continued.*

On January 8 the subject for discussion was THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR, with special reference to the questions—(1) How far is the systematic teaching of grammar necessary in Modern Languages? (2) How far is the immediate correction of grammatical errors necessary?

Professor E. A. SONNENSCHN, University of Birmingham, read the following paper:

TEACHING OF GRAMMAR IN MODERN LANGUAGE WORK.

I desire to divide my remarks to-day into two parts:

1. The utility of grammar teaching in Modern Language work.

2. Improvements in the actual matter to be taught under the heading of grammar.

1. I believe that the general consensus of opinion among modern language teachers is pointing to what I may call the common-sense conclusion in regard to the value and scope of grammar teaching. It used to be said that, while grammar was necessary in the teaching of ancient languages, because the whole teaching must necessarily be based upon grammar, in modern language teaching grammar was a luxury. I believe, however, that

this view has generally been seen to be an exaggeration, especially since it has been found out that the old-fashioned method of teaching the ancient languages on an exclusively grammatical basis is itself a mistake. On the other hand, experience has shown that, if systematic grammar teaching is entirely ignored in modern language work, vagueness and slovenliness is the result. It seems to me that the use of grammar can be very simply defined as a means of bringing together, and impressing upon the memory, the isolated experiences which the pupil necessarily makes in coming into contact with a new language. To leave them to group themselves in the mind, and fall of their own accord into an orderly system of thought, is to throw away a weapon that lies ready to our hands, and to demand far too much of the immature minds of pupils. I am thinking here especially of those summaries of grammatical forms which we call paradigms—declensions, conjugations, and so forth. What a great help it is to have the forms of nouns and verbs, and their chief meanings, reduced to a simple table for purposes of memorizing! Of course, it does not follow that the pupil must go about saying 'der Bruder, den Bruder, des Bruders, dem Bruder,' like the unhappy lady in Mr. St. John Hankin's play; nor is it necessary that such tables should be learnt by heart before the pupil begins reading. On the contrary, the summarizing process and the making of new experiences should go on *pari passu*. When we come to syntax, as it is called, though in reality a great deal of syntax is involved in what is called 'accidence,'—in syntax proper, I say—*i.e.*, in the study of uses apart from forms—grammar has to perform a further function. It not only summarizes experiences, but if it is worth its salt it helps to make them understood. The *understanding* of constructions is by no

means always a simple matter; indeed, grammarians differ widely in regard to the way in which certain facts of syntax are to be regarded. As one who has worried his head over such questions for the greater part of his life, I may be permitted to say that I regard the questions that lie behind the rules of syntax, and which are really involved in any attempt to improve upon the rules, as very far from easy. Well, it is the grammarian's function to smooth the path of the learner by presenting the facts to him in a way which is at once scientific and simple, and which will serve him in good stead when the time comes for him to face some difficulty which is forced upon him in the course of his reading, or in the process of writing a foreign language.

No doubt the pupil has to learn that in a sense all grammarians are liars—*i.e.*, that no rules of grammar are absolute; for the facts have been necessarily simplified, and some things have been deliberately left out of view in framing the rule; but still, if the rule is well framed, cases which lie on its fringe, or outside of its borders, receive some light from the rule to which they are exceptions.

Another point that the pupil, and still more the teacher, should bear in mind is that grammatical rules are not all of equal importance. It is, indeed, ludicrous that points of minimal importance should be insisted on at a stage when the pupil has still to face the great and fundamental difficulties of the language. The teacher must cultivate a sense of proportion, and this is one of his first duties. He must always bear in mind that the grammar that is needed for reading a language is less than that that is required for writing it.

2. In regard to the actual contents of the grammar book, I hold that a great deal has to be done in the way of improvement; and here I desire to speak in

particular of English grammar. I have often heard it said that progress in English grammar has depended largely in its emancipation from the thralldom of Latin grammar; and many students of English, jealous for the honour of their subject, have resented the supposed domination of Latin as an insult to their chosen study. Take, for example, the following passage in William Cobbett's *English Grammar*:

'Why should we perplex ourselves with a multitude of artificial distinctions which cannot be of any use in practice? These distinctions have been introduced from this cause: those who have written English grammars have been taught Latin; and, either unable to divest themselves of their Latin rules or unwilling to treat with simplicity that which, if made something of a mystery, would make the writers appear more learned, they have endeavoured to make our simple language turn and twist itself so as to become as complex in its principles as Latin is.'

And it was in the same spirit that Mr. Nesfield, in his remarks on the work of the Terminology Committee, spoke of the 'difficulty of making pupils understand the applicability of Latin cases to English nouns.' The late Professor Skeat's hostility to the Joint Committee was based on the same mistaken zeal for the honour of English grammar.

Now, during the last year I have had occasion to look into the history of English grammars, and to make some little study of the various writers on the subject from the time of the first English grammarian, Greenwood (1594), down to the present day; and what was my surprise to discover that the supposed domination of Latin grammar over English grammar in the early writers is, as a matter of fact, purely imaginary! I desire to speak with caution; for I am aware that there has recently been a slump in the market value of professorial utterances. But

still I am prepared to deny emphatically that progress in English grammar has actually been due to its gradual emancipation from Latin grammar. So far is this from being the case that in the earliest writer, Greenwood, the English language is exhibited as something wholly different from the Latin language, and having no sort of relation to it. The writer is so much impressed by the differences of *form* between English and Latin (I say 'Latin' because his *English Grammar* is written in Latin) that he fails to see the most obvious affinities; for example, it is clear to everyone to-day that English nouns have a genitive, or possessive, case, which corresponds for the most part in use to the genitive case of other languages. Greenwood, however, has not noticed this, and, indeed, ignores altogether the existence of any cases of nouns in English. The nearest thing that he sees to a case is a phrase formed with a preposition: *of a master* as the equivalent of *magistri*.

Let us now see how this question was treated by subsequent grammarians. Ben Jonson makes a beginning by recognizing two cases of nouns (*absolute* and *genitive*). In the eighteenth century Dr. Johnson (1755) speaks in hesitating tones about one case, but under syntax incontinently gives the rule that 'All prepositions require an "oblique" case.' Joseph Priestley (1762), who also protests against the evil influence of Latin, has two cases, like Ben Jonson, which he calls the *nominative* and the *genitive*. Bishop Lowth (same date) speaks of 'two cases of nouns differing in form,' and is discreetly silent about any others in the body of his book; in the appendix he silently lets an 'objective case' slip in.

It is not till we come to Lindley Murray (end of eighteenth century) that we find for the first time an objective case of nouns explicitly recognized. In an interesting passage the writer explains

how in spite of himself he has been driven to the recognition of an objective case, because he found that if it were not recognized some nouns would have to be declared to be in no case at all; *e.g.*, in a sentence like 'Take off your hat,' 'hat' cannot be called nominative case, because the term 'nominative case' suggests a syntactical usage which is quite different. So Lindley Murray is driven to recognize three cases of nouns—a nominative, a possessive, and an objective. And this represents the situation of most writers at the present day. But some have seen that by a similar process of argument one must also recognize a dative case, though it does not differ in form from the objective, any more than the objective differs in form from the nominative. This view was very clearly expressed by Wundt and by Dr. Max Förster at the Neuphilologentag in 1913. This is also the view adopted by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology, and I believe it is an important step in advance. We see, therefore, that English Grammar, so far from starting with the six cases of Latin, and gradually reducing the number, has actually proceeded from the total absence of cases in Greenwood to admitting first two, then three, and now four, cases of nouns, which of course are identical with the four cases of German. Of course, to justify this procedure one must have in one's mind a clear and satisfactory definition of the term 'case'—*viz.*, 'A case of a noun or pronoun is a form used in a particular way in the structure of a sentence'—a definition which I may add is the only one really applicable to Latin or to Greek (*cf.* *homo, homines*—both nominatives in virtue of their use, though they are entirely different in form). The older writers were obsessed by the false assumption that the term 'case' could be defined as a difference of inflexion—a 'change of termination' as Dr. Johnson says. And this blunder led them into

the fatal mistake of trying to base English grammar upon the mere outward form of words instead of upon their function in the sentence—to base it upon the mere accidents of inflexion or absence of inflexion.

Progress in English grammar has depended, not upon emancipation from Latin grammar, but upon the recognition of English as a member of the great Indo-European family of languages, and as sharing many of its features with the other members of that family, including Latin. Improvements have been made all over the field of English grammar by the gradual approach to this point of view—*e.g.*, in the matter of tenses. The passage which I quoted from Cobbett above related to the perversity of those writers who thought that English could have more than three tenses—a past, a present, and a future. This was part of Cobbett's apriorism, and he was quite wrong, because he had no proper definition of the term 'tense'—did not know that a tense of any language involves something more than the idea of time.

Now it is obvious that this new point of view in regard to the relation of English to other languages was impossible before the nineteenth century—in other words, before the discovery of the existence of an Indo-European family of languages by philologists like Sir William Jones and Bopp. Men like Greenwood, Lindley Murray, and even Cobbett, who wrote in the early part of the nineteenth century, had no conception of such a thing. But until quite recent times we were far from having drawn the full conclusions of this discovery. Before grammar teaching can be made thoroughly fruitful, all the grammar taught in a school must be permeated by the same principles as have led to the reform of English grammar. In other words, all the languages taught must be treated in their scientific connexion as members of

a single family of languages. That it is possible to reconcile this principle with the practical possibilities of school work has been shown by the work of the Joint Committee, and by that of the American Committee, whose report has been recently issued. On the basis of science it has been found possible to erect a system by which not only the unification, but also the simplification, of the teaching of grammar and grammars can be effected in our schools.

Mr. G. H. CLARKE, Head-Master of Acton County School, also read a paper as follows:

ON THE TEACHING OF GRAMMAR.

The answer to the first of the two questions before the meeting, 'How far is the systematic teaching of grammar necessary?' depends itself on the answer to the question, 'What is meant by grammar?' In other words, it is a question of the point of view. Years ago it was considered the hall-mark of a young Greek scholar to know, for instance, the almost unused future of *βλώσσω*. Recently a modern language master wrote to me for an explanation of a French sentence which had floored him. From the form of his inquiry it was evident that he knew no difference between province with an *i* and *Provence* with an *e*. Obviously, the amount of grammar that our young Greek scholar had to learn would have more than satisfied the requirements of the French teacher.

I have purposely instanced and 'with-out prejudice' a question in accident and a question in vocabulary, because I cannot understand grammar divorced from syntax, nor either considered apart from the language involved. A writer in an educational paper was lately discussing accuracy and the Direct Method. He offers as a possible enormity the mistake, 'Il avait fait des grandes fautes,' clearly thinking that such a use of 'des' could

never have been made by a Frenchman. I pick up a book by a scholar who notes what Frenchmen say and write, and find that he comments on the frequency with which 'de + article' is used before 'an adjective + noun.' His point of view differs from that of the writer just quoted.

In the same article a German grammar by Schelle is recommended, a fairly bulky book mainly devoted to classification and accident. A teacher who believed in such a grammar as that by Sütterlin would never admit that the point of view of Schelle was the right one, and *vice versa*. The former prefers the spirit of the language, the latter the letter. It seems hard to find a common basis. Accident is ranked by some before language, details come before principles. The following examples from a revised edition of a book which has already gone through many editions are illustrations of a teaching of grammar that can never be necessary:

If is classed as a co-ordinative conjunction: '*If* you go, I will stay.'

We are not to say, 'I have lent him a quantity of books,' but, 'I have lent him a number of books.'

Not, 'I joked him about his shabby hat,' but, 'I joked at him about his shabby hat.'

Not, 'I insist on you doing this,' but, 'I insist on your doing this.'

So that we should have to say: The result depends on something's turning up.

We must be wise with sobriety. For it is on account of such follies as these that lovers of language, who press the study of linguistic details, are accused of wasting time on attempts to revivify a corpse. Their accusers wish to kill grammar, so they proceed to sell its skin. One fails to see why that co-operation of reason and tradition known as language should be less scientifically

studied by the learner than chemistry or even geography. Again, what is grammar? It is no crime for the Philistine to talk about the battle of the 'Aisney,' the bombardment of the cloth-hall of 'Wypers,' a fight between a French aeroplane and a 'To-bé,' or even about a Maráthon race. It is a crime for an educated person, professing to speak a language, to say, 'J'ai allé l'autre jour à France,' and, 'Ich wollte kommen, wann ich hatte gehabt Zeit genug.'

Members may find the following letters from an apparently educated Frenchman interesting. The speech of the writer would never have revealed his weakness in composition. Would they satisfy the feelings of a follower of ordinary spelling or even of reformers of spelling? If language is only to be learnt on such lines, the study of it must be ruled out of scientific pursuits.

(1)

. . . Deux mots a la hate pour vous faire savoir que nous sommes arrivé a palace sans incident mais nous y resteront pas longtemps car les malades sont tous Flaments, et ne causent pas cette langue on ne voit pas notre utilité, est l'on va nous placer dans une villa avec d'autre refusier, mais nous ne savant pas notre nouvelle adresse, nous devons partir au plus tard jeudi matin. Aussitot arriver, nous vous enveirons notre adresse. Nous espéront que vous vous porter tous bien. . . .

(2)

. . . Vous nous escuserait si nous avons tarder a vous donner de nos nouvelles. Nous sommes depuis 8 jours a — Toujours avec des belges mais nous sommes a peu près fixer pour notre retour en France. . . . Nous espéront que vous vous porter tous bien et nous seriont tres heureux d'avoir de vos nouvelles. Je vous demanderait d'être assez bon de m'envoyer les effets que vous en êtes pössesseur. . . .

In the first half of the eighteenth century there lived a celebrated blue-stocking, Mrs. Elizabeth Carter, who after years of plodding became one of the best Greek scholars of the day, and mastered Latin, French, Italian, German,

besides knowing something of Hebrew, Portuguese, and Arabic. She spoke of Latin and Greek grammar with—as a biographer states—some degree of unmerited contempt. She understood grammar as a science, he adds, but not as taught in schools. Yet she had a cultivated eye for grammatical errors, and a fault that she had detected in a line of Homer kept her awake at night. In an argument over the translation of two verses of Corinthians with Archbishop Secker she gained the day. She regarded knowledge of grammar as a consequence of knowing language, and her Greek grammar satisfied Dr. Johnson. Now, was she a grammarian? This account of Mrs. Elizabeth Carter sums up the position. We differ among ourselves as to what grammar is, and we are not agreed whether we ought to teach what we do not define. If we decided what grammar were, we could perhaps settle whether it is necessary to teach it. But we need not go back to 1750 to illustrate points of view; there is a practical side to the discussion. We have lately, unfortunately, had opportunities of speaking French with refugees. More French has been spoken in England this winter than for many centuries. Much of it has been clear, fluent, and sufficiently correct. We can class the rest under two heads: (1) a means of communication—*i.e.*, purely utilitarian; (2) a literary instrument, a possession worthy of acquisition, imperfectly acquired.

If we have a low standard of expectation, we shall say that class (1) needed no improvement. Indeed, from one point of view it is invaluable. The good that a lady, who had been brought up in Flanders, was able to do in some Flemish refugee homes was marvellous. No one else of the hosts could speak a Flemish word to the inmates. But I take it that we are discussing language from a lite-

rary standpoint. It is not enough for our present purpose that what we utter is sufficiently correct for mutual understanding. We are rather looking on language as a science to be treated lovingly—even as Lawrence Sterne's poor mourner at Namport loved his ass.

Few here would be satisfied with the style of a speaker who used verbs always in the past historic tense, and then only in the second person singular, irrespective of the number and person of the subject. This I have heard done. *Punch* had a delightful account of a lady who, when talking to refugees, 'was amazingly fluent in a crisis, though her constructions would not bear thinking of.' Now, such people have 'done' a good deal of the foreign language. They can read it and perhaps understand the spoken language, but is what they speak of any linguistic value? Is not their literary knowledge on a level with the medical attainments of a quack selling pills at a fair? Is it worth while, from a scientific outlook, to have stopped so far short of real mastery of the subject?

I am not aiming at any method of teaching; I merely wish to show that many people arrive at a certain point, display a slipshod fluency, and fail in the matter of grammar in its best sense.

But I must apologize for having begged the question and assumed that no one would approve of a conversation in which all verbs appeared in the second person singular of a certain tense and in no other form. For the people who were heard speaking thus strangely had been taught on approved methods, some had been abroad and were by no means unintellectual. They must have been the product of a teaching that did not trouble about clear thinking and clear speaking. To their original masters I wish I could point out the blunders of their pupils, and exclaim: 'These be thy

gods, O Israel!' I would urge that grammar does not always seem to learn itself, and consequently requires teaching. Is such a sentence as 'Maintenant j'alle à la chef du gare' any pleasure to hear or of intellectual value to the speaker?

If Mrs. Elizabeth Carter was right, that knowledge of grammar is a consequence of knowing language, it may be suggested that, conversely, language cannot be known apart from an acquaintance with grammar. I might even hint that, as unsystematic teaching is unsound, some system is desirable by which grammar should be taught. It is sad to hear from refugees that they regret their slight knowledge of English, because shop-girls giggle at their blunders. This is not a high moral argument in favour of the necessity of teaching grammar, but it shows how accuracy in speech saves one's feelings. It is mortifying to think that laughing at a foreigner's mistakes is common in England. How rare it is in cultured countries!

I have tried to prove that correct speaking is an asset that many people do not possess: we are not all Mrs. Elizabeth Carters! Though the possibility of acquiring fair accuracy varies with the individual, most of us can be trained to speak with some degree of it. If learners are allowed to continue repeating errors, they will learn accuracy slowly. But perpetual corrections wear out the temper. Mathematical accuracy in language is hardly to be expected of a foreigner.

My conclusion is, then, that reasonably correct speaking of a foreign language, though attainable, is often not attained for want of the command of facts of language. Students are in the position of people working at sums without a knowledge of multiplication tables. Will not systematic teaching help both linguist and arithmetician?

Mr. F. B. KIRKMAN gave an account of some interesting records he had made on making mistakes, and hoped others would take up the matter, so as to get more data as to how mistakes arose and the best ways of avoiding them. To give mistakes a chance, their correction must be accompanied by interest and should be done at once. His advice was: Follow out a mistake, and try to prevent mistakes being made. No answer could be given to the question, How far was the teaching of systematic grammar necessary? because no one yet could say what points occurred oftenest or were of the greatest importance.

Mr. J. E. MANSION (Merchant Taylors') said:

I shall limit my share in this discussion to the question of teaching modern *foreign* languages, and take my illustrations chiefly from French.

We must, in the first place, make clear what we include within the term 'grammar.' Thus we have, on the one hand, *la grammaire française* as we find it expounded by Noël et Chapsal, and, on the other, 'French Grammar' as it is taught in this country, and involving a very large amount of comparative grammar—an exposition of facts which have no place in the French textbooks.

Or, again, we may classify the study of grammar as follows: (1) The acquisition of paradigms, or morphology; (2) syntax of word-order; (3) syntax of dependence; (4) syntax of the concords.

The question before us is, How much of this wide field of grammar can be learnt intuitively, and how much requires to be inculcated by rule and direct example, and consciously drilled into the pupil?

Long years of teaching have left me in considerable doubt whether the *comparative* grammar of any two languages can be learnt intuitively, or unconsciously absorbed. The difficulty of moving unconsciously out of an acquired groove or process of thought is very great, and I could instance a German lady of good education and cultured mind who acquaints us of her long residence in this country in the words: 'I am already twenty-five years here.' To eradicate these blunders much close drill, largely based on a comparison of the two idioms—that is to say, on translation and retranslation—seems to me almost a necessity.

Coming to the other classification suggested:

Paradigms, I think, can and should be taught intuitively, from much reading and talking, with only occasional synthesis of acquired forms 'pour mettre les choses au point.' Word forms are easily 'soaked in'; if the study of French or German irregular verbs, for instance, is preceded

by a good deal of reading and of miscellaneous collating of forms, a very small amount of 'verb-grind' is required to insure that they shall be adequately known.

Syntax of word-order: This, among French-born children, early becomes intuitive, and our own pupils *must*, at any cost, practise it until it becomes intuitive with them also. Here spontaneity and reflection are, of course, contradictory terms. We may systematize the knowledge of a class by teaching rules for the position of pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, etc., but the mere knowledge of a rule avails nothing; by oral practice, memorizing of well-chosen passages, we must reach the point when the words naturally and spontaneously group themselves in the right order, as they do in the mind and on the tongue of the native of France or Germany.

As for the syntax of dependence and the syntax of the concords, the question is a very different one, and our attitude should differ in the same degree. Here the *conscious application of rules* avails much. With regard to French, at any rate, we must realize that much of its syntax is studied *consciously*, and studied *strenuously*, by the French themselves before it is so thoroughly mastered that the boy of average intelligence may take his place in the world as an educated man. You remember the words of le Commandant Mathieu to Monsieur Perrichon: 'La langue française est une dame de bonne maison, élégante, mais un peu cruelle.' Only those who are *de bonne maison*, and masters of elegance, may meet her on equal terms.

Hence it comes that, ever since the days of Vaugelas and Port-Royal, French grammar has been much studied in France, and indeed over-studied, with a minuteness and an amount of hair-splitting which was bound to lead to the latter-day reaction.

Proof of this reaction is afforded by such *entrefilets* as the following, taken from the *Figaro* of 1912: 'Un lecteur nous demande quelle différence il y a entre continuer à et continuer de. En vérité, il n'y en a aucune. Des grammairiens très subtils en trouvent une, mais très petite, si petite qu'on ne la voit pas.' Such a curt dismissal of the subject is interesting, for as late as the eighties the *Figaro* would have raised a fortnight's heated controversy by mooted such a point. The reaction against the study of these 'chinoiseries,' however, went so far within the last generation that it has brought about too great a neglect of the mother tongue and an acknowledged 'crise du français,' as all of us know who read French educational papers. 'Nos élèves ne savent plus écrire' is the constant wail of the examiners at the baccalauréat, and there

is ample evidence of the fact in contemporary literature.

Grammatical accuracy, correctness and elegance in speech and writing, are not often inborn; they are the result of a *conscious* striving; of a close watch which we keep not only on the matter, but on the *form* of our utterances; of a *habit of mind* that must be acquired—acquired through a stern discipline, and acquired early. It may not be a mere coincidence that the 'crise du français' has only become acute since the abolition of the *thème latin* as one of the tests at the licence, and I would go so far as to suggest that many people, who in after-life forget nearly all the Latin and Greek that they ever knew, retain the habit of grammatical self-discipline which they acquired through these languages in the past.

Now, if there is any soundness in these views, it follows that we must study grammar in our Modern Language classes, not casually, but as we study a proposition in Euclid, with a full exercise of the powers of reasoning of our pupils, and of their powers of deduction. For, once again, that is how the *French* boy has to study his grammar. If our aim is not entirely utilitarian, then we must teach grammar and make it a discipline.

Little time remains to discuss the necessity or otherwise for immediate correction of grammatical blunders. If grammar is to be a discipline in itself, then the presumption is that no blunder should ever escape uncorrected. Yet this is one of the most difficult questions which the teacher has to deal with. The ideal is that the pupil should make no blunders, or hardly any. M. Hovelaque insists on the point that the teaching must be so shaped that the pupil cannot, and shall not, make a mistake. But then M. Hovelaque is an inspector, and it would be interesting to know whether at any time he has been able to add the example to the precept. It is probable, however, that when a pupil of average ability sinks into that quagmire of mistakes and 'slips' which reduces full correction of his blunders to a hopeless task, it is because we have allowed him too early to venture on the treacherous ground of composition, free or otherwise.

Mr. L. VON GLEHN (Perse School) thanked Professor Sonnenschein for saying that we might simplify grammar, and Mr. Mansion for pointing out the importance of the correlation of tenses. He thought the main difference between 'French Grammar' and 'Grammaire Française' was that

one was practical and the other scientific. The former should be used in England. In teaching grammar the important thing was to breed correct habits, which were not necessarily all intuitive, but were trained with the conscious help of the pupil, who should realize what he is doing. Such were habits of observing gender and number, because they did not occur in English. He joined issue with Mr. Mansion as to the value of translation. Practice was more important, and was even necessary with translation. Translation might supervene, but not intervene. He always gave an excessive amount of practice in the early stages without translation. At the age of twelve or thereabouts there was a danger, because then the reasoning powers began to be exercised, and mistakes such as *ils ses mouchent* and *ets* for *ces* were more frequent. Practice was especially necessary when the inflections were not heard, and for that the best exercise was dictation, which should be corrected at once, and even sentence by sentence. He suggested home dictation from a phonetic text. Interest could be aroused by making the pupil correct his own mistakes, the teacher merely indicating in the margin, by some convenient abbreviation, the kind of mistake made. Accuracy in the Direct Method meant accuracy in what was heard. It was certain that scholarly accuracy can be trained by modern language teaching if properly conducted.

Mr. WALTER RIPPMMANN said that we ought to follow the example of London University, and have no grammar questions in examinations. It was absurd to ask the second question. Correction should be immediate, and careless mistakes should be effaced. Too little stress was laid on dictation. He strongly advised teachers to find out those whose hearing was defective, and to put the weaklings in the front row.

The PRESIDENT, in closing the discussion, said that, although it was a great thing to be able to speak and write a foreign language correctly, it was also no small accomplishment to understand and enjoy such a lecture as Professor Doutrepont had given the previous day.

Mr. NEVILL FORBES, Lecturer in Russian at the Taylorian Institution, Oxford, then read an interesting and illuminating paper on 'Serbia,' which we understand will shortly be published by the Oxford University Press. We hope to refer to it in a future issue.

SOME OPINIONS ON GERMAN CULTURE AND EDUCATION.

GERMANY and the Germans loomed large in the various speeches and addresses during Conference week. They formed the theme of Bishop Welldon's opening address, to which he himself gave the secondary title, 'Culture and Kultur.' Kultur he defined as organized efficiency on the largest scale, of which the immediate result was worship of the State. 'The war proved as no war in the past had ever equally proved the importance of education and the peril of a false or vicious education.' 'Two theories of education stood as rivals one over against the other before the eyes of the whole civilized world.' To the amazement of many Englishmen, the English system with its freedom and individuality is likely to gain the day.

For the last twenty years there has been an almost universal chorus of laudation of nearly all aspects of German life and ways, and few have had courage enough to raise a voice in opposition. As Professor Ridgway said in his address to the Classical Association: 'This worship of things German led the ordinary British scholar, theologian, and scientist to hold up to ridicule and odium as foolish or blasphemous any fellow-scholar or scientist who was so rash as to controvert the current views in Germany.' Yet in 1909, at the Annual Meeting of the Modern Language Association, Mr. Otto Siepmann read a paper in which the English and German systems of education were compared, to the disadvantage of the latter. He said: 'Much has been said and written of late about the superiority of German Secondary education in comparison with the English Public Schools. I cannot help thinking that these statements are not well founded, if they are made in the sweeping manner with which we are all

familiar.' 'I venture to affirm that unfair work, prompting in class, untruthfulness, priggishness, pose, and unsteadiness, are far more common in German schools than with us. In a word, education taken in its widest sense appears to reach a higher level in England than it does in Germany.' 'If we steer clear of a rigid system such as Germany possesses, and if great care is taken not to destroy the healthful individuality and comparative freedom prevailing in our educational institutions, State control need not degenerate into red-tapism.' 'Nor is the method of teaching science in schools in advance of that generally adopted in English secondary schools, for the practical work done by German boys is nil, or at any rate a negligible quantity.' Mr. Siepmann quoted the opinion of Professor Paulsen, who said that the change (in educational conditions), owing to increased prosperity, had taken place at the expense of will-power and of grit, and that the children educated in that new way would have to pay the penalty. Mr. Siepmann concluded: 'I am well aware that some of my views run counter to those prevalent among a large section of Englishmen who have been persuaded into a kind of worship of the German educational system, and into the belief that we have fallen sadly behind through our reverence for tradition and disinclination for revolutionary changes. I can neither share this belief nor give up my faith in the sterling qualities of our boys; while, on the other hand, I must refuse to shut my eyes to what seem to me serious defects in the German system, and to the retrogressive movements in recent developments of modern German life: its growing materialism and slackened discipline.'

In a recent address to the Child Study

Association in Edinburgh, Dr. Sadler spoke in a similar strain. We quote from the *Educational News*: 'The general tendency of all the systems in Germany was to produce a very large number of young persons possessing a high average level of attainment in a wide range of subjects, very well grounded, highly disciplined, and quick to learn, especially when under instruction. The British system provided a contrast. At its best it gave more scope to individual talent and produced a comparatively small number of first-rate scholars, keenly interested in their favourite subjects, vigorous in mind, accustomed to rely a great deal on themselves, and keen to pursue their studies to a higher point. Put briefly, the German was a collectivist, the Briton an individualist.'

Dr. Welldon, in uttering a warning against a one-sided or imperfect education, said that the Germans had failed because they were too German, and had not thought of the world outside Germany. He pointed out that the services of Germany in literature and science were formerly perhaps overrated, but that they were now coming to be unduly disparaged. As Professor Ridgway put it, 'Some of those very men who were always lauding everything German, and who did all in their power to stifle free discussion in this country, and some of whom lived by preaching German ideas, were now hurling denunciations on German science, German scholarship, and everything else German in the columns of *The Times*. He advised his hearers to write on the tablets of their minds the Greek motto *μηδὲν ἄγαν*. In the December number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, Miss Hutchinson expressed an extreme view when, in speaking of our debt to German culture, she says it had made us what we are. This is far from being the opinions of Professors Sayce and Ray Lankester and others who, in the columns of *The Times*,

deny to Germans pre-eminence even in music. Professor Sayce looks upon them as intellectual hewers of wood and drawers of water for Western Europe, and Professor Ray Lankester as raiders and plunderers in the domain of learning. On the other hand, Dr. Headlam in a lecture on 'History and Patriotism,' delivered to the members of the Historical Association, considered that historians owed a great debt to Germans, and even to the Prussian Government. In the Presidential address to the Modern Language Association, our debt to German literature and music was also pointed out, and Mr. Vaughan has been taken severely to task by an evening paper for being in an amiable humour and for expressing his liking for certain German authors. The writer says that this is not the time for such sentiments, and even denies that Lessing 'opened our eyes to art.' Better the patriotic enmity of Herr Fuerst and the author of the *Hymn of Hate*!

In a leading article entitled 'The Fallen Idol,' *The Times* seems to us to strike the right note. 'The conduct of the war has discredited the German standard of civilization, and the defence of that conduct put forward by German intellectuals has identified them with it, and has provoked a more critical estimate of their own worth.' In the past we have, most of us, accepted the German intellectuals' arrogant estimate of themselves at their own valuation. We have over-estimated or misunderstood it. Those who did not were afraid to 'run counter to the fashionable cult of an idol.' The intellectual achievement of Germany remains what it was, and 'to underrate it would be to imitate their intellectual arrogance.' Still, it is true that in the past century Germany has produced no men of great eminence. Her great names belong to a bygone age, and her greatest genius, Goethe, would have spurned the ideas of oppression which have found favour among her more modern writers.

SPANISH TEXTBOOKS.

WHEN war broke out last July the foreign branch of a leading London bank was suddenly deprived of the services of its German manager, and the whole office was thrown into a state of chaos, and some weeks passed before anything like normal business conditions were re-established. Now the bank is being run with an English staff, and with efficiency. This is typical of what will happen when the teaching world realizes the possibilities that the war has opened up to the teaching profession. The clerks who are beating the Germans at the front, when they return to business life, will not again allow their foreign competitors to oust them out of well-paid positions. The delusion that Germans have some mysterious aptitude for learning Spanish, etc., and that the Briton is incapable of acquiring linguistic skill, will receive its death-blow.

An article under the heading of 'The Study of Spanish' in your December issue appears to have been written by one who is better versed in Italian than Spanish, and the statement that 'at present there is a lack of suitable grammars, dictionaries, and reading books with notes in English,' is open to serious criticism. To say the least, it does great injustice to the work of our American cousins, and I beg to draw attention to the following excellent books, all of which I have used with great success in teaching Spanish:

Dent's *First Spanish Book*, 2s. net. A primer according to the reform method, with a phonetic transcript of the first five lessons and an introduction by Walter Rippmann. I have found it a thoroughly reliable textbook.

De Arteaga's *Practical Spanish*, 2 vols, 7s. 6d. (John Murray.) An attempted compromise of old and new methods. Very suitable for adult students. Part of the first and the whole of the second volume form a fairly complete grammar. The first part deals with different phases of Spanish life in Spanish, with retranslation exercises in English. One of the chief merits of the book is that its vocabulary is thoroughly modern, which alone justifies its title.

Appleton's *Dictionary* we owe to American effort, and while deficient in many respects, is still the best available.

Readers, with notes in English—all American publications:

Asensi: *Victoria y otros Cuentos*, 1s. 6d. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) Con-

tains a vocabulary and short but useful notes.

Cuentos Castellanos, 1s. 6d. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) A similar compilation to the above.

Valdés: *José*, 3s. 6d. (Heath's Modern Language Series.) A fisherman's love story.

Galdos: *Doña Perfecta*, 4s. 6d. (Ginn and Co.) The well-known novel by Galdos, with 40 pages of notes.

Bazan: *Pascual Lopez*, 3s. 6d. (Ginn and Co.) An interesting novel, with notes and a limited vocabulary of terms seldom correctly explained in the dictionaries.

Pereda: *Pedro Sanchez*, 4s. 6d. (Ginn and Co.) A novel, with notes and vocabulary.

Valera: *El Pájaro Verde*, 2s. (Ginn and Co.) A Spanish story, with notes, exercises, and vocabulary.

To the Cambridge University Press we owe:

Galdos: *Trafalgar*, 4s. 6d. An historical novel of the great battle.

Another fact of great importance which your previous contributor has apparently overlooked is that the majority of those who attempt to master Spanish are adults. Consequently the methods of instruction, and *ipso facto* the textbooks, must be such as are adapted to the teaching of adults. This is a matter of great moment if instruction is to be effectual, as the late Principal of London University pointed out in his address to the Modern Language Association last year.

Furthermore, the purpose these adults have in view in learning Spanish is almost entirely a utilitarian one. So the less we talk about the Romancers, and confine ourselves to strictly modern Spanish, the better service we shall be rendering our nation.

My reading in modern Spanish literature has been less happy than your contributor's. The impeccability of the Spanish novel is, unfortunately, not in harmony with the facts. The modern novel is too violently anticlerical, too much occupied with polemics, to make interesting reading, and the majority of them would be unsuitable reading for boys, and not very edifying for adult students. I do not think it wise to advertise books of doubtful value by proffering proof in support of my last contention, but let anyone read the above-mentioned book, *Doña Perfecta*, by Galdos, and he will feel that he has emerged from some gloomy dungeon filled with dead men's bones.

A. COZENS ELLIOTT.

DISCUSSION COLUMN.

[All contributions should be sent to Miss Althaus, The Cottage, Bramhope, near Leeds.]

WITH regard to the Discussion Column on the teaching of the Direct Method, I should like to describe my experience.

After an almost exclusive use of the old method of teaching French (*i.e.*, with grammar all in English, written exercises, and translation into English from the foreign textbooks), I found myself in a school where the Direct Method had always been employed. I had hitherto looked with some misgivings on that method of reading a textbook, which resembles the French 'explication des textes,' and in which practically no English is used, for fear that, though the *general* sense might be well enough grasped, quite wrong ideas would be formed of the meaning of individual words and phrases. However, I found that this difficulty, which is no imaginary one, is easily overcome; should you suspect that a wrong meaning is associated with any word or phrase, all you have to do is to ask for that word to be explained, or a French synonym given, or sometimes the English equivalent. For the rest, this method of reading a book gives them practice in speaking the foreign language, while the constant repetition of the phrases in the book impresses them upon the pupils' minds, to the great benefit of their free composition.

I certainly do not hold with learning and teaching being entirely oral. Writing is absolutely necessary, to see whether the pupil really understands what he has just been rattling off

with an enviable glibness. He will say, to all hearing quite correctly, 'Je dois aller à la ville,' but written it will appear as 'Je dois allé,' etc. In cases of this sort I feel obliged to refer them to the English construction.

Still, as long as a certain amount of learning by heart and writing is insisted upon, I find the teaching of grammar by the Direct Method very beneficial in the younger forms. It is certainly more interesting to the pupil. It gives him early a knowledge of idiomatic expressions, and provides him with a supply of little phrases by remembering which he can recall some point of grammar which would have been impossible to learn in the abstract. For instance, that terrible boggy, the position of the French pronouns, loses much of its terrors through the Direct Method. When a pupil is saying or writing a sentence like 'He gave it to them,' he can't go through the whole *rigmarole* '1, 2, 3; if both same person, direct before indirect,' in his mind every time, and then work it out as though it were a sum; but if he can remember a French sentence already learnt, 'Il le leur donna,' he says it right, quite unsuspecting what a pitfall it hides. Thus later, when they come to the formal and formulated grammar, the right sound is so rooted within their minds that they can recall the rule by means of the examples.

NORA LLOYD ATKINSON.

CORRESPONDENCE.

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

INTERPRETERS AND THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

I IMAGINE that the Editor or the editorial committee is officially responsible for any paragraph that may appear in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, but, personally, I have not the least objection to state I wrote the paragraph on 'Interpreters and the Modern Language Association.' On the contrary, I am only too glad to do so, as it affords me the opportunity of putting a somewhat important matter of policy in its proper perspective.

To make the matter perfectly plain, let me quote again 'the curious statement': 'It seems

a pity that the Modern Language Association did not at the outbreak of the war make an official offer to the War Office to supply interpreters.'

I should have thought it was patent to all that such a remark obviously does not refer to any individual, but to the executive as a whole. In fact, I *blame myself*, as a member of the executive, for not having raised the question at the outbreak of the war. This seems to me just one of those cases where the Association, in the interests of its own prestige in the public eye, should have acted officially.

As the question of authority has been mooted, it would be interesting to know by what right the Secretary, apparently off his own bat, went to

the War Refugees Committee and offered to help to find interpreters. I should have imagined that if anyone proposed to put our Association at the disposal of a foreign body, it would be the Chairman alone who had the right, subject, of course, to his action in the matter being subsequently submitted to the executive committee for approval. This is certainly the procedure adopted by public bodies. Therefore, if anyone in this business deserves being rapped over the knuckles for officiousness, it would apparently be the gentleman who has raised the question of procedure.

I regret that Mr. Proper seems to think his offers of service failed to receive adequate publicity in the first instance ; but surely his letter incidentally repairs the omission by setting out his virtuous conduct (even when due subtraction is made for his virtuous indignation) at far greater length, and possibly even in a more favourable light, than any brief editorial note could have dared or dreamed to have done. If he has any complaint to make, it is not so much, it seems to me, against the writer of the paragraph, who was unfortunately unaware of his unselfish offers, but against the Secretary, (1) for having lured him, more or less without authority, to offer his services to the Refugees Committee ; (2) for the latter having failed to contribute, or at least to have inspired, a paragraph eulogizing Mr. Proper's virtuous, if unsuccessful, endeavours to act as interpreter.

CLOUDESLEY BRERETON.

FOREIGN TRADE AND ENGLISH SPELLING.

At a recent meeting of the London Education Committee the suggestion was made by one or two members that the study of foreign languages should be encouraged in order to facilitate the development of the nation's foreign trade. Might we not also attack the reverse side of the difficulty, and while attempting as a nation to gain a mastery of foreign languages, endeavour to make our own language simpler to the foreigner? Experts agree that the one great barrier to the rapid spread of English as the language of commerce is the insane spelling. Not long ago Lord Bryce told a large concourse of teachers that in his travels in the Far East he had been repeatedly told by Eastern traders that English spelling constituted a real menace to the development of English trade. Twenty times within the last half century Germany has reformed her spelling, her reason being, as Mr. Labouchere told us, to enable her to gain foreign trade.

The Simplified Spelling Society is at present promoting a petition asking for a Royal Commission of inquiry into the whole subject. The petition will not, of course, be presented till the war is over. I shall be happy to send a copy to anyone interested.

C. E. JUST,
Secretary.

The Secretary.
Simplified Spelling Society,
44, Great Russell Street, W.C.

HISTORICAL TEXT-BOOKS.

A sub-committee on the Teaching of European History have been good enough to make a list of books they recommend for use in schools. On looking casually through the list I was greatly surprised to see *Mérimée's Chronique du Règne de Charles IX.*, and thinking I must be confusing two books, I procured the *Chronique*, which I have just finished reading. A more objectionable book it would be difficult to find ; we might as well introduce into our class-rooms *Les Dames Galantes* or *Les Cent Nouvelles Nouvelles*. Out of the first twenty-four chapters there is not one fit to be read aloud in a family circle composed entirely of adults. The whole book is unfit for school use. Two extracts have been published. One, under the name of 'Diane de Turgis,' contains the most licentious portions ; the other, called 'Bernard de Mergy,' I have not seen, but it cannot be much better.

I have never heard of a school edition ; indeed, I do not think it would be possible to eliminate the objectionable parts and leave anything like a readable and interesting story. But if a special edition has been brought out, it should have been made quite plain that it was that special edition, and that one alone, that was recommended. Those who signed the report cannot have read the book, for if they had they would not have included it in their list.

There is, I think, a sign of carelessness in the compilation of the list, although this is a very small matter. *L'Attaque du Moulin* is put under the name of Sandeau as well as under the heading Zola. I am not aware that Sandeau wrote a story called by that name.

ELPHEGE JANAU.

ENGLISH EDITIONS OF GERMAN TEXTS.

I believe I am right in saying that students and teachers of German in this country are entirely dependent on German editions of Old and Middle High German texts and to an unduly large extent on German editions of more modern authors. Many of the textbooks to which we

have been accustomed in the German departments of our modern language schools are now difficult to obtain, and I suppose the majority of us feel that there is something surreptitious or even unpatriotic in endeavouring to procure them through neutral countries. Under the circumstances, I think an organized effort ought to be made to replace them permanently by English editions. I would suggest, therefore, an immediate conference of all our professors and University teachers of German to decide on the number and nature of the Old German texts required for University teaching and to allot the editorial labour involved. When this has been done, I think the various University presses should be approached, and an effort made to secure their co-operation and to distribute the work of publication.

If we neglect this opportunity, I feel quite sure that American teachers of German and American publishers will show their usual enterprise, and take the ground from under our feet.

G. WATERHOUSE.

THE STUDY OF ITALIAN.

Miss A. R. Hutchinson's article in the December number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, entitled 'The Study of Spanish,' is, almost from beginning to end, a severe attack on the study of Italian in your country. I will quote some passages.

'Italian contains,' she says, 'a vast store of medieval literature which would be unsuitable for boys or girls under sixteen.' I agree with her on this, for it is obvious that to understand our great writers of that age one must possess a sound knowledge of our language. But one cannot help being astonished at hearing Miss Hutchinson say that there is little or scarcely anything in our modern literature that could be appreciated by English students. I don't know what kind of literature she prefers or thinks fit for English boys and girls; but anyone who is acquainted with our modern literary output will agree with me in saying that there are, on the contrary, a great many books suitable for young people.

What does she think, for instance, of the educative as well as instructive works of Foscolo, Parini, Monti, Giusti, Manzoni, Gozzi, Gioberti, D'Azelio, Pellico, Mazzini, Lessona, De Amicis, D'Ancona, Lombroso, Ada Negri, etc.? Books like *Volere è potere* of Lessona, *Ricordi ed Affetti* of D'Ancona, *Doveri dell'uomo* of Mazzini, *Di ragazzi or Il cuore* of De Amicis, *Il Bene ed il Male* or *Le Glorie e le Gioie*

del lavoro of Mantegazza, etc., cannot fail to be enjoyed and appreciated even by foreign students. Miss Hutchinson, would, I think, greatly change her opinion if she had spare time to go through them again.

As to the study of Italian, she heartily recommends it to 'all head-mistresses whose pupils learn for the sake of learning, and will never be forced to enter the labour market.' To be sure, she has no great admiration either for our literature or our language. It is not for me, of course, to make her change her ideas; but, seeing that *the sensual element is so frequently met with* in our literature, why advise girls to study Italian? That is, I think, a surprising inconsistency.

For business men Italian is, according to her, not to be recommended, Spanish being more important. I don't know exactly whether it is really so. It may be, perhaps; but, to judge from this, one is induced to suppose that there are still many Englishmen who little know the Italy of to-day. The progress it has made in the last half-century in every branch of human endeavour, its ever-increasing political importance, and its great economical and commercial growth throughout the world are no small symptoms of the place Italy is destined to occupy in the near future.

To say, then, that a knowledge of Italian is of no avail for 'pupils who study languages with a view to earning a livelihood' means, according to me, not to know modern Italy.

And if this war means the crushing of German culture, that of France and Italy will become more and more important in the world of ideas.

Based as your liberal education is on the study of the classics, Italian should occupy the same place as French in your schools.

T. LERARIO.

Forli (Italy).

LOAN COLLECTION.

The following slides have been added to the Loan Collection:

Breton Pardon Procession.
 Perros-Geireo: Church.
 Ploumanach: Coast.
 Ancey: Blanchisseuses.
 Malzienville (Lozère): Norman Arch.
 " " River.
 " " Marché.
 Orange: Arc de Triomphe.
 Lausanne: Marché.

The last six are from negatives kindly supplied by Miss Althaus.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

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

WE understand that there were no fewer than twenty-seven British candidates for the Chair of German in the University of Belfast, and that the unexpected strength of their qualifications made a great impression on the electors. It is clear that there is an adequate supply of native scholars capable of filling such posts. A few more appointments such as those of Professor Collinson (Liverpool) and Professor Williams (Belfast) will do more than anything else to give the study of German the impetus it so much needs.



One of the latest contributions to the literature of the war, Mr. Le Queux's *German Spies in England*, should be read and studied by everyone who is interested in German life and ways. It contains the Kaiser's speech in 1908 to a secret Council held at Potsdam, one of the most remarkable that has ever been delivered. Unfortunately, the fact that Mr. Le Queux is a novelist may, in the eyes of some people, detract largely from its value as a serious work. It is not in any sense fiction, but a statement of sober fact and a damning indictment, not only of German unscrupulousness, but of British apathy.



DER WEG NACH CALAIS

ODEE

DER KAISER UND DAS ENGLISCHE
HEER.

ICH kenn' 'nen deutschen Helden,
Sein Name Kaiser Bill,
Er klebt an manch' Plakaten
'Nach Calais musz und will !'
Dann kam ein Heer Soldaten,
Verächtlich und so klein
Aus England um zu kämpfen,
Gen Kaiser Bill so fein.

Es donnerte und blitzte,
Gar manche Kugel fiel.
Der Engländer wich nimmer,
Der Kaiser kam von Kiel ;
'Vorwärts nach Calais, Kinder,
Erreicht so dann mein Ziel.'
Da kam ein Heer Soldaten,
Verächtlich und so klein,

Aus England um zu kämpfen
Gen Kaiser Bill so fein.

Das Heer bleibt unerschrocken,
Der Feind kam nimmer mehr,
Die Hexen auf dem Brocken
Sie leisten keine Wehr.
So ging das Heer Soldaten,
Verächtlich und so klein,
Aus England um zu kämpfen
Gen Kaiser Bill so fein.

In Tausenden gesunken,
Von Heimat weit entfernt,
Mit Blut und Wut getrunken
Was haben sie gelernt.
Es kam ein Heer Soldaten,
Verächtlich und so klein,
Aus England um zu kämpfen
Gen Kaiser Bill so fein.

THE TEACHERS' REGISTRATION
COUNCIL.

The Council has made an important modification in the Conditions of Registration. As originally devised, these provided only for the registration of teachers who were engaged in Universities, Colleges, Schools, or similar educational institutions. The private teacher was thus excluded from the register. It has now been found possible to arrange for the admission of private teachers under special conditions as to attainments and satisfactory experience. It is not sufficiently realized that the register indicates the extent to which teachers as a body are willing to sink minor differences and prejudices in order to support a professional Council, composed solely of teachers, and including men and women duly elected by associations which represent every form of teaching work.

Arrangements for the publication of the first Official List of Registered Teachers are now being made. In order to afford the time needed for the final stages of preparing the volume, it will be impossible to include in the first list the names of those who apply later than April 15. It is hoped, therefore, that all who intend to register will send their applications before that date.



An opportunity has just occurred for obtaining a French post *au pair*, which can be recommended from personal knowledge. Write to the hon. secretary.

REVIEWS.

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

A Short History of English; with a Bibliography of Recent Books on the Subject and Lists of Texts and Editions. By HENRY CECIL WYLD. Pp. 240. Price 6s. net. London: John Murray. 1914.

IT is an amazing paradox that Scandinavian and German students of English are much better provided with textbooks than we are ourselves. A survey of our own textbooks of the history of English shows how narrow our conception of the subject has become by our persistent neglect of any but its literary aspect. Attention has been chiefly concentrated upon vocabulary. Grammar, inflection, and syntax have been considered with varying degrees of fulness; but speech-sounds, the basis of language, have hitherto fared scurvily, except at the hands of the great pioneer Sweet and one or two disciples. Professor Wyld's book handsomely redresses this grievance. Except in a prefatory word or two, he avoids the subject of vocabulary, and gives prominence to the laws of sound-change in actual speech. A clear and exact definition of the English speech-sounds is followed by a brief review of the main principles operating in the growth of language. Then follow three chapters dealing with Old English, Middle English, and Modern English sounds in full detail and with the frankest discussion of varying hypotheses. The student who is just taking up the subject will be especially interested by the account in the third of these three chapters of the manner in which our modern vowel system has come into being. Another chapter, which is particularly detailed in the case of the strong verbs, examines our inflectional practices; and, finally, the development of literary English is traced down to what Professor Wyld calls 'received standard' and 'modified standard' English of to-day.

It is a pioneer book, freshly thought out from end to end. Documents are cited whence all the material discussed is derived, and the actual course of sound-changes is tracked through them from century to century. Almost for the first time the young student is enabled to see the scholar at work obtaining, testing, verifying results, whilst the researches and theories of contemporary scholars such as Luick, Zachrisson, and Jespersen are laid under contribution at every step. Many problems which await solution are enumerated at the close. Here, as throughout the book, there is a vivid sense of the actuality of the study, of the accessibility

of the material, and of the living processes which are to be investigated. It takes its place immediately as a standard work in its subject, and must have a profoundly stimulating effect upon English studies in England. W. T. Y.

Chaucer and his Times. By GRACE HADOW. Home University Library. Pp. 256. London: Williams and Norgate. New York: Henry Holt and Co. Price 1s. net.

THE title of this book is a misnomer, for Chaucer's 'Times' are scarcely touched upon, and his contemporaries are barely mentioned. Miss Hadow gives us a readable account of Chaucer's work, with no distinction of style or scholarship, but quite adequate as an introduction to the study of his poetry. We do not think her book supersedes Mr. Pollard's *Primer of Chaucer*, which is equally inexpensive, but perhaps it is more popular in character. It would be unfair to subject it to comparison with Professor Ker's *Medieval Literature*, which is a masterpiece. But it falls below the standard attained by all the other volumes we have seen of the section 'Literature and Art' in this series. There is nothing very definite with which to find fault, but the result is commonplace.

Chaucer: Parlement of Foules. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Glossary, by C. M. DRENNAN, M.A. Pp. 93. University Tutorial Press. 1914. Price 2s. 6d.

This is a useful edition, with notes that should be of service to examination candidates. Some of the philological remarks need expansion if they are not to be misleading—e.g., that on 'maner deth' in l. 54, or on 'myselven,' l. 297; while others—e.g., that on 'kevered,' l. 271—have no meaning as they stand. The note reads: 'Kevered: the Cockney *kivered*, a correct form philologically.' What the student requires, if he be intelligent, is a comparison between Chaucer's *kever* and N.E. *cover*, but that is not forthcoming, and without it the note is superfluous. Yet the form *meve*, l. 150, also occurs in the poem, and the same explanation would have illustrated both words, as well as other M.E. doublets.

Similarly, in the writer's opinion, the Introduction would be far more useful if the grammatical section were enlarged so as to include some reference to syntax. Thus, the paragraph about the relative by no means makes it clear that *who* is not used in this way by Chaucer. Half a dozen lines of history would clear up the

point, and make the accident interesting and therefore unforgettable.

Again, the paragraphs on metre need supplementary remarks on the rules for the pronunciation of final *e*; while the appendix on Chaucer's vowel sounds should either be amplified or omitted.

If the editor has condensed because of exigencies of space, we suggest humbly that he might more profitably have cut out certain parts of the literary criticism (notably 'The Debt of English Literature to Chaucer,' and 'Chaucer's Originality and Humour'), which could not be adequately treated in the limits of a brief introduction, and which, as they stand, are open to the objection of providing students with ready-made, secondhand opinions.

Tennyson: Enoch Arden. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by HUGH MARWICK, M.A. Pp. 44. Clarendon Press. 1914. Price 1s.

This edition is not to be recommended for school use, while older students will find in it little that they need. The notes explain much that only quite young children will not understand without their help—*e.g.*, still: 'always'; or chime: 'be in accordance with'; or boatswain: 'a sort of foreman sailor' (*sic*). But they also give derivations which pupils of that age are better without, and which no readers require as an aid to the appreciation of poetry. The attempts at literary criticism—*e.g.*, notes to ll. 1 and 5 and 568—are exactly of the kind which experienced teachers of literature avoid altogether, or try to elicit from their pupils. The introduction seems to fail in the same way. 'Tennyson's Poetic Methods,' discussed in two brief pages, nevertheless includes trite and obvious points; while the section entitled 'Enoch Arden' (five pages) finds room for an inappreciative paragraph on Wordsworth, references to the criticism of Mr. Stopford Brooke, Professor Macneile Dixon, and Walter Bagehot, and to the Greek conception of tragedy, and for comparison with 'The Daffodil Fields' and 'Auld Robin Gray.'

We have perhaps devoted more space than it deserves to a bad edition, which exemplifies most of the faults that we hoped were disappearing from literature teaching. Our excuse is that the booklet appears under the aegis of the Clarendon Press, and that teachers may be misled by what should be the hall-mark of its imprimatur.

Elizabethan Drama and its Mad Folk. The Harness Prize Essay for 1913. By EDGAR ALLISON PEERS, B.A. Pp. 189. Messrs. Heffer and Sons. 1914. Price 3s. 6d. net.

Mr. Peers treats an extremely interesting subject with painstaking industry, but he does

not succeed in casting much fresh light upon it. His work is a good specimen of the University Prize Essay, and if it reaches no higher level this is not a legitimate cause of complaint. It is, at any rate, worth publication, and its references will be invaluable to all students of this phase of Elizabethan drama.

The Bee and Other Essays. By OLIVER GOLDSMITH. Together with the Life of Nash. Pp. v + 416. Oxford Edition. Oxford University Press. Price 2s.

This excellent reprint of the less easily obtained essays of Goldsmith should be of real service, and may be warmly recommended.

The Cambridge History of English Literature. Vol. xi. Edited by Sir A. W. WARD, Litt.D., F.B.A., and A. R. WALLER, M.A. Pp. xiii + 528. Cambridge University Press. 1914. Price, cloth, 9s. net; half-morocco, 15s. net.

Few of the volumes of the Cambridge History of Literature are likely to afford the reader more pleasure than the eleventh: almost all the separate chapters are full of interest, and some of the criticism ranks exceedingly high. Thus, Professor Vaughan's chapter on Coleridge could not be improved, at any rate in the space at his disposal; and the account of the Ancient Mariner, of Christabel, and particularly of Kubla Khan, puts all lovers of poetry in his debt. Professor Legouis succeeds, too, in the difficult task of writing freshly about Wordsworth, though one misses the illuminating exposition of his earlier work on the subject: Mr. Child speaks admirably about Cowper, and not quite so successfully of Crabbe. Mr. Wallis gives us the fruits of his original and enthusiastic study of Blake's symbolism; and Professor Grierson contributes a valuable account of Burke's achievement. In a different way, the sections on Book Production and Distribution by Mr. Aldis, on The Blue-stockings by Mrs. Aldis, and on Children's Books by Mr. Harvey Darton, fill a real need by supplying information on matters too often neglected, even by students.

Scarcely a chapter in the volume fails to handle its allotted subject in a scholarly fashion, while the bibliographies attain the level that readers have learned to expect in the Cambridge History of Literature. Yet the volume, in spite of its merits, is disappointing as 'history of literature,' and the success of separate contributors does not secure adequate treatment of 'The Period of the French Revolution.' In that age, especially, the influence on literature of the historical background needs separate and detailed consideration, and without such consideration there can be no genuine 'history of literature,' however satisfactory the account of individual

writers. Doubtless the general scheme of the book, with its numerous authors, makes it impossible to trace growth, development, and change from an unvarying standpoint, but some attempt should have been made to justify the claim implied by the title. Moreover, the chapter division and sequence need some explanation. Why, for example, should Crabbe follow Wordsworth and Coleridge, instead of preceding them? The year of his birth and his work alike protest against the unnatural order. Similarly, Erasmus Darwin, Bowles, and other 'Lesser Poets of the Later Eighteenth Century,' are found in a section which follows all the great romantics except Blake and Burns, who, curiously enough, come later still; and lastly, 'The Georgian Drama,' including that of Goldsmith, is strangely out of place towards the end of the volume. Thus, explicitly as well as implicitly, historical treatment is ignored; and, as a result, while the volume provides much good reading, it fails to substantiate the particular claim made by the editors. It does not even attempt to be a 'history of English literature' in 'the period of the French Revolution.'

English Drama of the Restoration and Eighteenth Century (1642-1780). By GEORGE HENRY NETTLETON. Pp. xiii + 366. Macmillan and Co. 1914. Price 6s. 6d. net.

Students of English drama are greatly indebted to Professor Nettleton for this painstaking and laborious piece of work, which covers ground, some of which, at any rate, has scarcely been traversed before, and much of which has been but cursorily surveyed. Professor Nettleton discusses individual plays and authors in detail, but he finds space also for general tendencies, and for minor developments, such as 'Pantomime and Ballad Opera,' to which a chapter is devoted. The Bibliographical Notes are full and interesting, and the index—no unimportant part of a book such as this—all that can be desired. The volume will rightly find its place in all good reference libraries. We look forward to the promised sequel, which is to deal with the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

William Morris: His Work and Influence. By A. CLUTTON-BROCK. Home University Library. Pp. 256. London: Williams and Norgate. New York: Henry Holt and Co. Price 1s. net.

Mr. Clutton-Brock has accomplished an admirable piece of work in this exposition of the achievement and influence of William Morris. He writes with the understanding and sympathy that give insight; and even those who already

appreciate the master-craftsman will learn to know him better through Mr. Clutton-Brock's little book. No reader of it needs the author's confession of admiration and love for his subject. These are everywhere proved by his comprehension of Morris's ideal, and by his lucid account of that which he accomplished and of that for which he strove. The book may be heartily recommended as a thoroughly satisfactory introduction to the work of Morris, in some respects much more illuminating than more ambitious books.

Primitia: Essays in English Literature by Students of the University of Liverpool. Pp. 287. Liverpool University Press and Messrs. Constable. 1912. Price 4s. 6d. net.

These essays on various writers of the Romantic period may be compared with the Oxford Miscellany of Eighteenth-Century Literature (1909), which was also compiled by young graduates. The comparison helps the uninitiated to realize that the northern University is producing original work and work of distinction, which seems to prove that its students receive a training in scholarship not inferior to that given at Oxford. Those who know the schools of English at Manchester and Liverpool do not need to be told of their achievements, but it is well to emphasize them when an opportunity occurs, for the opinion is still often expressed that the new Universities have not yet made their mark in literary studies.

The seven essays in this book are not all of equal value, but all are in the best sense scholarly. The first paper, on Blake's Symbolism, no doubt secured for its author, Mr. Wallis, the honour of writing on Blake in the Cambridge History of Literature. It is a clear account of a difficult subject by one who is enthusiastic without being idolatrous.

Miss Birkhead makes a careful and discriminating study of Shelley's imagery and style, which similarly tempers admiration with judgment, and which, if it contains nothing very new, yet summarizes nearly all that can be said on the subject if reference to his symbolism be omitted. Miss Bradshaw contributes a valuable Memoir of Hartley Coleridge, the first attempt at anything like a complete biography, and one which it would be worth while to amplify and publish in a separate volume. Lastly, we have space to note only Mr. Young's article on 'Humour in the Poets and Parodists of the Romantic Period,' a paper which, especially in its treatment of Byron, exhibits originality and insight.

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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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MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

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

Present: Messrs. Hutton (chair), Brereton, Fuller, von Glehn, Miss Hart, Messrs. Mansion, O'Grady, Perrett, Prior, Rippmann, Miss Shearson, Mr. Twentyman, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from Miss Allpress, Miss Althaus, and Miss Batchelor.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The estimate for the year of the Finance Subcommittee was received and approved.

It was resolved that, in cases where only ten or fewer copies of any of the back numbers of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING in the possession of the Association still remained, one shilling should be charged to members for a copy and two shillings to the public.

It was agreed that the Hon. Secretary should make arrangements to procure a complete file of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING and the MODERN LANGUAGE QUARTERLY.

The proposal of Dr. Leonhardt with regard to his school examinations in German was considered, and, after discussion, the Committee resolved that it was impossible to accept it. The letter which it was agreed to send Dr. Leonhardt will be found below.

A sub-committee, consisting of Mr. O'Grady (convener), Miss Althaus, Miss Ash, Messrs. de Monipied, Rippmann, and Twentyman, was appointed to consider how the interests of German in schools could best be furthered.

The following nine new members were elected:

Miss J. B. W. Aldis, Girls' High School, Chapel Allerton, Leeds.

Miss D. Bennett, Broughton and Crumpsall High School, Manchester.

Miss C. Daniell, A.Mus.T.C.L., Woodberry, Oakleigh Park, Whetstone, N.

H. H. Gibson, M.A., Rossall School.

H. Jefferson, Stationers' Company's School, Hornsey, N.

Miss J. K. Leslie, M.A., County Secondary School, Plumstead, S.E.

Miss Anne Lyall, Croham Hurst School, South Croydon.

Miss Margaret R. B. Shaw, B.A., St. Hugh's College, Oxford.

Miss E. M. Thomas, St. Hugh's College, Oxford.

7, South Hill Mansions,
Hampstead, N.W.,

March 2, 1915.

DEAR SIR,—There are several difficulties in the way of the Modern Language Association supporting any independent system of examinations, and these and other reasons have compelled them reluctantly to decline your friendly offer.

On the other hand, they are only too glad to take this opportunity of emphasizing their opinion of the importance of maintaining the study of German everywhere, and even extending it.—Yours faithfully,

Dr. Leonhardt.

G. F. BRIDGE.

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.

THE Editor much regrets that the February issue did not appear punctually, but disclaims all responsibility for the delay, which arose, apparently, in the Advertising Department.

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

It seems necessary to point out that the opinions expressed in articles, correspondence, notes, and reviews are not and cannot be endorsed officially by the Association.

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.; the annual subscription is 4s.

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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, 7, South Hill Mansions, London, N.W.

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:—

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

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Travelling Exhibition: Miss HART, County Secondary School, Sydenham Hill Road, S.E.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, County School, Wood Green, N.

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

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P. 28, col. 2, l. 8: Mr. Lett's scholarship (£100) is at Queen's, not Keble College.

P. 28, col. 2, l. 19: Mr. Paget should be Mr. Pachett.

It is urgently requested that all Postal Orders be crossed.

MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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TEUTON AND SLAV.

IN his appreciation of Madame de Staël's work, *Ten Years of Exile*, the impetuous Alexander Pushkin expressed his great delight at her being 'the first to do justice to the Russian people—an eternal object of ignorant calumnies on the part of foreign writers.'

The frivolous attitude of some foreign people towards Russia was made a special topic for biting irony and bitter sarcasm by the famous author of *Crime and Punishment*, who has wittily exposed the lack of true insight shown by foreign observers into the spirit and ideas animating the Russian people. 'If there is a country in the world,' wrote F. M. Dostoyevsky, in his introduction to his critical essays on Russian literature, 'which is the most unknown, uninvestigated, misunderstood, and incomprehensible to other countries, whether they lie remote from or are contiguous to it, that country is indisputably Russia as far as Western neighbours are concerned. For Europe Russia is one of the riddles of the Sphinx. Perpetual motion or the elixir of life will be sooner discovered than the truth about Russia, the Russian soul, character, and tendency will be understood by the West. In this respect even the moon is now explored much more minutely than Russia—at least it is known that no one lives there. As

regards Russia, it is known that people live there, and even Russian people, but what kind of people are they? Something, however, they do know about us,' proceeded Dostoyevsky. 'They know, for instance,' he explained, 'that Russia lies within such and such degrees of latitude, that it abounds in such and such things, that there are certain places in it where people ride on dogs. They know that beside dogs there are in Russia also people, and very strange people, that are like other people, and at the same time not like them—as it were, Europeans, and at the same time barbarians. They know that our race is intelligent enough but without genius, is very handsome, lives in wooden huts, but incapable of the highest development on account of the frosts. They know that in Russia there is an army, and even a very big one; but they lay it down that the Russian soldier is completely mechanical, made of wood, goes by clockwork, does not think or feel, and hence stoical enough in battle, but that he has no independence, and is in every respect inferior to the Frenchman. They know that in Russia there was an Emperor Peter, whom they call the Great—a monarch without talents and but half civilized, and given up to his passions; that the Genevan Lefort educated him;

from out of a barbarian made a wise man of him, inspired him with the idea of creating a fleet, and depriving the Russians of their caftans and beards; that Peter did, in point of fact, cut off their beards, and the Russians thus became at once Europeans. But they know, too, that, had Lefort not been born in Geneva, the Russians would still be going about with beards, and there would consequently have been no reorganization of Russia. But enough of these examples,' says Dostoyevsky; 'all the other information is of the same or nearly the same nature. I am speaking quite seriously,' he assures his reader. 'Do me the favour of opening the books written about us by various foreign viscounts, barons, and especially marquises. Read them attentively, and see whether I speak the truth and am not joking.' Dostoyevsky laid stress on 'the complete inability of almost every foreigner, whose circumstances cause him to live in Russia, sometimes fifteen or twenty years, to acquaint himself even a little with his surroundings, to get accustomed to Russia, to comprehend anything completely, to have any idea even approximating to the truth.' As an illustration, Dostoyevsky takes 'our nearest neighbours, the Germans,' and says: 'All kinds of Germans come here—learned ones with the serious purpose of learning, of writing, and thus being useful to science in Russia, and unlearned simple people with the more modest but quite honest purpose of baking rolls and smoking sausages. Some even take it upon themselves as a principle and a sacred duty to acquaint the Russian public with various European curiosities, and hence they appear with various giants and giantesses, learned monkeys and apes specially trained for the entertainment of Russians. But whatever difference there may be between learned and simple Germans in ideas, in general knowledge, in culture, and in their objects in visiting

Russia, in Russia all Germans promptly agree in their impressions—a sort of uneasy feeling of suspicion, a sort of fear of growing reconciled to those people that the German sees to be strikingly unlike himself, an entire inability to guess that a Russian cannot turn himself completely into a German, and that it is impossible to measure a Russian by a German measure; and, finally, an open or secret, but in any case boundless assumption of superiority to Russians, is the characteristic of every German in his attitude towards them.' In spite of its extremeness Dostoyevsky's attack on the ignorance of the Western European public with regard to Russia was perhaps quite justified for his time. In this country, in particular, the sway of political interests in the intercourse with Russia have suppressed the studies of other aspects of Russian life. The customs and manners of the Russian people, the details of everyday life, as well as the intellectual and moral characteristics of the Russian nation, have been described by casual observers, whose accounts frequently fall to the level of sportsmen's tales. In the opinion of a recent English visitor to Russia, Mr. Stephen Graham, the Russian Empire is still an undiscovered country for the Englishman. But during the last few years the study of Russia has advanced beyond the stage of mere collections of statistics and scanty facts, and English writers have turned their attention to understanding the actual nature and peculiarities of Russian culture, and to elucidating those ideas and aspirations that sway Russian civilization of the past and present. Had Dostoyevsky lived today and read some English books on Russia, he would perhaps criticize with the same bitterness and sarcasm much that was said in those books about the Russian people, for Dostoyevsky conceived the Russian character rather in its best and more or less eventual possi-

bilities than in its real manifestations. Being himself an artistic interpreter of the subtlest elements of the national genius and the highest aspirations of the national conscience, Dostoyevsky liked the foreign writers to treat the spirit animating Russia as he himself conceived it in his own mind. Hence his bitterness in attacking the people who failed to fall in with him in grasping 'the Russian Idea.' Dostoyevsky's standpoint with regard to Russia as well as that of the Slavophiles may be well illustrated by Tutchév's quatrain :

'Russia cannot be conceived by mind
Nor measured by a common measure ;
She has a stature of her own,
And who believes Russia, he beholds her.'

In describing the German 'assumption of boundless superiority' to Russians, Dostoyevsky depicted one of the prevailing features in the relations of Teutons to Slavs. For quite a long time they discussed in German literature some historico - philosophical theories which meant to prove the racial and psychical superiority of the Germanic nation to the Slavs. The effect of such and similar speculative exercises was a widespread self-delusive idea entertained by Germans that Slavs, and the Russians in particular, are not capable of the higher cultural development. Among these theories, that of Hegel was an inspiration even to some Russians, who regarded their own country before the time of Peter the Great as an 'Asiatic' country, because she had a civilization of her own and not that of Germany, which was proclaimed to be the last word in universal progress. This particular aspect of Hegel's philosophical teaching may be described in a few words. Hegel, one of the leading philosophers in Germany at the beginning of the last century, classed mankind into historical and unhistorical nations. In Hegel's conception, the history of the world is a process of development and the

realization of absolute Spirit. In the march to self-consciousness Spirit passed through several successive stages, and the Oriental, the Classical, and the Germanic are the periods constituting the history of the world. The complete development of Spirit was only attained in the latter stage, in the Germanic, and to the German nation Hegel predicted the universal supremacy. The Slavs were not honoured by the World-Spirit for the exhibition of its nature, and they were described by Hegel as a non-historical race doomed for ever to be in spiritual slavery to German civilization. The would-be adherents of this theory had in store for them a task of denouncing and destroying everything originally and peculiarly Slavonic and Russian, and of replacing it by the products of the German cultural workshop.

The speculative historical conception advanced by the arm-chair philosopher suited the national feelings of the German people and became an inspiration for them in their relations to the Slavs. Hatred and contempt for the Russians as cultural outcasts has spread in all classes of the German community, and estranged the two nations in their political as well as in their social intercourse. Russian students at the German Universities were just tolerated by the natives, and they were made to understand and experience at every step that they were most unwelcome visitors to the Fatherland. A 'common bearded Russian' are the words of great scorn in the language of the German. With the ideas of their superiority to Russians Germans who established themselves in Russia introduced methods of hateful violence and oppression into the administrative machine of Russia. The German 'Kultur' was set up as the standard of supreme civilization to be followed in every line of Russian political, industrial, and educational life. But the methodical rigidity and the op-

pressive discipline of the German were most abhorrent to the independent easy-going, nonchalant Russian character, and the psychological impulse in the Russian hostility towards Germany can be traced in this diversity of the Russian and German natures. The German spirit is entirely opposed to the Russian, and even the German's virtues are odious to Russians, as an old Russian saying describes it: 'What is good for a Russian is death to a German.'

Russia entered the twentieth century of Christian civilization as a great moral power agitated by the spirit of progress, freedom, and idealism revealed in the works of Soloviev, Dostoyevsky, and Tolstoy. Germany has, on the contrary, prostrated herself before the materialistic doctrines advocated by Bernhardt, Treitschke, and other leaders of modern German thought. It is painful to see the great idealistic Germany of Schiller being debased by her servility to the cult of brutal materialistic force advocated by her crowned partisans of destruction. Seeing now the true nature of German culture I feel quite contented that the Russian people were not granted by Hegel a diploma of cultural efficiency. I do not deny the right of each particular nation to fabricate such certificates according to their own standards; but it seems to me that these standards of civilization must be first tested in some great national emergencies, in which are shown moral resources of the country. And when I see the professed apostles of culture destroying the seats of learning, shelling defenceless towns from land, sea, and air, I begin to realize that the world-spirit of Hegel found the wrong nation for its final self-manifestation. On the other hand, I am quite convinced that civilization takes more than one form; test it on the battlefield, and you discover the Prussian monster armed to the teeth, craving for the universal domination, and

placing his strength in brute force, and his *morale* in contempt for humanity.

The close relation to Germany through several German rulers who were placed on the Russian throne, or behind it after the death of Peter the Great, was greatly responsible for the Germanization of Russia. Politically and economically, Russia has gradually come under the entire domination of the Teuton; and one of the darkest periods in Russian history was the government of Biron, who strongly despised Russians, and deliberately suppressed everything that was Russian. He disregarded both law and concessions, and the Russian people were robbed and persecuted with all the violence and brutality of an unfeeling tyrant. Germany's economical pressure on Russia reached its highest point after the Commercial Treaty of 1904, which was meant to be the contribution payable by Russia to Germany for her neutrality in the Japanese War. By this treaty Germany secured without a shot some millions of pounds as her annual income derived from the economical exploitation of Russia.

One of the most urgent tasks which falls to Russians in the present crisis is to break the spell of crushing rules and regulations imposed by the rigorous disciplinarians of the Prussian School. Russians must look forward to some fresh influences to vivify the spirit of Russian political and social life. The time of trial and violence must be over—to quote Nekrasov—for the 'poor, yet wealthy, for the mighty, yet impotent mother Russia.' Friends of Russian freedom, at home and abroad, will therefore hail with heartfelt joy the establishment of friendly relations with England, and they hope that both the countries will stretch forth the hands of true fellowship. The truly interpreted Anglo-Russian problem is that of economic co-operation and of politico-strategical

defence against the Asiatic races. The ground for the political alliance between the two countries being clearly defined both by English and Russian statesmen, I would like to turn to consider the psychological conditions for the friendly union of the two peoples, the English and the Russian, that is to say, where the psychology of each nation is alive enough to mutual understanding and spiritual intercourse. I would be voicing the sentiments of every progressive Russian at home if I called England the Jerusalem of true democracy. The spirit and the standards of English political life were an inspiration to many generations in Russia who tried either actively or by teaching to introduce at home the democratic principles of the English constitutional order. Closer political relations with England would stir and encourage still more the efforts of striving Russia to bring some changes into the political and social institutions at home.

It is needless to say, on the other hand, that the English character, the Englishman's heart and his aspirations as they are reflected in the classical works of English literary genius, are well known and duly appreciated by Russians who have learned to love the noble soul of 'old England' since the early days of their school life.

On the memorable days of the outbreak of war with Germany, great crowds of Russians in Petrograd awaited with strained impatience a message from England delivering her decision on the crisis. Will Great Britain join the Russian people in the great struggle for justice, right, and freedom? The Russians have in full forgiven the days of past mistrust and enmity. Will England forget and side with Russia? In their admiration of England as the mother of freedom and as the beacon-light of true civilization, the Russians expected the British to step in unswervingly for the

defence of the principles expiated by the blood of the striving democracy of all nations. And obedient to the call of honour and duty, the English joined the Russians as brothers in arms. But will this fighting union draw together both the peoples as lifelong friends, enjoying their mutual confidence and co-operating for the greater progress of their countries? In other words, is there any ground for the moral alliance of the two nations? It seems to me that the establishment and promotion of the moral alliance depends more on the English schoolmaster than on any other considerations or conditions. What will be his attitude towards the eastern ally of England, and what will be his message of the Russian people to the rising generation in this country who will be brought up in a new atmosphere of international intercourse? Can the people, literature, art, national ethics and ideals of Russia become a fascination for the British public?

In an average Englishman's mind Russia figures as a country of tyranny and cruelty on the part of the Government and of extreme barbarism on the part of the people. And the idea of England becoming an ally of Russia seems to be most revolting to some people in this country. I agree that the general outlines of the Russian picture, as they are conceived in this country, are on the whole correct. Yes, the Russian Government has no mercy for the people who revolt and struggle against its violence and arbitrary rule. Siberian mines and prisons are filled with political offenders, and every stone you step on in the Russian streets complains of the sufferings of the people. But one must not forget that with every generation destroyed in the prison cells and in the snow of Siberia, Russia makes a great stride towards her liberty, and that Russia of to-day is different from that of ten years ago, when she was convulsed by

the war disaster in the Far East and by the revolution at home. The constant political struggle did not prevent the Russian nation from building a large empire and attaining a considerable degree of material and moral progress. The political and cultural backwardness of Russia has its causes in the unfortunate history of the country. For many centuries Russian Slavs had to fight incessantly the wild tribes pouring on the Russian plain from Asia. To preserve their national independence, Russians sacrificed their personal liberty and happiness by putting them on the altar of their State. The fact that Russia is making supreme efforts to redeem her freedom, should draw the English people closer to striving Russia, and if the political life of the Russian people is more gloomy than that in England, it does not necessitate that the two countries should be estranged in their relations. The present war is promising a new impulse and start to the political and social regeneration in Russia. With the throwing off of the evil influences of Germany and the coming into closer contact with free England, Russia will be greatly assisted in her aspirations to a happier life.

As to Russian barbarism, I am ready again to make some concessions. As a whole Russia is a barbaric country, but I am not afraid of using this term, for I know its real value. By barbarism as an external state of the country, I mean deficiency of material comfort. No doubt the external culture of Russia is in an inferior stage to the advanced European countries. There are several reasons that account for it, and among them one must not forget the vastness of the territorial area of the Russian Empire. Its territory occupies 22 million square kilometres, and the country is bounded by about 70 million kilometres of frontier. The geographical distances constitute a great

obstacle to the spread of culture in the country, and this is aggravated by the natural peculiarities of the surface, where wooded zones are intermixed with marshes and lakes, with impassable ravines and sands. But an Englishman leaving for Russia with his head full of traditional stories of wolves running in the streets of Moscow, of primitive accommodation in the hotels of the Russian capital, and of other wild things attached to Russian Ivan, will be much surprised to find the great Russian towns presenting quite a European aspect, bearing at the same time some distinctive features of Russian art. Foreign visitors to Moscow find it a very picturesque city, while those who know the history of Petrograd describe it as one of the wonders of the world. A prolonged visit to the country gradually upsets the whole preconceived idea of a traveller new to the country. He is able to learn then that Russia occupies one of the most important places in the world-market, that she has secured a very strong industrial position, that her material culture in the centres of her commerce and industry can be favourably compared with that of any other European community. As soon as English writers turned to consider the mind, heart, and conscience of the Russian, they had also to change to a great extent their traditional ideas of the intellectual and moral characteristics of the Russian people. Beneath the ignorance of the Russian peasantry they discovered great spiritual resources which enabled the Russian nation to produce several writers of universal fame. In the higher intellectual sphere of human activity Russians have gained the same remarkable results, which constitute a fair contribution to universal culture. Russian art has captivated connoisseurs by its taste, originality, and brilliancy. It displays imagination and skill, and embodies a subtle sentiment of nature. Recently the English public

had an opportunity of learning that Ivan has perfected at home most charming dances, has created enchanting and original music, and composed touching songs with their melodies full of the charm of antiquity and simplicity. The ideas produced by Russians have become a fertile force, capable of supplying intellectual food for the most advanced nations:

As to the national character of the Russian, it has been stated by several writers that its outstanding feature is his intense admiration and enthusiasm for ideals. Idealism is the mainspring of the mentally untrained Russian peasant, as well as of the intellectuals. This idealism finds its expression among the Russian peasantry in their deep religious sense. They are inspired with great longing for religious truth, and religion has been the most vital force in all epochs of the history of the Russian nation. It is reflected in the term of endearment applied by the Russian to his country. He calls her 'holy Russia.'

The artistic nature of the Russian peasant with his inborn sense of the spiritual is greatly fascinated by the poetical truth of Christian teaching, and the ideals inspired by Jesus Christ together with the traditional beliefs exercise a strong influence on the simple minds of the Russian peasantry. Being ever placed between the anvil of poverty and the hammer of labour, the Russian peasant lost all his faith in happiness in this world, and entrusted his body and soul to heavenly powers. He is indifferent to the material side of life, and this accounts for his unaggressive features, for his denunciation of temporal authorities and their ambitions.

The religiousness of the common Russian people is the feature that most impresses a foreigner. For Mr. H. G. Wells Russia is the country where Christianity is alive, and he calls the Russian people an 'organically Christian

nation.' In *De Profundis* Oscar Wilde paid wonderful tribute to the spiritual idealism of Russia by admiring the personality of one of the greatest living representatives of the Russian people, Prince Peter Kropotkin. 'Two of the most perfect lives I have come across in my own experience,' says Oscar Wilde, 'are the lives of Verlaine and of Prince Kropotkin; both of them are men who have passed years in prison: the first, the one Christian poet since Dante; the other a man with a soul of that beautiful white Christ which seems coming out of Russia.' This aspect of the national character of the Russian should not be neglected in discussing the Russian 'barbarism.'

The deep religious sense of the Russian gives the key for the interpretation of his national literature. It is an essentially human literature. From Derzhavin, who enthusiastically appealed to the newly-born Tsarevich to be 'a man on the throne,' that is to say, to be always kind and generous, down to Maxim Gorky, who makes one of his tramps exclaim, 'Man! it sounds superb,' Russian literature is one long plea for humanity. Turgenev, Dostoyevsky, and Tolstoy stand out as most devoted apostles of love, pity, and mercy for the suffering, the oppressed, and the injured.

The warm sense of humanity in the Russian heart is incompatible with the aggressiveness attributed to the Russian nation by those who confuse her with the Russian governing body. No, Russia had never made a religion of militarism, and every inch of Russian character is opposed to the military spirit.

Having faintly described the moving spirit of Russian 'barbarism,' I leave it to my reader to compare it with the aspirations of the Teuton 'Kultur' as they are shown by their leaders and as they are being realized by their soldiers in France, Belgium, and Poland.

M. V. TROFIMOV.

'UN ROMANCIER ALSACIEN': ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN.

IL est bien passé de mode (il faut dire 'il' bien qu'ils aient été deux et qui, à la fin, se sont séparés dans la vie); il est bien passé de mode; les historiens de la littérature le dédaignent ou l'omettent; il est tombé non pas même 'en quenouille,' mais en école, en Angleterre du moins où *le Conscrit de 1813* et *Waterloo* semblent former, avec *le Roi des Montagnes* et *Colomba* le fond de la littérature française à l'usage des jeunes Anglais qui apprennent notre langue. Le sort d'Erckmann-Chatrion est à peu près celui de Jules Verne: de tous deux on ne parle qu'avec un sourire, un sourire où il y a l'évocation de bons vieux souvenirs d'enfance et un peu de condescendance. Ni l'un ni l'autre ne méritent ce mépris: il n'est peut-être pas d'écrivains qui au siècle passé aient eu une plus grande influence; ils ont agi tous deux profondément sur l'âme moyenne française, parce qu'ils ont passionné les jeunes français entre dix et quinze ans. Qui sait combien de vocations a suscitées Jules Verne? Il est pour beaucoup dans ce réveil des énergies nationales, dans ce goût de la science et dans ce goût de l'action, et dans ce goût de la science unie à l'action; il a été un infatigable 'professeur d'énergie,' il a réveillé en France le goût de la force, du beau risque, du sport et de l'aventure, du voyage et de la colonisation. Et aujourd'hui encore, il est peu de français, et même de jeunes français, dans le souvenir desquels ne vivent les récits de l'alsacien-lorrain. Il en est sans doute beaucoup dans les tranchées que, même à leur insu, soutient et exalte l'enthousiasme qu'ils ont puisé, enfants, dans a lecture fiévreuse de *l'Invasion*, de *Madame Thérèse* et des autres 'Romans nationaux.' 1915 répond à 1815, le grand drame d'aujourd'hui reproduit à bien des

égards le grand drame d'alors; la 'grande guerre' des nations clôt le siècle des nationalités qu'inaugura 1793, et peut-être ouvre une époque nouvelle, celle des guerres de l'humanité; les yeux se tournent à nouveau vers l'Alsace; c'est le moment de relire le vieux romancier alsacien.

Erckmann-Chatrion a charmé plus qu'aucun autre l'âme française, et plus qu'aucun autre il a contribué à la former. Et pourtant Erckmann-Chatrion est resté profondément, essentiellement alsacien, tout comme l'Alsace était restée l'Alsace et elle était si passionnément française: parce que la France, sûre de son charme et n'ayant pas besoin de la force pour se faire aimer, avait toujours respecté son âme alsacienne.

L'Alsace est double: il y a la plaine et il y a la montagne; et dans Erckmann-Chatrion il y a aussi la plaine et il y a la montagne.

La plaine, c'est cette plaine d'Alsace, une des plus riches et des plus heureuses terres au monde; un soleil généreux qui fait éclore les feuilles et les fleurs quinze jours plus tôt que dans les régions environnantes d'Allemagne, et, en automne, achève de mûrir les vins du Rhin au flanc des collines vosgiennes; cette clarté du ciel de Strasbourg dont Goethe vieillit aimait à se souvenir; ces villages de vergers dont les grosses maisons cossues s'étendent largement, et ces villages de vignes où les maisons blanches se serrent pour ne pas perdre un pouce du précieux terrain; ces terres d'alluvions, ces blés, ces houblonnières, ces prés d'où s'envolent les cigognes, ces villages et ces villes, et, au loin, dominant toute cette plaine, la flèche hardie, la flèche rose de la cathédrale de Strasbourg qui, au jour tombant, prend la transparence délicate de la fleur du pêcher: 'Strasbourg, ô Strasbourg, ô

ville merveilleusement belle. . . ’ comme dit une des vieilles chansons mélancoliques du Rhin ! Pays de vie facile et large, de nourriture abondante, où le ‘notable’ comme son village, comme sa maison, comme ses meubles massifs et polis, est solidement et largement assis sur cette terre, a de l’aplomb, de l’ampleur, de la carrure, un peu de lourdeur aussi. L’appétit y est solide et la table y tient autant de place dans la vie qu’en Flandre ; l’esprit aussi y est solide, appliqué à l’utile, fidèle aux sages maximes, d’un bon sens inexorable ; ‘le naturel de ce peuple est la joie,’ écrivait le premier intendant français, l’alsacien est d’une bonhomie facilement narquoise, il a le goût de la plaisanterie, et sa plaisanterie aussi est solide et largement épanouie ; il en fait à l’occasion une arme pour en défendre son âme et sauver son indépendance, car cette vieille terre de franchises communales et de villes libres alliées à la Suisse a par dessus tout l’horreur du despotisme, le goût de l’indépendance et de la liberté.

Eckmann-Chatrion s’est complu visiblement à peindre la vie plantureuse de sa province, il y a mis l’application joyeuse, l’insistance, la touche grasse et débordante des peintres flamands. Le récit est coupé à intervalles réguliers, et rapprochés, par de copieux festins copieusement racontés ; après tout, un bon repas bien arrosé, n’est-ce pas pour le peuple, et pour d’autres, la forme la plus naturelle de la communion et de la fraternisation des âmes ? La bouteille de rudensheim et le Kirschenwasser sont les comparses forcés, les compagnons familiers de ses romans : les cœurs s’attendrissent et se réchauffent, les yeux se mouillent et le héros d’Eckmann-Chatrion commence son récit. . . Il fallait un flamand, ou il fallait un alsacien pour faire un héros plutôt sympathique de *Jami Fritz*, ce bon gros garçon bientôt vieux garçon, bon vivant et ami de la bouteille, touché sur le tard d’amour, ou

de quelque chose d’analogue — par la vertu de quel printemps ou la grâce de quelle bouteille ? — pour une gracieuse et aimable gretchen aux tresses blondes et aux yeux bleus. Les délicats s’en sont froissés, et Francisque Sarcey lui-même qui n’avait pourtant ni l’esthétique ni l’âme d’un ascète consumé, ni d’un pur esprit dans l’attente d’une paire d’ailes, reprochait au conteur alsacien son ‘matérialisme’ alourdissant. Mais encore une fois, un bon repas n’est pas à dédaigner, une belle cave est une belle chose, Eckmann entendait peindre les alsaciens comme ils sont, et comme le dit le peintre Kasper à son vieux maître qui veut l’envoyer en Italie : ‘. . . On nous assomme avec le grand style, le genre grave, l’idéal grec . . . J’aime le naturel et les andouilles cuites dans leur jus. Quand les Italiens feront des saucisses plus délicates que celles de la mère Gredel, et que les personnages de leurs bas-reliefs et de leurs tableaux n’aurent pas l’air de poser, comme des acteurs devant le public, alors j’irai m’établir à Rome. En attendant je reste ici. Mon Vatican à moi, c’est la taverne de maître Sébaldus. C’est là que j’étudie les beaux modèles et les effets de lumière en vidant des chopes. C’est bien plus amusant que de rêver sur des ruines. . . .’*

Eckmann-Chatrion, bon alsacien, a le génie du bon sens. Les romans nationaux sont une épopée de l’héroïsme, du courage patriotique au moins, mais aussi du sens rassis ; et de ses contes fantastiques même on pourrait tirer un recueil de maximes à l’usage de la vie courante et de la sagesse moyenne. Il met inévitablement ses récits de guerre dans la bouche d’un vieillard ‘plein d’usage et raison,’ et l’enthousiasme des vingt ans est ainsi revu et corrigé par une longue vie d’expérience des choses et d’usage des hommes. Et c’est ainsi qu’il peut admirer le génie de Napoléon, comprendre mieux que personne l’âme héroïque et

* *Le Combat d’Ours.*

rude des vieux soldats de l'Empire et déplorer les ruines accumulées par ce rêve stérile et sanglant de gloire. Il raconte les montagnards vosgiens défendant leurs montagnes contre l'invasion, mais il sait et il dit que les ennemis étaient dans leur droit et que les peuples foulés et opprimés par les armées et l'ambition de Napoléon étaient devenus des nations luttant pour leur indépendance comme la France de 1793. Ce peintre de batailles est un pacifiste, il l'est par ses réflexions; il l'est, ce qui est mieux, par le récit exact et brutal des horreurs de la guerre: ce convoi de malades abandonné dans la neige et d'où s'envolent par milliers les corbeaux,* la charrette des blessés arrêtée devant l'église de Phalsbourg,† et plus impulsive encore, la scène du croate trouvé mort au fond de la grange d'un petit village alsacien.‡ . . . Le bon sens est une qualité précieuse dans la vie ordinaire, dangereuse aux heures de crise et d'entraînement national: après 1866, la popularité d'Eckmann-Chatrion décrut subitement, on ne fut pas loin de trouver Eckmann trop allemand et de prendre sa modération pour de la froideur patriotique.

L'esprit d'Eckmann-Chatrion n'est pas attique, ni parisien, ni même champenois, il est alsacien. L'Alsace est une 'marche' de la France en Germanie, une terre de passage, d'échange et de conflit entre deux peuples et deux civilisations: Excellente position pour observer les différences entre les types d'hommes, comparer, et sourire; —il faut dire que l'esprit alsacien, avant la grande épreuve de l'Alsace en tout cas, rit et rit largement plus souvent qu'il ne sourit.—L'humour d'Eckmann-Chatrion manque souvent de finesse; mais son ironie n'est jamais méchante; elle a quelque chose de large et de franc, et

aussi de cette bonhomie de l'Allemagne d'il y a un siècle; elle est simple, sans allusions délicates, mais sans amertume et nourrie d'observation d'une amusante justesse. L'idée de faire raconter le blocus de Phalsbourg par le vieux juif Moïse, le plus pacifique, le moins patriote des hommes est en elle-même une trouvaille; tout le portrait est amusant; les tribulations du vieux marchand d'habits soldat malgré lui, l'angoisse de voir la ville bloquée avant que les tonneaux d'alcool sur lesquels il a risqué sa fortune soient arrivés, une absence totale d'esprit national et un amour infini pour le commerce, un esprit de famille touchant, un bon sens qui serait parfait s'il ne manquait si totalement d'héroïsme; et aussi cette sorte d'humanité des juifs, cette horreur du sang: l'anecdote est parfaite du déserteur arrêté par la faute de Moïse, puis le désespoir du pauvre homme effrayé de ce qu'il a fait et qui remue ciel et terre pour sauver son déserteur, lui trouver un avocat; la plaidoirie de Burguet, l'acquiescement, et, naturellement, pour conclure le tout, le festin à la *Ville de Metz* qui célèbre la victoire!

Mais l'Alsace est aussi la montagne; de chaque côté de la riche plaine où gronde le Rhin s'élèvent les masses sombres de la Forêt-Noire germanique et les croupes des Vosges couvertes de hautes forêts, ou dominées souvent de ruines romantiques. Les Vosges sont une terre de légende; leur grande forêt, 'la Vôge' comme disent les gens du pays, où les carolingiens menaient leurs grandes chasses, où erraient en l'an 1000 encore l'auroch, le bison et l'élan, où les seuls bruits humains étaient la cloche du monastère et l'appel du cor dans les sombres vallées, la vôge avec ses sapins noirs, ses prairies brillantes, et, plus haut, sa 'chaume' désolée et ses hauts lacs pensifs a gardé quelque chose de son mystère et de son étrange attrait. Et la montagne

* *Le Blocus*, I.

† *Madame Thérèse*, VII.

‡ *L'Invasion*, III.

donne à cette Flandre méridionale qu'est l'Alsace une poésie, une qualité de rêve, un élément de vie aventureuse et rude : le vieux burg avec tout son passé se dresse au dessus des moissons qui frissonnent soudain à un souffle qui passe, qui sent la forêt et qui vient des hauts lieux.

La montagne est aussi dans Erckmann-Chatrian ; elle y est avec ses rêveries et ses légendes : Rêveries d'un caractère germanique et hoffmanesque dans les *Contes des Bords du Rhin* et les contes des premières années : mélange savoureux de bouffonnerie, de fantastique scientifique, de rêveries métaphysiques. C'est bien la petite ville où les toits sont biscornus sous les rayons de la lune, où dans les rues tortueuses et étroites des bourgeois respectables et grotesques vont gravement, leur perruque dans le dos, à de petites affaires ; Monsieur le conseiller-privé salue profondément Mr. le directeur du Musée archéologique, ils ont étudié ensemble la philosophie à Tubingue ; il y a des culs-de-sac noirs comme l'encre, des chats pleurent dans les gouttières, le vent du Rhin fait grincer les girouettes, le cabaliste Hans Weinland ricane tout seul à des idées qui lui viennent ; l'oncle Zacharias médite le sixième chœur de sa symphonie des 'Séraphins' ; le docteur Hâselnoos marche à petits pas, sa tête de rat coiffée d'un tricorne, sa petite queue sautillant à droite et à gauche—et tout à coup il se penche, cueille un chat par 'la tignasse,' le fourre dans la grande basque de son habit, où il l'étrangle voluptueusement. . . . C'est la part de la Forêt-Noire dans Erckmann-Chatrian.—Rêveries de la Forêt-Noire ; légendes du Rhin : chevaliers, reîtres, soudards, grands coups d'épée, crimes mystérieux qui après des siècles tourmentent les descendants du terrible Hugues-le-loup, combats obscurs du passé. Car tout un passé sommeille au dessus des plaines d'Alsace : les ruines du burg recouvrent les pierres du castellum romain, qui

avait remplacé la forteresse celtique ; et, avant, il y avait d'autres pierres et d'autres forteresses, d'autres postes où les guetteurs surveillaient le Rhin et l'autre rive. Erckmann-Chatrian a su un jour faire passer en pleine histoire actuelle l'ombre inquiétante de ce passé moins mort peut-être qu'il ne paraît : le fou Yégof avec sa couronne de fer blanc, son sceptre et son corbeau va la nuit par la montagne, et, aux hurlements des loups, il évoque les ombres des guerriers des vieilles invasions qui sont tombés dans les montagnes ; et le fou Yégof sera l'espion Yégof qui conduira les armées de l'Invasion dans les défilés des Vosges ; et quand, avant, à la veillée dans la ferme alsacienne, Yégof commence ses histoires obscures et raconte comment lui, Yégof, des siècles auparavant avec ceux de sa race, combattirent et massacrèrent ceux-mêmes qui sont là autour du feu, les paysans rient d'abord, et puis, tout à coup, la vieille Catherine Lefèvre pâlit : elle *se souvient !* et les autres se souviennent aussi, et ils se précipitent sur le fou. . . . La montagne est encore dans le romancier alsacien par ces types rudes et vigoureusement dessinés du schlitteur de bois, du bûcheron, du 'ségare' de la scierie qu' actionne le torrent, du fermier anabaptiste, du chasseur et du contrebandier. Au dessus de la plaine et de sa vie plantureuse, il y a les sommets, le goût âpre de la vie libre, la rude atmosphère des vieilles mœurs des gens de la montagne, et l'œuvre d'Erckmann en est sauvée de son matérialisme, et de la platitude où incline toujours le bon sens. Heinrich, le chasseur du Honeck, pour se punir de son crime, descend dans la vallée. Il s'est fait tisserand ; mais quand le soleil couchant jette un dernier rayon sur la muraille décrépite, les gravures de Montbéliard, le métier, le vieux tisserand s'arrête, et comme un épervier en cage, il se met à penser à ses montagnes :

'Il se tut quelques secondes, puis tout

à coup comme entraîné malgré lui : "Oh ! s'écria-t-il, les montagnes ! . . . les forêts ! . . . la solitude ! . . . la vie des bois ! . . ."

Il étendait les bras vers les cimes lointaines des Vosges dont les masses noires se dessinaient à l'horizon, et de grosses larmes roulaient dans ses yeux.

'Pauvre vieux ! me dis-je en le quittant, pauvre vieux !'

Et je remontai tout pensif le petit sentier qui longe la côte, au milieu des bruyères.*

Tartarin de Tarascon avait en lui un Tartarin - Quichotte et un Tartarin-Sáncho qui livraient de terribles batailles dans son âme honnête ; il semble qu' il y ait eu en Ereckmann-Chatrion un combat semblable entre son âme de la plaine et son âme de la montagne. On peut voir ce combat symbolisé en l'histoire de 'Maître Daniel Rock' : D'une part le vieux forgeron et ses deux fils, descendants des vieux forgeurs de cuirasse et d'épée, lisant passionnément les chroniques des seigneurs, amis du curé et tenant farouchement aux vieilles mœurs ; de l'autre, les ingénieurs qui viennent construire le chemin de fer qui révolutionnera le pays, apportera l'argent, mais détruira les vieilles mœurs ; le jour de l'inauguration du chemin-de-fer, on voit le forgeron et ses deux fils sortir lentement du tunnel et présenter à la locomotive qui vient sur eux les énormes lances qu' ils ont forgées dans les ruines du château sur la montagne. Ils sont broyés, la locomotive est victorieuse. Et dans l'œuvre d'Ereckmann-Chatrion aussi la locomotive est victorieuse ; elle l'est trop souvent et on trouve avec un peu d'ennui dans ces romans ce qu' on peut appeler la philosophie du second Empire : une sagesse pratique et utilitaire, un anticléricalisme un peu court, l'Évangile du Progrès, la foi à la machine à vapeur

* *Le Tisserand de la Steinbach.*

et à la Science qui doivent amener automatiquement le bonheur des hommes ; religion et philosophie qui trouvèrent leur suprême épanouissement dans la grande fête, dans la grande foire de l'Exposition Universelle de 1866.

Mais même alors, même en ses derniers romans où le merveilleux disparaît, un souffle anime encore le récit et l'élève, c'est le souffle de la Révolution, c'est la foi dans les Droits de l'Homme ; et c'est ici encore, sous une autre forme, l'esprit de la montagne. En ceci encore du reste Ereckmann-Chatrion exprime bien l'âme de sa province, l'âme de cette Alsace éprise de liberté et qui en 1789 s'est donnée à la France dans l'amour et l'enthousiasme d'une foi et d'une espérance communes ; de cette Alsace qui en 1793 descendit de ses villages, chantant, en sabots et en pantalons de toile grise, pour joindre les armées de la République ; de cette Alsace de Strasbourg où un jeune officier, porté au dessus de lui-même par les grands événements et l'âme ardente de la foule qui remplissait les rues, chanta pour la première fois ce 'Chant de l'armée du Rhin' qui allait devenir 'la Marseillaise' ; de Strasbourg où les statues des jeunes généraux de la Révolution, de Desaix parmi les saules sur la route de Kehl et de Kléber sur la Place d'Armes semblent protester et attendre. . . .

On ne saurait laisser Ereckmann-Chatrion que sur une parole de bon sens ; et le mieux alors est de le citer. Il est probable que si ce pacifiste revenait aujourd'hui, il redirait les paroles par lesquelles Madame Thérèse concluait ses longues discussions avec le docteur Jacob Wagner :

'Vous défendez très bien la paix, je suis de votre avis ; seulement tâchons de nous débarrasser d'abord de ceux qui veulent la guerre, et pour nous en débarrasser, faisons-la mieux qu'eux. Vous et moi nous serions bientôt d'accord,

car nous sommes de bonne foi, et nous voulons la justice ; mais les autres, il faut bien les convertir à coups de canon,

puisque c'est la seule voix qu'ils entendent, et la seule raison qu'ils comprennent.'

PIERRE CHAVANNES.

DISTRESS OF NATIONS AND ANGUISH OF HEARTS.

GREAT wars tend to an *Umwertung aller Werte*. This phrase from Nietzsche will, I hope, offend no one. There is in it no veiled attack on Germany, no veiled defence of Germany. I chose it to characterize a common difficulty—common, I repeat, though many do not share it, for they are clear in their own minds one way or another.

Somese in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING an anti-German bias, others a failure to present the case against Germany. Neither group is satisfied ; both cannot be satisfied ; perhaps neither ought to be satisfied. I would ask one and all to consider the personal difficulties I propose to state here, and to extend to MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING the charity which, of course, they would extend to one another.

I acknowledge a personal debt to Germany. I confess to a personal affection for Germany. I take the name of the country to represent a sum total of intellectual, artistic, moral, and personal associations which needs no further definition. At the same time I am conscious of as old a debt and affection in the case of Russia, a still older debt and affection in the case of France, and if I forget my debt and affection in the case of England, 'let my right hand forget her cunning.' That is a cheap charity which begins at the neglect of home affections and the repudiation of home debts. What principle shall reconcile these conflicting debts, these conflicting affections ?

German friends living in England suffer the extremity of this conflict. Their loyalty to England, the land of their daily life and lifelong interests, is in

conflict with their loyalty to Germany, the land of their racial and spiritual past. Their dual nationality is an honest and a painful fact. They have friends and relations fighting on opposite sides, and may well cry in their hearts with Marie von Suttner, *Die Waffen nieder*. There are English people in the same case, I would have them remember.

They are hurt by apparent signs of suspicion, by chance remarks with no personal reference. The offender may be unaware of their nationality, and imagine that his remark is sympathetic. We are hurt by their misunderstanding of England, as it seems to us ; by their defence of Germany in Belgium, which is an attack on Belgium.

Such German friends may be members of the Association. I am glad that they remain members. I recognize, as a member of the Association, an obligation towards them. At the same time we have members from Japan, France and Belgium, perhaps from Russia and Serbia. I recognize a double obligation towards them. My statement of obligation and affection in the case of Germany may be an offence to my fellow member from Belgium and France, who has grounds for feeling more deeply than I ought that Germany has exalted destruction to the sublimity of a creed.

So hurt both of us must be. Let us not shut our eyes to that bitter fact, but face it. Then we may learn how to help one another. Do not let us imagine that feeling, because it is deep, is righteous ; or, because it is gentle, is just.

This means we must speak of the difficulty. We cannot destroy it by ignor-

ing it. I advocate, therefore, the policy of the open rather than the closed mouth. And the Association has spoken. The Executive Committee passed a resolution on the destruction of the University of Louvain (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, October, 1914), it has appointed a sub-committee to safeguard German interests (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, March, 1915)—*i.e.*, it has spoken fitfully, just like MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. In fact, the difficulties are so great that at present nothing better is possible.

Let us consider what has been published in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. Frankly, some of it has given offence. Let us face that fact.

In 'From Here and There' (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, November) there was published without comment a quotation from Direktor Walter's letter to his friends in America, as printed in *Monatshefte für Deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*, which is described on its cover as the organ of the National German-American Teachers' Union. If this letter had appeared in the daily press it might not have been quoted in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING. What reasons were there for quoting it? I will give reasons which are of importance to me. In 1913 Direktor Walter was the guest of the Association at its annual dinner. In a genial speech he gently ridiculed the sentiment of nationality. One morning in his boyhood the Prussian Army marched into Hessen, and he was told he was now a Prussian. He felt no difference. He had more in common with many Englishmen than with many of his own countrymen.

In August, 1914, Direktor Walter is volunteering to serve his country in the field, and writing the letter quoted. I like the old warrior for his national feeling. I will say nothing about the motives attributed to England. But anyone listening to that after-dinner speech

might have thought here at any rate is a sincere friend of England and no narrow patriot. In the stress of conflict we find him as good a hater, as narrow a patriot, as any of them. The sincerity of the man on both occasions cannot be in question. The case is typical; it is those unpleasant facts which we have to face, and by facing them, change them in future and happier years. I feel no antagonism towards Direktor Walter for his action, but I do regard such actions as of serious importance.

One point I will add. The Teachers' Union, like many other German societies professedly concerned with German literature and language, is engaged in political propaganda. There is nothing wrong in that, though I do not wish the Modern Language Association to imitate it. But it is another fact we must face, this intimate association between literature and politics, language and life, which Germans all the world over so industriously exploit.

Another stone of offence has been the verses on the advance towards Calais. They seem to me good-humoured nonsense. Cannot we indulge in a little nonsense without loss of dignity, without charges of insult? To me it is a sane plan for shaking off the weight of horror that hangs round our necks. The soldier in the fighting line understands that. I do not like all that appears in *Punch*, but *Punch* does make for sanity. Yet, if such good-humoured nonsense offends rather than relieves feelings, it fails in its object. We should in that case accept as reasonable the objection that such verses have no professional interest, and refrain from printing them in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

Offence has been taken at references to German professors—*e.g.*, Kuno Meyer. This is part of the larger question of foreign professors with which a strong Sub-Committee is dealing. It is a subject

which closely interests members of the Association, as articles and letters in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING have shown. Facts as they come to light should be set down, not in malice, but as material on which to base a reasoned decision; or are we to hold over everything till the end of the war, and then forget? To forget is a cheap method of forgiveness.

Letters may be considered in a group by themselves. We have had letters advocating the study of Italian, Spanish, and Russian, and if this has been proposed sometimes at the expense of German, is it unfair to allow the advocates of these languages their say because at this moment they have the chance of gaining a hearing?

Here I wish to make a remark which has nothing to do with my general argument. Professor H. A. Strong suggests that we may learn German in Swiss, Dutch, or Belgian Universities (MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, October, 1914); I cannot regard this as an efficient substitute for the study of German in Germany, though the plan may be worth consideration as an aid to the study of German in English Universities while German Universities are closed to us. If such a plan will extend or intensify our study of German, let us adopt it, and examine further what aids to this study may be found in Scandinavia, Russia, and U.S.A. I fancy Switzerland would suit our needs best. If we go to Zürich, Basel, or elsewhere, we can obtain something well worth having, but it will not be that intimate knowledge of German life and ways only gained from daily intercourse with Germans in Germany. If we study French in Geneva or Lausanne we shall not come away without big profits, but that will not be a real substitute for the study of French in Paris. By all means let us acquire a sympathetic knowledge of Swiss life and ways. The English in the

playground of Europe neglect their opportunities too often; they become narrow specialists in mountaineering and winter sports. Without personal knowledge of German life and ways we do not know German.

In support of the policy of the open mouth, I would quote the letter from the Vice-Chancellor of Leeds on Dr. Stiarg. A mistake in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING afforded the opportunity for an authoritative statement. Without that mistake we should not have had the correction, but the mistake learnt often by word of mouth would have remained uncorrected in our minds.

If the correspondence has been one-sided, why has not one of the critics taken action, or the German Sub-Committee? Here was a possible opening. And let no one suppose that the editor has exercised no restraining influence on correspondents. That is another case where feelings may very well have been hurt.

The *Briefwechsel* must be considered apart from the correspondence. I have had opinions from important members of the Association for and against its publication. I can understand both. I state my opinion. We are up against a feeling which cannot be dismissed as of no importance to us, because it is so widespread and so intense. I have had amazing evidence of this from American and Swiss, as well as English, sources. Shall we change this feeling by ignoring it? I believe the only plan is to face the facts, whether we like them or not, whether in the past we have liked or disliked Germany and the Germans. It is said that the matter has been sufficiently dealt with in the daily press. I do not think so. Letters to the Editor show my opinion is shared by others. It is as honest, as reasonable an opinion as the contrary. I claim no more than equality of treatment for it. By all means let us remember the

evidence of goodwill. It is blind folly to ignore the ill-wind because it blows no one any good.

In considering the possible effect produced by what appears in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, we must not leave out of account the weight of authority attaching to the President's address, and the remarks made by Mr. Headlam and others in the debate on the teaching of history. Should not the prominent position they occupy correct the impression of anti-German bias discovered by some of our members elsewhere?

What other line of action is possible? Some critics seem to have in their minds a policy of neutrality. I would ask them to analyze the contents of such a policy. What does it mean in action? Perhaps a policy of silence. And this means, logically, print nothing that has any reference to the life we are living, for our whole life is affected by the events of the last nine months. Is there any literary or scholastic recluse who will maintain the contrary?

Will he remind us of discussions on method, of the golden age of German literature, of the rainbow world of music? The experience of the last nine months must alter our relations even to the great masters of method, language, and music. This does not mean that we are to abandon ideas associated with Germans and put their books and their music in the fire. It does not mean to honour and love the men themselves less. Even if anyone were to hate Germans and things German—which God forbid—it would be the depth of folly not to study so power-

ful an enemy in all his works. But Germans living and dead are members of a corporate body represented by the German Government, the German Army, the German Navy, and German officials. If we are bound even against our will (I hope such unwillingness does not exist) not to forget Goethe and Beethoven, just as we are bound not to forget our personal friends in Germany, in Austria, in Hungary, yes, and in Turkey, so we are bound not to forget the actions, good and bad, of the German Government, the German Army, the German Navy, and the German people of the last nine months. And with that goes the obligation to remember the actions of the Belgians, the French, the Serbians, the Russians, the Japanese—a personal and a national obligation. And how are they situated whose 'spiritual home' (Lord Haldane's phrase) has been, say, with Germans, French, and Russians? There is inevitably a bitter conflict of obligation, and a still more bitter conflict of affection.

Can we keep these conflicting obligations and affections in separate pigeon-holes, keep them from meeting, keep them from speaking, and should we if we can? It is moral and intellectual cowardice, this policy of silence. As a corporate body, we shall not attain harmony by such a policy. We shall not reach agreement by agreeing to say nothing. In such an attempt to be fair, non-partisan, neutral, we should be fair to no one. Let us be honest enough to recognize the darkness into which the war has plunged us, and we may grope our way out into the light.

H. L. HURTON.

THE STUDY OF ITALIAN.

THE letter in your March number, signed 'T. Lerario,' which has been written to answer Miss Hutchinson's remarks on Italian in your December number, is a somewhat amusing example of the difference between the Latin idea of what is suitable or interesting reading for young people and the ideas prevalent in these islands.

The exceedingly 'educative as well as instructive works' of Foscolo, Parini, Monti, Gioberti, etc., would, I am afraid, be voted appallingly dull by our youth. *Cuore*, by De Amicis, has many merits, but has a too sickly sentimental tone to appeal to the more robust ideals at least of the Anglo-Saxon branch of our population. From the title, too, I imagine Mantegazza's *Glorie e Gioie del Lavoro* would not find much favour.

But there is a whole series of delightful books in modern Italian, not suited perhaps for children just beginning a foreign language, but which would certainly be appreciated by pupils of fifteen and upwards.

To name a few: there are Fucini's collections of stories, *All' Aria aperta* and *Le Veglie di Neri*; Capuana's book containing *Il Drago*, and other stories—his *C'era una Volta* is a collection of fairy-tales for young children.

Then we have Cordelia's *Piccoli Eroi*—this perhaps too goody-goody in parts for the Anglo-Saxon, but yet with many really good stories in it. Then there are books of a strictly didactic aim, such as Petrocchi, *In Casa e Fuori*; Franceschi, *In Città e in Campagna*; Stoppani, *Il bel Paese*. These three seem ideally suited for direct method work. The

second, indeed, seems to aim at teaching Tuscan to non-Tuscans.

In Adamoli, *Ardizzino e Oldradina*, and in Pio, *Drammi della Storia italiana*, we find an Italian attempt (not, perhaps, very successful) to write historical stories for juveniles. Besides, there are an immense number of real boys' books of adventure by Salgari. I cannot give an opinion on these, as I have read none, but the titles seem to show a mixture of Jules Verne and Henty.

For more advanced students there are plenty of short stories by Castelnovo, Verga, Serao, which a careful teacher can select.

I leave out any mention of works already used in schools, such as the editions of Carcano by Hachette. But one should not omit in any list one classic, Goldoni's ever-fresh *La Locandiera*.

So far I have only spoken of books for school work, and of prose authors. But modern Italian possesses two features which make it particularly worthy of attention. It possesses a real living school of first-class poetry, with names so illustrious that it would be a waste of time to mention them. And it also possesses a solid historical literature, a branch of learning in which Italians have always excelled, which has many of the merits and avoids many of the defects of the much-vaunted German school.

So that there is plenty to read in Italian, without reference at all to the great classics of former days. And in what foreign literature does the preliminary study lead up to such an ultimate goal as the *Sommo Poeta*?

W. F. BUTLER.

EXTRACT FROM A REPORT ON A STAY AT A FRENCH UNIVERSITY.

L'ÉTUDIANT français est absolument libre. L'Université n'est qu'un corps de bâtiments comprenant des salles de conférences, des laboratoires, un musée et une bibliothèque. Il n'existe pas de 'collèges' dans notre sens du mot. L'étudiant loge où bon lui semble, et l'action disciplinaire exercée par le Conseil de l'université n'envisage que les fautes commises aux cours ou à l'occasion d'un examen. Si un étudiant trop exubérant traite un agent d'imbécile à l'occasion d'une 'vadrouille,' et par suite est condamné à une amende pour 'tapage nocturne,' c'est l'affaire de la police (mais il n'en parle pas trop, quand même, à l'université, car il y a des professeurs qui ont oublié les jours de leur jeunesse et sa joie de vivre). Quant aux cours, s'il s'en absente entièrement, personne ne dit mot; et s'il ne lui plaît pas de faire les compositions indiquées par les professeurs tous les mois, cela leur est parfaitement égal. Il y a une force qui contrôle l'étudiant français, et qui est beaucoup plus puissante que tous les règlements de nos collèges anglais—c'est la nécessité d'obtenir un grade pour gagner sa vie.

Ainsi la plupart des étudiants ceux qui n'ont pas de fortune, suivent les cours avec assiduité.

Cours Fermés.

Dans les cours publics, le conférencier se met en frais pour intéresser son auditoire, mais quand il s'agit des cours fermés, les choses ne se passent pas ainsi. Intéresser ses étudiants, c'est le moindre des soucis d'un professeur. En prenant comme point de départ un sujet du programme, il se propose deux buts, d'abord de discipliner les esprits de ses étudiants, de les rompre aux bonnes méthodes d'étudier la littérature, puis de leur apprendre l'art de bien parler et de bien écrire.

La culture française est une preuve de l'excellence des méthodes employées.

D'abord, la longue série d'épreuves éliminatoires, baccalauréat, licence, agrégation, et l'âpreté de la concurrence demandent une application intense et prolongée.

La littérature française, surtout du XVII^e siècle, est foncièrement classique. Elle se prête donc admirablement à l'enseignement où elle a pris la place d'honneur qu'occupait autrefois le latin.

Puis les cours des professeurs fournissent aux étudiants des modèles dans l'art de préparer et de présenter une leçon.

Et ces cours se complètent par les exercices

pratiques et par les compositions des étudiants. Surtout, la salle de conférence n'est que l'antichambre de la bibliothèque.

La Bibliothèque.

Les cours pivotent sur ce fait. Au commencement de l'année, deux ou trois leçons sont dédiées à une bibliographie des auteurs du programme et à des conseils sur l'usage de la bibliothèque. Les leçons que donnent les étudiants et les compositions écrites demandent un emploi intelligent de ces enseignements que les professeurs complètent au cours de l'année en signalant les nouvelles publications qu'ils considèrent importantes.

L'État aussi reconnaît qu'une bonne bibliothèque est un instrument indispensable de travail. Il exige de chaque étudiant qu'il acquitte des droits de bibliothèque en prenant l'inscription trimestrielle, mais ces droits sont des plus modiques, à savoir 2 fr. 50 par trimestre. La salle de bibliothèque est ouverte tout le jour à ceux qui veulent lire ou consulter des ouvrages, et le soir on peut sortir les livres dont on a besoin, à condition qu'on les rende le lendemain.

Les Exercices pratiques des Étudiants.

Souvent à la bibliothèque on voit un étudiant très affairé, entouré de livres dont il fait des extraits sur de petites fiches. Au rempart de livres, aux fiches, et surtout à l'air inquiet de l'individu, on reconnaît tous les prodromes d'une leçon prochaine. Dans les petites facultés comme celle de Caen, chaque étudiant peut trouver des occasions de donner des leçons. Aux cours de littérature nous étions vingt, et nous avions une leçon d'étudiant tous les jeudis et quelquefois le samedi aussi. En commençant par les 'anciens' chaque étudiant à son tour donne une leçon, bien souvent à contre-cœur, car il n'y a que les jeunes filles qui semblent accepter avec joie ces épreuves.

Ces exercices s'appellent des leçons, mais ils n'ont rien de la leçon telle que nous la concevons. Ce sont plutôt des conférences où l'étudiant joue le rôle du professeur. Pendant une heure, il examine une question littéraire ou analyse un texte, et à la fin le professeur assis à son côté après avoir demandé aux étudiants assemblés de critiquer la leçon, la critique lui-même. Le fond est presque toujours bon, et fait preuve de l'application et de l'intelligence de l'étudiant. Par contre, la plupart des leçons sont gâtées par une

mauvaise diction. Au lieu de se fier à des notes, l'étudiant écrit d'avance sa leçon, et penché sur ses fiches, il les lit d'un bout à l'autre sans regarder son auditoire. Naturellement dans sa hâte d'en finir, il part au galop; bientôt sa course prend une allure vertigineuse, et à la fin de la leçon, il n'y a que le professeur qui l'écoute. Ces défauts n'ont pas d'importance, car ils se corrigent avec l'expérience. L'essentiel, c'est la préparation des leçons dont chacune a été le fruit d'assez longues méditations. Ainsi l'étudiant arrive à accepter comme indispensable cette préparation consciencieuse, et contracte des habitudes dont il ne se défait jamais.

En outre des leçons de littérature française, il y a les exercices pratiques des cours d'anglais et de latin. Tous les mercredis nous avions deux heures de version et de commentaire oraux au cours de latin, et le jeudi une heure du cours d'anglais était dévouée à des exercices pareils. Et là comme ailleurs se manifeste le trait dominant de la mentalité française—la passion pour la vérité. La bête noire d'un professeur français, c'est une traduction où l'exactitude est sacrifiée à l'élégance. Il faut chercher d'abord à faire ressortir dans la version la valeur de chaque mot de l'original. Il faut aussi essayer de reproduire et l'atmosphère de la période et le style de l'auteur. S'il s'agit de traduire de français en anglais il faut adoucir la hardiesse des métaphores parce que le Français pensant en idées et l'Anglais en images, le dernier voit en coneret ce qui n'est qu'une figure au premier. Il faut satisfaire à toutes ces conditions avant de se soucier de la facilité de la traduction. On comprendra donc pourquoi nous avons passé six mois à traduire six pages des 'Seven Seas' de Kipling, mais quelle admirable discipline que cet examen de chaque mot et la recherche de son équivalent.

Les Conférences des Professeurs.

Naturellement dans les cours des professeurs, les depositaires de la tradition universitaire, cette tendance trouve sa plus haute manifestation. Le professeur français pousse le respect du fait jusqu'à l'exagération. Fouiller des manuscrits pour établir une date, ou lire l'œuvre entière d'un auteur pour vérifier quelques citations, c'est pour lui un simple devoir que lui impose son poste. Il ne comprend pas que l'on se contente de l'à peu près; aussi apporte-t-il à bien remplir sa charge une conscience et une énergie incroyables. Telle leçon qui se donne à une dizaine d'étudiants, a peut-être coûté au professeur trois jours de préparation. Quand l'influence allemande battait son plein il y a quelques années, certains professeurs faisaient de

leur chaire un autel voué au culte d'une seule divinité, le fait, mais le bon sens français s'est vite retrouvé, et en général on ne se contente pas d'accumuler des masses indigestes de petits détails, ce qu'on reproche en France aux savants allemands. D'abord le Français contrôle les faits avec toutes les précautions possibles. Puis il les groupe, en fait des systèmes nouveaux, ou s'en sert pour détruire des systèmes existants. Ainsi pour lui constater les faits, ce n'est que la première étape à faire pour arriver à l'idée.

Cette tendance à la systématisation se manifeste sous cent aspects divers en France. Aux cours je l'ai remarqué plus d'une fois. Je me rappelle une conférence sur l'abbé Prévost presque entièrement consacrée à une étude très détaillée des faits obscurs de sa vie. Il s'agissait de découvrir si en effet ses mœurs étaient déréglées au degré que l'on supposait autrefois, Ce n'était pas intéressant. Un étudiant à côté de moi trompait l'heure à dessiner de petits rasoirs—symboles de son ennui—mais peu à peu à travers le brouillard de détails, le but du professeur se voyait de plus en plus clair. Il voulait établir le bilan de 'Manon Lescaut' faire un juste partage entre ce qu'elle devait aux expériences de l'auteur et ce qui revenait aux tendances générales de l'époque. Ainsi cette conférence rentrait dans le cadre de toute la série de cours sur le XVIII siècle de laquelle elle faisait partie.

La Place de la Littérature, surtout de la Littérature 'classique,' dans l'Enseignement.

Systématisation, goût de l'ordre et de la précision, qualités dominantes de l'intelligence française ont eu leur plus glorieuse éclosion dans la littérature française du XVII siècle. Ainsi dans les auteurs classiques, les professeurs ont à leur portée un instrument admirable pour développer les qualités qu'ils prient avant toutes autres.

Comment l'Étude de la Littérature française a remplacé l'Étude du Latin.

À cette préférence innée pour le classicisme, il faut ajouter la nécessité de pourvoir au remplacement du latin qui n'occupe maintenant qu'une position bien humble dans le programme des études. Voici une citation, du plaidoyer que M. Anatole France fit pour l'étude des langues anciennes il y a quelques années (*Vie Littéraire*, 1886) :

'Apprendre à penser, c'est en cela que se résume tout le programme bien compris de l'enseignement secondaire. . . Tous ceux d'entre nous qui ont pensé un peu fortement avaient appris à penser dans le latin. Je n'exagère pas

en disant qu'en ignorant le latin, on ignore la souveraine clarté du discours. . . . La littérature latine est plus propre que toute autre à former les esprits. . . . Rome eut des idées simples, fortes, peu nombreuses. Mais c'est par cela même qu'elle est une incomparable éducatrice. . . . Voyez Hamlet, c'est tout un monde immense. Je doute qu'on ait jamais fait quelque chose de plus grand. Mais que voulez-vous qu'un écolier y prenne ? Comment saisira-t-il ces fantômes d'idées plus vagues que le fantôme errant sur l'esplanade d'Elseneur ?

'Maintenant ouvrez les Histoires de Tite-Live. Là, tout est ordonné, lumineux, simple. Tite-Live, ce n'est pas un génie profond : c'est un parfait pédagogue. Et voici que le latin est devenu dans nos lycées semblable au grec. Voici qu'il n'est plus qu'une vaine ombre, jouet d'un souffle léger.'

Et dans les universités, le latin a subi le même sort. Dans une circulaire relative à la licence ès lettres (juillet, 1907), on trouve ce paragraphe : 'Pour le grec et le latin, la dissertation et le thème disparaissent. Quelque sentiment qu'on puisse avoir sur la composition latine, il est inutile de fermer les yeux à l'évidence : elle a fait son temps, et si on s'efforçait encore de la maintenir, la mesure serait futile. On n'écrit plus en latin, et il est superflu d'obliger les candidats à la licence à s'y exercer.'

On voit donc quels bienfaits les partisans de l'antiquité attendaient de l'étude du latin. De la version latine, et plus encore du thème, les élèves apprenaient à peser la valeur des mots ; et l'étude des textes leur montrait l'art d'arranger les idées en ordre logique. La jeunesse n'étant plus astreinte à cette rude gymnastique mentale on a été chercher d'autres moyens de discipliner les esprits. Les professeurs en ont trouvé deux—la composition française et la lecture expliquée.

Méthodes d'Étudier la Langue et la Littérature.

1. *La Lecture Expliquée.*—En apprenant un idiome étrange, on arrive assez souvent à constater à quel point on ignore sa langue maternelle. Ce sont surtout les petits mots, les mots qu'on rencontre tous les jours et qu'on croit comprendre, dont on ne saisit pas toute la portée. Je suppose que les jeunes lecteurs de Marryat ne cherchent pas dans un dictionnaire la signification de tous les mots techniques qu'ils rencontrent. Ils voient par exemple 'royal sail.' Ils savent très bien ce que c'est qu'une 'sail,' et le mot 'royal' leur est bien connu. Ils saisissent aussi le sens général du passage. Ainsi la familiarité des sens mots les trompe, et il ne leur vient pas à l'esprit de se demander où est la 'royal sail.'

Mais qu'un jeune Anglais lise un roman de Pierre Loti. Des mots tels que 'cacatois' et 'hunier' ne lui sont pas familiers. Ils l'intriguent, et quand il en cherche les équivalents anglais, il trouve peut-être des mots très familiers, mais qui ne l'aident pas à saisir le sens exact du passage.

Cette discipline salulaire manque aux élèves—et c'est l'immense majorité—qui n'apprennent pas de langues étrangères. Et ce n'est pas seulement de mots qu'il s'agit. Il importe peu que nous nous chargions la mémoire de mots—surtout de mots techniques. Il y a des auteurs qui en abusent. L'essentiel est de bien comprendre les idées de l'auteur que l'on étudie. Et c'est là surtout qu'on se trompe. On croit tout comprendre du premier coup. 'Pourquoi me demander l'explication de ce passage ?' dit l'élève. 'Il est si facile que je n'y trouve rien à expliquer.' C'est précisément contre les dangers de cette intelligence superficielle qu'agit la lecture expliquée.

Ce n'est pas une chose nouvelle. Le bon professeur a toujours su qu'il faut montrer à l'élève que ce qu'il comprend n'est qu'une partie de ce qu'il y a à comprendre, suivant le mot de Montaigne. 'J'ai lu en Tite Live cent choses que tel n'y a pas lu. Plutarque y en a lui cent autre ce que j'y a peu lire.' Ce qu'une élite a toujours pratiquée se fait maintenant dans tous les établissements—écoles primaires, lycées, universités. Évidemment on ne peut pas résumer en une seule formule un procédé qui s'applique à une variété infinie d'auteurs, mais voici dans ses grandes lignes le plan le plus souvent suivi.

- (1) Replacer le morceau, s'il y a lieu, dans l'ensemble dont il a été détaché.
- (2) S'il s'agit de la poésie, étudier la versification.
- (3) Établir le plan du morceau.
- (4) Faire le commentaire du morceau phrase par phrase. Pour la grammaire, on se contente en général de signaler ce qui s'écarte de l'usage moderne. L'essentiel ici, c'est de discuter la propriété des termes.

Le choix des auteurs à étudier n'est pas moins important que la méthode. Dans les universités, il faut que les futurs professeurs s'habituent à l'explication des textes de toutes les écoles. Dans les lycées, les modernes ne sont pas négligés mais c'est surtout les classiques que l'on étudie. Par la clarté de leur style, par l'ordre rigoureux des idées, et la sobriété de leur vocabulaire, ils sont seuls dignes de prendre la place laissée vide par le latin.

Pour les petits élèves des écoles primaires le plan doit être plus simple. M. Bouillot dans ses

admirables volumes 'Le Français par les Textes' arrange ainsi chaque leçon :

- (1) Lecture du texte.
- (2) La lecture expliquée.
 - (a) Mots et expressions.
 - (b) Questions sur les idées.
 - (c) Devoir écrit-développement de (b).
- (3) Grammaire—
 - (a) Questions orales.
 - (b) Devoir écrit.
- (4) Orthographe et vocabulaire.

Il est évident que l'auteur ne s'occupe pas ici de la littérature. Le petit Français doit apprendre d'abord à manier l'instrument de la littérature-la langue. Mais on n'a pas oublié l'importance de fournir à l'élève de bons modèles. Même dans le cours élémentaire de M. Bouillot, quoique les extraits traitent de sujets fort simples, les auteurs se nomment Anatole France, Pierre Loti, George Sand, Aicard, Daudet, et-est-il besoin d'ajouter—La Fontaine.

2. *La Composition.*—Avec ces modèles devant les yeux, l'enfant commence à faire son apprentissage dans l'art d'écrire, car le devoir écrit est une partie intégrante de chaque exercice. Dans les premières années le plan est naturellement très simple, conforme aux aptitudes de l'élève. Par exemple, la première leçon dans le cours élémentaire s'intitule 'Le départ pour l'école,' et l'exercice proposé comme devoir écrit est une simple transformation du texte—'La rentrée en classe (lever, déjeuner, préparatifs, départ, arrivée en classe). Peu à peu, les devoirs deviennent plus difficiles, se rattachant toujours au texte, mais donnant plus de jeu à la personnalité de l'élève. Ainsi, après une lecture 'Promenades solitaires,' extrait tiré des 'Réveries d'un promeneur solitaire' de Jean Jacques Rousseau, on propose à l'élève ce devoir : 'Si vous aimez la campagne, dites pourquoi.' Un passage des 'Femmes Savantes' donne lieu au devoir : 'Indiquez d'après vos propres idées, ce que doit être l'éducation d'une femme à notre époque.'

On voit que dès les premières années, la lecture et la composition marchent de front. Ainsi l'élève est forcé de bien peser ce qu'il lit, pour le présenter sous une forme nouvelle. Et quand sa copie est finie, le modèle est toujours là qui lui reproche les faiblesses de ses efforts. Quand le bagage littéraire de l'élève devient plus important, ces devoirs déterminés qui indiquent à l'élève la route qu'il doit suivre, prennent d'autres formes. On a maintenant la dissertation et le commentaire littéraire. La dissertation n'a rien de nouveau pour nous autres. Nous avons tous dit notre petit mot sur 'la poétique

de Boileau,' 'l'impérialisme de Kipling,' etc. Le commentaire est plus intéressant, plus délicat à faire. Le professeur indique un passage, soit une pensée de La Bruyère, ou quelques vers de Racine, et voilà tout. Il faut commenter l'extrait. Si c'est de la poésie, on peut toujours se tirer d'affaire, car un grand poète a toujours son style à lui, et faute de mieux, on peut commenter cela. Pourtant, pour écrire une douzaine de pages sur un nombre égal de vers, il faut avoir un plan, il faut y faire entrer cent idées qui semblent s'en écarter, il faut surtout avoir étudié son auteur. Quand il s'agit de la prose, toutes ces difficultés se multiplient. D'abord, il y a l'idée générale du passage à saisir, et les professeurs ont l'art de choisir des passages qui ne sont pas commodes. Alors, dans le couloir autour de l'affiche photocopiée où sont annoncés les sujets des devoirs, ou dans la bibliothèque, on voit des groupes dont chaque membre soutient avec ardeur son interprétation du passage.

Je me rappelle bien notre premier commentaire. Le texte indiqué était un postscriptum ajouté par Charles de Sévigné à une lettre de sa mère (celle du 23 juillet, 1677). Une étudiante y a vu la question de l'éducation des femmes. Un jeune diplomate s'est déclaré pour 'le caractère de Charles de Sévigné' parce que dans un article qui venait de paraître, les théories de notre professeur sur ce point étaient combattues. Un autre étudiant m'a dit, 'Ce n'est pas ça. C'est de Virgile qu'il faut écrire.' Je vais demander des 'tuyaux' à un professeur de ma connaissance. Au professeur lui-même cette lettre a paru être un avant-coureur de la querelle des Anciens et des Modernes ! Autrefois les professeurs n'acceptaient qu'une seule solution du problème—là leur, mais aujourd'hui tout ce que l'on demande, c'est que l'étudiant trouve dans le texte des idées qui éclaircissent ou l'évolution de l'auteur lui-même, ou un mouvement littéraire quelconque, et qu'il les développe suivant un plan harmonieux et simple.

Surtout, il faut que la copie soit 'écrite.' En Angleterre, les idées font souvent passer le style, en France jamais. Ce souci du style se doit en partie, il me semble, à l'excellent entraînement que reçoit la jeunesse française, mais cette instruction a sa racine dans la tradition des siècles. On a dit des Gaulois qu'ils avaient deux passions, manier fortement l'épée et finement la parole, et si les Gallo-Romains ne se sont pas montrés des guerriers aussi redoutables que leurs ancêtres, ils ont du moins été des disciples fervents de Quintilien, et l'influence du grand rhéteur a été plus durable en France que partout ailleurs : chaque lycéen doit encore passer par la classe de rhétorique ; ainsi de siècle en siècle se sont légués

l'amour et le respect de la langue, et produit et cause à la fois, une littérature s'est formée d'une précision et d'une clarté incomparables.

C'est dans l'organisation de l'enseignement de la langue, un enseignement basé sur l'étude de la littérature, que je trouve l'instruction publique de France très supérieure à la nôtre. Dans les deux pays, l'influence de la tradition a été très importante, mais malheureusement le rôle qu'elle a joué chez nous a beaucoup nui à la littérature.

Dans ces temples de la culture, les universités, on a sacrifié la pauvre langue maternelle à la gloire de l'antiquité. Dans nos écoles primaires, elle a été immolée à d'autres divinités—dont l'une était bien ignoble—l'argent. Les suites du 'payment by results' se manifestant encore dans nos écoles. On est trop esclave de l'arithmétique, de tout ce dont on peut réduire les résultats à un pourcentage.

L'autre ennemi de la littérature, du moins selon moi, a été cet engouement pour la science qui a suivi la publication du traité de Spencer sur l'Éducation. Le philosophe a dit que les arts sont la fleur que porte cette plante qu'est la science, et qu'il n'y a pas de floraison si on néglige la plante. Si une vision avait montré à l'écrivain un School Board offrant une augmentation de traitement à tous ses instituteurs possédant deux ou trois certificats de science, des foules de Londoniens étudiant l'agriculture parce que l'examen à subir était d'une facilité ridicule, les flots de petits manuels mettant tout acheteur à même d'obtenir au moins un diplôme par an, les instituteurs qui pouvaient prouver, papiers en main, qu'ils avaient une connaissance sérieuse

d'une douzaine de sciences, peut-être si le philosophe avait prévu tout cela, il n'aurait pas écrit son volume.

Ce n'est pas dénigrer la science que de regretter ce fait, qu'une génération d'instituteurs a sacrifié ses meilleures années, pas à l'étude de la science, mais à l'obtention de certificats. Or, la fièvre d'amasser des certificats, de montrer que l'on connaît un peu de toutes les sciences, est fatale à la culture, et il me paraît inévitable que la mentalité du maître se reproduise en partie dans ses élèves. Quoiqu'il en soit, que l'enseignement soit littéraire ou scientifique, son but doit être le même, d'éveiller l'intelligence de l'élève, et de lui inculquer l'amour de l'étude.

Quand il aura quitté l'école, deux maîtres s'offriront encore à l'élève—la vie et les livres. Les leçons de la vie sont souvent mesquines, toujours étroites et incomplètes. Alors les livres viennent au secours, lui donnent l'entrée à tout un monde d'idées qui consolent et fortifient. Mais à la plupart de nos élèves cette avenue est fermée. Beaucoup d'entre eux n'aiment pas la lecture; presque tous ignorent l'art de lire.

C'est pourquoi les Français ont bien fait de dévouer une si grande partie de l'emploi du temps à la lecture expliquée; et si on pratiquait plus généralement cette méthode dans nos écoles, les fruits ne tarderaient pas à mûrir. Nous avons des auteurs qui se prêtent admirablement à la lecture expliquée (p. ex. Tennyson: 'The Brook,' 'The Black Bird,' etc.) et une littérature de plein air d'un charme puissant pour la jeunesse. Le matériel est à notre portée. À nous la faute si nos élèves restent indifférents.

A. W. GREEN.

CORRESPONDENCE.

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

CHANGE OF ADDRESS.

SIR,—I should be glad if you would allow me to urge upon members who wish to receive their magazine regularly the importance of notifying to me at once any change of address. I not infrequently get letters from members saying that they have failed to receive one or more numbers, and in the great majority of cases the cause is failure to send a new address. To leave directions at the old address that all correspondence is to be sent on is not sufficient; my experience makes me doubt whether printed matter is always forwarded, and, moreover, houses sometimes change hands.

G. F. BRIDGE.

INTERPRETERS AND THE MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

SIR,—I have no intention of engaging in a newspaper controversy with Mr. Brereton about any action of mine. If he has any complaint against me, let him bring it before the Committee. If he thinks his charge a serious one, he will doubtless adopt that course; if he thinks it trumpery, he will not.

The good taste and feeling displayed in the last paragraph of his letter I leave to the judgment of your readers.

G. F. BRIDGE.

It was gratifying to see from the March number of *MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING* that Mr. Cloudesley Brereton has at last decided to confess that it was he who, some months ago, wrote that curious note about the great work of our Chairman on the Belgian Refugees Committee. That Mr. Brereton should make eulogistic remarks, showing exorciously bad taste, about the Chairman, and palm off his personal opinion as the well-considered note of the Editor, does him no credit. And that Mr. Brereton should disapprove of the action of the Secretary, who, like a gentleman, spontaneously offered to help the Committee in their anxiety to find interpreters, is presumably merely a further proof of Mr. Brereton's nauseating personalities. And, finally, that my letter of comment on Mr. Brereton's remarks, when divorced from its natural context, shows a certain degree of blatant self-advertisement is, alas! undoubtedly the case.

Under the circumstances it is perhaps quite natural that Mr. Cloudesley Brereton, who is evidently only just waking up to the idea that the editor *is* responsible for the Editorial Notes in the paper he edits, should be surprised at the result of his unwarrantable procedure.

Nor is it to be wondered at that Mr. Brereton cannot grasp why it is impossible to bind even a committee to an offer of services which can only be rendered by each member individually.

But what strikes me as most curious is to find a member of the Committee of the Modern Language Association presuming to use such eulogistic or condemnatory language about his chiefs—the Chairman and the Secretary of the Modern Language Association. May I suggest to Mr. Brereton that his personalities might perhaps be better appreciated in other regions than the editorial columns of *MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING*?

B. PROPER.

P.S., *April 7, 1915*.—Dr. Macgowan has just informed me, through the Secretary of the Association, that he did not know of my offer to the Belgian Refugees Committee. Consequently he cannot be blamed for my receiving such scant acknowledgment from the Committee. I am sorry Mr. Brereton's note led me to understand that he was acting for the Committee at the time. Of course, if I had known that not the Editor, but Mr. Brereton, was responsible for the original article, I should never have troubled to draw attention to the matter.

B. P.

ITALIAN v. GERMAN.

I am interested to see Mr. Butler's contribution,* which suggests to me that modern German literature is anything but suitable for innocent readers. Hauptmann's plays may be valuable documents, but his tone is deplorable; and novels (such as Schnitzler's) show too often a cold and cynical sensuality. In fact, modern German life, which is reflected in the literature, is unwholesome, not only in the commonest sense of that word, but in its whole spirit. When we study a literature, we want to understand a people; and we should avoid those literatures and peoples which have low ideals. German has only been studied hitherto because Germany was politically important; and the time has come, I hope, when we may for the first time examine the question of German on its merits. That is a very proper subject for the Modern Language Association, whose duty it is to guide public opinion. We should regret that the prejudices of some of our members might be touched, but that cannot be helped in a matter of public importance.

W. H. D. ROUSE.

GRAMMAR.

I have read Miss Marie Barker's letter in *MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING* with much interest, as I expect many others have done, and should like to express rather similar views, except for the fact that I have become so accustomed to the situation as to accept it almost as a necessary evil.

In this school, a year's formal grammar is taught, but I do not find it of much assistance to me, because the teaching begins with the sentence as a unit, not with 'parts of speech' and inflexions. This is as it should be, no doubt, but it certainly gives the Modern Language teacher a great deal of work. However, I do not feel inclined to make any objection, because drilling the children in genders, numbers, and irregular plurals would, I think, be a retrograde step in the teaching of English. One finds out in the course of time what is the absolute minimum that is necessary.

The real difficulty for me is that, by the time French Syntax has to be tackled, the boys and girls seem to have forgotten all the grammar they learned in the first year's course, which would be most useful when studying the French sentence,

* [See p. 81. We sent this to Dr. Rouse, who first raised the question.—Ed.]

But does Miss Barker think that instruction in English grammar, as it used to be taught, will materially lighten our load as Direct Method teachers? I am afraid that terminology in English and French grammar is not yet similar enough, in spite of the Joint Committee's recommendations, to remove the whole difficulty. And again, the rate of progress could not be made parallel in English and French. First year pupils must learn to recognize infinitives, participles, etc., which play a very small part in any first year grammar syllabus I have ever seen drawn up by an English teacher.

On the whole, I feel inclined to shoulder the burden and comfort myself with the reflection that I am probably doing some good to the older pupils' English, as their French syntax certainly revives in them memories of what they learned a considerable time ago, and are far too much disposed to consider as past, done with, and useless.

MARION BARFIELD.

I appreciate the difficulty under which a correspondent, writing under this heading in the February number, labours, though my experience has been more fortunate. It is absolutely necessary that a pupil should possess certain grammatical notions before instruction in a foreign language can be effective, and these notions can, in my opinion, best be acquired in connection with

the pupil's native tongue. Whether, apart from the question of the study of a foreign language, instruction in formal grammar is necessary or desirable, is a matter which I need not debate here, as my point for the moment is that such instruction is essential where foreign languages are taught, unless much of the time of the language lessons in the early stages is to be taken up by instilling rudimentary notions of grammar into the class. I have heard the necessity for this pooh-poohed, but my own experience does not lead me to think that the technique of grammar comes 'by nature.'

May I at the same time suggest that it is rather a good plan if the teaching of English grammar and of a foreign language in a form are in the same hands, though allotted separate lesson periods? Thus, in this school, where there is a beginner's division in French at two different stages, English grammar and French (beginners) are taught by the same individual in Form II. and also in Lower III. In Upper III. English grammar and Latin are in the same teacher's hands. Though a close parallel cannot be drawn between the work in the two subjects at the respective stages, it is possible to work in the one with the other helpfully, and at any rate uniformity of grammatical terminology in English and a foreign language is secured for a given class.

C. S. BANKS,

Wigan Girls' High School.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

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

OXFORD.—St. Hugh's College. Miss E. M. Thomas (Redland High School) has been awarded a Scholarship of £30 a year for Modern Languages.

St. Hilda's Hall.—Miss M. Harvey (Ladies' College, Cheltenham) has been awarded a Scholarship of £50 a year, and Miss K. Gibberd (Enfield County School) an Exhibition of £20 a year, for English.

Miss Bride Danaher, M.A., has been appointed Professor of German in University College, Galway.



Mr. Daniel Jones has been appointed Reader in Phonetics in the University of London.

Second-Lieutenant W. P. B. Spencer, youngest son of Dr. Spencer, of the Board of Education, was killed at Neuve Chapelle, on March 10. He was educated at Dulwich College and Manchester Grammar School. Soon after the outbreak of the war he entered Sandhurst, and was gazetted, on November 11, to the 3rd Wiltshire Regiment. A fortnight later he crossed to France, and was attached to the 2nd Wiltshire Regiment. He had been continuously at the front from that date till the time of his death. He was in his eighteenth year.

We regret to have to record the death of a member of the Association, Mr. Eric S. P. K. James, of Merchant Taylors' School, who was killed in the fighting at Neuve Chapelle. *The Times* gives the following biographical details:

'Captain Eric Samuel Pennant Kingsbury James, 4th Battalion King's Royal Rifle Corps, whose death was reported in *The Times* of March 24, was the only son of Mr. and Mrs. E. L. James, of Holly Lodge, Larkhall Rise, S.W. He was born in September, 1887, and was educated at Manor House School, Clapham, St. Paul's School, where he was a foundation scholar, and at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge (Open Classical Exhibitioner, Colledge Prizeman, Honours in Classical Tripos). A member of the Thames Rowing Club, he rowed in his Colledge boat at Henley, and while at Cambridge he was second boat-captain of his Colledge boat. After leaving Colledge he became Assistant Master at Oundle, and later at Merchant Taylors' School. He was appointed Second-Lieutenant in the Officers' Training Corps in 1910, gaining his Captaincy early this year, and was gazetted to the 6th (Reserve) Battalion of his regiment in September last. He left for the front early in January, and was killed in action on March 17, being buried next day at Dickebusch, four miles south of Ypres. The Officer Commanding the battalion, when reporting the news of his death, wrote: "I cannot tell you what a great loss he is. I was with him last Sunday night, the 14th of March, when we had a very nasty time, but he was very cool, and did admirably." Lieutenant-Colonel Brownlow wrote: "He did excellent work for me at Sheerness. I can only tell you your son will be very much missed in the regiment. He was most popular, looked up to by everybody, and was a very smart and efficient soldier.'"

GRAVES OF FALLEN HEROES.

Reporting on the task of marking and registering the graves of British soldiers who have fallen in Northern France, Major Fabian Ware states that a Registration Commission has been created,

under the direction of the Adjutant General to the British Army in the Field.

The Commanding Officer of the Red Cross Mobile Unit (Major Ware himself) has been given the command of the Commission, with temporary military rank.

"The Commission has developed its organization as rapidly as possible. Four sections are now at work—two in the British and two in the French zone. Other sections are being started ready for an advance. Three thousand four hundred graves have already been registered; one thousand six hundred of these required crosses or more permanent inscriptions, which have been provided.

"An effort is being made to register all graves, from those behind the trenches to those in cemeteries at present and past bases."—*Daily Chronicle*, April 19.

ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

Mr. A. G. Brock, of Amesbury Hall, Bickley, Kent, is a Lieutenant in the 3rd Battalion of the Buffs, now stationed at Dover.

M. A. P. Guiton and M. Daraux are with the French Army.

Dr. S. G. Simpson, of the Royal Technical Institute, Salford, is on active service in France.

Mr. G. Willson Fisher, of Ripon School, is acting as interpreter on H.M.T. *Ivernia*, Southend-on-Sea, with the rank of Second-Lieutenant.

Mr. R. W. Hallows, formerly of Merchant Taylors' School, is on active service, doing instructional work at York.

Professor Milner-Barry has been appointed Naval Intelligence Officer and Interpreter for German at Grimsby, with the rank of Lieutenant.

D. Harrault, of Woolwich Academy, is interned in Germany.

Mr. Fabian Ware is in command of a mobile unit of the Red Cross Society in France, with the rank of Major.

Mr. J. H. Foster (Gresham's School) is a Captain in the 18th Battalion of the Middlesex Regiment. His place in the school has been taken by Miss E. Rose Wells.

Two members have recently been appointed to posts overseas—Miss Gatheral to the Girls' High School, Johannesburg, and Miss Helen Graham to the Victoria High School, Agra, India.

CAMBRIDGE. — The Fishmongers' Company have agreed to renew for five years their grant of

£50 for the purpose of providing instruction in the Russian language.



L. M. MORIARTY has recently retired from the staff at Harrow. His name should be familiar to younger members of the Association, who may like to be reminded that he is an original member.



The Editor of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING would like to call attention to an article in *The Times Literary Supplement* of March 25: 'A Word for Freedom of Thought,' and to two reviews in the same number: 'Through German Eyes' and 'The Musical Classics.' The sane and urbane treatment of things German here displayed is worthy of high commendation.



Many teachers of Modern Languages must be feeling acutely the difficulties through which all honest thinkers are groping their way. Romain Rolland has stated his personal difficulties in the *Journal de Genève* in a form which may help them. '*Notre Prochain Vennemi*' comes with grace and authority from the pen of the great writer, who can condemn frankly and fearlessly.



There is an interesting article in the *Contemporary* for April on *Charles Péguy*, by Evelyn Underhill. Readers of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING may remember that his work was mentioned in the number for last December.



INTER-SCHOOL RECITATION AND READING COMPETITION.

The third annual competition in the recitation and reading of French and German was held in Leeds on Saturday, March 20, 1915, at the Girls' Modern School. Regulations had been drawn up in the autumn by a joint committee, representing the Headmasters', the Headmistresses', and the Modern Language Associations respectively.

In order to bring the competition within reasonable limits, each school was restricted to two candidates, and only two sections were arranged for: Section I., candidates under thirteen; Section II., candidates under fifteen (on July 31, 1915). Twenty schools entered, but owing to prevalent illness, only eighteen competed, and these were represented by thirty candidates. The Committee was fortunate in securing the services of Mr. von Glehn as adjudicator,

than whom a more able and conscientious judge could not be found.

It was very satisfactory to hear from Mr. von Glehn, in his criticism at the end of each section, that the general level of excellence in *articulation* was markedly higher than on the previous occasions. He especially noticed the rarity of diphthongs, the elimination of which testify to the wider and better use of phonetics in schools. The articulation of consonants, too, he thought improved; though good as the trilled *r* final often was, it still had a tendency to disappear before another consonant. Intonation is, of course, still a weak point, as also reading at sight. But it is evident that these annual meetings are of real value, not only for the measuring of progress, but also and still more as an encouragement and incentive to a higher standard of work.

The prize winners represented the following schools:

Section I., French, Mirfield Grammar School; Section II., French, Girls' Modern School, Leeds.

Section I., German, Batley Boys' Grammar School; Section II., German, Batley Boys' Grammar School.

Partly through illness, the number of German candidates fell to three, but these three were all good, and the Batley boys (two brothers) superlatively so.

Schools highly commended for *articulation* were Batley Girls' Grammar School, Elland Secondary, Normanton High School, and Pontefract High School. The latter school came in second in both sections (French).

L. H. ALTHAUS.



TEACHERS' REGISTRATION COUNCIL.

THE TEACHERS' REGISTER.

During the month of April there was a marked increase in the number of applications for admission to the Register. Whereas on March 11 the total stood at 6,322, the number on April 8, four weeks later, was 7,803, and on April 22 it was 9,200, a total increase of nearly 3,000 in six weeks. This addition was made up mainly of teachers in elementary and secondary schools, the first named being in the majority, a sign that the vigorous efforts of the National Union of Teachers are proving effectual.

Many teachers in secondary schools have applied, as the result of circular letters sent out under the authority of various organizations. Especially valuable was a letter signed by the

Head-masters of Charterhouse, Clifton, Eton, Harrow, King Edward's School, Birmingham, Manchester Grammar School, Mill Hill, Rugby, St. Olave's Grammar School, Wellington College, Westminster, and Winchester, and by the President and Secretary of the Incorporated Association of Head-masters. This letter emphasizes the importance of the Council as a representative body of teachers, and suggests that registration should be a condition of appointment to master-ships.

The National Federation of Class Teachers has issued an important circular under the title 'Why Class Teachers should Register.' Among other reasons it is suggested that as the Federation was in part responsible for breaking down the former register, and for setting up the present scheme, its members are bound in honour to register as speedily as possible. It is further pointed out that all sectional and class distinctions are removed from the present register, and that registration is a necessary preliminary to the formation of a real profession of teaching.

The following statement has been issued by the Council :

'The Teachers' Registration Council, constituted by Order in Council of February 29, 1912, issued the Conditions of Registration in December, 1913, and has now made definite progress towards the establishment of a register of teachers. This register will be maintained by the Council for the purpose of recording the professional qualifications of those engaged in teaching, and the official list of registered teachers, which will be issued regularly, will provide a means of ascertaining the names of those whose credentials have been tested and approved by the Council, a body representing every branch of the teaching profession. In order to avoid hardship it is provided generally that during the first few years admission to the register may be gained on evidence of satisfactory experience alone, but from the beginning of 1921 onwards the register will be open only to those who are able to satisfy the Council in regard to their academic and other professional qualifications.

'The establishment and maintenance of a register form, however, only one part of the work which the Council hopes to accomplish. The register itself is but the beginning of a movement towards the promotion of self-government and self-organization such as will place the work of teaching on a truly professional basis. To this end the Council will take an active part in the development of a considered policy in relation to the preparation of teachers for their work, with the object of rendering it difficult for un-

qualified persons to engage in teaching. The method of testing the teacher's work, whether by examination of pupils or by official inspection, will also receive attention, and it is to be noted that already it is proposed to give the Registration Council representation on the official advisory body to be instituted in connection with the suggested scheme for the co-ordination of examinations as outlined in Circular 849 of the Board of Education. Matters concerning salaries, pensions and conditions of work such as are of general interest to all teachers will in due course be considered by the Council, and it is expected that this body will furnish an important means for bringing the views of teachers before the public. It is anticipated, also, that the Council will be able to organize systematic research into educational problems, and so play an important part in the development of a true science of education, taking steps to make public from time to time the practical conclusions to be deduced from the investigations undertaken.

'Already the task of compiling a register has convinced the Council that teachers have a large number of interests in common, and that it is greatly to be desired that the work should acquire a higher status in the eyes of the public. The experience of other professions has shown that the first step to this end is the formation of a register of qualified members, with power to exclude undesirable applicants, and to remove from the register any who are found to have acted in an unbecoming manner. To carry out this policy, and to realize the wider possibilities already indicated, it is necessary that the Council should be strengthened by the support of all qualified teachers. A single payment of one guinea is the only demand made upon the individual teacher beyond the small sacrifice of time involved in completing the form of application.

'The Council is confident that teachers will be prepared to enrol themselves without delay when it is realized that to give support to the register is a professional obligation imposed by the necessity for taking steps to improve the position of teaching in relation to other forms of national work in order that the interests, not only of the teachers themselves, but of their pupils, may be properly safeguarded. The interests of the community demand that the instruction of the young shall be undertaken only by those who have shown themselves fit for the work, and the proper test of this fitness is one devised and applied by the recognized representatives of the profession itself.'

Notices have been issued to the various appointing bodies inviting them to elect represen-

tatives to serve on the Council for the triennial period, beginning on July 1. The procedure is laid down in the Order in Council of February 29, 1912, and the principle governing the constitu-

tion may be described as representative in the widest sense, every effort being made to secure that the Council shall reflect the opinions of all types of teachers.

REVIEWS.

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

Russian Grammar. By NEVILL FORBES, M.A., Ph.D. Oxford: Clarendon Press. Price 6s. net.

The usual manner of a conscientious English compiler of a popular Russian Grammar is to explain in advance to his students that his book is not scientific but 'practical,' 'most practical.' This seems to me to be an unnecessary apology, inspired by the fallacious idea that the practical study of a modern language must be based on special lines differing from those laid down by the science of language. In fact, the majority of Russian Grammars intended for practical students in this country present nothing but mere records of raw material — sometimes 'simplified' — arranged in stiff lessons under the usual grammatical headings. The occasional explanations which they contain are mostly of a specifically 'practical' nature, and disregard the true laws of the language. The result is that students, being unable to cope with the oppressive mass of disconnected rules and incidental exceptions, are often driven to the verge of despair.

Any adequate method of studying the Russian language must be based on a thorough treatment of its phonetics and morphology, and on a comprehensive interpretation of its logic difficulties. For, in spite of its apparent discrepancies, Russian is very simple and regular in its intrinsic laws. A knowledge of these laws will impart to the student the power of philological analysis, and develop his linguistic sense (*Sprachgefühl*), the cultivation of which must be one of his chief aspirations. It is needless to say that the majority of practical grammarians either entirely ignore or treat unequally the most important linguistic facts. The laws of sound-change in Russian, the effects of analogy on the inflexions of words, or the principles of word-building, are not usually recognized as vital parts of the language by school Grammars of Russian. The views and methods applied by them to the interpretation of phonetic or grammatical facts give no insight into the natural laws of language, their practical value being often purely negative — *i.e.*, producing confusion and exercising a severe strain on the student's memory.

Dr. Forbes has made a fine attempt to lighten

the task of mastering Russian by greatly improving the standard of practical Russian Grammars. A student using Dr. Forbes' *Russian Grammar* will be able, before all, to gain some idea of the language he is about to learn. At the first glimpse of the Russian alphabet the average English student is prone to connect Russian with other languages totally unknown to him. On the other hand, people who know two or three European languages are naturally inclined to think that these languages would be of some help to them in mastering Russian. They are greatly disappointed when they find that the Russian language is quite peculiar in its structure, constituting as it does, with Lithuanian and other Slavic languages, a separate family of languages. It ought to be of great advantage to beginners to state at the beginning of a Russian manual the place occupied by Russian among other languages, and to describe the peculiarities of the organic basis of Russian speech, as well as the main features of its grammatical structure and the origin of its vocabulary as compared with those of other modern languages more widely studied in this country. These *desiderata* are passed over by Dr. Forbes, but in his introductory chapter on Russian orthography he makes some reference to the language itself by tracing the history of its alphabet.

Following Dr. Forbes' course, the student next comes to the chapters dealing with Russian pronunciation. The necessity of introducing some information on the phonology of the language being recognized by the most old-fashioned practical grammarians, Dr. Forbes has nevertheless made a great stride forward by giving a rather extensive study of the sounds of spoken Russian (pp. 19-41). A usual and natural fault made by the student in his mastery of the sounds of a foreign speech is that he unconsciously substitutes the sounds of his native language for the foreign ones if they are somewhat akin to each other. Accordingly, this method of describing foreign pronunciation must be based on minute discrimination between the two resembling sounds, and the definitions must be as exact and distinct as possible within limits of the practical method. Dr. Forbes' sketch of Russian pronun-

ciation is likely to give the student the impression that the Russian sound system does not differ much from the English, for, according to his statements, even such a definitely peculiar Russian sound as *y* (see § 6) exists in a very similar form in English. The elementary character of his volume may serve as a reason for treating Russian phonetics in a more practical manner, but it would be a waste of time for the student to plod over some twenty pages and to fail to get the exact picture of Russian sounds. It is very doubtful indeed whether a most shrewd scholar would be able in Dr. Forbes' pages to trace the true nature, say, of accented Russian *a*, which 'is pronounced somewhat as in "father," but is more like the *a* in the French "ma"' (p. 20). Nor would the instruction to attain 'an approximately correct pronunciation of *y* (high-mixed tense) by saying with clenched teeth the syllables containing *y*, *i* in English words: "Whitby," "till," "mill," "rill," "sill," "sandy" explain to the students the exact position of Russian *y*.' In spite of all the contortions of his face, the student's organ would still be far away from the position it should be in for producing the above sound. But the appreciation of Dr. Forbes' instructions on Russian pronunciation are better left to practical students themselves, whose ways of acquiring the Russian sounds seem sometimes to the present writer to be most mysterious.

In classifying the nouns for purposes of declension, Dr. Forbes makes no departure from the system adopted in popular Grammars, though his reference in the bibliography to Professor Bogoroditsky's *General Course of Russian Grammar* would suggest that Dr. Forbes should have introduced into his *Russian Grammar* Professor Bogoroditsky's classification of substantives based on the inflections, as well as on the types of their accent. As 'correct accentuation,' to quote Dr. Forbes' own words, 'is one of the greatest difficulties that Russian presents to the foreigner,' a writer of a Russian Grammar ought to take every opportunity of tracing the rules of Russian accent. The introduction of Professor Bogoroditsky's table would be of great assistance to the student in his task of mastering Russian accent. I should like to mention in passing that English Grammars of Russian are generally much behindhand, ignoring the research made by scholars in Russia.

A somewhat fresh feature of Dr. Forbes' morphological explanations is his occasional reference to the history of the language, and this will relieve the master who uses in his class Dr. Forbes' book from the necessity of answering the many annoying 'whys' put by his students.

The latter will also appreciate the fact that Dr. Forbes gives in his volume a much clearer and comprehensive survey of the Russian verb than is usually found in other popular grammars, while the applications of the verb are amply illustrated by well-chosen examples. This wealth of well-arranged material is perhaps the most valuable feature of Dr. Forbes' *Russian Grammar*, and it must prove of immense use to the students. 'Syntactical examples,' explains Dr. Forbes in his preface, 'have been gathered from the works of Pushkin, Gogol, Goncharov, and Garshin,' and they will at once bring the students into the field of Russian literature.

A FOOTNOTE ON PHONETICS.

It is difficult to take Dr. Forbes' phonetics seriously, though I suppose we must do so, considering that he has devoted more than twenty pages to the subject.

Judged by the standard of an amateur, he has done yeoman service in dealing with some of the consonants, particularly *g*, *k*, *l*. For this the student will be grateful. He is, however, by no means so successful with the vowels—neither the vowel which he transcribes *y*, nor the vowels in unstressed syllables. In dealing with the subject of 'palatalization,' as it is vaguely called, he comes hopelessly to grief.

May we ask the author a few questions? How can a sound be 'soft' or 'hard,' or, most marvellous of all, 'mute'? Can't the vowel sound which he transcribes *y* be produced *without* 'clenched teeth'? Why does he use the same symbol for 'palatalization' as he does for this vowel sound? This should not be allowed even in a popular, practical grammar.

In giving English words to illustrate Russian sounds, the author merely confuses his readers, unless he explains which English sounds he refers to. It does not seem to have occurred to Dr. Forbes that the same words in English are pronounced differently in different parts of these islands, and on the lips of different speakers. On p. 29 the word 'educate' is given as illustrating the 'palatalized' Russian *d*. Now, of course this word *could* be pronounced so as to contain this Russian sound, but it never is so pronounced in the actual language; in natural English it is pronounced 'edzhukate'; in pedantic English, 'edjukate.' Again, 'boot' does not contain the Russian sound *u*; only when the Russian sound transcribed *u* is in a strongly accented syllable does the sound at all resemble the middle sound in English 'boot.'

The subject of 'jotation' (a better and more scientific term than 'palatalization') would fill a pamphlet, therefore we leave it alone here,

merely remarking that we cannot see how the student will be helped by the explanations so carefully given in the Grammar. If students act on the advice there given them, they will produce combinations of sounds that will horrify any Russian speaker.

The most humorous statement of all is that made on p. 29: 'In the only case where it (*i.e.* "soft" mark) occurs after ö (*yo*), *i.e.* in the second person singular of some verbs, it is pronounced like "z," *i.e.* is omitted.'

This reminds us of the story of the Irishman, who, when he struck at the nail the first time, missed it, and when he struck at it again, hit it in the same place!

Why does Dr. Forbes give a phonetic alphabet on pp. 41, 42, and then never use it? What sounds does he represent by his symbols?

As a reflex to all this, we may add that the author deserves genuine praise for his 'descriptive' grammar. The phrases and quotations make it entertaining reading, and the student who is happy enough to use the grammar will meet with 'living Russian' page by page. This will prepare him for a wider acquaintance with the works of Russian authors.

The Theory of Poetry in England. By R. P. COWL, M.A. Pp. xii + 319. London: Macmillan and Co. 1914. Price 6s. net.

In this book Professor Cowl has furnished a valuable accompaniment to the study of literary history and criticism. He has gathered together the most definite statements of the diverse theories about the art and purpose of poetry which have been held during successive literary epochs in England from the time of Ascham until to-day. The passages are chosen with judgment; in the main they take the form of dogmatic assertions, or arguments based upon them, and are well enough known in isolation—it is not the purpose of the book to bring to light novelties, though half-forgotten things are recalled to mind, such as Dallas's attractive *Gay Science*. The harder part of the task has been the distribution of the varied passages under their appropriate rubrics. The editor's arrangement seems perhaps to give undue prominence to the idea of imitation; but the chronological sequence under each heading is everywhere enlightening. One misses the name of Newman, whose theories as to the aims of poetry were both distinctive and memorable. One may be permitted to regret that Professor Cowl did not enlarge his brief and tantalizing

Preface. He too modestly withdraws when we would gladly have heard him at greater length upon the relation of Platonism to the romantic theory, and upon the 'Gothic' episode of the late eighteenth century. The index is admirably arranged for the purpose of reference.

W. T. Y.

The Miscellaneous Works of Joseph Addison.
Edited by A. C. GUTHKELCH, M.A. Vol. I.
Pp. xxvi + 495. London: G. Bell and Sons.
1914.

Mr. Guthkelch, by his work on Swift, has already won acknowledgment of his right to speak with authority on the literature of Queen Anne's reign. His present enterprise is the editing of Addison's work, other than the *Tatler* and *Spectator* Essays. The volume named above—the first of three volumes projected—contains Addison's early work in verse composition and translation, in opera, tragedy, and comedy. Most of this writing—an interesting exception is the alternative form of *A Letter from Italy*, printed from a Bodleian MS.—is contained in the old Bohn edition; but it is there scattered and uncritically arranged. Here it is given in orderly sequence and plan, and with precise bibliographical detail. The text is, in the main, that of Tickell's authorized edition of 1721; footnotes give the results of collation with all the earlier editions; for the text of *Cato* seven of the eight editions (the sixth has not come to light) through which the play passed in 1713, have been collated.

It is interesting to peer into these early exercises of the essayist. The translations of Ovid, Horace, and Virgil, Latin verses, studies in the post-Jacobean writers of the couplet on the one hand, and on the other the pious hymns, afford us clues to his mind and training. We may still receive a shock from the remarkable badness of the *Milton's Stile Imitated*, from the jejune criticism of *The Greatest English Poets*, and from the chilly hyperbole of *The Campaign*. Nevertheless, it is plain that Addison, like many another, attained classic ease in prose by the assiduous study and practice of verse.

The thoroughness of Mr. Guthkelch's editing assures us of valuable commentary and deduction when the third volume is published; this is to contain Addison's correspondence, full bibliographical detail, and the editor's introduction. The publishers have served the editor well, the volume being exceptionally pleasant to handle and read.

W. T. Y.

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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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- INGRAM, T. H. : Marlowe and his Poetry. (Poetry and Life Series.) Pp. 150. Price 1s. Harrap and Co.
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FRENCH.

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GERMAN.

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- VON LILLENBRON, D. : Umzingelt. Der Richtungspunkt. Zwei Kriegsnovellen. Herausgegeben von A. M. D. Hughes. Pp. 47+33+16.
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- RIEHL, W. H. : Der Stadtpeifer. Edited by A. Oswald. Pp. 49+30.

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THE following new members were elected on March 27 :

Miss M. H. Gibson, Ph.D., M.A., B.Litt., University College, Cardiff.

Miss M. A. M. Maclean, M.A., Waverley Road School, Birmingham.

Miss H. M. Roberts, Secondary School for Girls, Brighouse, Yorks.

Miss S. D. Scott-Scott, Pate's Grammar School for Girls, Cheltenham.

Robert de Smet, Doctor of Law (Ghent), The

Firs, Upper Holland Road, Sutton Coldfield, near Birmingham.

Miss Elsie Wright, LL.A., Central School for Girls, Greenwich.

ERRATUM.

In the revised rules, printed in our February number, the clause 'and shall not be eligible for re-election till after the lapse of one year,' should have been inserted after 'members shall be elected for three years.' This clause was in the old rule, and remains in the new.

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.

ERRATUM.—P. 8, col. 1, line 7, 'could be' should read 'could not be.'

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

It seems necessary to point out that the opinions expressed in articles, correspondence, notes, and reviews are not and cannot be endorsed officially by the Association.

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

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Applications for membership should be addressed to the Hon. Secretary, Mr. G. F. Bridge, 7, South Hill Mansions, London, N.W.

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:—

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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 SPOKEN ENGLISH OF THE EARLY EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

INTRODUCTION.

THE basis of the following contribution is an investigation of the language of the *Wentworth Papers* (1705-1739), edited by James J. Cartwright, M.A.; London, Wyman and Sons, 1883.

For an introduction to this delightful volume I am indebted to my friend Mr. D. Nichol Smith, who had perceived the great linguistic as well as the literary and historical interest attaching to it. I here tender him my sincere gratitude.

The letters which chiefly concern us here are those of Isabella, Lady Wentworth, daughter of Sir Allen Apsley, Treasurer of the Household of James, Duke of York, who was married to Sir William Wentworth. This lady in her youth was Woman of the Bedchamber to James II.'s Queen. Her letters begin in 1705, and go down to 1711.

Only next in linguistic interest are the letters of Peter Wentworth, her younger son, and of Lady Strafford, the wife of her eldest son.

It appears to me difficult to over-estimate Lady Wentworth's letters for the light they throw upon the natural, unstudied, colloquial speech of a great lady in the early days of the eighteenth century. Lady Wentworth came of a great family; she married into an even

more ancient house. She was familiar with Courts from her youth; her eldest son was a distinguished General under Marlborough, and later a successful Ambassador at the Court of Prussia; she knew intimately, and associated as an equal with, the gayest, the most brilliant, the most fashionable persons in society and at Court. Her speech, therefore, was undoubtedly the *Received Standard* of her day, the 'best' English available, inasmuch as it had currency in the circles just mentioned. It is extremely probable that there was much in this type of English which the Middle Classes, for ever striving after correctness, would censure. This, if it be so, is of no importance in determining our estimate of the claim of Lady Wentworth and her belongings to represent the best Standard English of the period, except that the disapproval of professional writers on English pronunciation would rather tend to confirm Lady Wentworth's claim. It is plain that Lady Wentworth and her friends did not need the Grammarians to tell them wherein propriety of speech lay, since it was then, as now, the speech-habits of polite and accomplished men and women of the world which settled the point, and not the theories of persons in libraries or counting-houses.

What gives these letters their peculiar

value for the linguistic student is, first, the complete naturalness and the purely colloquial character of the style, and secondly, the fact that Lady Wentworth in particular discards very largely the conventional spelling, and spells as she pronounces.

Thus we get an excellent picture at once of the familiar speech of the time, its idiom, grammatical peculiarities and sentence-structure, and of the pronunciation. Lady Mary Wortley, in her letters, while conveying a wonderful sense of ease and intimacy, is generally writing for posterity, and her style is a deliberate literary achievement. She did not talk to her children and her dogs in that tone. Lady Wentworth, on the other hand, produces the conviction that she would speak to her son, her 'dearest deare childe,' precisely as she writes to him. She merely puts down on paper the sentences which rise to her lips, without touching them up or trying to give them a literary smack. No one can doubt that, if Lord Raby (as he then was) could have come in upon his mother unexpectedly at 'Twittenham,' she would have uttered in identical words the thoughts she was compelled to write. I take two examples, almost at random :

'Fubs (a pet dog) is fonder of my neic Hanburer than ever she was of you. She cannot move out of one room to a nother, without her following; and is very still tell the water is put upon the table, then she jumps up and drincks out of a glas. She will bight her friend Betty if she offers to meddle with my neic, and I could fill a hole sheet of paper should I tell you of all her suttle tricks' (p. 45).

'Indeed Mr. Arundell is an extreem kynde husband as ever I see, to his power. He has a payre of the pretyist coach horsis I ever did see, they ar very dark almost like black with whyte mains and long white tailse, and they goe bryd-

ling and prancin along that all people from the highist to the lowist stairs after them. Several has inquired of the coachman whether his master will part with them. I wish you had six of them, I am sure you would be in lov with them did you see them' (p. 57).

It is all like that—the excellent lady herself goes gaily 'brydling and prancin along' through dozens of letters, telling of her doings, and her dogs and their 'divertin tricks,' her friends and their pretty daughters, their fine clothes and her own, the scandals of the town, the latest peerages, and the rest, always asserting at the end—and who can doubt it?—that 'noe pen can expres how senecially I am your most inefinit affectionate mother.'

But if Lady Wentworth does not strive after a literary style, it would be a mistake to suppose that her writing is devoid of literary quality. It has all the charm of good conversation, it is spontaneous yet racy, it is full of human affection and human interest, it is shrewd, pungent, and pointed. She is immensely proud of her son, and sees in him every perfection incident to the character of an English nobleman. One of her chief solitudes is to get him suitably married to a lady of adequate rank and comfortable fortune. She is convinced that he has but to throw the handkerchief to any one of the most notable beauties in England, and she will bestow upon him at once her purse and her person. Her mind runs ever on this.

'The Wedoe Bromly writ me word of is married, I wish you a good Wife before next Easter' (p. 43).

'Hall says thear is a niece of Lord Portland's in Holland, a handsome young woman worth thirty or more thousand pound, I wish you had her' (p. 48).

'My sister Batthurst givs a great carrector of Johnson's Daughter, the great fortune, I wish you had her, or

Lady Rachel; the last I lyke mightely, she has soe much goodness in her looks . . . ' (p. 50).

'I have hard you say you have been acquainted with my Lord Carbury; his daughter you know was to have Lord Shrosbery whoe you know is maryed to an Etalyon. This Lords daughter is about seventeen, extreemly good, and very handsom, and very modist and vertuously brought up, millions better than our great cosen W. Write Lord Carburer word you ar desperit in lov with his daughter, and that mony he wants not and you will make as good a husband as Lord Shrosberry' (p. 51).

Here is an alluring suggestion: 'I am fallen in lov with Lady Humble, the more you know her the better you lyke her. I lyke her better than Lady Effingham or Lady Betty Hastins, she is not a buity but very fyne skinn, only her face is taned—and fyne shape, pretty hands, and none can have more senc then she has, vertious and discreet none more, and a very good manager, and they say is worth at leest ten thousand pd. If I was a man I would have her before som with thirty. When she was to see me the other day her eys was seldom ofe from your picturs, but most on that last. She is young enough to have children, she is soe good a huswife she will duple her fortune by good manedgement, her conversation is worth a great deel' (122).

'I know noe reson why you doe not make interest to gett the Duke of Newcastle's or Lord Carburer's daughters, indeed I lyke ether of them much better' (p. 58).

His Lordship does not rise to any of these baits, and his mother, after telling him by way of encouragement, 'Here is a Lady that has refused a great many matchis declaring she would never marry and is now fallen in lov with a third brother, a Scotchman,' adds, 'I hope thear will a time come that you will fall

in lov to, and be throughout happy both in a goodwife and children lyke yourself, a greater blessing I cannot wish you' (p. 174-175).

Lord Raby turned a deaf ear to all this maternal importunity, and in 1711, shortly after he was raised to the earldom of Strafford, like a wise man, he married to please himself, the lady being Anne, 'only daughter and heiress of Sir Henry Johnson, of Bradenham, Bucks, a City Knight who had amassed considerable property as a ship-builder' (see Introduction, p. 28).

The beauty of this lady is sufficiently vouched for by the testimony of those who knew her; and her engaging qualities of heart and mind, her gentle simplicity, her sly humour, and her love for her husband, are proved by the letters which she wrote to that most fortunate of men.

There is something very winning in Lady Strafford's expressions of affection which are scattered through her letters. Her husband is generally 'my dearest life and soul.' 'I think myself,' she says, 'the happiest person in the world, and I hope our love to won another is so sinceire that that alone will crown all our other blessings in this world' (p. 208).

Again: 'I could freely live all the year round in a desert with only you, and say with great sincerity,

I wou'd not envy Kings their state
Nor once desire a happier fate.

I'm afraid you'll think I am turn'd poet,' (p. 208).

One letter, full of the gossip of the town, tells also how Lady Rawstorne desired to see 'all Lady Wentworth's (her mother-in-law's) dumb creatures,' and how the writer contrived that 'the monkey, the parat, and the five doggs shall be all shute up in a chare together, and Lady Wentworth in another to see they are not run away with.' Lady Strafford concludes: 'If you don't think

this letter long enough the next shall be longer, for you can't be more diverted with reading them, than I am with writing 'em, for even talking to you in this way is more pleasing to me than all the conversation in the world besides. I fear some part of this you'll hardly read, for I have speelt it abominably, but you must take it for better for worse as you have don me, and to my dearest soul adieu yours for ever' (p. 214).

Lady Strafford is a patrician, and of the eighteenth century in the occasional forcefulness of her expressions, and she does not mince her words or shrink from phrases which few women in her position would now employ. 'My father is laid up with the gout: I believe I shall jumble my guts out between this and Russell street, for since my father has been ill I have gon every day' (p. 280).

Speaking of a visit to the house of Prince Eugene, who was then in London, she tells her lord: 'I wonder Mons. Marshall (Eugene) can talk of his great liveing here, for they had a very indiferent lodging in St. James Street, and the house was kept the nastiest I ever see a house, and used to stink of your favorite dish onions, ready to kill me. . . .'

Fastidious, and sensitive to externals, she writes: 'The Spanish Ambassadors that is com over is the strangest dirty creature. I see him play Basset with the Queen, and his hands were the dirtiest things I ever see' (p. 284).

Living in a coarse age, a young wife separated for long intervals from her husband, she observed the nicest decorum in her own conduct, yet shows the easy tolerance of her time for the frailties and incorrectitude of others. On the other hand, she is rather disgusted at public demonstrations of lawful affection. She is for a decorous outward bearing, and the companionship in retirement of her 'dearest soul.' 'I fancy you and I could live very prettyly at Twittenham by our-

selves in a rurall romantick way; I must confess 'twould not be very much in the modern way of living, but that's no matter so long as we like it. . . . The Duke and Duchess of Beaufort are the fondest of won another in the world, I fear 'tis too hot to hold. He's never out after seven a clock at night, and if he has any company he takes an opportunity to tell them they must be gone by that time; and if he comes home and the Duchess is abroad, he sends all the town over to fetch her home to keep him company. Now I own I fancy people may love won anothere as well without making so great a rout.'

We catch a brief glimpse of Lady Mary Montague Wortley, as she sometimes struck her acquaintances in 1734. 'Lady M. Wortley cam here this morning, her dress was a sack and all her jewells, and she walked here from her own home; she had no news, and I was sadly tired of her before she went' (p. 501).

THE LANGUAGE OF THE 'WENTWORTH PAPERS.'

§ 1. The following account deals principally, on the one hand, with those features of pronunciation—so far as this is suggested by the spelling—and of accidence, which differ from the types ordinarily used in *Received Standard English* at the present time, and, on the other, with those which are interesting by reason of their appearance so early as the period of these documents.

For purposes of comparison with late seventeenth and early eighteenth century English I have referred to Cooper's *Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae*, 1685, ed. J. D. Jones, 1911, and to Jones's *Practical Phonography*, 1701, ed. E. Ekwall, 1907. For later eighteenth-century English I have principally referred to *Englische Lautlehre nach James Elphinston* (1765, 1787, 1790), by E. Müller, 1914. The chief recent works upon English pronun-

ciation to which I refer are—W. Horn, *Historische Neuenglische Grammatik*, 1908 (*cit.* Horn, *Hist. Gr.*); *Untersuchungen sur Neuenglischen Lautgeschichte*, 1905 (*cit.* Horn, *Untersuch.*), and Jespersen's *Modern English Grammar*, Part I., 1909 (*cit.* Jespersen).

In order to economize space, I have not referred to every writer who has ever dealt with all the questions discussed. I have tried to avoid, as much as possible, arguing afresh what everyone agrees upon or disagrees about, and have not sought to reopen the wounds of old controversies.

METHODS OF PRESENT INVESTIGATION.

§ 2. In the numerous cases in which Lady Wentworth, Peter Wentworth, and Lady Strafford, depart from the usual spelling of their age—and this did not differ vitally from that of our own—I assume that the 'incorrect' spelling is the result of a tendency to approximate the spelling to the pronunciation of the writer, and is not purely arbitrary—*e.g.*, I take such a spelling as *Jarzy* to imply a different pronunciation from that which would have been the ancestor of present-day [dʒāzi]. The aim of the investigation is not to discuss in detail the particular shade of sound which each vowel had, but rather to establish, in a very general way, the *type* of pronunciation which the writers used. Thus, it is outside our present purpose to discuss whether the *a* in *Jarzy* was really pronounced [a, ā] or [æ]; it is enough to assume that, whatever shade of sound the vowel then bore, it was the type which would have developed into present-day [dʒāzi].

The main interest in the study of eighteenth-century English pronunciation lies not so much in the difference in the actual sounds compared with those of the present day, for these differences are, with the exception, perhaps, of [æ̃] where

[ā] is now used, comparatively slight. The important differences consist really in the distribution of this or that sound in this or that group of words. Pronunciations which existed in the eighteenth century may exist, with hardly any change, at the present time, but they have often become vulgarisms, whereas before they were *Received Standard*. It is the change in the particular *type* of pronunciation used which is interesting and important. Upon this aspect of English speech the *Wentworth Papers* throw light of a rather unusual kind, since the testimony they bear comes from the unstudied writings of persons who are not posturing before the public, nor endeavouring to set up models of propriety in language. It often happens that Lady Wentworth's spellings, if we interpret them correctly, confirm the statements made by the professional grammarians and orthoëpists of her age, with regard to common speech usage. In other cases the grammarians prove that the pronunciations suggested by this lady really did exist, although they may condemn them as vulgar. When this happens, we shall perhaps be wise to accept it as a fact that good society in the early eighteenth century persisted in such and such usages, in spite of the protests of the self-constituted guardians of linguistic purity and propriety. Anyone who pays attention to these things knows that there are dozens of pronunciations, condemned at the present time by schoolmasters and grammarians, which are essential elements in *Received Standard* English.

N.B.—The numbers in the following sections refer to the page. Unless otherwise indicated, the forms quoted are Lady Wentworth's; those from Peter Wentworth's letters are marked P.W.; those from Lady Strafford's letters are marked Ly.Str.

VOWEL SOUNDS.

§ 3. *ar* where *Received Standard* now has [ā] from the M.E. *er* type :

sartainly, 48; *cartain*, 56; *Jarmany*, 52; *sarvents*, *passim*; *sarve*, 77; *sarvis*, 95; *sarving*, 118; *sarves*, Str., 452, 453; *hard*, 'heard,' 51, 60; *parson*, 'person,' 94; the lady's *parson*, 96; Lord *Jarsis*, 84; Lord *Garzy*, 55; *Jarzy*, 149; *parfit*, 121; *sarment*, 'sermon,' 221, 321; *parfait*, Ld.Str., 543; *Barlin*, 130; *desarv*, 118, and Str., 219; *Garman Street*, Str., 464; Lady Betty *Garmain*, Str., 458.

The spellings *Bartly*, 'Berkley,' and *Darbyshire* (letter of Lord Bathurst), 455, where the type indicated is that still in polite use by the side of the vulgar [bākil, dābiʃə].

The distribution of the *er* and *ar* types among words of this class has fluctuated astonishingly in the Standard language from age to age. Compare statement and examples given by Jespersen, pp. 197-199.

Cooper seems to have preferred the *er* type on the whole, and considers *sarvice* barbarous, but, on the other hand, he gives the *ar* form in *heard*. Compare Dr. Jones's Introduction, p. 89. Jones (*The Practical Phonographer*) has *ar* in *Berks*, *clerk*, *Herbert*, *merchant*, *mercy*, *verdict*, *heard* (p. 24), in *perfect* (p. 28), and *Garnsey* (p. 43). Elphinston's usage appears to agree with our own: *a* in *hearken*, *Berkshire*, *sergeant*, *Hertford*, but *er* in *merchant*. He, however, advocates *er* in *hearth*, and tolerates it in *clerk*, by the side of the other type. Compare Müller, § 99. He puts down *larn* as a London vulgarism in his paraphrase of Martial, l. 225. (This version is given in full by Müller in his book.) As the eighteenth century drew near its end the *ar* type was more and more ousted by the other, though even into the nineteenth century [ā] survived among good old-fashioned speakers in words in which it has now vanished.

The following may be noted from fifteenth-century sources: Bury Wills, 1463, *sarmon*, 17, 205. Cely Papers: *sarten*, 146, etc.; *starlynge*, 'sterling,' 'Letters and Papers' and other London documents of the fifteen century generally keep the *-er-* type, even where we now have *a*, as in *werre*, *ferme*, *ferther*, etc.

LOWERING OF [i] TO [ε].

§ 4. This is a very persistent habit, especially in Lady Wentworth's letters. Some of the words, as we shall see, are given as occurring with *e* by the disapproving Elphinston. This establishes a strong probability that the rest are genuine. Whether we have here a provincialism, or a widespread habit in fashionable English of the early eighteenth century, I cannot at present say. The spellings are—

tel, 'till,' 84; *setezon*, 'citizen,' 84; *hender*, 'hinder,' vb., 95; *setting*, 'sitting,' 107; *veseting* day, 39; *consperecy*, 40; *delever*, 40; *contenew*, 40; *consedder*, 41; *senc*, 'since,' 50; *sevell*, 'civil,' 51; *speting*, 'spitting,' 51; *sesterns*, 'cisterns,' 65; New *Rever* water, 65; *beger*, *begest*, 'bigger,' etc., 129; *well* (unstressed), 'will,' 129; *helherto* (P.W.), 435; *sesters* (Lord Wentworth, a child), 461; *threvoles*, 'frivolous,' 127.

NOTES.—*Hether-* should, perhaps, not appear here, as it may be a survival of the older form. Before *r*, as in *mirror*, etc., [ε] seems to have been pronounced in the eighteenth century, and also [ā] apparently, and these forms, due to combinative change, I have myself heard from old people, though not, perhaps, among the best speakers. As for the other words in the above list, in which there seem to be no combinative factors at work, the change is akin to, or identical with, a fairly widespread habit which we now feel to be provincial or vulgar. Elphinston puts down *set*, *tell*, *sence*

('since'), *ef* ('if), as London vulgarisms. Compare Müller, p. 74.

I have noted the following from fifteenth-century sources: Bury Wills, 1463, *merours*, p. 21. Cely Papers: *sennes*, 'since,' *sen*, 41; *swefte*, 48; *scheppe*, 70; *fet*, 'fit,' n. 771; *wendow*, 82; *deshes*, 182; *smethe*, 'smith,' *bellit*, 182.

LOWERING OF [ɛ] TO [æ].

§ 5. The only example in the *Papers* is *mallancolly*, 122. This is a modern provincial vulgarism, and I can trace no other cases in Standard English except eighteenth-century *yellow*, which is evidently Jones's form (p. 14). In this word the influence of *fallow* has been suggested to account for the now obsolete form. Is it possible that Lady Wentworth could have associated *mallancolly* with *malady*?

Note also *malyncoly* in Bokenham, *St. Agatha*, 349.

UNROUNDING OF *o*.

§ 6. We have survivals of this in *strap* by the side of *strop*, and the Biblical *plat* (of ground) by the side of *plot*. Lord Foppington, in Vanbrugh's *Relapse*, is the most famous exponent of this once fashionable unrounding, and much has been written on him and on the process—e.g., Horn, *N.E. Hist. Gr.*, § 55; present writer's *Short Hist. of Engl.*

The examples in the *Wentworth Papers* are—*beyand*, 127; *Anslow* = *Onslow*, 67 (twice).

LEVELLING OF OLD *oi* AND *i*.

§ 7. These sounds, probably during the seventeenth century, were both levelled under [ai]. The diphthong [oi] was subsequently restored through the influence of the traditional spelling, and thus differentiated artificially from old [i], which became [ai]. Lady Wentworth confuses the spelling, of the two original sounds, showing, apparently, that she made no differ-

ence between them. There are, unfortunately, only the following examples: *oi* for *i*—*violence*, 280; *i* for *oi*—*my laced twilete*, 'toilette,' 244.

'KENTISH' TYPE OF O.E. *ȝ*.

§ 8. *Heered*, 'hired,' 65.

M.E. *ā* (TYPE WITH LENGTHENING FROM *ǣ*) WHERE WE NOW USE TYPE FROM *ā*.

Rether, 65, probably represents the type from M.E. *rāther*, corresponding to the now obsolete [reid̥əə], like dialectal [feid̥ə] from M.E. *fāther*, instead of [rād̥ə fād̥ə] from M.E. types with *ǣ*—[fæðər < fæðər = fæðər < fād̥ə], etc.

M.E. *ī* IN OPEN SYLLABLES BECOMES [ē], WHENCE MODERN [i].

§ 9. We have very few examples of this in present-day Received Standard; but those who follow Luick explain the [i] in *week*, *beetle*, *evil*, in this way.

Lady Wentworth has the following: *leved*, 'lived,' 64, 116; *levin* and *leving*, 54; *pety*, 39; *geven* (p.p.), 40, 56, 64; *lever*, 'liver,' 42; *wemen*, 113.

NOTES.—The usual form of the infinitive is *giv(e)*, but [gīv] may have been pronounced, as this was a common type in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. I believe the above form, *geven*, is one of the latest, if not the latest, instances of this type recorded. *Pety* survives in the now obsolete [pit̥i]. *Wemen* I take to mean [wīmen], from M.E. *wīmen*, whence *wēmen*.

[i] FROM M.E. *ī* SHORTENED TO [i] IN EARLY MODERN.

§ 10. The only noteworthy examples are the common seventeenth and eighteenth century pronunciations [divl], written *divel*, 92 (P.W.); *bin*, 'been,' 478 (Lord Berkley of Stratton); and *pritty*, 153 (P.W.). We have one or two examples of this shortening in present-day English—e.g., *breeches* [brɪtʃɪz]; *riddle* [rɪdl], from O.E. *rādels*, M.E. *rēdel*, Early Mod. [ridel]. [bin], though still heard among good

speakers, is old-fashioned and obsolescent. The shortening in this form no doubt took place originally in unstressed positions.

EARLY MODERN [y̆] FROM M.E. [eu, y̆].

§ 11. Duke of *Buforde*, 118, 119, 130 = [byū-]. This word should normally have ē in M.E. before *f*. Lady Wentworth's pronunciation may have been the fashionable one in her day, and due to analogy of *beau*-ty, etc. [byūtē]. The latter word Lady Wentworth writes *buity* (94). Her form *buiryed*, 122, = [bjūrjéd] (?), represents O.E. *y* type, instead of the 'Kentish' [berē].

VOWELS IN UNSTRESSED SYLLABLES.

§ 12. It would appear from a variety of spellings that Lady Wentworth had reached pretty near to the stage of present-day English in her pronunciation of unstressed vowels. We may say generally that, in this position, original front vowels become [i] (except before original *r*, and sometimes *n* and *l*), and back vowels [ə], in Received Standard, although in the various provincial Modified Standards [ə] is heard in both cases, unless, as often happens, we get a spelling pronunciation with a full or unreduced vowel.

Examples of *i* in suffix and other unstressed syllables are—*Jarsis*, *St. Jamsis*, 47; *horsis* (pl.), 113; *glassis*, 111; *dearist*, passim; *modist*, 113; *freezis*, 111 (3rd sing.); *bullits*, 81; *dutchiss*, 45; *blancitt*, 62; *oring*, *oringis*, 107; *Etalyon*, 53; *Chyney* [tʃəinē] probably owes the vowel of its second syllable to the French ending *-ois* in an unstressed position.

Examples of [ə]: *carrector*, 50; *purpus*, 65; *seteson*, 84; *Yoarup*, 'Europe,' 417; and the confusion of *-bery*, *borough* [-brɜ, -brē]: *Molbery* [mɔlbəri] or [mɔlb(ə)rə], *Carburer* [kærb(ə)rə], *Hanburer* [hænb(ə)rə].

It seems evident that *a*, *ar*, *ur*, *er*, *or*,

all stand for [ə]. Compare, besides the spellings just given, also *Bavarior*, *operer*, *picturns*, *creetors*, *creeturs*, *torter*, quoted in §§ 13 and 30; and *sogar*, 113. Then, 'than,' 416 and frequently, may be a traditional survival of the old form, but it may also be an attempt to express the unstressed [ðən]. In *Prution*, 'Prussian,' 243, and *Etalyon*, 53, the spelling *-on* shows the levelling of this and *-an* to [ən]. The total disappearance of an unstressed syllable occurs, as at the present time, in *youl*, 'you'll,' 56; *its*, 'it is,' 96; 'would passim.

TREATMENT OF FRENCH *ü* [y] IN UNSTRESSED SYLLABLES.

§ 13. We have to distinguish several possibilities:

1. (a) Fr. *ü*, in syllables which were unstressed in Early Modern, simply becomes [i]: to this type belong our *biscuit*, *minute* (noun), *conduit*, and eighteenth-century 'fortin,' 'fortune' = [biskit, minit, kandit, fɔrtin]; (b) before *r* we get in present-day English [ə], as in *figure* = [figə], and in polite eighteenth-century *nater*, 'nature' = [nətər], now vulgar, from Early Mod. *nätür*.

2. (a) Fr. *ü* in syllables which were stressed in M.E. and Early Mod., and still preserve the stress, becomes [jü], as in *minute* (adj.) = [mainjüt]; (b) in syllables still stressed in Early Mod., but now unstressed, Fr. *ü* becomes [ju, jə].

In the latter type the combinations [tju, sju] become [tʃə, fə], as in *nature*, *creature*, *censure* [neitʃə, krɪtʃə, senʃə]; the combinations [dju, zju] become [dʒə, zə], as in *verdure*, *pleasure* [vɛdʒə, pleʒə]. Thus, all the present-day forms with [tʃə, fə, dʒə, zə] go back to Early Mod. types, with the stress on the first syllable—*creature*, *nature*, *censure*, *verdure*, *pleasure*, etc.—although this was subsequently altered to the present system, which is more consonant with English speech habits, no doubt through the influence of

the type *nature*, *verdure*, etc., which, as we know from Chaucer's metre, existed alongside of the French type of accentuation already in M.E.

The *Wentworth Papers* have several interesting examples of Types 1 and 2 :

1. (a) *vertious* ; *vallyed*, 52, 'valued' ; *yousyal*, 84, 'usual' = [vart̪iəs, væli(ε)d, yūziəl].

(b) *picturs*, 63 ; *creeturs*, 64 ; *creetors*, 475 (Captain Powell) ; *torter*, 'torture', 64 = [pikt̪ə(r)z, kr̪it̪ə(r)z, t̪ə(r)t̪ə(r)].

NOTE.—The *i* in *vertious* is due to the unstressed *ü* in M.E. *vértuous*, whereas our [vɹ̥t̪ʃuəs] is either a spelling-pronunciation or a new formation from [vɹ̥t̪ʃu], earlier *vertúe*, from [vert̪ʃ]. The *i* in *vallyed* is normal from earlier [vály], our [væl̪ju] being either a spelling-pronunciation or representing *valú*. The third form has a very regular [jū] for stressed [y], and [i] for the unstressed—*ú*suel. Our pronunciation with [jū] in both cases has a spelling-pronunciation in the unstressed vowel.

As regards Type 2 (a and b), I have noted no conclusive spellings in the *Papers*, except 2 (a), *youmored*, 107, 'humoured,' *youmore*, 320, where can be no doubt as to the perfectly regular pronunciation suggested for French [y] in the stressed position. We shall be safe in assuming that in Type 2 (b) the combinations [t̪ju, d̪ju], etc., had become [t̪ʃ, d̪ʃ], in accordance with regular seventeenth and eighteenth century practice. See further § 29 below, on [t̪j], etc., followed by vowels.

Cooper, p. 60, puts *circuit* and *conduit* with [i] in the second syllable [Type 1 (a)], and Type 1 (b) is very largely repre-

sented. On p. 79 he gives the following pairs as agreeing in pronunciation: *pastor*—*pasture*; *pickther*—*picture*; and on pp. 48, 49, he gives a considerable list of words, including *pasture* and *future*, which end in [ə]: *adventure*, *lecture*, *nature*, *figure*, *feature*, *future*, *posture*, *torture*, *vesture*, *tenure*, etc. Thus, we may take it that Cooper's usage agrees perfectly with that of Lady Wentworth. The same is true of Jones, who has [t̪ə, d̪ə] in all the *-ture* and *-dure* words, including *ordure*, *nature*, *picture* (compare p. 52). It is interesting to note that this type went gradually out as the eighteenth century advanced; and Elphinston has no [t̪ə] forms at all: he favours Type 2 (b), but adheres to [t̪j] in *actual*, *creature*, etc., and regards [kr̪it̪ə(r), ækt̪ʃuəl], as 'truly vulgar,' and speaks of 'the groce emission of *creacher* and *verger*' (Müller, p. 189). This view is certainly influenced by the spelling, and all pronunciations with [t̪j] at the present day are probably of this origin.

FORMS WITH *-ious*, WHERE WE NOW HAVE *-ous*.

§ 14. I have noted *covetious*, 102, *mischevyous*. The descendants of these—[kav̪it̪ʃəs, mist̪ʃiv̪iəs]—are now bad vulgarisms. How arbitrary is English usage in respect of this group of words! See Jespersen's examples, 9. 83, 9. 84. Where Chaucer had *pitous*, *hidous*, we now have *piteous*, *hideous*; Milton has *stupendious*, which would now be as vulgar as *enormious* or *tremendious* [trim̪ɛnd̪ʃəs]. *Cur'ous* is as vulgar as *hidous* is impossible at the present time.

HENRY CECIL WYLD.

(To be concluded.)

THE REFORM OF SPELLING.

I HAVE been hoping for the last year that Miss Bremner would continue her dissertations on the reform of spelling, and show us how the wedge, the thin end of which got in at the end of her paper, might be driven a bit farther home. For some reform, I believe, is really necessary, and we ought not to be deterred from pursuing it even by the revolutionary threatenings of the Simplified Spelling Society, who stand to the forward movement much in the same relation as the Nihilists stand to the Duma in Russian politics. The printed language suggested by the S.S.S. is not the natural outgrowth of a historic language, not even a variant of a traditional set of symbols, nor is it the chosen instrument of a great literary genius; it is the hideous invention of certain people for whom their mother-tongue has no more sacredness than a commercial code or a system of shorthand, and who, with magnificent audacity, imagine that they are going to dictate both the pronunciation and the spelling of a hundred and fifty millions of people. As Cromwell said of one of his Parliaments: 'Nothing is in the hearts of these men but overturn, overturn.' The excuse made for this substitution of a new language for the old is that the new will be easier for foreigners—especially badly educated foreigners. If that be really so, let it be reserved for the use of such. If the Samoyedes find it a convenient medium for their correspondence with the Patagonians, by all means let them use it. Should the chiefs of Central Africa adopt it as the language of diplomacy, no one would wish to interfere with their choice. But do not let us ask Englishmen, or even foreigners with any literary education, any feeling of what language is, or even any sense of humour, to make use of it. But possibly to attack the mon-

ster is unnecessary; he is, I believe, already half dead, if, indeed, he was ever more than half alive. The S.S.S. is preparing a petition to the Prime Minister, asking for an inquiry into the possibilities of reform, and suggesting that the Commission should include literary men, business men, and educationists, in addition to scholars and phoneticians—a hopeful sign that the Society is beginning to recognize that the English language is not the private property of a few learned persons.

Professor Williams's article in your number for June, 1914, is an interesting example of the incapacity of the philologists to look at this question from any but the strictly scientific point of view. A language is to them merely a piece of machinery; if a better kind of machine can be invented, why not at once scrap the old and adopt the new? Unfortunately for this view, language is a great deal more than a mere piece of machinery. It is part of our national heritage and tradition, and is as much entwined with our national consciousness as any other part of that tradition. Equally fallacious, if the matter is viewed from the standpoint of the educated person of to-day, is the attempt to 'distinguish between the English language and English spelling,' as Professor Williams wishes us to do. The symbols that appeal to the eye are to us to-day as much the English language as the sounds that strike the ear; neither has any precedence over the other, or any greater right to consideration. The undoubted historical fact that sounds existed before symbols does not influence us more than the equally undoubted historical fact that the House of Lords is older than the House of Commons influenced political thought a few years ago. The associations of the printed picture are as

strong and rich in suggestion as the associations of the uttered sound, and in the one case just as little as in the other can we make up our minds to jettison the whole cargo of those associations. And so a proposal to change the whole outward aspect of a page of printed English is really much like a proposal to change the national flag. How easy it would be to make out a case for such a change! The symbolism of the flag is far from clear—indeed, it is so indistinct that it has to be carefully explained to school-children. And the flag in its present form is not really very old, only a little more than a hundred years. Why not agree that in future the three crosses should be placed side by side, each with the name of the country to which it belongs printed underneath it. It would save the children in the East End schools much trouble. To suggest such an idea is to reveal its absurdity. To many of us, however, the idea of changing the symbols in which Nelson wrote his last prayer is not one whit less repulsive than the idea of changing the flag which flew at the masthead of the *Victory*. The one is hallowed by its associations as much as the other, and is equally the object of reverence and affection. The spelling of the language is eloquent of our past, the composition and history of the race are mirrored in its outward aspects. The proposal to pass a steam-roller over all these varieties, to obliterate the marks of the Anglo-Saxon, the Norman, and the Frenchman, and to blot out all the signs of our relation to the ancient civilizations, come strangely from one who describes himself as ‘an upholder of the historical standpoint.’ Dr. Williams, swerving for just one moment from his view of language as merely a useful piece of machinery, called language ‘a social tradition which . . . must be conceived as the product of historical development,’ but he does not proceed

to argue, as he ought, that social traditions can be altered only by gradual change, and not by revolution. His view of the history of our language appears to have stopped short at the point where pronunciation and spelling diverged, and he asks us to go back to that point. It is as if a statesman, whose studies of the history of the Constitution had never got farther than Edward I., were to ask us to go back to the system of Estates of the thirteenth century. What has developed slowly can only be changed slowly. The work of several centuries cannot be undone in a night—at least, not in England.

Nor does the Professor seem to understand any better the objection to ‘Josh Billings English.’ The dislike to it is with me, and probably with others, due to its association with illiterateness and a certain kind of third-rate humour. If there are people in whose psychology the association of ideas plays no part, they will feel no more offended by ‘Josh Billings English’ than they would at seeing a Professor delivering a lecture in football flannels. If utility is all that matters, why should not a Professor wear flannels? Language, and even spelling, is, like dress, dignified or undignified, according to its associations. If the Prime Minister addressed the House of Commons in vulgar slang, it would not to me be a greater offence than the printing of his speech in ‘Josh Billings English.’ Dr. Williams’s remarks on this point show even more clearly than the rest of his paper how impossible it is that this question can be solved by academic methods or by academic persons only. It needs the mind of the statesman as much as the mind of the philologist—the mind which takes into consideration sentiment and tradition as much as utility and convenience, and which regards national instinct and public feeling as something more than evidence of stupidity.

For there certainly is a question to be solved, a question that is extremely difficult and complex, and which almost certainly will not be solved by a single generation. Probably all that can be done in any particular decade is to set the ball rolling. The worst way to do this is by arguing about 'theories' and 'standpoints.' The more feasible method is the English way of beginning with practice, and leaving theory severely alone—a faulty method, perhaps, but it is the only one that ever works in this country. Let us simply consider how we can combine the maximum of relief to learners of English, whether children or foreigners, with the minimum of change. A little reflection will show us that a great deal could be done to simplify our spelling without revolutionizing the printed language or making it look anything but English. There are all sorts of vagaries and oddities which might be swept away without anyone noticing the change. But even these small changes cannot be made by authority. No Order in Council, Act of Parliament, Decree of the British Academy, or any other Governmental edict, can make people spell otherwise than as they wish to spell. The right method of procedure would rather be to secure public tolerance for certain varieties of spelling. It would be very useful if, with a view to this, some impression could be made on our present idolatry of uniform spelling, if people could be made to understand what a very modern thing it is, and how well our not very remote forefathers got on without it, how words are frequently misspelt in letters and occasionally in print* without the least inconvenience resulting to anybody, and how already some hundreds of vocables in English can be spelt in two or three ways.

* A few weeks ago *alignment* was spelt *aline-ment* in a leading article in the *Times*. One wonders how many people took any notice of it. *Havock* appeared recently in another paper.

The difficult thing is to make a start. In spelling reform emphatically *c'est le premier pas qui coûte*. If a few popular newspapers or popular writers would adopt some simple changes, or a firm of publishers bring out a series of reprints with the like reforms, it might break the ice. If no such bold experimenters in public taste were forthcoming, we might follow the example of the French with their syntax, and try to induce the Board of Education, Civil Service Commission, and other examining bodies, to tolerate varied spellings. A list of these would of course have to be published, and such a list would certainly not be strictly logical. That would not be of much consequence, for illogicality never, to the British mind, spoils a promising scheme.

The authority which drew up the list of licences to be accepted would no doubt have to proceed at the outset with caution. The guiding principle would be to admit no change which was in opposition to any principle of English spelling. Printed English must remain English, and a practical reformer would no more propose to revolutionize it than a sane statesman would propose to abolish the Constitution and substitute one constructed by a Committee of Professors of Politics. Thus, no symbol would be allowed to represent a sound which it does not now commonly represent, or to be used in a position in which it is not now used. A society which, in obedience to a formula, writes itself *sosieti*, carries the mark of its pedantry blazoned on its forehead. The omission of the final *-e* of words ending in *-ine*, pronounced short, would be an easy change; *engin*, *destin*, *examin*, look quite English; but the proposal of the American Simplified Spelling Board to knock the *e* off words ending in *-ive*, pronounced short, is more dubious, because English words do not end in *v*, and, I think I am right in saying, never have ended in *v*. No spelling should be

recognized which changed a word so much that it would not be recognizable at a glance. *Tho*, *endeavor*, *alledge*, are simple enough, but *ile* (*aisle*), *sithe* (*scythe*), *hole* (*whole*), seem doubtful possibilities. No attempt should be made to obliterate such Latin endings as *-tion*, *-ure*, *-ial*, or Greek symbols such as *ph*, *ae*, *y*, and *ch* (with sound *k*), or characteristic English digraphs such as *gu* (for hard *g*), *qu*, *ck*, *wh*. Personally, I hope words taken direct from the Latin will never be much changed, for, seeing that the decay of the study of Latin in schools is inevitable, I do not want to see it made more difficult than it is at present. But on this point, as on others, reformers must not let themselves be bound by a rigid code.

The doubling of the consonant after a short stressed vowel is a feature of English spelling, and therefore such spellings as *flaggon*, *vannish*, *bannister*, *boddy*, might well be admitted. Again, the rule would be, admit nothing not in common use; but if we accept the very obvious reform of spelling past tenses and past participles with final *t*, when it corresponds with the sound, we might sanction the Poet Laureate's *et* to get over the difficulty of such words as *produce*. It is quite curious what a number of superfluous vowels have crept into English words, and these could probably be silently dropt without so much as a dog barking. Who would shed a tear over the loss of *i* from *bruise*, *cruiſe* (possibly also *raise*, *praise*, *maize*), *juice*, *shuice*, *leisure*, or the disappearance of *u* from *moulder*, *smoulder*, *shoulder*, *mourn*, *moult*, *poultice*, *build*, *guard*, and *a* from *hoard*, *board*, *coarse*, *cocoa*, and *e* from *hearken*, *heart*, *height*, *sleight*?

Other specimens of words from which useless letters (how fond we are, in English, of superfluous letters!) might vanish are *would*, *could*, *should*, *ghost*, *aghaſt*, *ghaſtly*, *debt*, *doubt*, *island*, *jeopardy*, *schedule*, *anchor*, *harangue*, and Greek words

ending in *-logue*, seeing that there is nothing Greek about the *ue*. Other specimens of admissible alternatives are *sovran*, *quire* (for *choir*), *rime*, *batchelor*, *alledge*, *antient*, *recrute*, *surfit*, *ake*, *skeptic*, *vittles*. In the case of some of these words our present spelling is merely stupid, in other cases it is out of harmony with that of analogous words. As there is nothing really Greek about the final *c* in such words as *critic*, there seems no good reason for not admitting the old spelling of such words with final *ck*. The plural of words ending in *ey* is frequently misspelt; why not tolerate *monckies*, *chimnies*? These are really very small points; a change of wider sweep would be the licensed dropping of *a* from *ea*, in all cases where the combination represents a short vowel, e.g., *ernest*, *lern*, *breddh*, *hevy*, *pesant*, *red* (past tense and participle of verb), *medow*, *led* (name of metal). Another useful licence, perhaps too big for the first batch, would be the admission of *-ope*, *-ote*, *-ole*, *-oke*, *-ome*, *-one*, for *-oap*, etc. Such spellings as *cote*, *mote*, *cloke*, *sope*, *shole*, look, and in most cases are, thoroughly English—so thoroughly English, indeed, that one would expect the ugly digraph *oa* to disappear in no long time. We cannot imagine it gaining ground; no Englishman would ever write 'Hoam, sweet hoam,' no Englishwoman would ever agitate for a 'voat,' no Catholic would ever venerate the 'Poap.' These are merely a few specimens of alternative spellings which it seems possible to admit without seriously altering the look of the printed language; there are plenty more changes which are quite simple and obvious, but I will mention only the toleration of *ie* in *receive*, etc., of either *-eed* or *-ede* in *concede*, *proceed*, etc., the interchangeability of *licence* and *license*, *practice* and *practise*, the admission of a double *l* in *fulfil*, *until*, and the acceptance of *payed** (greatly beloved of schoolboys)

* Or *payd*. So also *layd*.

for *paid*. I do not wish to weary my readers, and it is the less necessary, as they will have no difficulty in thinking out further possibilities of reform for themselves. I will only add that it would, no doubt, need a nice judgment to decide what extension should be given to this system of toleration. A small number of licences would give little relief and excite little interest; a very large number would change the look of the language too much. Examining authorities would have to try to hit the happy mean. The right side on which to err would be that of conservatism.

Once the ice was broken up, the stream must be allowed to find its own course. The language would be left to the natural forces by which languages are made and altered, though probably there would always be room for the action of examining bodies and education authorities in guiding and checking the movement. There would be opportunity, too, for teachers to exercise their influence. English spelling is by no means so chaotic as is sometimes supposed, and, in pointing out the admitted varieties of spelling, teachers could easily show which were and which were not in conformity with the general principles of our orthography. They could wage war especially against the merely stupid spellings, *rhyme, gaol,*

forego, sylvan, and the rest of them. Wherever liberty was allowed, the natural instinct of children would probably lead them to prefer the more reasonable orthography, and to bring erratic forms into harmony with the prevailing laws. Half the mistakes made by children in spelling are due to their subconscious tendency to make words conform to type. *Alledge, untill, payed,* are as common as possible in examination papers, but I do not recollect ever seeing *redgi-ment, til, or staid* (for *stayed*). It is important to note, too, that the children who would be most interested in the question of the best spelling would be those of a linguistic and literary turn of mind, who would become the journalists, writers, and teachers, of the next generation, and in those capacities would help on the reform movement. How far that movement would go it is, of course, impossible to say. To attempt to prophesy would be as useless as to attempt to dictate. All we can be sure of is that changes would be gradual, and would follow an enlightened public opinion. The tendency would probably be towards a phonetic system of orthography, but how near or how distant an approximation to such a system will ever be reached time alone can show.

B.

LEARNING FRENCH IN 1670.

If ever in the past a knowledge of French was esteemed indispensable to the Englishman of good breeding, to our *honnête homme*, it was in the years that followed the Restoration. Nor is the importance attributed to French surprising. The exiled Royalists, following the wandering Court of Charles or attached to that of the Queen-Mother at Paris, had been forced to a nearer acquaintance with the language, and the younger generation—many had been born abroad—was prac-

tically bilingual. Add to this the fact that a year's travel is still an integral part of an Englishman's education, and it becomes the most natural thing in the world that every parent who can sends his boys over to France, for some months at least.

The following letters, preserved among the French State Papers at the Public Record Office, convey an idea of the doings of three young Englishmen in France, and, incidentally, they throw a

little light on methods then in vogue. The first letter concerns a boy in his teens, placed in a *pension* at Saumur; the second is the artless production of a young gentleman of means and leisure, desirous of not being troubled with overmuch 'grammar.' The letters which follow are selected from the correspondence of an Oxford scholar. All are addressed to Joseph Williamson, at that time secretary to Arlington.

I.

Williamson had an erudite friend at Saumur, the philologist Tanneguy le Fevre, who was in the habit of receiving a certain number of boys—French and English—into his home. It was doubtless to him that 'Philip and William, sons of Sir Thomas Cotton, Bart.,' went in 1662, if one may judge from their pass to Saumur.* When Sir Anthony Deane, the friend of Pepys, and his fellow-sufferer at the Tower, sent his son to France, it was Saumur that he chose, probably at Williamson's suggestion. Upon young Anthony Deane's arrival there in July, 1671, Le Fevre wrote the following curious letter, which contains some wholesome, even if prosaic, advice :

'8 juillet [16]71. Saum[ur].

'MONSIEUR,

'Votre petit homme est arrivé ce matin à 7 heures. Il se porte bien, à la reserve de certaines pustules quas in itinere contraxit. J'ay donné ordre qu'il ne boive point de vin, qu'il dorme beaucoup, et qu'il evite la chaleur. S'il vouloit souffrir la saignée, cela seroit bientost fait, sed illam refugit et formidat male. Je luy feray demain commencer ses declinaisons et conjugaisons Françoises par le Latin; ea vita tuta est et brevis et plane compendiosa. En un mot, faciam ut tua illi commendatio prosit, quod tuta ipse mecum aliquando agnosces. Quae

* Cal. State Papers Dom., 1661-2, p. 243.

in illa tua plena amoris epistola prescripta sunt, ea sedulo observabo. Je vous prie d'assurer Mr son père qu'il se doit reposer sur moy; j'auray soin de luy comme de mon fils. Il faut luy mander qu'il ne fréquente point les Anglois qui sont icy; car je veux qu'il apprenne nostre langue. Qu'il m'obéisse sans repugnance. Point de dépense. Et qu'il soit toujours habillé comme il est venu icy; nihil sumptuosius, est enim in ea re pestis juventatis. Je finis un peu court; c'est que j'ay beaucoup de lettres à faire aujourd'hui. Je suis avec toute sorte de respect.

'Monsieur,

'Votre tres humble et tres
ob. serviteur

'T. LE FEVRE.*

Amongst the other boys at Le Fevre's house were the youngest son of Lord Castleton and one of Sir George Downing's sons. Le Fevre died in September, 1672; but Anthony continued to live with the family, taking lessons from M^{lle} Le Fevre, a clever woman, who had often taken her father's place in his lifetime when he was busy. She is better known as Madame Dacier. That the boy made some progress in the language may be seen from the letter he writes to Williamson, in which he assures him, 'Tout ceux a qui je dois de l'argent me demandent tous les jours s'il m'en vient de mon pays, mais surtout le Maistre de Musique qui m'a quitté depuis la dernière lettre parcequ'il ne me vient point d'argent.'

II.

The following needs no comment or explanation. Nothing is known of Mr. James Lane beyond what he sets forth in this letter :

'DEAR SIR,

'I received yours of y^e 21st of Octob^r. I am infinitely obliged y^t among

* R.O. State Papers Foreign, France, vol. 181, f. 150.

so many important affaires, you will remember one of the meanest clients y^t ever solicited your favor. Since you are pleased to be interested in y^e disposal I make of my self, I assure you your counsell shall always guide me in it. I was two Months at Paris in a Private Gent^{lms} House as you advised, but I found it was not their business nor talent to correct strangers and give reason for it, while I resolv^{ing} to talke alwayes, wither what I said were right or rong, ran into a habit of speaking false w^{ch} I could perceiv^e though not amend. Upon this I bethought my self of [a] way to cure this evil if possible, goeing with S^r Thomas Clarges to Clermont Beauvois in Picardy, 24 leagues from Paris to see y^e vintage & several fine houses w^{ch} were upon that rode. A Protestant Minister about y^e age of 26 y^t lives in y^e smal Toune (where no Strangers are) met us and treated us very civilly. Upon conversation together he found there was none in y^e company had a greater desire to learn french then I, therefore himself freely told me if I would come & live wth him 4 or 5 months, he would bestow 6 houres a day in instructing me. I answered y^t nothing would be so welcome to me as an ability to speake french well & I would at least experiment some time with him, to see if he could bend me that way. I have bin a Month with him & am very well satisfyd upon these considerations that I am fallen into very good hands, if so be it be possible to mold me to y^e accent of this Tongue. He troubles not my Head with Grammers but discources much with me, hears me talk, correct^{ing} & giveing a rational account why I should have expressed y^e thing otherwise. For diversion we often ride out to viset the protestant Gentry w^{ch} are not few hereabouts; at other times we go a fowling or hunting, the country being well furnisht with game. If it be bad weather we sit by a good fyer, he

taking either some book of letters or other prose of a familiar style, or perhaps some easy poet w^{ch} he reads to me an houer or two. When he is weary of it, he sings and teaches his songs to me for variety. At other times he shews me some Billiets of his owne composeing to young Ladyes w^{ch} is allowable here for exercise of their wits & indeed the matter of them seems very ingenious, for I will not pretend to judge of y^e choise of his words. I propose to get so much of y^e language this winter wth him that if I make y^e Touer of France next spring & be at Paris all y^e winter following, I shall familiarise myself to ye properties of y^e speech & people as much as my smal capacity is capable of. If you S^r approve this methode, I shall esteeme it y^e best,

‘ Who am,

‘ Your most obliged and faithful
servant,

‘ JAMES LANE.’*

CLERMONT, *Novr.* 25th, S.N. [1672].

III.

The writer of the following letters is Henry Smith, a young Oxford scholar. Lord Clifford, Treasurer to the Household, wishing to send his son abroad, fixed upon Henry Smith to be his tutor, sending him first to France alone so that he might have what Bacon calls ‘some entrance into the language.’ He stayed at Paris most of the time, except for a short visit to the towns of the Loire, where the thing that moved him most was the learned conversation of M. Tanneguy Le Fevre. During his stay in Paris Smith wrote numerous letters† to Williamson, in which he gave him the current news. The court and society news is better and more fully given in

* R.O. State Papers Foreign, France, vol. 135, f. 117.

† Fifty-three in number, R.O. State Papers Foreign, France, vols. 130–133, *passim*.

the news-letters of the time and in the letters of Williamson's other correspondents; but when Smith speaks of the doings of the 'Virtuosi' he is much more interesting, these 'trifles,' as he says, being properly his province.

'CALAIS, Dec. 4, [16]70.

'MOST HONOURED PATRON,

'After I had taken my leave of you on Sunday at night, I betooke myselfe to my two French companions, the one a D^r, the other a Footman, both of equal parts and abilities, for neither of them could speake one worde of English, nor the D^r himself one syllable of Latin, yet their company was not wthout some content & pleasure even in the greatest hardshippes of our journey: for after our landing at Graves End wee took Post, where the D^r mounted his horse without any other bootes then two ropes of hay bound about his leggs, and thus accoutred he marched to Dover where I left him, expecting Mr Richard and money: for I see nothing in him of the philosopher but pure Poverty.'

'PARIS, Dec. 10, [1670].

'In my last I gave you some account of my journey as farr as Calais, from whence in four days and an half we reached Paris. . . . For the first two nights I lodged at an house whereunto only English resort, but finding y^e prejudice of the place and unsuitableness of y^e companions (most of them rather making it their business to become good Hectors at their return to London yⁿ well-bred & civil gentlemen) I thought it more convenient to change my quarters and I put myself in a Pension not far from the Sorbon, where I shall have a better occasion both for improveing my own studys and likewise attaining y^e language more exactly.'

'PARIS, Feb. 28, [16]70.

'I have no need to frame excuses for the present trouble which I shall give

you, seeing I have your commands to warrant my writeing. . . . I will therefore endeavour to give you an account of my own and as much as I am able of other men's performances in this place. That time which I doe not employe in innocent or ingenious company, I spend in reading such authors as are esteemed to be the purest for their style and most impartial in their relations, that thereby I may in some manner answer the designs and liberality of my benefactors. . . . As for the famous men in Paris, in Mathematics the most esteemed are Seignior Cassini, a Bolognian (whom the King sent for out of his own country and allows him the same pension with M. Huygens, that is, 9,000 livres), he hath lately published his *Ephemeridas*; Abbé Picard, who is att present employed in measuring the earth after a more exact manner by the degrees of the Heavens; M^r de Robberval, one of the King's professors; père Cherubim, a Capucin, hath lately writt a large treatise in Optiques; père Davoue, a Jesuiste who made the machine (which is to be seen in Clairmont) which represents by little springs and balls the motions of the heavens according to the 3 Hypotheses of Copernicus, Tycho, and Ptol. I need not mention Balianus, who hath been so famous for many years. I hear of no great matters in Philosophy; there is only one M^r Rohault, a Cartesian, who keeps a conference every Wednesday and explains some part of Descartes, and everyone has liberty to goe and make his objections and receive all the satisfaction that he or any other in the company is able to give him. I frequent this conference not so much to gain any new thing in philosophy, seeing that there is nothing handled there but some of our English experiments which are better explained in our own authors; or some of Cartesius his notions which a man may see in Descartes himself; but chiefly

to hear and observe their manner of expressing themselves in philosophical conversation. In physique Mr Pattin, the King's chief physician, and Mr Denis, who pretends to the transfusion of blood, are the most famous, yet I do not heare that either of them is about any worke. In Divinity, I thinke there is none to be compared to Mr Arnaud amongst the Papists who was formerly expell'd the Sorbonne for not recanting a book which he writt in defence of the Jansenists; his brother being one of the 4 dissenting Bps; he is at present deeply engaged with Mr Claude (the learnedst of all Huguenots) in the long controverted question of the perpetuity of the faith of the Eucharist. . . . As for the Sorbonne, I thinke it is att a very low ebb, there being very few eminent men in it att present except Mr Launay, Stoc and 1 or 2 more. But I am apt to beleive that Paris was never better furnished with preachers. . . .'

'PARIS, June 17, [16]71.

'After I have employd my time here as well as I can, I shall returne so much the sooner to following my studys more closely at Oxon. I must beg one thing of you, that you would be pleased to give leave to Mr Vernon y^e Clerc to send me over according as he shall find opportunities, the monthly transactions, things which are much esteemed by the Virtuosi here, and a man may be more welcome in all places for relating what passeth in the Royal Society. I will be sure to bring them all safe back again.'

'[PARIS], Aug. 1, [16]71.

[After giving some Court news.] 'I dare be a little more bold in relating those things which refer to our Virtuosi; these trifles being properly my province. The Academy for refining the language have published a thesis (which is *Soli Deo Gloria*) and have invited all persons whatsoever to make some essay either in prose

or in poetry, according to their several talents, upon this subject and those two who shall be judged the most ingenious, the one for Verse, the other for Prose, will each of them receive 200 crowns recompense. The designe is so farre advanced that all the pieces are brought in to the said Academy, and are now under examination, attending their sentence which will be pronounced next Thursday, being St. Louis' day.'

'[PARIS], Aug. 15, [16]71.

'You may be pleased to remember that not long agoe I gave you a small account of Descartes his being called in question by the Sorbonne, from whence he hath since that been removed to a higher court; the King himself, takeing the matter into his cognizance, hath pronounced this sentence that no man upon pain of death shall publickly teach Descartes's or any new philosophy, insomuch that the noise and dust of the scholes hath prevailed over reason and philosophy, and Aristotle is no lesse the favourite of Louis le Grand then he was of Alexander the Great.'

'[PARIS], August 29, [1671].

'You may be pleased to remember that not long ago I acquainted you with two prizes which were designed for those who could make the best prose and verse, which have since been disposed of accordingly; but peradventure you will wonder when I tell you that one is gained by a woman, Mad^{elle} de Scudery, who received the prize for prose, which was an image of St. Louis in Sylver; before it was delivered to her, there was a solemne service said in the church, and afterwards it was carried to her house with the sound of trompetts. The prize for verse was a flower de lis of gold gained by a citizen of Dijon.'

'PARIS, Dec. 23, [1671].

'It being a custome for the city to give every New Years day a purse of counters

to the King whereon there must be constantly some new ingenious Devise, that which they designe for this years is a shippe with this motto taken out of Lucan, 'Terraque expector ab omni.'

'PARIS, March 2, [16]74.

'They say that the King hath sent an order to the Sorbonne that they shall not undertake to debate anything in their assemblies or convocations, without having first consulted the Arch B^p and had his approbation, which is certainly a trick which the Jesuits have putt upon them, and will utterly take away that authority

which they had in the Gallicane church. The King will do the French Academy the honour to be their protectour, and hath constituted at the same time the Arch B^p of Paris their directeur perpetuel.'

This is one of the last letters. In May Smith left Paris, partly on account of his health, intending, however (God willing), to maintain his acquaintance with 'the learned men of this place,' especially Mabillon and Dom Luc d'Achery, but Wood * records his death only twelve months later. RUTH CLARK.

L'ARGOT DES TRANCHÉES.†

SOURCE de vie intense et d'énergies nouvelles, la guerre actuelle ne laissera pas d'exercer une action féconde sur toutes les manifestations de la vie sociale. Parmi celles-ci, la plus vivante, le langage populaire parisien, en porte d'ores et déjà des traces de renouvellement.

Des termes qui, avant la guerre, étaient confinés dans des milieux spéciaux, ont acquis, à la lumière des événements tragiques que nous venons de traverser, un relief inattendu, et d'isolés qu'ils étaient, ils sont en train d'entrer dans le large courant de la langue nationale. Les exemples abondent.

Et tout d'abord le nom même de *Boche*. Cette appellation, naguère usuelle surtout parmi les classes professionnelles, est devenue courante. De sobriquet, simplement ironique, qu'elle était avant la guerre, elle est devenue un stigmate, un nom monstrueux qui rappelle le Gog et le Magog de l'Apocalypse. La langue en gardera un souvenir ineffaçable.

Et *zigouiller*? . . . C'était un mot cher aux apaches, au sens de tuer à coups de couteau : 'Si on cane, c'est eusses qui viendront nous zigouiller' (Rosny aîné, *Dans les Rues*, p. 244).

On dirait que le mot a atténué sa valeur louche depuis qu'on l'entend dans la bouche de nos vaillants zouaves combattant l'ennemi.

Mais d'où vient-il? C'est à Paris même un apport de la province: dans le Poitou, *zigouiller* signifie couper avec un mauvais couteau, en faisant des déchirures comme avec une scie, et dans l'Anjou, *zigaiiller*, c'est couper malproprement, comme avec un mauvais outil, en déchiquetant. On voit le chemin que ce mot de terroir a fait en s'acclimatant à Paris: du sens de scier ou couper maladroitement, *zigouiller* a passé à celui de

couper la gorge, en d'autres termes ce vocable, en s'acclimatant à Paris, a tout simplement passé des objets aux êtres humains. . . .

Le *poilu*, sobriquet naguère banal, vient d'acquiescer, par ses exploits héroïques, de véritables titres de noblesse: il est devenu le brave entre les braves. . . .

D'où vient ce surnom, aujourd'hui glorieux? De tout temps, les poils ont été considérés comme un signe de force; la légende biblique l'attribue déjà à Samson. . . . Avoir du poil et être fort sont depuis longtemps, chez nous, des expressions synonymes. Le fameux Hébert, dans son *Père Duchêne*, n° 298, de 1793, parle déjà des 'bougres à [poil], déterminés à vivre libres ou à mourir.' Il a ainsi exprimé la devise même de nos *poilus*: Vivre libres ou mourir. . . .

Une des sources les plus importantes pour étudier à cet égard la répercussion des événements récents, c'est les nombreuses lettres des tranchées. Qui ne les a pas lues avec émotion et réconfort? Elles respirent l'âme fortement trempée de la race et cette joie tout intérieure qui se traduit par une bonne humeur et une confiance inaltérables.

J'en ai devant moi tout un dossier; je cueille, dans une série de lettres‡ qu'un ouvrier parisien adressait naguère à sa sœur, le passage suivant (lettre du 13 octobre 1914):

'Nous étions au repos dans un petit patelin; les *marmites* des Boches ne nous tombent plus

* *Life and Times* (Oxford Historical Society edition), vol. ii., p. 263.

† From *Le Journal*.

‡ Publiées dans le *Figaro* du 1^{er} au 3 janvier 1915.

sur la g... Nous en entendons seulement le bruit sourd, au loin.'

Ce nom ironique donné aux gros obusiers qui éclatent avec fracas fait allusion aux marmites de campement, qui font partie de l'équipement du soldat en campagne.

Notre poilu est plein d'enthousiasme et pour le fameux 75, qui s'est attiré l'admiration universelle, et pour les vaillants artilleurs. Il en parle avec une tendre émotion :

'J'entends nos petits canons de montagne et nos 120 longs qui leur envoient des pains à cacheter ; ça tonne dur, ils ne doivent pas se faire gros dans leurs tranchées ; ça me fait plaisir, et tout seul, je me dis : "Allez-y, les gars !" Les Boches aussi répondent, mais nos braves *artiflots* n'ont pas l'air de s'en émuoir. Si tu voyais comme ils sont beaux et courageux ! Ce que je les ai admirés depuis le commencement de la guerre, rester des journées entières dans la mitraille ! En ce moment, c'est le duel d'artillerie le plus sérieux que j'aie encore entendu.'

Artiflot, mot de caserne, pour artilleur. . . . Il ne s'agit pas là d'un dérivé de fantaisie : le mot représente un croisement, c'est-à-dire une fusion de deux mots apparentés, *artilleur* et *fiflot*, troupier, l'un appartenant à la langue générale et l'autre à l'argot parisien.

Voulez-vous maintenant un échantillon de la bonne humeur de notre brave au milieu des circonstances les plus pénibles ? Lisez ces lignes du 30 octobre 1914 :

'A moi, touché ! Encore un coup, ce n'est pas très grave, j'ai pris un éclat d'obus au coude gauche ; j'ai cru d'abord que j'avais le bras emporté, mais il est encore tout entier ; j'ai seulement le bras engourdi, je ne peux faire marcher un doigt ; j'ai été à la visite ; ils m'ont fait un simple massage. Est-ce que les Boches auraient numéroté mes abatis ? À Bar-le-Duc, c'est la jambe droite ; cette fois-ci, le bras gauche ; n'empêche que c'est *loupé* pour eux quand même et j'espère bien pouvoir leur balancer des pruneaux sur la pêche avant peu.'

C'est *loupé* pour eux . . . , c'est raté, c'est manqué. *Louper*, c'est proprement faire un *loup*, c'est-à-dire une pièce manquée ou mal faite, expression particulière aux tailleurs.

On lit fréquemment dans des lettres le mot de *ribouldingue*, et la première fois non sans une pointe d'humour :

'Je t'ai écrit il y a deux jours et je te disais que Léon était disparu à sa compagnie ; il y est revenu ; je l'ai vu ce matin et il m'a dit avoir vu Fredo hier matin ; comme tu le vois, ils sont en bonne santé ; mais ce que Léon n'a pas l'air gai ! Il est vrai que ce n'est pas à la guerre qu'il redeviendra *ribouldingue*. (Cherche dans le Larousse.)'

Cette parenthèse témoigne de l'entrain gouailleur de notre gavroche. Vous aurez beau chercher

le mot dans Larousse, vous ne l'y trouverez pas, et pour cause. C'est une expression récente qu'on lit pour la première fois dans le nouveau livre de Rictus : *Cœur populaire*, p. 87.

Le mot revient plus loin sous la plume de notre poilu : 'Espère, va, ma Jeanne, je sens que nous reviendrons tous, et dame, alors, *ribouldingue* en règle !'

Être à la ribouldingue, c'est-à-dire être à la joie, s'amuser à l'excès : c'est un dérivé de *ribouldinguer*, composé lui-même de deux verbes dialectaux synonymes, *ribouler* et *dinguer*, ayant l'un et l'autre le sens de rouler, de rebondir, d'où la notion de fête, de plaisir excessif. La langue populaire abonde en pareilles combinaisons de synonymes destinés à renforcer l'idée principale.

Une dernière citation :

'Tu as dû voir dans le journal que nous avons exterminé un régiment de Boches dans l'Argonne ; nous faisons, vois-tu, du bon *boulot*.'

Boulot, encore un mot récent, que désigne le travail professionnel ou technique : *boulonner*, *bâcher*, *marnier*, *masser*, *turbiner*. . . .

Boulot, autre graphie de *bouleau* (qui est la forme initiale), est encore un exemple de la généralisation rapide d'un terme spécial. Il appartenait tout d'abord, et exclusivement, aux sculpteurs sur bois et aux ébénistes du faubourg Saint-Antoine. Tout morceau de bois à travailler est, pour ces professionnels, un *bouleau* : '*Bâcher le bouleau*, c'est, chez les sculpteurs sur bois, attaquer avec énergie une pièce de bois' (Virmaître, 1894). Depuis, ce mot technique a rapidement fait fortune : il a vite franchi le faubourg pour s'étendre sur les différents corps de métier. Tous les ouvriers l'adoptèrent :

'Les soirs de mai quand l'ouvrier
Sort de l'usine ou de l'atelier . . .
Fourbu par le *boulot* du jour . . .'

(Rictus : *Doléances*, p. 69.)

Quelle distance, n'est-ce pas, du *bouleau* des ébénistes à celui de nos poilus des tranchées !

Ce terme, inconnu avant 1890, a déjà fait, avec son sens généralisé, le tour de France. Les parisiens vont vite, grâce à différents facteurs de propagande, mais grâce aussi au prestige que la capitale a toujours exercé sur la province.

Rappelons encore une des dernières créations de ce vocabulaire des tranchées : *crapouillot*, pour petit mortier, proprement petit crapaud, d'après sa forme aplatie. C'est un diminutif parisien parallèle à *crapouillard*, crapoussin. (Voyez Bruant, voyez *enfant*.) Au quinzième siècle, *crapaudeau* désignait également un petit canon. La vision populaire a produit des images analogues au moyen âge et au vingtième siècle.

Une autre source importante pour notre sujet

aurait été l'*Echo des Marmites*, journal des tranchées. . . . Il m'a été malheureusement impossible jusqu'ici d'en voir un seul numéro. Grâce peut-être aux lecteurs du *Temps* je serai à même de combler cette lacune.

Je n'en connais qu'un seul fragment, cité dans le *Journal* de janvier 1915 ; j'y lis ce passage qui n'est pas sans importance : ' Dans les tranchées on applique aux sous-officiers le terme de *piéd*. . . . On ne sait pas pourquoi.'

Cette dernière remarque est intéressante en ce sens qu'elle témoigne de l'oubli graduel de l'origine de certaines expressions métaphoriques. Le mot est abstrait de *piéd de banc*, désignant, dans le langage des casernes, le sergent d'une compagnie (un banc à quatre piéd et une compagnie, quatre sergents) : ' Les bleus s'alignent tant bien que mal, le *piéd de banc* les compte, les recompte . . .' (Almanach du *Père Peinard*, 1894, p. 40).

De là, *piéd*, sergent ou agent de police : ' Avoir les *piéd*s dans le dos, c'est dans l'argot policier, être suivi par un agent' (Rossignol, 1900).

Des recherches longuement poursuivies permettent aujourd'hui à l'investigateur de suivre le développement intégral des vocables parisiens : leur point de départ, leur milieu social et leur expansion en province et hors de France. Dans cette série de données essentielles, l'étymologie n'est en somme qu'une annexe, que le dernier anneau de la chaîne. On peut ainsi arriver à reconstituer l'état civil de la plupart des parisiens.

Lorsque ces éléments d'information font défaut, lorsqu'on ignore et le pays de provenance de certains termes récents, et l'époque précise de leur apparition, et enfin leur milieu habituel, toute hypothèse étymologique est alors parfaitement superflue.

C'est le cas, par exemple, de *chandail*, mot d'actualité par excellence. Pendant des mois, ce terme a été à l'ordre du jour (il l'est encore !), il revient constamment dans les lettres de tranchées.

C'est un mot nouveau, un des derniers venus du vocabulaire parisien. Il fit son apparition dans les premières années du vingtième siècle. Aucune publication lexicographique ne le donne avant 1905. Le *Nouveau Larousse illustré*, qui tient compte du mouvement de la langue contemporaine, n'en fait mention que dans son *Supplément* qui est de 1906. On y lit :

' *Chandail*, sorte de gilet ajusté, ou maillot de laine ou de coton, à col droit ou réversible, sans boutons ni boutonnières, que portent les cyclistes, es coureurs, etc.'

Les recueils d'argotisme l'ignorent jusqu'en

1910, lorsqu'il apparaît dans le *Supplément* d'Hector France.

Des glossaires provinciaux, le seul où on le trouve, est le récent *Glossaire des Patois et des Parlers de l'Anjou*, par Verrier et Onillon (Angers, 1908), qui le qualifient de ' mot nouveau.'

Voilà pour la lexicographie. En ce qui concerne la littérature, *chandail* ne se lit que tout récemment, par exemple dans les derniers romans sociaux de J.-H. Rosny aîné.

Mais avant d'être adopté par les lexicographes et les littérateurs, notre mot a été employé dans le commerce. Pour être fixé à cet égard, j'ai adressé à nos grands magasins ces trois questions :

' 1° A partir de quelle année, l'article *chandail* figure-t-il dans les catalogues de votre maison ?

' 2° Quelle ville de France vous a procuré les premiers chandails ?

' 3° Quelle classe sociale s'en est tout d'abord servie ?

J'ai reçu une seule réponse, celle du Bon Marché, et celle-là est plutôt évasive. Je la donne pourtant à titre documentaire (13 janvier 1915) :

' En réponse à votre estimée du 11 écoulé, nous avons l'honneur de vous informer que le nom de *chandail* donné à ces tricots provient de ce qu'ils ont été portés d'abord par les marchands d'aux qui criaient autrefois leur marchandise dans la rue comme les marchands d'habits. *Chandail* ! Nous avons toujours en ces articles. Nous ne pouvons vous donner de renseignements plus précis, mais nous pensons que vous pourrez vous documenter utilement au musée Carnavalet.'

Quelques jours après, mon ami Henri Clouzot m'écrivait :

' J'ai été hier au Louvre, où de vieux employés fervents de canotage se souviennent d'avoir porté des chandails il y a trente ans au moins. On les achetait au Petit-Matelot, quai d'Anjou. Sans avoir lu l'*Intermédiaire*, ils donnent l'étymologie : marchand d'ail.'

Rappelons encore qu'une question sur le pays d'origine de *chandail*, posée dans l'*Intermédiaire* du 14 juillet 1914 par le docteur Dorveaux, a reçu cette réponse, signée Em. G. :

' En Angleterre, on aurait donné le nom de *chandail* à une chemise de laine portée par les Roscovites (habitants du pays de Roscoff, Finistère), qui, enrégimentés, passent la Manche, depuis nombre d'années, pour vendre leurs légumes (ail, échalottes, pommes de terre, etc.). On les appelle *marchand d'ail*, et par abréviation, *chands d'ail*.'

En somme, rien de précis : des oui-dire, de vagues présomptions. . . . Aucun texte, aucun témoignage documentaire. Nous continuons d'ignorer et la date approximative de l'apparition du mot *chandail* dans le commerce parisien, et quelles gens de la population parisienne ont porté les premiers tricots de ce nom. Faute de

ces renseignements indispensables, l'explication courante—celle de *chand d'ail* ou *marchand d'ail*—ne peut être admise que sous bénéfice d'inventaire. Cette prétendue solution a tout à fait l'air de ce que les grammairiens appellent une *étymologie populaire*, c'est-à-dire une interprétation superficielle fondée sur les seules apparences ; et les apparences, ici comme ailleurs, peuvent être trompeuses.

La guerre actuelle a ainsi donné un regain d'intérêt au langage populaire parisien. Le moment est peut-être venu de l'envisager sous ses aspects les plus généraux et d'aborder à cette occasion les problèmes, sociaux et linguistiques, qui s'y rattachent. Je compte y revenir prochainement.

L. SAINÉAN.

CORRESPONDENCE.

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

DISTRESS OF NATIONS.

It may be some consolation to our many pupils who prefer to get their instruction in languages through oral teaching, and find that a Latin nurse is not at present available, to see that in the grind of struggling with old Latin they are not completely wasting their time. How near the beautiful language spoken by our valued Allies is to that spoken by Virgil may be judged by the following verses, which are practically at once Latin and Italian :

Te saluto, alma Dea, Dea generosa,
O gloria nostra, O Veneta regina !
In procelloso turbine funesto
Tu regnasti secura : mille membra
Intrepida portasti in pugna acerba.
Per te miser non fui : per te non gemo,
Vivo in pace per te. Regna, O beats,
Regna in prospera sorte, in alta pompa,
In augusto splendore, in aurea sede—
Tu serena, tu placida, tu pia,
Tu benigna ; tu salva, ama, conserva !

Perhaps you will allow me to state that I cannot agree with the conclusions drawn by Mr. Hutton in his interesting paper on 'Distress of Nations.' It seems to me that his large and wide charity, if universally adopted in any country, would result in the effacement of those feelings and passions which together make up a nation's virility. Mr. Hutton confesses to a personal affection for Germany. He takes the name of Germany to represent a sum total of intellectual, artistic, moral, and personal associations which needs no further definition. Most Englishmen, I fancy, will agree that these attributes to German culture and German character do in fact need a much further and much more searching definition, and that the associations bound up with the word 'moral' in the German sense are very far from those, thank Heaven, which enter into the definition of morality as understood by other nations. Nor need we be too sensitive as to the feelings of 'German

friends living in England,' who are said to be 'hurt by apparent signs of suspicion.' Would that our suspicions as to their character and their feeling towards us had been earlier awakened, and that even now they were fully appreciated by those in authority. 'We are hurt by their misunderstanding of England, as it seems to us.' It seems to me not unnatural that we should be more than hurt when that misunderstanding takes the form of mad hatred coupled with nameless barbarities. And still Mr. Hutton goes on to assure us that Belgians and Frenchmen have grounds for feeling more deeply *than he ought to feel*, that Germany has exalted destruction to the sublimity of a creed ! I cannot share in this sublime effort at self-repression. Surely hatred of evil is not merely natural, but is a moral duty, and as by far the majority of the Germans hold the creed of hatred and destruction, which are very evil, it is at once natural and moral to detest the doers of evil. I have never supposed that this dreadful war would put an end to the study of German in England, though I am sure that it will diminish the desire to learn the language which expresses the thoughts of those who hate us with such a deadly hatred. But Mr. Hutton apparently hopes and believes that English students will resume their habit of resorting to German Universities, for 'intimate knowledge of German life and ways can be best gained by daily intercourse with Germans in Germany. Without personal knowledge of German life we do not know German.' I rather suspect, and hope with all my heart, that the baleful effect of the German Universities on the national character of Germany will be long remembered in England and elsewhere, and that it may be found possible after the war to induce many foreign students to attend our own Universities, where the culture acquired will be of a different nature to that prized by the German Universities.

H. A. STRONG.

HISTORICAL TEXTBOOKS.

I hope Mr. Janau will help us with further criticisms. Mistakes and oversights must be corrected. The character of Mérimée's *Chronique du Règne de Charles X.* should be familiar to teachers of Modern Languages, as well as the school editions which are available. There are many books, surely, which must be used in school editions, and yet there is some difficulty

in naming editions at any given moment, for fear of making invidious distinctions. I give those that I know. Professor Weekley has annotated one edition, published by Murray, 2s. 6d.; Mr. Ingham another, published by Methuen, 2s.; Mr. Desayes another, published by Rivingtons, 2s.; *Le Siège de Rochelle*, one short episode, is published by Blackie, 4d.

H. L. HUTTON.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

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

THE WAR.

M. Bégouen de Meaux, of Harrow School, who is a Captain in the French Army, is now a prisoner of war in Germany.

Dr. W. M. Daniels, of Westminster City Schools, has joined the Royal Army Medical Corps.

Mr. A. B. Lloyd-Baker, of Cheltenham College, is serving with the Expeditionary Force.

Mr. J. E. O'Sullivan is Second-Lieutenant in the 8th Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers, now quartered at Tipperary.

We regret to have to record the death of Second-Lieutenant T. W. Callinan, 8th Battalion Durham Light Infantry, who was killed in action near Ypres on Sunday, April 25. He went to Merchant Taylors' School as a Modern Language Master in 1912, where he took a commission in the Officers' Training Corps. He volunteered for active service on the outbreak of the war. He was a brilliant athlete, excelling at Rugby and lawn tennis.



SPECIAL COURSES FOR INSTRUCTORS IN MODERN LANGUAGES.

The Education Committee of the London County Council have recently had under consideration the various courses to be organized during the session 1915-16 for the benefit of teachers in the Administrative County of London. The Committee are giving special consideration at the present time to the development of the study of Modern Languages, and their endeavours in this direction are reflected in an increase in the number of classes for teachers in French and German. M. Paul Sabatier, Faculté de Théologie

de Paris, has accepted an invitation from the Committee to give, early in July, a few lectures in French on the New France. Owing to the war, no grants for foreign holiday courses are being awarded this year, but in lieu of these awards the Council has decided to offer to London teachers about two hundred free places at the Institut Français du Royaume Uni, Marble Arch House, W. Any person who is engaged in teaching in the County of London is eligible for admission to the various courses for teachers upon payment of a purely nominal fee for registration. Intending students are advised to apply to the Education Officer, Education Offices, Victoria Embankment, W.C., for further particulars.



HOLIDAY COURSES.

The Board of Education has just published a list of thirteen holiday courses which have been arranged for the coming summer. Of these courses eight are to be held in France: at Grenoble, Bayeux, Caen, Honfleur, Paris, Rouen, St. Valéry-sur-Somme, Versailles; three in Switzerland, at Geneva, Lausanne, and Neuchâtel; one in Italy, at Florence; and one in Spain, at Madrid. The number of holiday courses is necessarily very much smaller than in previous years; those usually held in Germany and Austria are not included in the table, and none of the courses organized by French universities, with the single exception of Grenoble, are to be held this year. The list gives the date of each course, the fees, return fare from London, lowest cost of boarding, principal subjects of instruction, address of local secretary, and other details of importance to intending students.



We wish to draw attention to the inset in this number giving details of this year's Holiday Course at the University of Geneva. It will be

remembered that this Geneva Course was highly recommended in the last report by the Association's Holiday Course Inspector. We should like to point out that July 15 is too early for most English teachers, who rarely can get away before the last week in July.



THE TEACHERS' REGISTRATION COUNCIL.

At the monthly meeting of the Council held on Friday, May 21, it was announced that the total number of applications received up to and including May 13 was 9,643, an increase of 3,321 since March 12. Of these recent applications, 1,936 came from teachers in elementary schools, and 1,027 from teachers in secondary schools.

Owing to the recent great increase in the number of applications for registration, the Council has decided to defer the publication of the first Official List of Registered Teachers, so as to include the names of all who apply before January 1, 1916. The List will be issued as soon as possible after that date, and in the meantime applications are invited from all qualified teachers who wish to become registered.

The Council has had under consideration the position of teachers who were registered in Column B of the former Register (1902-1908). Such teachers are asked to note that the Council has authorized the following announcement:

1. Teachers registered in Column B who for any reason have not recovered from the Board of Education the fee paid on such registration will be accepted for enrolment on the present Register without further payment, provided that application is made in the usual way before October 31, 1915.

2. Teachers registered in Column B who for any reason have not recovered from the Board of Education the fee paid on such registration, but have paid an additional fee to secure enrolment on the present Register, will be entitled to the return of the second fee, provided that formal application is made before October 31, 1915.

3. Teachers registered in Column B who recovered from the Board of Education the fee paid on such registration will be accepted for enrolment on the present Register on payment of a fee of one guinea, provided that application is made in the usual way.

4. Teachers applying under 1 or 3 above are not required to submit certificates or testimonials, but the Council reserves the right to make such inquiries as it deems desirable concerning the bona-fides of any applicant for registration.

The Council has prepared a memorandum on the proposals contained in the Board of Education Circular 849 [Examinations in Secondary Schools]. This will be submitted to the Board in due course.

The Council has undertaken the task of compiling a list of all teachers who have withdrawn from teaching to engage in service connected with the war. This list will not be confined to Registered Teachers, and it is hoped that school authorities will assist in making the record as complete as possible.



PLAGIARISM.

(From 'The Nation'.)

IN his celebrated oration on 'The Development of Germany as a World Power,' delivered before the American Academy of Political and Social Science on November 6, 1909, Count J. H. von Bernstorff, German Ambassador to the United States, exhibits a surprising amount of English influence. The oration was published as a supplement to the *Annals of the Academy* in January, 1910 (vol. 35, at the back), and a sumptuous reprint was struck off marked 'Copyright, 1910, by the American Academy of Political and Social Science.'

A comparison of this grave work with William Harbutt Dawson's Book, *The Evolution of Modern Germany* (London, T. Fisher Unwin, 1908), 'All rights reserved,' makes it plain that, in the language of doctors' dissertations, 'the two works exhibit remarkable coincidences of character, situation, and language.' The coincidences begin comparatively early in the oration. Thus, take this passage:

'Impartial students of Germany's position will find themselves confronted by economic facts which alone sufficiently explain why Germany has to turn its attention to the expansion of its influence abroad' (Bernstorff, p. 11).

'The candid student of Germany's position finds himself confronted by economic facts which alone sufficiently explain why Germany is to-day turning its attention with increased urgency to the expansion of its influence abroad' (Dawson, pp. 335, 336). . . .

Or this, on the same page:

'I cannot but think that, if this fundamental fact of Germany's enormous annual increase of population were intelligently grasped, much of the unfortunate polemic to which my country's industrial expansion still gives rise in certain quarters would be moderated' (Bernstorff, p. 11).

'One cannot but think that, if this fundamental fact of Germany's enormous annual

increase of population were intelligently grasped, much of the unfortunate polemic to which that country's industrial expansion still gives rise in certain quarters would be moderated' (Dawson, p. 338).

The rest of p. 11 comes almost bodily out of Dawson, with the difference that it is word for word a long quotation from Dr. Paul Rohrbach's *Deutschland unter den Weltvölkern*. Dr. Rohrbach receives due credit by Mr. Dawson, of the enemy, but no credit or mention from Count von Bernstorff, his compatriot. . . .

We must contrast Mr. Dawson's moderate and generous treatment of Germany, rising at times to the dignity of chivalry, with the fashion in which the Ambassador uses the Englishman's material to further his own spiteful innuendo against England. Not only does His Excellency annex statements of fact, but he offers as his own Mr. Dawson's carefully argued opinions upon questions of German domestic politics, or else he first uses the original author's words, and then substitutes his own deductions.

To sum up, the core of the Ambassador's oration is merely an appropriation from the English book. Omitting many courtly phrases, and some discussion of an American book on a similar subject, there remains little but Mr. Dawson's estimates, observations, researches, and conclusions, throughout, with no mention of him anywhere. We congratulate His Excellency upon his good judgment in selecting authorities, but he does not flatter the American Academy of Political and Social Science in assuming it to be ignorant of Dawson, Rohrbach, and Paulsen.

BERT EDWARD YOUNG.



The feature of the Conference of the United Kingdom Commercial Travellers' Association, recently held at Manchester, was the council's outspoken declaration on the subject of 'capturing the enemy's trade.'

One of the strongest complaints with regard to British trade had been the comparatively small number of British commercial travellers in countries abroad. Sir Robert Blair, the Education Officer for London, had said that in 1910, in a given country, 1,560 commercial travellers' licences were issued as follows: Germans, 751; British, 179; other nationalities, 630. In another country a total of 7,000 licences was issued as follows: German, 4,700; French, 1,500; British, 61; other nationalities, 739.

It seemed perfectly obvious in the face of figures of this sort that British commerce must of necessity be severely handicapped. One of the essential and fundamental qualifications was

a knowledge of Modern Languages, and although the first effort made in this direction had resulted in comparative failure, the Council were hopeful that as a result of the general awakening on the part of the British nation to its possibilities, there would be a distinct improvement.—From the *Daily Chronicle*, May 25.

Sir William Mather, the newly elected President of the Association, sent a cheque for £100 as a donation to its charitable funds, and in a covering letter said that after the war the education necessary to form an efficient commercial traveller might be largely developed on the lines of cultivating the scientific and technical, as well as the literary, branches of knowledge. A higher general intelligence and all-round capacity would be needed to improve Great Britain's position among the progressive nations of the world. Of all the beneficial developments in foreign countries possible for us, the greatest was that of cultivating a close relationship with Russia in industrial, social, and political efforts. No nation could exercise so great an influence for progress and freedom in Russia as the British. One of the most facile methods of exerting influence on a foreign nation was to know and use its language. The study of Russian and French would amply repay the commercial traveller whatever the line of business he might represent. The opportunities of acquiring a speaking knowledge of French abounded in every town in England, but of the Russian language little was known. Our Public Schools and Universities must apply themselves to this end by providing for Russian studies as they did for French and German. He could point to Liverpool University as a pioneer in this matter, and at the University in Manchester they had made a beginning to follow that good example.



CAMBRIDGE.—Miss H. M. R. Murray, Senior Staff Lecturer in Germanic Philology, Royal Holloway College (Oxford Final Honours School of English Language and Literature, Class I., 1899), has been appointed Director of Studies and Resident Lecturer in Medieval and Modern Languages at Girton College, the appointment to date from July 1, 1915.



THE STUDY OF RUSSIAN AND OTHER SLAVONIC LANGUAGES.

A class is being held in the Serbian language at KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON. The lecturer is the Serbian author, Mr. Woislav Petrovitch, Attaché at the Serbian Legation. King's College hopes to organize a well-equipped School of

Slavonic Languages, which will include Polish, Serbian, and the other South Slavonic tongues, as well as Russian. Mr. Seton Watson has offered to equip a library of South Slavonic at the College and contribute annually to its upkeep. The long-standing connection between King's and Russia has resulted in upwards of seventy Russian students, refugees from Belgian and German Universities, coming to the College to study engineering and medicine.



SUMMER SHAKESPEARE FESTIVAL.

A Conference of Teachers of History will be held at Stratford-upon-Avon during the first two weeks of August, 1915, in connection with the Summer Shakespeare Festival, which continues throughout August.

The Committee of the Conference has the kind co-operation of the English Association, the American Historical Association, the League of the Empire, the Association of University Women Teachers, the Association of Assistant Mistresses, the Association of Assistant Masters, the Irish Schoolmistresses' Association, the Irish Secondary Teachers' Association, the Teachers' Guild, and other educational associations.

The meetings of the Conference will take place in the Grammar School of King Edward VI., kindly lent for the purpose by the Governors.

The Programmes of the Conference and the Festival will be complete in July, and a copy will then be sent to each member of the Conference.

Non-members who wish to receive copies of the complete programme should send a stamped and addressed envelope to the Secretary.

The fee for each week of the Conference is 10s. To members of the Shakespeare Memorial Association this is reduced to 7s. 6d.

Minimum annual subscription for associateship is 5s. Life membership, £5.

Associates have the further privilege of obtain-

ing a book of coupons admitting to reserved seats at six performances in the theatre for 18s.

NOTE.—A fee of 12s. 6d. (which may be sent to the Secretary of the Conference) admits to membership of the Association, with the above privileges, as well as to all the meetings of one week of the Conference.

All communications should be addressed to—Miss D. M. Macardle, Secretary, Conference of Teachers of History, Shakespeare Memorial Theatre, Stratford-upon-Avon.

Accommodation.—Arrangements can be made to secure accommodation with board at the following terms: To members willing to share a room with friends, 27s. 6d. or 30s. per week; single rooms, 35s. and 42s. per week.

All communications respecting accommodation, theatre tickets, and railway arrangements should be addressed to—Miss Rainbow, Memorial Theatre Box Office, Stratford-upon-Avon.

At the Shakespeare Memorial Theatre the Festival will be held throughout the month of August. The programme usually includes about fifteen of Shakespeare's plays, with an occasional play by a modern author or an old English comedy.

Mr. F. R. Benson initiates discussions on the plays each week, and many interesting afternoon lectures are given by well-known people.

During the week beginning Saturday, August 14, a conference on 'New Ideals in Education' will be held.

The School of Folk-Song and Dance, organized by the English Folk-Dance Society, will be in session from July 31 to August 21. Demonstrations and lectures are given daily.

Performances of historical plays by children, exhibitions of heraldic needlework and various handicrafts, and other demonstrations and lectures of special interest in educational work will, it is hoped, be held during the weeks of the Conference.

REVIEWS.

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

A Handbook of Present-Day English. Vol. I.: English Sounds. By E. KRUISINGA, M.A., Ph.D. Second edition, revised. Pp. ix+222. Kemink en Zoon, Over den Dom te Utrecht. 1914. Price, cloth, 2.75 g.

The first edition of this well-printed volume appeared in 1909, and was intended 'to introduce Dutch students to the study of English sounds.' In this second edition the author, having now published a more elementary 'Intro-

duction' to the subject, has been able 'to consider exclusively the needs of more advanced students,' whom he here provides with 'a fairly full handbook on the language of the present day,' which keeps specially in view the needs of students reading for an examination. In Holland these examinations are conducted through the medium of the foreign language itself; accordingly Dr. Kruisinga's book is written throughout in excellent English, and should prove scarcely

less valuable elsewhere on the Continent or in the British Empire than in Holland itself. The *word lists* have been compiled with great care, and the whole volume will certainly 'prove useful as a book of reference.' The select list of *proper names* is a good start towards that complete dictionary which some enterprising foreigner has, let us hope, still in store for us. Slips are rare, but *Aldwych* should appear on p. 188, and the transcripts *koulvill*, *kromwel*, and *helon*, are unfamiliar, if not wrong.

In the rest of Krusinga's book (Part I., Phonetics; Part II., English Sounds; Part III., Sounds and Symbols) there is little that is really new, but all is well-put, and almost all is sound. A few statements—such, e.g., as that 'variation of loudness in successive syllables is called *stress*'—are incorrect, or only partly right. In Part I. Jespersen's influence is strongly felt, and shrewd blows are dealt at some of the orthodox views, such as that concerning the proper analysis of the vowels. As Krusinga says on p. 15: 'If it be asked what are the real causes of the differences between the vowels, the answer must be unsatisfactory, for little is known for certain.' But, of course, Krusinga has his own tentative explanations. The treatment of *syllable-construction* (p. 29 *et seq.*) owes a good deal to Jespersen, and is very interesting, but the distinction between *free* and *checked* vowels seems arbitrary in application. Why should we divide *easy* into *ea-sy* rather than into *eas-y*? I see no reason, and hold that the matter is largely one of convention. The Germans, whenever possible, begin the syllable with a consonant; we, I think, rely partly on the same rule, partly on derivation. The rules about *sonority* lead to some curious results. The Dutch word *strooisel* falls, it seems, into two syllables (*stroois-l*); but *straw easel* in English would form three. Here *stress* appears to take the place of pure sonority. As Krusinga admits for *co-operate*, etc., 'the acoustic effect of two syllables is obtained by the new impulse of breath in pronouncing the second vowel.' On the other hand, 'When the vowel is checked . . . there is no evident point where one syllable ends and the next begins. These sound groups (e.g., in *battery*), therefore, cannot be divided into syllables without arbitrariness' (p. 36).

Part II. contains much good, practical advice and help for the learner, though my experience counters the view that *æ* (of *cat*) is 'easily learnt by imitation,' and it seems to me misleading to class *wed* with *bead* in the column of 'Longs,' and *beat* with *vet* in that of 'Shorts.' Word-stress is treated fully, and on the whole well.

In Part III. (Sounds and Symbols) Krusinga

rightly emphasizes the truth that 'for foreign students . . . who learn many words from books, it is necessary to start from symbols,' not from sounds. His own detailed treatment of English symbols and sounds would bore or stupefy your healthy English boy or girl, but the Germanic student will enjoy and profit by its compact completeness. It has been put together with much labour and skill, and does, in its way, for the student of present-day English what W. Horn in his *Neuenglische Grammatik* (Tl. I. Lautlehre) has already done for the student of historical N.E. grammar.

Small errors aside, Dr. Krusinga is to be congratulated on having put a most handy and valuable tool into the hands of Dutch, other Continental, and also, we may hope, British students and teachers of English. It is the kind of book we rarely write, and it should prove a boon to many in our wide Empire who desire to improve their command of our great, but not really easy, tongue.

M. MONTGOMERY.

Samuel Naylor and 'Reynard the Fox': A Study in Anglo-German Literary Relations. By L. A. WILLOUGHBY. Pp. 42. Oxford University Press. 1914. Price 1s. net.

This little volume is a welcome addition to the study of Anglo-German literary relations.

Samuel Naylor was a *protégé* and friend of Henry Crabb Robinson, and is frequently mentioned in the latter's *Diaries, Correspondence, and Reminiscences*, the publication of which we are awaiting with impatience. The present volume opens with a concise account of Naylor's life and his visits to Germany. Thanks to Robinson's influence, he received introductions to certain University professors in Germany, and we soon see him a welcome guest at Göttingen and Weimar. He was introduced to Goethe's daughter-in-law, Ottilie, with whom he fell deeply in love. His attentions were clearly not unwelcome, although she seems to have refused his offer of marriage, made after August von Goethe's death. This disappointment was apparently not keen enough to prevent him settling down on his return to England, for by 1833 we find him married and residing at Maidenhead, whence he soon moved to somewhere near Regent's Park. He does not seem to have followed any consistent employment, except for a few years at the Bar, and in 1848 he retired to Bettys-y-Coed. His later years were clouded by insanity, and he died in 1865.

This brief account of Naylor's life is enlivened by numerous quotations from various letters, both English and German.

Naylor published two volumes: (1) *Ceracchi, a Drama, and Other Poems* (1839), and *Reynard the Fox* (1844). In the dramatic fragments of the first volume, Mr. Willoughby indicates reminiscences of *Egmont*. The volume contains in addition translations of several of Goethe's poems, as well as certain scenes from *Faust*, with meritorious renderings of *Meine Ruh' ist hin* and *Es war ein König in Thule*.

Naylor's account of Reynard the Fox is not a translation of Goethe's *Reineke Fuchs*, but a loose rendering of the Low German version of Hinrek van Alckmar, to which his attention had been drawn by no less a person than Goethe himself. Mr. Willoughby quotes numerous and well-chosen passages from the original and from Naylor's version, and gives an adequate account of all other English versions and of the history of Reynard the Fox in this country. As several editions for school-children are included in the bibliography, the small penny one in Stead's *Books for the Bairns* might have been added.

For a discussion of the literary merits of Naylor's work, his use of slang, etc., the reader is referred to Mr. Willoughby's modest but scholarly volume. G. W.

A Manual of French Composition for Universities and the Higher Classes of Schools. By R. L. GRÈME RITCHIE, M.A., Docteur de l'Université de Paris, etc., and JAMES M. MOORE, M.A., etc. Pp. 275. Price 7s. 6d. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1914.

The outstanding feature of this work is the series of Model Lessons, four in number, and ranging from easy to very difficult. These, which occupy 47 pages of the book, are of high merit, and deserve the closest attention. For teachers of French they are admirable and well worth the price, which, by the way, is prohibitive for school purposes. Another interesting and instructive feature is the collection of French renderings by well-known Frenchmen who are professors of English in French Universities. The Introduction contains much useful information, and many practical hints. This might with advantage have been considerably enlarged. Some of the points which are claimed by the authors as new departures are to be found in older manuals such as *Anderson's French Prose*, but their condemnation of French dictionaries is fully justified. The passages chosen by Messrs. Ritchie and Moore are on the whole excellent, and four degrees of difficulty are indicated. It is difficult to see why every alternate passage is without notes. The work is highly stimulating, and shows how the study of a modern language may give that mental

gymnastics which was formerly supposed to be the province of the ancient classics.

A New French and English Dictionary compiled from the Best Authorities in Both Languages. By JAMES BOFELLE, B.A., aided by DE V. PAYEN-PAYNE. Revised and considerably enlarged. Pp. 616. Price 3s. 6d. Cassell and Co.

As a handy dictionary at a low price, this familiar book still holds the field. Over one million copies have been sold. With the latest amendments and additions made by Mr. Payen-Payne we have no doubt it enters upon a new lease of life. For all ordinary purposes it is the best French Dictionary we have at the price, and will compare favourably with more expensive works. We have seldom found it fail us.

Nouveau Cours Français. By ANDRÉ C. FONTAINE. Pp. 272. Price 4s. Ginn and Co.

We cannot recommend this book in any way. It claims to be the result of actual class-work based upon the best theories of modern language teaching. It is a lamentable result. The first lesson deals with the sounds of the language. 'You must pronounce im-po-ssible, although you write im-pos-sible.' 'E has the sound of ea in "earth,"' but further on it is said that the acute accent changes the normal sound of e into the sound of a in *shade*, and the grave accent changes the normal sound of e into the sound of a in *mare*. 'Ê is very nearly the same as è: it is only a trifle sharper.' 'There are four closed vowel sounds, a, i, o, u, represented by *an, in, on, un,* etc.' Comment is hardly necessary. The rest of the book is of the usual old type: reading extracts, vocabulary, exercises, and grammatical rules. There are a few pictures of no practical value, apparently a sop to the prevailing demand for illustrated school-books.

Chaucer and his Poetry. Lectures delivered in 1914 on the Percy Turnbull Memorial Foundation in the Johns Hopkins University. By GEORGE LYMAN KITTREDGE. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 1915. 8vo.; pp. 230.

In this series of studies of Chaucer's narrative art, Professor Kittredge happily lays aside for the nonce his quest of new truth concerning Chaucer in favour of a task hardly less important—the interpretation to the public of the fruits of late scholarly research in so far as they concern the style and purport of a poet wrongly esteemed naïve. The finished technique of Chaucer is repeatedly revealed in studies of *The Man and his Times*, *The Book of the Duchess*, *The House of Fame*, *Troilus*, and *The Canterbury Tales*. Future teaching of Chaucer cannot be held well informed without taking into account the positions

here maintained, as that Chaucer's ultimate purpose in *Troilus* is 'to repudiate the unmoral and unsocial system which he has so long upheld.' Readers perhaps will be even more indebted to Professor Kittredge for his incidental revelations, beneath the mask of the artist, of the personality of the man, 'so sound of heart, so sane and normal, so wholesome in his mirth.' If there has been inclination, not without justice, to criticize American scholarship in English literature as productive of studies somewhat too pedestrian and businesslike, the critical insight and suppressions of these essays will be welcome, apart from the value of new truth, as indicating a tendency away from pedantry toward a scholarship intelligently interpretative.

PERCY W. LONG.

Compositions françaises d'après les Tableaux célèbres. By HILDA M. M. LAWRENCE. Pp. viii+115. Price 2s. E. Arnold.

The idea is an excellent one, and is well carried out. There are sixteen reproductions of celebrated pictures, each accompanied by a text divided into sections dealing with the various ideas which compose the picture. The picture is first explained orally by means of questions and answer. The text may then be read before the pupil proceeds to write his free composition, or the teacher may supply an outline based on the picture. Such work should prove interesting, stimulating, and instructive.

Contes bleus. By EDOUARD LABOULAYE. Pp. 53+10+17+19.

La Chasse de Sarcey, and other Stories. By MARC LANGLAIS. Pp. 53+9+17+16.

Both of the above are edited by C. W. Merryweather and H. Nicholson, and published by Messrs. Longmans, to supply a want which the editors experienced in their work at Manchester Grammar School. The striking feature of the books is the exercises. On each story is based a number of short sentences and a continuous passage for retranslation which focus the attention on only one point of syntax at a time. The texts, which are well printed in large type, are in both cases interesting, and very suitable for class use in the middle forms. The editing is excellent, and the idea well carried out.

Aventures et Merveilles. A Simple French Reader for Junior Forms. By C. V. CALVERT. Pp. vii+172+88+30. Heinemann.

The matter of the text is drawn from folklore, and has been simplified for pupils beginning a second year's course. The questionnaire and

'direct method' exercises are very well done and sufficient in quantity. The book has illustrations, and there are separate picture-questionnaires which may be used as the basis of Free Compositions. A great deal of the text is suitable for reproduction by changing tense, person, gender, etc. There are 35 pages of exercises for retranslation, and a French-English vocabulary of the more difficult and unusual words. Altogether an excellent piece of work.

An Outline of Russian Literature. By the Hon. MAURICE BARING. (Home University Library). Pp. 253. Price 1s. Williams and Norgate.

This manual will be welcomed by the now numerous students of Russian. Our knowledge of the Russian people, of their language and literature, is lamentably small; but no better guide could be desired than Mr. Baring, who knows everything about Russia that is worth knowing. But however excellent the manual may be, it cannot replace a study at the fountain-head. It will have served a useful purpose if it induces its readers to study the Russian language and to sojourn in Russia in order to make a closer acquaintance with the treasures that are here indicated.

1. *Short English Poems for Repetition.* By C. M. RICE, Chaplain of King's College, Cambridge. Pp. xv+119. Price 1s. 3d.

2. *English Humour in Phonetic Transcript.* By G. NOEL-ARMPFIELD. Pp. xv+73. Price 1s. 3d. Cambridge: Heffer and Sons.

3. *The Sounds of the Mother Tongue.* By L. H. ALTHAUS. Revised Edition. Pp. 75. *Sound-Drill and Reading Exercises.* By the Same. Pp. 31. University of London Press (Hodder and Stoughton).

Nos. 1 and 2 are the first two volumes of Heffer's Phonetic Series. Of the value of phonetic texts in the study of the mother tongue there can be no doubt, and both authors are sound guides. Mr. Rice's *Voice Production* has been reviewed in a previous issue. We are glad that he again lays stress on the importance of the trilled *r*. The introduction of phonetic study and phonetic texts into the study of the mother tongue would help to modify, if not eradicate, the cacophonous Cockney pronunciation which the reviewer is unfortunately compelled to listen to in a London school. The orthographic text of all the pieces is given.

The first edition of No. 3 was reviewed in 1913. In the second edition Miss Althaus has substituted the symbol *ε* for *e* in words like *let bed*, etc.

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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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WHEELER, C. B. : Six Plays by Contemporaries of Shakespeare. (World's Classics.) Pp. 595. Price 1s. Oxford University Press.

(The Shoemaker's Holiday; The White Devil; The Knight of the Burning Pestle; Philaster; The Duchess of Malfi; A New Way to Pay Old Debts.)

TUPPER, F., and TUPPER, J. W. : Representative English Dramas from Dryden to Sheridan. Pp. 461. Price 5s. net. Oxford University Press (American).

FLETCHER, JOHN : The Elder Brother : A Comedy. First printed in 1637. Now reprinted with slight alterations and abridgement for use on occasions of Entertainment, especially in Schools and Colleges. Edited by William H. Draper. Pp. 75. Cambridge University Press.

WARNER, G. T. : On the Writing of English. Pp. 158. Blackie and Son.

HODGSON, G. E. : The Teacher's Montaigne. Pp. 224. Price 2s. 6d. net. Blackie and Son.

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EDMUNDS, E. W. : Chaucer and his Poetry. Pp. 219. Price 1s. net. Harrap.

OYLER, L. M. : The Children's Entente Cordiale. Pictures by George Morrow. 4to. Price 1s. net. Jack.

A Guide to the English Language : Its History, Development and Use. Under the editorship of H. C. O'Neill. 460 double-column pages. Price 5s. net. Jack.

FRENCH.

Composition.

LAWRANCE, H. M. M. : Compositions Françaises d'après les Tableaux célèbres. Pp. 115. Price 2s. E. Arnold.

KRASSER and MORRISON : Progressive French Composition. Pp. 78. Price 1s. Blackie.

Courses.

RIPPMANN, W. : First Steps in French. Illustrated by Fred Taylor. Pp. 182. Price 2s. Dent.

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Lectures Historiques (1610-1815). Editées par E. Moffatt. Pp. xx + 161 + 101. Price 2s. 6d. Harrap and Co.

JULES VERNE : De la Terre à la Lune. Edited by R. T. Curral. Pp. 149 + 93. Cinq Semaines en Ballon. Edited by J. E. Mansion. Pp. 170 + 68. Voyage au Centre de la Terre. Edited by E. R. Shearer. Pp. 136 + 45. Price 1s. 6d. each. Harrap and Co.

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DE BALZAC, H. : La Recherche de l'Absolu. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by C. E. Young. Pp. xvi + 292 + 12. Price 3s. net. Oxford University Press (American).

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ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN : Waterloo. Adapted and edited by E. Pellissier. Pp. 179. Price 2s. 6d. (Siepmann's Advanced French Series.) Macmillan.

Word and Phrase Book to above. Price 6d. Key to Appendices. Price 2s. 6d.

DUMAS, A. : Vingt Ans Après. Edited, with Notes and Vocabulary. Pp. 204 + 11 + 44. Price 3s. Ginn and Co.

PORCHAT, J. J. : Le Berger et le Proscrit. Edited by A. Truan. (Oxford Junior Series.) Pp. 60 + 24. Price 1s. Clarendon Press.

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Exercises in Syntax, and Vocabulary. Pp. 53+10+17+20. Price 1s. 6d. Longmans.

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BREUYS and PALAPRAT: Le Grondeur. Edited by M. D. M. Goldschild. With Notes and Exercises. Pp. 59+15+14. Price 10d. (Blackie's Little French Classics.)

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The Best French Poetry. Price 3d. each. Dent.

1. Petite Anthologie du Seizième Siècle.
2. Fables de La Fontaine.
3. Lamartine: Poésies.
4. Victor Hugo: Poésies.
5. A. de Musset: Poésies.
6. T. Gautier: Poésies.

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MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A MEETING of the Executive Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, May 29.

Present: Rev. W. S. Macgowan (chair), Miss Allpress, Miss Althaus, Messrs. J. G. Anderson, von Glehn, Hutton, Mansion, Perrett, Prior, Rippmann, Robertson, Storr, Twentyman, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from Miss Batchelor, Miss Shearson, and Mr. Fuller.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

Letters from Mr. A. E. Orange relative to the Syllabus of Examinations in French which he is preparing were read, and on the recommendation of the Finance Sub-Committee a sum was granted to him for preliminary expenses.

Mr. Hutton reported that about ten applications, involving 400 slides, for the use of Lantern Slides were received by him annually. He suggested that the collection needed considerable enlargement, if the full value was to be got out of it. A grant was made to him, subject to the approval of the Finance Sub-Committee, and

the Sub-Committee was desired to consider the possibility of an annual grant, when drawing up its next estimate. It was also agreed, on Mr. Hutton's suggestion, that the French part of the catalogue be reprinted in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, and a number of copies struck off.

On the Hon. Secretary reporting that very few copies of the Catalog of the Travelling Exhibition were left, it was referred to the Exhibition Sub-Committee to revise it and obtain an estimate of the cost of reprinting.

Miss Batchelor, Messrs. Hutton, Perrett, and the Hon. Secretary, were constituted the Sub-Committee for the General Meeting, with power to co-opt. It was agreed that the programme should be of the same length as last time, and that the Annual Dinner should not be held. Some suggestions for addresses and discussions were made.

On the motion of Mr. von Glehn a vote of thanks to Mr. Hutton for his article in the May number of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING was passed unanimously.

The names of thirty-two members, whose subscriptions were two full years in arrears, were removed from the list.

The following eleven new members were elected :

Miss S. V. Adrain, B.A., Wycombe Abbey School.

J. A. Gibson, M.A., B.Sc., Tiffin's Boys' School, Kingston-on-Thames.

Miss E. Glanville-Glanfield, Municipal Secondary School, Lowestoft.

P. H. Holgate, B.A., County School, Woking.

Miss D. T. Hood, B.A., High School, Pontefract.

Miss E. G. Jacoby, B.A., Beulah House High School, Upper Tooting, S.W.

E. T. Jones, Magdalen College School, Brackley, Northants.

Miss Mary MacFarland, B.A., Girls' Modern School, Bedford.

E. G. Phillips, L.C.C. Literary and Commercial Institutes (Life Member).

Miss M. W. Rollo, M.A., Girls' High School, Carlisle.

Miss Margaret D. Truss, L.C.C. Commercial Institute, Balham, S.W.

EDITORIAL NOTES.

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THE SPOKEN ENGLISH OF THE EARLY EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

(Concluded from p. 105.)

CONSONANTS.

LOSS OF CONSONANTS.

§ 15. A. *Final.*

1. *-nd* becomes *n*: *poun*, 62; *thousan*, 55; *dyomons*, 57; *Sunderlin*, 118; *Richmon*, 120; *Northumberlain*, 418 (P.W.).

2. *-rt* becomes *-r*: *Lord Dyzer*, 61.

3. *-[kt]* becomes *-[k]*: *prospeck*, 65; *strick*, 255 (P.W.).

4. *-[st]* becomes *-[s]*: *richis*, 'richest,' 417 note.

NOTE 1.—Cooper (p. 40) says that 'thousand' is pronounced *thouzn'*. Horn (*Untersuch.*, p. 73) gives a few instances of this form during the seventeenth and early eighteenth centuries, and of *almond*, *diamond*, *wristband*, at the same period, without the final consonant. Jones (p. 76) gives the following words in which the final consonant may be sounded or not: *almond*, *beyond*, *Desmond*, *despond*, *diamond*, *Edmond*, *Ostend*, *Raymond*, *Redmond*, *riband*, *Richmond*, *rind*, *Rosamund*, *wastband*, *wristband*. Even the pedantic Elphinston notes the loss of *-d* in *almond*, *Hammond*, *Drummond*, and in compounds in *-land*—*England*, etc.—'unless uttered with uncommon precision, if not preciseness.' Compare Müller, § 248, p. 189.

NOTE 2.—Jones (p. 67) gives a list of words spelt with *-ct*, in which the final

consonant may be either sounded or not. This list includes *strict*, and also *act*, *afflict*, *concoct*, *conduct*, *conflict*, *contract*, *direct*, *distinct*, *district*, *inflict*, *reflect*, *retract*, *respect*, *sect*. Elphinston admits that *t* cannot be clearly heard in *distinctly*, *distinctness*, but says that it has not quite disappeared in *distinct* (Müller, p. 187).

I have noted two examples of the loss of final *-t* in Cely Papers—*except*, p. 58, and *nex*, in the phrase '*nex the maste*,' p. 68.

§ 16 B. *Medially before and after Other Consonants.*

1. Loss of *p*; *-mpt-* becomes *-mt-*: *temptation*, 66.

2. Loss of *d*; *-dns-* becomes *ns-*: *Wens-day(s)*, 49 (twice); *-nds-* becomes *ns-*: *hansomly*, 60; *-lds-* becomes *-ls-*: *scaffels*, 100; *-dsl-* becomes *-sl-*: *Clousley*, 61, 62.

3. Loss of *t*; *-stm-* becomes *-sm-*: *Chrismass*, 66, also *Chirsmas* (Lord Wentworth, a child), 462; *Wesminster*, 62, 81; *-fts-* becomes *-fs-*: *Taufs*, 66 (= Tofts).

4. Loss of *f*; *-fts-* becomes *-s-*: (Lord) *Shasbury*, 59, 198.

5. Loss of *-l-*; *[-ldž-]* becomes *[-dž-]*: *sogars*, 113; *soagar*, 113.

NOTES.—The above are perfectly natural forms in good English at the present day, with the exception of

'Clousley' for *Cloudsley*, 'Shasbury,' 'scaf-fels,' and 'sogar.' It is true that such monstrosities as [wɛdn̩sdi, wɛstminstə, kristm̩s] may occasionally be heard from those whose speech, by long habits of bookish study, comes to them in the form of visual images of written words; but such pronunciations still remain the tricks of isolated individuals.

Jones (p. 75) gives 'Wensday' as the proper pronunciation, and on p. 71 gives a list of words in which *d* may be dropped after *l*. This list includes *Archibald*, *Arnold*, *Leopold*, *Oswald*, *Reynold*, *scaffold*, and a few others. *Worldling*, *worldly*, he says, are 'sounded *wor'ling*, *wor'ly*.'

As regards the pronunciation [kris-m̩s], Jones, on p. 100, includes this with an interesting collection of words which lose *t* in the combination *-st* + consonant. The following are worth recording here: *beastly*, *breastplate*, *costly*, *gastly*, *ghostly*, *lastly*, *mostly*, *roastmeat*, *wastband*, *wristband*, *asthma*. Probably most of these pronunciations are still used by good speakers in rapid, very colloquial speech, though many speakers of *Modified Standard* would condemn [bisli, kɔsli, mɔusli], etc.; and perhaps few good speakers would now say [rousm̩t], though [rousbif] is certainly heard.

Later in the eighteenth century the careful Elphinston always writes '*Weddensday*,' *handsom* (Müller, p. 188), but, on the other hand, notes the loss of *t* in *Christmass*, *castle*, *fasten*, *jostle*, *thistle*, *whistle*, *Astley*, *Westley*, and *asthma*.

With regard to Lady Wentworth's spelling of *soldier*, it is certain that it implies either [sɔdʒə(r)] or [sɔdʒə(r)], probably the latter. The [dʒ] in this word must be discussed elsewhere (§). The form without *l* is mentioned by Gill in the early seventeenth century, and possibly goes back to a similar type in M.E. In this case our interest in Lady Wentworth's form is one in the survival of an old type, and in a sound-change of

the Modern Period. (See, on this word, Jespersen, 10. 482.) Jones speaks of 'soldier, sounded soger' (p. 64). Elphinston apparently ignores the *l*-less type; and Walker (1791) speaks of it as 'far from being the correct pronunciation. At the present time [sɔdʒə] is a vulgarism, but obsolescent. On the other hand, [soudʒə] was the regular pronunciation of a near relation of my own, an old cavalry officer, who died about twelve years ago at the age of eighty-five.

The pronunciation [lanən] *London*, although it is not represented in Lady Wentworth's spelling, may claim a few words here, since it is apparently due to the simplification of the group [ndn] in the form [landn], whence [lan-n], etc. Jespersen (7.72) cites the form in Elphinston, 1765; and this authority is quoted by Müller (p. 188) as stating 'we generally hear *Lunnon* or *Lunnun*,' and as repeating this in subsequent works in 1766 and 1787. I have found an interesting reference to this pronunciation in the poet Gray, who, in a letter to Horace Walpole of July 11, 1757, remarks jocularly: 'If you will be vulgar and pronounce it *Lunnun*, instead of *London*, I can't help it.' This probably points to the form without *d* being current at this time in the circles to which Walpole naturally belonged, and presumably also in his own speech; whereas it was still felt as a fashionable eccentricity in the academic world in which Gray moved. If Gray had himself said [lanən], he would not have joked about it, but taken it as a matter of course.

LOSS OF *r*.

§ 17. There are indications that *-r* was not pronounced either medially, before consonants, or finally.

(a) '*r* lost medially before consonants: *Gath* (= *Garth*, the physician), 63, 271; *Albemal Street*, 274; *extrodinary*, 321; *Dotchester*, 153 (P.W.); *Author*, 'Arthur,'

77; 398 and 399 (P.W.); Duke of *Molbery* = 'Marlborough,' 113, etc. The following case of the introduction of *r* in the spelling of words in which it could not have been pronounced tells, in my opinion, in favour of the sound having been lost: *Dowrger* (Ly.Str.), 464.

(b) '*r*' lost finally. I infer this from the following spellings, where the letter can have no phonetic value: *Operer*, 66; *Bavarior*, 90; Lord *Carburer*, 51 (= *Carbury*).

NOTES.—Jones omits *r* in *harsh*, *marsh* (p. 101), *Worcester* (p. v), and *Worstead* (p. 86). See also Ekwall, *Intro.*, § 583. Jespersen (13. 24) quotes German writers, who as early as 1718 and 1748 state that English *r* is mute in *mart*, *parlour*, *horse*, *partidge*, *thirsty*, but mentions Walker (1775) as the first Englishman 'to admit the muteness.' Horn (*Untersuch.*, p. 17) quotes *An Easy Introduction to the English Language*, 1745, as claiming that '*r* is commonly pronounced, except in the first syllable of *Marlborough*'; and further from Bertram's *Royal English-Danish Grammar*, where I also had found the statement that *r* was mute in *Marlborough*, *harsh*, *purse*. Elphinston also omits the sound in *Marlborough*.

Thus, Lady Wentworth's spelling of this word is proved from various sources—all of them later than her letters—to express a phonetic fact; and the whole of the above collection of spellings may presumably be trusted as pointing to the fact that in the best Standard English *r* had disappeared finally and before consonants as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century. The spellings *Operer* and *Bavarior* seem to show that *-a*, *-er*, *-or*, in unstressed syllables had all been levelled under [ə] in that period.

N.B.—Already in the fifteenth century Bokenam rhymes *adust*—*wurst* (*St. Lucy*, 60, 61).

LOSS OF *w*- IN UNSTRESSED SYLLABLES.

§ 18. *Skippoth* = *Skipwith*, 118; *Chyney ons*, 56; *two little ons*, 64. *Ons* corresponds to our 'un (a good 'un), and the stressed *won*, 'one,' is written several times—e.g., 213, 280.

NOTE.—It is impossible to say from which Regional Dialect [wan] got into Standard English, as at the present time forms of this word, and of *oats* with *w*-[wuts, wats], etc., are very widespread. What can be affirmed is that in the First Modern period both forms [ōn], as in present day *on-ly*, and [wun], or something of the sort, must have been in use. We cannot say positively at what period the [w]-form became the sole one in use in Standard Spoken English. The Biblical and Liturgical phrase *such an one* must represent [sutʃ ən ōn], otherwise the indefinite article would have been *a*, as in Bishop Latimer's spelling, *such a wone*. See information on Early Mod. forms of *one* in my *Short H.E.*, § 240, note 2.

LOSS OF INITIAL *h*-.

§ 19. This is seen in the family name *Humble*, spelt thus, but also *Umble*, 47; and in *humour*, spelt *youmore*, 320, *youmored*, 107, 320. In the adjective *humble* the initial aspirate has long been restored from the spelling; and as for *humour*, which I can remember hearing with a shock for the first time not many years ago, pretty often we now find [hjūmə] in educated Middle-Class speech.

ADDITION OF A FINAL CONSONANT.

§ 20. The addition of final *t* or *d* after certain consonants, which is now an admitted vulgarism, was very common in the eighteenth century. The *Wentworth Papers* furnish the following examples: *laught*, 'laugh,' 111; *saft*, 'safe,' 103; *sarment*, 'sermon,' 221, 321; *gownds*, 284 (Ly.Str.).

NOTES.—Jespersen (7. 61, 7. 62) has

an interesting treatment of this subject, and points out that some of these ex-crescent *ʔ*s and *d*'s survive in Standard English—e.g., *sound*, M.E. *soun*; *bound*, 'ready to go,' Scand. *būin*; *pheasant*, O.Fr. *faisan*; *margent*, a poetical form, compared with *margin*, etc. Jones (p. 54) takes *clift* as the normal spelling, but here and on p. 105 says that it may be sounded *cliff*. Elphinston notes *wonst*, 'once,' *sermont*, *drownd*, *gownd*, *scollard*, as vulgarisms. Pegge (1814) notes these words, and also *verment*, 'vermin,' *margent*, 'margin,' *nyst*, 'nice,' *sinst*, as London vulgarisms. Compare Müller, p. 189.

I may mention that the name of Sir Edward Hulse, the well-known physician, is three times spelt *Hulst* by Lord Harvey (1737). Compare *Memoirs of the Reign of George II.*, vol. iii., pp. 302, 315, 316.

I have noted the following fifteenth-century examples: *wochsaft*, Bury Wills, 17; *lynand*, 'linen,' Capgrave's Chr., 108; the *ylde* ('isle') of Eubony, *ibid.*, 257.

ASSIMILATION.

§ 21. I have noted *comfution*, 113; Lord *Bartly* = *Berkley*, 174; and the common eighteenth-century *Twitnam*, 49, etc.

Note a curious by-form of the last name is *Twittingham* (40).

DISSIMILATION.

§ 22. I do not see under what other head to bring (Lord) *Darkmouth*, 118; *Darkmuth*, 230.

METATHESIS OF *r*.

§ 23. The three examples noted are none of them from Lady Wentworth herself. They are—*Kathern*, 305 (Ly.Str.); *childern*, 68 (P.W.); *Chirsmas*, 462 (Ld.W.). The first of these may, however, equally well be the result of the loss of the vowel between *r* and *n* in the final syllable.

VOICING OF *t* BETWEEN VOWELS.

§ 24. Only one example: *prodistant*, 'protestant.' Ekwall has a huge dis-

ussion of this and allied changes in his Introduction to Jones, §§ 623-645, but none of it is particularly relevant to anything in Jones himself, except the statement on pp. 8 and 33: The *p* and *t* in the words *Cupid*, *Deputy*, *Hatton*, *capable*, *Jupiter*, may be spoken with the 'easier and pleasanter sounds' *d* and *b*. ↓

Elphinston (compare Müller, p. 187) mentions Lady Wentworth's very word, which he spells *proddestant*, together with *padrole*, 'patrol,' and *pardner*, 'partner,' and characterizes the *d* in these words as typical of the vulgar speech of London.

I have noted *jebardy* as early as 1463, Bury Wills, 163, 164, 165.

UNVOICING OF FINAL VOICED CONSONANTS.

§ 25. Only two words: *wardrope*, 314, 319 (Ly.Str.); *beckent*, 'beckoned' (P.W.), 431. Note 'keper of the gret *warderop*,' *Letters and Papers*, p. 72 (1485).

SUBSTITUTION OF [in] FOR [iŋ] IN UNSTRESSED SYLLABLES.

§ 26. That such pronunciations as [ʃilɪn] for 'shilling,' etc., were almost universal in Received Standard down to the first quarter of the nineteenth century, there can be very little doubt. The [in] pronunciation is still practically universal in unspoiled Regional Dialects, and very prevalent among a large section of speakers of Received Standard. Apart from Walker, who approves of [in] in the suffix when the base contains the sound [iŋ], as in 'flingin,' and condones the practice elsewhere, I can find no very satisfactory statements on the point among the earlier grammarians, nor in the works of Jespersen and Horn. See also my remarks in *Evolution in English Pronunciation*, p. 21. Lady Wentworth's numerous spellings seem to prove that the [in] pronunciation obtained in early eighteenth century Received Standard. The examples

are—*takin*, 47; *dynin room*, 47; *lodgins*, 45; *levin*, 'living,' 54; *Feeldin*, 58 (otherwise *Feelding*); *approachin*, 66; *buildin*, 84; *Haystins*, 56; *devertin tricks*, 57; *prancin along*, 57; *ingagin*, 60; *digin*, 61; *fardin*, 99; *want of dungin*, 111; *mornin*, 113; *stockins*, 126; *writins*, 275; 'the Anthem for the *Thanksgivin*,' 321.

SUBSTITUTION OF [iŋ] FOR [in].

§ 27. As is well known, some speakers pronounce [mauntin, tʃikin], etc., for *mountain*, *chicken*, and this habit may perhaps be traceable in Lady Wentworth's 'Lady *Eving* Pirpoynt,' and Lady Straford's *Kitching*, 540.

VOICING OF INITIAL *wh*- [w].

§ 28. There is only one example indicated by the spelling: *wig*, 'whig,' 99.

[j] INSTEAD OF [f] INITIALLY.

§ 29. *Threvoles*, 'frivolous,' 127.

[sj, tj, dj] BECOME [ʃ, tʃ, dʒ].

§ 30. The following spellings prove the latter pronunciations: *ashure*, 126 (Eliz. Wentw.); Queen of *Prushee*, 63; *expressions*, 'expressions,' 50, where [ʃ] is expressed by *ti*, the *s* being really redundant; *pation*, 'passion,' 49; *fation*, 'fashion,' 169; *pretious*, 'precious'; *Prutia*, 118; *Prution*, 243 (Ly.Str.); *sogar*, 113 = [södʒə(r)], 'soldier'; *emedgetly*, 'immediately,' 45 = [imidʒitli], certainly not [imīdiētlē] as at present. The spelling *scutyons*, 'scutcheons' = [skatʃənz], is instructive, as showing that the sounds traditionally spelt *-ty-* had become [tʃ], and that the spelling could therefore be used by the writer to express [tʃ] when original.

As regards [tj, dj], we vary very much at the present time, pronouncing [raifəs], but [bjütias], [indjən, oudjəs, idjət], but generally [grændʒə], and always [souldʒə]. Similarly, Jones and Elphinston recom-

mend, or at least tolerate, [dʒ, tʃ] in some words, and the spelling-pronunciations [dj, tj], in others. Compare Jones (p. 64) for *sojer*, *Injan*. Elphinston (Müller, p. 186) will have [kristjən, kritjər], but allows [ʃ] in *Propertius*, *Lactantius*, and other Latin names. But [dʒ] he will not have at any price; and it is, according to him, 'truly vulgar' to use this sound in *Indian*, *grandeur*, *soldier* (Müller, p. 189). The later Walker is far more generous to [tʃ, dʒ], and even prefers them in a large number of words to the spelling forms. Compare references in Jespersen, 12. 41 and 12. 51. I have known several old people, born before 1820, who, being excellent speakers of their period, used such forms as [indʒən, oudʒəs, hidʒəs, plentʃəs]. These forms are now obsolete, and many more are becoming so among the rising generation.

NOTE.—The change of [si, sj] to [ʃ] is at least as early as the fifteenth century. Compare the following from Cely Papers: *partyschon*, 71; *commyngaschon*, 72; *fes-syschens*, 23.

ACCIDENCE.

This agrees on the whole with present-day usage, but a few points are worth noting.

NOUNS.

§ 31. PLURALS: *wemen* (shows lengthening of old *i*, thus distinguishing it, as at present, from the singular), 59 (twice), 113; *childern*, 68 (P.W.).

INVARIABLE PLURALS: three hundred thousand *pound*; ten *shilling* a pound, 62; fifty *shilling* a children, 62; this twoe last *poste*; ten wax *candle*.

POSSESSIVE SINGULAR: (1) [iz] as in present-day spoken English, after *-s*, etc.—*Fubsis* puppies, 55; Mrs. *Reesis* mother, 93.

(2) The suffix [iz] identified with possessive pronoun—the *Princ his* buirying.

- (3) Invariable Possessives—a *parson wedoe*, 85 (P.W.); My sister *Bathurst offer*, 43.

§ 32. PERSONAL PRONOUNS: Avoidance of *me* in accusative singular—Lady Anne Harvey invited my love and *I*, 449 (Ly.Str.).

§ 33. VERBAL FORMS: -s Plurals in Third Person Indicative:—Lord Wentworth and Lady Hariot *gives* their duty to your Lordship (Lady A. W., a child); Mrs. L. and Mrs. G. *gives* their service to you; Lord Garsy and Mr. Varnum *coms* in the somer, 55; all others *sends* fowls, 59; Two of the prettiest young peers in England . . . who, by the way, *makes* no pretty figure, 395 (P.W.); Peter and his wife *comse* (comes); my letters that *informs* you, 107 (P.W.).

Is as Plural—Lord Massam and Lord Bathurst *is* named, 262 (Ly.Str.).

Was with Plural Pronoun—you *was*, 94, 118; they *was*, 124; The Duke of Kent and Lord Longville *was* . . ., 300 (P.W.).

After collective words we often get -s—which *moste larhgs* at, 52; all people from the highest to the lowest *stairs* after them, 57; several *has*, 57; many *has*, 58; several *affirms*, 123 (P.W.).

Third Person Present Indicative Singular without Suffix—My cossin hear *take* great delight in fishing, and *ketch* many, 47; the town *tell* a world of stories of Lady Masham, 408 (P.W.).

Preterites of Strong Verbs—that ever you *se* = 'saw,' 48, 60; as ever I *see*, 57; *rise* (pret. sing.), 159 (P.W.), 179; *run* (pret. sing.), 171. Compare the quaint sentence in Cely Papers, p. 59—sche ys as goodly a zeunge whomane as fayre as whelbodyed and as sad as I *se heny* thys vij. zerys.

Analogical Weak Preterite—*keopt*, 183, 210 (P.W.); 263, 284 (Ly.Str.).

Weak Preterite without Suffix—a Friday I *hear* nothing material, 365 (P.W.).

§ 34. BRIEF NOTES ON ISOLATED SPELLINGS IN THE 'WENTWORTH PAPERS.'

BULLINBROOK, my Lord, 'Bolingbroke.' BRISTO, Lady, 15. This pronunciation of *Bristol* is that of Jones (p. 81) and of Elphinston (Müller, § 266). It represents the original suffix -*stow*.

CHEAR, 'chair' = [tʃir]. An old relation of mine heard Lord John Russell (1792-1878), at a public meeting in London in 1841, move that 'Sir Robert Peel do take the *cheer* [tʃie]. Compare also Ellis, *E.E.P.*, p. 89, on this form.

CRUMWELL, 70 = [kramwəl], the traditional pronunciation, which may still be heard.

ETHER, 53, and *nether*, 51, 54, 125, and 213 (Ly.Str.) = [iðər, niðə]. This agrees with Jones's pronunciation (p. 42); but Elphinston rhymes *either*—*I there* (*Mart. Epigr.*, 63-64).

EKOPADG, 'equipage.' Elphinston writes *eckipage*, *banket*, *conkest*, and prescribes [k], and not [kw], in *marquis* (Müller, p. 183). Capgrave's Chr. has *markeis*, which is the ancestor of the now vulgar [mākis].

FARDIN, 'farthing,' 99. Cooper (p. 69) gives this type, but Elphinston (Müller, p. 191) says that '*farden*' instead of '*fardhing*' is vulgar.

JEST, 'just,' 244, 271 (twice; Ly.Str.).

KETCH, 47; *ketched*, 66. This would generally be considered a sad vulgarism now. I have, however, heard [ketʃ] from good, old-fashioned speakers.

KINGSINTON, 'Kensington,' 128 (P.W.). MOONSEAR, 'monsieur,' 169.

NIGHTRAIL, 'set her *night rail* a fyer,' 107, Ly.W. (1710). This is a very late example of this word—from O.E. *hrægl*.

PRITY, 'pretty.' The [ɪ] is probably due to the shortening of [i] from ē, noted (§ 10) above, and is not to be

explained according to Horn (*N.E. Hist. Gr.*, § 37).

PELMELL, her hous in the, 65. Jones (p. 38) agrees with this, the only pronunciation known to me till recently. I am told, however, that now, Londoners of the Middle Class are beginning to adopt the extraordinary pronunciation [pælmæl]. Elphinston, with the typical distrust of a Scot, in England, for what is new to him, notes this word as having the same vowel as *shall*. This simply means that he preferred to construct a pronunciation for himself instead of listening to, and recording, what he heard.

SHROSBERY, Lord. Jones and Elphinston both give this type. It is

habitually used nowadays by educated people who know the place and the School. Porters (at Shrewsbury Station) and people who only know the name in railway guides say [ʃrüzberi].

QUERRY, 409, 433, 443 (twice). This form is interesting, as showing that the type [ekwəri], still always used by people about the Court, is the traditional pronunciation. Apart from these circles, the form [ekwəri] is more and more used. 'I would not be a Querry all my life,' writes poor Peter Wentworth, the stupid boy of the family. The loss of the first syllable is parallel to that in *'poticary*, etc.

HENRY CECIL WYLD.

ITALIAN CULTURE.

It is a matter of sincere regret that, while the average educated Englishman has been to Italy, and possesses some knowledge of Italian art, he is almost generally ignorant of the Italian language and of Italian literature. The cult of Dante, which still exists, is, indeed, a survival of the long-established tradition by which Italian culture was considered an indispensable accomplishment for a gentleman.

In view of this fact and of the close bond of friendship between Great Britain and Italy developed by the Italian Risorgimento, it may seem strange that the study of Italian should have been so neglected. There are a few reasons, however, which not only can help to explain this, but upon which it will be useful to dwell, so as to get the question into a right perspective.

It is, I think, undeniable that the apparent and wholly external similarity between French and Italian inclines people to think that the one can be, more or less,

understood by means of the latter, supplemented by a rudimentary knowledge of Latin. This being so, it is scarcely worth while (so they argue) to study a language which has far less practical, commercial, and cultural value than German. I hope to deal with the former contention in another article; meanwhile I should like to repeat that, if it is comparatively easy to attain a superficial understanding of the language, it is, on the contrary, exceeding difficult to know and appreciate it at all deeply. This applies to most languages, and especially to Italian, for the mastery of Italian means—all linguistic and philological difficulties apart—the study of the history, spirit, literature, of a race which, though of Latin origin, is equally removed both from that of Rome and that of France.

Before entering upon the discussion of the value of Italian as a literary training, I should like to point out, quite impartially and without prejudice, that the commercial use of Italian is none the less

important for not covering such a wide area as that covered by German. Moreover, it is steadily increasing, for there can be no doubt that Italy is the great Mediterranean Power of the future, as she has been that of the past. It is recognized by now that commercial dealings and enterprise depend largely on a thorough knowledge of the country, and this can only be gained by an understanding of the language.

Italian scholarship has always been highly prized in this country since the beginning of the Middle Ages. Indeed, there is room for a volume dealing with the different phases of this literary relationship which has left such a deep mark on the literature of both countries. It is almost superfluous to draw attention to the influence exercised by writers such as Boccaccio, Petrarch, Machiavelli, and many others, on the one side, or of Young, Gray, Scott,* Shelley, and Swinburne on the other. The extent to which Italian literature had penetrated into England during the sixteenth century is strikingly proved by Florio's English-Italian Dictionary, which contains a very complete and most enlightening list of authors consulted. Nor was the influence only literary, but it affected English manners and thought, as history has repeatedly shown. The importance of these facts is twofold, in that it tokens, first, a more than casual spiritual and intellectual bond between the English and the Italians; and, second, the necessity of as well as the advantages to be gained from a comparative study of the two languages and literatures. Those students who think of taking honours, whether in history, philosophy, or English, will find the study of Italian a valuable asset, as bringing them into immediate touch, not

only with the authors, but through them with the spirit of the age. I venture to believe that, whether one be working upon Early English literature, or upon the Elizabethans, or upon the Romantic Movement, to take three instances, a knowledge of the Italian works which influenced the English writers of each period is almost indispensable. For who could understand the Renaissance who was not acquainted with the humanist's activities on the one side, and the writings of Lorenzo il Magnifico, Poliziano, Ariosto, and Machiavelli, on the other? Nor can translations, however good, answer this purpose. It is from the actual study of the language at first hand that one can gain the necessary comprehension of the mental and artistic processes which mark the development of a language as a literary medium. It is just in this that the literary training afforded by the study of a language consists.

The study of literature is, in a wide sense, the study of different forms of literary expression. Indeed, viewed from this standpoint, all the principal modern languages are so interdependent, one might almost say, that, in order to gain the correct perspective of any one, some knowledge of the others is essential. Under the circumstances, of course, this is a practical impossibility for most students. It is therefore necessary to select from among them those best fitted to supplement and aid in the understanding of any particular one. Taking English as the one chosen, I think there can be no doubt as to the superior advantages offered by Italian as compared with German for a literary training. I have already given a few obvious instances of the practical value of Italian in the study of English literature. I should like here to allude to another and broader aspect. As to anyone studying literature, some knowledge of Latin is indispensable; so, too, I think, is the case with Italian.

* With reference to these, the late Arturo Graf's valuable book, *L'Anglomania e l'influsso inglese in Italia nel Secolo XVIII*. (Torino, 1911), is worth studying.

For in the Middle Ages, and all through the Renaissance, Italy, as no other nation, was the centre of European culture. As through Latin one is in touch with the great classic spirit, so by means of Italian, one is enabled to link up and trace the descent of modern culture. The Latin tradition is, in all respects, the greatest factor in European civilization, as the present war is proving; and no-

where can one see it so clearly as in Italy, which is its truest and completest representative to-day. A thorough knowledge of the Italian language and its manifestations, whether modern or ancient, historic and scientific or literary and philosophic, opens out a new horizon which cannot be but stimulating both spiritually, intellectually, and artistically.

ARUNDEL DEL RÈ.

THE REFORM OF SPELLING: A REJOINDER.

WHEN I read on the cover of the last issue of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING 'The Reform of Spelling. B,' it occurred to me at once that, whoever 'B.' was, his reluctance to sign his name was probably due to a consciousness on his part of some absence of sweet reasonableness in his article. I was not mistaken. The first two pages are given to an acrid attack on the Simplified Spelling Society and on Professor Williams, who in the excellent article which you published a year ago dealt very ably with Miss Bremner's treatment of the subject.

I cannot pretend to rival 'B.' in his varied imagery, which enables him to assemble in these two pages the Nihilists, Cromwell, the Samoyedes, the House of Lords, the national flag, Nelson's last prayer, Edward I., and a professor lecturing in football flannels; nor is it necessary for me to take up the shillelagh for Professor Williams, whose scholarly attitude 'B.' finds it so hard to appreciate. It does, however, seem worth while to discuss, in language so simple and straightforward that beside 'B.'s' it will appear colourless, the policy of the Simplified Spelling Society in its propaganda for reform.

If it be taken for granted that there is need of a reform—and all who have written on the subject in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING concede this—the ques-

tion arises how a reform can be brought about. The Simplified Spelling Board of America in 1906 started by issuing a list of 300 words, and since then several further lists have been published. The majority of the improvements made refer to the omission of superfluous letters; this is the most obvious reform, and the easiest to work out. Probably all that can be done in this direction has now been done by our American friends, whose untiring efforts have produced very noteworthy results. The greatest difficulty, however, remains—namely, the representation of the long vowels and diphthongs. Every word in the following lists is quite common. They might have been made much longer if less usual words had been included; yet even so they show great variety of representation:

shoe, too, true, truth, fruit, rule, through;

child, my, buy, cries, five, high, eye;

know, go, sew, road, stone, toe, though;

pay, maid, lady, game, great, obey, eight, straight.

This variety, much more than the presence of superfluous letters, is what makes English spelling so difficult.

The English Simplified Spelling Society, founded in 1908, at first adopted in its publications the simplifications approved by the American Board. It was soon felt that these did not carry us far

enough. Our purpose was, above all things, to lighten the burden of our children, and we had in mind particularly the children in our elementary schools. I do not know what justifies 'B.' in saying: 'The excuse made for this substitution of a new language [*sic!*] for the old is that the new will be easier for foreigners—especially badly educated foreigners.' We are not indifferent to the value of a rational spelling in helping the spread of English abroad, but we have never urged it as our sole, or even our chief, 'excuse.'

The problem, then, was to see whether it was possible to work out a scheme for representing all the sounds of English speech in a consistent way. It was felt that a purely phonetic alphabet, necessitating the use of special symbols, might indeed appeal to the very small minority who had a working knowledge of English phonetics, but would meet with insuperable objection from all others. The unfamiliar symbols would repel; the man in the street would not look at a page of English in phonetic transcription. Yet it was the man in the street—by which I mean those untrained in phonetics—whom we wanted to interest in the problem.

Was it possible to represent the spoken language consistently by means of the familiar alphabet? It seemed worth while to try; and on the basis of preliminary work by Mr. William Archer and me a scheme was adopted by the Society, and has been before the public for some time. It was never put forward as something perfect or final; we knew only too well the difficulties of the problem, and the scheme was submitted as a basis for discussion. This purpose it has served, and is serving, admirably. A large number of people have made themselves familiar with it, and have obtained an insight into the practical aspects of the question. Even 'B.' will hardly deny that we have 'set the ball rolling.'

Needless to say, the Society's scheme

has aroused opposition. Some have expressed the opinion that it does not go far enough; many more have thought that it goes too far. On the whole, we are satisfied that it is achieving its purpose. Imperfect as it avowedly is, it represents a vast simplification. No more convincing evidence can be found than that of the children. Put before a child that has passed through the infants' department a passage in Simplified Spelling and another in the conventional spelling, and you can judge for yourself.

Those unacquainted with our elementary schools can hardly realize how much time is wasted in the attempt to teach the conventional spelling. The Simplified Spelling Society has recently published a pamphlet entitled, *Why does the English Child not 'explode into Reading and Writing'?* in which a contrast is drawn between the progress of the English child and that of the Italian child. It can be obtained gratis from the Secretary, 44, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.

It does not seem to me reasonable to attack the Society for having boldly grappled with the problem as a whole. It is possible to go too far in extolling 'illogicality' into a virtue, and in condemning all 'arguing about theories and standpoints.' It seems easy enough to suggest a change in this word and a change in that, yet whether such changes are feasible or desirable often depends on general considerations, which are only familiar to one who has studied the problem closely. Thus, 'B.' in his article suggests that 'such spellings as *flaggon*, *vannish*, *boddy*, might well be admitted'; but surely this doubling after a short stressed vowel must either be made a general rule (which means the introduction of a large number of superfluous letters) or it is optional, and then we have no fixed spelling at all. 'B.' says 'another useful licence would be the admission of *-ope*, *-ote*, *-ole*, *-oke*, *-ome*, *-one*,

for *-oap*, etc. And again one asks, Does 'licence' imply optional alternatives, or is 'o plus consonant plus e' to be the recognized spelling of the vowel part of *foam*, *thrown*, etc.? And, then, are we also to have *-ape*, *-ate*, etc., and *-ipe*, *-ite*, etc.? And how is the sound to be written when not followed by a consonant? And are we to write *hopeing*, *holey*, etc.? And if we are not to be allowed to drop the superfluous *e* in *active*, 'because English words do not end in *v*,' then we must presumably also continue to write *have* and *give*, yet differentiate them in pronunciation from (*br*)*ave* and (*arr*)*ive*.

In a period of transition some indulgence may be shown to 'alternative spellings'; but a variable spelling can never be regarded as ideal. For teaching purposes it is eminently desirable that we should have a recognized form of spelling,* and it is imperative that there should be a fixed spelling in the printed form of the language. We read by groups of words, and the fluency of our reading is impeded when the words do not appear in their familiar form.

The familiar form of the printed word has many associations for us, but that is not true of the conventional spelling only. It matters not what the spelling is; if we are sufficiently familiar with it, it will have its associations. Children who learn a rational spelling will become no less attached to the printed form of the words than 'B.' is to the present spelling, and they will have much better cause to love it. 'Equally fallacious,' says 'B.,' 'if the matter is viewed from the standpoint of the educated person of to-day, is the attempt to "distinguish between the English language and English spelling," as Professor Williams wishes us to do.' Another standpoint is that of the child

which we are to educate to-morrow, and which 'B.,' with the not infrequent selfishness of the 'educated person of to-day,' treats with scant consideration.

That child appeals to us for help. The Empire will require of the coming generation the very fullest expenditure of energy, the greatest educational efficiency, and we have no right to go on imposing a grievous burden which handicaps us among the nations.

As 'B.' mentions, the Simplified Spelling Society is preparing a petition to the Prime Minister, asking for an inquiry into the possibilities of reform, and suggesting that the Commission should include literary men, business men, and educationists, in addition to scholars and phoneticians. 'B.' cannot refrain from adding that this is 'a hopeful sign that the Society is beginning to recognize that the English language is not the private property of a few learned persons.'

I suppose anonymity is a convenient cloak for a dagger, but 'B.'s' dagger is of pasteboard.

WALTER RIPPMMANN.

'B.'s' article under the above title in the last June number would leave me cold, did I not consider it necessary to draw attention to the extraordinary polemical methods which the writer has seen fit to adopt. It would be difficult to find in the annals of controversy an equally naïve example of reliance on the ancient, if somewhat discredited, devices of *suppressio veri* and *suggestio falsi*!

Readers of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING will perhaps recall that the article which I published in the number for June, 1914, and which is attacked by 'B.,' was an attempt to define the respective points of view of the two sides in the controversy about spelling reform; at the same time to attain a notion of how the question of reform must appear when regarded from *both* points of view;

* 'B.' attacks 'our present idolatry of uniform spelling.' We believe that a uniform spelling is essential, and direct our attack against idolatry of the conventional spelling.

and from this to formulate the requirements for further discussion on fruitful lines. It is true that I did not conceal the fact that my sympathies were on the side of the reformers, because I held that their attitude towards language was the correct one, while that of their opponents was not. At the same time I pointed out that if one took up the standpoint of the opponents it was quite necessary that one should be bitterly opposed to reform. Consequently we find in my article the following statement: 'It is therefore, I affirm, quite natural that, under present conditions, the large majority of educated English people should think of English as a printed language—that is, one absolutely indissoluble from the orthographical forms in which they are accustomed to read it. Any change in these forms must seem to them a change in the language itself, and proposals to reform them must, under these circumstances, appear to be something worse than vandalism.' Yet in face of this 'B.' is bold enough to say: 'Professor Williams's article in your number for June, 1914, is an interesting example of the incapacity of the philologists to look at this question from any but the strictly scientific point of view.'

That is one example of the *suppressio veri*. There are others; but I pass on to the *suggestio falsi*. In my article I made the further statement: 'To us [*i.e.*, upholders of the historical standpoint—the standpoint of philologists] language is a form of social tradition which, like all other forms—*e.g.*, political institutions, laws and customs—must be conceived as the product of historical development.' 'B.' says: 'A language is to them [the philologists, including myself] merely a piece of machinery. . . . Unfortunately for this view, language is a great deal more than a mere piece of machinery. It is part of our national heritage and tradition. . . .' That is to say, 'B.' first

attributes to philologists a view which they do *not* hold, and then implies its fallaciousness by affirming the view which they do hold as if it were not theirs, after which he very naively remarks (*italics are mine*): 'Dr. Williams, swerving *for just one moment from his view of language as merely a useful piece of machinery, called language, "a social tradition which . . . must be conceived as the product of historical development." . . .*' (*En passant*, I did not say 'a social tradition,' but 'a form of social tradition'—the suppression of the word 'form' is characteristic: 'B.' wishes apparently to hide the fact that his own words, quoted above, *viz.*, 'part of our national heritage and tradition,' are a mere paraphrase of mine.)

Now for an example of 'B.'s' logical powers: Having triumphantly shown the fallacy of the false view, which he attributes, falsely, to philologists, he goes on: 'Equally fallacious, if the matter is viewed from the standpoint of the educated person of to-day, is the attempt to "distinguish between the English language and English spelling," as Professor Williams wishes to do.' That is to say, 'B.' coolly adopts my own proposition, namely, that for the large majority of educated English people the above distinction does not exist, and infers from this that the distinction in question is as baseless as the false view of language which he imputes to philologists. The chief weapon in the armoury of the educated persons who oppose spelling reform is their ability to ignore this distinction, for as long as they can do so they can assert that all the disadvantages which would result from an attempt to change the *whole* language may be anticipated from an attempt to reform the spelling, and can count on mobilizing against such reform in its full force the sentiment which all of us (not merely 'B.'s' 'educated person') feel for the sacredness of

our Mother-tongue. From my article, however, 'B.' learnt that in order to preserve this weapon intact it would be necessary to invalidate the standpoint of the philologist, and accordingly he made his sporting attempt to do this by imputing to philologists a conception of language which they do not hold, and which can furthermore be easily disproved by the conception which they do hold. Moreover, having in this way temporarily adopted the historical view of the philologist in order to turn it disingenuously against the philological standpoint, 'B.' promptly abandons it. He says in almost his next sentence: 'The undoubted historical fact that sounds existed before symbols does not influence us more than' another historical fact recently influenced politicians—*i.e.*, it does not influence 'us' at all. In other words, 'B.' adopts the historical view (by implication at least) when he imagines he can turn it against its holders, but promptly ignores it when one of its main consequences—the priority of sounds over symbols—comes in question. And this same 'B.' can accuse me of *swerving* from a view which I never held!

Another instance of 'B.'s logic: When I wandered momentarily (according to 'B.') into the right definition of language ('a form of social tradition'), I ought to have argued (again according to 'B.') that 'social traditions can be altered only by gradual change, and not by revolution.' Possibly I ought, if I accepted 'B.'s' definition of social tradition; but as I expressly included under forms of social tradition 'political institutions,' among other things (see vol. x., p. 113), there was obviously no temptation for me to argue that they *cannot* be changed by revolution. If, however, 'B.' merely means by these words to convince me and others that it would be inadvisable to attempt to alter our spelling habits by violent measures, that proposition appears

to me so obvious as not to require argument; or, if he means to impute to me the admission that the methods of the S.S.S. are revolutionary in any correct sense of the word, that is an admission which I have not made and am not likely to make so long as 'B.' refrains from producing objective evidence for its necessity.

The only point of any apparent consequence which 'B.' succeeds in making in his polemic against me is in the passage immediately following on the last quotation, when he asserts that I ask people to go back to the point at which spelling and pronunciation diverged. I pass over the implied imputation that I am the author of the proposal to reintroduce the phonetic principle in our spelling. I approve of this proposal; but, needless to remark, it does not come from me, and is not advanced as mine in my article in vol. ix. 'B.' wishes here, apparently, to make the proposal ridiculous by representing it as coming from a minority of one. 'B.' tries, however, to show that the proposal is unacceptable on other grounds—namely, by a political parallel: it is just the same thing as if we were to go back in constitutional things to the time of Edward I. Fortunately the parallel does not hold. In political affairs it may be admitted that we have progressed, or at least secured an adaptation to modern conditions of what, if preserved, would not have been so well adapted. It remains to be proved that we have secured a similar adaptation in the case of our orthography. In our orthography we have sacrificed the phonetical principle to what 'B.' calls 'our idolatry of uniform spelling,' which at least insures that educated people spell alike. This uniformity is undoubtedly a great advantage, one which people were probably able, when the spoken language was much less stable than at present, to appreciate far more than 'B.'

Perhaps even it was necessary to abandon the phonetic principle in order to secure this uniformity at the time when it was secured. It does not follow, however, that it is therefore necessary to sacrifice the principle of phonetic spelling for all time. If a moment comes when all educated people pronounce alike, it is obviously not necessary to sacrifice this principle in order to secure uniformity. Some educated people with whom I have discussed the matter object mainly to reform because they consider the pronunciation still so unstable that phonetic spelling and uniformity could not be combined. That is a sensible argument, although I consider it ignores the progress made by Standard English, which has been well brought out in these pages by Professor Wyld. Besides all this, 'B.' seems to overlook that his own suggestion to abandon uniformity is open to the objection he makes against the other thing, in the sense that it would involve also a return to an earlier state of affairs. Does he not himself wish to make us understand 'how well our not very remote forefathers got on without' uniformity? And does he not even admit that the tendency of his own proposals 'would probably be towards a phonetic system of orthography'—*i.e.*, a return to the 'point where pronunciation and spelling diverged'?

* * * *

Taking 'B.'s' article as a whole, in both its polemical and its would-be constructive part, it is a little difficult to avoid the impression that in practice at least, if not in theory, he is rather more than half a convert to the standpoint he combats so vigorously. It is all the more to be regretted that in his desire to focus the 'mind of the statesman' on the practical problem, he should have resorted to methods of controversy which are much more reminiscent of the political partisan

than of the statesman who stands above party.

And yet, although 'B.'s' controversial methods appear to me in a rather disagreeable light, I do not regard them as the consequence of intentional dishonesty on his part. It is a dishonest thing to abuse and misrepresent one's opponents when one does so consciously and of intention. I am sure 'B.' does it unconsciously. It is the pitfall of the *a priori* thinker, however, that he starts from preconceived ideas of men and things which often have no resemblance to reality. When 'B.' abuses the S.S.S. as, in effect, Nihilists and revolutionaries, engaged in a nefarious conspiracy to overturn everything that is holy, in a linguistic sense, to the 'national instinct,' he is not really abusing the S.S.S., but his *idea* of that corporation. He does not really mean to say that Sir William Ramsay, Professor Gilbert Murray, the late Professor Skeat, to mention only a few of the men of reputation whom Miss Bremner in her article in this journal (vol. ix., p. 225 *ff.*) quoted among the members of the S.S.S.—he does not mean to say that these men are the accomplices of Nihilists and revolutionaries.

Miss Bremner admitted that the fact of such men being found among the members of the S.S.S. gave her furiously to think. 'B.' would probably find reason to think equally furiously if he could be induced to pay a little serious attention to this fact. Again, if 'B.,' as I showed above, imputes to philologists a view of language which can so easily be proved by him to be nonsensical, it is not because he has carefully collected the evidence for this view from the writings of representative philologists (where he could not possibly have found it), but simply because there is no lack of harmony between this view and his *preconceived* notion of what a philologist must be; and in the same way if I, whom he is pleased to regard for the nonce

as a more or less characteristic specimen of the genus, state another view, that fact is to *him* not evidence for the real opinion of such people, but is lightly dismissed as a momentary aberration, an accidental variation from type. If, now, 'B.'s notions of the S.S.S. and the philologist are so remote from reality as they plainly are, there must be a strong presumption that the tears he sheds for the attack on our sacrosanct orthographical system flow for an ideal which is equally devoid of substance. In spite of his sentimental attachment to its inviolability, when it comes to business he is quite ready to administer one or two rather dangerous punctures himself. He is not prepared to 'jettison the whole cargo' of its associations, but in view of the theory of

inviolability, it is extraordinary how many inconsiderable trifles the cargo contains, from which he parts with dry eyes. Indeed, 'B.'s sentimental associations seem as vague as his ideals and his logic. While the orthography of the S.S.S. suggests 'illiterateness' to him (see his article, p. 107. It is curious that he is more sensitive on this point than the late Professor Skeat—but the latter, alas! was a philologist, not an 'educated person'!), he is not troubled by similar qualms as regards the 'greatly beloved of school-boys.' That respect for the dignity of our language which is so lacking in the grown men of the S.S.S., 'B.' seems to find in undiminished splendour in the orthographical attempts of lower-form scholars.

R. A. WILLIAMS.

VUE ANGLAISE SUR LA GUERRE.*

* * * * *

Je ne vais pas aujourd'hui faire le dénombrement des populations engagées dans cette lutte, je ne ferai pas non plus la statistique des ressources militaires et financières de nos alliés ou de nos ennemis. Ce que je veux surtout essayer pendant l'heure dont je dispose, c'est d'établir le *bilan spirituel* des deux parties et de laisser entrevoir la liquidation qui devrait à mon avis en sortir. . . .

Je commence donc par mes compatriotes, non pas que je veuille les mettre en tête, mais parce que je les connais mieux que leurs voisins. Sans doute, nous autres Anglais, nous sommes, il faut l'avouer, assez difficiles à comprendre. Nous sommes probablement un peu trop individualistes. Ce qui nous manque, c'est cette passion que vous autres Français, vous possédez à un si haut degré, cette passion de vous comprendre et de vous expliquer les uns aux autres. Tout cela dérive sans doute du fait que vous avez développé une civilisation vraiment sociale. De là votre rare talent pour l'analyse et l'exposition. Votre civilisation est en effet une civilisation essentiellement urbaine, mais l'urbanité qu'on y cultive n'a rien d'étroit. Comme celle des anciens Romains, dont elle hérite, elle est à la fois centrale et mondiale.

Les Allemands ont tâché dans ces derniers temps, par un effort conscient énorme, de faire quelque chose de pareil, mais leur soi-disant kultur n'est guère qu'une civilisation de clocher (j'allais dire une civilisation qui cloche), quelque chose d'essentiellement provincial, et ce qui est pire, d'officiel.

Notre civilisation anglaise a été plutôt rurale, jusqu'au milieu du XIX^e siècle, et l'être rural chez nous, c'est l'être qui veut vivre dans son propre enclos et qui fuit les agglomérations. Non seulement la maison d'un Anglais est un château fort, mais lui-même l'est également. Les soixante-dix dernières années n'ont pas eu le temps de changer notre caractère national, résultat de mille ans de formations antérieurs. Ainsi toute analyse de l'âme britannique est difficile, et de plus, se complique de questions de race. Si donc on essaye d'en faire l'analyse, on dirait que dans la nation, les Anglais représentent *la volonté*, les Gallois *le cœur*, les Écossais *l'intelligence* (en éducation ils dérivent tout droit de vous) et les Irlandais *l'imagination*. Il vaut peut-être la peine de remarquer ici que ces derniers nous fournissent très souvent nos meilleurs généraux, par exemple Wellington, Roberts et French. Est-ce dû à l'élément celtique? Certes, si on regarde l'histoire de l'Europe pendant les derniers mille ans, ce sont les généraux de race celtique, c'est-à-dire, pour la plupart, des Français, qui tiennent le plus de place. . . .

Certes, nous sommes un peu plus lents que les

* Abrégé d'une conférence faite par M. Cloudesley Brereton, en Sorbonne, devant la Société des Amis de l'Université de Paris.

autres à nous mettre en branle, mais dans un pays d'hommes libres il faut attendre que la conviction personnelle se fasse et ceci demande un peu de temps. Si je comprends bien mes compatriotes — et je pourrais citer maints passages de notre histoire à l'appui de mon opinion — ce qui est le tréfonds de notre caractère, ce n'est pas l'appât de la victoire, mais la honte de la défaite — plutôt mort que vaincu. Aussi a-t-on vu toujours après la nouvelle d'un échec, tel que la retraite de Mons, les recrues affluer sous nos drapeaux. Ce même sentiment se résume dans cette expression d'Horace : 'Vinci dolentem Herculem.' Hercule qui regimbe contre la défaite. Hercule était, paraît-il, le moins Grec des Grecs. Si je n'avais peur d'être taxé de pan-anglomanie, je le dirais anglo-saxon ! Mais, s'il était lent à penser, il était en tout cas l'endurance en personne.

Et nos coloniaux sont animés du même esprit. . . .

Si vous le permettez, je vais ouvrir ici une courte parenthèse sur la manière diverse dont les Anglais, les Français et les Allemands comprennent l'idée d'empire, car je crois la chose d'une importance capitale pour le règlement de comptes.

Nous autres Anglais, nous suivons deux procédés différents. Ou bien nous créons des domaines quasi-autonomes, tels que l'Australie ou le Canada, liés par une sorte d'entente cordiale à la Métropole, en faisant appel aux sentiments d'indépendance et de liberté, que nous chérissons au-dessus de tout. Ou bien, s'il s'agit de races sujettes, nous tâchons d'assurer l'administration de la justice, de faire respecter la loi comme nous la respectons nous-mêmes. C'est là un idéal un peu froid, manquant un peu de chaleur, je l'admets, mais on peut dire, après les réponses ou plutôt après les offres que nous avons reçues, qu'il a un certain mérite.

Vous autres, au contraire, qui êtes en effet les vrais dépositaires des traditions romaines, ou bien vous procédez par des plébiscites qui, à l'instar de celui de la Savoie, ont parfaitement réussi, ou bien dans les pays hors de l'Europe vous dites à l'indigène, qu'il soit né au Sénégal, à Madagascar ou à Tahiti : 'Vous voici devenu maintenant citoyen d'une des plus belles nations du monde,' et l'indigène reste toujours un Français dévoué, jusqu'au point de consentir à apprendre l'histoire de Philippe-Auguste et les noms des quatre-vingt-six chefs-lieux des départements français — chiffre qui sera sans doute reporté bientôt à quatre-vingt-neuf !

Et moi qui vous parlais du fardeau de la race blanche !

Vous faites en effet appel à l'amour-propre ou plutôt au sentiment de la dignité humaine, et

puisque chez vous comme chez les Romains, la question de couleur n'entre pas en ligne de compte, qui sait si parmi ces races si diverses, vous n'avez pas peut-être plus de succès que nous ?

Les Allemands, au contraire, font appel à un autre mobile — la crainte. C'est par la crainte seule qu'ils tâchent de fabriquer de bons Allemands. Ils ne réussissent même pas à en fabriquer de mauvais ; ils tuent dans l'œuf toute envie chez les races conquises de devenir allemandes, témoin leur insuccès en Pologne depuis cent ans, en Schleswig depuis cinquante ans, en Alsace depuis quarante ans.

Justice, amour, crainte, voilà en trois mots le résumé des procédés civilisateurs des trois nations en ce qui concerne l'englobement des autres races dans leur empire.

Justice, amour, crainte ! Mais est-ce là la vraie hiérarchie, le classement définitif de ces idées maîtresses ? N'est-ce pas plutôt crainte, justice, amour ? On commerce par traiter l'étranger en ennemi. On passe à le regarder comme un être humain. On finit par le reconnaître comme frère. Et ceci explique, s'il n'exécuse, l'erreur des Allemands qui en fait d'empire sont, sinon des parvenus, au moins les derniers venus. J'aime à croire qu'aux Indes, en Égypte et ailleurs, nous autres Anglais, nous arriverons aussi à cette étape finale. Je sens au fond du cœur que tout l'avenir de notre empire comme empire mondial est là. Et somme toute, l'avenir de la race humaine, de la civilisation dans la vraie signification du mot, ne dépend-il pas de la réalisation ici-bas de ce même idéal ?

Je passe à la partie la plus ardue de ma tâche, l'analyse de l'âme française.

Vous avez été, hélas, si près du champ de bataille, vous avez même, si je ne me trompe, entendu ici tonner le canon, vous avez vu jour par jour sans défaillance des fournées immenses de vos enfants passer à travers les feux du Moloch de la guerre. Oh, France, Niobé impassible qui vois périr tes fils un à un, et qui ne plies pas ! D'où vient donc cet héroïsme sublime qui a remué d'admiration tes voisins d'outre-mer jusque dans leurs entrailles ? . . .

Qu'est-ce que cette nouvelle France qui a surgi tout à coup du sol ? Nouvelle ! C'est une France vieille de mille ans ! Il n'y a que des pays de cette antiquité qui cachent de tels trésors dans leur sein — accumulations lentes et obscures des générations d'âmes d'élite dans le passé.

Eh bien ! France à la fois si vieille et si jeune, qu'est-ce que tu représentes ?

Tu représentes à travers les siècles, comme me disait une femme d'une rare pénétration, la

recherche, coûte que coûte, de la vraie vérité, de la vraie beauté, de la vraie moralité. On dirait parfois que le royaume que tu poursuis n'est pas de ce monde. Pour toi, c'est souvent tout ou rien. Tu joues le tout pour le tout. Rien d'étonnant que tu aies essayé de temps à autre les défaites les plus écrasantes en apparence. Un de tes fils les plus illustres me disait l'autre jour que l'histoire de France était une histoire de défaites et de relèvements. Mais tes défaites (je parle en mystique) ont été aussi glorieuses que les plus glorieuses des victoires, puisque chaque défaite t'a mieux révélé la grandeur de ton âme véritable et préparé ainsi l'inévitable relèvement ; puisque l'humanité a senti que chacune de tes défaites a été aussi une défaite pour elle-même et pour ses propres progrès, et en sentant ainsi, a éprouvé pour toi une sympathie toujours plus intense et plus intime.

Eh bien, mesdames et messieurs, qu'est-ce que la France n'a pas fait pour l'humanité ? Impossible ici de dresser le superbe inventaire de ses services à la race humaine. Chaque nation puise chez elle ce qu'il lui faut. La plupart des théories récentes sur l'éducation adoptées en Angleterre par le parti libéral dérivent en ligne droite de la France. Mais un puritanisme un peu étroit n'a saisi que la moitié de sa pensée. Le côté esthétique lui a échappé, ce côté dont mon ancien maître Boutroux a parlé l'autre jour de façon si exquise en Angleterre. A coup sûr, si la France, comme disait Michelet, représente une femme, ses fils n'ont jamais oublié que la femme, d'après les anciens philosophes, représente non seulement la vérité, mais aussi la beauté.

Mais peut-être qu'après celui d'avoir versé son sang pour la cause de l'humanité, le service le plus important que la France ait rendu à la civilisation, c'est de s'être faite la porte-parole, la colporteuse des idées en Europe ou plutôt dans le monde entier. Grâce à la lucidité exquise de sa langue, elle a assumé avec succès le rôle de donner une empreinte mondiale à des idées qu'elle a trouvées chez elle ou reçues du voisin, de sorte qu'elle les place à la portée des autres nations. La France, c'est la Bourse intellectuelle de l'Europe, qui classe les valeurs intellectuelles et les met en circulation. Tout cela est d'une importance capitale pour le bon règlement final de la guerre, puisque ce que la France pense aujourd'hui, l'Europe peut le penser demain. Et la pensée de la France sur ce point, si je ne me trompe pas, est définitive. Elle veut la fin des armements démesurés et des terreurs de la paix armée !

J'arrive enfin à l'inventaire de l'Allemagne, surtout de l'Allemagne actuelle, l'Allemagne prussifiée.

Eh bien, à maints égards, elle représente le contraire de la France. Prenons quelques exemples plus ou moins au hasard. L'Allemagne recherche la quantité, et la France la qualité ; par exemple, l'Allemand est gourmand, le Français est gourmet ; l'Allemagne cultive la science, la France l'esprit. L'Allemagne poursuit les connaissances, la France la culture. L'Allemagne fait grand cas du corps et des choses matérielles, la France de l'âme et des choses spirituelles. Comparez, par exemple, un village allemand nouveau modèle à un village français. Pour l'Allemagne la phalange militaire prime tout, pour la France, la phalange sociale. L'Allemagne professe le culte du mâle, la France le culte de la femme. Toutes les deux veulent se mettre à la place d'autrui, mais l'une pour l'évincer, et l'autre pour le comprendre. L'Allemagne se fie à la force, la France au sentiment ; c'est pourquoi l'argument suprême chez l'Allemand est la crainte, et chez le Français la sympathie. L'Allemagne croit à l'égoïsme soi-disant éclairé, la France à la générosité. L'Allemagne refuse de risquer les os d'un seul grenadier poméranien au service de n'importe quelle nation, la France verse son sang à flots pour l'humanité.

Et comment tout cela est-il arrivé ?

La Prusse, civilisation des landes, a fini par imposer ses idées à l'Allemagne, civilisation de la forêt. Celle-ci a fait une société commune avec elle, ensorcelée par les succès matériels de la Prusse. Dès lors, elle a abandonné le royaume des cieux, que ses philosophes fréquentaient naguère, pour faire le blanchissage intellectuel de la politique plus que douteuse de la Prusse. On a chassé de son esprit tous ces sentiments sincères et naïfs qui faisaient les délices de la vieille Allemagne pour mettre à leur place l'égoïsme féroce et étroit de l'étatisme prussien—puisque c'était là ce qui donnait le succès, paraît-il !

On s'est soumis à une féodalité dénuée de toute religion, appuyée par une science merveilleuse, poursuivie avec toute la tenacité méthodique de la race, et qui a abouti de nos jours à reproduire une civilisation de roche, à la fois parfaite et effrayante. Et avec cet avilissement de l'homme, un nivellement plus terrible encore de la femme réduite à trois rôles, dont les deux plus respectables sont la maternité et le ménage. Si on compare la femme allemande chez Tacite à celle d'aujourd'hui, on peut constater l'immensité de la décadence.

Reconnaissant la crainte comme argument suprême auprès d'une population dont la plupart étaient encore des serfs, il n'y a guère plus de cent ans, le gouvernement allemand a tâché de

protéger le peuple contre le microbe de la peur en lui inoculant un mépris effroyable pour toutes les autres nations. D'où l'évangile de la dégénérescence de la France, de la décadence de l'Angleterre, érigées en doctrines nationales et officielles. D'où aussi un chauvinisme effréné qui fait croire que la race allemande est l'élu de la terre et que sa civilisation, sa prétendue kultur, est la seule orthodoxe.

Mais paradoxe étrange ! Le ciment qui fait la réalité de la puissance allemande aujourd'hui n'est pas le mal, mais le bien. Car le mal seul est toujours purement dissolvant et destructif. Ce même bien est, il est vrai, asservi au mal, mais c'est un bien quand même. C'est le sentiment profond du devoir envers la patrie, qui inspire ses officiers, et fait que ses soldats se lancent en hécatombes sur nos lignes, je dis en hécatombes parce qu'ils sont, et qu'ils le savent bien, voués d'avance à la mort. Ce sentiment du devoir dérive du sentiment de la fidélité de l'individu pour le groupe auquel il appartient ; espèce de solidarité de tribu, qui a été pendant des siècles le trait le plus saillant du caractère allemand.

C'est en fait une incarnation du sentiment religieux que je tiens pour la qualité maîtresse de la race, submergée aujourd'hui sous le poids d'un matérialisme effroyable. Ce n'est pas pour rien que dans l'histoire c'est en Allemagne et non ailleurs que la Réforme a pris d'abord racine. Le malheur, c'est qu'aujourd'hui ce sentiment religieux a été asservi à la science, tandis que la science doit être la servante du sentiment religieux.

Je sais qu'au triste moment où nous vivons, il est bien difficile, surtout pour vous Français, de croire qu'il existe un seul sentiment honnête dans le cœur allemand. Et pourtant, il faut le croire, puisqu'il viendra infailliblement un jour où l'Allemagne si brutale, si hautaine aujourd'hui, se trouvera sans défense à vos pieds. Ce jour-là elle aura besoin, et vous aurez besoin également, de toute votre chevalerie, de toute votre pitié, voire de votre clémence. A coup sûr, sa punition doit être bien sévère, bien rigoureuse, mais juste, mais équitable et non pas vindicative. Après tout, elle fait partie de notre vieille Europe ; après tout, elle a produit des génies qui appartiennent à nous tous, tels que Dürer, Leibnitz, Beethoven et Goethe.

Et maintenant je vais aborder la question des grands principes en lutte aujourd'hui. A vrai dire ils sont innombrables, car la guerre met tout en jeu. Cependant le temps ne me permet d'en citer que quelques-uns, mais ceux-là, à mon humble avis, sont parmi les plus importants.

1° C'est la lutte entre l'autocratie et les institutions démocratiques.

2° C'est la lutte pour les principes de l'internationalité, ou société des nations, contre la barbarie universelle, pour le droit international contre la force érigée en droit. . . . Ici encore, l'enjeu est, ou une sainte alliance démocratique, dont le siège sera à la Haye, ou des satrapies tertiaires partout—l'Europe divisée en vilayets allemands !

3° C'est la lutte entre la science prise dans le sens étroit du mot, c'est-à-dire la science fondée sur des conceptions empruntées à la matière morte, et la religion ou moralité entendue dans un sens beaucoup plus large que celui d'aucune croyance particulière, ou plutôt qui les comprend toutes.

4° C'est la lutte entre l'idée de la civilisation unique, et celle de la civilisation multiple.

5° C'est la lutte entre l'idéal de la cité trop exclusivement mâle et l'extension plus grande des droits de cité à l'idéal féminin.

Si le bilan que j'ai dressé, tout sommaire et incomplet qu'il est, a quelque valeur, peut-on, dans ce pays où les gens sont prêts à mourir pour des idées plus que dans n'importe quel pays, peut-on douter un instant du succès final de la lutte ? Succès qui marquera plus ou moins le triomphe des principes pour lesquels nous combattons : institutions démocratiques ; droit international ; relèvement du sentiment religieux ou moral, sous n'importe quelle étiquette, catholique, orthodoxe, dissidente, éthique ; civilisation multiple ; reconnaissance plus grande des droits de la femme et des services qu'à l'avenir elle peut rendre à la civilisation ?

Ou en dernière analyse, n'est-ce pas la lutte suprême pour une conception personnelle ou impersonnelle du spirituel plus riche et plus étendue, contre l'idée de Dieu en danger de redevenir aujourd'hui plus ou moins une divinité locale, une divinité de tribu (telle que le Dieu des Allemands) ? Ou bien est-ce une synthèse qui se prépare entre ces deux courants d'idées ? Un retour au Panthéon sous une hégémonie unique ? Moi, je n'en sais rien, mais il me semble entendre parfois, pour parler le langage de Tacite, la rumeur *deorum non pas excedentium* mais *redeventurum* !

Nous sommes sans aucun doute à l'un de ces grands et décisifs moments de l'histoire comme la défaite des Perses à Salamine ou la Renaissance ou les invasions des Barbares—moments où le monde fait un grand bond en avant ou bien, au contraire, trébuche et recule épuisé. J'aime à croire que notre victoire présage l'aurore d'une grande Renaissance spirituelle au contraire, le

triomphe de l'Allemagne impliquerait la faillite au moins passagère, de toutes les civilisations de l'Europe, y compris celle de l'Allemagne, qui, comme celle de l'ancienne Sparte, succomberait à son tour, sous le poids de sa propre iniquité. Et qui sait si dans cet épuisement général notre vieux continent de l'Europe ne redeviendrait pas une simple péninsule de la grande Asie ?

Le sang des martyrs est la semence de l'Église et, même si nous sommes destinés à périr, les

idées pour lesquelles nous mourrons sont immortelles. Elles renaîtront de notre poussière même pour reflourir. Le triomphe d'un idéal barbare ne peut être qu'une éclipse passagère. Un Etat fondé sur l'iniquité ne peut durer qu'un moment. La justice et l'honnêteté triomphent à la longue. Ce que chacun de nous au fond de son cœur sent être le fondement de sa propre existence ne saurait être une illusion et un mensonge.

CLOUDESLEY BRERETON.

SOME HINTS WITH REGARD TO LEARNING FOREIGN LANGUAGES.

THE sure way to do anything badly is to do it mechanically ; this is another way of saying that the maximum of success will always depend upon the amount of intelligent effort put into any work. This axiom is quite as applicable to the study of foreign languages as to anything else, yet few people seem to realize that success in this, as in other branches of study, will depend upon the personal initiative which is brought to bear on the subject. The personal intelligent effort of the pupil will far outweigh any advantages to be found in the teacher, supposing a teacher to be employed. For the greater part of the work of learning a foreign language, I maintain that a teacher is quite unnecessary.

Mechanical work can never be anything but superficial. In teaching and learning alike the very soul of the work is initiative, whereas lifeless routine is its destruction—yet, judging from the accepted methods of teaching and learning languages, one might suppose that dull routine was the only road to success.

Most of us will, I think, agree that we do best what we find some pleasure in doing, and I fancy that many of us would learn many things better if we first discovered some pleasurable way of doing them. Whatever lessens our interest in any work is fatal to progress, and the use of all such mechanical aid as reduces our personal effort to a minimum is hardly less fatal. To apply these principles to the study of foreign languages would be, first, to discover for ourselves some method which would be to us personally interesting, and, secondly, to boldly discard all the helps offered by other people's labour. To do so would, I know, be the inversion of the ordinary method, in which dictionaries, grammars, and such contrivances for advancing exclusively at the cost of other people's efforts, are considered essential to success. But I fancy the study of a strange language might afford us far more pleasure if we courageously discarded such

contrivances, and set out alone on a voyage of discovery without other guide than our own intelligence.

Suppose the language which you wish to acquire to be French : procure a volume in this language, not too profound, and, if possible, one which, could you understand it, would be of burning interest to you ; plunge into it and read boldly on—read over and over again until you at last understand. Imagine, if necessary, that you are to be hanged on the morrow, and that your only chance of escaping your sentence will be by being able to translate, unaided, some portion of the volume in hand. Read, reread, compare with any languages you happen to know—if Latin and English your work is already half done—cudgel your brains, in every direction till you finally arrive at the meaning of the text. Above all eschew the dictionary, that enemy to all true progress ; go forward solely on your own resources.

If you have the courage to persevere with this method you will soon be astonished at your progress, and at the growing interest of your undertaking. If you look attentively at every word, you will find that many are similar or akin to some word which you know in another language, whilst the recurrence of others, the exigencies of the text, and the general drift of the subject, will help you to guess the meaning of the rest—one discovery will lead to another, until the whole meaning, in substance at least, will be clear to you. It is of no consequence that much will be mere guesswork, time or further experience will prove the correctness or error of such guesses, and in either case the words will have become fixed in the memory. Where it is absolutely impossible to arrive at the meaning of a particular phrase, the dictionary may be consulted, but only as a last resource.

When you have completed your task (the translation of not less than two pages), see

whether you are to be hanged or not by submitting your written attempt to a friend who knows French, or by comparing it with a translation.

Working in this way at German, I have found that in eight cases out of ten I have guessed the meaning correctly; I had also all the joy of a discoverer, and the signification of the words for which I had groped with so much labour never afterwards escaped my memory; even mistakes proved instructive, for they have often been so ludicrous as to make it impossible to forget the words in connection with which they occurred.

When a certain amount is easily understood by the sight of the words, a teacher must be employed (a native and an educated person with a perfect accent) in order to acquire the pronunciation. Read with him the same passage at least six times, he having, of course, previously read it to you; parse and analyze the same passage closely with your teacher, demanding the explanation of every inflection and change, and the reason for the place of each word in the sentence. Then write the passage in dictation, and finally learn it by heart. The one infallible aid to learning a foreign language is learning by heart; and to obtain a mastery over any language, even our own, much learning by heart is indispensable. Believe me, three lines committed faultlessly to memory each day will insure more progress than an hour spent in writing the usual grammar exercises. Discretion, however, being the better part of valour, learning by heart should not be undertaken wholesale, it being far better to learn one phrase at a time, and to fix it thoroughly in the memory by constant repetition, than to learn whole pages imperfectly. In learning by heart, the chief points to be observed are exactitude of pronunciation and speed in repeating it aloud. Until a certain speed of utterance is acquired, learning by heart does not fully realize the end which it has in view—namely, familiarity with words and an ease in recognizing particular turns of phrase.

Eventually the grammar can be learned, but only after, not before, the language has been mastered. A child learns a language without any reference to grammar, and many people can learn to speak, and even to write, a foreign language correctly without having studied the grammar. A certain amount of grammar is inevitably bound up with every method, even with that suggested above, and this will be found to suffice until a knowledge of the language has been attained; then whatever grammatical knowledge is lacking can be supplied

without irksomeness. From the very start it is interesting to study the inflections of words and formation of sentences, and the intelligent observation of every change is quite as useful as the learning of pages of declensions and irregular verbs by heart. It is a parrot's work to learn a declension or an irregular verb by heart, but it is a real exercise of the mind to discover for ourselves the cases of a noun or the irregularities of a verb. It is the same with the rules of syntax; they can, of course, be learned by rote, but they are far more likely to be permanently acquired when we have discovered for ourselves the laws by which sentences are formed. Invariably we shall find that the ground which we have personally explored will be better known to us than that over which we have travelled with the grammar for a guide. It can, of course, be consulted in cases of difficulty, but only when other methods have failed.

To conclude as we began, progress will always be in direct proportion to the amount of personal initiative put into the work. The system here roughly outlined is merely intended to be suggestive. As to its main features, much reading, learning by heart, and analysis—these are unquestionably the only means of mastering a foreign language within a limited time. Their sequence and detail each one may regulate to suit his individual tastes and capacity. Thus used, these hints may perhaps help a student here and there, who, disheartened by the dullness and apparent endlessness of the methods usually prescribed, is inclined to regard the task of mastering a foreign language as a hopeless one. It is quite possible to grow grey in the patient production of comments upon the pens of your great-grandmother's father-in-law without progressing far in the language in which these observations are made. Indeed, this seems the not uncommon fate of those beguiled by grammarians, or held back by conventional methods; and this is the greater pity, because with energy and enterprise it is quite possible for anyone of average ability, and with time to spare, to attain in six months to such knowledge of a language as will make reading pleasurable, and conversation not only possible, but even interesting. Given a year, a good teacher, and the possibility of frequent speech, a language ought to be mastered with a greater accuracy and fluency than foreigners without exceptional advantages usually acquire.

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LOAN LANTERN SLIDES COLLECTION.

FRANCE.

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C = coloured slide (painted).

PARIS.

(Printed reading, 'A Trip to Paris,' and 'A Trip round Paris'; also, Fernand Bournon, 'Petite Histoire de Paris.')

Buildings, etc.

F.P.A.

1. Map of Modern Paris.
2. Map : réseau du Métropolitain et du Nord-Sud.
3. Gare St. Lazare.
4. Opéra : façade principale.
5. Opéra : façade latérale.
6. Grand Hôtel.
7. Chambre des députés : façade primitive, rue de l'Université.
8. Tuileries : Ruins.
9. ,, Gardens and Part of Louvrs.
10. Trocadéro.

F.P.A.

11. Arc de Triomphe de l'Étoile.
12. Théâtre Français.
13. ,, ,, Another View.
14. Mairie : Premier Arrondissement.
15. Tour St. Jacques, Opéra Comique et Colonne du Palmier ; place du Châtelet ; pont au Change (c).
16. Hôtel des Invalides.
17. ,, ,, tombeau de Napoléon I.
18. Bourse.
19. Palais de Justice ; pont au Change.
20. Préfecture de Police.
21. Hôtel Dieu.
22. Hôtel de Ville.
23. Porte St. Martin.
24. Panthéon.
25. Louvre ; pont des Arts.
26. ,, entrée, rue du Louvre.
27. ,, façade, rue du Louvre.
28. ,, salle de Venus de Milo.
29. ,, salle des Cariatides.
30. ,, galerie d'Apollon.
31. ,, engraving by Sylvestre.
32. Palais Royal : entrée.
33. ,, vue générale de l'intérieur.
34. Tour du Temple xviii^e s.
35. Abbaye St. Germain des Prés xv^e s.
36. Pont Neuf : maisons Louis XIII.
37. Hôtel de Sévigné (musée Carnavalet) ; cour.
38. Bastille : vue générale xvi^e s.
39. ,, porte St. Antoine, engraving by Regaud.

Churches, etc.

F.P.B.

1. Notre Dame from N.E.
2. ,, ,, Central West Door.
3. ,, ,, Grotesque Figure.
4. ,, ,, Interior.
5. Tour St. Jacques (c).
6. Madeleine and rue Royale.
7. ,, Interior.
8. St. Augustine.
9. St. Sulpice.
10. St. Roch : Interior (c).
11. St. Étienne du Mont : Interior (c).
12. Père la Chaise : Entrance.
13. Sainte Chapelle : Palais de justice.
14. St. Germain l'auxerrois.
15. Église de la Sorbonne.

Streets.

F.P.C.

1. Boulevard des Capucines.
2. ,, de la Madeleine.

F.P.C.

3. Boulevard Poissonnière.
4. Ditto (c).
5. Rue Castiglione : Colonne Vendôme (c).
6. „ de la Paix (c).
7. „ de Rivoli, arcades.
8. Passage Henri IV. : a bit of Old Paris.
9. Place de la Concorde.
10. Pont Alexandre III. (S.-W. corner).

Statues, Monuments, etc.

F.P.D.

1. Jeanne d'Arc : place de Rivoli.
2. Gambetta : cour du Nouveau Louvre.
3. Place de la République.
4. „ de la Bastille.
5. A. Daudet : Parc Monceau.
6. Obélisque de Louqsor.
7. Lioness and Crocodile : Tuileries.
8. „ „ Side View.
9. Colonne Vendôme.
10. „ „ Communists pulling down,
1871.
11. Statue of Henri IV. : Pont Neuf.
12. Fontaine de Médicis : Luxembourg.

Gardens, Parks, etc.*Champs Élysées.*

F.P.E.

1. Folies Marigny and Family Group.
2. The Circus (c).
3. Café des Ambassadeurs.
4. Children and Nurses.
5. Toy-Shop.

Jardin du Luxembourg.

6. Pool : fontaine de Médicis.
7. Auditoire du Guignol : Children.
8. Lady feeding Sparrows.
9. Jeu de Paume.

Jardin des Tuileries.

10. General View.
11. A Corner.
12. Arc du Carrousel (c).
13. Ditto.

Bois de Boulogne.

14. Une Allée.
15. Cascade.
16. Grand Lac.
17. Châlet de Cyclistes.
18. Parc Monceau.

Markets, Shops, Traffic, etc.

F.P.F.

1. Marché aux fleurs : quai aux Fleurs.
2. Flower Market : Notre Dame.
3. Woman with Fruit-Barrow.

F.P.F.

4. Street Boot-black.
5. Shop : ' Broche de la Lune ' : Grands Boulevards.
6. „ ' Epicerie de Choix. '
7. „ ' Escargots. '
8. Bonquinistes au Quai.
9. Stall at Fair : ' Clou de la Foire. '
10. At Fair : Chevaux de Bois.
11. Newspaper Kiosque.
12. „ „ (duplicate).
13. Colonne de Spectacles.
14. Balayeur washing Streets.
15. Gardes Répub. : Back View.
16. Gardes Répub. and Sergents de Ville.
17. Sergent de Ville regulating Traffic.
18. Bus : rue de Rivoli.
19. Getting into a Bus : Ticket System.
20. Buses : Porte St. Martin.
21. „ „ (duplicate).
22. Long Cart with Wine Casks.
23. Charrette : place St. Martin.
24. Remorqueur ; bateau-mouche.
25. Embarcadère.
26. Bateau-mouche (c).
27. Bains de natation : Seine.
28. Lavoir : Seine.
29. Stone Carts : quai Henri IV.
30. Bateau-mouche.

Schools, etc.

F.P.G.

1. Student's Bed-Sitting Room, Fifth Floor, Hôtel Corneille.
2. Cour des Petits : Lycée Montaigne.
3. Cour : Lycée Henri IV.
4. Dortoir : Lycée Henri IV., with Curtained Space for ' Pion. '
5. Premières Communiantes on their Way to Church.

Suburbs of Paris.*Versailles.*

F.P.S.

1. Entrance to Palace, and Statue of Louis XIV. (c).
- 1b. Statue : Louis XIV.
2. Carriage built for Baptism of Prince Imperial.
3. Galerie des Batailles.
4. „ des Glaces.
5. Lake and Gardens from Terrace.
6. Grandes Eaux : Bassin d'Apollon.
7. „ „ „ de Neptune.
- 7a. Orangeries.

St. Cloud.

8. Ruins of Palace.
9. Cascade.

St. Denis.

- F.P.S.
 10. The Cathedral: Interior.
 11. " " Monument of Louis XII.
 and his Queen.
 12. *Sèvres.* View of Town from Train.
 13. *St. Germain.* Chapel and South Front.
 14. *Vincennes.* Keep.

National Fête, July 14.

Longchamps Racecourse.

- F.P.N.F.
 1. Mounted Garde clearing Road for the President.
 2. Ambassadors arriving at President's Pavilion.
 3. St. Cyriens passing at Review.
 4. Cavalry " "
 5. Chinese Ambassador's Suite leaving President's Pavilion.
 6. Chambres des Députés: Evening Illuminations.

REPRODUCTIONS OF PICTURES, ETC.

- F.R.P.
 1. Escalade d'un Mur (Soldats).
 2. Le Lavabo des Réservistes.
 3. Le Café: Après la Manœuvre.
 4. Le Rêve (Détaille).
 5. Les Invalides.
 6. École primaire en Bretagne.
 7. La Soupe des Laboureurs (with oxen ploughing).
 8. Le Berceau du Mousse (fishwife and baby).
 9. Départ pour la Pêche (pushing off boat from shore).
 10. Levée des Filets.
 11. Retour d'Islande (Crowd on quai welcoming vessel).
 12. March of the Women, 1870.

Révolution: Napoléon I.

13. Attack on Tuileries, August 10, 1792.
 14. Execution of Marie Antoinette, October 16, 1793.
 15. Robespierre, Couthon, and St. Just declared Traitors, Hôtel de Ville, July 28, 1794.
 17. Mme. Letitia (Gérard).
 Ajaccio (see *Various Towns*).
 18. Reprise de Toulon, 1793.
 19. " " (duplicate).
 20. Lettre de Bonaparte au général Carreaux à Toulon.
 21. Bonaparte à Arcole, 1796 (Gros).
 22. Bataille des Pyramides, 1798.

F.R.P.

23. Le général Bonaparte visitant les pestiférés, Jaffa, 1799 (Gros).
 24. Le 18 brumaire, 1799 (Bouchot).
 25. Passage du Grand St. Bernard, 1800.
 26. Napoléon franchissant les Alpes, 1800 (David).
 26a. Marengo.
 26b. Habit que portait Napoléon à Marengo.
 27. Napoléon à Saint-Cloud le 10 novembre, 1800 (eng. Hetman, after drawing by Mounet).
 28. Distribution des aigles au Champ de Mars, 1804 (David).
 29. Medal struck to commemorate invasion of England, 1804.
 30. Napoléon couronne Joséphine, le 2 décembre, 1804 (David, Versailles).
 31. Napoleon, Berthier, Murat at Jena, 1806 (eng. Hetman, after drawing by Mounet).
 32. Napoleon, Czar Alexander on raft at Tilsit, le 8 juillet, 1807.
 33. Napoleon at Wagram, 1809 (Vernet).
 34. La retraite de Russie (Meissonier).
 35. Adieux de Fontainebleau.
 36. Napoleon on board the *Bellerophon* (Orchardson).
 37. Young Bonaparte (Greuze).
 38. Middle-aged Napoléon (Vernet).
 39. 'The Last Phase.'
 40. Talleyrand.

Renaissance: Seventeenth Century.

41. François I. (Louvre).
 42. Marie Stuart (Clouet, Windsor).
 43. Richelieu (Philippe de Champaigne, Louvre).
 44. Anne d'Autriche et ses enfants (Philippe de Champaigne, Versailles).
 45. Pascal (Philippe de Champaigne, Louvre).
 46. Mme. de Sévigné (Nanteuil).
 47. La Fontaine: bust and allegorical figures.
 48. Corneille.
 49. Racine.
 50. Louis XIV. enfant (Simon Guillain).

Molière.

51. Molière (Mignard, Chantilly).
 52. " en habit de Sganarelle.
 53. " comme l'Avare.
 54. " et sa domestique.
 55. Le Malade imaginaire représenté dans le jardin de Versailles.
 56. Scènes.
 57. Document giving date of Molière's death.
 58. St. Louis résidant la Justice (Cabanel, Panthéon).

THE LAND OF WILLIAM THE
CONQUEROR.*(See also F.A.T.N. and Various Towns, below.)*

(Printed reading for this set.)

Havre.

F.L.W.C.

1. The Harbour (c).
2. Ste. Adresse (c).

Honfleur.

3. Fishermen (c).
4. The Fishing Fleet (c).
5. Street leading to Shore (c).
6. Old Clock Tower.

Rouen.

7. Cathedral, etc., from across Seine.
8. " West Façade (c).
9. Monument to Napoléon (c).
10. Doors of St. Maclou (c).
11. Monument to Bouhilet (c).
12. St. Vincent (c).

Falaise.

13. Boulevards.
14. Valley and Castle (c).
15. Chamber where William the Conqueror was born (c).
16. Market Place (c).
17. Portal, Church of the Trinity (c).

Vire.

F.L.W.C.

18. Clock Tower and Street (c).
19. Notre Dame (c).

Avranches.

20. Part of Town from above (c).
21. View from Public Gardens (c).
22. Stone on spot where Henry II. of England did Penance.
23. Notre Dame des Champs.

Mont St. Michel.

24. Cloisters (c).
25. " Details of Carving (c).
26. Court (c).
27. Salle des Chevaliers (c).
28. Crypt (c).
29. General View from E. (c).

AN ARCHITECTURAL TOUR IN
NORMANDY.*See also F.L.W.C., above; Various Towns, below.)*

(Printed reading for this set.)

Rouen.

F.A.T.N.

1. Cathedral, etc., from across Seine.
2. Holiday Crowd (c).
3. Cathedral: W. Front (c).
4. " S. Aisle (c).
5. " S. Portal.
6. St. Maclou (c).
7. St. Ouen and Place de la République.
8. " Interior.
9. " Portail des Marmousets.
10. Fontaine Ste. Marie.
11. Palais de Justice.
12. Jeanne d'Arc, Place de la Pucelle.
13. View up Seine.
14. Notre Dame de Bonsecours (c).
15. " " Memorial, Jeanne d'Arc (c).

Caen.

16. Abbaye aux Hommes: S.-E. from grounds of Lycée (c).
17. Abbaye aux Hommes: Choir, Interior.
18. " " W. Front.
19. Bird's-eye View from W. Tower (c).
20. Abbaye aux Dames from S.-W.
21. St. Pierre from Boulevard (c).
22. " Interior, looking E.
23. Rue St. Pierre: Old Houses.
24. Rue Froide with St. Sauveur (c).
25. Abbaye d'Ardennes (c).
26. " " Tithe Barn (c).

Falaise.

27. St. Gervais from S.-W. (c).
28. William the Conqueror's Castle: Talbot Tower (c).
29. William the Conqueror's Statue (c).

Bayeux.

30. Cathedral from E. (c).
31. " S. Portal: Central Tower (c).
32. " Interior, looking E. (c).
33. " " " W.

Coutances.

34. From Station (c).
35. Cathedral: W. Front (c).
36. " from S.-W.: Lantern (c).
37. " Interior (c).

Mont St. Michel.

F.A.T.N.

38. From the Digue.
39. Inner Gate of Fortifications (c).

Le Mans.

40. From Banks of Sarthe (c).
41. Cathedral from S.-E. (c).
42. „ Interior of Choir.
43. Statue of General Chanzy (c).

Chartres.

44. Cathedral from Bridge.
45. „ from W.
46. „ N. Portal.
47. Old Baths.

TOURS ET SES ENVIRONS.

(Printed reading, in French, for this set.)

F.T.E.

1. Panorama de Tours.
2. La Cathédrale.
3. „ „ Intérieur.
4. Tombeau des Enfants de Charles VIII.
5. L'Abbaye de Marmoutiers.
6. Les Grottes.
7. Portail de la Crosse : tour du XII^e s.
8. Candes : confluent de la Loire et de la Vienne.
9. Tour Charlemagne.
10. Tour de l'Horloge.
11. La Basilique de Saint Martin.
12. Église Saint Julien.
13. Ancienne Église des Jacobins.
14. Notre Dame la Riche.
15. „ „ „ Portail.
16. Maison de Tristan l'Hermite.
17. „ d'Anne de Bretagne.
18. Fontaine de Beaune de Semblançais.
19. Portail Gothique.
20. Hôtel Gouin.
21. Maison de Jehan le Galand.
22. Pont sur la Loire.
23. Le Théâtre.
24. Saint-Symphorien : vue sur la Loire.
25. Panorama vers Vouvray.
26. Saint-Cyr et pont sur la Loire.
27. Cinq-Mars : le château.
28. Montrésor : le château.
29. „ l'Église.
30. Les tombeaux des Bastarnoy.
31. Chinon : ville et château.
32. Plessis lez Tours : château de Louis XI.

VARIOUS TOWNS, Etc.

*(Arranged Alphabetically.)**(See also F.L.W.C., F.A.T.N., and F.T.E.)*

F.A.

1. Abbeville : St. Wolfram's West Front (*cf.* Ruskin's description of sunset on this).
2. Abbeville : St. Wolfram's, from North (*cf.* Ruskin's description of the 'Hen and Chickens').
3. Ajaccio : vue générale.
4. „ house known as Napoleon's birth-place.
5. Amiens : Cathedral : West Front.
6. „ Market Women in Boat.
7. „ Milking Goats in Street.
8. „ rue Alsace et Lorraine, a typical *main* French road.
9. Amiens : On the Somme, Early Market and Vegetable Boats.
10. Amiens : Cathedral, East End. Flying Buttresses, etc.
11. Amiens : Cathedral, Interior, looking W.
12. Andely, Le Petit : vue générale de la ville, du château Gaillard et de la Seine.
13. Angoulême : Cathedral, from S.-W.
14. „ Cathedral, Interior.
15. Ancey : blanchisseuses.
16. Arles : Roman Coliseum, Exterior.
17. „ „ „ Interior.
18. „ Roman Amphitheatre, with Medieval Tower.
19. „ A Glimpse of the Arena.
20. Arras : Hôtel de Ville, Main Front.
21. Avignon : Fourteenth-Century Wall.
22. „ A Gate in the Ramparts.
23. „ Distant View of Papal Palace across Rhône.

F.B.

1. Bouchet : Lac du (Seine et Oise).
2. Boulogne : Quai, Church, Boat, etc.
3. „ Smacks at Quai.
4. „ Smack leaving Harbour.
5. „ Pêcheurs et Pêcheuses.
6. „ Boys leaving School.
7. „ Pêcheuses with Nets on Rocks.
8. „ Fishmarket.
9. Breton Fisherman and Wife.
10. „ pardon.

F.C.

1. Cancale : La Houle with Chantiers.
2. „ Main Street to Bay.
3. „ Making Hay.
4. „ Hotel Staff.
5. „ Gendarme.
6. Chamonix : le Mont Blanc.

F.C.

7. Chartres : Cathedral, Interior, looking E.
8. Combourg : château, birthplace of Chateaubriand.
9. Chambord : salle des Gardes.

F.D.

1. Dieppe : Harbour.
2. " Market and Church.
3. Douarnenez : Un Ménage.
4. Dinan : The Bridge.
5. " rue Jersual.
6. Dinard : from the Sea.
7. " Women washing in a Pool.
8. " Street.
9. " Procession of Sailors.
10. " Cuirassier.
11. " Girl in Costume.
12. " Woman with Barrow.
13. Dol : Cathedral.

F.F.

1. Fontainebleau : escalier du fer à cheval.
2. " chapelle du palais.

F.G.

1. Grenoble : Le Mont Aiguille.
2. Guéry, Lac de : cratère.

F.L.

1. Landes : Échassiers landais.
2. " " (duplicate),
3. Lyon : Jonction du Rhône et de la Saône.

F.M.

1. Marseilles : P. and O. Quai.
2. " Wine waiting Shipment, Cathedral in background.
3. Montpellier : the Greatest Aqueduct in the World.
4. Malzienville (Lozère) : Norman arch.
5. " " River.
6. " " Marché.

F.N.

1. Nîmes : Coliseum, Interior.
2. " Roman Bath.

F.O.

1. Orléans Cathedral : W. Front.
2. " " Interior, looking E.
3. Orange : Arc de Triomphe.

F.P.

1. Vieille Femme du Pollet.
2. Le Puy : vue gén. prise d'Espaly.
3. Le Puy de Dôme.
4. Perros Geireo : Church.
5. Ploumanach : Coast.

F.R.

1. Rouen : Cathedral, etc., and Seine.
2. " Palais de Justice.
3. " Tour Jeanne d'Arc, belonging to Former Castle.
4. " Cathedral : Nave looking E., Whitsuntide Festival, showing Tapestries only shown on Principal Festivals.
5. " Cathedral, Int., looking E.
6. " College ; Statue of Corneille.
7. " St. Owen : Statue of Rollo (Founder of Town).
8. " la Grosse Horloge.

F.T.

1. Tarn, Gorges du : Défilé des Détroits.
2. Tours : Cathedral, W. Front.
3. " " N. Transept.

F.V.

1. Vire : Jour de Foire, Street Market.
2. " Old Man and Old Saleswoman.

MISCELLANEOUS.

F.MI.

1. Washerwoman.
2. Peasants going to Market on Stilts.

FRENCH COLONIES.

Village des Indigènes, Paris, 1896.

F.CO.

1. Senegalese Men dancing.
2. " at Work in Hut.
3. Malagasy Woman.
4. Another one.
5. " "
6. " "

EXTRA SETS.

The following set of slides may be borrowed by members of the Modern Language Association on making application to the owners, and paying all costs of carriage, but no hire.

The *Touring Club de France* will lend to members of the Modern Language Association slides illustrating the following Conférences: *La Protection des Sites et Monuments de France* (No. 40); *Le Déboisement, la Restauration et Mise en Valeur des Terrains et des Montagnes* (No. 41); *L'Œuvre du Touring Club de France et le Tourisme Scolaire* (No. 47); *Le Tourisme Nautique et Rivières de la France* (No. 45).

Apply : *Service des Conférences, Touring Club de France, 65, Avenue de la Grande Armée, Paris.*

The texts of the above Conférences, with subjects of slides, can be borrowed from the Hon. Custodian.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

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

Mrs. Emily Miall, who has written articles from time to time in this magazine, contributed in the spring some interesting columns to the *Letchworth Citizen* on the teaching of English to Belgians. Her leading idea is that the understanding of a language precedes in the course of nature the speaking of it. Little children can speak only a little, dogs and horses cannot speak at all; but both can understand a good deal. The first business of the teacher, therefore, is to practise children in comprehending what he says; for instance, by getting them to perform actions in response to requests or commands. A good deal of this should be done before the learners are asked to speak themselves, and teachers must not be surprised if the power of speech comes very slowly. Understanding comes of itself, she considers, but between understanding and speaking lies a great gulf.



ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

Mr. S. G. Simpson, of the Royal Technical Institute, Salford, is a Captain in the Army Service Corps. He went out last August as interpreter to the 2nd Life Guards, and, owing to the number of officers killed and wounded, he was for some days in command of a squadron. He has been wounded, has worked at the base, and is at present in the Central Requisition Office, Rouen.

Mr. W. Furness, of Rossall School, is Captain in the 8th Loyal North Lancashire Regiment, at present quartered at Aldershot.

Mr. F. R. McLellan, of Mill Hill School, is Major in the 16th Battalion of the Royal Welsh Fusiliers.



Monsieur F. Verdier, Lic. ès Lett., Professeur au Collège de Lisieux, would take one or two students as boarders during August. Special preparation for the London B.A. Write to F. Verdier, 161, Rue de Caen, Lisieux (Calvados).



Mr. Gilbert Waterhouse, M.A., F.R.G.S., formerly Lecturer at the University of Leipzig, has been elected Professor of German in the University of Dublin, as successor to Professor Williams. We congratulate Trinity College on the choice it has made. Mr. Waterhouse has

since the outbreak of the war been on the staff of the Manchester Grammar School.



We have no hesitation in commending the Professional Classes War Relief Committee to the generous consideration of our readers. The professional and artistic classes have probably suffered more from the war than any other sections of the community, and their troubles will not end the moment the war is over. Of the various activities of the Council, education is the one that appeals most to us. The Education Committee, which consists of seventeen members, mostly chairmen or secretaries of leading associations of teachers, is doing good work in assisting parents to keep their children at school—a work which is twice blest, because it enables some schools to keep going which would otherwise have to close their doors. In some cases, too, reduction or remission of fees has been obtained from governing bodies of public schools. Assistance in the professional training of girls is another branch of the Council's work. In the donation list we note the names of the Head-Mistresses' Association, which has given £40, and the Assistant-Masters' Association, which has given 50 guineas. The Assistant-Mistresses evidently have the matter much at heart, for the Central Committee sent £50, and various branches another £18. The Council is very much in need of funds, and is appealing urgently for financial assistance. Their address is 13 and 14, Prince's Gate, S. W.



OXFORD.—The examiners in the final Honour School of English Language and Literature have issued the following class list:

Class I.: Tolkien, J. R. R., Exeter; Van Santvoord, G., Oriel.

Class II.: Marwood, R., Parker's Hall; Sutton, E. G., Queen's.

Class III.: Hudson, C. N., Lincoln; Lawton, D. H., Queen's; Osborn, W. R., Non-Collegiate.

Class IV.: None.

Over standing for Honours, but satisfied the examiners: Armour, A. E., University.

Women.—Class I.: Hudson, Dora M., Somerville College; Potter, Muriel, L., St. Hugh's College.

Class II.: Bartlett, Ethel M., Somerville College; Edmonds, Ursula M., Society of Oxford

Home Students; Harford, Mary I., St. Hugh's College; Middlemore, Amphilis T., Society of Oxford Home Students; Murray, Muriel G. A., Somerville College; Owen, Eluned E., Somerville College; Peet, Elizabeth M., Somerville College; Rose, Beatrice M., Somerville College; Rowe, Dorothea E. H., Somerville College.

Class III.: Brown, Kathleen M., St. Hugh's College; Jennings, Hilda, St. Hilda's Hall; Wilkinson, Marie, St. Hilda's Hall.

Class IV.: Clarke, Amy F., Lady Margaret Hall; Codd, Mary F., St. Hilda's Hall.

Ægrotat: Logie, Helen M., Somerville College.

The electors to the All Souls' Readership in English Law have re-elected William S. Holdsworth, D.C.L., Fellow of St. John's College, to be reader for another term of five years.

* * *

The following elections to Exhibitions in Modern Languages and Literature have been made at St. John's College: To Exhibitions in French—Claud McL. C. Gurney, Hurstpierpoint College; and Alfred T. Harper, Penarth County School. To Exhibitions in English—Arthur G. Jones, University College of Wales; and Sidney C. Isaacs, University College, London.

* * *

HONOUR SCHOOL OF MODERN LANGUAGES AT OXFORD.

The examiners in the Honour School of Modern Languages have to-day issued the following class list:

Class I.: Barton, F. T., St. John's (French); *Griffin, J. T., Magdalen (Spanish); *Henschel, A. J., St. John's (French); Underwood, E. G., Christchurch (French).

Class II.: Evans, T. P., Jesus (French); Smith, V., Non-Collegiate (French).

Class III.: None.

Class IV.: Featherstone, G. H., St. John's (French); Irwin, F. M. P., Queen's (French); Thompson, E. G., Merton (French).

Ægrotat: Readman, G. B., St. John's (French).

The * indicates distinction in the colloquial use of the language.

WOMEN.

Class I.: *Doris M. Drought, Lady Margaret Hall (French); Dorothy L. Sayers, Somerville College (French).

Class II.: Edith M. R. Bradshaw, St. Hugh's College (French); Theodora M. E. Evans, St. Hugh's College (French); Helen Fox, Somerville College (German); Gladys Milvain, Lady Margaret Hall (German); *Mary V. Nugent, Lady Margaret Hall (French); Isabelle M. Purgold,

Society of Oxford Home Students (French); Ethel G. Smith, Society of Oxford Home Students (French).

Class III.: Hilda Henkel, St. Hilda's Hall (German); Violet C. Murray, St. Hugh's College (French); Ermin M. T. Oliver, St. Hugh's College (French).

Class IV.: None.

The * indicates distinction in the colloquial use of the language.

* * *

CAMBRIDGE.—The following University lecturers have been reappointed: German, Mr. E. C. Quiggin; Russian, Mr. A. P. Goudy.

* * *

LONDON.—In connection with the work of the Session 1914-15, the following awards have been made at University College in the Faculty of Arts: Modern Languages and History: Ethel L. Lloyd. English (John Oliver Hobbes Scholarship): Edith C. Batho. Early English Text Society's Prize: Mabel D. A. Chapman. French (L. M. Rothschild Prize): J. B. Proper. German (Fielden Research Scholarship): J. A. Wilks. Italian (Oddenino Scholarship): A. del Rò. Jeannette Oddenino Medal: A. del Rò.

* * *

Miss Waltenberg, of the Girls' Modern School, Leeds, has changed her name to Titterton.

* * *

Mr. M. P. Andrews is Captain in the 4th Battalion of the Duke of Wellington's Regiment, now serving in Flanders.

* * *

We deeply regret to record the death of Captain R. B. Macan, only surviving son of the Master of University College, Oxford, who was President in 1912. Captain Macan was in the 28th Light Cavalry, Indian Army, but was attached to the 30th Lancers, when he was killed in action in Flanders on June 13. At their last meeting the Committee passed a vote of sympathy with Dr. Macan.

* * *

Monsieur J. P. R. Marichal with his wife and family are among the few survivors of the passengers on board the *Lusitania*.

* * *

Mr. O. T. Robert, B.-ès-L., Assistant Master at Whitechapel Foundation School, has been appointed Associate Professor of French at Wel-

lesley University, Mass., U.S.A. Mr. Robert's appointment means the loss to us of an able teacher and a zealous member of the Association. We wish him happiness and prosperity in his new sphere.



At the next annual general meeting, which will be held in London early in January, Mme. d'Orliac-Böhn, of the Institut Français, Marble Arch House, W., will give an account of the work of that institution, and specially of the schools for Belgian children, which are being carried on under its management. A further interim report from the sub-committee on the teaching of European history will be introduced for discussion by Mr. A. T. B. Green, of the Perse School. Professor Hearnshaw, of King's College, has kindly consented to speak on this subject. There

will also be a discussion on the different methods of studying a reading text, the details of which have still to be settled, and one or two other items.



As will be seen from the report of the last Committee meeting, there was a deficit on the Record of the General Conference held last year, towards which the Association has contributed. In return for our contribution, we have received twenty copies of the Record, which are now offered to members at 1s. each, post free, instead of the original 1s. 6d. The Record is a report of all the meetings which formed part of the Conference of the University of London last January, and is a volume of about 250 pages. Any member desiring a copy should write to the Hon. Secretary of the Association, enclosing 1s.

REVIEWS.

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

A Middle Method German Course. By F. W. M. DRAPER. Text and Questions, pp. 79. Exercises, pp. 42. Grammar, pp. 27. German-English Vocabulary, pp. 17. Murray. Price 2s. 6d.

Twenty lessons of the text give a pleasant picture of country life in Hanover. The pastor, the chemist, the postman, the farmer, the night-watchman, and other characters, are introduced to us; and we learn about German houses, meals, animals, plants, birthdays, church services, skittles, shooting-matches, harvest-homes, and universities, which are all described with a touch of sympathetic personal observation.

Twenty more advanced lessons are based on passages taken from E. T. A. Hoffmann, Paul Heyse, W. Hauff, etc.

On the page opposite the pieces are a good number of questions for Direct Method oral work—the author, for some unexplained reason, seems to think the answers should never be written—groups of words related in form or sense, and later strong verbs.

The exercises are partly Direct Method, partly translation. Both exercises and grammar suffer from *isolation*—e.g., p. 94, an exercise on the adjective declensions in odds and ends of cases; or, p. 96, a translation exercise of disconnected sentences which have no relation to one another, and little relation to the sense of the text. The article, the personal pronouns, the adjective declensions, are all given in isolation.

Both Direct Method and translation exercises

and grammar have occasionally an old-world flavour—e.g., I. (10), III. (9), or the past participles of modal verbs. The nouns are not set out with complete logic—e.g., das Auge, der Vetter.

I discussed all these points in reviewing Professor Savory's books, and I shall not now return to them. As the author does not state for what pupils he intends his book, I shall merely remark that the advance in vocabulary is rapid. The book is well printed.

H. L. H.

Chaucer: Nonnæ Preestes Tale. Edited by LILLIAN WINSTANLEY, M.A. Pp. lxxxvi+44. Cambridge University Press. 1914. Price 2s.

Miss Winstanley has by this time made her reputation as an editor of annotated classics, and this new volume of Chaucer is as satisfactory as her *Clerkes Tale*. We think that, if anything, the Introduction errs by being over-ambitious and attempting too much. Good as is the chapter on 'Chaucer and his Times,' it suffers all through from the necessity for compression, which leads, among other disadvantages, to hard-and-fast judgments where tentative statements might be more just. Young readers should not be told, for example, that 'the whole (*sic*) Wyclifite controversy is very thoroughly mirrored in Chaucer's pages.' This is not the case, and if it were, there is not space, in the limits of a page or two, to prove the justice of the criticism. Again, the account of Middle English literature is precisely the kind

of thing which gives young students an opportunity to pass off other people's opinions as their own. If they have not read Minot—and it is unlikely that students who use this edition will have had the opportunity to do so—it is useless for them to learn that his 'poems are somewhat rough; they are written in end-rhyme with a considerable amount of alliteration, but they are very vigorous, possessing the inevitable force of a writer dealing with great contemporary events in the white-hot spirit of the moment.' If they have read the poems, they will know all this for themselves; and in any case, why introduce this sketch of mediæval writings in an Introduction to the *Nonnæ Preestes Tale*?

There is so much that is fresh and valuable in Miss Winstanley's methods that we hope she will forgive us for pointing out that she sometimes succumbs to the temptation, only felt by one whose knowledge is wide, of saying too much.

Her grammatical sketch is clear, and the notes concise and to the point, though the line drawn between notes and glossary is not sufficiently clear—e.g., 'powped: blew hard,' ought surely to come under the latter, and so in many instances.

The text is excellent, though we regret that Miss Winstanley adopts the Cambridge version of L 218, so obscuring the construction, which is a valuable instance of a transition stage in syntax: 'Oon of the gretteste auctours' for 'oon of the gretteste auctour.' Five leading MSS. have the latter reading, while only *one* has the former, so that this is usually regarded as a scribal error.

But these adverse criticisms are all of details, and should not be allowed to militate against a good piece of work.

Poetic Romancers after 1850. By OLIVER ELTON.

The British Academy: Warton Lecture on English Poetry. Pp. 19. Oxford University Press. 1914. Price 1s. net.

There is no need to do more than call our readers' attention to the fact that Professor Elton has published the lecture he delivered last October under the ægis of the British Academy. If we add that the paper is full of the delicate criticism and subtle insight which distinguish all Professor Elton's writings, while the subject is drawn from the period he has made peculiarly his own, we hope the recommendation to read it will need no further endorsement.

Spenser: Faerie Queene. Book I. Pp. lxxx+293. Book II. Pp. lxxii+294. Edited by LILLIAN WINSTANLEY, M.A. Cambridge University Press. 1915. Price 2s. 6d. each.

This is quite the best students' edition of the *Faerie Queene* which we have seen, and we

cordially hope that the remaining books will also be published by the same competent introducer, since it is a regrettable fact that the later books are much neglected in schools, and even in Universities. Miss Winstanley pays special attention to the historical allegory and sources, and her successful interpretations mark a real step in the elucidation of Spenser. Her work deserves to rank with Professor Herford's edition of *The Shepherd's Calendar*, and to say this is to give it unstinted praise.

The Golden Legend: Lives of the Saints. Translated by William Caxton from the Latin of Jacobus de Voragine. Selected and edited by GEORGE O'NEILL, S.J., M.A. Pp. viii+293. Cambridge University Press. 1914. Price 3s. net.

Professor O'Neill has done a really valuable piece of work in making these Lives accessible to all students of mediæval literature. His edition, while intended and suitable for popular use, is in the best sense scholarly, and it should do much to 'bring us back into the heart of the Middle Ages and set us in contact with its thought and feeling.' It will be a genuine pleasure for many lovers of literature to read for themselves a typical writer of mediæval legend, and one whose influence was far-reaching.

The Elder Brother: a Comedy by John Fletcher, reprinted, with Slight Alterations and Abridgment, for Use on Occasions of Entertainments, especially in Schools and Colleges. Edited by WILLIAM H. DRAPEY, M.A. Cambridge University Press. 1915. Price 2s. 6d. net.

This edition seems admirably suited to the purpose suggested, and Mr. Draper does good service in calling attention to a play which has been unduly neglected. The triumph of learning over ruder accomplishments is, as the Headmaster of Shrewsbury points out in the prefatory note, a subject specially suited to academic listeners. Fletcher's treatment of his thesis is cheerful rather than pedantic, and the play is likely to appeal to young actors.

Chaucer and his Poetry. By E. W. EDMUNDS, M.A. *Walt Whitman and his Poetry.* By H. BINNS. (The Poetry and Life Series.) Pp. 218 and pp. 167. George Harrap and Co. 1914 and 1915 respectively. Each 1s. net.

'In these books the life of the poet is illustrated by his work, and his work is interpreted in the light of his life.' The two volumes above mentioned fully maintain the standard set by their predecessors, and succeed in their aim of considering biography and production in intimate association. The series is one which can be heartily recommended to all who wish to make the acquaintance of the poets which it includes.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A MEETING of the Executive Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, June 26.

Present: Mr. Hutton (chair), Miss Allpress, Miss Batchelor, Messrs. Fuller, von Glehn, Miss Hart, Messrs. Mansion, Perrett, Prior, Rippmann, Twentyman, and the Hon. Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from Dr. Macgowan, Miss Althaus, and Mr. Somerville.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The Finance Sub-Committee reported that they had granted £1 for lantern-slides, and would consider the question of an annual grant at the beginning of next year; also that they had made a further grant towards the expenses of the syllabus of examinations in French.

It was resolved to invest £20 of Life Membership Subscriptions in the new War Loan.

A request for a contribution of 17s. in aid of the deficit on the Report of the last General Conference was received from the Committee. It was resolved to make the contribution. A notice about the copies of the Report, which have been received in return for it, appears on p. 157.

Further progress was made with the programme of the Annual General Meeting.

The Committee accepted with regret the resignation of Mr. O. T. Robert, tendered in consequence of his new appointment. In accordance with the rules, Miss Burras, of Manchester High School, who stood highest of the unsuccessful candidates on the poll last January, was declared a member of the Committee.

Miss Hart mentioned that the revision of the Catalogue of the Travelling Exhibition was progressing, and asked the sanction of the Committee to proceed with the printing. This was referred to the Finance Sub-Committee, with power to act.

It was resolved that a meeting of the General Committee should be held on Saturday, September 25.

The following three new members were elected: Miss C. E. Coates, B.A., Calder Girls' School, Seascale, Cumberland.

Miss Hertha Kohn, B.A., 27, Westbere Road, West Hampstead, N.W.

Miss Adelaide Stowell, High School, Blackburn.

The following letter has been received:

GILCHRIST EDUCATIONAL TRUST.

1, Plowden Buildings,
Temple, London, E.C.,
June 2, 1915.

Inspection of Foreign Holiday Courses.

DEAR SIR,

I am instructed to convey to you the following Resolution of the Trustees, dated May, 1915, with reference to the grant made by them a year ago in aid of the above object:

'Resolved: That, owing to existing conditions, the grant of £100 a year for a period of three years from May, 1914, made by the Trustees to the Joint Committee of the Modern Language Association and the County Councils' Association towards the expenses of Inspection of Foreign Holiday Courses be withdrawn pending further consideration at a time when conditions on the Continent prove more favourable to Foreign Holiday Courses.'

I remain, dear sir,

Yours sincerely,

A. H. FISON.

G. F. Bridge, Esq.

WEST LONDON BRANCH.

DURING the spring (1915) there were two meetings of the West London Branch.

The first was held at the Godolphin and Latymer School, Hammersmith, on Friday, February 12. Mr. Rippmann occupied his customary place in the Chair. An interesting paper on 'English Poetry in Schools' was read by Mr. G. F. Bridge, the Hon. Sec. M.L.A. The immediate aim of poetry, he said, should be enjoyment and appreciation of it; and the only brain-effort that of learning by heart. In childhood the memory should be stored with poetry. This poetry should appeal to the heart rather than to the head, and should be of the narrative, historical, and patriotic order. While holding that the personality of the teacher was of more account than the method adopted, Mr. Bridge advocated—(1) some sympathetic explanation and comment of the poems; (2) giving the fewest

possible facts about the poet; and (3), he deprecated conscious visualisation. In conclusion, he said that the choice of subject and method must rest with the teacher, for he would teach best what he himself loved.

The second meeting was held in conjunction with the North London Branch at the College of

Preceptors on Friday evening, March 19. The meeting was well attended. Dr. de Mouilpied took the Chair, and Mr. Hardress O'Grady gave a most interesting and stimulating lecture in French on 'Some Elements in the Development of the New France.' The lecture was followed by light refreshments and conversation.

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.

It seems necessary to point out that the opinions expressed in articles, correspondence, notes, and reviews are not and cannot be endorsed officially by the Association.

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.; the annual subscription is 4s. 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, Cuirrathain, 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, 7, South Hill Mansions, London, N.W.

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: Miss HART, County Secondary School, Sydenham Hill Road, S.E.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, County School, Wood Green, N.

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
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EDITED BY J. G. ANDERSON

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L'ALLEMAND APRÈS LA GUERRE.

LA LANGUE ALLEMANDE EN FRANCE.

J'OSE dire que bien peu de personnes en France, en dehors des milieux universitaires, se rendent compte de l'influence considérable exercée, même à l'insu de ceux qui la subissent, sur la vie intellectuelle et économique d'un peuple, par l'enseignement des langues étrangères.

Là, où l'observateur superficiel, où le témoin non averti, ne voit qu'une question de programmes, presque uniquement l'une de ces questions de boutique dont on sourit volontiers, nous savons que se dissimulent, sous les espèces et apparences de l'appareil pédagogique, les questions les plus vitales pour l'avenir des nations.

Or, dans cette invasion de la camelote scientifique allemande, de la camelote pédagogique allemande, de la méthode allemande et de la finance allemande, sous laquelle nous avons failli être submergés, qui dira quelle part revient à la faveur dont a bénéficié en France, de 1871 à 1914, l'enseignement de la langue allemande ?

Ne nous sommes-nous pas faits, trop bénévolement, les complices du bluff allemand et les lanceurs de l'impudente réclame allemande ?

Quand l'Europe et l'Amérique—ces neutres !—ont vu les Français, les vainqueurs d'Iéna et les vaincus de Sedan, se

mettre si docilement à l'école de l'Allemagne, imposer sa langue dans leurs grandes Ecoles, lui faire la plus large place dans leur enseignement secondaire et primaire, ouvrir toutes larges à ses méthodes les portes de leurs facultés et de leurs laboratoires, alors, c'est alors seulement qu'il y a eu quelque chose de changé en Europe, au détriment de l'influence française, et c'est alors que l'Allemagne qui n'était qu'une caserne, a fait le rêve de l'hégémonie teutonne.

Quand l'Europe—elle en est restée stupide—vit les jeunes Français ne pas reculer—et quel plus bel éloge pour nos excellents professeurs d'allemand ?—devant les sons gutturaux du langage teuton et les obscurités anti-françaises de sa syntaxe ; quand l'on put voir nos étudiants se faire les pèlerins de la pensée et de la science allemandes, l'Europe put croire et nous savons maintenant qu'elle l'a cru, que la consécration française de la pensée allemande, de la science allemande et de la langue allemande, signaient définitivement l'abdication de la France et de la Latinité.

A telles enseignes que l'on vit les pays latins eux-mêmes—ne nommons personne !—se faire les disciples ou les cavaliers servants de la *Kultur* triomphante.

Je ne puis dans les bornes de cette

brève étude m'étendre sur les preuves que je pourrais apporter de la complicité inconsciente de la France—jusqu'aux militaires qui copiaient les méthodes allemandes, et jusqu'aux socialistes qui ne juraient que par la Social-Démocratie—dans l'édification de la brutale hégémonie dont l'alliance franco-anglaise a sauvé le monde.

Mais il suffira à ma thèse de signaler ces deux faits :

1°. L'introduction généralisée de la langue allemande dans les programmes universitaires—il s'agit ici surtout de l'enseignement secondaire—chez la plupart des peuples civilisés, a eu lieu entre 1870 et 1880, et à l'exemple de la France.

2°. Le succès des universités allemandes, source de l'influence allemande, est le corollaire et la conséquence de l'expansion de la langue allemande, expansion dont, je l'ai dit, la France s'est faite l'artisan, chez elle, d'abord, chez les autres, ensuite.

Trouvera-t-on 'trop minces' ces deux faits ou bien nous reprochera-t-on d'être par trop orfèvre et d'exagérer leur relative importance ?

Nous nous bornerons à cette réponse que nous nous permettrons, pour la commodité de nos contradicteurs, de faire interrogative :

Les meilleurs esprits ne s'accordent-ils pas à voir—témoins Treitschke, Nietzsche et C^{ie}—dans l'enseignement universitaire reçu par la jeunesse allemande la cause première et principale du cas de mégalomanie et de 'swelled head' que les alliés sont en train d'opérer ?

L'influence remarquable exercée par l'Allemagne sur certains milieux, en Espagne, par exemple, en Scandinavie, en Suisse, en Grèce, dans l'Amérique du Sud, dans les Balkans, etc., n'est-elle pas avant tout, et surtout, universitaire, c'est-à-dire d'origine linguistique et pédagogique ?

Enfin ne savons-nous pas que l'Allemagne met au premier rang de ses préoccupations et de ses conquêtes—et de ses tyrannies !—l'expansion de sa langue et qu'elle fonde des écoles avant même de fonder des comptoirs ?

Et en faut-il davantage pour montrer que répandre la connaissance de la langue allemande, c'est faire le jeu de l'Allemagne ?

LA LUTTE POUR LA VIE.—FRAPPONS À LA TÊTE.

I.

Est-il encore un seul Français qui, après douze mois de guerre, la guerre la plus héroïque d'un côté, la plus sauvage, de l'autre, qu'aient jamais enregistrées les annales de l'humanité, puisse se méprendre encore ou se faire illusion sur les caractères véritables du combat que se livrent, de la mer du Nord aux Vosges, des Carpathes à la Baltique, des Alpes et de Venise à Constantinople, deux civilisations et deux cultures, le Droit et la Force, la Liberté et la Tyrannie ?

Luttons-nous véritablement, nos alliés et nous, pour sauver l'Europe et le monde civilisé du désastre intellectuel et moral qui serait la conséquence inévitable de la victoire allemande ?

Et pour nous, Français, plus particulièrement menacés, la lutte actuelle est-elle bien une lutte à mort, la *lutte pour la vie* dans laquelle il ne s'agit pas seulement de vaincre, mais de réduire son adversaire à l'impuissance, de le mettre pour longtemps—sinon pour toujours—hors d'état de nuire ?

La question, importune peut-être, à ceux que les solutions nettes gênent ou dérangent, ce n'est ni nos alliés ni nous-mêmes, que l'avons posée dans ces termes. Nos ennemis y ont, à l'avance, répondu et nous ne saurions mieux faire que d'adopter à leur égard les solutions dont

leur prévoyance et leur organisation nous ont offert le bénéfice :

La Belgique et la Serbie asservies, la Russie rejetée en Asie, l'Angleterre dépouillée de sa prépondérance maritime et de ses plus riches colonies, l'Italie protégée à l'allemande, la France, enfin, humiliée, tondue, mutilée, énermée, les reins cassés, spectacle à jamais lamentable de la puissance et de la magnanimité tudesques ! . . .

Car, ne l'oublions pas, il ne s'agissait de rien moins que de nous casser les reins, de ne laisser subsister de nous que juste ce qu'il en eût fallu, pour garder au respectable commerce—ohé, les fraudeurs !—allemand et à sa très honorable industrie—ohé, la camelote !—une clientèle méprisée mais docile ; tout juste ce qu'il en eût fallu pour administrer aux plaisirs ou aux délassements artistiques de la noble élite du peuple des Boches, seigneurs et maîtres, de par le vieux Gott, du nouveau Saint-Empire romain et autres lieux bons à prendre.

Le tableau des prétentions allemandes—disons des prévoyances allemandes—est chargé à tel point (comme celui, hélas ! de leurs atrocités), qu'il se rencontre, peut-être, encore des Français, qui, se piquant de critique et de générosité, ne manqueraient pas de sourire et de hausser les épaules, si, ce qu'à Dieu ne plaise, ils pouvaient lire par dessus notre épaule : ' exagération de journaliste en mal de copie, injustice de patriote exaspéré, incompréhension d'esprit terre-à-terre, manque absolu de critique supérieure, ' etc., etc. ; telles seraient, probablement, les réflexions du Français isolé, que nous voudrions croire unique et que la guerre convertira, s'il y survit, aux nécessités de la paix.

Pour nous, avec les Bédier, les Jean Finot, les Denis, les Flammarion, les Maurice Barrès, les Henri Bérenger, les Victor Giraud, les Emile Hovelague, les Maeterlinck et les Verhaeren, etc., etc.—ils

ne sont pourtant pas tout à fait dépourvus d'esprit critique, ceux-là—contentons-nous de croire à la réalité, objective, comme ' ils ' disent, de l'ambition et de la barbarie allemandes, de leur dessein et de leur volonté réfléchis de nous écraser, de noyer dans le sang notre civilisation, de nous mutiler et de nous ruiner.

Et, *Dieu bibant !* comme disent nos poilus méridionaux, agissons en conséquence de ces témoignages et de cette croyance ; défendons-nous dans le présent et dans l'avenir. Que notre 75 ait raison de leur 77 et que notre artillerie lourde démolisse la leur, c'est juste et c'est sûr. Mais les nations ne vivent pas seulement de pain, et il faudra pour enchaîner la *Bête blonde* mélanger aux maillons de fer et d'acier, les mailles plus subtiles et plus durables de l'armure intellectuelle. Ayons confiance en nos explosifs, mais ne mésestimons pas la puissance des . . . impondérables.

Cela peut sembler un paradoxe quand il s'agit de guerre, mais je serais disposé à dire avec Cicéron, quand il sera question de paix : '*Concedat laurea lingue.*'

II.

Il n'était même pas besoin du récent manifeste des Associations commerçantes et industrielles allemandes pour amener, enfin, les plus réfractaires chez nous et chez nos alliés à cette idée, que la nation allemande toute entière, dans ses foules comme dans ses élites—et non pas seulement une dynastie ou une caste—est complice et responsable de l'agression préméditée et préparée d'août 1914.

Si jamais guerre fut voulue et saluée par toute une nation, comme la plus haute et dernière expression de l'âme nationale, c'est bien celle que l'Allemagne du Kaiser et du hobereau, l'Allemagne des universités et des brasseries, l'Allemagne des chimistes et des industriels, des fabricants de poisons et des fabricants

d'obus, l'Allemagne des ouvriers et des employeurs, l'Allemagne de tous les partis politiques et religieux, mène depuis un an et mènera jusqu'à son dernier souffle, contre . . . l'humanité policée.

Essentiellement nationale et populaire cette guerre du *pangermanisme* contre les autres nationalités européennes ne peut guère être qualifiée autrement que de 'crime national,' et doit être expiée comme le crime de tous les Allemands.

Ainsi que le constate avec tant de modération et de mesure le manifeste des instituteurs français, le trait caractéristique de cette guerre, tous attentats individuels contre les personnes mis à part, est la fréquence et la banalité (!) des 'actes collectifs d'atrocités calculées et disciplinées.'

Donc, à crime national, expiation nationale.

Est-il encore nécessaire d'affirmer ici qu'il ne se trouvera personne en France pour souhaiter que nos armées en Allemagne appliquent la mesure féroce des expiations antiques : 'Cil pour cil, dent pour dent ?' Non, pas même les témoins les plus indignés, avides de venger les victimes des attentats individuels et des attentats collectifs, ne sauraient abaisser leur mentalité de civilisés jusqu'à l'imitation des horreurs sans nom de Louvain ou de Senlis, de Gerbéviller ou de Dinant ! Le respect de la femme, de l'enfant et du vieillard, du blessé et du prisonnier, est, Dieu merci, aussi instinctif chez nos soldats et leurs alliés, que leur haine pour la brute pangermaniste. Nos soldats ne seront jamais des bourreaux.

Mais il devra y avoir expiation, expiation nationale.

Remarquons, en passant, pour ceux qu'étonneraient ou choqueraient dans leur délicatesse ces mots '*d'expiation nationale,*' que la chose, sinon le mot, est d'usage courant en politique internationale et qu'il s'y peut appliquer de nombreux précédents. Quand, après une

défaite, un peuple se voit imposer une indemnité de guerre, laquelle double ses impôts, diminue son bien-être, l'atteint dans les sources vives de sa prospérité, que fait-on autre chose que lui faire expier collectivement sa défaite ?

Nous pouvons donc tenir comme certain qu'une *expiation nationale*, telle qu'elle frappera à la fois l'individu et le citoyen, sera infligée à l'Allemagne vaincue.

Or, cette expiation devra-t-elle se borner à la dislocation de l'Empire et à l'imposition d'une indemnité de guerre ?

Suffira-t-il aux alliés vainqueurs d'exiger de l'Allemagne vaincue, pour la sauvegarde de tout ce que ceux-là ont défendu et de tout ce que celle-ci a attaqué, des 'rectifications de frontière' et des 'milliards' ? En un mot, sera-t-il suffisant de frapper l'Allemagne à la bourse et à la peau, pour la mettre hors d'état de nuire ?

III.

—Frappez à la tête!—avait dit César à ses légionnaires avant la bataille de Pharsale.

Il faut frapper l'Allemagne 'à la tête,' c'est-à-dire dans ses universités, dans ses prétentions 'kulturesques,' dans ses ambitions désordonnées d'hégémonie intellectuelle.

L'exemple de la France, après 1870, est là pour montrer que ni les mutilations ni les amendes pécuniaires, se chiffrent-elles par dizaines de milliards, ne font obstacle au relèvement d'une nation. Et rien ne nous autorise à croire que l'Allemagne de 1916 sera plus impuissante à se relever que l'Allemagne d'Iéna et d'Auerstadt.

Ce peuple de 70 millions d'habitants, avec toutes les ressources de l'industrie moderne, avec les avantages d'une natalité supérieure ne cessera d'être un danger pour l'Europe, en dépit de toutes les entraves politiques et économiques, qu'à condition que son influence intellectuelle,

usurpée et néfaste, sur un trop grand nombre de peuples naïfs et jeunes soit résolument combattue et détruite.

Il est, en effet, patent à qui veut s'en rendre compte, que pendant ces vingt ou trente dernières années, les universités allemandes avaient, à l'égal de la camelote allemande, envahi et à demi conquis tous les domaines lucratifs ou honorifiques, de la pensée et de la science.

En France, comme en Angleterre et en Italie—faisons notre *mea culpa!*—on s'était laissé prendre au bluff de la science allemande, on s'était laissé piper par les faux dés de ses jongleurs en abstractions, par les réclames impudentes de ses laboratoires, et il ne manquait pas de gens à Oxford et à Cambridge, pas plus, d'ailleurs, qu'à Naples ou à Lutèce, qui ne juraient que par la barbe de tel Herr Professor ou par les lunettes de telle Excellence, dont le paraphe devait constituer l'un des plus beaux ornements du manifeste des 93.

Et dans les pays neutres? Tout ne se passait-il pas, intellectuellement parlant, à X et à Y, à l'allemande et à la prussienne? Toujours sans nommer personne, nous sera-t-il défendu de rappeler les ravages commis dans certains états-majors de pays neutres par l'influence de l'éducation militaire allemande?

Il importe donc, d'abord, de mettre obstacle à l'attraction exercée par les universités allemandes, ensuite, d'attirer vers les universités françaises et anglaises toute cette clientèle si variée, qui allait du Chilien au Japonais, et dont la naïve admiration et la naïve confiance avaient mis sur un piédestal '*über alles*' la science allemande.

SUPPRIMONS L'ENSEIGNEMENT DE L'ALLEMAND.

I.

Il est trop évident pour que nous nous arrêtions à le démontrer ici, que l'instru-

ment, si j'ose dire, nécessaire de cette attraction à l'étranger, et le milieu où elle s'exerce avec le plus d'efficacité, c'est l'enseignement de la langue, l'enseignement de l'allemand.

Supprimer cet enseignement, c'est 'couper le fil' qui fait communiquer l'Allemagne des universités avec le reste du monde; c'est enlever à ces universités les neuf-dixièmes de leur clientèle étrangère; c'est isoler intellectuellement l'Allemagne, à tel point, que l'isolement politique qui suivra sa défaite lui paraîtra léger en comparaison. Ce sera élever entre l'Allemagne et le reste de l'Europe une barrière dix fois plus solide et plus infranchissable que toutes les barrières politiques ou économiques imaginées par les diplomates.

Supprimer cet enseignement est, d'ailleurs, le seul moyen praticable, en tout cas, le moyen le plus pratique, d'atteindre notre but, qui est, en premier lieu, d'assurer une longue paix en réduisant l'Allemagne à l'impuissance; en second lieu, de transformer, si possible, la mentalité allemande par ce châtiment tout intellectuel, punition adéquate de son monstrueux orgueil national.

II.

Comme le dit avec tant d'éloquence et d'autorité notre éminent directeur et ami, M. Jean Finot, dans son admirable série de la *Revue*, et comme il ne faudrait pas se lasser de le crier à tous les échos des pays alliés—à ceux aussi des pays neutres—la guerre que l'Allemagne nous a imposée est une *lutte à outrance*, qu'il s'agit, sous peine de disparaître, de mener jusqu'au bout, à sa seule fin logique, qui est la mise hors de combat de l'adversaire.

Or, serait-il possible que la France, que les alliés, reculassent devant l'application d'une mesure, qui ferait plus, à elle seule, pour abattre et humilier l'adversaire, pour l'écarter du conseil des nations civi-

lisées, que toutes les entraves politiques ou économiques imaginables ?

Après seulement que les peuples assemblés au futur congrès de la paix auront dit à l'Allemagne par la bouche de leurs diplomates : '. . . Tu as aussi péché contre l'esprit. Punie dans ta chair et dans tes biens, tu dois l'être également dans ton orgueil intellectuel et dans les vanités de ton âme de parvenue.

' . . . Ta langue s'est faite l'instrument du mensonge le plus éhonté ; elle est devenue la sentine de la haine et l'enveloppe grossière des débordements de ton âme de lucre et de fraude ; ta littérature accouplée à la soldatesque ne sait plus hoqueter que des hymnes de haine ; ta science s'est déshonorée à jamais par ses pratiques scélérates d'empoisonneuse ; ta pensée s'est avilie jusqu'à se faire la servante et l'apologiste, la procureuse, même, de tes dynasties criminelles . . . ; sois donc maudite et punie dans ton esprit, comme tu l'es dans ton sang et dans tes richesses. Que bannie soit ta langue de toutes nos écoles, et que ses syllabes, odieuses, pour avoir commandé le meurtre infâme de tant de petits enfants, ne souillent plus les lèvres des nôtres. . . '

Alors, seulement, nous pourrions dire avec quelque vraisemblance que la victoire des alliés a des ailes.

III.

Mais, en attendant que la Niké ailée vienne planer sur le Rhin au-dessus de nos armées, restons sur le terrain solide des solutions pratiques.

Nous regardons la suppression de l'enseignement de la langue allemande dans les trois ordres d'enseignement universitaire, aussi bien dans les pays alliés qu'en France, comme chose à ce point naturelle, à ce point désirable, et voulue par l'opinion publique, qu'il nous a fallu un effort pour nous décider à courir le risque d'enfoncer une porte, déjà ouverte.

Cependant, comme l'enseignement de

l'allemand trouvera certainement des défenseurs et qu'il s'est acquis chez nous et ailleurs, grâce au zèle, au dévouement, à la valeur pédagogique et sociale des maîtres chargés de le donner, de très ardentes sympathies, nous ne saurions lui refuser ce qu'on accorde à tout condamné : le droit de se faire entendre.

Résumons, comme de droit, la thèse de l'accusation :

Premier point : La suppression de l'enseignement de l'allemand se recommande à la fois comme châtement moral de l'Allemagne vaincue et comme diminution nécessaire de sa force d'expansion à l'étranger. C'est le meilleur, peut-être le seul, moyen d'empêcher l'Allemagne de redevenir un danger pour la paix du monde.

Deuxième point : La 'Kultur' allemande s'est déshonorée dans tous les domaines. Sa littérature, sa philosophie et sa science ont eu l'espionnage, le mensonge et la fraude comme moyens, la haine comme instrument, l'agression d'août 1914 comme but. La civilisation, la vraie culture, n'ont plus rien de commun avec la 'kultur,' poison des esprits. Rejetons-la.

Troisième point : La langue est la meilleure et la pire des choses. La langue allemande, aujourd'hui, représente le pire et est l'incarnation du pis.

Comme instrument de 'kultur' et truchement de la 'kultur,' elle doit être irrémédiablement condamnée. Sa valeur pédagogique se peut défendre, mais elle est discutable. Sa construction et sa syntaxe font violence au génie français et constituent un outrage permanent à notre sens de la logique, à notre amour de ce qui est clair, à notre bon sens tout court. Ses qualités, que je ne nie pas, sont des qualités négatives.

Quatrième point : L'allemand se peut aisément remplacer. L'anglais (voir la seconde partie de cette étude) et les langues méridionales, espagnol et italien, recueilleront facilement sa succession.

D'ailleurs, il faudra bien nous décider à introduire sérieusement le russe dans nos programmes et à ceux qui present la difficulté, la langue russe donnera ample satisfaction.

Conclusion. — Il est donc nécessaire, urgent et très souhaitable à tous les points de vue que l'allemand cesse d'être enseigné officiellement dans l'université française. A noter que la Serbie et la Russie viennent, dit-on, de réaliser cette réforme dont il eût été naturel à bien des égards, que la France prit l'initiative.

IV.

Quoiqu'il ne m'appartienne pas de me faire ici l'avocat du diable, je ne fais nulle difficulté de reconnaître qu'en dehors même de sa 'valeur pédagogique' discutable, l'enseignement de la langue allemande se peut recommander d'excellentes raisons—des raisons d'avant 1914-1915, il est vrai—et la stricte justice nous empêcherait, à défaut d'autre sentiment plus chaleureux, de les passer sous silence.

Les voici résumées sous forme d'objections :

—Mais, nous dit-on, à quoi nous servira de supprimer, chez nous, l'enseignement de l'allemand, si nos alliés, l'Angleterre en particulier, continuent à l'enseigner chez eux ? . . .

Réponse : L'intérêt commun de la Quadruple-Entente, disons de l'Europe alliée, se confond en ceci avec l'intérêt de la France : et tous les motifs donnés plus haut de supprimer l'enseignement de l'allemand en France valent, *a priori*, pour tous les alliés. Une entente préliminaire—dont il sera montré la nécessité et les modes possibles dans la seconde partie de cette étude—entre les Etats de la Quadruple-Entente déterminerait cette suppression.

—Mais vous allez nous handicaper sérieusement dans nos relations futures avec l'Allemagne, si vous donnez à ses commerçants l'avantage inappréciable de

les obliger à connaître notre langue, tandis que nous ignorerons la leur. . . .

Réponse : D'abord, un bon traité de commerce—un traité de Francfort renversé!—donnera de tels avantages à nos commerçants et à nos industriels, une telle supériorité à nos échanges, que les Allemands, forcés de venir à nous, qui serons devenus les *maîtres du marché*, devront s'assimiler notre langue non plus en vainqueurs, mais en vaincus, non plus en fournisseurs, mais en clients . . . car c'est aux vaincus à apprendre la langue du vainqueur. Cf. la France après 1870.

Ensuite, n'oublions pas qu'en recouvrant nos chères provinces perdues, nous trouverons dans les populations de langue allemande de l'Alsace-Lorraine, lesquelles conserveront naturellement leur idiome maternel, des éléments plus que suffisants pour parer à tous nos besoins. Et, d'ailleurs, l'annexion possible de la rive gauche du Rhin nous donnerait un grand nombre de 'germanisants.' Alsaciens-Lorrains et futurs Français des bords du Rhin seront forcément des *bilingues* et les intermédiaires naturels, tant au point de vue économique, qu'au point de vue politique et social, entre les Allemands et nous.

—Mais vous fermerez à notre jeunesse les portes d'un vaste trésor intellectuel. Nous abandonnons à vos interdits l'Allemagne de Guillaume II. et de ses 93 mamelucks universitaires. Mais l'Allemagne de Kant, celle de Goethe ! . . .

Réponse : Tout beau, ne nous traitez pas de vandales, nous ne sommes pas philistins au point d'en vouloir à Goethe de la mufflerie d'Ostwald ; mais sans être philistin ne peut-on soutenir qu'aucune œuvre de prose allemande n'a jamais rien perdu et ne perdra jamais rien à se clarifier en belle prose française ? . . . Et pour la poésie, combien de temps faudra-t-il à la poésie allemande pour digérer l'*Hymne de Haine* ? Donc rien à perdre—ou si peu ! grâce aux bonnes

traductions, s'il y a lieu, de nos concitoyens rhénans. Tout ce qui en vaudra la peine sera traduit et la pensée allemande aura tout bénéfice à se vêtir de mots français.

Quant à l'art munichoïse ou berlinoïse !

. . . Passons ! . . .

Au demeurant, ne suffit-il pas de lire les articles si documentés et si terriblement accusateurs de M. Achalme dans la *Revue*, pour apprécier au minimum le dommage que nous causerait l'ostracisme, même complet, dont nous frapperions les intellectuels allemands et leur langue ?

Quel tissu d'impostures, de brigandages, d'éhontés plagiarismes ! Quelle mixture de bas commercialisme, de réclame impudente et de fraude criminelle est la science allemande dépouillée de ses voiles ! Que de Koch et de Ehrlich pour un Röntgen !

Et la pensée allemande ? Nous faut-il un autre témoignage que celui du manifeste de ses 93 plus insignes représentants, pour mesurer le degré de son abaissement ?

Rassurons-nous donc. Notre jeunesse studieuse ne perdra pas grand'chose et nous sommes par ailleurs si riches que, renoncer à ces quelques perles du fumier d'Ennius, ne nous appauvrirait guère.

—Mais, enfin, ajoute-t-on, vous allez tout bouleverser dans notre enseignement national ! Quel désordre dans les programmes ! Tous les emplois du temps à refaire ! Comment interrompre les études de langue des nombreux élèves qui ont commencé l'allemand ? Et puis—grosse question ?—que ferez-vous des professeurs d'allemand rendus disponibles ? Comment les remplacerez-vous ? Ah ! ah ! . . .

Réponse : Que voilà bien l'esprit de routine et ses timidités accoutumées ! Et que voilà de grosses difficultés !

Mais on les refera vos programmes et vos emplois du temps, et en un tour de main encore. On inventera et on appliquera toutes sortes de 'modus vivendi'

ingénieux pour ne pas léser les jeunes candidats aux examens et pour le surplus on se débrouillera.

Nous ne sommes pas dans le secret des dieux, et ce n'est point notre rôle de proposer des solutions définitives, mais l'objection du 'personnel' à caser et à remplacer serait loin de nous embarrasser.

D'abord, les professeurs d'allemand devenus disponibles aux trois degrés d'enseignement auraient à leur disposition des postes nombreux, soit dans l'enseignement, soit dans l'administration des provinces, recouvrées ou conquises, de langue allemande. Leur culture, leur compétence, leur distinction sociale en feraient d'excellents fonctionnaires et très propres à conquérir les sympathies des administrés.

Ensuite, il n'est pas douteux que si l'université fait appel à la collaboration féminine, son nouveau personnel de langues vivantes ne soit bientôt recruté, des centaines de jeunes filles préparant actuellement leurs licences ou certificats de langues vivantes dans nos facultés. Nous reviendrons sur cette question de l'entrée des femmes dans l'enseignement masculin, question de collaboration féminine dont la solution pour toutes les administrations françaises, publiques et privées, s'imposera à la France de demain.

Quoiqu'il en soit de cette question accessoire, la question du personnel ancien à caser et celle du personnel nouveau à trouver ou à former ne sauraient faire obstacle, pas plus chez nous que chez nos alliés, à la suppression totale de tout enseignement de la langue allemande dans les écoles officielles, dès la conclusion de la paix et même, dès aujourd'hui !

Mesure suprême de défense contre un ennemi insinuant et fourbe, qui s'apprête à recommencer après la paix, son avant-guerre ; mesure d'offensive légitime contre l'envahissement d'une race de parasites dont l'étreinte tentaculaire est une menace

formidable et perpétuelle pour la civilisation; mesure préliminaire indispensable de la victoire linguistique franco-anglaise, la suppression de la langue allemande comme matière d'enseignement dans les programmes scolaires des nations alliées, s'impose absolument. . . .

Nous ne savons si l'université voudra

[The sequel, *International Languages*, we hope to publish next month. Meanwhile we invite dispassionate criticisms of the above article.—ED.]

P. MIEILLE.

ENGLISH SUMMER HOLIDAY COURSE IN SWEDEN.

As soon as it became certain that the usual English Summer Courses for foreign students could not be held in 1915, a wish was generally expressed in Scandinavia that something might be done to compensate students in those neutral countries for the very serious loss thus sustained. Towards the end of April, therefore, Messrs. Fearenside, Fuhrken, and Charleston—English lecturers at Stockholm, Gothenburg, and Upsala, respectively—issued a scheme for a summer course at Rättvik, in the beautiful Dalecarlia district of Sweden. The three original promoters were subsequently joined by the writer of this notice.

As will readily be imagined, the most difficult problem in connection with the course was how best to create an English *milieu* in a foreign country, in order that students might obtain 'the next best thing' to a visit to England. Owing to the existence at Rättvik of an English boarding-house and a tiny English colony, this difficulty was very successfully overcome.

The course, which lasted six and a half weeks, was arranged on exactly the same lines as those which have proved so admirable at the London University Holiday Courses for Foreigners—viz., a combination of Lectures, Reading Classes, and Conversation Circles. There were in addition Classes for Translation, which proved to be immensely popular.

prendre l'initiative de cette réforme. Mais en nous adressant à ses chefs et à ses maîtres les plus éminents, nous avons toute confiance en leur décision, parce que la patrie et la civilisation ne sauraient avoir de défenseurs plus éclairés ni de serviteurs plus dévoués.

About 100 students in all attended the course. Of these, 6 came from Denmark, 20 from Norway, 5 from Finland, and the remainder from various parts of Sweden. The daily routine was as follows:

9-11. Classes for Reading (phonetic texts) or Conversation.

11-12. Breakfast.

12-1. Lecture.

In certain cases students had Conversation Circles from 1 to 2. The majority of the students took their meals at the English boarding-house mentioned above, and large numbers necessitated a division into two parties—or, as someone facetiously named them, 'shifts.' The very healthy appetites aroused by the bracing air of Rättvik rendered this term exceedingly appropriate.

Dr. Fuhrken of Gothenburg delivered a series of scholarly lectures on modern English writers, ranging from Thomas Hardy and Meredith to Hall Caine. Mr. Charleston of Upsala expounded English phonetics to a very enthusiastic audience, and won many converts. Mr. Fearenside of Stockholm discoursed on books, men, and history, and amongst other valuable information gave advice to those about to form a student's library of English literature.

In addition to the four promoters mentioned above, there were eight English ladies who rendered valuable assistance

throughout the course. In the evenings Mr. Fearenside read aloud, a feature that proved very popular amongst the more ambitious students, whilst the more frivolous members danced.

One feature that came as a surprise to those unaccustomed to the Swedish system was the enormous amount of time devoted to translation in Swedish schools and Universities. Whereas in Norway translation was abolished nearly twenty years ago, the Swedes carry translation to an extent that was probably unsurpassed even in English education before the 'reform' period. It is the more remarkable since in other respects language teaching in Sweden is

quite abreast with modern educational ideals.

The social life at Rättvik was very enjoyable. With very few exceptions the students were staunch friends of the Allies, and this feeling of understanding made the daily life of fourteen English exiles less sad than would otherwise have been the case. The proceeds of various concerts and bazaars arranged by certain energetic ladies enabled the Committee to send something like £20 to the funds of the British Red Cross.

W. H. WEEDON.

Christiania.

LA FRANÇAIS DANS LES ÉCOLES ANGLAISES.*

J'étais, il y a quelques années, à Boston. Un jour, un habitant de l'Etat de Massachusetts m'expliquait la différence qui existe entre l'administration scolaire de son Etat et celle de l'Etat de New-York. D'après lui, si on veut faire passer une réforme dans le Massachusetts il faut suivre le procédé "des petits paquets." On commence par la faire adopter aux communes elles-mêmes en menant dans chacune d'elles une propagande électorale très active. Après avoir préalablement converti les deux tiers ou les trois quarts des autorités locales, on présente un projet tendant à rendre la réforme obligatoire partout, y compris dans la minorité des communes récalcitrantes. Au contraire dans l'Etat de New-York, dès que les autorités centrales sont convaincues de l'utilité d'une réforme, elles introduisent dans la législature un projet tendant à l'imposer à toutes les communes à la fois. Or cette différence radicale entre les deux conceptions de gouvernement de l'Etat de Massachusetts et de l'Etat de New-York marque assez exactement la différence qu'on peut constater entre le régime politique de l'Angleterre et celui de la France. Chez nous, ainsi que dans le Massachusetts, la règle est que les localités expérimentent, tandis que l'Etat généralise les expériences locales. Ceci explique pourquoi, en ce moment, il ne peut être question de rendre le français obligatoire dans nos écoles.

Mais si l'obligation du français ne peut s'imposer dans nos écoles à l'heure actuelle, il n'est pas douteux que jamais, dans notre histoire, l'im-

portance des langues étrangères, et surtout du français, n'a été aussi grande qu'aujourd'hui. Personnellement, je crois que les nations ne peuvent vraiment se comprendre les unes les autres, à moins qu'un nombre considérable de leurs membres ne soient à même de se comprendre mutuellement. Qui dit comprendre dit, en dernière analyse, posséder le pouvoir de se mettre à la place d'autrui. Certes, on peut manger à la même table, voyager dans le même compartiment, coucher au même hôtel, mais pour bien entrer, bien pénétrer dans l'âme d'un étranger, dans sa psychologie individuelle ou nationale, établir l'arbitrage entre les valeurs différentes attachées aux mêmes actes dans les deux pays, il n'y a guère qu'un moyen efficace, c'est de tâcher de se rendre maître de la langue de son voisin, laquelle est l'explication la plus exacte de ses sentiments, de ses émotions, de ses idéals.

Il est évident qu'après la guerre, ces mêmes rapports deviendront plus étroits et plus nombreux encore, et ceci s'applique surtout aux relations de la France et de l'Angleterre. Il est donc du strict devoir de tous les gens clairvoyants, et spécialement des autorités scolaires des deux côtés du détroit, d'encourager par tous les moyens cette entente linguistique, cette étude mutuelle des deux langues dans les écoles françaises et anglaises.

Je me propose de montrer ici d'une façon som-

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maire ce qu'on fait actuellement et ce qu'on pourra faire pour l'étude du français dans les établissements des divers degrés de l'enseignement. Dans les universités britanniques, le français est facultatif à l'examen d'entrée. Le fait est qu'il est choisi par un nombre considérable de candidats. Pour ceux qui veulent pousser plus loin leurs études, l'enseignement donné dans les universités mêmes s'est beaucoup amélioré récemment par la création de chaires nouvelles, et par la formation, lente malheureusement encore, d'un noyau de jeunes philologues anglais aptes à enseigner la langue étrangère. Nous sommes pourtant loin du système français, qui confie l'enseignement des langues étrangères aux professeurs français. Dans nos grands lycées, le régime classique, quoique entamé, domine encore la situation. Dans les collèges, et surtout dans les collèges municipaux, le français tient le haut du pavé comme première langue étrangère. En effet, la presque totalité des élèves apprennent le français. Dans les écoles techniques, il n'y a généralement aucune langue étrangère. Dans les écoles commerciales, au contraire, le français tient le premier rang. Dans les écoles du soir, le français est également *facile princeps*. Viennent ensuite l'allemand et l'espagnol, ce dernier ayant fait beaucoup de progrès ces dernières années. A l'école primaire supérieure, le français, à quelques exceptions près, est la seule langue étrangère enseignée. Comme règle générale, au contraire, aucune langue étrangère ne figure sur le programme des écoles primaires.

Quelles sont les réformes possibles ? Quant à nos universités, la création des bourses d'Etat permettrait à nos jeunes licenciés d'élite de passer une ou deux années dans une université française, stage qui me paraît indispensable pour tous ceux qui cherchent à entrer dans l'enseignement supérieur. De telles bourses existent déjà en France. Pour encourager notre gouvernement à faire des sacrifices analogues, on pourrait arranger une sorte d'échange de bourses entre les deux pays, le gouvernement français offrant tant de places dans ses universités et le gouvernement anglais proposant de subvenir au même nombre d'étudiants français dans nos universités. Je cite pour mémoire l'échange de chaires de temps à autre pour les professeurs des deux pays.

Dans les grands lycées, la limitation des études classiques à des élèves vraiment capables d'en profiter augmenterait rapidement le nombre des élèves suivant la section moderne, et amènerait probablement l'obligation du français à l'examen d'entrée de l'Université.

Dans les écoles primaires, il me paraît plus que douteux, le programme d'études étant déjà surchargé, qu'il soit possible d'introduire l'enseignement du français. L'extension de la scolarité fournirait le temps nécessaire, mais cette réforme ne paraît guère probable en ce moment. Par contre, il semble que, dans les grandes agglomérations, on pourrait bien choisir une école par quartier où le français serait introduit au programme d'études à titre facultatif pour un certain nombre d'élèves à choisir. On pourrait, de même, établir des cours supplémentaires dans la matinée du samedi (jour de congé), et ainsi mettre à la portée de tous ceux qui le désirent l'occasion de faire connaissance avec la langue de la nation amie.

L'étude d'une langue aussi attrayante que le français ne doit pas paraître seulement à nos jeunes écoliers une besogne; elle doit leur paraître également un plaisir. Il faut que l'enseignement d'une langue moderne soit à la fois vivant et vécu. Et c'est à cet égard que j'attends beaucoup de notre nouvel institut français du Royaume-Uni, fondé il y a six ans à Londres, et agrandi il y a deux ans, grâce au concours de l'université de Lille. Cet institut est destiné à devenir, au milieu de l'Angleterre, une vraie enclave française, je dirais une petite Ile-de-France, centre et foyer de tout ce qu'il y a de meilleur dans la culture française.

Grâce à ses cours mondains, commerciaux et universitaires, il s'adresse à des milieux sociaux bien différents. Ses cours mondains lui attachent une partie très aristocratique de la société londonienne, que jusqu'ici aucune autre société française n'a su intéresser à un si haut degré. Ses cours commerciaux furent très goûtés avant la guerre par les employés des grands magasins de Londres, tandis que ses cours universitaires attirent surtout des étudiants sérieux qui veulent rafraîchir leurs connaissances de la langue, ou se perfectionner en vue de se présenter au certificat français des universités britanniques, ou au baccalauréat français; ceci s'applique surtout au corps des professeurs qui sont déjà dans l'enseignement. Cette année l'institut recevra du conseil municipal de Londres une subvention de plus de 10,000 francs pour le seul maintien des cours universitaires. Il reçoit, en outre, des subventions des ministères des affaires étrangères et de l'instruction publique. Les libéralités de M. Emile Mond lui ont permis d'autre part de créer deux lycées pour les enfants des réfugiés français et belges, qui comptent déjà plus de 200 élèves. En outre, il a formé dans les grands centres de population des cours et des séries de conférences, et sans doute il va pouvoir

s'assurer le concours d'autres grandes autorités locales.

Avec des fonds encore plus amples, il organiserait partout, et principalement dans nos écoles du soir et du jour, des conférences payantes ou gratuites qui aideraient puissamment la propagande du français chez nous. Le fait qu'il a su acquérir les sympathies de la haute aristocratie en Angleterre est, en matière de patronage—ce qui compte pour beaucoup chez nous—un atout sérieux. Après la guerre il ne serait pas trop difficile d'organiser à Londres, en prenant l'institut pour centre, une "Grande Semaine française," où des conférenciers et des artistes de Paris feraient connaître à un public avide de les entendre la fleur de la culture française. Le même programme pourrait se répéter sur une échelle plus modeste dans les provinces, où

des conférenciers ou des artistes en tournée répandraient la bonne semence.

En revanche, il ne me semble que juste que notre gouvernement, à son tour, crée ou au moins subventionne un institut britannique à Paris, foyer également de la propagande de la langue et de la littérature anglaises. Sans doute notre gouvernement a l'habitude d'abandonner ces devoirs nationaux aux soins des particuliers. Mais le laisser-faire en ce domaine a, j'aime à le croire, terminé son temps, et d'ailleurs n'avons-nous pas, depuis des années, une école de Rome et une école d'Athènes, toutes les deux couchées sur le budget de l'Etat ?

Ce qu'on a fait depuis des années pour l'antiquité, on pourrait le faire pour les temps modernes.

CLOUDESLEY-BRETON.

CIRCULAR 849: THE TEACHERS' GUILD MEMORANDUM.

MEMORANDUM OF THE TEACHERS' GUILD COUNCIL ON THE BOARD OF EDUCATION CIRCULAR 849, CONTAINING PROPOSALS FOR EXAMINATIONS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

THE proposals of the Board of Education for examinations in Secondary Schools are of great practical importance. The form of statement adopted in Circular 849, although convenient for concise statement of executive proposals, does not lend itself to criticism clause by clause, since principles of first importance are involved in the details of widely separated clauses. Hence the Council of the Teachers' Guild believes that it can contribute more usefully to that full and constructive criticism which proposals so far-reaching require by the following reasoned statement of opinion on the principles involved and on those administrative details that will have direct influence on the work of Secondary Schools.

Co-ordination of Examinations.—In the future, when the status of the schoolmaster, the organization of schools, and the science of education, have reached a higher level than at present, the relative importance of external examinations will be greatly reduced. As facts are to-day, there is need for a co-ordinated examination system under unified control, in which control it is imperative that teachers' representatives should take an effective share. The system of examinations should be organized in harmony with the principles detailed below.

Finance.—In the case of schools recognized for grants, the entire cost of the examination should be defrayed by the State. In the case of other schools, the cost should be shared between

the State and the schools. The interests of the nation, rather than of the school or candidate, are the *raison d'être* of the examination. So far as the cost is not defrayed by the State, it should be a charge on the school rather than on the individual candidate.

Aim of the Examinations.—The first examination should test the efficiency of pupils in Forms which are at about the standard appropriate to the age of 15½ years, and the second examination should provide a test of training above the present matriculation standard. (The questions of the standard and age are discussed later.) The attention of Examining Bodies and Examiners should be concentrated on testing the efficiency of the pupils and the detailed methods of instruction. No verdict can be pronounced upon the general efficiency of the school without a knowledge of the character of the hereditary and environment with which it has to deal. Still less can the efficiency of the teacher be judged fairly from examination results. The position of the schools on the efficient list, whether with or without recognition for grant, should be determined by the results of inspection.

The Guild Council is glad to have received the assurance of the Board that recognition of schools will continue to depend on the reports of inspection, and trusts that the inspectors' estimates will not be unduly influenced by the results of the examinations.

Incidence and Accessibility of the Examinations.—The full development of the scheme seems to depend on an understanding that nearly all efficient schools should submit at least one class

annually for examination. A small school would naturally submit a small class, without suspicion of inefficiency arising thereby. The Board should be prepared to grant exemption in special cases; such exemption might apply to the whole examination, or to one or more subjects. The examination should be optional for schools not receiving grants. Pupils are often cross-classified in sets or divisions for different branches of the curriculum, and such cross-classification, if not overdone, is educationally helpful. This implies that the proposal 'The Form and not the pupil will be the unit for examination' must be interpreted with latitude. The Guild Council believes that schools will be willing to aim at sending in complete Forms; but some experience of actual working should precede such a rule. Inspectors could inquire into reasons for non-compliance, which might be quite wise in particular cases.

The difficulty of cross-classification might be met to some extent by a school subdividing the examination Form into a higher and lower class in each main group of the examination subjects, the higher expecting a pass 'with credit,' and the lower a simple pass.

It is desirable that the examinations should be accessible to all candidates under 19 years of age.

According to the interpretation of the Guild Council, the proposals of the Board will not compel any school to be examined which is not already under such compulsion; any proposal to the contrary would be opposed to the principle that schools may be recognized as efficient, after inspection, without examination. This principle is vital to the maintenance of the healthy national ideal of freedom and initiative in education.

Subjects and Methods of the Examinations.—The proposal that candidates should be examined in

- (i.) English subjects,
- (ii.) At least one foreign language,
- (iii.) A science subject, which may be mathematics,

is a sound one. It is important to prevent concentration on selected subjects to the neglect of others in a normal curriculum. As a result of the pressure of external examinations, the higher Forms of quite a considerable number of schools are reported to have neglected Religious Knowledge, Drawing, and Geography; because these subjects were not necessary to satisfy the examining authorities. From this cause many girls destined to become teachers dropped the subject of Drawing from the ages of twelve to sixteen. The fact that the examin-

ation is impending should not impair the fair pursuit of a normal curriculum. It is hoped that the Board will grant exemption for a foreign language only in cases where the schools provide a really strong course in English Literature, in General History, and in Art. Although the Guild Council would not require that the candidates should pass in both Science and Mathematics, both are necessary in a normal curriculum; the study of both should be insisted upon, with an adequate provision therefor in the time-table. The Board will not allow any school recognized for grants to modify its organization or curriculum for the purpose of preparing pupils for an unapproved examination. The Guild Council recommends that the Board do not approve any examination which requires schools to modify an organization and curriculum which the Board has accepted as suitable.

The position of the fourth group of subjects is insufficiently protected. The Guild Council recognizes as highly valuable the encouragement which the Board has given to educational development in the direction of these subjects, but considers that such development can proceed much farther, with advantage to national efficiency. What may be termed 'Group IV. Subjects'—Music, Art, Manual Work, Household, and Physical Training—cannot safely be kept in an inferior position as merely ancillary to the general course. If these subjects cannot be tested by examination, it follows that the examination certificate will be of restricted value as evidence of the fitness of boys or girls for entrance upon the duties of after-school life. It is probable, however, that examination, mainly by other than written tests, will play a useful part in connection with these subjects, partly by guiding towards better educational methods, partly by stimulating learners, and partly by selecting those best fitted for higher training. It is generally admitted that oral tests are useful in every subject of school curricula, and the establishment and continuance of a purely written test would probably perpetuate mistaken traditions as to the nature of education. The Guild Council does not ignore the administrative and financial difficulties, and is willing that small beginnings in interview-examining should be accepted; but nevertheless urges University Examining Bodies to undertake the task of overcoming the difficulties. Their success or failure in this task will afford a criterion of the wisdom of placing in their hands such a wide influence on the schools as is contemplated.

It may be advisable to grant the certificate for a reasonable attainment in any three of the

four main groups. But in all cases the examination should include all the groups (i.), (ii.), and (iii.).

The principle that examinations must follow the curricula and not *vice versa* is cardinal and essential. It is of great importance that question-papers should be carefully adjusted to school syllabuses, a task which is quite within the powers of a competent staff of examiners. By a competent staff is meant one composed of both men and women who have had experience and training in examination work, after experience as teachers in schools. Schools should submit their own syllabuses. There appears to be a fear on the part of the Board, which the Guild Council does not share, that the inspection of syllabuses and framing of question-papers would necessitate an inordinately large staff of examiners working for a long time. Against this it must be pointed out that examinations have been conducted by the University of London and by Local Authorities on the principle now advocated, and that experience has shown that syllabuses fall readily into groups. The provision of relatively few question-papers (averaging about twelve in each subject for, say, 1,000 schools) would meet the requirements of all but very exceptional cases. (In this estimate it is assumed that a school will be satisfied if in a paper of, say, twelve questions there are eight to be attempted and eight are directly based on the syllabus.) It is not easy to see how the examinations can follow the curricula unless some such arrangement be made.

System of Marking and Reporting Results.—The examinations should not be competitive. The published list should state which candidates have passed with credit, and which have attained a simple pass. In addition, the schools should be informed which of their candidates have passed with credit, simply passed, failed, or failed badly, in each subject. This classification into four grades would meet those requirements which the Guild Council regards as legitimate. Parents would thereby be helped to form an estimate of the industry and ability of their sons and daughters. The candidates would be helped to realize their own knowledge and its limits.

If it be desired to use the examination for competitive awards, the school or authority making the award should take all responsibility for such use, nor should their convenience in this matter be allowed to complicate the general system or add to the work of examiners and of checking or clerical staff. Prizes for the 'top boy and top girl in all England' should be

disallowed. It may be added that grading into four classes is the method of assessment most suited to tests other than written examinations.

Standards and Rewards; Admission to Professional Training.—The tests should combine variety with equivalence. The recognition of two standards, the simple pass and the pass with credit, in the first examination, is sound in principle. The 'Credit' certificate should be accepted unequivocally as a token of such educability as to qualify for a specialized professional training. Apart from the Navy, no better foundation for a professional course can be postulated than an intelligent study of the main groups of subjects required by the Board's scheme, and the possession of the 'Credit' certificate should exempt from educational tests for admission to the Universities or to professional training. The conditions on which a simple pass certificate may be accepted for entrance to the lower grades of professional training may well be a matter for negotiation between the Board and its Advisory Committee (Examinations Council) on the one hand, and the Professional Councils on the other. It would not be desirable to debar from the Professions those who do not hold the certificates or who have not been pupils of a recognized school; as such a course would be difficult to reconcile with democratic principles and might further deplete some professions which appear already undermined when the needs of the Empire are considered. On the other hand, the whole scheme of the Board will fail unless the certificates be accepted as guarantees of general education precedent to professional training. The Board of Education should accept the 'Credit' certificate as exempting intending teachers from matriculation or the Preliminary certificate examination.

The Second Examination.—The Board's proposals for the Second Examination afford an outline which is quite satisfactory in principle, allowing considerable latitude in choice of studies, and permitting that modified specialization which is the only specialization permissible in schools—viz., the intensified study of one main branch of the curriculum, but not to the exclusion of every other branch. It may be added that such modified specialization is often desirable on purely educational grounds. It is doubtful whether the mere award of a certificate would justify national expenditure on the examination; the passing of the examination should carry with it an advantage in the University or institution of higher professional training. Education Authorities and trustees of endowments might regard success in the

Second Examination as evidence of eligibility for assistance from public funds or endowments towards higher courses of study. It is educationally and economically sound thus to award scholarships on a standard achieved rather than as competitive prizes. The justification of scholarships is the advantage to the nation, and it may be to humanity, of giving the best opportunities to the most promising intellects. In the future the British Empire will need largely to increase the supply of University trained men and women. Both the individual pupil and the school gain by the prolongation of school life until the age of eighteen, and it is important to strengthen the inducements to take the Second Examination. At the same time, the University course should not be less than three years.

Prohibition of Lower Examinations. — The Board will prohibit any grant-earning school from taking the Preliminary Examination of the Oxford Delegacy or Cambridge Syndicate. This step is welcomed by the Guild Council. Further, the Board will reserve the right to prohibit any such school from taking the Junior Examinations of the University Examining Bodies. The policy thus adumbrated is of serious importance. The Guild Council is in firm agreement with the Board's view that secondary education, to be thoroughly efficient, implies a course of study pursued to the age of sixteen and beyond; but the opinions of the Board, backed as they have been by teachers, have not prevented the withdrawal of pupils before the sixteenth year had been completed. The reasons for such withdrawals have been partly, perhaps mainly, economic.

The Board's proposals were framed before the war began, and it would not be wise to expect better economic conditions in the immediate future. (The proposal to retain junior examinations as a temporary measure seems to rest on an expectation that a rise in leaving age will occur in the near future.) A critical decision must therefore be made between two alternatives — either (1) maintaining a standard for the lowest examination which shall approach the ideal, with the inevitable consequence of restricting the certificate to a minority, possibly a small minority; or (2) lowering the minimum age to fifteen and a half years, simultaneously lowering the standard required for a pass.

The Guild Council favours the latter alternative. The training and interests of the majority of boys and girls must not be sacrificed for the sake of the minority who are destined for the professions. Average boys and girls should be able to obtain a certificate on leaving school;

there is risk to secondary education if employers are unable to obtain such evidence of school training. The retention of the Junior Examinations, in addition to the First Examination, would prolong the undue multiplicity of examinations under which schools at present labour, which multiplicity the Consultative Committee rightly wished to extinguish. The suggestions of the Guild Council may be stated approximately thus—(1) a 'Pass' Certificate, satisfying the reasonable demands of commercial and other employers for evidence that a secondary school course has been followed with reasonable industry and intelligence; (2) a 'Credit' Certificate, which should be an educational qualification for entrance to a Pass-degree course at a University and to many professional courses; (3) a 'Second Examination' Certificate, possibly carrying special awards, but in any case admitting to Honours courses at a University and to professional courses. The certificates of the First Examination should be awarded as proposed by the Board, with the substitution of fifteen and a half for sixteen years as the minimum age. Inasmuch as the modification of the standard and minimum age which the Guild Council now suggests is based on evidence that the actual leaving age is below sixteen, and as it is obvious that the Board is the best informed authority as to the facts, the Guild Council would support the Board's limit of sixteen years if assured that this would not put the certificate out of reach of the average boy and girl. Should the Board decide to retain the age limit of sixteen and the standard appropriate to sixteen and a half years, it will then be advisable to retain the Junior Examinations as a temporary measure; in such event these examinations should follow the principle adopted by the University of London in basing the examinations on the school syllabuses.

Relations between Inspectors, Examiners, and Teachers.—The Guild Council welcomes the proposals of the Board under Clause (ix.) and desires that they should *all* be made operative. Teachers should be represented on the Examining Body, and arrangements to suit the geographical or other special conditions should be made for bringing examiners and teachers into touch. Considerable value should attach to the School Record and to the Head Master's assessment of the relative merits of candidates. The latter provision will raise the reliability of the examination. The Head Master's name should appear as one of the signatures on the certificate.

The Guild Council also welcomes the close co-operation of H.M. Inspectors with Examining

Bodies and the co-ordinating Board. The attitude must be one of co-operation, not of control. If Government control is carried into details and methods of instruction, spheres hitherto rightly reserved in secondary schools to the teachers, there is a danger of lowering the professional tone of the teacher, and of deteriorating national ideals by influencing the teachers, and thus their pupils, towards bureaucracy instead of towards independence of character.

Lack of contact between teachers and examiners causes a deplorable waste of the educational value of examinations, and the Guild Council feels that expenditure of State money for examinations should result in such efficiency as to produce a full return.

Examiners should possess teaching experience and have studied educational method. Some experience as assistant-examiner should usually precede appointment as examiner. In addition to knowing thoroughly the elements of their subjects, examiners should have the growing-points of knowledge within their ken, and thus see in what direction advance is needed in the handling of their subjects in school. Recent advances change the attitude of thinkers towards the elements of their branch of knowledge, and school-teaching loses its intellectual vigour when no effort is made to bring the work into line with the trend of advancing knowledge. The reviewing of syllabuses, the setting of examination questions, the personal conduct of oral and laboratory examinations, and the criticism of the answers, give opportunity for the examiner's knowledge to influence beneficially the work of the schools. This opportunity, however, may be abused to the extent of causing injustice to candidates and discouragement to teachers when there is no exchange of ideas between examiners and teachers. This may happen by reason of insufficient knowledge on the part of the teacher of recent developments of the subject; it may also arise from ignorance on the part of the examiner of the work actually done in the schools and of the conditions under which it has been done. By his experience of various schools, an examiner can reinforce the work of inspectors in spreading a knowledge of improved methods, which otherwise fail to become part of the common stock, either from lack of publicity, or because the published statements (*e.g.*, examiners' reports) are not sufficiently understood by those who only read them.

It is recommended that at least one of the senior examiners should accompany the inspector on his visits to the school, (1) prior to

deciding the question-papers for the examination and also (2) after the examination. The first visit would afford opportunity to learn the aim of the teachers and could be utilized in connection with the non-written part of the examination. The second visit will give opportunities for that reciprocal influence of teachers and examiners which is largely misdirected at present, but may be rendered highly fertilizing by tactful management and personal conference.

Governance.—It is proposed that the Board of Education shall supervise the scheme and co-ordinate the work of the Examining Bodies, exercising these functions after report from, and with the assistance of, an Advisory Committee. The Guild Council recommends that the title be changed from Advisory Committee to Examinations Council, and that this Council be in direct communication with the Examining Bodies. The Board 'will hear complaints with regard to the standards of examination.' This implies the supervision of question-papers—a weapon of great power, which should not be wielded without the assistance of persons responsible to the teaching profession. Thus, it appears necessary that the Examinations Council should be clothed with much supervisory power, and that half of its members should be appointed by the Teachers' Registration Council. The Guild Council is further of opinion that the Examinations Council should include representatives of Universities (not of Examining Bodies) and of Local Education Authorities. Each Examining Body should include on its directing Board at least two men and two women engaged in teaching in efficient secondary schools.

The Council of the Teachers' Guild is of opinion that the scheme outlined by the Board of Education in Circular 849 is capable of expansion in harmony with the above statement of principles, and therefore hopes that members of the Guild and of the teaching profession will give the proposals a general support, and that criticism will be mainly constructive. There are good grounds for believing that Professional Bodies will accept the certificates, and that excessive examining will be greatly reduced. The scheme gives a status to teachers in connection with the control of examinations such as has not existed in England hitherto, and this fact, and the reflection that it is in harmony with the attitude of the Board for several years, will commend the proposals to many who would otherwise oppose any increased centralization of educational control.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

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

ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

Mr. H. M. Adcock, of Bablake School, Coventry, is a Lieutenant in the 10th Lancashire Fusiliers.

Mr. F. M. Vipan, of Christ's College, Finchley, is Second-Lieutenant in the 7th Battalion Middlesex Regiment, at present quartered at Cairo.

Mr. H. Lonsdale is Second Lieutenant in the 9th Battalion, Suffolk Regiment.

Professor Barbier, of Leeds University, is on active service. Professor Brandin, of London University, is also on active service.

Dr. Daniels, of Westminster City School, enlisted early in the year as a private in the London Sanitary Corps, of the R.A.M.C., and is now a Corporal (Mex Camp, Alexandria).

Mr. S. S. Anderson, of Ayr Academy, is a Sergeant in the 5th Battalion, Royal Scots Fusiliers, now at the Dardanelles. He and seven other masters of the Academy enlisted as privates in the Ayr Regiment in September, 1914.

Mr. P. V. Thomas, of University College, London, and Mr. G. R. Hughes, of the Oxford University Press, are on active service.

Mr. J. W. Barker, of Bradbury Central School, Hale, is serving with the 29th Reserve Battalion, Royal Fusiliers.

Miss A. C. Dobbs, of Redland High School, Bristol, is serving with a Red Cross unit.

Mr. D. B. Anthony, of Holloway County School, is Captain and second in command of a company of the 13th Battalion, Royal Welsh Fusiliers.

Mr. W. Furness, of Rossall School, is on active service.

Mr. A. B. Lloyd-Baker, of Cheltenham College, is serving with the Expeditionary Force.

Mr. J. A. Ward, of Port Talbot, is serving with the 1st Brigade, R.F.A. (Territorial Force), 46th Division.

Mr. J. E. O'Sullivan, is Second Lieutenant in 8th Royal Inniskilling Fusiliers, now quartered at Tipperary.

Mr. K. T. Gemmell, of Tonbridge School, is serving in the Intelligence Department at the headquarters of the 3rd Army Corps.

Mr. J. M. Edgar, of Bridgwater Endowed School, is Lieutenant in the 2nd South Staffordshire Regiment, now in France.

Mr. G. A. Harding, of Bracondale School, Norwich, is serving in the London Field Ambulance (T.), stationed at present at Ipswich.

Mr. F. Knowles, is serving with the 16th Warwickshire Regiment.

Mr. B. H. Whitley, of Denstone College, is Second Lieutenant in the 3rd Battalion, Royal Scots Regiment.

Mr. C. E. Freeth, of Harvey Grammar School, Folkestone, is serving in the 28th London Regiment (Artists' Rifles).

Mr. A. G. Denniston, of the Royal Naval College, Osborne, has been serving at the Admiralty since the beginning of the War.

Mr. E. G. Boardman, of the Modern School, Leeds, is on active service, and Mr. L. P. Schodduyn is serving in the French Army.

Miss McFie, of the Girls' High School, Nottingham, is working with a Red Cross Unit in Serbia.



We deeply regret to record the death of Captain M. P. Andrews, 4th Duke of Wellington's Regiment, well known to many of our readers as a keen and able language teacher on modern lines and a member of the General Committee of the Association.

Captain Andrews served as an Assistant-Master at Elizabeth College, Guernsey, and subsequently at Lancing College. At the latter school he commanded the O.T.C. He was appointed to the Headmastership of Hipperholme Grammar School, Yorks, in 1913. On the outbreak of the war he gave up his post and joined the forces. He was gazetted to the Duke of Wellington's Regiment, with which he served till his death. He was killed in action in Flanders early in August, being shot through the head while endeavouring to rescue some of his wounded men. From all accounts he seems to have been as zealous and capable in the field as he was in the classroom, and in both capacities he made many friends who will mourn his loss. The Modern Language Association is the poorer for his death.

The General Board of the Faculties has re-appointed Mr. Nevill Forbes, M.A., Balliol College, to be Reader in Russian and the other Slavonic languages for a further period of five years.



In recent casualty lists we regret to have seen the names of Captain R. B. Macan, 28th Light Cavalry, Indian Army, only surviving son of the Master of University College, Oxford; and of Second Lieutenant H. R. Cholmeley, Royal Field Artillery, only son of Mr. R. F. Cholmeley, Headmaster of Owen's School, Islington, and one of the Honorary Secretaries of the Headmasters' Association.



A French lady living in a central open quarter of Paris would be glad to take one, perhaps two, English ladies as paying guests during the winter. *Highly recommended.* Write to the Editor.



LIFE AT RUHLEBEN.

The Board of Education has issued an appeal for books for the British civilians interned at Ruhleben. The object is not so much entertainment as education. A good deal of educational work of an advanced kind is being done in the camp, with the double object of providing occupation and helping the prisoners to improve their qualifications for their various pursuits. In the long list of subjects studied are included English History, English, French, and Italian Literature, Classics, Archaeology, Music and Drama. The Lecturers on Literature want texts, and books of reference in all subjects are asked for. Books on Shakespeare and Milton and copies of their works seem to be in special demand. Communications should be addressed to Mr. A. T. Davies, Board of Education, Whitehall, S.W. As only a limited number of books can be forwarded, a list of the volumes offered should be sent in the first instance. A copy of the appeal and form on which such a list can be made can be had from Mr. Davies.



AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES ADOPT RATIONAL SPELLING.

The American Simplified Spelling Board reports that over 100 of the colleges have officially recognized spelling reform. They have adopted certain simplified forms in official correspondence and publications, and have sanctioned their use by students in their written work. Among the colleges are the University of Missouri and the University of Minnesota, two of the leading American State Universities.

Professor Henri Chatelain, D. ès L., who was appointed to the Chair of French in Birmingham University in 1909, died in a military hospital in Paris on August 19. A winter in the trenches near Soissons told upon his constitution, and in April he contracted a dangerous illness, from which he never recovered.

Professor Chatelain, who studied at the University of Paris under the late Gaston Paris, and under Professors Thomas, Lanson, and Brunot, was a scholar of wide interests, but his special field was French of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, upon which he was a recognized authority. A correspondent writes: 'At Birmingham he soon proved himself no less able as a teacher and organizer than as a scholar. His high ideals of learning, his unsparing devotion to his University duties, his gracious manner, and his simple dignity of character, won for him the respect and affection of all with whom he came in contact.'—From 'The Times.'



The address of the Hon. Sec. till Christmas will be, 11, Denmark Terrace, Brighton.



GALATA ET 'GALETAS.'

Nous avons annoncé hier que d'après une dépêche de Mitylène au *Times*, le pont de Galata a été détruit par des sous-marins. On sait que ce pont, jeté sur l'entrée de la Corne-d'Or, relie les quartiers de Galata et de Péra à la ville turque de Stamboul.

C'est un des endroits les plus pittoresques et les plus animés de Constantinople.

Le nom de Galata donné à ce pont vient d'une vieille tour qui s'élève sur une place irrégulière entourée de maisons disparates, et qui formait autrefois le point culminant de l'enceinte fortifiée. Cette tour sert aujourd'hui d'observatoire aux pompiers chargés de signaler les incendies. C'est elle qui nous a fourni le mot 'galetas.'

Voici en quels termes Littré, dans la préface de son grand dictionnaire (page 34), expose le problème de cette étymologie:

'Si le dix-huitième siècle ne nous avait pas appris que la silhouette est dite ainsi d'un puissant financier d'alors, dont on tourna en ridicule les réformes et les économies, y aurait-il rien de plus malencontreux que de tâcher à décomposer ce mot en éléments significatifs? Un cas de ce genre m'a été fourni par mes lectures, et de la

sorte j'ai pu donner une étymologie nécessairement manquée par tous mes devanciers qui n'avaient pas mis la main sur ce petit fait. Il s'agit de *galeas*; Ménage le tire de *valetostasis*, station des valets; Scheler songe au radical de *galerie*; on a cité un mot arabe *catata*, chambre haute; Diez n'en parle pas, ce qui, en l'absence de tout document, était le plus sage. Quittons le domaine des conjectures qui ne peuvent pas plus être réfutées que vérifiées, et venons aux renseignements particuliers qui, dans des significations que j'appellerai fortuites, contiennent seuls explication. *Galeas* est de l'efficacité de ces trouvailles une excellente preuve: en effet, qui le croirait? c'est la haute et orgueilleuse tour de Galata à Constantinople qui de si loin est venue fournir un mot à la langue française. *Galata* a commencé par quitter l'ac-

ception spéciale pour prendre le sens général de tour, puis, il s'est appliqué à une partie d'un édifice public de Paris; enfin ce n'est plus aujourd'hui qu'un misérable réduit dans une maison.

'Il n'a fallu rien de moins que l'expédition des Croisés de la fin du XII^e siècle, leur traité avec les Vénitiens qui les détournèrent de la terre sainte sur Constantinople, la prise de cette ville, l'établissement momentané d'une dynastie française à la place des princes grecs, pour que le nom d'une localité étrangère s'introduisît dans notre langue et y devînt un terme vulgaire. *Galeas* est allé toujours se dégradant; parti des rives du Bosphore dans tout l'éclat du souvenir de la seconde Rome, il s'est obscurément perdu dans les demeures de la pauvreté et du désordre.'—*From 'Le Temps.'*

CORRESPONDENCE.

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

ESPERANTO.

HARDERWIJK,
le 1 Août, 1915.

MONSIEUR,—Je lis dans le *Hugo's French Journal* du 8 May, 1915, un article non-signé sous le titre 'Le Sort des Langues artificielles'; d'après renseignements pris, cet article est originaire de votre organe. Comme cet article est dépourvu de toute base, je me vois obligé de contredire cet état de chose.

En premier lieu, la langue Esperanto n'est pas d'origine allemande, comme l'indique l'article, puisque c'est le Docteur L. Zamenhof de Warschau (Russie) qui l'a inventée.

2°. Jamais une autre langue n'a dépassé l'Esperanto, et si on l'a perfectionné, c'est son auteur lui-même qui l'a fait, et non une autre langue l'a remplacé, comme vous dites.

3°. Elle n'est pas appelée à se subdiviser en dialectes, puisqu'elle est formée de radicaux internationaux qui ne changent jamais.

4°. Vous appelez cela, ne pas posséder de littérature, mais oubliez-vous alors les superbes œuvres du Docteur Zamenhof répandues dans le monde entier—exemple, 'la Revuo,' dont nous tenons constamment des numéros à votre disposition pour vous faire voir que ce n'est pas une traduction, mais de la fine littérature. Ensuite viennent les œuvres de Monsieur E. Privat, le Docteur A. Fišer, Mr. Witterijk, M. Rohsano et Marie Hankel, la fine poésie de Monsieur Georgo Deskin, etc. Outre cela ne perdez pas de vue les œuvres de musique,

de science, de comédie, faites par des auteurs dignes de leur nom.

5°. Si vous dites que l'Esperanto ne saurait être admis comme langue internationale, c'est une grave erreur, puisque des pays l'ont déjà acceptée et qu'elle est déjà employée dans tous les pays même dans les moins connus du globe.

6°. Les avantages que vous appelez hypothétiques vous ont mis sur le faux pas, parce que cette langue fait exister en premier lieu un lien fraternel et solidaire entre tous les peuples, tandis qu'une langue vivante n'amène que des hostilités. D'ailleurs, en voilà les preuves, 'la maintenant ravagante guerre.' Je saurais vous sommer de nombreuses avantages trop longues à expliquer.

J'accepte la polémique.

HENRIKO.

SPELLING REFORM.

Referring to the article on spelling in your June issue, I would suggest that, searching in a dictionary for the foreign equivalent of *cruise*, *raise*, *heart*, *maize*, *mourning*, *rhyme*, *coarse*, *boarder*, *sleight*, *height*, etc., one does not wish to confuse them with their homophones. What is most important is to deal with (1) spellings that spell other words—e.g., *wer(e)* (not *weir* nor *we're*); (2) spellings to be read in two ways—e.g., *bow*; *remedy*, *supersign* over vowel; (3) words which might be spelled more internationally—e.g., *sepulc(h)re*, *anc(h)or(age)*.

CHARLES G. STUART-MENTETH.

REVIEWS.

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

The Inductive English History. Book I.: England before the Normans. By F. G. SNOWBALL, M.A., F.R.Hist.S., and T. H. BOWTELL, M.A. Harrap. 1s. 6d. Teachers' Handbook, 1s. net.

The series is an attempt at the application of a scientific method to the treatment of historical sources for class use. Each section contains selections from sources, and a series of questions to be answered from their study. The answers are to be worked up in the form of notes, and the Teachers' Handbook, which is to accompany the scholars' text, contains a model set of notes as a guide.

The authors do not intend that the book should displace the usual textbooks, but rather that a year should be given to this kind of work at some stage of the school life. From the character of the notes, one gathers that this would come at the end of the systematic course, which, in most secondary schools, occupies three or four years previous to the specialized work for examination. We think it would be more useful to take selected chapters at intervals in the systematic course. The chapter on 'The Year 1066' could be readily used by a form aged twelve, and to deal with the pre-historic material would not be too easy for a boy of eighteen. Perhaps a set of models might be issued for use with this chapter.

The source selections are admirable, and the questions clear and not too difficult for class use. But there is some lack of arrangement, in that the answers to the questions do not always lead naturally to the note summary in the teacher's hands—a summary which seems somewhat advanced in character.

The series should mark a stage in the development of history teaching parallel with that which began some years ago in geographical work, and further issues will be awaited with keen interest.

1. *The Westminster Shakespeare.* Arranged for reading by D. G. MACKAIL. Price 1s. 4d. each volume. Constable and Co.
2. *Bell's Shakespeare for Schools.* Edited by S. P. B. MAIS. With Illustrations by Byam Shaw. Price 1s. each. Bell and Sons.
3. *Heath's Shakespeare.* General Editor, C. H. HERFORD. Price 1s. 6d. each. Harrap and Co.

The number of cheap and well-edited editions of Shakespeare which have appeared in recent years is surely evidence that his readers

among the general public and among students are on the increase. It is to be hoped that we shall no longer be reproached with neglecting the greatest dramatist of all time, and with leaving the study of his works to Germans, who claim him as their own, but who have never really understood him. We like No. 1, which has no notes or introductory matter, but merely a short glossary at the end, giving the obsolete or unfamiliar words and phrases. A new feature is the printing of 'amplified' stage directions or explanations in italics on the wide margins at the left of each page. There is nothing to distract the reader's attention from the enjoyment of reading without commentary. No. 2 has also been published for enjoyment. There is a General Introduction (the same for each play) and a Preface occupying some thirty pages, with a dozen pages of Notes, Hints, and Questions. The editing of No. 3 is directed mainly to presenting the plays in their literary aspect, and verbal criticism has been reduced to a minimum. A useful feature of the Notes gives the dramatic value of each scene, and its relation to the whole. The introduction contains details respecting dates and literary history, as well as very suggestive criticisms. The Notes are followed by an Essay on Metre and by a Glossary. It is an edition which may be highly recommended to the student. The text of Nos. 1 and 2 is taken from the Cambridge Edition, of No. 3 from the Globe Edition.

First Steps in French. By WALTER RIPPMANN. Illustrated by Fred. Taylor. Pp. 182. Price 2s. *The Phonetic Section of First Steps in French.* Pp. 51. Price 6d. net. *The Early Teaching of French: A Teacher's Handbook to First Steps in French.* Pp. 96. Price 1s. 6d. net. *Four Wall Pictures, printed in colours.* Price 4s. the set. Dent and Sons.

We do not doubt that the staunch adherents of the Direct Method will welcome this course, which is intended as an alternative to Dent's *First French Book*, but which will certainly supersede it in time. It is in every respect superior to the earlier work, which was in some ways unsatisfactory and unsuited to English pupils. The matter in the new volume is more varied, and its attractiveness is enhanced not only by the delightful sketches interspersed through the text, but by four artistic wall pictures in colour. A strong feature of the book is the stress laid on grammar throughout. There is a *Cahier de Grammaire* at frequent intervals.

We are pleased to be able to note that pronouns are introduced early. *En* occurs in the 5th lesson. This avoids the unnatural answers which were a feature of Dent's *First French Book*. Idioms also come early. *Combien de* is found in the 5th Lesson, and idioms of time in the following one. Only the following tenses are dealt with in the order named: The present indicative, the imperative, the perfect, the future, the imperfect, and the *passé historique*. The perfect is not introduced till the 27th Lesson, and the others at short intervals. Mr. Rippmann has resisted the temptation to introduce songs and worthless poetry. The formation of words, a study which is generally neglected, has been adequately treated. Those who, like ourselves, believe in phonetics at the start, are provided with the opening lessons in phonetic transcript. Most important for the teacher are the remarks and running commentary to be found in *The Early Teaching of French*. Here valuable and, to most teachers, indispensable hints are given as to teaching by the Direct Method. Unfortunately many charlatans of the profession are sailing under Direct Method colours, although their methods cannot by any stretch of imagination be called Direct. We know two schools where Dent's *First French and German Books* are in constant use, but everything, text and *questionnaire*, is translated into English.

We can thoroughly recommend this Direct Method Course in which we have not found any misprints or slips.

Mon Premier Livre de Français. By F. M. S. BACHELOR. With Illustrations by E. A. PIKE. With Phonetic Transcript of Chapters I.-XV. Pp. 182 + 44. Price 3s. 6d. Three Wall Pictures. Price 9s. Oxford University Press.

This is another Direct Method Course for the first year. It is well done. It differs in several respects from the book reviewed above. In the first place, only models are given of the *questionnaire*. Then a great deal of the prose is supposed to be learnt by heart. This is an excellent plan. Again, the matter of the text is simpler than that in Mr. Rippmann's book, and would necessitate fewer explanations of difficulties, or less use of English in explaining them. Much practice has been provided for the verb in its various forms. The *passé historique* is left till the second year. The phonetic transcript of Chapters I.-XV. may be had separately. The wall pictures

are good, though rather expensive. The book is well printed in large type.

1. *Aventures et Merveilles*. By C. V. CALVERT. Heinemann.
2. *Le Journal d'un Garnement*. Par A. S. TREVES. Bell and Sons.
3. *Nouveaux Contes faciles*. By MARC CEFPI. Hachette and Co.
4. *Les Exploits de Maître Renard*. By A. J. ULRICH. Hachette and Co.
5. *Ma première Visite à Paris*. Par A. E. C. Oxford University Press.
6. *En Douce France*. Par L. CHOUVILLE. Cambridge University Press.

All these texts, mostly Direct Method, are intended for second-year pupils. No. 1 has already been reviewed in these columns. No. 2 is an attractive volume, well printed, with good illustrations. The story, related of course in the first person, introduces a good deal of useful idioms and expressions, and is very suitable for Direct Method work. There is a *questionnaire* to each chapter, and a few exercises in Free Composition. It seems hardly necessary to give a French-English vocabulary when the *Notes et Vocabulaire* to each chapter is so full. No. 3 is arranged on Messrs. Hachette's well-known plan of marginal notes in French. Each story is followed by *Questionnaire et Exercices*, as well as *Exercices de Composition*, an excellent feature. No. 4 is an 'Episode' taken from the 'jugement' in *Le Roman de Renart*. It has a *questionnaire* and a French-English vocabulary, but its chief attraction seems to be the illustrations by the pupils of Dulwich College. No. 5 is a description of the various sights of Paris, with a few illustrations. There is a French-English vocabulary and a number of exercises, of which only a small portion are according to the Direct Method. The print is very good. In No. 6 M. Chouville has given us a very interesting book. The opening selections deal with daily life in town and country. These are followed by *Histoires de l'Ancien Temps*, taken from such subjects as *Les Moutons de Panurge*, *Harpagon*, *Maître Pathelin*, and *Roland*. The final section gives the minimum amount of knowledge of modern French History which every schoolboy should possess. The extracts are followed by an ample *questionnaire*, but there are no exercises. Two editions are provided, one with and one without a French-English vocabulary. The book can be thoroughly recommended.

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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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- SMITH, H. G., and BALL, G. H.: English Grammar with Analysis and Parsing. Being Part I. of English Grammar and Composition. Pp. viii + 132. Price 1s. 6d. Mills and Boon.
- VARNISH, E. A. A., and HARDY, J. H.: A Junior Graphic Grammar. Pp. 166. Price 1s. 8d. Cambridge University Press.
- THÉMOIN, F., and YATES, M. F.: English Lessons on the Gonin Method. First Book for Children. Pp. 118. Price 1s. 6d. Hachette and Co.

Texts, etc.

- The Westminster Shakespeare.* Arranged for Reading by J. W. Mackail. Pp. 105 (about) each. Price 1s. 4d. each. I. Romeo and Juliet; II. As You Like It; III. The Merchant of Venice; IV. Macbeth; V. Julius Cæsar. Constable and Co.
- The Thompson Seton Readers.* Pp. 125 (about). Price 1s. net each. Little Warhorse, The Biography of a Silver Fox, The White Reindeer, Monarch, The Slum Cat, etc. Constable and Co.
- MALOBY, Selections from; Being an Introductory Reader in Middle English. Edited, with Introduction, Notes, and Glossary, by A. M. Mackenzie. Pp. 107. Price 1s. 3d. Harrap and Co.
- LANDOR, W. S.: Imaginary Conversations: A Selection. (The World's Classics.) With Introduction by E. de Sélincourt. Pp. 471. Price 1s. net. Oxford University Press.
- Poems of To-Day: An Anthology.* Pp. 274. Price 2s. net. Published for the English Association by Sidgwick and Jackson.
- Chambers's Dramatic History Readers:*
- HISLOP, VON: In Norman and Plantagenet Times, 1066-1485. Illustrated by Norman Ault. Pp. 184. Price 1s. 3d.
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HALTENHOFF, A. G.: *Modern German Course*. First Part. Pp. 123. Price 2s. 6d. Hachette and Co.

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BONDAR, D.: *The Queen of Spades* (Pushkin). Annotated and accented. Pp. 82. Price 2s. net. Effingham Wilson.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A MEETING of the General Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, September 25.

Present: Mr. H. L. Hutton (chair), Miss Allpress, Miss Althaus, Mr. Atherton, Miss Backhouse, Miss Batchelor, Miss Hart, Messrs. Brereton, von Glehn, Mansion, Richards, Rippmann, Rouse, Twentyman, and the Hon. Secretary.

Letters of apology for absence were received from Rev. W. S. Macgowan (chairman), Miss Burras, Miss Hargraves, Mr. Odgers, and Professor Savory.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

It was agreed that Mr. Edmund Gosse should be invited to be President for 1916.

The question of printing a revised and enlarged

edition of the catalogue of the Travelling Exhibition was considered. The Finance Sub-Committee recommended that, in view of the heavy additional expenditure on postage which the proposed abolition of the halfpenny post would entail, the printing be postponed. This was agreed to.

Further progress was made with the programme of the Annual Meeting.

The casual vacancy on the Committee, caused by the death of Mr. M. P. Andrews, was filled, in accordance with the rules, by the nomination of Mr. A. T. de Moulpiéd, the candidate next on the January voting list after those already elected.

The following seven new members were elected:

Miss L. M. Bright, Laleham, Margate.

Miss McClay, M.A., Secondary School, Morley, Yorks.

Miss M. F. Millburn, Bedford High School.

W. G. de W. Mitchell, Greystones, Scarborough.

It is with great pleasure that we announce that Mr. Edmund Gosse, C.B., LL.D., late Clark Lecturer in English Literature at Trinity College, Cambridge, has accepted the Presidentship of the Association for next year, and will deliver an address at the Annual Meeting next January.]

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.

The Editor regrets that owing to lack of matter it has not been possible to bring this number out punctually.

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.; the annual subscription is 4s. 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, Cuirrathain, 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, 7, South Hill Mansions, London, N. W.

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.

Mlle. H. A. Pallez, Westfield College, Hampstead, N. W.

H. A. Virley, Stratford-on-Avon Grammar School.

Miss M. E. Walker, Municipal Girls' School, Leamington.

YORKSHIRE BRANCH.—The Annual Meeting will take place in November. The office-bearers for the year 1914-15 are—President, Miss Althaus; Vice-Presidents, Professor Schüddekopf, Professor Barbier fils, Professor Baker, Professor Moorman; Members of Committee, Miss Backhouse, Miss Lowe, Miss Atkinson, Mr. Dawes, Mr. Hodgson, Mr. Frazier, Mr. Groves, Dr. Young; Hon. Secretary, Miss A. A. Macgregor. Mr. Daniel Jones has kindly consented to deliver an address on 'Diction' (if military duties do not prevent him) early in December, at a joint meeting of the branch with the Yorkshire branch of the English Association.

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: Miss HART, County Secondary School, Sydenham Hill Road, S. E.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, County School, Wood Green, N.

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

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THE SPEECH-SOUNDS OF ENGLISH: THEIR DETERMINATION AND NOTATION.

THE sounds of English are far too large a subject to be treated in a single paper, but the field may be much narrowed by reference to the purpose for which the discussion is undertaken. Here I wish to consider them solely with reference to their notation for practical purposes. I have no concern therefore with questions of their historical evolution, or with any existing differences due to dialect or to personal idiosyncrasy, or with any other niceties of Phonetics, but shall deal with one variety only of modern English—that spoken by educated people of the South of England, and sometimes called Standard English, which I shall assume to be what in reality no language is, or ever was, uniform in the mouths of all its speakers.

The essential idea of letters is to match the constituent sounds of a language, which may be called its Phonetic Alphabet, with a corresponding series of signs, or Sematic Alphabet, by the arrangement of which in succession a visible symbol may be formed for every word. I need not here waste space by enlarging on the shortcomings of the present alphabet as an instrument for this end. That this, its main function, is very inadequately performed is common ground among all who have studied the subject,

and doubtless also among many who have never glanced at it since they learnt their letters. It is not only that our spelling is highly unreasonable, but also that without additional letters it never could be good, since many sounds are without a corresponding sign. Nevertheless, by dint of early planting and assiduous daily culture the alphabet takes root so deeply in our minds as to become virtually a part of ourselves, and to involve in its reform something like a surgical operation on every man and woman, which at present they will certainly refuse to undergo themselves, and probably object to, even though its inconveniences should be confined to the young whose education is not yet begun. The discussion must therefore be theoretical: How could the Sematic Alphabet best be reformed if we might touch it at all? Assuming that liberty to revise and enlarge it which at present we are so far from possessing, the questions we must consider are:

1. What is the English Phonetic Alphabet or series of sounds to which separate letters ought to be allotted?

2. What are the letters, old or new, which for the practical purposes of literature could most profitably be allotted to them?

The first question is one of analysis.

We have to turn from the alphabet to the language itself, and from the simple task of breaking up printed words into their component letters to the harder one of analyzing words or sentences into their component sounds. Speech may be likened to beads on a string, which have to be separated and classified, but this operation is impeded both by the fusion of successive sounds in actual speech, and by the fact that their differences are of more than one kind. The beads have to be classified, let us say, by shape, but differ also in colour and size, which leads to confusion. But if not easy, the question is surely not one of excessive difficulty, and the surprising thing is that to this day, although many solutions have been offered, opinion is still so far from unanimous that the experts of the Simplified Spelling Sosyeti, in their periodical *The Pyoneer*, do not venture on any more exact statement of the facts than that 'we have only twenty-three letters for representing over forty sounds;' while the late Professor Lounsbury, formerly President of the Simplified Spelling Board of the United States, says: 'We have a large number of sounds in the language—say forty-two.' We all think we know our A B C, and the twenty-six marks on paper are doubtless familiar enough; but if it is truth that is stated in the General Explanations following the Preface of the Oxford Dictionary, that 'the pronunciation is the actual living form or forms of a word—that is, *the word itself*'—then the Phonetic Alphabet or series of sounds is the alphabet itself, the real A B C and el-em-en-ts of language, or as Aristotle rightly called them, 'parts of speech.' It is strange that Englishmen, who for a thousand years have written their language by letters supposed to represent them, should not to this day know what these sounds are.

But although the Phoneticians and

others who have tabulated the sounds requiring notation are not unanimous, there is yet a near approach to a consensus among them, the majority of the elements being agreed by all. Evidently therefore they must have been guided mainly by the same principles, and it will be worth while to inquire what these are, in order if possible to apply them to the solution of the points remaining unsettled. How then in the course of their analysis do such writers know when they have arrived at the units of speech? In order that it may be recognized when found, how should an element of speech be defined? So far as concerns the sounds often called stops, but otherwise, and as I think better, named explosives or plosives, such as *b* and *t*, it would be enough to say that an element is an indivisible sound, one that cannot be broken into a succession of sounds. Subject to an objection to be considered later, these sounds are to be held indivisible and as it were atomic; they may be repeated, but cannot be shortened or prolonged. But this definition will not serve for the vowels or continuant consonants. Such sounds as the *a* *m* and *z* in *alms* can be prolonged at will, and are resolvable into successions of sounds. Only however into successions of like sounds. Can we then say that an elementary sound is one which either cannot be broken into parts or only into successions of like parts? Such apparently is the definition upon which tabulations of the elements usually in fact proceed, although it may not be avowed. An impure vowel or a diphthong cannot, it is true, be resolved into a succession of like sounds; it is of the essence of its impurity or diphthongic character that its component parts are unlike; but then, so far as we can gather from the manner of their notation by two letters, such sounds are not usually regarded as elements, in spite of the fact that they are usually set down in tables of the

elements, and their notation there given. It is on this point that the generally received classifications of the elements and their notation seem to me to be open to criticism. In attacking them I shall first consider the essential nature of the difference between the explosive and the continuant consonants, as it appears to me to throw light on the subject of the vowels. The continuant consonants can be produced by putting the organs of speech into a given position and keeping them there during the emission of voiced or voiceless breath, and the sounds can be continued as long as breath lasts. With the explosives it is otherwise; it is of the essence of these that there should be a complete though momentary retention of breath, followed—at least when they are fully pronounced—by its release with more or less of a puff, and this cannot be accomplished without motion of one or other of the organs of speech—of the lips for instance for *p* and *b*. They might therefore rightly be called, with regard to the manner of their production, *kinetic* sounds, as opposed to the *static*, which can be continuously produced while the mouth is held in one position. Except for the use of the word, this is well-established fact, and any objection to it would be based rather on lack of novelty than lack of truth. But the importance of the point lies in this—that the difference between static and kinetic production of sounds is not confined to the consonants, but extends to the vowels. Whatever may be the case with foreign languages and old forms of English, in English as now pronounced all diphthongs and impure vowels would be properly classed as kinetic, inasmuch as they are produced by and in the act of movement of the organs of speech, and cannot be produced while these are held in position. The common account of a diphthong, as given for instance by the Oxford Dictionary, is that it is a union of two vowels

pronounced in one syllable, and if this is right, then clearly diphthongs are not elementary, but rightly resolved each into its two component static elements. The mere fact of being pronounced in one syllable is no objection to this, any more than the union of the six sounds of the word *strength* in a single syllable prevents it being resolved into five consonants and a vowel. Why then is it that in the generally received tabulations of the elements these sounds almost always appear, though denoted by two letters, and therefore apparently not considered elementary? The notation of the consonants of *bow* and *low* having been given, it is not thought necessary to set down that of the consonants of *blow*, which follows as of course. Why then if the vowel of *coin* be composed of those of *cod* or *cord* and *in*, should it be thought necessary to indicate its notation by the use of the two letters denoting them? My answer to the question is that in truth it is not so composed, and the student must therefore be informed that when the letters *o* and *i* are seen together, though they may in some words, such as *coincide*, have the same values as when they occur separately, in others they lose those values and have to be read together as a digraph standing for the single and quite different sound called a diphthong, which is heard in *coin*. As far as regards their acoustic effect, the oneness of diphthongs is obvious. Two vowels ought to make two syllables, but with all the license poets take, none have yet attempted to make two syllables of those in *coin* or *cow* or any other diphthong. To the ear the vowels in *isle*, *oil*, and *owl* are single sounds no less than those in *alms* and *eel*. It is only by reasoning and by repeating them slowly, as in fact they are not pronounced, that we convince ourselves—wrongly, as I think—that as used in speech they are respectively composed of the vowels of *alms* and *ill*, *orb* and *ill*, *alms* and *pull*, or whatever

the component sounds may be alleged to be. In a little practical manual designed to teach Italians to speak English (134th Edition, 1910), M. Foulques, the author, finds room in a short passage on our pronunciation to lay it down that the diphthongs are to be pronounced 'united and with one emission of the voice.' This unquestioned fact alone seems to me to be enough to justify the notation of diphthongs for practical purposes by single signs. Even if by scientific analysis they can be shown to be formed by the coalescence of two elements, and not elementary themselves, their sounds are familiar, quite different in effect from the two elements uttered in succession, and apparently single. If then they are single to the ear, why make them double to the eye, when the only purpose of the sign is to recall the sound? Why should a single sign not represent each on paper, even if the apparent unity be an illusion? I wish however to carry the argument further on the theoretical side. The strong acoustic impression of unity doubtless disappears under scientific examination, but not to give way to duality. A diphthong does not consist of two sounds only, but of a succession of sounds, each differing infinitesimally from the one before it. The whole interval between the first and last sounds is filled with others of intermediate qualities, just as a singer drawing down from one note to another passes through all the intermediate notes. But in addition to the difference between speech-sounds and musical notes there is this difference between diphthong and 'draw'—that while the singer holds the first and last sounds a comparatively long time, passing rapidly over the interval, in speech this does not occur, the mouth being in motion throughout the whole period of utterance.

This view does not lack the support of authority. Professor T. G. Tucker, in his *Introduction to the Natural History*

of Language, 1908, p. 32, says: 'If the organs of speech, after adopting the position necessary for a certain vowel, pass from it into the position for another vowel, and if voice is made to sound during the time occupied by the transition, and only during that time, the result is a diphthong.' The kinetic production of the sound could not be more positively stated. If Professor Tucker is right, to speak of the diphthong *oi* as composed of the sounds of *o* and *i* is like speaking of a mile as composed of the milestones at either end without regard to the interval between them. Similarly Paul, in his *Principles of the History of Language* (Trans. Strong, 1888): 'The continuity of sound is seen with the greatest clearness in the so-called diphthongs, which exhibit such a series of very numerous elements.' He evidently regards the term diphthong as a misnomer, in which he seems to me to be unquestionably right; 'polyphthong' would be very much nearer the truth. These complex vowels ought therefore to be reckoned among the elements of speech. It is no objection to this that they can be resolved into successions of sounds, for so also can pure vowels; both are successions of sounds, and the difference is that while a pure vowel is a succession of like sounds, a diphthong is a succession of unlike sounds related to each other in much the same way as the sounds intervening between two pure notes, or the light between two pure colours of the spectrum, by a continuous series of small gradations. The vowel of *isle* would therefore supposing its initial and final sounds to be rightly denoted by *a* and *i*, be more accurately written *a . . . i* than *ai*. Not only so, but the vowel of *ell*, being intermediate between these two, forms part of the sound, so that a fuller notation would be *a . . . e . . . i*; and if it were broken up, its component parts would be not *a* and *i*, but *a . . . e* and *e . . . i*. Similarly,

the vowel of *owl* would be written *a . . . o . . . u*. The vowels of *aches* and *ode* are in fact contained in the more extensive vowels of *isle* and *owl*, which require a wider opening of the mouth and cover longer intervals. But I hasten to add that I am far from advocating any such notation as this for practical use, my point being the opposite—that in teaching the alphabet and printing books no analysis of the so-called diphthongs ought to be introduced at all. They should be treated as elements of speech, and the theory of their formation reserved for more advanced lessons in Phonetics.

It is evidently considerations of this kind that Whitney had in mind when, in his *Language and the Study of Language*, 1868, he wrote: 'The diphthongs in *pint*, *point*, *pound* (of which the first two are rather vocal slides than diphthongs),' etc. Agreeing with this as to the first two words, I fail to see the force of the distinction as to the third, and would rather call all three vocal slides or polyphthongs as regards their effect, kinetic vowels as regards their production, and abjure the term diphthong altogether. A barking dog utters the vowel of *owl*, and no one who watches the delivery of the sound will dispute the fitness of the term kinetic in that case, at all events. But it seems to me that the production of that and all other so-called diphthongs in human, or at least in English, speech is essentially similar. So far as regards our own language, they are vowels uttered during the closing of the mouth—that is, of course, not actual shutting, but reduction of the aperture. As regards other languages—for instance the more leisurely Italian—there may be more justification for the name diphthong, and even where the sounds are unified, as in English, it might be necessary to recognize opening as well as closing kinetic vowels—that is, such as may be uttered in the act of opening the mouth—

for instance, the French *oui*. But as we pronounce *w* and *y*, they are, I think, rightly treated as consonants, and all such sounds as *we* and *war*, *ye* and *yaw*, which might otherwise be regarded as opening kinetic vowels, are to be regarded as not consisting of vowel sounds alone. It may be suggested however by the way, that the true distinction between these consonants and the related vowels *u* and *i* is their kinetic nature. In pronouncing *w* the lips are momentarily approached as near as possible without the complete contact that would result in a *b*; while any attempt to prolong the sound results either in the vowel *u* or in a bi-labial *v*, according to the closeness of the approach of the lips; and similarly with *y*. The two consonants, though certainly not to be classed among the explosives, nearly approach them in nature, and are not true continuants. Hence it is that the words *woo* and *ye* consist each of two sounds, not of a single sound prolonged.

The so-called diphthongs being then elements of speech, ought to be denoted each by a single letter. Such letters would be as easily associated by the child with the vowels of *boy* and *bough*, already familiar to it in speech, as the letters *i* and *y* are now associated by it with that of *isle* and *by*; while the analysis of the sounds into two, as now taught, is both difficult and untrue. Moreover, when learnt, it remains ambiguous. One who does not know the words can for instance never tell whether the letters *ea*, *ai*, *ei*, and *oi*, when seen in succession, are to be pronounced separately, as in *real*, *lairy*, *albeit*, *coincide*, or united, as in *read*, *laid*, *veil*, and *coin*.

If the unavowed definition of an element on which the generally received tabulations of the speech-sounds proceed is defective, the question arises how to amend it. In framing a better, if account is to be taken both of the manner of production of the sounds and of their

acoustic effect, the following, however unsatisfactory, seems the best that can be done: Elementary speech-sounds are either static, being resolvable into successions of like sounds, or kinetic, being either irresolvable or resolvable into successions of unlike sounds closely associated in a continuous series of small gradations. But in view of the clumsiness of this, it might be better to rely on the acoustic effect alone, in which case the definition would be: Elementary speech-sounds are those which give a clear acoustic impression of unity. But this is not to be considered as affecting the truth or importance of the division into static and kinetic sounds.

A second important distinction in speech-sounds, forming a cross-division with this, and which, though probably recognized by some of the ancients, appears to have been fully appreciated only in modern times, is that between voiced and voiceless sounds. While eight of our consonants, including *h*, are produced by breath alone, all the others, as also the vowels, are produced by breath with voice. That is, the air which is used in the mouth to produce the articulate sound has in their case been previously made sonorous in the throat by the vibration of the vocal cords. The vowels are formed of voiced breath modified by the shape of the mouth, the voiceless consonants are noises formed of breath in the mouth, and the voiced consonants consist of voice and noise together. The *s* and *f* of a man are hardly, if at all, distinguishable from those of a woman, while the *z*'s and *v*'s of the two sexes are unmistakably distinguished by the base and treble qualities of the voice. *Z* and *v* can, though not indeed with much freedom, be sung on any note within the compass of the voice. *S* and *f* can be whistled, but not sung at all. Anyone who attempts to sing the sound of *h* will find himself merely panting. I

shall not apologize for dwelling at some length on this important distinction, because, obvious as it is to those who have once grasped it, it seems to be singularly elusive to those who have not, among whom some of my readers may possibly be numbered. It should serve to keep them in countenance that from passages in Aristotle's *Poetics* and in several of Plato's *Dialogues* it seems clear that the distinction was not realized by either of those philosophers; while as late as 1858 Sir John Stoddart, in his *Glossology*, in many respects a very able work, solemnly disputes the true view, attributing the difference in sound between *s* and *z* to a 'difference of the tongue's action.' He also describes the utterance of *p* and *b* as presenting a 'complete impediment to the passage of the vocalized breath,' overlooking the fact that for *p* the breath is *not* vocalized, in which lies the whole essential difference between the two. Nor was the difference grasped by Canon Taylor, the historian of the alphabet, or he could not have said in a footnote to his history (vol. ii., p. 143): 'It is easier to say *be* than *eb*, and *ef* than *fe*, the reason being that in pronouncing the continuants the vocal organs are not completely closed, and the breath is escaping, so that a vowel sound is involuntarily produced before the consonantal sound can be heard, and hence we actually get *ef* before we come to *fe*.' Breath then cannot escape without involuntary production of a vowel, and we cannot say *fee* without saying *efee*! Of the truth of this the least instructed reader can judge. The fact is that the sound of *f* can be begun and prolonged to the utmost capacity of the lungs without production of the slightest vowel or sound of voice, and if voice be added, the *f* at once becomes a *v*.

A difficulty that may occur on this point is that, if the voiced consonants consist of two elements—articulation and

voice—they cannot be themselves elementary; but the answer is evident. The elements into which we resolve the sounds of speech are *successive*, while in the production of voiced consonants voice and articulation are simultaneous, though not always co-extensive, and to speak of them as elements is to use the word in a different sense. Such sounds are therefore elementary, and properly represented by single letters. At the same time, as regards notation, it is clear that, where the members of a group of elements, such as *b d v z*, individually bear each the same relation to one of another group—*p t f s*—the letters for them might with advantage be so designed as to show that relation. Professor Jespersen indeed on the first page of his *English Grammar* (Part I., 1909), notes it as one of the chief imperfections of the Roman alphabet that ‘there is nothing to show the relation between *p : b* is the same as that between *t : d* or between *k : g*.’ In English there are fourteen sounds which can be paired as voiced and voiceless, and which consequently might with advantage be denoted by seven letters, each modified in the same way to indicate the addition of voice. Reverting to the string of beads, if we suppose voice to be represented by a blue colour and articulation by a yellow, voiced consonants, as combining both, would be represented by green, and there would be seven pairs of beads, alike in size and shape, and differing only in their green and yellow colours.

Here I will also deal with another objection that might be raised against the statement made on an early page—that the explosive sounds are unquestionably elementary. The ‘explosion,’ or puff of air, that makes these sounds, being preceded by a retention of breath, it might be urged that they consist of two parts, each an element; and in fact some writers have gone so far as to

divide them into two successive parts—an ‘applosion’ and an ‘explosion’—contending that either part by itself serves to give the effect of the sound. But this cannot be accepted as a true account of the facts. The essential part of these sounds is the so-called explosion—a slight puff of breath which cannot be effected without its previous retention. When they occur among other sounds, the flow of breath must be previously stopped; but when speech is begun with such words as *bring* or *take*, nothing is stopped, because nothing has begun, but the breath is momentarily retained. Such a retention of breath is soundless, but the stoppage has a slight sound of its own, different for each letter, even if not followed by the explosion. It may be partly owing to this fact that in actual speech, when two of these sounds come together, as in *apt*, *act*, *abduct*, *good-bye*, *take down*, the explosion of the first is usually much reduced in force, or even entirely omitted, its stop only remaining. But this is not, as is sometimes said, because the stop is enough by itself to give the effect of the sound, but rather because, as so often happens in speech, custom accepts a very incomplete pronunciation of a word as sufficient. A clipped verbal currency passes as a good one, and just as with coins, the lightest utterance that will be accepted is habitually offered, until finally the reduced pronunciation becomes legal tender and obtains the stamp of authority. Hence when an explosive sound ought nominally to be repeated, as in *black-cock*, *top part*, *quite true*, it is in fact not repeated at all, but merely emphasized, the emphasis being regularly accepted as instead of a doubling. So much is this so, that a doubling of the sound in these cases would be apt to give wrong impressions to the hearer, such as *blacker cock*, *top apart*, *quite a true*. These facts then are not inconsistent with the elementary

nature of the explosive sounds. The essential part of these is the explosion, for which the stoppage or retention of breath is only a necessary preliminary, and the whole forms a single element. For an exact phonetic notation of speech it would be necessary that the signs for them should consist of two parts, representing stoppage and explosion, of which the latter could be omitted if desired, but for other purposes no such division is needed.

To return from these objections, I shall not here further pursue the scientific classification of the elements. It is obvious enough that some consonants are formed at the lips, some near the end of the tongue, and others further back in the mouth; others again by a flow of voiced breath through the nose. But as the total number is not large, the utility of dividing them into such small classes may be questionable for ordinary purposes, though not, of course, for the study

of phonetics. All the old terminology, depending on supposed qualities of the sounds, such as liquid, aspirate (except for *h*), sharp, flat, dark, and (of all the extraordinary epithets to bestow on a speech sound) mute, are useless and worse, and should be entirely, as they have been mainly, abandoned. On the other hand, the production of the vowels is a subject so full of difficulties that anything like dogmatic statement is to be avoided. Probably it is safe to say that Sweet was not right in attributing everything to tongue-position, modified by 'rounding' or protrusion of the lips; it cannot be for nothing that the whole windpipe is raised in the utterance of *i* much more than for *u*. Happily however the sounds can be identified, classified, and adequately denoted, without a full understanding of the manner of their production.

A. D. WILDE.

(*To be concluded.*)

L'ANGLAIS ET LE FRANÇAIS : LANGUES INTERNATIONALES.

LA LANGUE INTERNATIONALE.

I.

C'EST en quelque sorte pour obéir à cette discipline de l'arrière, aussi nécessaire que celle du front, que les simples soldats, comme nous, de l'armée des civils, se mettent sous les ordres des grands chefs, les Anatole France, les J. Finot, les Maurice Barrès, les G. Clemenceau, ou les G. Hervé, pour courir sus, eux aussi, à l'armée disciplinée, innombrable et redoutable des Boches de l'arrière.

Or, y eut-il jamais, parmi ces 'forces morales' dont Anatole France réclame la participation entière à la victoire certaine, une force supérieure à celle de notre belle langue française, avec tout ce que sa littérature et son histoire représentent d'énergie agissante, d'invincible espérance, de réalisations puissantes, de

beauté, de générosité et d'amour, dans l'évolution de l'humanité,—vers les destinées que, croyants ou incroyants, nous nous plaignons tous à lui assigner ?

Et s'il nous était démontré qu'il suffirait aux Français victorieux de le vouloir sérieusement, pour que leur langue acquit réellement, à la paix, cette influence mondiale, cette suprématie incontestée qu'ont rêvée pour elle les plus grands Français et dont les plus illustres étrangers la trouvent digne—tels, le grand G. d'Annunzio, l'illustre Wells, notre grand ami russe Novicow, etc., etc.—ne serions-nous pas bien coupables, de négliger une occasion, peut-être unique et qui, en tout cas, ne se présentera jamais plus aussi facile à saisir ?

Dante, dans son *Enfer*, a fait une place de choix au Pape ou à l'empereur, je ne sais plus trop lequel, coupable du

'*gran rifiuto*,' du 'grand refus.' C'est pour avoir négligé ou refusé d'accomplir son destin que le personnage dantesque, pape ou empereur, se vit maudit et damné dans les siècles des siècles.

Si, par la faute de gouvernants timides, de diplomates sceptiques ou de représentants au-dessous des responsabilités de l'heure, la langue française n'atteint pas, avec sa sœur la langue anglaise, le rang qui leur appartient de langues internationales—nos gouvernants, nos diplomates et nos représentants, quels qu'ils soient, auront à leur tour commis 'il *gran rifiuto*.'

A Dieu ne plaise !

II.

Quoiqu'il y ait bien des chances pour que nous n'ayons plus rien à apprendre à nos lecteurs sur cette question si controversée et si familière de la langue internationale, encore faut-il, avant que nous n'essayions de prouver les titres du français et de l'anglais, nous expliquer ou y tâcher, sur deux ou trois difficultés préliminaires, où se heurtent et se découragent même de bons esprits.

Ainsi, il n'est pas rare d'entendre confondre : *Langue internationale avec Langue universelle* et il est nécessaire d'indiquer que celle-ci est une utopie et n'a rien de commun avec celle-là.

Une langue internationale, loin de vouloir absorber, loin d'exclure les langues nationales, les suppose au contraire et loin de vouloir les supprimer, ne peut, en quelque sorte, exister qu'avec elles, non pas au-dessus ou au-dessous d'elles, mais à côté.

Nous ne nous arrêtons pas à discuter avec ceux qui nient, *a priori*, les possibilités de l'adoption par les hommes d'une langue auxiliaire commune et qui, disant-ils, n'en aperçoivent pas la nécessité. Nous constaterons simplement que des cas de cécité aussi graves sont incurables, et . . . nous passerons. Car, il faut

n'être jamais sorti de son patelin, n'avoir jamais fait ou désiré d'échanges avec des hommes parlant une autre langue que la nôtre, pour nier le besoin d'un idiome international.

Une objection plus sérieuse est celle qui consiste à nier la probabilité de ce 'consensus' des nations, d'où résulterait l'adoption d'une langue commune pour les relations internationales.

On a beau répondre qu'il y a eu dans le passé des exemples de cet accord, que le latin, au Moyen Age, fut une véritable langue internationale, que l'arabe est encore de nos jours un idiome intermusulmanique, si l'on peut dire ; enfin, que, pratiquement, l'on a dans le langage algébrique, dans les codes télégraphiques et dans les notations chimiques d'authentiques langues internationales, dont un fou, seul, songerait à nier l'utilité ou les services.

L'on a beau insister et flatter l'amour-propre de l'incrédule Gaulois en lui rappelant qu'à deux ou trois reprises, au cours de notre histoire, la langue française fut, elle-même (au témoignage de l'Italien Brunetto Latini et de l'Allemand Leibnitz et témoins Frédéric II. de Prusse et la grande Catherine de Russie), la langue commune de tous les civilisés dans leur élite, nos Saint-Thomas n'en persistent pas moins à déclarer qu'ils ne croiront qu'après avoir vu et touché. Attendons donc pour les convaincre que l'événement ait eu lieu.

L'objection tirée de la difficulté de mettre d'accord les rivalités internationales et de l'opposition que rencontreraient les prétentions d'une nation, à la primauté qui résulterait de l'adoption de sa langue, comme langue commune, est bien autrement justifiée.

Nous n'hésitons pas à avouer que cette objection nous a beaucoup frappé* et

* Cf. 'Le Problème de la Langue Internationale,' par P. Mieille, dans le *Bulletin de la Société Philomatique*, Gounouilhou, Bordeaux, 1903.

qu'elle constitue un des arguments les plus solides des partisans de l'espéranto, la mieux venue des langues artificielles, candidates à l'internationalité.

Et il est évident que, s'il était vrai que, étant donné les rivalités de peuple à peuple, il fût réellement chimérique de songer à une des langues nationales pour en faire la langue commune, la cause des langues artificielles, celle, peut-être, de l'espéranto serait gagnée.

Mais cet argument vaut-il en 1915-1916—après la défaite allemande, après l'anéantissement de la puissance militaire de l'Allemagne, après que l'Europe, écœurée des crimes de la 'kultur,' aura mis en quarantaine la langue allemande—ce qu'il valait en 1899,* quand la langue allemande recevait en France même un traitement privilégié, puisqu'elle avait le monopole des grandes Écoles du gouvernement, et quand la bonne moitié de l'Europe se gavait, à en crever, de science allemande et de camelote allemande ?

III.

Comme nous fûmes toujours de ces 'utopistes'—bien réhabilités par des annonceurs d'avenir, comme Wells—qui croient aux 'anticipations,' vérités de foi, avant de devenir des vérités de fait, nous confessons volontiers, dût notre thèse en souffrir auprès des gens rassis, que l'avènement des Etats-Unis d'Europe† est une de nos utopies et que nous croyons le moment venu—oui en pleine guerre européenne!—de préparer cet avènement.

L'Europe—disons la civilisation—s'est trouvée, du 1^{er} au 4 août, 1914, en face de ce dilemme :

* N^o d'août-septembre, 1899, de la *Revue Concordia*. V. notre art.

† Voir : 'The United States of Europe,' in-8 *ill. Review of Reviews*, Londres, 1899, l'œuvre si documentée de ce Prince des Journalistes, William T. Stead.

Ou bien l'hégémonie allemande avec toutes ses conséquences de barbarie scientifique et d'unité sans liberté ;

Ou bien les Etats-Unis d'Europe, c'est-à-dire l'Union de l'Europe contre l'hégémonie allemande, se prolongeant après la paix victorieuse, pour rendre impossible tout retour du militarisme pangermaniste.

Et comment ne pas voir déjà dans la Triple, devenue—gloire à l'Italie!—la Quadruple-Entente (quatre grandes puissances sur six!)—le dessein prophétique des futurs Etats-Unis d'Europe ?

Il y a des gens qui s'étant levés tard toute leur vie n'ont jamais vu le soleil dans la splendeur de son lever : ils ne croient à l'aurore, dans le secret de leur cœur, que tout juste ce qu'il faut pour ne pas se singulariser. Il y en a d'autres, qui, par paresse intellectuelle ou par lâcheté mentale, n'ont jamais vu naître de vérités : la vérité à son berceau, la vérité en enfantement leur semblent indécentes. Ils n'acceptent que des vérités adultes, surtout celles qui ont pignon sur rue.

Allez donc démontrer à ces gens-là que les Etats-Unis d'Europe en sont à leur aurore, qu'ils sont nés, tout ce qu'il y a de plus né, au mois d'août, 1914,‡ et que le nouveau-né est assez robuste déjà, en août, 1915, pour n'avoir plus à redouter l'Hérode prussien !

Consolons-nous ! Ils finiront bien par voir le soleil en plein Midi et par croire à la vérité, patulée et acceptée dans la bonne société. . . .

Quand ils verront demain, ce que nous apercevons, nous, aujourd'hui, le Congrès de la Paix se transformer, par la force des choses et quoiqu'en puisse croire la folie de quelques neutres, en Parlement

‡ Enfants dans la douleur, par le martyre de la noble Belgique, les Etats-Unis d'Europe, annoncés en 1899, par notre Maître, William T. Stead, siégeront, sans doute à Bruxelles, par-rainés par le roi Albert dit le Juste, et la reine Elisabeth de Belgique.

européen, revêtu de la puissance de lier et de délier, de récompenser et de punir, de détruire et d'édifier. . . .

Quand ils verront—en dépit des errements pardonnés de quelques autres neutres—l'Europe unanime à suivre les voies de la Liberté dans le respect des nationalités, alors, comme l'apôtre, ils croiront et confesseront.

L'ANGLAIS ET LE FRANÇAIS:

I.

Il est hors de doute que le français, langue de la diplomatie, sera la langue officielle du Congrès de la Paix, puisqu'elle est la langue internationale des hommes d'Etat, des diplomates, des généraux et des financiers qui, d'ordinaire, dirigent ou suivent les négociations et préparent les traités que signeront les chefs d'emploi.

Notre langue est donc, déjà, grâce à ses qualités de clarté, de sobre élégance et de mesure, la langue commune de l'élite politique mondiale, une véritable langue internationale, malgré le petit nombre des internationaux dont elle est l'organe consacré.

Mais, nous suffit-il, à nous autres Français, suffit-il aux intérêts de notre commerce et de notre industrie, au développement croissant de nos relations d'affaires avec les grandes républiques de l'Amérique et les immenses colonies anglaises, avec les pays slaves et les pays d'Orient et d'Extrême-Orient, que notre langue reste le monopole élégant et raffiné d'une poignée de dilettanti? . . .

Or, si nous demandons quels résultats pratiques, quels bénéfices tangibles nous avons jusqu'ici retirés de cette '*internationalité*, si j'ose dire, restreinte, il faut bien avouer que les satisfactions d'amour-propre sont viande creuse et que si la France a retiré beaucoup de gloire de l'honneur fait à sa langue, le profit a été mince. Notre coq national commence à comprendre qu'il a par trop négligé la

cueillette du grain de mil qui faisait si bien l'affaire du coq du fabuliste.

Nous posons donc en principe que la France victorieuse aura droit pour sa langue et exigera pour elle non plus seulement un siège aux festins d'apparat, mais la place qui lui revient dans les entretiens de tous les jours et dans les conférences d'affaires.

Comment se fait-il donc, s'il en est ainsi, que nous infirmions les droits du français, en invitant l'anglais à les partager avec lui. Et pourquoi demandons-nous *deux* langues internationales quand il est déjà si difficile d'en avoir *une*?

II.

Déclarons, d'abord, que si la démonstration est jamais faite que le français ait la moindre chance d'être adopté comme l'unique langue internationale, nul n'en sera plus heureux et plus satisfait que nous-même.

Mais, pas plus aujourd'hui qu'en 1899,* et après l'examen le plus attentif des circonstances et des faits, nous ne saurions espérer . . . l'impossible. Au contraire, tout bizarre et tout paradoxal que cela paraisse à première vue, ce qui est impossible au français, seul—comme, d'ailleurs, à l'anglais seul—devient facilement réalisable pour l'anglais et le français réunis, amis et alliés.

Mettons simplement en regard les prétentions réciproques et opposées du français et de l'anglais—les deux seules langues mondiales, ne l'oublions pas, admises à concourir—avec leurs qualifications de candidates *ex æquo*, et la preuve sera faite.

Nous connaissons déjà quelques-uns des arguments qui militent en faveur du français: sa clarté et son élégance, sa douceur et sa mesure, son adoption par l'élite mondaine, son emploi à peu près universel dans la diplomatie; ajoutons-y

* Article de la *Revue Concordia*, d'août-septembre, 1899, *loc. cit.*

sa pratique générale dans les pays d'Orient, la facilité avec laquelle les Slaves se l'assimilent, l'accroissement de notre empire colonial, la constitution, sans obstacles maintenant, de la ' *Greater France* ' dont le domaine linguistique lui-même ne le cédera en importance et en étendue qu'à celui de l'Angleterre.

Examinons maintenant et sans cesser de serrer de près la réalité, les titres anglais :

La langue anglaise se recommande, d'abord, du grand fait de son expansion à travers le monde. Si possession vaut titre, l'anglais est un candidat qu'il serait impossible d'éliminer. Sa prédominance en Océanie, où l'Australie et la Nouvelle-Zélande lui appartiennent exclusivement ; sa prépondérance dans l'Afrique australe ; sa conquête certaine des deux tiers de l'Afrique et de la moitié de l'Asie ; ses progrès dans les pays jaunes ; l'extrême facilité d'acquisition du ' *pidgin English* ' qui est, sur les côtes de la mer de Chine, ce que le ' *sabir* ' est sur la côte sud de la Méditerranée ; enfin le grand fait, le fait brutal que l'anglais étant la langue de la grande république des États-Unis d'Amérique est la langue parlée par le plus grand nombre de civilisés ; tout cela constitue un ensemble formidable de titres qu'aucun jury de bonne foi ne pourrait récuser.

Ajoutons pour ne rien oublier de ce qui peut être compté du côté anglais, que la simplicité de sa syntaxe, le minimum de difficultés qui embarrassent sa grammaire, son vocabulaire mi-latin, en rendent l'acquisition relativement prompte et facile, plus prompte et plus facile—prononciation à part*—que celle de n'importe quelle autre langue.

Inutile, n'est-ce pas, d'examiner, même si elle était posée, toute autre candidature.

* Nous nous proposons d'examiner en détail cette question épineuse de la prononciation de l'anglais et de proposer une, au moins, des solutions possibles.

III.

Donc, voici en présence l'anglais et le français, laquelle de ces deux langues l'emportera ?

L'une et l'autre, France et Angleterre, peuvent se vanter, au dire de Taine, de posséder, chacune, la littérature la plus digne d'être comparée aux littératures de l'antiquité grecque et romaine.

L'une et l'autre, représentent la plus haute culture—rien de la *kultur* !—de toute la civilisation contemporaine.

L'une et l'autre sont l'incarnation de l'esprit moderne de liberté, de self-gouvernement, de démocratie et de progrès, à tel point que l'Allemagne a dû fonder sur leur anéantissement successif son rêve forcené d'impérial militarisme.

L'une et l'autre, quoique l'une, plus que l'autre, a essaimé ses fils dans toutes les régions du globe et l'une et l'autre sera bénie dans ses futures générations, parce que, dans la grande guerre, les générations actuelles ont su combattre et mourir pour la justice.

Comment choisir ? . . .

Mais pourquoi ne pas les choisir l'une et l'autre, les deux langues de ces deux nations qui se complètent si bien l'une l'autre ?

Celte et franco-normande sous son vêtement de dessus anglo-saxon, la langue anglaise est bien la sœur de notre langue française. Rudyard Kipling dans son ode émouvante a chanté magnifiquement cette fraternité et honni soit qui la nierait.

D'ailleurs, serait-il possible de choisir en éliminant l'une ou l'autre ?

Nous défions qui que ce soit, en Angleterre ou en France, d'en concevoir seulement l'idée, sans en reconnaître immédiatement l'impossible absurdité.

Ni le français ne peut abdiquer, ni l'anglais se renoncer.

IV.

Les Etats-Unis d'Europe, le monde civilisé auront donc deux langues internationales : l'anglais et le français.

Sans chercher à limiter étroitement leurs domaines, sans leur assigner, même, un domaine à part, il est aisé de prévoir que, dans leur rôle spécial de langues internationales, l'anglais et le français se compléteront et se compléteront mutuellement.

L'anglais, langue des échanges, des relations d'affaires, d'acquisition plus rapide, d'usage plus familier, sera adopté plus volontiers, comme langue commune, par le commerçant et l'homme d'affaires, le *business man*.

Le français, langue de la politesse, des relations sociales, des arts et du goût, d'acquisition plus difficile parce que de mécanisme plus délicat, sera préféré par l'homme cultivé, le mondain, le dilettante. Il sera plus que jamais la langue des chancelleries et la langue des salons, et sa franche adoption par les élites anglaises et américaines, en fera la langue cosmopolite, par excellence, des classes aisées ou d'éducation raffinée.

Mais ce n'est point à dire que nous prétendions qu'il s'établira ainsi deux 'zones,' sans communication ni point de contact. Loin de là. Il arrivera le plus souvent, neuf fois sur dix, que les deux langues seront également parlées ou, du moins, également comprises, par notre commerçant ou notre touriste et il emploiera l'une ou l'autre, selon l'heure ou l'interlocuteur du moment.

Cela se produira évidemment, *a priori*, dans le cas des gens de langue française, lesquels, d'après le système que nous allons exposer, auront tous* appris l'anglais; de même, pour les gens de langue

* L'enseignement de l'anglais ou du français dans toutes les écoles privées ou publiques est affaire de personnel. Il est déjà donné partout, dans les Ecoles Primaires du degré supérieur.

anglaise, lesquels auront tous appris le français.

Quant aux nationaux des autres pays, ils auront appris, par définition, soit l'anglais, soit le français et . . . voilà l'humanité revenue, d'un trait, aux temps pré-Babéliques.

V.

Nous croyons avoir si clairement proclamé dans les pages précédentes notre confiance en la pleine victoire des alliés et en ses conséquences logiques, qu'il semble presque superflu d'avertir ceux qui voudront bien nous lire, que le triomphe et la suprématie internationale du groupe linguistique franco-anglais sont basés sur l'humiliation méritée de la langue allemande et son bannissement, à perpétuité ou à temps, des programmes scolaires de toutes les nations alliées.

Nous faisons à peine remarquer, tant cela saute aux yeux, que, ainsi que l'Allemagne fut toujours—Carnegie *non obstante!*—le seul obstacle au désarmement et à l'arbitrage, de même l'allemand—je dis la langue allemande—constituait-il, hier, le seul obstacle à la, si j'ose dire, 'débabélisation' du monde civilisé.

Avec l'Allemagne, pas de désarmement, pas d'arbitrage possibles.

Avec l'Allemand, impossible de songer—ô summum de l'Entente cordiale!—à faire du groupe linguistique franco-anglais la langue internationale.

Occasion merveilleusement chevelue !
Unique et inespérée !

VI.

Sera-t-il besoin de négociations longues et laborieuses, de ces tractations délicates et déliées qui font la joie des diplomates et le désespoir des profanes, pour réaliser un des progrès les plus considérables des temps modernes ?

Non, comme toutes les grandes choses, qui sont simples et se font simplement, la grande réforme d'où résultera—après

l'union politique—l'union intellectuelle de la nouvelle Europe, s'accomplira le plus simplement du monde au moyen d'une convention—préparée par les ministères de l'Instruction publique, universités et corps savants—entre les négociateurs des nations alliées, y compris les Etats-Unis, directement intéressés.

Par cet accord—convention linguistique serait peut-être le terme adopté—chacun des alliés prendrait l'engagement : *Primo*, d'effectuer à bref délai la suppression complète de l'enseignement de la langue allemande dans les trois ordres d'enseignement ; *secundo*, d'introduire ou de généraliser l'enseignement, soit de l'anglais, soit du français, soit concurremment de l'un et de l'autre, dans l'enseignement officiel ou privé du contractant.

Voyons rapidement comment cet accord pourrait fonctionner :

Dans le cas des pays de langue française, il suffirait à leurs nationaux d'acquérir une connaissance convenable de l'anglais pour avoir à leur disposition la langue internationale cherchée, puisque la langue seconde de tout Européen et de tout civilisé serait, soit le français, soit l'anglais.

Le même raisonnement s'applique aux pays de langue anglaise, sans qu'il soit nécessaire d'insister.

Pour les autres nations alliées—demain elles seront légion—par exemple, la Russie, l'Italie, ou les Balkaniques, en leur demandant de sacrifier l'allemand—de s'en débarrasser plutôt!—on n'exige d'elles que ce qu'elles sont bien décidées à accorder, et comme, déjà, l'enseignement soit du français, soit de l'anglais, a sa bonne place dans leurs programmes, il leur suffira de donner à l'un ou à l'autre, la place de l'allemand, pour que soit complètement organisé chez elles l'enseignement de la langue internationale.

Quant aux neutres, ma foi ! est-il bien nécessaire de s'en préoccuper ? D'ailleurs,

n'en doutons pas, ils se rallieront, en vrais neutres, à la victoire et viendront se joindre aux gros bataillons, conformément aux lois de la Nature et à celles de l'Histoire.

Prenons comme exemples l'Ibérie ou la Scandinavie et supposons-les, même, si attachées—c'est peu vraisemblable, mais enfin, tout arrive—à la *kultur*, qu'elles récalcitrent à se rallier à la convention linguistique des alliés. . . .

Hé bien, après ? Que résulterait-il de leur opposition, sinon un isolement si dommageable pour tous leurs intérêts, qu'il est plus charitable de les en supposer incapables, comme patriotes, comme citoyens des Etats-Unis d'Europe et, même, comme neutres ?

Ainsi, tout européen, tout civilisé, sachant soit l'anglais, soit le français, en outre de sa langue nationale, posséderait l'outil par excellence de la future civilisation : la langue internationale.

Faisons remarquer tout de suite que cette combinaison, si favorable qu'elle soit aux deux grandes langues de l'Entente cordiale, ne lèse en rien les autres langues. Italianisant fervent, chérissant d'une dilection toute filiale la langue adorable des Fioretti et la langue olympienne de d'Annunzio ; hispanisant modeste, mais ayant goûté avec délices à la source majestueuse, au flot sonore, d'où sont venus à la même mer latine tant de chefs-d'œuvre—nous ne voudrions pour rien au monde faire du tort à l'enseignement si florissant déjà, chez nous, des langues méridionales. Nous leur offrons, au contraire, une partie de la place occupée aujourd'hui par l'allemand maudit.

Mais—et c'est l'affaire de ceux qui possèdent l'autorité avec la compétence—les programmes scolaires de demain dans tous les pays civilisés devront être conçus de façon à comprendre, dans l'enseignement secondaire et primaire supérieur, tout au moins, l'enseignement obligatoire de deux langues vivantes,

dont l'une serait toujours, soit le français, soit l'anglais.

Les détails de cette organisation ne seraient pas ici à leur place et nous les laissons à Qui-de-Droit.

CONCLUSION.

Aussi bien est-il temps de conclure et de laisser à de plus qualifiés les initiatives nécessaires.

Ce mémoire étant un œuvre de bonne foi autant qu'un acte de foi, nous serons satisfait qu'on y reprenne un excès de conviction, si l'on veut bien y reconnaître la juste appréciation des possibilités de

demain et l'expression réfléchie d'un patriotisme prévoyant.

Nous croyons fermement à la nécessité qui s'imposera—si l'on veut vaincre définitivement l'Allemagne—de supprimer l'enseignement de sa langue, en tant que langue étrangère.

Et nous croyons, comme nous croyons à la victoire, à l'opportunité présente de donner au monde la langue internationale.

La justice immanente s'est prononcée. La sentence qui proclamera la fin de l'Allemagne impérialiste ne pourra être signée que par une Europe anti-allemande . . . de cœur, d'esprit et de langue.

P. MIEILLE.

[The above article is the sequel to *L'Allemand après la Guerre* which appeared last month. We hope our readers will read both articles and give us their criticisms candidly and without heat or passion. The questions raised are of importance. The discussion would not be premature in our opinion. Without wishing to confine contributors to any particular point, we should like them to treat one or more of the following: Why do we teach German in secondary schools? Is it purely and largely from utilitarian motives? If not, what benefit is derived from the study of the language or literature now that the theory of mental training through language study has largely been discounted? Then, with regard to the political aspect of the question, how far are M. Mieille's drastic remedies and punishments advisable and practicable? Some may say that teachers have nothing to do with politics. There could not be a greater mistake. The modern language teacher must deal with politics and civics. This raises the question whether a foreigner should be allowed to teach officially a foreign language in any country.—EDITOR.]

SECOND INTERIM REPORT OF THE SUB-COMMITTEE ON THE TEACHING OF EUROPEAN HISTORY.

THE History Sub-Committee has undertaken during the past year two definite pieces of work, of which the outcome will be best understood from the tables subjoined. For the first, it is indebted to the energy and kindness of Mr. Green, of the Perse School, on whose syllabus of History teaching the Committee was able to base the suggestions for supplementary work in French History, which it recommends in the accompanying remarks. The second consists of a summary of replies received from the Universities of Great Britain and Ireland as to the amount of European History taught in connection with the Modern Language course, and the Committee takes the opportunity here of thanking the Registrars of the Universities for their courtesy and readiness in answering

the questions addressed to them. Unlike last year, the Committee has secured a good personal attendance throughout 1915.

The Sub-Committee does not claim any authority in the drawing up of such a syllabus; that authority rests with the Historical Association. It wishes to show (1) how far the syllabus of the history expert will cover the ground with which the Modern Language pupil ought to be familiar, (2) how far the Modern Language teacher can supplement the work by co-ordination.

I. SYLLABUS OF ENGLISH HISTORY IN SCHOOLS FOR THE AGES OF 12-16.

FIRST YEAR (AGE 12-13 YEARS). ENGLISH HISTORY TO 1485.

Britain under the Romans (3 lessons).—What the Roman Empire was. Life in Roman Britain. Roman towns, camps, walls, cultivation, roads.

The Coming of the Anglo-Saxons (4 lessons).—Who the Angles and Saxons were. Their settlements and customs. How other Teutonic tribes invaded other parts of the Empire.

The Christian Mission (3 lessons).—What Christianity and the Church meant to the Anglo-Saxons. Stories (from Bede) of Augustine, Paulinus, Cuthbert, etc.

The Danish Invasions and the Uniting of England (4 lessons).—The Danes and their ravages. The work of King Alfred. The Danish settlements. King Canute. The settlements of Northmen on the Continent.

The Norman Conquest (4 lessons).—How Anglo-Saxon life developed before the Normans came. The difference that the Norman Conquest made.

Life in Norman England (10 lessons).—Feudalism. The King and his duties. Castles. Monasteries. The struggle of King and Archbishop (and of Pope and Emperor). Life on a Norman manor.

Henry II. and his Rule (3 lessons).—The Angevin Empire. Struggles with French. King Henry's work in England and Ireland. How a criminal was dealt with.

The Crusades (10 lessons).—What a Crusade was. The Crusading Orders. Richard's Crusade. General results of Crusades on East and West.

The King and his Power (4 lessons).—Definition of a good king and a bad king. John and Henry III. as bad kings. Edward I. as a good king. How Parliament came to be.

Wales and Scotland (6 lessons).—The conquest of Wales. The attempted conquest of Scotland. Balliol, Wallace, Bruce.

The French War (15 lessons).—Reasons and excuses for the war. The age of chivalry. The ideals of chivalry. Crécy and Poitiers. The free companies. The Black Prince, Chandos, du Guesclin. Froissart and his book.

English Life in Fourteenth Century (8 lessons).—Life in town and country. Trade. Pilgrims and Chaucer. Black Death and Peasants' rebellion. Papal power and John Wyclif.

The New French War (5 lessons).—Henry V.'s opportunity and success. The French revival. Joan of Arc. Effects of Hundred Years' War on England and France.

The End of Medieval England (5 lessons).—Wars of Roses. Disorder and cruelty. Warwick the King-Maker. Need of new ideals and motives.

Books studied in class: Bede's History (Blackie's English Texts); Scott, 'Tales of a Grandfather' (Macmillan's Texts); Froissart Chronicle (Simplified edition in Everyman's Library).

The course is planned out so that several weeks of the last term of each year are left free for revision.

FOURTH YEAR (AGE 15-16). ENGLISH HISTORY, 1815-1915.

The Economic Revolution (10 lessons).—The inventions of the eighteenth century and their application to industry. The new towns and their inhabitants. New methods in agriculture and their effects. War and industrial conditions. Social discontent after 1815.

The Reform Act.—Inequalities of old constitution. Social misery as a stimulus to political reform. Growth of Reform party. Reform Act. Continental movements, 1830-1832.

The Work of the Reformed Parliament (4 lessons).—Poor Law Reform, Municipal Reform, Factory Acts, Liberation of Slaves. Each of these measures can be made into a useful lesson in 'civics.'

The New Agitations (6 lessons).—Failure of political reforms to relieve economic misery—hence new movements. Chartism, a demand for more political experiments. Anti-Corn Law League, a demand for experiments in political economy.

The Revolutions of 1848 (3 lessons).—Causes leading to unrest in France, Italy, and Germany. Results of the movements.

The Near East and the Crimean War (5 lessons).—The Turk and his misrule. Movements for reform. Greek Independence. Jealousies of England, Austria, and Russia in the Balkan question. Causes of Crimean War. Its results.

India and the Mutiny (5 lessons).—Growth of British power from 1800. Conquest of Punjab. First Afghan War. Introduction of Western civilization into India. The Mutiny and its results. The East India Company.

The Uniting of Italy (5 lessons).—The difficulties. The work of Cavour, Garibaldi, and Victor Emanuel. Attitude of England and France. Napoleon's campaign. The Sicilian expedition.

The American War (5 lessons).—Growth of the United States from 1783. The constitution and the slave question. 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Abraham Lincoln. The War of Secession. Its effect on England.

The Formation of the German Empire (5 lessons).—The movement for unity. The difficulties. The wars with Denmark, Austria, France. The policy of Bismarck. Alsace-Lorraine.

The Near East (3 lessons).—Unrest in the Balkan States. Bulgarian atrocities. The Russian campaign. England's attitude and the Berlin Conference. Results of this.

The European Alliances, 1878-1914 (2 lessons).
 —The formation of the Triple Alliance—what it did for each Allied Power. The revival of France. Alliance of Russia and France. England's attitude to the alliances. Isolation and entente policies.

South Africa (7 lessons).—The story of South Africa from 1815. Racial problems. The Great Trek. The Boer Republics. Diamonds and gold. The work of Rhodes. The struggle of Briton and Boer. The Union of South Africa.

Egypt and the Sudan (4 lessons).—European interest in Egypt. Suez Canal. The English occupation of Egypt. Gordon and the Sudan. The remaking of Egypt by Lord Cromer. The reconquest of the Sudan by Lord Kitchener.

The Far East (5 lessons).—Early wars with China. The awakening of Japan. Wars of China and Japan. European interests in China. Port Arthur and Kiao-chau. Boxers and the International expedition. War of Japan and Russia. The Chinese revolution and the government of Yuan-Shi-Kai.

The Near East and the Great War (4 lessons).
 —The Balkan League and its victories. The break-up of the League. Russian and Austrian rivalries in the Peninsula. The murder of the Archduke. The War.

Some Current Questions in English Politics (4 lessons).—Free Trade, Ireland, the Suffrage, Social Reform, etc. These can be treated from the historian's, and not the partisan's, point of view.

Some Simple Description of the Government of the Empire (6 lessons).—Elections. Local and Central Governments. The Cabinet. Courts of Law. Colonies and how they govern themselves. India and Egypt and how they are governed.*

The above scheme of English History teaching will be seen to include many allusions, and much that goes a great deal further than allusions, to contemporary events in Europe. It is felt by the Committee that Modern Language teachers, working in a school where this or a similar scheme is adopted, will find that it gives a valuable background to their own teaching, and affords opportunities for considerable supplementary work in their own lessons. The methods that might be followed in such work were suggested in the Committee's First Interim Report (published in MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING, December, 1914), and therefore need not be rediscussed here; but the following table of parallel events and contemporary characters in French and English History has been drawn up by the Committee with a view to the correlation of the Historical and Modern Language teaching:

HISTORY LESSONS.

MODERN LANGUAGE LESSONS.

I. AGE 12-13.

The Romans. The Anglo-Saxons. The Christian Mission.
 The Danish Invasion.
 The Crusades.
 The French War.
 The Renewal of the Hundred Years' War.

Clovis. Charlemagne. Alcuin.
 Rollo. The Normans in France.
 St. Bernard. St. Louis.
 Bertrand du Guesclin.
 Jeanne d'Arc.

II. AGE 13-14.

The Forming of the great Nations.
 Henry VIII. and the Reformation.
 Wars of Religion. The Crisis of the Struggle.
 Beginning of North American Settlements.
 The Thirty Years' War.

Louis XI.
 François Ier. Calvin.
 Coligny. Henri IV.
 Cartier. Champlain. La Salle.
 Richelieu.

III. AGE 14-15.

The Age of Louis XIV.
 The American and Indian Questions.
 The French Revolution.

The great Men of the Period, from the French point of view.

* The complete syllabus will be found in *The School World*, September, 1915.

HISTORY LESSONS.

The Economic Revolution.
The Reform Act.

The Revolutions of 1848.

The Formation of the German Empire.

It will be noticed that the Committee is in favour of a personal, biographical treatment till stage four is reached.

The question of time is bound to figure largely in anything that concerns a school curriculum. The scheme of History lessons here given has been planned on a basis of three periods a week and one hour's preparation (the scheme of the Board of Education); but, in cases where this demand cannot be met, it will be found possible so to modify the programme as to work it in two periods. The system of parallel lessons by the Modern Language teacher presupposes a minimum of four French lessons a week during the years which the course is intended to cover. The Committee would strongly urge the need of adequate time being given to the work, if the idea of mutual help between the two branches of study is to have any chance of bearing fruit. There can be no doubt, in the light of present-day events, of the enormous value of such knowledge to every boy and girl in our schools; and it is interesting to note how peculiarly the sections of French History recommended for study seem fitted to the capacity and degree of attainment of the pupil. In the first place, the early history of any nation is, as regards its subject-matter, much more easily grasped by the childish mind than the later, more complicated, records, about which so much is known and so many discussions have arisen. And, further, from the point of view of language, the development of the French tongue runs

MODERN LANGUAGE LESSONS.

IV, AGE 15-16.

The Restoration. French Revolutions of 1830-32.
Means of communication in France. Agriculture. Industry.

The Revolution of 1848 and the Coup d'État.
The fall of the Second Empire; political, social, and economic causes.

The Foundation of the Third Republic.

parallel with the, at least, theoretical progress of the English learner of French, so that, beginning with the simply-told legends and stories of Frankish days, he or she should gradually be fitted by careful progressive teaching to appreciate the great questions of modern history in the language of those who were making it.

It is regrettable that similar work should not be carried out simultaneously in German. Owing, however, to the fact that the study of German is rarely undertaken in schools till a far later age than French, it is extremely unlikely that anything in the nature of German History could be taught in German before the last of the four years covered by the syllabus. By the age of fifteen, however, it should be found possible to begin such a study with stage four of the syllabus. The later years of school life should give scope for the working in of the points corresponding with the earlier History lessons. It must not be forgotten, moreover, that the boy or girl will have acquired some knowledge of Luther, the Thirty Years' War, Frederick the Great, etc., in these lessons, and will not therefore find himself embarking on an entirely strange adventure in his German lessons when beginning a course of German History at the nineteenth century.

II. In addition to this first syllabus, the Committee has had submitted to it from the same source a series of suggestions to cover the last three years of school life. It is inserted here, by no

TABLE OF ANSWERS RECEIVED FROM UNIVERSITIES OF GREAT
BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

		1. Are Lectures given on the general History of the Period whose Literature is set for Study?	2. Is such knowledge tested in the Trial or other Examination? and, if so, are the questions obligatory or optional?	3. If History as such is not required, are the works of Historians included in the course of Literature set?
Aberdeen ...	{ French German	Tutorial help. Yes.	Yes; obligatory. Yes; a two hours' paper.	
Aberystwyth	{ French	Yes; in connection with the literature.	No; but contemplated as part of Intermediate course.	Yes; occasionally.
	{ German	No information.	No information.	
Bangor ...	{ French	No.	No.	(It is hoped to introduce it as part of regular course of study.)
	{ German	No information.	No information.	
Belfast ...	{ French	Yes.	Yes; obligatory.	
	{ German	No information.	No information.	
Bristol ...	{ French	Yes; occasionally.	Yes; optional.	
	{ German	" "	" "	
Cambridge	{ French	No.	Essay required (3 hours) that may be on history or institutions of the country.	
	{ German	"		
Cardiff ...	{ French	No.	No.	Yes; occasionally.
	{ German	"	"	" "
University College, Cork	{ French	Yes.	Yes; optional.	Yes.
	{ German	"	" "	
Durham ...	{ French	Only in reference to the literature.	No; except as in 1.	Yes; occasionally.
	{ German		" " "	" "
Edinburgh	{ French	Yes.	Yes; obligatory.	
	{ German	"	" optional.	
University College, Galway	{ French	No.	No.	Yes.
	{ German	"	"	No.
Glasgow ...	{ French	Not in Modern Language Course, but European History lectures are given and often attended by Modern Language candidates.	No.	Yes; to some extent.
	{ German		"	" " "
Leeds ...	{ French	Yes; every three years.	Yes; in oral examination.	No.
	{ German	" " "		
Liverpool ...	{ French	Yes.	Yes; in Intermediate optional.	Yes; occasionally.
	{ German	No information.	No information.	
London ...	{ French	Yes; in connection with the literature.	Only as in 1.	Yes.
	{ German		" "	
Manchester	{ French	A course of Modern History is taken by nine-tenths of the Modern Language candidates for their Intermediate.	Yes; in Intermediate obligatory, and in an Essay; Final Honours. Also in German, in questions in Final Honours.	
	{ German			
Oxford ...	{ French	Yes.	Yes; obligatory.	
	{ German	"	" ; optional.	
St. Andrews	{ French	Yes (at Dundee).	Yes; obligatory.	
	{ German	No.	No.	

means as a finished product, but with a view to throwing light on the early part of the scheme. The Committee has, moreover, had no opportunity as yet of working out the part that directly concerns the Modern Language teacher, but it hopes to set others thinking, and to attract discussion and criticism that should be of great value for its next year's work.

HISTORY SCHEME CONTINUATION.

AGES 16-19.

A. At the age of sixteen the boy begins to specialize in Classics or Mathematics, Science, or Modern Languages, or History. It may reasonably be argued that History is a subject that should be common to all these specialists; and it is held that if three years are available, and a reasonable amount of time is assigned to the subject (two hours in school and two hours of preparation weekly), it is possible for a boy to gain an insight into half a dozen of the great epochs of world history. These epochs are suggested:

1. Greek History of the fourth century, B.C.
2. Roman History of the first century, B.C.
3. Medieval History from c. 1050 to c. 1250.
4. Renaissance and Reformation period.
5. The Revolutionary and Napoleonic period.
6. Contemporary History.

The boy who has given six months to the study of each of these periods has probably obtained as good an insight

into the great movements of history as a schoolboy can have. It would be useless to give a detailed syllabus for these epochs, but it may be remarked that any History teaching at this stage is a failure if it does not lead the boys to the reading of good historical literature, and to an understanding of the methods of historians.

If only two years are available, an increase in the time assigned to History will enable the whole scheme to be worked through—an ancient and modern period, for example, being taken in the same half-year.

B. In addition to the History that all study together, the specialists in Classics and Modern Languages should have additional History teaching in connection with their literary studies. The adoption of a definite scheme of historical instruction would enable the Language Master to know what additional instruction would be required to throw light on the literature he was taking with his specialists. It could be arranged between the Language Master and the History Master, who should give the instruction in the historical work, both of the general scheme and of the additional instruction.

III. Finally, below is appended the table of answers from Universities—a piece of work undertaken in pursuance of Professor Savory's suggestion made at the Annual Meeting in January last.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN JAPAN.

[THE following extracts from the Report of the Second English Teachers' Conference held in Tokyo in April, 1914, will, it is hoped, be found interesting and instructive. It is noteworthy that, with one prearranged exception, English was the language used by all speakers, and that English was constantly referred to as 'the International Language.']

Baron Kikuchi, in his presidential address, summarized the task before the Conference. After alluding to the general dissatisfaction

with the results of present-day education, more particularly of the teaching of English in the Middle Schools, he passed in review the difficulties in the way. Among these he mentioned the phonetic poverty of the Japanese language, in which the vowel sounds and consonants have been reduced to a minimum, the resulting lack of ear and slovenliness of utterance, the fear of being laughed at which condemns many Japanese to silence rather than running the risk of making mistakes, the lack of interest in the study of English for its own sake, arising from national

pride and self-sufficiency, the fact that most of the readers in use are badly compiled and ill-adapted to the age and needs of the students. In connection with this latter point, the Baron suggested that for the present text books with their childish stories it might be better to substitute continuous narratives, especially historical and biographical works, or simple, easy novels that would transport the student straight into the English-speaking world.

Next he dealt with the intrinsic obstacles, the radical difference of structure between English and Japanese, and the arbitrariness of English spelling. The difference of structure, he thought, makes the so-called direct or synthetic method impracticable, and renders it imperative to give students at the start a thorough grounding in elementary grammar.

Passing on to the all-important question of the aim to keep in view, the Baron admitted that as yet no consensus had been reached on that point. While the conservatives would have it that the Middle School should aim at giving the student a knowledge of written English and the key to the storehouse of English literature, the practical men ask, on the contrary, that the main object should be to make them fluent speakers. He seemed to think it would be possible to combine both objects without incurring the risk attendant upon running two hares at the same time. In the name of the Mombusho he invited the Conference to deliberate on the subject and try to solve that vexed question.

On the solution of that question, too, hangs the next point to which the Baron drew the Conference's attention—that is, where to place and how to distribute the foreign teacher, and how he can best co-operate with his Japanese colleagues. He referred to experiments he had intended to make at the Peers' School, but which he was prevented from carrying out by his transfer to another post. He had thought of putting all the English teaching of one class in charge of a foreign teacher for two or three years at least, without any help from a Japanese teacher, and of then turning the class over to a Japanese teacher and seeing what the result would be. He also intended the following year to start with a Japanese teacher in the same way. Though he had been unable to carry out his plans, he hoped that others, either in the Peers' School or in the schools attached to the Higher Normal Schools, would attempt something of the kind.

Baron Kikuchi was followed by Mr. J. Kano, Director of the Tokyo Higher Normal School, who laid great stress on the importance for

Japanese of a mastery of foreign languages, and especially of English, the world's commercial language. Japan now occupied such a position in the arena of world activities that she was committed not only to the maintenance of her national interests and individuality, but to a co-operation with others in the work of promoting human welfare and enlightenment.

All language students, but especially Japanese in the case of English, are hampered by feelings of fear and timidity, which may be attributed to the dissimilarities between the foreign language and the mother-tongue and to the lack of opportunities of hearing correct forms and of practice. The sole remedy for the first is 'a will to succeed and a faith in the power of perseverance.' To overcome the second, students must be encouraged to take every possible opportunity of coming into contact with correct speakers of English, and, failing that, to practise together as often as possible outside school hours, even though the language used is not faultless, and read English books during periods of leisure. Among the other suggestions Mr. Kano offered were a more extensive use of phonographic records for habituating the ear to good pronunciation and elegant diction, and the encouragement of letter-writing, an effective substitute for personal conversation and a valuable means of mutual benefit and assistance.

The last speaker at this session was Professor J. Lawrence, of the Tokyo Imperial University, whose subject was 'The Cultural Value of Modern Language Study.'

This cultural value, the Professor said, is both direct and indirect: direct, through the exercise it gives to some of the most important functions of the mind; indirect, through the acquaintance which it fosters with literature.

As regards the latter, it must suffice to say that the value depends largely on the use to which the language is put—that is, on the books read, which should be the works of those writers 'who have known and thought best.'

With regard to the direct value, modern language study does not affect the mind in a way essentially different from that in which the study of ancient languages affects it, unless the modern language is studied in the country in which it is spoken.

The value of 'picking up' a language, however, is small. The young foreign child brought up in a country, or the soldier quartered there, certainly attains a greater degree of fluency and speaks the language with a purer accent and idiom than the student who has worked with grammar and dictionary, and that without any

effort; but in the long-run the advantage lies wholly with the student, who by his painstaking labour gets the truer knowledge, and in the process gains more culture.

In the first place, he learns the priceless power of concentration, of voluntarily fixing his attention, without which he is unable to comprehend a single sentence in the foreign tongue. Secondly, by his study he strengthens and enlarges the memory with 'her siren daughters,' the faculties of ideation and association. The faculty of association, whether by proximity or by similarity, is kept continually busy whilst he is learning a language. By the former he learns to associate the foreign word with the 'thing' for which it stands, at first with the aid of the corresponding word in his own language, but ultimately without it; and by the latter, through the various processes of classification, generalization, etc., he learns to perceive affinities in the idioms and constructions of different languages.

And herein lies the value of grammar, 'the key that unlocks the sense of books,' whether on the practical side or as a means of philosophical training.

Each language having its own special character, the cultural value of the study of a language must depend in some measure on its nature. . . .

One thing that the ancient Greeks and Romans have pointed out to us as the proper course to pursue is to study our own language. Plato and Aristotle both spent time in the study of the grammar of their own language, and Julius Caesar devoted his leisure moments to the writing of a Latin grammar. We should, therefore, do well to see that a boy understands something of the nature of his own language before he is set to study a foreign tongue.

On the other hand, the study of a foreign language is almost essential for us, if we are to obtain a thorough knowledge of our own. By comparing the differences in the uses of words and idioms, we become acquainted with a fresh way of looking at things, thereby enlarging our culture.

The evening session was devoted to a consideration of the important topic, the teaching of grammar.

Mr. Sagawa said: I am bound to confess that, in spite of the pains taken by the Education Authorities and others, very little progress has been made in language teaching in this country. It is impossible, at this juncture, to hold anything like an optimistic view of the present or the future, but I am not prepared to go the length of those who, from despair and disappoint-

ment, propose to abolish the study of English from schools, except for a few specialists. Reforms are certainly needed, but the most important, in my opinion, is to decide in some tangible form *what to teach*.

This once decided, methods will follow. The one best suited to our needs is, I think, 'a serious and faithful study of grammar,' the word used in its widest sense to include 'every feature regarding the mechanical side of a language'—that is, what Professor Saito calls 'idiomology.'

I am aware that foreign teachers, almost to a man, advocate the so-called 'natural method,' and hold that grammar and translation are drawbacks rather than helps. 'Think in English' is their favourite phrase. To be able to *think* in a foreign language surely marks a very advanced stage of one's proficiency, attainable only after constant patient practice; for the average boy or girl of twelve or fifteen with a very limited vocabulary it is clearly an impossibility.

Such a method may be all very well for a German or a French boy learning a language cognate with his own; it will never do for a Japanese who is brought face to face with a language in every particular different from his mother-tongue, and whose object is something more than linguistic facility. Viewed in this light, grammar and translation are not only unavoidable, but if properly made use of are of very great service.

Complaints are frequently heard of the pupils' lack of interest in their study of English, especially of grammar. What is the cause? Is the subject, the teacher, or the pupil, to blame for this deplorable state of things? The study of grammar is not devoid of interest. A respectable student will not dislike an interesting subject, especially when it is necessary and instructive. The responsibility in the main rests with the teacher. He must himself be interested, and he must present his subject in an interesting way, calling to his aid every device he knows. In the first place he must pay the closest attention to his methods of explanation. 'How to explain' must be an all-absorbing thought with him. His explanations must be thorough and convincing, and he must see to it that his pupils have grasped his meaning. To this end he may make use of stories to illustrate his point, of suitable paraphrases, not mere dictionary definitions, to remove the difficulties of idioms peculiar to the English language, and of proverbs, good sayings, and other available expressions, which, besides illustrating the word, phrase, or construction, will enhance the moral value of language study.

Among the grammatical difficulties that the teacher has to deal with may be mentioned 'idiomatic transitive,' passives, subjunctives, relatives, reflexives, and the indirect narration.

Again, it is a great mistake to teach grammar by itself: it should keep touch not only with composition and translation, but also with etymology and orthography.

Grammar should, in my opinion, be taught by a Japanese teacher, who is better equipped than his foreign colleague through being able to avoid the use of technical grammatical expressions which are foreign to the pupil.

In conclusion, the teaching of a language so different from our own as English calls for colossal effort on the part of the teacher. Not only must he give his best to, and get the best out of, his pupils by the kindness of his manner and much sympathy, but he must be constantly preparing himself for further effort, widening his powers by thinking, reading, and writing. The trouble of to-day is not in the scarcity of teachers, but in the scarcity of really prepared teachers.

Mr. Yokochi began with a criticism of the two 'teaching schools,' the advocates of the 'natural method,' and those who stand for grammar.

The former, who hold that English should be learnt as the mother-tongue is learnt, and that the study of grammar should be postponed, he thought to be impracticable. Japanese pupils, whose reasoning faculty is developing by the time they begin the study of English, are not satisfied with learning by imitation only; they want to know the reason for the differences of speech. No grammatical instruction would mean overtaxing the memory and breed confusion.

The 'grammar' school, on the other hand, lays too much stress on terms and classifications; pupils learn the terms without understanding either their meanings or their uses.

What the Japanese pupils require is not theoretical grammar, but grammar auxiliary to the study of English—grammar as a means, not as an end. To that end, it is advisable in the earlier years to teach the substance of grammar only; and if terminology is required, the Japanese terms should be employed. By the time the pupils reach the third year, they have acquired a fragmentary knowledge of grammar, which can then be summarized and systematized. The inductive method should be employed throughout, thus leading the pupils to see that the rules are not arbitrary, but are the statements of the various laws that govern the English language. Grammar taught in this way becomes a help, not an *acumbrance*.

The subject of the morning's discussion on April 3 was—How the Teacher of English may improve himself, and how he may be aided in doing so.

Professor Muko began by pointing out the important distinction between a good teacher and a learned teacher. . . .

The question of the improvement of the teacher, he went on, has to be considered from three points of view: (1) his qualification as a teacher; (2) his acquaintance with the methods of teaching and his ability to teach; and (3) the nature of the students, who should be ripe enough to digest what is offered them.

A well-qualified teacher should have a broad education, with a good knowledge of English and of phonetics, elocution, philosophy, and the history of the English-speaking nations in all its aspects—religious, intellectual, and political; he should be well acquainted with the manners, customs, and institutions, of the English-speaking race, and familiar with Greek and Roman mythology and all that throws light on the meaning and significance of English literature; he should be able to distinguish between colloquial and good English, as well as between bad, though grammatically correct, Japanese and good, idiomatic Japanese.

As to method, the speaker declared himself a thorough-going reformist. He would have the teacher follow in his teaching the way children learn, and in order to adapt this method to the older students the teaching should begin with conversation combined with translation and grammar. The pupil should learn to speak and to understand by ear before being allowed to open his textbook and read. The proper order of procedure is: the teacher's exposition of the lesson, not by translating it, but in slow, careful speech, with gestures and questions and answers by himself; to this the pupils listen, afterwards repeating it and answering questions about it; then come reading, translation into good idiomatic Japanese, and reproduction from the blackboard; last of all, the syntactical analysis of the sentence and the etymological and orthographical study of the words are taken up. Through all this process there is little need of Japanese; in fact, the less Japanese is used, the more quickly will the pupils form the habit of thinking in English.

When occasion demands it, use should be made of the *hensoku* or word-for-word translation method, which is very helpful in comprehending the original, fundamental meaning of each word, and the relations of words to each

other, and in detecting similarities and differences between the two languages.

Professor Muko strongly disapproved of the custom still in vogue in many schools, of cutting up the teaching into several branches taught by different teachers or in different hours. In the earlier classes especially, conversation, reading, translation, dictation, grammar, and composition, must be taught side by side. Reading and conversation he would have entrusted entirely to a well-qualified foreign teacher. It is as great a mistake, however, to suppose every Englishman or American qualified to teach his own language as to imagine every Japanese coolie entitled to be a professor of Japanese in a foreign University. The foreign teacher should have enough knowledge of Japanese to understand the similarities and differences between the two languages.

Translation must be oral and written; but translation from Japanese into English does not take the place of composition, which must be begun from the English point of view. The pupils must acquire English thoughts together with the forms in which they are expressed.

Grammar must be taught by a Japanese teacher who is able to compare it with the grammar of his own language. It should begin with the study of the rules of the syntax and the structure of the sentence, not with accident and etymology. Besides the grammatical rules, which are simple enough, we must try to comprehend the logical, psychological, and æsthetic rules.

Passing on to the pupils, the Professor pointed out how handicapped they are in the study of English by defective training in their own language, which he attributed solely to the hampering influence of the Chinese characters. The teacher, however, could expect to achieve but little success without preparatory instruction in pedagogy, psychology, and sociology.

Professor Gerhard, addressing himself to the Japanese teacher, urged the necessity of a well-regulated plan of study and self-improvement, this plan to include careful and painstaking study of certain texts side by side with more rapid reading of easier material drawn from current magazines and periodicals and modern books, and much practice in writing English, in the form of letters, diaries, or reproduction, which might be afterwards compared with the originals.

The foreign teacher, while co-operating in every possible way, both in school and out, with his Japanese colleagues, and helping them over their difficulties, must see to it that he does not neglect his own culture. Besides qualifying himself for his own particular work, he has to counteract the

influence of the broken English he hears round him, and keep up his own standard by regular reading and study of the best literature.

The subject under discussion at the morning session on Saturday, April 4, was the question propounded by the Department of Education, 'How to Arouse a Deeper Interest in the Study of English on the Part of Pupils.'

Mr. S. Ibaraki, of the Department of Education, said that a few years ago he had made an interesting investigation on the time spent by Middle School pupils in preparation and review. He had had the pupils report for a week the time spent on every subject. He found mathematics took 34 per cent., English 32, and all the other studies the remaining 34 per cent., of the pupils' time. But the time devoted to a subject must not be taken as a measure of the interest taken in it, for the work may be considered as mere drudgery. It was undoubtedly a fact that the returns of the examinations showed unsatisfactory results. He thought the vocabulary in the various readers, between 3,000 and 4,000 words, too limited for the time devoted to English. How far the vocabulary could be enlarged was an important question. It was necessary to arouse greater interest, and for the purpose to improve the material, the methods of work in the classroom and outside, specially the methods of preparing for lessons. The pupils must be habituated to an English atmosphere, and for that purpose he suggested that history and geography might to some extent be taught through the medium of English.

Professor Kimura (Yamaguchi Higher Commercial School) read the first paper. In it he also pointed out that while the importance of English was fully recognized in the distribution of hours in the school course, yet it could not be denied that the progress was not what might be expected. There were various causes to account for the fact, the principal being the absence of interest on the part of the pupils. English was the most difficult branch. The study of it was considered as a most disagreeable necessity to get through examinations. Many found it an intolerable tyranny. He recently put three questions to his classes:

1. Which subject did they like best?
2. Were they interested in English or not?
3. What were the advantages of knowing English?

Only 94 of 307 liked English best, 103 were interested in the study, but were discouraged on account of the difficulty. The rest of them confessed frankly to a dislike of it. The reasons

given were various: It was too difficult; the teacher was too severe, or the textbook babyish and uninteresting; the study of English was harmful and injurious to the development of their own national character. All of them agreed that it was eminently valuable for success in practical life and as a means of general culture.

Referring to the difficulties of English, Professor Kimura thought they were of two kinds: (1) in the language itself, and (2) in the want of a proper guide in learning it. With regard to the former, the complexities and complicated grammatical structure of English, so different from that of Japanese, worried and discouraged even those who were most interested in it; they disliked grammar and composition, even though they could translate fairly well. As regards the latter, though there were in existence many excellent textbooks and dictionaries, and though the different methods that in turn became popular each had its merits, these alone could do but little in eliminating the difficulties. What was necessary was interest and courage. Language students should be encouraged and stimulated; they should be reminded that the study of English meant something more than the mere preparation for passing entrance examinations into higher schools or to satisfy the desire for vain display of learning. The study of English literature was well worth the effort required, in order to reach the thoughts and information contained in it. Everyone could learn English if he became interested in it, though one might learn quicker than another.

Passing on to suggestions of a more practical nature, Professor Kimura said he thought the study of the language should follow the natural order, the spoken language first; the written forms not to be tackled till the pupil had made some progress in the colloquial. He also thought that the customary division of the class work into several branches—translation, composition, grammar, etc.—was a mistake and unnecessary; too much time was wasted on grammar and advanced composition work. He rather recommended that composition should be taught in connection with translation, should take the form of *précis*-writing, letters, etc., all based on work which was already familiar; the necessary knowledge of grammar, too, could be taught through simple exercises. Translation, he said, was a very useful exercise, but it should at first be word for word, and then literal; and when the pupils had understood the meaning thoroughly well, free or the real translation might be attempted. To be a good translator of English, however, it was

necessary that one should have a thorough knowledge of one's own language and literature.

Other suggestions that Professor Kimura offered were—Sight-reading of some easier text without dictionaries, by which pupils could measure the progress they had made; learning new words and phrases, in the earlier stages, by comparison with the Japanese equivalents; teaching European history, geography, and natural science, through the medium of English; varying the textbook with articles from the daily papers and contemporary magazines; and a fair average rate of speed—not too fast or too slow. Last, but not least, Professor Kimura emphasized the attitude of the teacher, which, he said, counted for more than all the methods in the world. The teacher should have sympathy and enthusiasm, and by his scholarship and ability inspire confidence in his pupils to tackle their difficulties with courage and eagerness.

Mr. K. Watanabe (Kagoshima Middle School) followed with a paper in which he dealt at length with the last point made by the previous speaker. The cultivation of interest, he thought, depended on the two complementary factors—the right spirit of the teacher and the right method of teaching. The former was the more important; the right spirit would lead the teacher to adopt the right method, for his work was in the main of a spiritual character, the contact of mind with mind and heart with heart.

This right spirit, Mr. Watanabe went on, shows itself in keen interest in the study of English and desire for self-improvement; in cheerfulness under all circumstances, with smiles or words of approval not only when a pupil succeeds, but often when he fails; in sympathy, seeing with the eyes of the pupils and feeling with their hearts, remembering one's early difficulties, and judiciously assigning questions to suit both the quick and the slow pupil; and in patience, bearing in mind that, though improvement and development are not apparent after the spurt of the earliest years, they are no doubt there.

Professor P. A. Smith, formerly of Hiroshima Higher Normal School, reminded teachers that a certain proportion of their pupils never would know English, however long they studied. There were others who would learn the language in spite of the teacher. The majority would learn if their attention and interest were aroused. The teacher should be careful of the bashful boy, who needed encouragement, but should be on the watch to spot the listless one, and be ready to rouse him by shooting questions at him. Drill in the use of words should be made easy, but not overdone. The dictionary should be kept out of

the classroom; the English used should be grammatical and not overloaded with idiom. Don't give the pupil 'idiomatic indigestion.'

At a subsequent session the following reply to the Department of Education, drafted by the Committee, was presented to the Conference by the chairman (Professor P. A. Smith) and unanimously approved:

The subject proposed for our discussion was, 'How to Arouse a Deeper Interest in the Study of English on the Part of Pupils.' The facts which confront us when we investigate this question are, in the main, the following:

1. The task of teaching English to Japanese students is a very difficult one, on account of the complexity of the language and the great difference between it and the native tongue of the student.

2. There are many students who are indifferent to, and not a few who are actually opposed to, or have a dislike for, the study of English, and the attitude of these students tends to deaden the interest of their fellows in their work.

3. The interest of the students lessens year by year from the beginning of the secondary school course to the end.

4. This indifference, opposition, or dislike, on the part of the students, hinders, or even absolutely prevents, the teacher of English from doing as good work as he ought to do, considering the amount of time and effort that is spent on the study of this language.

5. Many methods of various kinds have been tried, with greater or less skill, by many teachers, and yet we have not attained the success that we feel should be the result of our labours if we worked along the most efficient lines; for the knowledge of English of the average graduate of a secondary school is at present the object of much well-deserved criticism for its lack of thoroughness and general inadequacy.

6. When, finally, in spite of all difficulties, inherent or otherwise, the language is once mastered, it is of almost incalculable value in the moral, mental, and even physical development of the individual, and therefore of the nation.

In view of these facts, we respectfully submit the following suggestions as to ways and means by which a state of higher efficiency in the work of teaching English in our secondary schools may be brought about. Some of these suggestions deal with the most fundamental part of our work, while others are little more than devices for the use of the individual teacher in the classroom. But we hope that each and every one of these items may be of at least some small value

in remedying the present very unsatisfactory state of affairs.

Our suggestions are as follows:

1. As regards classroom work—

(a) A greater effort should be made by the teacher in his work, and he should have more sympathy with his pupils.

(b) Better use should be made of the student's natural curiosity.

(c) Questions should be adapted to the individual ability of the students without making this fact known to them.

(d) Competitive contests of various kinds should be arranged, and, when advisable, prizes should be given.

(e) Etymological analysis of words should be taught.

(f) Technical grammatical terms should not be used too much in the first-year classes.

(g) Lessons should be better adapted to the ability of the students.

(h) Selections from the daily newspapers should be used for reading lessons, and easy books should be provided for sight reading.

(i) The teaching of the poems in the textbooks should not be omitted.

2. As regards home work for the students—

(a) Students should practise letter-writing, and should exchange letters with students of other schools.

(b) Students should be encouraged to associate as much as possible with foreigners, as in English societies, Bible classes, etc.

3. General suggestions—

(a) The number of subjects in Middle Schools should be reduced so as to give more time for private study.

(b) The study of *Kambun* should be deferred until about the fourth year of the school course, but this is not intended to exclude the teaching, in the *Kokugo* construction, of such Chinese words and phrases as may be deemed necessary.

(c) A smaller quantity of work should be required in the English courses, in order that the work which is done may be more thorough.

(d) Those who conduct the examinations or entrance to schools of higher grade should give assurance that a knowledge of difficult technical terms of grammar will not be necessary in order to pass these examinations.

(e) These examiners should also be asked to confer with Secondary School Teachers as to what these entrance requirements should be, and how they can best be met.

(f) English should sometimes be taught through the aid of other subjects, such as history, geography, etc.

(g) Textbooks published in England or America should have preference over those published in

Japan, because of their distinct foreign atmosphere.

(h) Japanese teachers should be urged to perfect themselves in their own language.

(To be concluded.)

FROM HERE AND THERE.

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

CAMBRIDGE.—The following awards have been made at Girton College: A Fourth Year Scholarship to Miss A. K. Barlow (Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, Class I., in Russian, 1915); the Sir Owen Roberts Prize, allocated to Girton College for the year 1915 by the Worshipful Company of Clothworkers, to Miss M. D. Mackie (Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, Class I., 1915, with special distinction in French and in German); the Charity Reeves Prize for English to Miss F. M. Tann (Medieval and Modern Languages Tripos, Class I., English Literature, 1915); the Fanny Metcalfe Memorial Prize for Modern Languages students in their second year to Miss D. Everett (Intercollegiate Examination, Class I., 1915).



LONDON.

The death is announced, at the age of seventy-three, of the CHEVALIER LUIGI RICCI, a Garibaldi veteran, teacher of Italian, and a Professor in London University.

The Chevalier was the eldest son of Count Ricci d'Avalos, Marquis of Pescara, Grandee of Spain of the First Class. He was educated at Pisa and Padua, and left the Royal Military College to join Garibaldi, for whom he raised at his own cost a troop of the 1st Squadron Guide Italian Volunteers in the war of 1866. In the Franco-German War he offered his services to the French; during the siege of Paris he was Captain in the 238^e Bataillon de Guerre, 46^e Bastion. He was wounded at the battle of La Bourget. When the present war broke out he offered a Foreign Legion to the War Office, and within a fortnight enrolled 200 officers and 3,000 men, for which he received the thanks of the Army Council. He also served as Secretary of the British Committee in aid of the Italian wounded.

Chevalier Ricci had spent more than forty years in England, and engaged in many literary and educational enterprises. He founded the Dante Society in 1881, and the Genealogical and Biographical Society twenty years later. He became Professor at the University of London, Lecturer

to the London Society for the Extension of University Teaching, and Chairman of the Board of Examiners (Italian) to the University of London. Among his published works were several Italian grammars and readers, 'lives' of Giotti, Raphael, and Titian, and *Fair Women in the Divine Comedy*.



In connection with the establishment of a School of Slavonic Studies at King's College, the thanks of the Senate of the University of London have been accorded to the Royal Serbian Government for a grant of £100, to an anonymous donor for a gift of £200, and to Dr. Seton Watson for an offer to provide for the library Slavonic works other than Russian.

The thanks of the Senate have also been accorded to Mrs. H. C. Gooch for an offer to raise £383 towards the endowment of the Department of Italian at King's College, and to Miss Rennie for the gift to that college of a collection of books and a bookcase, the property of her late stepfather, Mr. J. R. Cockerell.

It was resolved, upon his retirement from the Chair of Russian at King's College, Mr. Nicholas Orloff shall receive the title of Emeritus Professor.



At the Royal Holloway College the following awards have been made: A Scholarship of £60 for three years to Miss M. B. Burt, French and German (Croydon High School for Girls). Scholarships of £50 for three years to Miss H. Drury, English (County Secondary School, Fulham); Miss H. Halsall, English and History (St. Winifred's, Eastbourne); Miss D. Hancock, German, with credit for French (Manchester High School); Miss G. Watts, History (Coborn School); Miss M. Whitaker, English, with credit for History (North London Collegiate School).



ABERDEEN.—The King has been pleased, on the recommendation of the Secretary for Scotland, to approve the appointment of Mr.

ADOLPHUS ALFRED JACK, M.A., LL.M., formerly Fellow of St. Peter's College, Cambridge, to be Professor of English Literature in the University of Aberdeen, in place of Professor Herbert J. C. Grierson, who has resigned.

Mr. A. A. Jack, who is a son of Professor William Jack, the holder of the Chair of Mathematics at Glasgow University (1879-1909), was educated at Fettes and Glasgow University, afterwards coming South to Cambridge. He was born in 1868, and married in 1902 a daughter of Professor John Nichol, who, from 1862 to 1889, filled the Chair of English Literature at Glasgow. He is a barrister and quite a considerable author. He has been lecturer on English Language and Literature at Queen Margaret College (Women's Department), University of Glasgow; Clark Lecturer at Trinity College, Cambridge; and Staff Lecturer to the Extension Board of London University.



BIRMINGHAM.—Professor F. Polderman, of Mons, has been appointed for one year to take charge of the French Department, in the absence of Professor Châtelain (since deceased) and M. Demy, who are on military service.



The death is announced of M. ALFRED MÉZIÈRES, the distinguished Academician. He died at Rehon, Meurthe et Moselle, in land still occupied by the Germans. Mézières was a man of rare influence, whose advocacy was especially valuable because of his persuasive powers. He was the author of several books of literary criticism, notably of a critical history of English literature. He was the author also of works entitled *Predecessors and Contemporaries of Shakespeare*, *Shakespeare*, and *Contemporaries and Successors of Shakespeare*. Mézières was likewise well known by his many studies in Italian literature. He was a native of Lorraine, and was forty-four years of age in 1870. The loss of Lorraine then made a deep impression on him, but he never for a moment lost faith in France. In the *Temps* of October 12 an appreciation was published that was written a few years ago by Jules Claretie. In the course of it he said: 'Throughout, this militant orator, writer, and journalist-deputy remains an optimist. He foresees dangers, but does not fear them. History has taught him never to despair of France.'



The following, which has been sent by a correspondent to the *Pall Mall Gazette*, is interesting when taken in connection with Monsieur Mielle's article in this number: 'The language problem and the doubt whether Germans should or should

not be boycotted have revived the proposal made fifteen years ago at the International Congress of Modern Languages that England, France, and North America should agree to a proposition by which the study of English should be compulsory in all French schools, and the study of French compulsory in all British and American schools. It is claimed that, were this scheme to be carried into effect after the war, English and French would dominate the world, and every other language would eventually die out altogether. The proposition may seem somewhat one-sided in a way, seeing that some 150 millions own English as their mother-tongue, as against only 50 millions for French. The grace, polish, and pliability of the Gallic tongue should, it is argued, amply compensate for this, not to take into account the fund of knowledge opened up by the practice of French, at once the richest and the most classical of languages—at least, so its champions assert.'



The course of lectures in French by M. Augustin Hamon at Birbeck College on 'Les Leçons de la Guerre Mondiale,' of which the first was given on November 11, will be followed by a Second Course during the Easter Term, if a sufficient number of students present themselves.



Mr. J. P. R. Marichal, lately Lecturer of Romance Philology at Queen's University, Canada, and, with his wife and three children, a survivor of the *Lusitania*, has now resumed duties in the French Army, and has gone to the Front.



We regret to announce the death of Lieutenant V. G. Starkey, 7th King's Own Yorkshire Light Infantry, who was killed in action in October. He was an able Modern Language scholar, bred at Harrow and Balliol, who studied for some years at the University of Berlin, and gained a degree with great distinction for a work on the dialects of Rumania. Before the war he was Professor of Romance Languages at Hartley University College, Southampton.



Mr. C. Potts, of Manchester Grammar School, is at the War Office.

Miss Dobbs, of Redland High School, is going abroad with the Red Cross.



Mr. L. A. Triebel, just elected to the Association, is serving with the 24th Field Ambulance in France.

DEAR SIR,—I think that readers of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING may be interested to hear that the *cours* of the *Guilde Internationale*, Paris, are in progress; that lectures at the Sorbonne will begin at the usual time; and that the examinations of the Sorbonne and the *Guilde*

Internationale will take place at the end of the year.

V. A. PRIDEAUX.

119, Rue Notre des Champs,
Paris, VI^e.

PARENTS' NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL UNION.

THE nineteenth annual conference of the Parents' National Educational Union was held this year in London, on June 15 and 16.

'The Union,' to quote from the Report for 1915, 'aims at giving opportunities for the study of educational problems, and a meeting-ground for intercourse between parents, teachers, and all who are interested in Education. Special stress is laid on the use of the word Education, in its widest sense, as meaning not instruction only, but the development of the whole nature, on the underlying principle that "character is everything." The two functions of Education, as it is understood by the Union, are the presentation of ideas and the formation of habits.'

The head of the school (founded in 1891) is Miss Charlotte M. Mason, of the House of Education, Ambleside, who has thought out the curriculum, and who is entirely responsible for it. The school has taken for its motto the following: 'I am, I can, I ought, I will,' and it is worked upon the principle (to quote once more from the Report) 'that children should be educated upon *things* and *books*.' Miss Mason has therefore given great care and thought to the compiling of the curriculum, and her aim is to secure that 'great attention shall be given to field work, handicrafts, art studies, and to the selection of the best books.'

The House of Education at Ambleside, founded in 1891, exists as a secondary training college for candidates who, having received a sound education, wish to qualify as teachers in the Parents' Union School either as primary governesses or secondary governesses.

The gathering was an unqualified success, and the little folk, with all the delightful spontaneity of childhood, soon made friends and worked away happily side by side both in the classrooms and out of them.

In order to give an opportunity for experiencing this sense of comradeship to some children of the Parents' Union School who were unfortunately unable to attend the Winchester gathering, the promoters of this year's conference decided that one of the days should be a children's day, and so at 10.30 on Tuesday,

June 15, about 150 children assembled in the big hall of the Y.M.C.A., Tottenham Court Road.

The proceedings began by the singing of a hymn, learnt specially for this year's gathering by all the children present. Then, after a short address by the Hon. Mrs. Franklin, boys and girls trooped off to the different classrooms allotted to them for the morning. The lessons were given by teachers, each one of whom had been trained at Ambleside, and who are now working as governesses in some branch of the Parents' Union School.

It would be difficult to single out individuals for special praise when so much was so good; but one thing stands out clearly as the result of the morning's observations, and it is this—that, in spite of the rather distracting entrances and exits of parents and others admitted to listen to the lessons and to criticize methods, etc., the attention of the children never seemed to flag or to be diverted from the subject-matter in hand, and the answers were as free from self-consciousness and as unconstrained as if the children had been in their own home schoolrooms. All this speaks volumes in praise of a method or system—call it what one will—which manages to instil into the children such precious habits of concentration.

One other and rather striking feature of the answers was the power of expression possessed by most of the children, and the extent of their vocabulary. In discussing this point later with some of the teachers, one came to the conclusion that it was the result of giving the children the opportunity of reading *for* and *by themselves*, and from very early stages, good and well-written books. If this power of expression is the outcome of following Miss Mason's guidance in the choice of books for the use of the children, she is to be congratulated most heartily.

The annual meeting, under the able chairmanship of the Hon. Mrs. Franklin, took place in the evening. A good audience gathered to hear Sir James Yoxall, Mr. Cloudesley Brereton, and Miss Julian, speak upon 'Impressions of the Morning Lessons,' and a discussion followed on 'The Methods of the Parents' Union School.' Representatives of the London County Council,

the National Union of Teachers, and the Board of Education, had been present at the lessons, and speeches and discussion had attentive listeners.

It is interesting to note that two elementary schools in the North of England have adopted Miss Mason's curriculum, and have endeavoured to put into practice the principles followed by the Parents' Union School. The result appears to have been successful and gratifying.

On Wednesday, June 16, in the absence of Mr. Stephen Paget through illness, his interesting paper on 'The Meaning of War to Children' was read by a member of the P.N.E.U. This paper is shortly to appear in the *Cornhill Magazine*.

Miss Fairfield, of the Christian Students' Movement, then spoke on the moral lessons to be drawn from the war, and on the necessity for putting our house in order before we forget what we have learnt from this terrific upheaval.

In the afternoon addresses on 'The Children and the War: a Problem of Education,' by the Rev. Canon Masterman, and by Professor Caroline Spurgeon on 'The Privilege of Living in War-Time,' concluded a well-organized and very enjoyable conference.

V. PARTINGTON,
F. M. S. BATCHELOR.

REVIEWS.

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

On the Writing of English. By G. T. WARNER. Blackie and Son.

This is a delightfully stimulating book. It is not in the usual dry style of English composition manuals, with all their divisions and sub-divisions. It is written by a Harrow master in the chatty manner of the classroom, so that the reader has no difficulty in picturing to himself the actual lesson. The author has a terse and epigrammatic, even a dramatic, way of making his points which is humorous and arresting. He answers the expressed and unexpressed objections and remarks of the pupils in a way likely to evoke thought, and lead the pupil to self-expression. The book is divided into three parts—On what to Expect; On Pitfalls; Of Merits—and a long Appendix, in which some styles are considered. Of the author's method, one example may suffice:

'Don't write too many coupled sentences.

'There are other tricks with *and*'s.

'There is the outpouring habit. The writer is not content with A+B, but goes on and adds other principal sentences (C+D+E), till he fills a page with a sort of boa-constrictor of a sentence, coil on coil, and the tail of it not yet in sight. . . .

'Don't string *and*'s. "He was magnificent, affable, and loquacious, and succeeded by his son Adolphus the Fifth."

'Two things here: the second *and* joins together two sentences that have no business to be joined. Think why.'

Lowland Scotch as Spoken in the Lower Strathern District of Perthshire. By Sir JAMES WILSON. Oxford University Press.

It is hardly necessary to say that works of this kind are of the highest importance in the study of our language. Dialects are fast disappearing, owing to the spread of education, and it will

soon be impossible to make complete records of them. In the reviewer's native district, hundreds of words and expressions which were familiar to to him as a youth are now rarely heard. The younger generation has often assumed a veneer of town speech, and their elders imitate them with an unpleasant result. The work before us has been thoroughly done, and is a serious and scholarly contribution to the study of Scotch dialects. Sir James has not attempted to record with absolute and minute correctness the pronunciation of the dialect, but has given a carefully accurate account of it which will satisfy anyone but the fastidious phonetician. The notation employed is that of the I.P.A., with a few exceptions. The first part of the work deals with the sounds and grammar of the dialect. The second consists of extensive lists of words arranged in categories and in three columns—written and spoken English and Scotch. Even the reader who is not interested in dialects may find profit and amusement in the quaint expressions and proverbs, of which there is good selection.

An Italian Dictionary. By ALFRED HOARE. Pp. xvi+663. Large 4to. With a concise English-Italian vocabulary. Pp. cxxxv. Price £2 2s. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1915.

This monumental work is so welcome and so necessary to English students of Italian that fault-finding would be almost invidious. Nor have we found much room for complaint, or many errors and omissions. It bears the impress everywhere of careful scholarship. Two sizes of print are used, the large for the head words and all necessary meanings and explanations, and a smaller type for the derivatives, of which the meanings are not given when they are self-

evident. Obsolete words, accentuation, and etymology are all indicated. We anticipate that in the near future there will be a revival of the study of Italian, with its glorious literature, which has lost little of its pristine vigour. This Dictionary will be a fit and indispensable accompaniment to such a study.

A Guide to the English Language: Its History, Development, and Use. By various writers, under the Editorship of H. C. O'NEILL. Pp. 455. Price 5s. London: T. O. and E. O. Jack.

This book will, if we mistake not, prove the indispensable vade-mecum of every student and writer of English. It gives not merely a comprehensive treatise on English grammar, style, composition, and literature, with miscellaneous information, such as letter-writing, printing, familiar quotations, foreign words and phrases, synonyms, etc., but the first seventy-five pages are devoted to a very full study of the phonology and philology of the language which is necessary to its intelligent comprehension. The treatment of the sounds of the language is perfectly trustworthy and up-to-date. The book is well printed, and, in spite of its size, light. We congratulate the editor and publishers on having produced a really good book.

Bug-Jargal. By VICTOR HUGO. Edited, with Notes and Exercises, by R. R. N. BARON. Mills and Boon.

This story, written when the author was a schoolboy of sixteen, has been well edited for school use, for which it is very suitable. The Notes and Vocabulary are in French, and are arranged as they occur, not alphabetically. The Exercises are particularly good, and include a sufficient amount of word-formation.

C'est la Guerre. Six nouvelles par MARC CÉPPI. Bell and Sons.

These are humorous tales, founded on fact, of incidents connected with the present war. They contain a rich store of useful idiomatic expressions. There are no notes or exercises. There is not even a *Questionnaire*. The stories are, however, provided with a French-English vocabu-

lary. The printing and sketches are both excellent.

Leaders of English Literature. By A. F. BELL. Pp. 280. Price 2s. net. Bell and Sons.

The idea on which this series of readings is based is an excellent one, and is, on the whole, well carried out. We cannot do better than quote from the introduction: 'It will touch only on the more remarkable and characteristic writers of each period, particularly on those who brought some new idea or way of expressing an idea into our literature. Over such writers we shall linger, trying to grasp exactly what their ideas or ways of expression were, how they differed from the ideas and ways of expression of other men, and what influence they had upon their own times and the times that came after them. Especially we shall try to understand those great and characteristic writers who were leaders or helpers in important literary movements, where new ideas and new ways of expression were caught by enthusiastic young disciples from the teaching and practice of some great master.' The author makes an interesting contrast between French and English literature in this respect. A point very important, but often neglected by critics, is the study of the writers in relation to the social and political life of the period. Too much stress can hardly be laid on this feature. The whole range of English literature, from Chaucer to Swinburne, is treated, with the exception of Victorian prose, which the author considers too complicated to be dealt with in a volume of moderate compass.

Bell's Annotated English Classics for Examination Candidates. Edited by S. E. WINBOLT. Price 1s. 6d. each. Bell and Sons.

The editing of these volumes is careful and thorough, and the printing good. They are not over-burdened with unnecessary introductory matter or notes, though these are quite adequate. The volume of selections from Tennyson has been particularly well done. The Burke volume contains his famous speeches on America. The other volumes that have appeared are Milton's *Paradise Lost* (I. and II.), and Spenser's *Faerie Queen* (I.).

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A MEETING of the Executive Committee was held at University College, London, on Saturday, October 30.

Present: Mr. H. L. Hutton (chair), Miss Batchelor, Mr. von Glehn, Miss Hart, Messrs. Mansion, Perrett, O. H. Prior, J. G. Robertson, Twentyman, and the Hon. Secretary.

The minutes of the last meeting were read and confirmed.

The programme of the General Meeting was completed.

In consequence of the withdrawal of the proposal to abolish the halfpenny post, the question of the reprinting of the Exhibition Catalogue

was reconsidered. The matter was referred back to the Exhibition Sub-Committee.

It was agreed to guarantee £6 towards the expenses of the conference.

The following four new members were elected :
L. A. Triebel, M.A., Roan School, Greenwich.
Miss Jean Kyle, B.A., Rochelle School, Cork.
A. Weston Priestley, County Education Office, Worcester.

D. Richardson, M.A., Sedbergh School.
The following nine members of the General Committee will retire by rotation at the end of the year, and will not be eligible for re-election till after the lapse of a year : Miss Backhouse, Miss Batchelor, Professor Fiedler, Miss A. L. Hargraves, Miss Pechey, Miss Shearson, Mr. A. A. Somerville, Mr. A. E. Twentyman, Professor R. A. Williams.

Nominations of candidates to fill these vacancies should be sent to the Hon. Secretary, 11, Denmark Terrace, Brighton, by December 1.

The Annual General Meeting will be held at the University of London on Wednesday and Thursday, January 5 and 6, 1916.

PROGRAMME.

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 5.

- 10 a.m. General Committee.
11 a.m. General Meeting (Business).
12 noon. Presidential Address : Mr. Edmund Gosse, C.B., LL.D.
2.15 p.m. 'Teaching of Modern European History in Connection with Modern Languages.' Professor Hearnshaw (King's College, London); Miss Neroutsos (Cambridge Training College for Women); Mr. H. L. Hutton (Merchant Taylors' School); Mr. A. J. B. Green (Perse School).
5 p.m. Address by Professor Trophimov (King's College, London) : 'A. Chekhov and Modern Russian Drama.'

THURSDAY, JANUARY 6.

- 10 a.m. 'Methods of Treating a Reading Text in the Middle Forms.' Mr. E. J. A. Groves (Bradford Grammar School); Miss A. L. Hargraves (St. Saviour's and St. Olave's School for Girls), and others.
12.15 p.m. 'The Work of the Institut Français.' Mme. D'Orliac-Bohn.

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.; the annual subscription is 4s. 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, Cuirathain, 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, 7, South Hill Mansions, London, N.W. (Address till Christmas : 11, Denmark Terrace, Brighton.)

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: Miss HART, County Secondary School, Sydenham Hill Road, S.E.
Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, County School, Wood Green, N.

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

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THE SPEECH-SOUNDS OF ENGLISH: THEIR DETERMINATION AND NOTATION.

(Concluded from p. 192.)

EVIDENTLY the definition of the elements so far reached will not serve alone as a guide to their determination. If we study the acoustic effect of the sounds with or without the manner of their production, we shall be led into making a far greater number of distinctions than could ever be useful for literary purposes; or at all events such distinctions are made, as witness the fifty-six vowels of the Oxford Dictionary. These sounds are all supposed to be used in Standard English, and may possibly be desirable for a very refined pronunciation, though for my part I think otherwise; but no one would suggest their being all printed in our books or taught in schools. The same difficulty confronts us here as occurs in all classifications of the products of organic nature, an infinite number of differences of all degrees of importance, out of which we have to select such as are of specific value, counting the rest to be incidental to mere variations of the several species. With speech-sounds the main criterion of specific difference is clear enough. As a rule only those sounds are to be reckoned distinct species which serve to distinguish words. Amended to this effect the definition will run: Elementary sounds are those which

give a clear acoustic impression of unity, and are used to distinguish words. This last qualification is one that has not been duly observed in tabulating the elements. For example, all writers agree in associating three sounds at least with the letter *o*—the two static vowels in *not* and *nought*, and the kinetic vowel in *note*; and the differences of these are the only distinctions between the words, which but for them would be homophones. The three sounds are therefore unquestionably elements. Some writers however, as for instance Miss Soames in her *Introduction to Phonetics* (1891), have added a fourth kind of *o*, occurring in *omit* and *window*, while Professor Jespersen, in his *English Grammar* (vol. i., 1909), not recognizing this addition, counts another fourth kind of *o* in *autumnal*. But neither of these sounds ought to be reckoned a fourth species of *o*. Of neither of them can it be said, so far as I know, that it serves to distinguish words. Though they are not exactly like any of the three elementary *o*'s, their differences are not of the same order as those by which the elements are distinguished, but consist or originate merely in stress. The *o* of *window*, and that of *omit* if and when it is an *o* at all, are merely the *o* of *note* and *ode* pro-

nounced without stress, and that of *autumnal* is similarly an unstressed variety of that in *nought*, *orb*, and *autumn*. The first *o* of *dodo* is that of *ode*, and the second that of *window*, but are they not rightly regarded as the same sound uttered with and without stress? Similarly Sweet distinguished the two vowels of *pity*, and no doubt they are not exactly alike. But the same two sounds occur in *ridicule* in the same order, and in *ridiculous* in reversed order; yet all we do in passing from one word to the other is to shift the stress from the first to the second syllable, any other difference being incidental to this and quite involuntary. Similar objections apply to several other sounds introduced by phoneticians into their lists. Professor Jespersen for instance distinguishes six vowels which apparently never occur except in unstressed syllables, and result merely from unstressed or weakly stressed and consequently laxer pronunciation. These are the second vowels of *pity*, *pitying*, and *ever*, and the first of *artistic*, *whoever*, and *autumnal*. The Oxford Dictionary goes still further, recognizing sixteen 'obscure' vowels, which all appear to result from the unstressed pronunciation of others, and most, if not all, to have been practically superseded either by the dull vowel of *soda*, or by an unstressed *i*, the two sounds which alone distinguish *turbot* from *turbit* and *surplus* from *surplice*. It should be recognized that all the vowels, except the dull vowel already mentioned, are capable of being uttered with and without stress, without being thereby so modified as to become two elements or require two letters for their notation. It does not of course follow that stress would not be usefully indicated in print, but of that more afterwards. In the string of beads stress may be typified by differences of size in beads otherwise alike.

The following table illustrates the

vowel sounds of English as affected by stress, and seems to me to contain every sound that is entitled to specific rank, each occurring three times. In the first column each is heard in a monosyllable having full stress; in the second, each occurs twice in a disyllable with strong and weak stress contrasted; and the third shows how most of them in the complete absence of stress in weakly uttered syllables have in some words perished from weakness, become indistinguishable from one another, and been replaced by the dull vowel sound which is and has long been so common in English, occurring in numberless words, of which *soda* and *ado* may serve as examples.

TABLE SHOWING EFFECT OF STRESS ON ENGLISH VOWELS.

<i>Strong Stress.</i>	<i>Strong and Weak Stress.</i>	<i>No Stress.</i>
alms	half-caste	breakfast
axe	abstract	canvas
air	where'er	
ashes	heyday	senate
ell	head-dress	piety
eel	sea-weed	elixir
err	pervert (noun)	ever
ill	pity	horrible
isle	eye-sight	
odd	topknot	despot
orb	forethought	forward
ode	dodo	waistcoat
pull	bulbul, Good-wood	
pool	hoopoo	honour
up	humbug	surplus
oil	oil-soil	porpoise
owl	outhouse	work-us

The combination *oil-soil*, meaning oil-shale or oil-spot, is not used, but one knows how it would sound if it were, and we have the same vowel weakly pronounced in several words, such as *turmoil*. *Work-us* is not put forward as elegant English, and the pronunciation *horrible* here intended may be questionable, but none the less these words illustrate the tendency alluded to.

If then these seventeen sounds had each a distinctive letter, and there were one more for the dull vowel into which all are so apt to degenerate, and some

simple uniform means were adopted to mark the fall of stress, we should have in effect the means of denoting thirty-five different vowel sounds. This would be enough for all purposes except the study of phonetics, while on the other hand I cannot see that any less number would be equally efficient for ordinary purposes. If the number be condemned as excessive, that can only mean that the language contains an excessive number of sounds. Although we are said to have only twenty-six letters in the old alphabet, the true question is always as to the number of sounds they represent. If, apart from questions of stress, we have eighteen vowel sounds (and most writers reckon more), all these have to be and somehow are represented by the present letters, but instead of the simple plan, one sound one sign, we have to resort to the clumsy method of digraphs, eking out the alphabet by writing two letters or more for one sound. In its results the apparent shortness of the present alphabet is illusory, for it makes our books much longer than they need be.

Though I have done with the scientific definition and classification of the sounds, I have yet to mention the customary division into vowels and consonants, which I have all along, as the reader may have noticed, somewhat illogically assumed by adoption of the names. Although that division is hardly scientific, depending rather on usage than on any essential difference in the sounds, yet, if properly corrected, it might still be the most useful division for practical purposes. It used to be said that consonants are sounds which *cannot* be uttered alone, and so late as 1883 Canon Taylor in *The Alphabet* spoke of 'the unpronounceable *t*'; but the fact is that not only can all consonants be pronounced alone, but some have even a highly penetrating sound, *s* for instance being used alone for that reason to attract attention

or express disapproval. What distinguishes a consonant is not that it cannot be, but that in practice it is not, or is supposed not to be, used by itself to form a word or a syllable, and so defined the word is unobjectionable. Not so the term vowel, which is illmatched with consonant, because the two are not complementary. The connotation of the word is vocality, and it ought therefore to include the voiced consonants. But in spite of this its denotation is by custom strictly limited to the series of sounds which, correctly or incorrectly, I have already given. What really distinguishes these sounds from most of the others is not vocality, but what may be called Syllabism; the fact that they are used, either alone or with the help of consonants, to form syllables or words; and they ought, therefore, rather to be called Syllabics. It is probably this false terminology that has obscured the fact that in speech, though not in print, the vowels are not the only syllabic sounds. Phoneticians agree that in such words as *riddle*, *rhythm*, and *ridden*, the final *l*, *m*, and *n* are syllabic. Though the words are certainly disyllables, no other sounds than these follow the second consonants. To these three a fourth should perhaps be added. Although in Southern English the sound of *r* is never uttered except when immediately succeeded by a vowel in the same or the following word, and is often enough omitted even then, in the West of England a syllabic *r* is freely used, and whether owing to a Western origin or to whatever cause, it is so often heard even in the South in such words as *ever dear* that it may well be thought it ought to obtain recognition; and it seems to me that in such words as *misery* even Southern English preserves a syllabic *r*. The syllabic use of these sounds need not surprise us. It might almost be said, and indeed often has been said, that in *w* and *y* we have the converse case of a con-

sonantal use of the vowels *u* and *i*, but I have above given reasons for thinking this not exactly true. All that is needed in a syllabic sound is that it should be a continuant and sufficiently sonorous, and *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r*, especially the first and the last, are among the most sonorous of the consonants. In the ancient Sanskrit, a language akin to our own, *l* and *r* and more doubtfully also *m* and *n* appear to have taken regular rank as vowels. Nor is their syllabic use in English at all an innovation. As Professor Jespersen points out in his *Grammar*, it was recognized centuries ago by old grammarians, and it is these sounds that were intended by Chaucer, who did not use letters at random as we do, by such spellings as *blosme*, *fadme*, *harkne*, *dekne*, *egre*, *entre*, now replaced by *blossom*, *fathom*, *hearken*, *deacon*, *eager*, *enter*, as well as by *gable* and *sepulchre* which we still retain. These sounds ought therefore to rank among the syllabics, but the name 'syllabic consonant' is to be avoided as a contradiction in terms. When used as syllabics they cease to be consonants. The differences of their sounds when so used are hardly such as to constitute them different elements requiring different letters, but on the other hand some indication of the different use, as for instance by a somewhat different design of the same letter, would probably be advantageous, if only to show the number of syllables in the word. In colloquial language *z* and *v* are also used syllabically in such phrases as *he w's out*, *he'd 've gone*, but such uses are only colloquial, and are sufficiently indicated in print by the use of the apostrophe.

Application of the conclusions now reached to the analysis of English words leads, as might be supposed, to results little differing from those given in any good manual of Phonetics except with regard to the polyphthongs. I will set down the elements as they appear to me

in the shortest possible way. In the discussion of stress the vowels have incidentally been given already, but it may be well to give one more example of each, enclosed for facility of comparison between the same two consonant sounds, those of *k* and *d*. There are :

Seven short sounds in *cad*, *kedge*, *kid*, *cod*, *could*, *cad*, and the second syllable of *decade* :

Six long in *card*, *cared*, *keyed*, *cord*, *cooed*, and *curd* :

Five polyphthongs in *decayed*, *skyed*, *cowed*, *code*, and *decoyed*.

The letters in italics are those which I suppose to convey the vowel sounds, but with English spelling it is often difficult to say which letter stands for which sound, the fact being that in practice the printed word is read as a whole and stands for its united sounds. Here then are eighteen vowel sounds, and to complete the list of syllabics *l*, *m*, and *n* must be added, as pronounced in *riddle*, *rhythm*, and *ridden*, with *r* as pronounced by many speakers in *ever*. The consonants are twenty-two, and are well enough exemplified by the words *by*, *pie*, *die*, *tie*, *thy*, *thigh*, *guy*, *kye*, *high*, *lie*, *my*, *nigh*, *sing*, *rye*, *vie*, *fie*, *way*, *yea*, *as*, *ass*, *azure*, *ash*.

This makes a total of forty sounds—eighteen syllabic, eighteen consonantal, and four used in both capacities. It might be thought that as I reckon the polyphthongs among the elements my list would be longer than others, but in fact, as has been mentioned, most writers reckon the number as *over* forty. This can only be by including the so-called diphthongs, and yet they resolve each of these into two other sounds. It seems they are here guilty of inconsistency. When they say the sounds are *over* forty, they assert that the diphthongs are elements; when they analyze them into two sounds, and denote them by two letters each, they implicitly assert that they are not elements.

Among the omissions by which my list is brought below most others, the unstressed vowels have already been noticed. As to consonants, some writers account *wh* in *where* an additional sound; but if such a sound exists at all, it does not belong to Southern English, in which, when any difference is made between *ware* and *where*, it is simply by beginning the latter with an *h*. The sound or sounds of *u* in *use*, reckoned as a diphthong, are also sometimes counted in, whereas they seem to me clearly resolvable into *y* preceding the vowel of *pool*. The same sounds are written in other ways in the words *you*, *yew*, *yule*, *eve*, *feud*, *lieu* (unless pronounced *loo*), *cue*, *nuisance*, and, most ornamental of all, *Yiewsley*, the name of a place in Middlesex, presumably pronounced exactly like another *Ewesley* in Northumberland, which rubs along without the first two useless letters of the name. By some writers such words as *huge* are asserted to begin with yet another elementary sound, but for my part I regard this as resolvable into the *yu* of *use* preceded by an *h*. Finally, the sounds of *j* and *ch* have often been set down among the elements, but that they are resolvable into the consonants of *azure* and *ash* preceded by *d* and *t* respectively seems capable of an almost mathematical demonstration. If there is no *t*-sound in *which* there is none in *witch*, and if none in *witch* there is none in *wits*, which is absurd; therefore, there are *t*'s in both *witch* and *which*, which was to be proved. Similar reasoning applies to the words *allege*, *ledge*, in which *g* has the sound of *j*, and *leads*. It is just these *l*'s and *d*'s which make the only differences between *catch* and *cash*, *Dulwich* and *dullish*, *ledger* and *leisure*.

For final illustration of what I believe to be the forty elements of Southern English, the Phonetic Alphabet out of which the whole language is constructed, but without regard to the double use of

the four sounds *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r*, or to differences of stress, the following is a sentence in which every one of them occurs, each only once—a representative string of beads neglecting differences of size:

O'er seethe of wet to poise, half shunning earth-cloud, you may go by azure air.

The *t* is not repeated except on paper, and the only *r* pronounced is that of *azure*. The sentence must however be carefully uttered, not to say mouthed as if it came from Milton, otherwise some of the vowels, notably those of *of* and *to*, will certainly degenerate into the dull vowel already mentioned, which here appears in the second syllable of *azure*. On the other hand, those who use a syllabic *r* will probably omit the dull vowel in *azure*, and will also sound the consonantal *r*'s in *o'er*, *earth*, and *air*. To the former of these objections the following sentences are less open, as the sense calls for some stress on seventeen of the eighteen syllables, but to the latter they are even more open, containing four silent *r*'s:

Is that worth all I gave up? How should coin be fair measure? You are so wrong?

The second question, that of notation, can now be shortly dealt with. The results of the foregoing discussion are:

1. There must be forty letters for the forty sounds.
2. These should show the important distinction between voiced and voiceless sounds.
3. It would also be useful to make a visible difference between syllabic and consonantal letters.
4. There should be a simple means of indicating the fall of stress.

Now if these conditions can be satisfied by modifications of the present alphabet, it should not need much argument to show that that is the best method of procedure. The present unmethodical alphabet and spelling interpose serious obstacles to acquirement of the art of

reading, and it has been proved that the shortest way of learning to read is to use a phonetic alphabet first, a point on which I would refer my readers to *Sounds and Signs*, my book on the Alphabet published in 1914. Once the art of reading has been acquired by the use of a more consistent notation, the child is in a position to memorize the irregular spellings of the present style by reading books printed in

be immediately learnt from a knowledge of the old one.

These considerations lead to the following prescriptions for revising the alphabet:

1. Take the simpler of the two forms afforded by the present alphabet, in most cases the capital.

2. Use each for a sound with which it is familiarly associated.

A REFORMED ALPHABET FOR ENGLISH.

SYLLABIC SOUNDS.				CONSONANTAL SOUNDS			
VOWEL OF	ALMS	AS IN	AMS	CONSONANT OF	BY	AS IN	BY
	AXE	A	AX		PIE	P	PY
	AIR	A	AF		DIE	D	DY
	ACHES	A	AKS		TIE	T	TY
	ELL	E	EL		THY	TH	THY
	EEL	E	EL		THIGH	T	TY
2ND DO OF	EVA	E	EVE		GUY	G	GY
VOWEL OF	ERR	E	ER		KYE	K	KY
	ILL	I	IL		HIGH	H	HY
	ISLE	Y	YL		LIE	L	LY
	ODD	O	OD		MY	M	MY
	ORB	O	OB		NIGH	N	NY
	ODE	O	OD	2ND DO OF	SING	M	SIM
	FULL	U	FUL	CONSONANT OF	RYE	R	RY
	POOL	U	PUL		VIE	V	VY
	UP	U	UP		FIE	F	FY
	OIL	O	OL		WAY	W	WY
	OWL	O	OL		YEA	Y	YR
L OF	RIDDLE	L	RIDL		AS	S	AS
M	RHYTHM	M	RIDM		ASS	S	AS
N	RIDDEN	N	RIDN		AZURE	Z	AZR
R	EYER	R	EYR		ASH	Z	AZ

ABBREVIATIONS FOR OPTIONAL USE.

J FOR DE AS IN JAR (JAR): J FOR TZ AS IN JAR (CHAR):

X FOR GO AS IN IXACT (EXACT): X FOR CS AS IN IXEPT (EXCEPT):

Y FOR YU AS IN YS (USE).

SOUNDS & SIGNS EXEMPLIFIED.

O' SED OV WET TU POS; HAF ZVNIA CT-CLRD; YU MA GO BY AZER A.

IS DAT WET OL Y GRV VP ? HZ ZUD CON BE FA NEBE ? YU O SO ROM.

it with a vocabulary suited to his age. The more therefore the phonetic alphabet can be made to resemble the present one, the easier will be the transition from the one to the other. Readers educated in the present style would mostly have no need to master the new one, which would be used at first only in schools, but for teachers and others who might have to do so it is clearly desirable that the modified alphabet should be such as can

3. Where it is the usual means of expressing more than one sound, differentiate it into as many shapes as those sounds may require.

4. In making additional letters for sounds at present without letters, have regard to the letters or digraphs usually associated with them. Thus, the letter for the vowel of *oil* should be formed of a combination of *o* and *i*, and that for the consonant of *thigh* by a modification of *t*.

5. Use (a) straight-line letters for voiceless consonants; (b) letters with at least one curve, if possible hollow, for voiced consonants; (c) letters with convex curves for syllabic sounds.

6. Width of letter to be used as a rough indication of length of sound.

The accompanying plate is a mechanical reproduction of a specimen of type-writing produced by a machine fitted with types cut in general conformity with these prescriptions. Closer conformity is doubtless possible and possibly desirable, but *i* and *g* are incurable exceptions. The letter for the consonant of *key* is a compromise between *k* and *c*, with some resemblance to both. The letter *z* should perhaps be modified

to show its altered use, but it is so rare in our books, especially now that *organize* and such words are printed with an *s*, that the point is of little consequence. As for stress, in typewriting it is easily marked by an accent such as *ò*, while in print the best means would perhaps be type of heavier line.

In judging of the appearance of this alphabet the reader's severity should be tempered by two considerations—that type for writing machines is rather roughly cut, and that the equal space necessarily allowed for each letter makes them less suitable than print for the use of types purposely cut with varying widths for the notation of different sounds.

A. D. WILDE.

L'ALLEMAND APRÈS LA GUERRE.

DEPUIS plus de quarante ans qu'il y a en France des hommes qui écrivent, et parlent de l'Allemagne nouvelle, tout n'était donc pas dit; depuis quarante ans on avait surtout répété aux oreilles des jeunes Français: 'Souvenez-vous qu'ils sont entrés chez nous en maîtres, que tout de suite ils s'y trouvaient comme chez eux, et qu'avec toute leur force ils ont encore été aidés par une connaissance solide de notre langue—soyez forts, et apprenez la leur.' Aujourd'hui, M. Mieille, avec une éloquence singulièrement entraînant, veut au contraire que nous abandonnions, et plus tôt que plus tard, l'étude de l'idiôme germanique. Trop de Français déjà savent l'allemand, dit-il, et cela ne contribue pas peu à la force actuelle de notre ennemi.

Sur les méthodes allemandes, dans l'enseignement et ailleurs, on a beaucoup discuté sans trop savoir toujours où l'on était; depuis sept ou huit ans, une forte réaction se dessinait contre la germanisation de certains centres de facultés françaises; et si le mouvement a abouti à faire entrer un peu d'air dans des cervelles

trop dociles, tout le monde a applaudi. D'ailleurs on en discernerait encore à cette heure si la guerre n'eût éclaté; et cela tient peut-être à ce que le problème ne se posait pas clairement, car où fallait-il remonter dans notre tradition littéraire ou scientifique? à partir de quel carrefour avait-on fait fausse route? personne n'osait le marquer.

Avec M. Mieille, du moins, nous sommes sur un terrain plus ferme: il s'agit de supprimer simplement l'étude de la langue allemande dans les écoles, surtout les écoles secondaires; voilà qui est net. Et d'abord, je demanderai à tous nos collègues anglais: quand vous êtes-vous étonnés, et toute l'Europe avec vous, quand êtes-vous restés stupides, de voir les jeunes Français ne pas reculer devant la dureté des sons teutons? Il n'y a pas si longtemps, vous devez vous rappeler. En attendant, je vais tâcher de dire sincèrement ce que pensaient alors les jeunes martyrs à qui l'on imposait la rude discipline; nous ne nous plaignions pas trop; à beaucoup même de jeunes gosiers français, fait constaté par des professeurs de

bonne foi, la prononciation allemande paraissait plus facile que l'anglaise ; sans prétendre que l'Allemand ait la douceur des sons de la sirène, *ich liebe dich* ne nous parut pas plus rocailleux que *I love you*.

Quant à la langue allemande elle-même, j'accorde à M. Mieille tout ce qu'il voudra. Oui, les obscurités de la syntaxe nous répugnent ; et oui, l'étude de la pensée allemande doit obscurcir notre génie. Du reste, voici que de là-bas, arrive un témoignage précieux à l'appui de la thèse : ils comprennent aussi, les Allemands, que que cette pensée et cette littérature françaises, dont quelques-uns de leur côté se faisaient les pèlerins ardents, gâtent irréparablement la vigueur de leur *geist*. M. J. Hofwiller, un bon francisant, paraît-il, vient crier casse-cou à ses compatriotes. Plus de français dans nos écoles, s'écrie-t-il dans les *Suddeutsche Monatshefte*, 'la littérature française n'est pas faite pour nous ; c'est une littérature de gens du monde (*sic* !). Au contraire, la littérature anglaise est de construction allemande (?) ; elle a du *calibre*. . . Il faut préférer Richard III au Cid, le Marchand de Venise à Tartuffe, les Ballades anglaises à la Légende des Siècles. . . Les passages difficiles de Molière sont des abîmes, ceux de Shakespeare des sommets.'*

A part cette dernière phrase qui sent un peu trop son Hugo pour un tel docteur, je ne veux rien reprocher à M. Hofwiller ; ce serait d'ailleurs m'exposer aux coups de M. Mieille ; et je laisse aux Anglais le soin de décider comment leur littérature en général et les pièces de Shakespeare en particulier sont de construction allemande. Je ne souhaite plus qu'une chose, c'est que M. Hofwiller en Allemagne et M. Mieille en France entrent tous deux au ministère de l'instruction publique de leurs pays et y fassent triompher leurs vues.

* J'emprunte cette citation au journal *L'Opinion*, numéro du 6 novembre.

Ce jour-là, l'Allemagne enfin oubliera qu'il y a une France ; le Rhin deviendra pour elle le large océan qui marquera son Finistère. La France, qui aura toujours hélas ! les ruines de ses cathédrales et de ses cités brûlées, se convaincra peu à peu qu'un peuple fut, scientifiquement destructeur et inutilement barbare, mais qu'il est à jamais disparu. Oh ! puisse ce jour être demain !

Pendant, il y aura les autres, les autres étrangers—et ceci nous ramène à l'article de M. Mieille. Rien de meilleur, pense-t-il, pour attirer vers nos universités toute cette clientèle si variée qui va du Chilien au Japonais que de supprimer toute trace de langue allemande dans nos enseignements secondaire et supérieur. Il nous faudra donc les convaincre aussi qu'au delà du Rhin, il n'y a rien, un désert, et puis la Russie qui commence ; il faudra les convaincre, comme disait à peu près Mallarmé dans des vers obscurs que je comprends mieux aujourd'hui, malgré—

' . . . tout le ciel et la carte
Sans fin attestés sous leurs pas
Par le flot même qui s'écarte,
Que ce pays n'exista pas.'

Le Chinois et le Chilien nous croiront-ils ? Ce sera peut-être un peu dur.

Hélas ! ne nous leurrions pas d'illusions trop faciles. Je pense comme vous, M. Mieille : si jamais guerre atroce fut voulue et saluée par toute une nation comme la plus haute et la dernière expression de l'âme nationale, c'est celle que l'Allemagne a résolu de nous faire en août 1914 ; je crois comme vous que la seule fin logique pour nous tous, Anglais et Français, c'est la mise hors de combat de l'adversaire.

Pourtant, supposons cette chose horrible, qu'après une paix incomplète, il reste encore place en Allemagne à cet esprit que vous avez si bien défini, 'dessein et volonté réfléchis de nous écraser, de noyer dans le sang notre

civilisation, ne croyez-vous pas que plus que jamais ce sera l'heure pour nous d'étudier ce voisin implacable, de ne point le quitter de l'œil, de le connaître par le dedans et le dehors, non certes pour en assimiler l'esprit, mais comme un savant étudie un virus, pour être prêt à mieux combattre le mal s'il se déclare ?

Mais abandonnons ce cauchemar ; nous l'aurons, la paix désirée et seule désirable. Quand je pense à cette Allemagne d'après la guerre, mise dans l'impossibilité de nuire, je m'intéresse beaucoup moins à telle ou telle délimitation de frontières entre elle et nous, entre la Russie et elle, qu'au nouvel esprit qui forcément devra s'y répandre peu à peu. Cela, je le sais bien, n'éclatera pas au monde en un jour, mais je le répète, cela devra venir, sans quoi le paix que nous attendons ne serait qu'une pauvre trêve. Eh bien ! pouvons-nous dès lors condamner les jeunes générations de demain et d'après-demain à rompre tout commerce, intellectuel ou autre, avec cette Allemagne non plus menaçante mais forte après tout dans le concert du monde, et qui, débarrassée entre autres maux de son impérialisme rongeur, sollicitera leur légitime curiosité ?

Dans trente ans, dans quarante ans, nous serons, nous autres, des vieux bien vieux, ou des disparus. Songeons, M. Mieille, que tous ceux, jeunes Anglais ou Français, qui d'ici là apprendront la langue honnie auront alors en face d'eux une génération d'Allemands que nous ne connaissons pas, mais qui, espérons-le, n'auront pas les mêmes titres à l'exécration et au mépris. Les journées sont lourdes, les semaines sont longues, les mois interminables ; mais les générations vont vite. Ne nous exposons pas à un reproche de légèreté de la part de nos enfants. Enseignons-leur l'allemand puisque de toute manière ils sentiront le besoin de le savoir. Travaillons.

L. CHOUVILLE.

I do not propose to offer the criticism, 'dispassionate' or otherwise, upon M. Mieille's article in your October number, which you invite. It appears to be less a subject for the critic than for the student of pathological effects of war upon the judgment and the heart. But it ought not to go without a word of protest from those who, being teachers neither of French nor of German, entertain the deepest regard for both these great civilizations, and deplore nothing more in the present world-calamity than the probability that the worth of each of the three for the others will be, for a generation at least, the possession only of a scattered few. It is the vice of such 'nationalism' as M. Mieille has expressed to conceive of international relations only as a rivalry, successful or baffled, of competing forces. The intellectual history of his own country since 1870 ought to have taught him a truer as well as more encouraging doctrine. For what can be clearer than that that invasion of German methods which he indignantly brands has not driven out but fructified and enriched the characteristic methods of France? In the domain, at least, of which I can speak with some knowledge, this is unquestionably so. The wonderful series of monographs on modern English literature which we owe to MM. Beljame, Angellier, Feuillerat, Legouis, Cazamian, Castelain, Huchon, Berger, and others, testifies to a real fusion of the scholarly precision and the inexhaustible diligence of the German workshop with the brilliant critical quality, the imaginative penetration, and the luminous exposition, of the French. The reproach current, and often deserved, before 1870, that a French book of scholarship was usually brilliant and not less usually untrustworthy, is completely out of date, thanks not less to the power of German example than to the invincible genius of France which, once more, has known how to import alien goods and to

build them into a fabric of her own without surrendering her native virtues. International co-operation, after the present war, will be far more difficult than before, as M. Mieille's only too sympathetic article shows, but it will be even more needful. Let us be quite sure, when we feel tempted to echo his militant recipe for dealing with the German invader: '*Frappons à la tête!*' that the war and its ghastly illusions have not already begun to strike at our own.

C. H. HERFORD.

I thoroughly enjoyed M. Mieille's eloquence, but I cannot quite follow his reasoning. The spectacle of Germany in a state of desperate isolation, shedding bitter tears because French and English schoolboys no longer learn her language, is a pathetic one, but it seems to me to lack *vraisemblance*. I fancy it would exactly suit her book. You may be sure *she* will teach French and English more diligently than ever in her schools after the war. Her business will be to rebuild the shattered ruins of her gigantic commercial system which, like the dog in the fable, she has lost through greedily grabbing at a more tempting but illusory bait. She will begin once more to push forth her tentacles in all directions. Her clever travellers will tout her wares through Europe, speaking the vernacular fluently, carrying with them catalogues printed in the language of the country visited, price lists expressed in the measures and coinage of the customer. What shall we be doing meanwhile? Refusing to learn or teach German, says M. Mieille! I hope not.

It is a mistake to underrate your enemy, and that form of revenge which consists in cutting off one's nose to spite one's face is not very satisfying. Germany's achievement in thus far keeping at bay, with the questionable help of Austria and Turkey, five European

nations, is something in the nature of a triumph for scientific and disciplined organization. It will not avail us much to belittle her science, to ignore her energy, to despise her discipline. Our task will rather be to consider in what respect we have been caught napping; to separate the good from the bad in her example; to make sure that we overlook nothing that we may learn from her to our own advantage.

If we wish to prevent our sons from flocking to her Universities—a quite legitimate aim—we must endeavour to offer them equal inducements at home. Is it not a fact that hitherto whoever wished to study almost any subject deeply was bound to have recourse to German books or German teachers? Take, as an example, Romance Philology. With the one brilliant exception of Gaston Paris, and one or two lesser lights, what great French names can we mention? My own teacher was a Frenchman who is now fighting for his country, yet, in his classes, we had constant recourse to Paul Meyer, Wendelen Förster, Stengel, Bartsch, Körting, and other Germans. It is scarcely necessary for me to speak of my own country in this connection! Would it not be well for the M.L.A. to spare a little time from chatter about method in order to see what can be done to raise the standard of English scholarship? Unwittingly, perhaps, M. Mieille has emphasized the need for this in his remarks on the popularity of German Universities in the past. I do not think the remedy is to be found in the boycott of German at home.

I can scarcely believe the writer is in earnest when he contends that the masterpieces of German literature would lose nothing by translation into French. Is it possible for any literature to lose nothing by translation? And French and German above all! As regards the genius of each language, they are as the poles

apart. I yield to none in my admiration for the French language and its literature, but, really, German poetry in a French dress suggests a brawny knight attempting to disguise himself as a dainty damsel!

S. A. RICHARDS.

We ought, I think, to feel grateful to M. Mieille for his article, 'L'Allemand après la Guerre,' in your last issue. No question at present calls more urgently for discussion, and it ought to be boldly faced and thrashed out in the columns of MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING.

The robust sanity with which M. Mieille states the case for the abandonment of German almost disarms criticism, but some of the points he raises assume a different aspect when considered from another point of view.

1. M. Mieille thinks that the prohibition of the teaching of German in schools and Universities would deal a vital blow at German influence and intrigue. This is precisely the question. Would it? Is it not rather the case that Germans have obtained a footing in England and France in the past owing to their knowledge of English and French? And does it not follow that the greater our knowledge of German, the better our own chance in the future of extending our influence in Germany itself and of coping with the German in neutral countries? Agreed that we are determined to inflict on Prussia the most drastic punishment we can devise, is it quite clear that the abolition of the teaching of German in the United Kingdom would benefit us? Germany, after 1870, encouraged the study of French to the full extent of her power, as she does the study of any language under the sun, if any benefit seems likely to accrue therefrom.

I doubt whether it will be possible after the war to ignore the language of practically the whole of Central Europe. Trade with Germany is bound to re-

establish itself, though doubtless on diminished scale, and reluctance on the part of England and France to have direct intercourse with Germany will simply mean that the middlemen, the Dutch, the Danes, and the Swiss will wax fat. If the conquered race, as M. Mieille suggests, is forced to learn English and French, the pre-war conditions will return, and the Germans, having a knowledge of at least two languages, will find their place again in English and French commerce, and German subterranean propaganda will be renewed—unless, of course, Germans are not allowed to set foot in either country. But this is a question for statesmen rather than pedagogues.

M. Mieille admits the argument that to allow the Germans to know French and at the same time to prohibit the study of German in France would be to the advantage of German commerce, but he disposes of it by advocating a commercial treaty to the advantage of France, forcing the Germans, as a conquered race, to learn the language of their conquerors. It is not clear to me that this would be to the disadvantage of Germany in the long run. Knowledge is power, nowhere more so than where foreign languages are concerned.

I have no hesitation in saying that the exhaustive study of modern languages at German Universities has been one of the most important factors in Germany's success. The syllabuses of the larger German Universities put the exiguous programmes of our own utterly to shame.* No wonder

* The Berlin lecture list for 1910-11 includes the following courses: Scandinavian languages (7), Dutch (3), English (21), French and Provençal (15), Spanish (3), Italian (5), Slavonic (9), Arabic (5), Finnish (1). To these must be added the courses of the Seminar für Orientalische Sprachen: Chinese (12), Japanese (6), Arabic (13), Amharic (2), Ethiopian (1), Persian (5), Turkish (7), Suaheli (10), Hindustani (1), Guzerati (1), Haussa (2), Fulbe (1), Ewe (1), Tsochi (1)

that Germany is spared the humiliation of appointing ambassadors who are ignorant of the language of the country to which they are sent. British professors of modern languages must never rest until they have secured an open door from their Honour Schools to the Foreign Office and other Government departments in which a knowledge of modern languages is desirable. 'The best men for the best posts' must be our motto.

2. While unconvinced, then, that the suppression of German in England would damage Germany without hurting ourselves, I feel that there is something to be said for its suppression in the Colonies. The present condition of the United States testifies to the danger of allowing the German language to take root so firmly that it remains a medium for the perpetuation of German politics where they have no business to flourish. In Canada, also, undigested masses of immigrants are showing a tendency to form language-groups, which might easily foster the development of European politics on Canadian soil. The propaganda of societies like the Verein für das Deutschtum im Ausland should be sternly repressed throughout the Empire.

3. The literature of Germany is not accepted by M. Mieille as a sufficient reason for the study of the language. He says: '*... Mais sans être philistin ne peut-on soutenir qu'aucune œuvre de prose allemande n'a jamais rien perdu et ne perdra jamais rien à se clarifier en belle prose française? Et pour la poésie . . . tout ce qui en vaudra la peine sera traduit et la pensée allemande aura tout bénéfice à se vêtir de mots français.*' M. Mieille is a plain speaker, and will appreciate a plain answer. Many Englishmen will no doubt agree with him. Others, equally patriotic, will reply that his sug-

gestion is preposterous, and that, if they had to choose between the literature of France and that of Germany, they would renounce the first in favour of the second without the shedding of a single tear. Personally, in the last resort, I am prepared to advocate the study of German as a dead language.

4. These considerations bring us to the question which has to be answered by every teacher of modern languages. Why do we study German? Is it to advertise Germany? to flatter German vanity? to aid German propaganda? to encourage German trade? to provide Germans with comfortable berths in England? Certainly not. We study German in order to extract from the language, the literature, the people, and the country the maximum of profit—intellectual, moral, and material—for ourselves. We have never taken the trouble to think this out thoroughly, and that is why we have allowed Germans in the past to assume control to such a large extent of the study of German in this country. Many of them, naturalized and unnaturalized, have done valuable work, and even now we can pause to thank them. But they must be the last of their kind. Their successors must be British-born subjects of the Crown. The control of the study of German—and, indeed, of all foreign languages—must pass into and remain irrevocably in British hands. We ourselves, not Germans, must decide how, when, and where we shall learn German, and we must organize the study in such a way that every ounce of energy expended upon it shall contribute to the uplifting of our national life.

G. WATERHOUSE.

We must regard the questions raised by the recent article of M. Mieille from two points of view, the individual and the national.

* * * *

From the individual standpoint there is undoubtedly a considerable danger involved in the study of a foreign language. It lies in the fact that the individual may be tempted to proceed to an extreme in cultivating a sympathy for the foreign nation in whose language and literature he interests himself. Our sympathies and habits of thought are formed in the first place by the national atmosphere in which we are brought up. It is of extreme importance that those natural sympathies and thinking habits which unite a man to his own nation should under any system of education remain unimpaired. The worst thing that can happen to anyone is to lose touch with the culture of his own nation, to come through sympathy with a foreign nation to feel one's self as a foreigner in one's native land. Whatever gain in intellectual vigour a man may make by sacrificing his own nationality, nothing can atone to him for losing sympathy with his own people. His lot then becomes that of an outcast. No one at the present moment, even among the Pan-Germanists themselves, will envy the notoriety of a Houston Stuart Chamberlain. If we wish for a further example we have the unfortunate one of the naturalized Germans in our midst.

This danger undoubtedly exists, and must be faced in taking account of the probable effect of the organized teaching of German. As far, however, as Great Britain is concerned, I do not think that it needs to be rated very high. Undoubtedly we have a certain number of people among us who profess to discover their 'spiritual Fatherland' outside the limits of the British Empire. In England, however, the natural healthy provincialism which arises from our insularity is a very effective check on this sort of thing. Generally speaking, the Englishman feels in regard to people like those just alluded to, that they are an

amiable sort of idiots, who suffer from a not very dangerous self-deception. In this he is very likely right. Our Germanophiles and Gallophiles have a certain veneer of Germanism and Gallicism which disguises the outer man more or less successfully; generally, however, one only requires to scratch it a little to discover beneath what our friend the enemy calls a 'stock and stone' Englishman. The Houston Chamberlains are, thank God, very exceptional. Innocuous, however, as such types in England usually are, it would be a great mistake to encourage them by our educational system. We have, however, a very effectual remedy. It lies in the spirit in which instruction is given. Unfortunately it cannot be denied that in the past this spirit has not always been the right one, even if not, to any very serious extent, dangerous. Witness is borne to this by the unfortunate popularity of such sayings as: 'The professor of a foreign language is an ambassador from a foreign country.' I have shown before in these pages that such a saying arises from a false conception of the function of a teacher. An ambassador, however friendly, comes to us in the interest of the foreign country which he represents, and has under all circumstances to advance that interest to the best of his power. A teacher engaged in the national task of education acts in the interest of the country which engages him. If he teaches a foreign language he *ought* to do so in the interest of the nation he helps to teach, and there can be no question therefore about his ambassadorial function, as he is not acting *for* the nation whose language he teaches. The best check upon the undue encouragement of foreign sympathies is therefore the employment of native teachers whose insight into and sympathy with foreign life and manners has not estranged them from their own national allegiance and sym-

pathies. There is, however, another check, which is not always sufficiently attended to. This lies in taking care that our students of foreign languages do not neglect the study of their own language, history, and literature. No Englishman who has a more than superficial acquaintance with the spirit and history of English literature, with the heroic story of our national and political life, is in much danger of bowing the knee unworthily before the gods of foreign culture, however intensive the study which he devotes to a foreign language or languages. Unfortunately here, with that insouciance which is one of our national characteristics, we sin once more against the true spirit of education. Most of our Universities permit undergraduates to proceed to the Honours degree of B.A. by specializing in one or two foreign languages alone. This immature specialization is in itself a grave mistake, but it has the further disadvantage that it encourages students at an impressionable period of their life to neglect the study of their own language and literature. If they thus form the habit of regarding foreign languages, as distinct from their Mother Tongue, as the sole instruments of self-culture, who can blame them? Even here the damage done is not excessive, for which, however, we have not to thank our educational authorities. The English student is protected once more by his natural insularity of mind and the fact that the practical pursuits of life have much more effect in moulding his character than any course of intellectual study. His studious concentration on foreign tongues is balanced by home influences, by his college life, and the many points of contact with the virile public life of his country. Nevertheless, the danger is present, and when we come to remodel our national educational system it will have to be dealt with.

As regards French conditions: In France the value of the Mother Tongue, of the native literature, is better understood than with us. It is, I believe, difficult even for the student of foreign languages to escape from its influence. Furthermore, the foreign language teachers are native Frenchmen. France does not even rely on English professors of the language of her Ally. France should therefore be well protected against the undue preponderance of foreign influences. Yet there are many indications that Germany before the war had to a considerable extent established a threatening influence of this sort, and made a beginning at least with the Germanizing of French culture. What I miss, however, in M. Mieille's article, is the proof that the avenue of this Germanizing process lay through French schools and Universities. As the organized national teaching of German was firmly in the hands of efficiently trained Frenchmen, I find it very difficult to believe, in the absence of a rigid proof, that such teaching was an instrument which the Germans could employ for their purposes to any serious extent. Frenchmen are probably much less naïve than Englishmen, and naturally much more inclined to carry sentiments or ideas to their logical extreme; the danger of their becoming infected with the extremest form of enthusiasm for foreign ideals is probably greater than with English people. In spite of this I find it hard to credit that the nationally organized body of French teachers and professors of German was a convenient instrument for the propagation of Germanophile ideals in France. Generally speaking, my own observation convinces me that the percolation of unhealthy foreign influences into the national system takes place in the main through those who are ignorant of the foreign race and language which is their source. A good knowledge of the foreign source works

itself as a protection against such percolation. If the German Government was at pains to encourage Germanizing influences in France (which is doubtless true), I am sure it relied far more on its own agents for this purpose than on the French teachers of German, with whom, I imagine, it would carefully avoid any serious effort to tamper, as likely only to lead to the detection of its projects. The really dangerous persons would in this case be the soi-disant Gallicized Germans, resident in France, and not the native teachers of the German language, and the victims of such Gallicized Germans would be found mainly among Frenchmen ignorant of German, or only superficially acquainted therewith, and not among the serious students of the German literature and language. If this were not so the only explanation of the subjugation of Frenchmen by Pan-Germanism would lie in national degeneration. The heroic conduct of the French nation since the beginning of the war effectually disposes, however, of this alternative.

If, however, we bear in mind (1) that the preference for studying a particular foreign language is not necessarily a testimony to the individual's desire to assimilate himself to a foreign culture, (2) that the fascination which every virile foreign culture can, in virtue of its own individuality, exert on the student, is not necessarily a danger if countered by proper safeguards; we shall not have much difficulty in meeting the special objection to German study—viz., that German culture, having fallen on evil days, has lost its educational value for the individual.

The question thus raised is, of course, extraordinarily complicated and difficult, but even so it is, I apprehend, not impossible for common sense to reduce it to a fairly simple issue. It would certainly be wrong to view it in the light

only of that feeling of revulsion and horror occasioned in us by the unspeakable atrocities of militarism in Belgium and on the high seas. Only an emasculated æsthete would refuse to study history because its pages are plentifully smeared with the blood and tears of humanity. It is not merely the heroes, but likewise the villains of tragedy, the contemplation of whose actions and fate attracts our human interest and purifies our feelings. Certainly history has no greater tragedy than the process by which the 'nation of thinkers,' of Goethe and Schiller, has, through the slow-working poison of false political theories and a false political system, been converted into a race of modern Huns. But even supposing that this result be final (and who shall say that it is so?), even supposing that a nation may not, like an individual, be led to higher things through its own sins, does it follow that this tragedy of the descent to hell of a great nation is without its lesson and value for the individual? I do not say that it is everybody's business to study this great tragedy, but does it follow therefore that there are none who, in probing its causes, and tracing the devious windings by which the collective German mind has been seduced from the path of truth, will not find in the story that human *aliquid* which touches the heart of men, and brings wisdom to the contemplative student? Not because the German race is the villain of the most recent drama of history do I claim that it is still worthy of study, but because, in spite of its crimes, it cannot belie its humanity. Alas, it is at times human to be inhuman.

I do not pretend herewith to have given a final answer in theory to the question raised; but I claim that the answer will be decisive in practice. For many long years the tragedy of Pan-Germanism will remain in the memory

of man to challenge the curiosity and spirit of enquiry of the individual. Even if the German nation were now to be wiped out of existence, its fate would only all the more attract the interest of the student and compel his attention. A great nation, like a great man, be it a power for good or evil, is a dynamic force which lives in history and exercises its own fascination on the mind of the future. We cannot escape from it, as individuals, by closing our eyes. It is better to face it and understand it.

M. Mieille cannot get rid of Goethe and Schiller, but suggests that they should only be studied in translations. Does he not, however, understand, or has he forgotten, that the best translation is, to many minds, an irresistible challenge to go to the original? Does he not see that if we forbid the teaching of German, but permit the use of translations, we are only forcing the individual to make a surreptitious study on his own behalf, without supervision or assistance, and therefore submitting him with renewed force to the very dangers which it is desired to avoid?

We have to face the fact that we cannot prevent a great many individuals from studying German. It is therefore better to provide for its being taught properly, with due safeguards, so that the natural dangers attendant on such study may be reduced to a minimum. In England, where German is nowhere a compulsory study, it is not the knowledge of German which is dangerous to the individual, but the ignorance of it.

Before leaving the individual standpoint, I should like to point out that much of the fear of the influence of foreign studies on the individual is based on a false conception of the meaning of the word sympathy. It is quite true that the study of a foreign nation's language and literature leads us to sympathize with the nation in question.

It does not follow that this sympathy connotes approval of all that is contained in that nation's deeds, outlook on life, and habits of thinking. True sympathy is based on the recognition of the fundamental humanity which underlies all the varying forms of national individuality. It is finely, if somewhat exaggeratedly, expressed in the French saying, 'Tout savoir, c'est tout pardonner.' It is possible in this sense for a good man to sympathize with a vile sinner, while at the same time feeling the utmost abhorrence for his evil actions. In this sense it is possible, even at the present moment, to sympathize with the German nation at the moment of its lowest abasement. Nay, what is more, this sympathy is instinctive in us even when it has not been developed and strengthened by study, for what is the 'respect de la femme, de l'enfant et du vieillard, du blessé et du prisonnier,' which, according to M. Mieille, will prevent us from exacting the most awful expiation from our enemies, if not the instinctive (as he himself terms it) recognition of the humanness even of the Germans?

* * * *

From the collective standpoint of the nation it is easy enough to dispose of M. Mieille's argumentation in favour of ceasing to study German. To do this it is only necessary to insist on the fact that the collective study of foreign nations now firmly established in all civilized countries is not carried on for the benefit of such nations, but for the benefit of the nation which makes such studies. Even in France the collective study of English does not aim at benefiting France's ally. We willingly recognize that it is a strong support for the Entente, but we do not hold the ridiculous expectation that it is based on purely altruistic motives. And in England, if we study French, it is because we hope from such study in the first place to benefit our

noble selves. French study of German had the same aim. The Franco-Prussian War did not fill France with an absurd admiration of her conqueror, but it impressed on her very effectively that knowledge of our enemies is a much more useful weapon of defence and offence than ignorance.

The only excuse for ceasing to study German would lie in the confidence (and who possesses it?) that after the present war we should no longer be confronted by the rivalry of a very energetic, capable, and well-organized nation of more than sixty million individuals, which, among other things, has neglected no opportunity of studying the languages of its competitors. To take one example: Whether has English or German trade profited more from the habit which German traders cultivated of mastering the languages of countries with which they did business? Or another: Did the Germans who conquered France in 1870 thereafter abandon the study of French? No German history of that war fails to contrast German knowledge of French with French ignorance of German and to draw a very appropriate moral. Knowledge of foreign languages is one of the conditions of national existence at the present day. The nation which neglects that truth is incapable of looking after its best interests in any field.

When M. Mieille proposes to strike a blow at German Universities by stifling the study of German, he forgets that it was the Universities in the first place which made it necessary to know the language and not *vice versa*; that, consequently, short of destroying the Universities and their personnel we could do no real damage to the language. If German holds the rank of a world-language to-day, the painful truth is that it was the Germans who made it so, and not the enlightened patronage of foreign nations.

And we must accept the further truth, however disagreeable, that so long as there is a nation of Germans there is a considerable prospect of their language holding the position it has attained to. To be blind to these truths would not hurt the Germans but be highly injurious to ourselves.

R. A. WILLIAMS.

POSTSCRIPT.—I might perhaps signalize a warning which in the excitement of these trying times is in danger of being overlooked. It is this: The idea of a nation's culture is a historical one and connotes in its widest sense the whole history of a nation's intellectual and emotional development. Thus, while the disagreeable associations of 'Kultur' (in quotation marks) may correspond accurately enough to a phase, and a highly objectionable one, of the passing day, they do not exhaust the whole content of German culture. The 'pensée allemande' is *not* represented satisfactorily by the notorious manifesto of the 93 professors, however eminent in their respective departments. Even a whole generation does not stand necessarily for a nation's culture, and cannot be regarded as its final result. Besides this, the culture of a nation embraces a huge complex of different factors, many of which directly contradict one another. Even if the lower instincts are in the ascendant in 'Kultur,' it does not follow that they will remain so, nor that the higher ingredients are lacking and unrepresented by many noble-minded individuals, who for the present are lost to our sight. Hatred of 'Kultur,' justifiable and necessary as it is, must not cause us to forget the historical value of German culture, to which much in the intellectual life of our own nation and the world bears witness.

R. A. W.

THE SPIRIT OF FRANCE.*

THE title of this highly interesting and instructive book sufficiently indicates the author's point of view. It was, with the exception of the final chapter, written before the war broke out, in order to make Englishmen understand the rapid changes that have taken place in France since the beginning of the century, and the true mentality of the French nation. The present war has laid bare to us the real spirit of France, which was not known to many, and which was kept in the background by exotic and other movements. The ordinary Englishman of the nineteenth century generally considered Frenchmen to be gay, frivolous, and immoral. They made the serious mistake of judging the nation, as a whole, from certain aspects of Parisian life. The truth is that France as a nation has been more moral, in a wide sense, than England, and that even in Paris life has been, on the whole, quite as moral as in London. Many of the real French characteristics which Philip G. Hamerton described so sympathetically in his *French and English* would now be admitted without demur, especially by those who have come in close contact with French men and women in these stirring and trying times.

Although the author is a foreigner, he writes excellent English. The reader's interest is never allowed to flag, and, in spite of some biased exaggerations, the book will give Englishmen a much-needed insight into the political currents and cross-currents of that puzzling period which followed the disaster of Sedan. The author's thesis is that before 1905 France was a laboratory for all sorts of experiments; since then she is once more a nation fulfilling her high destiny.

The first half of Part I, 'The Deterioration of France,' which the Abbé Dimnet attributes mainly to materialism and anti-Christianity, brings us to the great débâcle of 1870, and to the appearance of Germany as a formidable political reality. 'Germany,' he says, 'has given herself up to Prussia, and whatever she may have gained by the bargain she has lost in forgoing her old charm and opening for herself a future over which black clouds already hang. . . . France had fallen in power, influence, population, and moral energy, behind a rival whose greatness her own monarch had helped and practically made.' The author next seeks 'to show how the moral and political decadence of France, which had begun under the Empire—thanks to the audacity of a few thinkers and writers and to the blindness

of the public powers—was continued under the 'Third Republic,' and discusses the relation of this deterioration to Republican Institutions. He condemns, without hesitation, the so-called Constitution of 1875, pointing out its imperfections and dangers. Under it developed Anti-Clericalism, the only continuous policy, Socialism and Combism, which laughed at patriotism. The principles of patriotism were weakened by academic discussion. The Sorbonne pursued the scientific methods of Germany. This was the time (about 1904) when Germany was the magnet which attracted Sorbonne professors like Seignobos, Langlois, and Monod. The teaching under the aegis of the Ministry of Education was scientific, viz., atheistic and rational—in short, anti-patriotic. All French History previous to 1789 was to be ignored, just as a recent order in Germany prescribes nothing but Modern History for study in her schools. The popularity of Internationalism was shown as late as 1907 by the welcome accorded to Anatole France's *Ile des Pingouins*, which the Abbé describes as a caricature of the History of France conceived from the coarsest materialistic point of view of the Socialists. He goes on to show how Combism brought even national culture into jeopardy by democratizing education, and by making Greek and Latin optional. Lemaitre and Brunot practically threw the classics overboard, and Lanson looked upon the Institution where he taught not as an instrument of culture, but as a scientific atelier, in the German sense. These theories became law in 1902, with the result that a young man could become a professor of History or Philosophy without knowing Latin or Greek, and without being properly tested in French composition.

The second part, entitled 'Return to the Light,' is of the highest interest. The awakening was due to the Tangier incident, followed by the fall of Delcassé, who alone in the preceding years seemed to be aware that war with Germany was inevitable, and prepared for it, in spite of the opposition of his colleagues, who scouted the idea. Combism had made them blind, but the Tangier incident tore the veil from everyone's eyes. 'The admixture of materialism, veiled cowardice, and self-delusion which had caused the deterioration of the public spirit, and emphasized the political losses of France, suddenly appeared in its ugliness.' The lifting of the veil awakened the instinct of self-preservation, revived the military spirit, dethroned the Chamber, and placed authority in the hands of the Prime Minister. In short, 'France began to

* *France Herself Again*. By ERNEST DIMNET. Pp. 510. London: Chatto and Windus. Price 16s. net.

look for a man.' Newspapers were transformed, and began to take interest in foreign things. New ideas and a new spirit began to permeate the French mind. Luckily, too, the great patriotic emotion was accompanied by a radical, intellectual change in distinguished thinkers and writers, so that the efforts of the country were not entirely at the mercy of political fluctuations and intrigues. The author considers that these intellectual changes have altered the national standpoint more profoundly than 'the poetic conversion produced by Chateaubriand, with the assistance of Napoleon's strong hand.' Of the reactions against the Revolution, against Socialism, Internationalism, and other isms, the most interesting is the first-mentioned. Taine's *Origines de la France Contemporaine* (1875) proved that the Revolution was not the work of the nation, but of a few who put in action the principles of Rousseau's *Contrat Social*, a mere play of the intellect, and not the basis of an immense social upbuilding. 'Rousseau and the Revolutionists,' said Taine, 'imagined that the government of a nation was a very simple arrangement, which only needed reason to be perfect. It was an enormous mistake. Politics is less a science than an art, and this art is one of infinite complication, which only long practice, helped by hereditary qualities, can teach.' It was the change in public opinion which, in 1912, made the Rousseau celebration fall so flat. Renan, too, found the Third Republic a failure, and his *La Réforme intellectuelle et morale de la France* 'is an overt indictment of democracy.' 'On the whole, the Revolutionists' fallacy, that power ought to be vested in the multitude, had been exploded long before the European event which showed its absurdity.' In dealing with the evidences of the new spirit, the author has an interesting chapter on 'Provincialism,' the literary form of Nationalism, where he tries to show that Maurice Barrès, the Lorrainer, is almost an epitome of the progress of France he is sketching. Evidence of the new spirit is found in the patriotic attitude forced on Internationalists, in the substitution of a European for a party point of view, in the eclipse of idealism, reducing Anatole France, who is popular only abroad, to the 'fossil' state, in the distrust of Parliament, and in the contempt for syndicalism. Added to all these is the definite positive benefit of a high moral standard caused by a saner philosophy and a saner pragmatism. In this connection the author discusses at some length the anomaly of the stage, and concludes that the theatre does not mirror the city, and that the play is not painted after the audience, but is something artificial. It is noteworthy that

the change in spirit is more marked among the rising generation. As is natural, the Abbé treats at considerable length of the influence of the Church. Into this aspect we refrain from following him. Of great interest for students is the chapter treating of the 'Return of French Literature to its Traditional Spirit.' According to the author—and we think most will nowadays agree with him—neither Romanticism nor Naturalism was unmistakably French, which connotes not only intelligence, wit, brilliancy, dash, a certain outspokenness, clarity of expression, aversion to obscurity, but also want of common sense and practicalness and of a clear apprehension of the spiritual realities of religion and poetry. The Romanticists strained after the sublime, or, at all events, the startling, in every word they wrote. After giving an interesting review of some of the literary movements and works of the nineteenth century, he adds: 'The nineteenth century will appear in French History as a curious lapse in the traditional frankness during which a peculiar kind of attitudinizing prevailed, impelling people to pretend understanding, when they did not understand, and to demand sympathy for emotions they never could feel. Quite the reverse is the result of the recent literary revolution. The transparency in concept and expression, which has become an indispensable condition for acceptance, is so natural to the French that, while it gives them pleasure, it causes them no surprise, and consequently the enjoyment of literary excellence has become once more a calming influence.' We do not think the Abbé deals with Bergson and his work in a sufficiently detached and unpartisan-like spirit. After a brief survey of the revival of the classical spirit, he concludes: 'On the whole, the French as a nation seem to be recovering from several very strange diseases: the criticisms of the Revolution by men like Taine and Sorel, the revelation of the snares hidden in the Declaration of the Rights of Man, the sickening abuse of beautiful words like Liberty, Equality, Fraternity, in the service of very sordid interests, . . . the sudden realization, after Tangier, that a nation is not a collection of independent individuals, but a society; the reintegration of the past into the habitual thoughts of the citizens by Barrèsian literature, have gradually cured the French of the individualistic point of view made popular by Rousseau; . . . they have resumed the habit of viewing European politics in the terms of two hundred years ago, saying: 'the interests of France,' 'the doings of Prussia,' as if each Frenchman were an ambassador speaking for his whole country, and not a humanitarian innocent of frontier questions.' Speaking of 1911, after

Agadir, when the French honestly wished for a call to arms, he says: 'Nations, like individuals, have moods. . . . France has had moods before: in 1876, when the Republican spirit swept away the germs of political good sense planted by Thiers and by the Duc de Broglie; in 1889, after the Boulangist agitation. . . . Are there more reasons this time to hope that the soul will lift up the body instead of being dragged down by it? . . . But if war does not come, and if the danger passes away, is it not probable that with peace and indolence the old taste for dangerous speculation will come back?' The answer has been given sooner than the author thought, and far more satisfactorily than he anticipated.

We do not here propose to follow the Abbé into Part III of his volume, where he considers the 'Political Problems and the Future,' and discusses the various solutions, whether a change of régime brought about by a *coup d'état* or some moral solution which will combat the enervating idea of universal peace and present-day humanitarianism and give an impetus to a sane patriotism that calls forth our best energies. The choice, in any case, lies between a materialistic, socialist philosophy and a simple patriotism where actions count for speeches and courage is the highest philosophy. But this must rest on the foundation of a plain and virile Christianity.

DE S.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN JAPAN.

(Concluded.)

The morning session of Monday, April 6, being devoted to purely technical investigations, the Japanese and the foreign teachers held meetings in separate rooms.

The Japanese section met to discuss the teaching of translation.

Mr. Hasegawa, convinced that Japan at present was in need of interpreters of English thought rather than of fluent speakers of English, deprecated the use of the 'natural' method for beginners. He thought that in the case of Japanese pupils the training of the eye should precede oral training, and this could best be done by translation, the most direct means of understanding the foreign tongue.

The teacher in his own preparation should read as widely as possible, paying particular attention to a study of the Bible—the fountain-head of all English thought—and at the same time perfect himself in his own language. In his attitude to his classes he should abstain from a display of his own powers by translating too cleverly, beyond the pupil's comprehension, and should strive to stimulate their interest in every possible way, relieving the usual monotony of the translation period with anecdotes, etc.

Comparing present-day methods with those of twenty years ago, Mr. Hasegawa thought that there was a tendency to demand too little of the pupils in original work; improved methods of translating compelled them to accept and swallow what was given them without reasoning it out and digesting it. This was to be avoided at all costs; the ideal should be to understand the meaning, and in the translation reproduce as far as possible the purpose of the construction.

In the lower classes, besides drill in pronunciation and reading, the literal translation of the

English texts might well be supplemented during review lessons by oral practice in freely rendering the Japanese version back into English.

With the upper classes the use of a unilingual dictionary and paraphrase was to be recommended. An attempt should be made to summarize the author's ideas and thoughts. The language used should be ordinary-spoken Japanese rather than the more difficult literary forms.

In conclusion, Mr. Hasegawa expressed the hope that the authorities would fix the *Kana* alphabet for the transcription of foreign words, and that a portion of the foreign teacher's hours would be set aside for the instruction of his Japanese colleagues.

Professor Y. Murata expressed the opinion that, of the three principal branches of English teaching—translation, conversation, and composition—the first-named should be considered of the greatest importance, but that if the ideal was to be reached it should be supplemented by the other two.

The old-fashioned but prevalent 'literal method' of translating English into Japanese (*chokuyaku*) he criticized, because, as he said, the translator had to begin from the end of the English sentence, and got into difficulties if the sentence were a long one; and when he had completed the translation, the Japanese rendering was unsatisfactory and often unintelligible.

The method he recommended in its place was a 'direct method,' which he defined as 'a method of translating English into Japanese according to the natural order of English construction,' and which he illustrated by numerous examples, distributed to the delegates on separate leaflets.

The advantages of this method he summed up as follows: (a) It does not require the changes

of the *chokuyaku* method; (b) it familiarizes the pupil with English construction; (c) it helps him to form the habit of thinking in English; (d) it enables him to grasp the correct meaning of what he reads; and (e) the Japanese rendering is more natural. He also urged the necessity of more oral work, and of a more thorough and interesting study of the vocabulary and etymology.

Professor Muko (Keio Gijiku) thought the Conference should put forward proposals dealing with the reform of translation methods; the Education Department should then decide on the best method, and have it demonstrated in all the schools of the Empire. The aim of translation, in his opinion, should be to express exactly the meaning of the original text.

He, however, was not in favour of translation. In the first year English only should be used. All the teaching should be synthetical, not analytical, and should begin with sentence-making, not with the study of words. It would be better for the pupils to follow the '*sodoku*' method and read their English text aloud until they had correctly memorized it, before having it explained to them.

With regard to foreign teachers, he held it was necessary to engage those who were qualified and able to teach their Japanese colleagues.

The foreign section, attended by some fifty or sixty delegates, was in charge of Professor Roy Smith (Kobe Higher Commercial School), and discussed, 'The Teaching of Conversation and Composition in the Fourth and Fifth Year Classes.'

Professor Fardel, in opening, referred to the difficulties under which the foreign teacher is expected to carry on his work. . . . The question before the meeting was, he thought, 'How can the foreign teacher best utilize this limited time?'

Before attempting to answer it, it was first necessary to inquire into the scope and extent of the knowledge of English a middle school student should acquire. This, he thought, should be 'a knowledge of English spoken and written corresponding to the primary grades in English-speaking countries—that is, the structure of simple sentences, the use of conjunctions, of the participle and gerund, the indirect narrative, and the simpler types of compound and complex sentences, together with a mastery of the vocabulary of every day life.'

Proceeding to a discussion of methods, Mr. Fardel rejected the use of the material in the type of readers now in vogue advocated by some teachers, on the score of unsuitability and difficulty, and also because the students lose interest in going over the old ground. Anecdotes and

stories, too, he found unsatisfactory, owing to there being too many points to explain before the stories become intelligible, and to the gaps in the student's vocabulary.

What is required is something within reach of all members of the class, and of interest to advanced and brighter students. This is best supplied by the so-called 'picture method,' the advantages of which he enumerated as follows:

1. It is interesting to all the boys, who practically all start at scratch. The advanced students feel their interest aroused by being made to realize where their knowledge of English is deficient.

2. The teacher can adapt his teaching to the capacity of the backward boys, who are much encouraged when they find they are able to answer in English.

3. The new words come in their natural associations—a great assistance to memory. In explaining these the teacher can further deepen and widen the student's knowledge by tracing the development of the various meanings of the words and the formation of derivative words.

4. On the sentences descriptive of the picture, the teacher can build an infinite variety of sentence exercises covering all the most important points of syntax. That work will necessarily be oral if the teacher has only conversation; if he has two hours, including conversation, more exercises can be set to be done at home.

5. Each picture will suggest topics for conversation and composition. Description may be turned into a narrative, or used in the form of a letter, etc.

6. Questions may be dictated to be answered either in class or at home.

7. Various features will give the opportunity to introduce variety in the work with anecdotes. These will be better appreciated and understood as the students will have previously understood most of the vocabulary used. These anecdotes may be treated in various ways.

8. The teacher may gradually introduce questions leading to comprehensive answers; he may also get the students to ask each other questions in turn.

The pictures of the Four Seasons (Hölzel) utilized as above will furnish abundant work for the fourth year classes.

The fifth year may be an elaboration of that in the fourth year, supplemented by prepared texts on topics of everyday life and anecdotes, with composition exercises based upon them. Other series of pictures may be used—those prepared by Professor Schweitzer, picture postcards, and full-page illustrations from the *Illustrated London News*, the *Graphic*, etc.

The students should be encouraged to classify

the new words they learn, supply the gaps in their vocabulary, and study derivatives.

Professor Dunning followed with a detailed account of his work in 'Conversation' in all classes. This he bases on three fundamental ideas, which in his opinion underlie English methods of thought and form the framework of the language: (1) Space relations; (2) time relations; and (3) personal thought relations (the thought relations existing between individuals, technically called 'indirect discourse').

Beginning with boys in the second year, who have been well grounded by a Japanese teacher in pronunciation and writing, he drills them first of all in sentences referring to space relationships—(a) those of one visible object with another, paying particular attention to set phrases, as, 'by the side of,' 'in front of'; and (b) those of objects unseen, the location of buildings, objects of interest in the city, country, etc. In this connection he finds pictures of great help.

During the third term of the second year time relations are taken up. A start is made with the clock and telling the time, to fix the ideas of 'before' and 'after.' Then simple stories are told to illustrate 'before,' 'after,' 'while,' 'as soon as,' etc.

The third year is occupied almost entirely with an elaboration of the foregoing and drill in personal thought relations—indirect statements in the third person, indirect questions, indirect discourse in the first and second persons. 'When students,' the speaker said, 'can handle indirect discourse, they have gained a pretty fair mastery of the English language, and further rapid progress will be made in wide general reading that enlarges the vocabulary.'

With the fourth year classes relative and conditional sentences are studied, while the students' vocabulary is extended and strengthened by the analysis of words derived from Latin and allied branches, and the study of the meanings of their component parts. Much use is made of such familiar stories as 'Shitakiri Suzume' and 'Momotarō.'

In the fifth year this work is extended to include sentences of all kinds, and 'thus by the time the end of the Middle School course is reached, the question of a thorough mastery of English should be merely a question of enlarging vocabulary.'

Professor P. A. Smith said it was difficult to use the Readers for practical work in the fourth and fifth years. He found it necessary to write his own stories with careful attention to the vocabulary. The story told, students were made to repeat it. The story took two hours in that way. Then the students had to write the story at home as compositions. These he did not

correct himself; he only underlined in red ink the various mistakes, and the students had to correct as much as they could. In the fifth year the students ought to begin to learn to express their own thoughts more freely. The step from rewriting stories to original composition was a big jump, which had to be made easy. Correction, the speaker thought, should be sparse; the essential was to get the student to gain confidence.

At the afternoon session a discussion was opened on 'First Year Work.'

Mr. Okada presented a combined report of the work of the four Middle Schools of Tokyo-fu.

In all the schools the work is introduced by a talk on the importance of the English language as a subject of study, and some of the differences of pronunciation are pointed out by a comparison of words common to both languages.

In the First Middle School a Japanese teacher has sole charge of the work, which starts with the study of the Reader. The scheme of the textbook regulates the procedure in the teaching of the alphabet and pronunciation; for the latter additional exercises are prepared by the teacher, the markings of Webster's Dictionary being introduced later in the course; diagrams and hand-glasses are made much use of. Penmanship instruction is given every hour for the first two weeks, and for half an hour twice a week afterwards. Dictation is given once or twice a week. The essentials of grammar are taught, but the terminology is given either in Japanese or not at all. Each lesson in the Reader usually affords material for four hours, the method of procedure being five or ten minutes' review (recitation or conversation), oral instruction without books, reading, translation, writing and spelling of new words and phrases, memorizing, dictation.

In the other schools the Japanese teacher has the assistance of a foreigner, while in the Third Middle School two Japanese teachers share the work. In these schools the first month is devoted to preliminary drill in the alphabet and pronunciation; in the Second and Fourth, phonetic markings are taught in the third term, and in the Third the system of the International Association is followed. The Second School emphasizes oral work in English, and the Third memorizing and recitation. While the plan of the rest of the work follows that of the First Middle School in the main, grammar is taught according to the scheme of the textbook, and in the Second, as well as in the Fourth, instruction is given in the use of the dictionary.

Miss Hartshorne said: I do not believe in particular methods as such, but I do believe in the

importance of certain principles, by which each one of us must work out a plan. One of these is—Speech ought to be taught from the beginning along with reading and writing.

Most teachers believe in the necessity of teaching the spoken forms, but they complain that under the present circumstances the time is insufficient. If either is to be neglected, it must, of course, be the spoken language, but, in my opinion, both are possible if we teach speech from the beginning.

Psychologically this is good sense, and needs no argument to prove it, but the real question is, Can we spare the time, at least, until a reading knowledge is assured?

A reading knowledge demands a general knowledge of the structure of the language, and a vocabulary of from five to six thousand words. But once we have this knowledge, it is absolutely certain that we are no nearer being able to speak; indeed, we shall find it all the more difficult to do so; we are, in fact, 'too full for utterance.'

Suppose we begin with the spoken language. A pupil will have acquired very little knowledge at the end of the first year, but what he has is complete. He has become familiar with the words he knows and the simpler grammatical forms. To this foundation he can add without limit and without delay, and we shall find that the power to speak aids instead of hindering. No time will have been wasted, because during this stage words must be acquired slowly and fastened in the memory by constant drill; this drill the practice in speaking supplies.

Teachers must bear in mind that repetition is the law of memory-drill for thoroughness; repetition but with variety is the secret of successful work with beginners. Make the questions easy and short, that pupils may learn to understand and answer quickly.

Such work is of vital importance. Japan has need of a body of educated men who can communicate by word of mouth with those of the West, to remove the grievous misunderstandings and dangers from which she now suffers.

On Tuesday, April 7, a discussion was begun on what proved to be the most engrossing topic on the programme—What the Higher Schools require of Middle School Graduates.

Professor Okada, in his introduction, explained that he was using the term 'Higher School' in its broadest sense, to include not only those few institutions preparatory to the University, but every kind of Higher School throughout the country, whether commercial, normal, military, or anything else. His paper, he went on to say, was not an expression of his own individual views,

but in preparing it he had gleaned the opinions of teachers in various institutions of special education.

The Middle School graduates are fairly good, with a satisfactory knowledge of English. They have not fallen off in their attainments within the last few years, but as we are never satisfied with our present standard, always reaching after some ideal, the following criticisms will not be out of place:

1. Candidates for entrance to Higher Schools should pay more attention to pronunciation and accent. They are, as a rule, too curious and too fond of theorizing, which does them more harm than good. Pronunciation is mostly a matter of memory. More emphasis must be laid on the accentuation of words.

2. Their vocabulary is fragmentary and not properly digested. They are ignorant of easy, frequently occurring words, while proud of the knowledge of rare and difficult ones. They do not know properly even those common words they pretend to know. The vocabulary newly acquired should be applied in oral and written exercises.

3. They are ignorant of the fundamental phrases and idioms, or use them in the wrong way. They do not distinguish between idiomatic phrases and slang. They delight in catching hold of slang phrases and sporting them on all occasions. It would be good for them to write letters and keep a diary; and they should also memorize much more.

4. They have a partiality for grammatical subtleties, while constantly violating the most elementary rules of grammar. It is the practical application of grammatical rules that really counts, not discussions of the peculiarities.

5. They cannot grasp by ear the general meaning of even simple sentences. Their knowledge is purely analytical. They study English as if it were a dead language like Chinese, by eye only. The ear is really more important than the eye, hence the great value of dictation.

6. Their handwriting is very poor; one-third of the candidates write illegible letters.

7. Their knowledge of Japanese is often defective.

8. Their range of reading in English is too narrow. They should acquire the habit of reading light literature rapidly and grasping the general sense without translating.

9. They are too timid when called upon to speak English. They make the language their master, not their slave.

10. Middle School authorities would do well to employ foreign instructors to teach pronunciation.

In summing up, Professor Okada advised the

Middle School pupils to pay more attention to the practical side of English, and to learn those elements of the language which would form a basis for further advancement.

Mr. Noda, speaking from the Middle School standpoint, urged that in order to insure thorough assimilation and mastery, the vocabulary should be limited to the 3,000 words in common use, making up, with their various meanings and phrases, at least 5,000 words. Not more than that should be attempted during the five years' Middle School course.

He admitted a tendency in Middle School teaching to give too much time to the more unusual constructions, and suggested that the Higher Schools could easily cure that weakness by leaving such constructions out of their entrance examinations. The books now read are often too difficult; the student is discouraged at the very outset by the too rapid presentation of difficulties in the readers.

With regard to the grammar question, he asked that grammar-books be remodelled and simplified, and that the Higher School entrance examinations should bear chiefly on elementary grammar. He recognized the importance of training the ear, and agreed that the teaching of spoken English should be left to foreign teachers. It was true that pupils could not express their ideas in English, and neglected the study of the colloquial—but for that the Higher Schools were responsible. It would be easy to remedy that defect, if only the Higher Schools would have oral tests bearing on hearing and speaking, besides the written examination.

Mr. Hishinuma gave the conclusions he had reached after recent tours of inspection. He had seen a great improvement in various directions, notably in the greater importance attached to dictation and sentence-building and in more accurate grammatical explanations, but there still remained grave defects. Pronunciation and tone of reading were neglected; reading and "meaning" were still treated in many schools as separate subjects; there was a tendency to treat sentences separately, and not as parts of a connected passage; the first year work was left to inexperienced teachers, too little English was used in the class-room, and there was a lack of unity and teaching-plan among the teachers of a school, this chief evil lying at the bottom of everything.

When he had pointed out those defects to principals, the reply was that the schools were compelled to model their course on the requirements for entrance to the Higher Schools.

The closing session of the Conference was described in the programme as an "open meeting,"

at which it was arranged that delegates should be afforded an opportunity of speaking (for not more than ten minutes each) on any subject connected with the teaching of English.

Mr. Stephens described in detail his method of teaching pronunciation and reading.

With regard to the former, he begins with lists of twenty to thirty common words containing the simple vowel sounds. The positions of the organs of speech and the manner of producing the sounds are explained. Each word is repeated by the class first in chorus and then individually. The lists of different words prevent monotony, and also help to indicate which are the more difficult consonant sounds, whether preceding or following the vowel.

Diphthongs come next. It is easier to divide them into component parts, and to practice each separately, afterwards combining them.

Hints are then given on the more difficult consonant sounds, th, l, v, w, etc. Mr. Stephens recommends that the class pronounce the different sounds in an exaggerated manner, afterwards toning them down. One of the greatest difficulties he experiences is the force of bad habit, due to faulty teaching in the earliest stage of language study. He always impresses on his class the necessity of striving after the correct sound on every possible occasion, not in oral class-work only, but also in private study, when the sound is not *spoken aloud*, but *thought*.

Mr. Stephens' plan for a reading lesson is (1) pattern reading by himself, with the class listening; (2) chorus reading phrase by phrase; (3) individual practice. When the passage is being read, the mistakes are carefully noted, and corrections are made afterwards. Interruption of the reader to correct his faults is apt to upset him and make him nervous. Mr. Stephens sets a high value on chorus work, by which, he says, each member of the class takes part in the whole lesson. There is more chance of correct sounds, and less of "nerves."

Dr. Sakurai said that the dissatisfaction with the results of the teaching of English was but one part of the general dissatisfaction with the results of education in general. The chief factor in the sterility of present-day education he thought to be the present deep-rooted system of cramming. The tendency of young men of to-day was to study only to get through examinations, so as to get lucrative, easy posts. There was a general lack of interest in knowledge for its own sake. The independence of young men was impaired. Teachers tried to teach too much—the results were too small. The present system of examination was a useless and harmful one. He would like to see examinations modified so as to become for the teacher an opportunity to test

the efficiency of his teaching—that is, his ability in drawing out students and making them work for themselves.

Teachers and students must realize that a language is rather to be learned than to be taught. The aim must be to get the students to think, speak, and dream in English—which had become the international language.

Mr. Zumoto urged the importance of the spread of English in this country from quite a different point of view. Alluding to the mistrust of Japan

now prevailing, especially in Australia and the United States, he said nothing would avail to remove that mistrust but association and intercourse with other nations. Other nations could not be expected to learn Japanese. It was for the Japanese to master English thoroughly, the international language, so as to become familiar with the strange ways and customs of the West, to get together and talk heart to heart with Westerners, and thus remove all causes of misunderstanding.

CORRESPONDENCE.

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

A PLEA FOR LATIN.

SIR,—Will you allow me space in your journal to plead for a larger use of the old form of modern Romance, viz., Latin, in the teaching of the modern Romance languages, more particularly of French? I have had many hundreds of Latin pupils, and have had some experience in examining pupils in French, but I have been struck by the fact that in very few cases have either the Latin or the French scholars had any idea of the connection of the two languages. Now, as it seems that Latin is on the down grade as a subject of education, as may be seen, *inter alia*, by the recent decision of the Northern Universities to make it merely an optional subject at Matriculation, it seems an appropriate time to consider whether that fine old language cannot be regarded as an indispensable aid to the teaching of modern languages, in fact if it may be allowed to have a utilitarian advantage. If instruction is given in the modern Romance languages by a competent Latin teacher, the pupil will learn with a living interest all the principles of philology which can be learnt by a comparison of Greek and Latin with Sanskrit and older Aryan languages. There is no lack of historical grammars of the Romance languages, such as Darmesteter's grammar and Gröber's great work, and the tracing of derivations and the romance of the history of words proves a never-ending stimulus to the curiosity of learners.

I would also plead, while on this subject, for some modification of the system of Latin pronunciation as adopted by the Classical Association

and employed in some of our schools, while disregarded in others. It is a system of pronunciation which stands apart from any system practised on the Continent, and therefore the students of Esperanto may well rejoice to reflect that Latin, as it is in this country proposed to pronounce it, has less chance than ever of becoming a *lingua franca* for the learned. It is far from being universally adopted in our large schools and Universities, and it does not seem that there is much chance of its universal adoption. Would it not have been much better to have taken over the old Scottish pronunciation of Latin, which approximates to that of the Jesuits; to have given the vowels the same pronunciation as that given in Italy at the present day, and to have left the consonants to themselves? Surely it should not be forgotten that when the changes from the pronunciation which we are told to adopt took place, Latin was still a spoken language, and it is permissible to think that in different parts of the Empire different dialects prevailed which did not all conform to the classical standard. Much could be said against the invention of the new pronunciation on other grounds, such as the feeble evidence on which some of the ugly sounds are based, but I plead for a modification of the system: in the first place, because I am confident that such modification might cause it to be universally adopted; and secondly, because I think that it would enable teachers more readily and fruitfully to employ Latin as an introduction to modern Romance.

HERBERT A. STRONG.

FROM HERE AND THERE.

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

ON ACTIVE SERVICE.

Mr. F. J. Widdowson, of Christ's Hospital, is Captain in the 21st Battalion Durham Light Infantry.

Mr. W. Elstob, of Merchiston Lodge, Edinburgh, is Captain in the 17th City of Manchester Regiment.

Professor André Barbier (Aberystwyth) est actuellement secrétaire (sous-chef) d'Etat-major au ministre de l'Intérieur.



The fourth annual Conference of Educational Associations will be held in the University of London, Imperial Institute Road, South Kensington, S. W., from Monday, January 3, to Friday, January 7, 1916, inclusive, by kind permission of the Senate.

The opening address will be given by Sir Oliver Lodge, F.R.S., D.Sc., LL.D., Principal of the University of Birmingham, at 3 p.m., on Monday, January 3. The subject of his address will be 'Education after the War.'

Twenty-one educational associations are taking part in this Conference, holding twenty-six meetings, which will be open to all the members of the constituent associations.

There will be an educational exhibition in the East Gallery of recent text-books and apparatus.



The war, like all wars, has brought about a national stock-taking. English spelling is among the assets which are being critically considered. The problem of making our present system more efficient is no simple one. It will engage the attention of several eminent scholars at the Conference of Educational Societies held at the University of London in the first week of January. On the afternoon of Tuesday, January 4, at 2.30 p.m., in Jehangier Hall, Professor Gilbert Murray, Sir Frederick Pollock, Dr. R. W. Macan, Professor Grandgent, and Mr. Walter Rippmann will speak on various aspects of the problem.



The Editorship of the English section of the *Modern Language Review* has now been undertaken by Dr. G. C. Moore Smith, Professor of English Language and Literature in the University of Sheffield, in succession to the late G. C. Macaulay.

With the October number of the *Modern Language Review* the tenth volume of the *Review*

is completed, and this number consists of a general index to vols. i.-x.



Lieutenant E. Worsnop, Assistant Master at Hull Grammar School, has died of wounds received in action.



We regret to have to record the death of one of our members, Lieutenant W. A. Piercy, M.A., who was killed at Loos at the end of September last. Mr. Piercy was, at the time of the outbreak of the war, a Master at the Foundation School, Whitechapel, where his chief work was the teaching of French. He was a man of unbounded energy. He qualified himself for teaching in elementary schools at the Borough Road Training College, where he completed his London B.A. degree, and then spent his third year of training in France. As M.A. in classics in 1908, he had no difficulty in changing elementary teaching for secondary, and held posts first at the Huntingdon Grammar School, then at Judd's Commercial School, Tonbridge, and finally at Whitechapel, where he became an enthusiastic adherent of the Phonetic School.

Wherever he was placed he was always ready to spend himself for the good of his boys, and gave up his holidays in order to conduct their summer camps. He had made all arrangements for one at St. Malo when the war broke out. For some time before this he had held a commission in the 17th County of London Battalion, and at once offered himself for foreign service if called upon. He went to France with two of his colleagues at the beginning of the present year, and fell whilst leading his men in the great advance of September last.



The Colonies seem to be more alive to the German danger than we are at home. In October last the Government of New Zealand passed the Alien Enemy Teachers Bill, which prevents enemy aliens from holding positions in any of

the schools or universities of the Dominion. So that the suggestion of Professor Waterhouse (see his article) has already been partially carried out. A New Zealander writes to the *Daily Telegraph*: It is simply astonishing the number of pro-Germans in this colony. Every second person one meets has some pet German friend that is 'above suspicion.' Even the Government have got a pet German in their employ, guaranteed absolutely the 'Simon Pure,' yet he is found to have been distributing seditious literature, printed in English in Berlin. It is this German element in New Zealand that is stirring up the continual pro-German sentiment, and keeping discord going throughout this colony, and the sooner it is put a stop to the better. We all know the German strength is in unity, and they are all pulling together, whereas our time is being wasted in discussing as to doubts about Germans.

Northamptonshire Education Committee has decided to appoint a teacher of Russian for a period of six months. At Northampton Town and County School between sixty and seventy boys are anxious to learn the language.

At the annual meeting of the Court of Liverpool University on November 28, a new ordinance was approved to enable the University to deprive a person guilty of discreditable conduct offensive to the State or detrimental to its welfare of his degree, diploma, certificate, or distinction. It was thought desirable that the University should be able to cancel a degree granted to any one who maligned our nation or who degraded civilized warfare to the brutality of the barbarian. The unhappy experience of the past eighteen months had shown that in some cases such power was necessary.

The following quotation from Tolstoi's *War and Peace* has been sent to the *Times* by a correspondent:

'Pfuhl was one of those hopelessly, immutably conceited men, ready to face martyrdom for their own ideas, conceited as only Germans can be, just because it is only a German's conceit that is based on an abstract idea—science, that is, the supposed possession of absolute truth. The Frenchman is conceited from supposing himself mentally and physically to be inordinately fascinating both to men and to women. An Englishman is conceited on the ground of being a citizen of the best-constituted State in the world, and also because he, as an Englishman, always knows what is the correct thing to do, and knows that everything that he, as an Englishman, does do is indisputably the correct thing. An Italian is conceited

from being excitable and easily forgetting himself and other people. A Russian is conceited precisely because he knows nothing and cares to know nothing, since he does not believe it possible to know anything fully. A conceited German is the worst of them all, and the most hardened of all, and the most repulsive of all; for he imagines that he possesses the truth in a science of his own invention which is to him absolute truth.'

OXFORD.—There is to be established a Bywater and Sotheby Professorship of Byzantine and Modern Greek Language and Literature out of moneys bequeathed to the University by Mrs. Charlotte Bywater and her husband, Professor Ingram Bywater. The stipend attached to this new professorship will be £500 per annum.

RUSSIAN.—It appears from the daily press that Russian is being taught in the evening continuation classes of the Elgin Burgh School Board and in the classes of the Middlesex Education Committee at Wood Green and Willesden. Classes in Russian are also being held at Golder's Green.

We are pleased to see that, notwithstanding the war, the *Athenæum* not only maintains its high standard in the department in which it is *facile princeps*, but has a useful supplement, giving an alphabetical list, arranged by subjects, of articles that appear in periodical literature. We regret to learn that its sister publication, *Notes and Queries*, is in urgent need of subscriptions to carry it through the war.

We have received from Messrs. Hachette the first number of *La Revue de Hollande*, 'litteraire, artistique, documentaire,' published monthly, at Plaat's, 24, La Haye, at 25 francs a year, or 2.50 francs a month. The Review is in French, like many other celebrated publications that have first seen the light in Holland. It is printed in beautiful large type on good paper, with wide margins. It is, in short, *une revue de luxe*. The first article is an excellent Introduction to the Study of Dutch Literature. Poetry is well represented in the Review.

In view of the widespread interest which is now developing in education as a preparation for the citizen's life and duties, the Moral Education League has decided to devote its two meetings at the Conference of Educational Associations in January next to a discussion of the whole question of training for citizenship. These will take place on the afternoon and evening of Thursday, January 6, 1916, at the University of London,

South Kensington. Admission will be free to all teachers and to others interested in education and citizenship; but it is advisable to apply for

tickets beforehand by letter, in order to secure places. The address of the League is 6, York Buildings, Adelphi, W.C.

REVIEWS.

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

The Man of Genius. By Dr. HERMANN TÜRK. 483 pages. Price 12s. 6d. net. A. and C. Black.

The fact that some dozens of German magazines and reviews have published eulogistic notices of Dr. Türk's book, 'The Man of Genius,' must not be accepted as proof positive of its excellence. Long before 1896, when the first edition appeared, everything emanating from a German professor was necessarily 'wunderschön und grossartig,' and the tide of swollen-headedness rose so high by 1913, that no German would admit the possibility of stupidity in even a servant girl of his nationality. Therefore a reader of these notices should have a liberal supply of salt within easy reach. For instance, clearness and lucidity are claimed for the author, and it is so difficult to connect these abstract ideas with any German philosophical production. However, as far as can be judged, in the absence of the original, the translators have done their work remarkably well, and given the English public an interesting and readable book.

Of the many novel ideas entertained by Dr. Türk, the following is striking: 'Women are more subjective,' and consequently less objective, 'than men'—*i.e.*, they take less notice of outward appearances than of inward excellence, and value mind more than matter. This is somewhat at variance with the opinion of one of the professor's supermen, who assures us that:

Women, like moths, are ever caught by glare, And Mammon wins his way, where seraphs might despair.

If we must have supermen, most of us would consent to admit Shakespeare, Goethe, and Byron into their ranks. But it is rather insulting to these three level-headed men to maintain, as Dr. Türk does, that their ideas of supermanhood are embodied in such irresolute, vacillating, nothing-but-mischief-effecting characters as Hamlet, Faust, and Manfred, who might indeed have been useful in their generation, but for the accidents which upset their equilibrium, and drove them mad, and to the devil.

Of course Nietzsche figures largely in this volume, but it is pleasing to know that Dr. Türk does not approve of him—at least, he did not when he wrote the book. Nor has he any great sympathy with the dismal, whimpering

Schopenhauer. The first of these ignoble savages teaches that love, consideration for others, and goodness are nothing but weakness, and glories in 'the awful joy, and intense delight of criminals, in all destruction, and in all the ecstasies of victory and cruelty.' His three great heroes are the devil, Xerxes, and Caesar Borgia. The first as being the father of all knowledge, the second for having cut to pieces the son of a man who expressed doubts as to the complete success of a military expedition, and the third on account of his generally superior wickedness. It seems only too evident that Nietzsche's countrymen have imbibed his ideas, and are carrying them out literally and spiritually.

Dr. Türk places Christ and Buddha in the front rank of his supermen, and appears to be favourably disposed to their ethics. He introduces us to some of the lesser known members of his hierarchy: to Stirner, who denies all morality and all truth, and is supposed to be the master of the great Nietzsche; to Lombroso, the Italian 'psychiatrist,' who considers genius and insanity one and the same thing, and ascribes the higher intelligence of man to the facts that he has fewer ribs than some, and less muscle than other, animals, and is, moreover, without a tail; to Jolly, whose nationality is not mentioned, and who is introduced merely as a commentator on the psychiatrist.

It is gratifying to our national pride to note that Dr. Türk includes many Englishmen among his supermen, and that Shakespeare (who was not a German until last year) is spoken of as 'undoubtedly the greatest dramatic poet of all time.'

We hope, for the translators' and publishers' sake, that many editions of *The Man of Genius* will be demanded.

Russia and Democracy; The German Canker in Russia. By G. DE WESSELITSKY. Pp. 96. Price 1s. Heinemann.

Everyone interested in Russia should read this short and vivid account of the history of German influence in Russia from the earliest times to the present day. The information it contains is necessary for a clear understanding of Russian politics. No country has suffered more than Russia from German 'peaceful penetration,' and

our author shows clearly how this was possible. No country has suffered more from the cynical duplicity and fiendish diplomacy of Prussia. The machinations of Frederick II., who taught that everything, even honour, should be sacrificed to the State, and of that arch-plotter Prince Bismarck, are here laid bare, and must leave an unpleasant taste in the reader's mouth, unless he be a German, if it does not make his gorge rise. At all times, as now, nothing was sacred which stood in the way of the advancement of German interests. At one period of Russian history Germany had obtained such power and influence that a famous Russian general, when asked what he would like as a reward for great services to his country, replied: 'Make me a German, and the rest will follow.' At another period the Russian language was avoided even in the Russian Foreign Office. England's misunderstanding of Russia in the past has been unfortunate, and it is scarcely necessary to point out our short-sighted policy in bolstering up the Turk in opposition to Russia. Happily, Russia is now throwing off the German incubus and cutting out the canker that has been eating into her flesh for the last 200 years, and the dream of Peter the Great, an alliance with France and England, is at last being realized. The book is well written, and there is hardly a dull page in it.

Serbia: Her People, History, and Aspirations.
By WOISLAV M. PETROVITCH. With Four Portraits. Pp. 280. Harrap and Co. Price 3s. 6d. net.

Those who wish to get a clear and concise account of the country on which the eyes of the whole world are riveted at the present moment cannot do better than consult this moving story of Serbia from the earliest times down to the present day—in fact, down to the Austrian débâcle at the end of 1914. The second part of the book gives an extremely interesting account of 'National Beliefs and Customs.'

First Russian Book. By NEVILL FORBES, M.A., Oxford. Pp. viii + 216. Clarendon Press. 2s. 6d. net.

The aim of the author of this little book is, according to the Preface, to acquaint the student with the case-endings. This is to be done as 'palatably' as possible. Let us see how he fulfils his purpose.

The nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental, and locative cases are dealt with quite well in this order, nouns coming first, then pronouns and adjectives. We notice no remarks on the vocative. The only objection to this form of treatment is that, especially in the case of the locative, it tends to degenerate into tiresome

word lists. By a wealth of material and by an obvious desire to be interesting, as well as by a careful selection of examples, the author has produced a notable and valuable first book.

Because of this, it is not pleasant to point out the following weaknesses, though, in the interest of Russian teaching in the country, it is our duty to do so, all the more so as these remarks may catch the eye of some other writer of some other Russian book for English students. We have dealt before, in our criticism of Dr. Forbes' Grammar, with his use of phonetic symbols. We would therefore merely remark, as we have remarked before, that the symbol 'y' should not stand for 'yerü' and 'yot' (English y), for a vowel and a consonant in the same script.

Then there are about a dozen chapters in the book which are simply word-lists, vocabularies of colour-adjectives, shape-adjectives, articles of food and drink, etc., etc., having none or very little reference to any other part of the book. The proper place for these is in a separate word- or phrase-book. Besides this, they are in no sort of order that we can trace. If we know anything of students, we opine that they will not find these lists very 'palatable.'

We see no reason why a few simple verbs should not have been included in dealing with the cases. The simplest child in any language uses verbs—'look,' 'run,' 'don't,' etc. Surely these, even in Russian, are not too *terrible* for use in a first book.

Again, there should have been at the end of the book a vocabulary of all the Russian words in the book; there is an excellent English vocabulary and a useful subject-index which will be welcome to the student. There might also have been included with profit to the beginner full paradigms of the declensions of nouns, pronouns, adjectives.

When all is considered, the chief fault in the book is its tendency to become wearisome, simply because of the succession of similar phrases on the same theme and illustrative of the same point. Nevertheless, strange as it might seem, we heartily recommend the book to those students who are *not* beginners, but who wish to revise what they once knew and have in the meantime forgotten.

S.

Bondar's Russian Readers. No. 1. ПИРОВАЯ ДАМА; or *The Queen of Spades*, by PUSHKIN. Edited by D. BONDAR. Pp. 82. London: 1915. 2s. net.

In the Preface to this little book the Editor modestly says that he will be grateful for suggestions. Criticism will doubtless be included under the head of suggestion.

At such a time as this, any Russian work

edited in English is welcome, since one of the greatest needs of the student of Russian in this country is reading matter with a vocabulary attached. Here we have a sample. The plan of the book is as follows: The author places the text on the left-hand pages, while on the right-hand appear the word-lists for the opposite pages in each case. This takes up 71 pages; then there is a list of verbs, and at the end one page of notes.

Now for the 'suggestions.' We think that the author might well have begun the volume by a short note on Pushkin, giving his dates, his chief works, and a brief account of the work to be read, showing its relation to his other prose and verse. Then there should most emphatically have been a full vocabulary at the end of the book. The word-lists facing the text serve very well at the beginning of the book, but when a reader has arrived at, say, page 40, and has forgotten a word, what has he to do? He must needs read through all the preceding pages of words. 'But,' says a zealous author, 'if a conscientious student of my book has carefully progressed, he will never be in such a difficulty.' Little does such a one know of students, or indeed of any portion of human kind.

Again, we think the text should have been on the right-hand pages, and the word-lists on the left. After all, the important thing is the text. Some editors are so proud of their work, and show it off in such a way as to make one believe that great writers wrote in order that they might edit. This, of course, is hardly true of Mr. Bondar. The right-hand page is more easily seen than the left.

Yet again, naturally, as we proceed in the book, the word-lists become shorter; the space is then taken up with a scrap of text. This makes the following of the matter rather troublesome; the odd spaces might quite easily have been filled with useful notes, leaving the page clear of text. The list of verbs at the end is a capital idea, but why not give the meanings!

The most confusing thing in the whole book is the accent. This is placed immediately after the syllable which bears it, owing, we are told, to the fact that accented letters cannot be obtained in this country. The result of placing the accent in such a way is that one long word with an accent in the middle, followed by two short words, both bearing accents at the end, appear like four short words. This is sometimes most puzzling for beginners. The text is therefore spoilt by the accentuation. Why not leave it out, or put a dot as Sweet does in his phonetic system! The words in the lists opposite could still be accented in this weird manner. In conclusion, we regret there is no suggestion through-

out the book that Russian is at all difficult, phonetically, and no guidance is given in reading aloud. S.

General Phonetics for Missionaries and Students of Languages. By G. NOËL-ARMFIELD. Pp. 142. Cambridge: Heffer and Sons.

In the past missionaries and other students of languages which did not possess any form of writing had great difficulty in making records of the speech of new tribes. The difficulty arose mainly from want of phonetic knowledge and training. The records of an English missionary would be of little use to a French one, and *vice versa*. A study of this book will not only tend to produce more trustworthy records, but will enable members of other nations to read the records if the alphabet of the I.P.A. is used. (Mr. Noël-Armfield uses a few symbols not recognized by the I.P.A.) The author has described some four score of the main types of human speech, taking Southern English as his basis. The descriptions are carefully done, and there are numerous diagrams of tongue and lip positions. The easy and more difficult non-English consonant sounds are treated in separate chapters. There is also a chapter on Intonation. The book can be highly recommended as a sound contribution to the study of phonetics.

A Junior Graphic Grammar. By E. A. A. VAMISH and J. H. HANLY. Pp. 166. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1915.

We can thoroughly recommend this book, intended for pupils between nine and thirteen. It cannot fail to do what its authors claim—viz., to make dull old grammar a stimulating and vivid subject. There are numerous exercises, and all points are explained graphically, as, for example:

A. MAIN CLAUSE.

The MAN came.

B. SUBORDINATE CLAUSE.

× link

because

I invited HIM.

He would be a dull pupil indeed who failed to grasp the meaning of the subjunctive mood or the future in the past, and the teacher of modern languages will have cause to bless a pupil who has been taken through this excellent course before attempting a foreign language.

Comorre, and other Stories taken from Le Foyer Breton. By E. SOUVESTRE. Edited by C. J. M. ADIE and P. C. H. DE SATGÉ. Oxford University Press.

The exercises in the book are an attempt to combine retranslation with grammar exercises. These are based on the vocabulary of the text, but only one point in grammar is treated at a

time. Each set of sentences is preceded by grammatical explanations in English.

A French Phonetic Reader. By PAUL PASSY. (The London Phonetic Readers.) Pp. ix+25+17.

Four styles of pronunciation are indicated—slow conversational, careful, oratorical, and rapid colloquial. Stress is marked. There is a French (phonetic) English vocabulary.

Poems of To-day: An Anthology. Published for the English Association by Sidgwick and Jackson. Pp. 174. Price 2s. net.

Anthologies seem to be on the increase. The English Association has done well in publishing this one, which gives an excellent idea of present poets and tendencies. The selection has been made methodically, and three rough divisions have been kept in view: Poems

of History, poems of the Earth, and poems of Life. Selections from forty-seven poets are given, including Stevenson, Meredith, Masfield, and the present Poet Laureate.

Social Life in Wales. By JOHN FINNEMORE. With fifty-seven illustrations, four of them in colour. Selected by R. T. FINCH. Pp. 248. A. and O. Black.

This is one of Black's well-known Historical Series intended for young readers. It begins with the earliest times, and ends with present-day conditions. The author clothes the Welsh people with an interest that never flags, and this is enhanced by many illustrations, some of which are in colour. We can heartily recommend the book not only to Welsh schools, but to all schools where history readers are in use. This one will make the study a pleasure.

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.

Grammar, etc.

ADDIS, W. J.: *A Heuristic English Grammar.* Pp. 64. Price 1s. 4d. Constable and Co.

History, Literature, etc.

The Cambridge History of English Literature. Vol. XII.: The Nineteenth Century, I. Pp. xl+565. Price 9s. Cambridge University Press.

EDWARDS, W.: *Notes on English Literature.* Part I.: From Skelton to Shakespeare. Pp. 285. Price 3s. net. Rivingtons.

Texts.

WALKER, MRS. HUGH: *A Book of Victorian Poetry and Prose.* Pp. 257. Price 3s. net. Cambridge University Press.

CALLENDER, GEOFFREY: *Spindrift.* Salt from the Ocean of English Prose. Pp. 417. Price 3s. net. Cambridge University Press.

The Lay of Havelok the Dane. Re-edited by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat. Second edition, revised by K. Sisam. Pp. xl+104+67. Price 4s. 6d. Clarendon Press.

FRENCH.

Composition.

BRUCE, M. S.: *Exercises in French Composition.* Based on Alphonse Daudet's 'La Dernière Classe' and 'Le Siège de Berlin.' Pp. 91. Price 1s. 6d. Ginn and Co.

GOODRIDGE, G. W. F. R.: *French Composition for Students and Upper Forms.* With Revision of Syntax in French. Pp. 174. Price 2s. 6d. Clarendon Press.

EDWARDS, P.: *Extracts for Translation into French.* With Footnotes, Hints, etc. Pp. 27. Price 8d. Hachette and Co.

Courses, etc.

ALTHAUS, L. H.: *Petit Cours Préparatoire.* A Two-Term Course in Phonetic Script. Pp. 87. Price 1s. 4d. Black.

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Texts.

GORSSE ET JACQUIN: *La Jeunesse de Cyrano de Bergerac.* With Notes and Retranslation. Exercises by T. B. Rudmose-Brown and K. M. Linton. Pp. vii+237+115+43. Price 3s. Hachette and Co.

ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN: *Histoire d'un Conscrit de 1813.* With a Selection of Poems on Napoleon I. Adapted and Edited by Otto Siepmann. Pp. 100+90. Price 2s. 6d. Macmillan.

DAUDET, A.: *La Dernière Classe.* L'Enfant Espion. Edited with Notes (in French), Vocabulaire, Questionnaire, and Exercises by H. N. Adair. Pp. 59. Price 6d. Hachette and Co.

LATHAM, A. G.: *The Oxford Treasury of French Literature.* Vol. I.: Medieval Renaissance and Seventeenth Century. Pp. 331. Price 3s. 6d. Clarendon Press.

Miscellaneous.

NOEL, L.: *Louvain, 891-1914.* Avec Illustrations. Pp. 243. Price 3s. 6d. net. Clarendon Press.

VARIOUS.

PARES, BERNARD. *Day by Day with the Russian Army, 1914-15.* With Maps. Pp. 287. Price 7s. 6d. net. Constable.

A *First Russian Reader* from L. N. Tolstoy. With English Notes and a Vocabulary by Percy Dearmer and V. A. Tananevich. Pp. 80. Price 1s. 6d. net. Clarendon Press.

MODERN LANGUAGE ASSOCIATION.

A DIFFICULTY about retirement by rotation has arisen owing to the change made last year in the Rules. At the General Meeting the following scheme for retirement in the years 1917-18 will be proposed: At the end of 1917, ten elected in 1914 and five elected in 1915, selected by lot, to go off; at end of 1918, five elected in 1915 and nine elected in 1916, selected by lot, to go off. Thirteen vacancies to be filled at end of 1917, and fourteen at end of 1918.

At the last Committee Meeting the following new members were elected: Miss M. M. Claridge,

B.A., County School, Ashford, Middlesex; Miss J. M. Knapp, B.A., Secondary School, Blandford, Dorset; Miss Ethel M. Lee, B.A., Whalley Range High School, Manchester; F. Lister, B.A., L-ès-L., St. Dunstan's (College, Catford, S.E.); Miss A. R. MacIver, M.A., High School, Morpeth, Northumberland; H. E. Palmer, University College, London; A. W. Pegrum, County School for Boys, Gravesend; Miss K. A. Sanders, Cowley Girls' School, St. Helen's, Lancashire.

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.; the annual subscription is 4s. 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, Cullrathain, 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, 7, South Hill Mansions, London, N.W. (Address till Christmas: 11, Denmark Terrace, Brighton.)

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. Twentymann, 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: Miss HART, County Secondary School, Sydenham Hill Road, S.E.

Scholars' International Correspondence: Miss ALLPRESS, County School, Wood Green, N.

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

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