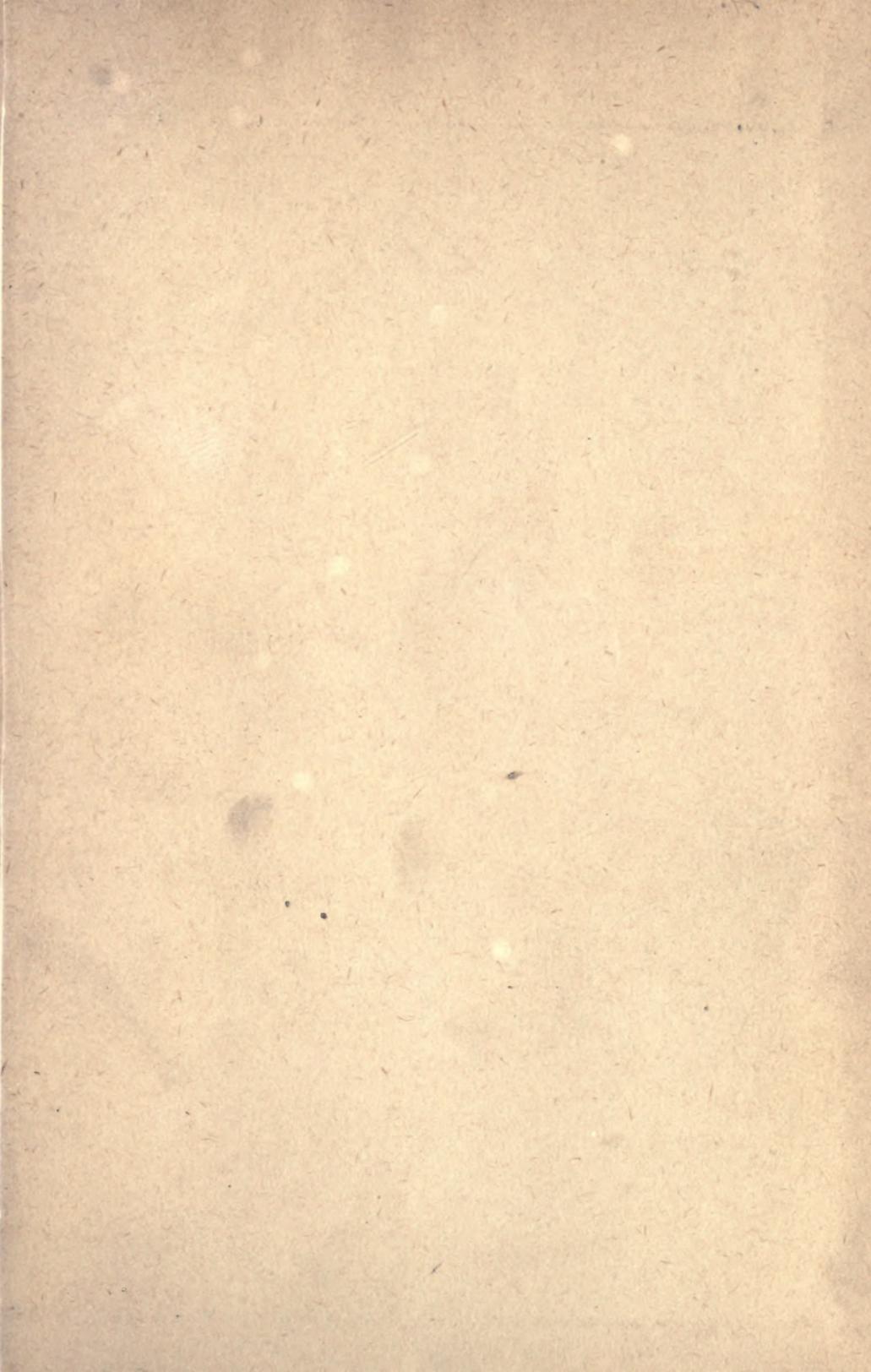
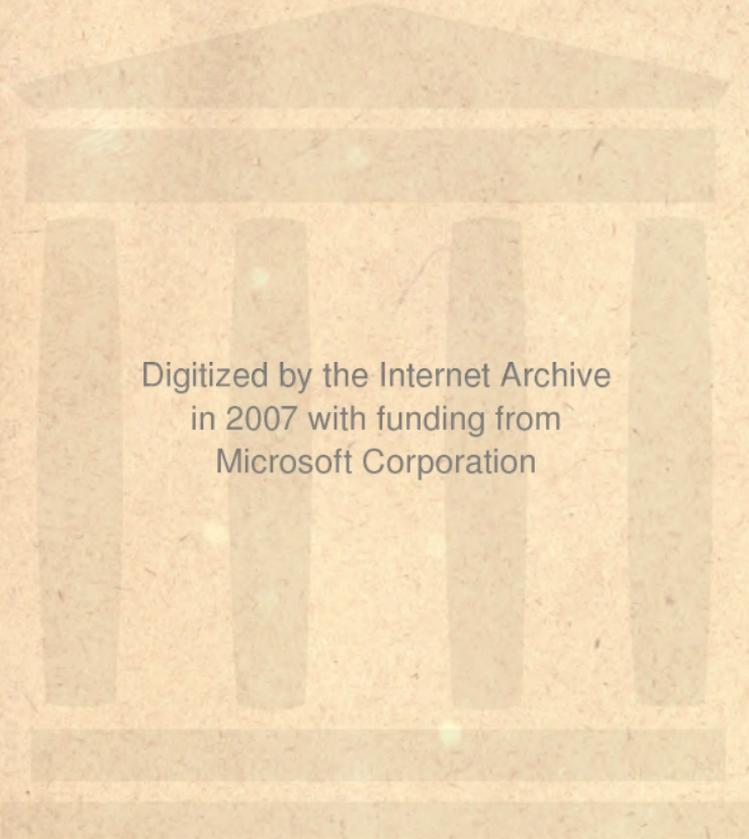


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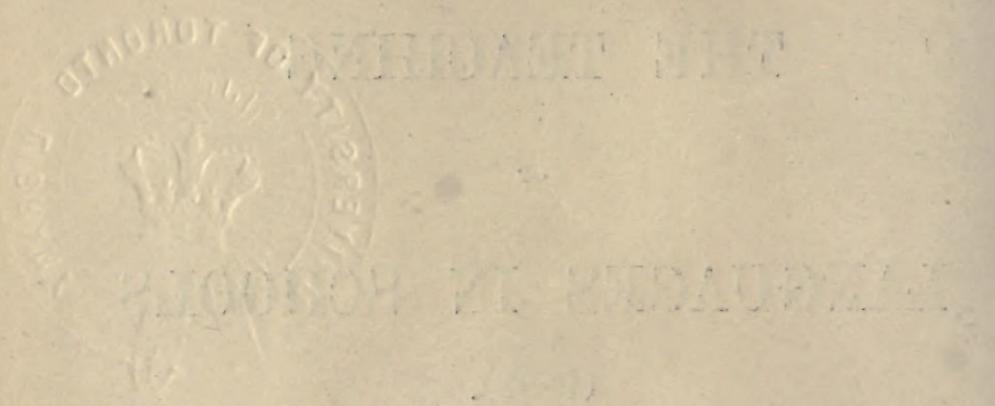
THE TEACHING
OF
LANGUAGES IN SCHOOLS
(1888).

BY
THE LATE
W. H. WIDGERY, M.A.,
⁽¹⁾
ASSISTANT MASTER AT UNIVERSITY COLLEGE SCHOOL.

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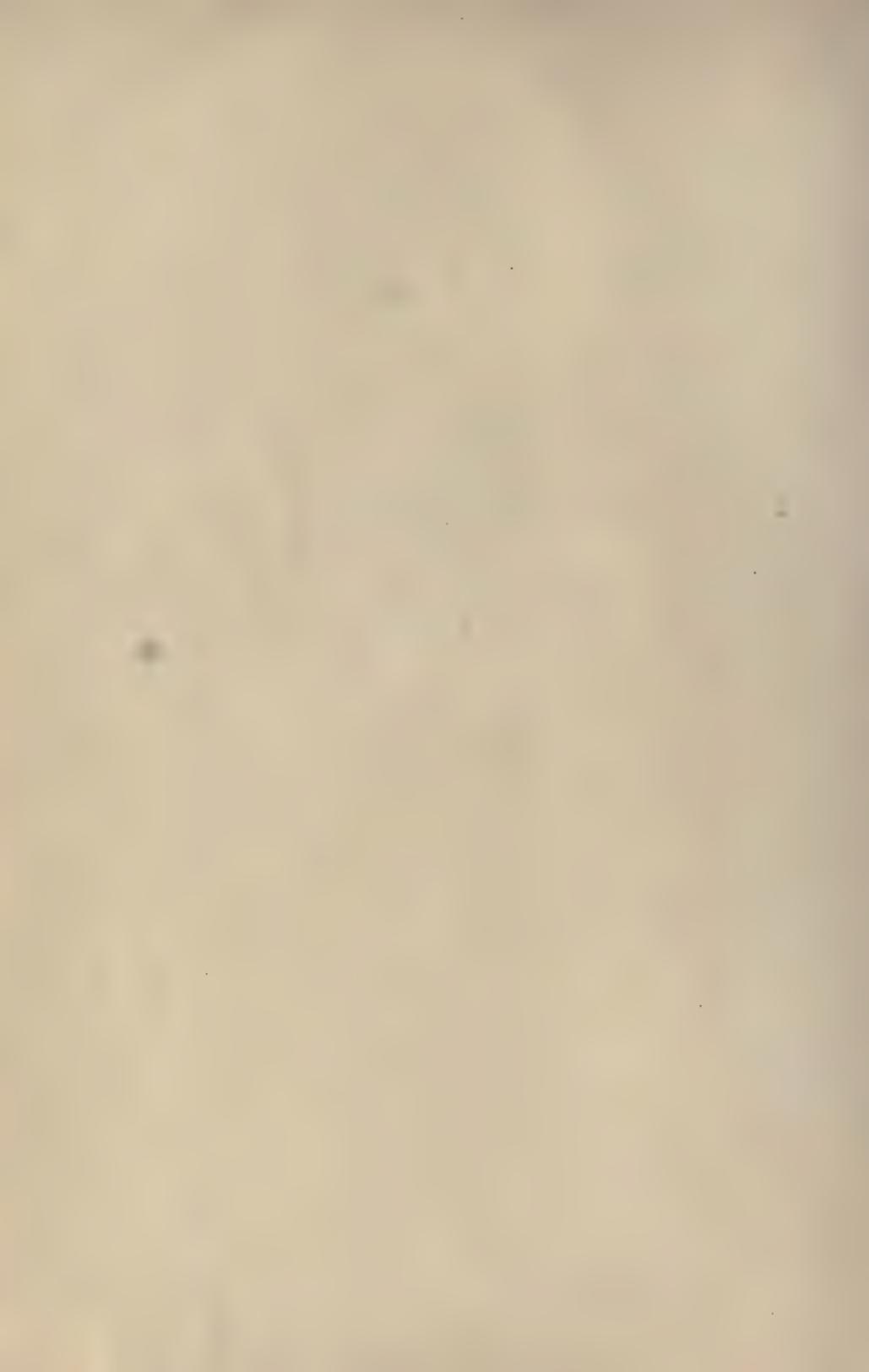
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TO THE MEMORY

OF

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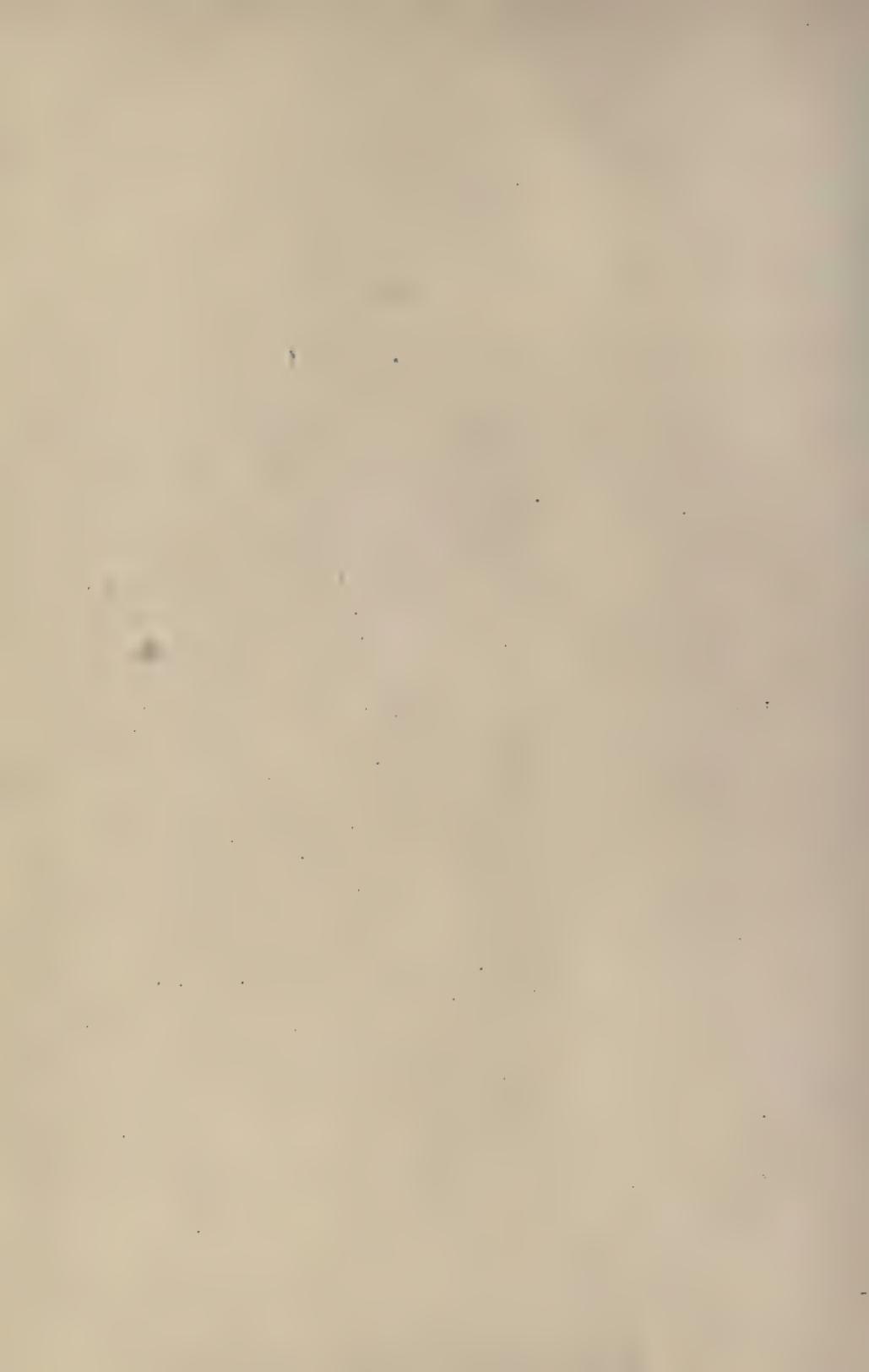


PREFACE

THE need for a reprint of this pamphlet, which first appeared in 1888, has been forcibly impressed on me. Quite recently I heard that it had been recommended by the Professor of Languages at the Royal Albert Memorial College at Exeter, and that the work had been advertised for in the newspapers. I also had a letter from a teacher of languages strongly urging me to have the "valuable" work reprinted. It is needless to say how willingly I undertook to do my best to keep alive that which had been the work of one whose life, though frequently overshadowed by sicknesses and disappointments, was one long, cheerful, strenuous endeavour—if I might be allowed so to express it—to put planks across the torrents of prejudice, injustice, and tradition, that others might pass over them to "pastures new." That some have used his "planks" in the study of the teaching of languages is shown by the demand for a reprint of this pamphlet, his chief work on the subject.

To us who knew him well this reprint is a token of gratitude that our prophecy, "his work will continue," has been fulfilled, and we send this pioneering effort of his once more out into the world as a memorial of him whose life and work alike were always attuned to the highest ideals.

May this book help those who are consciously engaged in teaching as much as he—an ever present comrade—still helps us in living!



LIFE

WILLIAM HENRY WIDGERY, M.A., the writer of this pamphlet, was born in Exeter, 1856. His parents were William Widgery, the poet-painter of Dartmoor, and Elizabeth Widgery, who was the daughter of a schoolmistress, and the sister of a very successful teacher in Melbourne.

During his boyhood he was "ever a fighter." In 1869 he began work in earnest, and carried off the chief prizes at Hele's School, at which he won a scholarship for the Exeter Grammar School. In the succeeding years he passed examinations in Art and Science, obtained the "Tucker Prize," a local honour, and a quantity of prizes at school. In 1874 he competed successfully for two exhibitions, and was elected "Proper Sizar" at St. John's College, Cambridge. Mathematics were his chief study, but literature, languages, and art were not neglected. On account of ill health he had to leave college for a year. In 1878 he was elected Foundation Scholar of John's; the following year he graduated Seventh Senior Optime in the Mathematical Tripos in spite of being handicapped by illness between the two parts. After leaving the University he began practical work as a teacher at Dover College. After fulfilling his engagement there he returned to Exeter, and spent the remainder of the year in the study of languages. To Greek and Latin he added French, German, Spanish, and Italian. During this year he thought of entering the Unitarian Ministry, inspired thereto by a remark-

able sermon by the Rev. William Chignell. This idea was abandoned. In January 1880 he finished an Essay on the First Quarto Edition of Hamlet, for which—in conjunction with the now well-known Professor Herford—he was awarded the Harness Prize at Cambridge.

From 1880 to 1883 he was Second Master at Brewers' Company's School, Tower Hill. He continued his linguistic studies—Flemish, during a visit to his artist brother in Antwerp; Icelandic, Mæso-Gothic, and Anglo-Saxon at University College. Hebrew and Sanskrit were added later.

In 1882, at Exeter, he gave his first lecture—Beówulf. The next year he was appointed Assistant Master at University College. He also began a great deal of honorary public work, was member of the Stepney Committee of the Charity Organisation Society, Secretary of the Education Society, and Librarian and member of Council of the Teachers' Guild. In 1886 he spent several months in Germany. "At Berlin he matriculated, attended lectures on Pedagogy and Teutonic Philology; examined the working of schools; attended an Educational Congress." In this year his first reviews appeared in the *School Board Chronicle* and *Journal of Education*. These were followed by many others on books dealing with Pedagogy, Philology, &c. It is interesting to note that the reviews include one on Karl Elze's "William Shakespeare," and another on the Bacon-Shakespeare theory. From this time until his death he was ceaselessly active except, as he said himself, on "days wasted in illness."

In January 1888, at a Teachers' Guild Conference held in London, he gave the speech, "Teaching of Modern Languages," which formed the nucleus of this pamphlet.

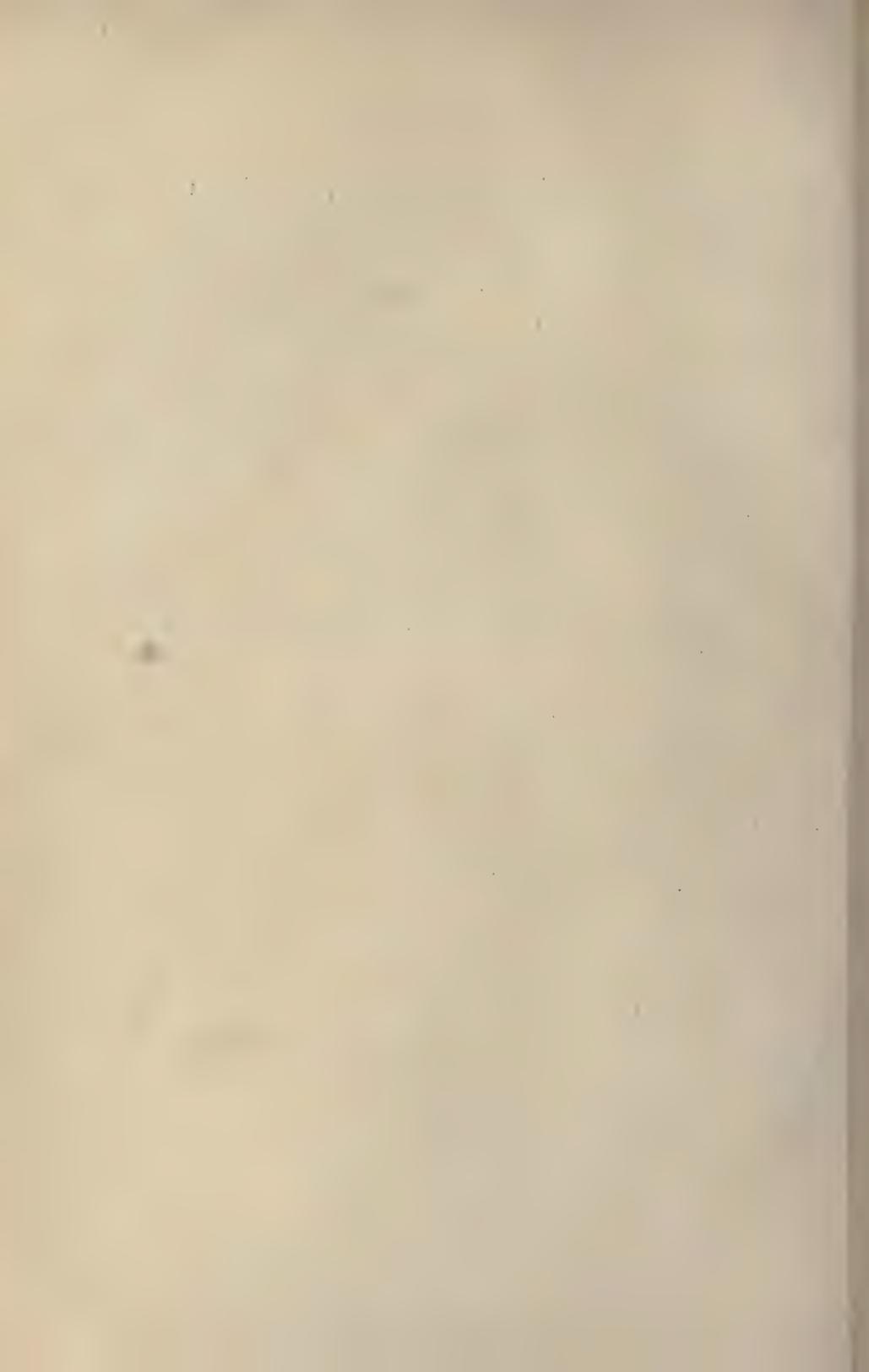
From this time he was well known as a writer and speaker on Education. He was asked to write a report on the Paris

Congress for the American Government. A paper, "The History of Educational Museums," was printed by the College for the Training of Teachers, New York; another, "Class Teaching of Phonetics," was reprinted from the *Educational Times*. In Germany he was acknowledged not only as an educational reformer, but as a competent Shakespearian critic. He was a frequent speaker at conferences of the Teachers' Guild; in one speech he voiced his earnest desire for a Teaching Tripos at the Universities; in another, given at a High School, he advocated a better system for the teaching of Algebra. He contributed "notes" on Modern Philology, and continued to write reviews until August 1891, when at his home in Exeter, as "his work was being built into the framework of the world," this "artist in the souls of children" passed beyond "mortal ken."

I have purposely refrained from giving more than a few events in my brother's career. To those who wish to study his life and work I gratefully recommend the book I have used as reference in this short sketch—"William Henry Widgery, Schoolmaster," by W. K. Hill, Esq., House Secretary at the London University.

FLORENCE TOZER.

EXETER, *June 1st*, 1903.



THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGES IN SCHOOLS.

WHY do we learn foreign languages? For two reasons, a lower and a higher—the lower simply utilitarian, the higher to acquire a new soul by penetrating into a new realm of thought. For England and Englishmen both reasons are of prime importance: the growing keenness of modern competition makes the former an imperative necessity if we are to hold our own in the world; we need the latter if we are to free ourselves from insular oneness.

Throughout the Middle Ages, and down almost to the French Revolution, the great weight laid on the teaching of Latin in schools was due rather to practical needs than to any claim for it as a superior instrument of culture. The educated man spoke his mother speech for every-day life; with his school speech he could address the whole of Europe. In the time of Shakespeare 70 per cent. of the books published were written in Latin. The need to know only two languages was undoubtedly a great boon, and had Latin been capable of development enough to satisfy the wider spiritual needs of our time the dream of Comenius would have been worthy of all pains to make it a living reality. Now the educated man is saddled with at least five languages, and we try, but try in vain, to carry in our schools the same heavy weight. This is too much of a good thing; something must be cut out.

Our great modern reformers, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel,

have been the sources of mighty inspirations; they have pointed out in the rough the paths along which we must travel. They failed in system. We need now rather some powerful organiser, well trained in philosophy, in logic, in psychology, one who will do actual school work for some years and then clear for us the jungle of educational literature.

Descartes married the algebra of the Arabs to the geometry of the Greeks, and laid the foundations of our modern mathematics. Our new educational reformer must combine the desire of Comenius for widening the realm of positive knowledge with Pestalozzi's enthusiasm for heightening the intellectual powers; he must wed the formal education of the Middle Ages to the spreading science of the moderns. Posterity will not turn to him for fresh inspiration or new life, but his work will be, so to speak, built into the human race.

Greek and Latin stand in the same relation. For new inspiration and hope we must turn ever and again to Greece, the bright home of our literature and art. Latin has had its day. In the intellectual world Rome is but the pale reflex of Athens, and we, more fortunate than the Middle Ages, can go direct to the source. Latin has died twice; once as the language of ancient Rome, a second time as the *lingua franca* of Europe: she is built into the framework of the world; cannot we let her rest there? For the future our school time must be saved by limiting the teaching of the classics strictly to the acquirement of the power to read them, except, of course, for the classical student, a specialist no less than other specialists; his practical control must pass up into conscious and scientific mastery.

But we shall be told we cannot understand modern Europe without a knowledge of antiquity. Well, the study of origins is not everybody's business, and our religion, our politics, our painting do not spring from Greece or Rome. The first small beginnings of our science are indeed found in Greece, but they bear no more comparison to our broadening

stream than the aimless movements of a child do to the swift sure steps of a man.

Again, the classics are said to be superior to modern languages as a means of culture. Who has a right to affirm that this is so? The latter have never been seriously tried in schools. Before we can adequately judge any system we must see it from the point of view of its defenders. A greater authority than Boeckh we can scarcely desire. In an oration delivered in 1826 he says: "Men keenly seeking reasons for the study of the literature and, more especially, the language of Greece and Rome have been able to find none better than that of the so-called 'mental training.' This, however, is not enough for me: as far as my experience goes men who devote themselves to the study of Greek and Latin grammar are not markedly superior to other mortals in the possession of well-balanced minds. Although the classics do indeed afford material fit for mental training, they should, I think, unless some more powerful reason can be brought forward, be banished from our schools." (R. V. Stoy, *Encyklopädie, Methodologie, und Literatur der Pädagogik*, 1878, p. 66.)

Another great advantage of the modern languages over the ancient as a school subject is the effective criticism to which our work can be subjected. If a Frenchman or a German comes into our class-rooms, he detects instantly the slightest mistakes in our pronunciation, in our language, in our explanations. Can the classical student obtain such efficient supervision? We doubt it.

Again, as we are nearer in time to our modern classics, not only do we understand them, we feel them. Antiquity is a long way off, and we lack the atmosphere in which its thoughts moved. Let us listen to Boeckh again. He finished a lecture on Pindar once with these words: "Gentlemen, you have just heard the commentaries and the various readings of one of the finest odes of Pindar. I have told you all I know about them. If you ask me to point out the passages that moved Greece to a transport of admiration, I must answer in

all frankness and humility, *I do not know.*" (Lévy, I., p. 20.)*

We cannot put our finger on the passages where Homer nodded, nor point out what Vergil wished erased. In school we must be content to understand the ancients; the modern languages we must learn to speak, to feel, to write. If our scholars like to amuse themselves with the classics, as Littré did with Old French, that is their business—it does not belong to the school.

Another important task for the future reformer is the effective grouping of our school subjects; at present they run in unconnected straight lines—they ought to spread in concentric circles. What, then, must be the beginning of our language teaching? It must of necessity be English. Important as it may be for an English boy to learn something of other tongues, it is still more important for him to know his own. Around English, and around English alone, can our teaching be properly concentrated; in English, and in English alone, can we make any attempt at a proper study of grammar as such, for in the mother tongue alone have we enough preliminary knowledge to arrange into a scientific scheme. And what a language to begin with!

Here let me quote, with especial pleasure, the words of an English headmaster, one of the very few who have helped their fellow-teachers by giving them the fruit of a ripened experience—proud words written when Shakespeare was a lad of eighteen, when England was gathering up her mighty strength before she smote back Spain into darkness, to blossom soon after into the splendour and glory of our Elizabethan drama:—

"I love Rome, but London better; I favour Italy, but England more; I honour the Latin, but I worship the English. 'Why,' he cries, 'must we teach in Latin? Why not all in English, a tongue of itself both deep in conceit and frank in delivery? I do not think

* The full titles of works quoted thus will be found under the authors' names in the bibliography at the end.

that any language, be it whatsoever, is better able to utter all arguments, either with more pith or greater plainness than our English is, being not any whit behind either the subtle Greek for couching close or the stately Latin for speeding fair; besides, an English profit must not be measured by a Latinist's pleasure, which is not for studies to play with, but for students to practise."—(Mulcaster, p. 259.)

Are these the prejudiced words of an Englishman? We can confirm them three centuries later with the testimony of the father of Teutonic philology:—

“Among modern languages, English has gained more strength and vigour than any other, just because it has abandoned and put to rout its old laws of sound, while losing very nearly all its inflexions. On its wealth of unrestricted intermediate sounds—a wealth that can only be learnt but not taught—depends a genuine power of expression, such as perhaps never before stood at the command of any other human tongue. Its thoroughly intellectual and marvellously felicitous framework and development arose from a striking marriage of the two noblest languages of modern Europe, the Teutonic and the Romance: the one furnished the concrete foundation, the other added the intellectual superstructure. It is not without significance that the greatest and supremest poet of the modern world, as opposed to the classical poetry of the ancients—I mean, of course, Shakespeare—was born and bred in the English tongue; indeed, it can full well claim to be a universal language, and it seems, like the English themselves, marked out to dominate in the future, in a still higher degree over all the ends of the earth. In wealth, in common sense, in compressed sequence, no other living language can be placed by its side, not even our own German tongue, which is torn and distraught as we are torn and distraught.”—(Grimm, 50.)

The mere possession of our language ought to have put us in the very forefront of the world as philologists. “English is of all existing languages perhaps the best for explaining the development of language in general” (Tylor, 133). From the Teutonic words that passed into currency among the Finns and Lapps in the first century, we can follow the course of our language for close on two thousand years. We can see it pass from an inflexional stage, nearly as full as that of Greek or Latin, to the most analytic in the world; and yet, with all this incessant change, with this unceasing incorporation of new elements, we have retained much of the old. Our

consonantal system is nearer than any other allied modern language to the Primitive Teutonic.

English may be roughly classed "as an isolating language which is passing into the agglutinative stage with a few traditional inflexions. Hence the value of English as a preparation for the study of language generally, when studied rationally: it enables us to watch many linguistic phenomena in the very process of formation." (Sweet, I., 491.) By a good preliminary training then in our own tongue, we ought to acquire a general framework into which we can place afterwards as many languages as we please. We have not enjoyed a good reputation as linguists, but with a proper change of method there is "no reason to fear that the English will prove in any way inferior to other nations; in fact, the richness of our sound-system, both consonants and vowels, the delicacy of our intonation and stress distinctions, and the comparatively rational nature of our grammar ought to give us great advantages." (Sweet, III., 598.)

With regard to the study of English I venture to propose the following:—

Increase the reading-lessons in it; let them be mainly in modern prose. Teach the very first elements of phonetics and grammar purely inductively; pay special attention to the vocabulary, grouping the words which children meet in their reader under psychologic and grammatical categories. At ten, or earlier, begin to work backwards, say to the age of Anne. With Shakespeare, their attention should be directed to his variations from modern usage, and the beginnings of a sense of the development of language made. At eleven, we might start French, reading at the same time a little Chaucer. Between twelve and thirteen, we might just touch Old English by means of a short Reader with the text on one side and the necessary grammar on the other, some slight knowledge of the laws of language should be introduced, analogy and the regular changes of sound at least being fully illustrated. The child of twelve and a-half is now

fit to begin German. After a year's study, bifurcation must come in; the future classical student could begin Latin at fourteen and gradually drop French, begin Greek at sixteen and devote his time to the classics. The student of the modern languages could now begin a scientific study of his three, keeping English always in the centre.

Before proceeding to develop the lines of a new method, we must examine that already in use; it centres around grammar and translation. The mere phrase "grammar school" shows the great weight universally laid on the study of the formal side of language. Seeing the large amount of time devoted to it, we are justified in assuming that the teachers and the writers of our primers will be eager to appropriate the latest results of science, eager to welcome improvements from each and every source. Alas! the history of their labours affords a melancholy picture of men's proneness to copy one another, and to repeat obvious errors because they seem honoured by age; they should rather turn the fresh and free play of thought on their labours. We shall find one author in 1826 elaborately explaining that Latin had no article, and yet keeping *hic*, *haec*, *hoc* under that rubric in his grammar because he did not venture to depart from established usage!

GRAMMAR.

As the chief discussion of language teaching, if these lines are lucky enough to cause one, will centre around the grammar, a slight sketch of its history in England will not be out of place here. The materials were not easy to get, and the reader is requested to extend to the attempt the indulgence due to a pioneering effort. In the hope of the subject being taken up by some classical master, a fairly full bibliography will be found at the end.

The beginnings of grammar spring from the discussion whether the relation between a thing and its name is one of necessity or agreement. But the true or the false, said Plato and Aristotle, lies not in the single word, but in its relation

to the other words in a sentence : philology thus became the handmaid of logic, and the parts of speech were determined according to its categories.

Through the textual labours of the Alexandrine School, grammar rises into an independent study. The *τέχνη γραμματική* of Dionysius Thrax, a pupil of Aristarchus, was rounded off by the syntactical labours of Apollonius Dyskolus in the second century A.D. (Brugmann, in Dr. Iwan Müller's "Handbuch der klassischen Alterthumswissenschaft," p. 3.)

At the very outset we find two schools representing the two sides of that duality which we are always meeting in language, "analogy" and "anomaly," the regular and the irregular, the old and new, the conscious and the unconscious ; the system recognising the two and allotting to each its proper place has not yet been worked out.

From Chrysippus the belief in "anomaly" as the fundamental principle of language passed to Crates of Pergamus, who visited Rome about 159 B.C. He broke his leg in a sewer, and stayed in Rome to give lectures on Greek grammar. In the time of Pompey, Dionysius Thrax came to Rome as the representative of the principle of "analogy"; he drew up a Greek grammar, his terminology and system were translated into Latin, and have travelled for two thousand years over the civilised world, serving unfortunately as a Procrustean bed in which other languages have failed to find rest.

Now the terminology of Dionysius was derived from Athens, where "the terminology of formal logic and formal grammar were the same." The categories of language, however, are congruent neither with those of logic, grammar, psychology, nor metaphysics.

Dionysius is the ultimate source of the grammars still in use in our schools : his method was founded on an empirical analysis of one language, and represents only one side of that language ; others followed him like the blind led by the one-eyed. The scientific study of grammar thus inaugurated was zealously carried on by Stilo, Lucilius, Caesar, Cicero,

Verrius, Flaccus, and Varro. The latter, in his educational treatise, takes grammar as one of the nine disciplines. About 70 A.D. Remmius Palaemon, a successful "coach" who lived the life of a blackguard and made £4000 a year at Rome, was the first to reduce the labours of his predecessors into a school-book, the "Ars grammatica." He took the "eight parts of speech" from Dionysius. Palaemon, Mr. Nettleship assures us, wrote "without any philosophy at all."*

In Keil's "Grammatici Latini," 1857, we find that Charisius had arranged the Latin nouns into five declensions and the verbs into four conjugations, just as they stand at the present moment in the "Latin Primer." The unscientific intrusion of the consonant into the midst of the vowel stems still stands firm. In the fourth century Donatus, the teacher of St. Jerome, and the author of the famous saying, *Pereant qui ante nos nostra dixerunt*, cast his "Ars grammatica" into the form of a catechism, to which, perhaps, he owed his extraordinary popularity. It is so easy to give a boy so much to learn by heart and to cane him if he doesn't know it!

Continuo auditæ voces, vagitus et ingens
Infantumque animæ flentes in limine primo.

The cane has barred psychology out of our schools too long. The authority of Donatus lasted undiminished through "the age of tears," and his name became a synonym for grammar just as Euclid still stands, at least among us English, for geometry. He was the chief authority for Bede's "Liber de Arte Metrica" and the "Liber de Orthographia," in which he was followed by Alcuin. In 995, Ælfric drew up a Latin Grammar in English, based, as he

* "The conclusion to which my argument points is that the main outlines of the traditional Latin grammar, such as we find it in the numerous but often identical expositions which bear the various names of the later grammarians, Charisius, Diomedes, Pompeius, Donatus, Cledonius, and others, were drawn in the first century."—(Nettleship, 212.)

expressly tells us, on Priscian and Donatus. To it he added a Latin-English glossary, topically classified, and a "Colloquium" containing a lively discourse between the teacher and the scholar, types to which we shall have to return (Ten Brink, "Early English Literature," p. 106; R. Wülcker, "Grundriss der angelsächsischen Literatur," § 532).

As to the value of Donatus and Priscian, who have reigned so long over Latin Grammar, Mr. Roby tells us that they cannot be recognised as authorities for the grammatical usage of classical Latin, as they would think more of what Caesar or Pliny ought to have said than of what they actually did say (Latin Grammar, Vol. I., xxii.). Indeed, since the discovery of Sanskrit and the rise of comparative philology, our modern scholars *know* a good deal more of the Grammar than the Latins themselves did.

In the hope of finally extinguishing the heathen poets of antiquity, Alexander de Villedieu wrote three didactic poems to serve as a repertory for all knowledge. His "Doctrinale," or Grammar, was written in 1199 or 1209 for the *clericuli novelli*, who were supposed to know their Donatus; but the latter, as well as Priscian, were gradually displaced by the "Doctrinale," which reigned paramount from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century. We may congratulate ourselves on not having had to learn Latin then.

The syntax for the next four centuries was virtually settled by the "Graecismus" of Evrard de Béthune, written in 1124: the title of the book is taken from the tenth chapter, which contains some Greek etymologies. The popularity of the book was due to the versification of the rules. Both the "Doctrinale" and the "Graecismus" were pure memory books; the teacher had to give the explanations.

With the Renaissance in Italy matters began to mend. Petrarch awoke a better understanding of the ancients; and Dante, by writing in Italian, began to make Latin a dead language, incapable of further development. Guarino da Verona and Vittorino da Feltré laid the first foundations of our

modern school system, and under them Donatus and Priscian were replaced by the "Orthography" of Gasparino da Barzizza and the "Grammar" of Guarino. Lorenzo Valla was the first to break with Alexander,—“Ego pro lege accipio quidquid magnis auctoribus placuit; abeat iam barbarus Alexander et barbaram cum sua barbarie repetat patriam.” Here we have a clear enough statement of the fact that the author rules the grammar and not the grammar the author.

The new impulse to a better study of grammar was brought from Italy by John Colet. In 1513, Linacre wrote “De emendata structura latini sermonis,” the first systematic book, according to Eckstein, on the subject; it proved too copious for school use.

In 1525 Robert Barnes, at Cambridge, turned the students from the study of scholasticism to that of the classics; while twenty years later Thomas Smith was bold enough to praise his native tongue. With the rise of Protestantism, Latin, the official language of the Romish Church, began to fall into disrepute, and we now begin to hear of its value as a formal study. Melanchthon praised it for this purpose, as it clearly compels us to think; Johannes Sturm, the *praeceptor Germaniae*, who lamented that infants did not suck in Latin with their mothers' milk, made it his leading principle, and his influence is still felt. In his curriculum more than twenty hours a week were devoted to Latin.

Page after page had to be learnt by heart, and the time was quite taken up in hearing the “lessons.” In the explanation of the authors, the connection of the thoughts was quite neglected; it was all grammar. (Eckstein, 557.)

From the preface to Thomas Hayne's “Grammaticae Latinae Compendium,” published in 1640, the “judicious reader” will find an interesting sketch of the history of Latin grammar from the time of Henry VII. The source of reform in the beginning of the fifteenth century is at Magdalen College, Oxford. Annaquil, Stanbridge, Whittington, and Lilly carried the movement on; the latter spent

some time in Rhodes and afterwards introduced Greek at St. Paul's. Besides the old Donatus and Priscian, the "Opus Grammaticum" of Sulpicius, published in 1494, served them as a model.

The diversity of grammars then was no less a difficulty than now, and Henry VIII. attempted some reform. Before the end of the century Lily's "Brevissima Institutio" held the field, and continued to do so for three centuries, lasting under the guise of the Eton grammar down to our own time. Editions followed one another with great regularity from 1609 to 1836, in spite of an almost incessant series of attacks, comprising in 1706 a crushing criticism by Richard Johnson in his Grammatical Commentaries.

Even as late as 1861 "The School and University Eton Latin Grammar," by Roscoe Mongan, professed to combine the works of Colet and Lilly. During the last century grammar was studied with great ardour in Scotland. The preface to Ruddiman's book on "The Rudiments of the Latin Tongue," Edinburgh, 1714, strikes again the note of dissatisfaction with the books in use. The conflicting opinions of grammarians are complained of, and as those "who are taught the Latin Tongue reap little other Benefit from it, than as it enables them to speak and write English with the greater exactness," he adds scraps of English grammar, while the rules for the Latin are given on the same page in both languages. A German edition by Stallbaum, in 1823, was used by Dr. Kennedy in preparing his "Latinae grammaticae curriculum," 1844. The Rudiments were published as late as 1855.

The change to the system now in vogue seems to date from an address on the study of Latin and Greek delivered by Professor Long in 1830. He urged the use of the inductive method of modern philology, that in the hands of Bopp and Grimm had achieved such brilliant results. Dr. Allen published his "Etymological Analysis of Latin Verbs" in 1836. He made a "happy experiment" with his exercises, the results of which were published by the Central Society of Education in the

first volume. With 1838 came Dr. William Smith's "Latin Exercises for Beginners" and the change to the Crude Form system.

Dr. Kennedy spent five years over his "Curriculum"; in method it agreed with the Eton Grammar "for it supposes its rules to be learnt by heart." After again insisting on the necessity of boys learning "by rote," the author hopes for a time "when, among other pressing educational improvements, the best elementary Grammars shall be appointed by authority to be used in all the Foundation Schools of England," a wish that unfortunately found a fulfilment. In the recently published "Revised Latin Primer" and "Shorter Latin Primer," no real change in method has taken place.

To a student brought up on the latest German philology, "A sketch of the History of Grammar, being an introduction to the Public School Latin Primer," published in 1868, reads like the story of a bygone world. With the discovery of Verner's law, the investigations on the vowel system of the Arian languages now made accessible in Brugmann's "Grundriss," and the beginnings of the study of comparative syntax, the whole aspect of our grammar has been changed.

The evil of this persistent obstinacy in holding to tradition we shall only realise adequately when we have completely broken away from it. Still worse, the same method has been applied to modern languages, and the grammars persist in neglecting phonetics, in heaping exceptions upon rules—or shall we say rules upon exceptions—and in keeping doggerel, that powerful aid to the production of artificial stupidity.

What, then, *is* grammar? "Grammatica quid est? Scientia interpretandi poetas atque historicos et recte scribendi loquendique ratio, ἀπὸ τῶν γραμμάτων" (Keil, VII., 320). This definition we have practically still further narrowed in our Latin by leaving out the speaking. The source of our troubles is making the *letter* and not the *sound* the ultimate element of language. Even Grimm did not clear

himself from the tyranny of the letter. Until we have a real living faith in the *spoken* language as the source of all our literature, and as the starting-point of all our scientific studies, we shall make no real progress with our language teaching.

Nay, the problems of Greek and Latin grammar, if they are to be solved at all, will be solved by methods and principles derived from the direct study of modern dialects and languages, for in the latter alone are we on ground where our general inductions can be controlled by direct observation.

Can grammar teach us a language? Are the complaints of its inadequacy to give a practical power to speak a foreign tongue confined to our modern reformers? Let us listen to John Webbe, who published in 1622 "An appeal to Truth, for the controversy between Art and Use, about the best and most expedient Course in Languages. To be read Fasting." "Grammar," he tells us, "is become a full-swoln and overflowing Sea, which by a strong hand arrogates to itself (and hath well near gotten) the whole traffic in learning, but especially for languages." In a long passage, bristling with names now happily forgotten, he shows how grammarians from age to age have quoted the defects and errors of each other. "A petition to the High Court of Parliament" a year later, points out with remarkable clearness the weak spot of teaching by grammar:—

"I had rather a scholar should remember the natural and received position of a clause by keeping the words always all together than understand the particular correspondence of the words, and thereby lose their proper places. For discretion and comparison of clause with clause will at length bring the understanding of the words, whether we will or no; but nothing will bring the true position of these words again by reason that our own doth therein still misguide us."

In 1720 we shall find J. Clarke, Schoolmaster at Hull, in a lively "Essay on Education," complaining that "boys of good parts spend five or six years in a Grammar School, without

attaining so much of the Latin Tongue as to make sense of half-a-dozen lines in the easiest of the classic Authors."

In the present century, from Grimm downwards, complaints of the powerlessness of Grammar to teach a language effectively have grown in bulk and loudness, and the change they demand must come soon.

We may now pass, with a hope that the above sketch has not been too long or tedious, to a discussion of the principles set up by modern philology, and their application to school teaching. We must first endeavour to get some sort of clear idea of the nature of Language, turning our attention afterwards to Phonetics, the Reader and its connection with the Grammar, Vocabulary, Translation, and Philology.

The enormous advances made in this century, as compared with all that went before, must not dazzle us into the belief that the question of the origin and development of language has been by any means settled: we have made only the first beginnings.

One of the main hindrances to a just view of language has been the use of similes; words were compared to the leaves of the forest, the old falling, the new putting forth fresh life. Language was looked on as a plant or an animal, as though it had an independent life of its own. Still worse, terms proper to morals were intruded into science; and we hear of phonetic decay, loss, degradation, corruption, as if languages had in them something inherently wrong. The new recuperative force replacing and improving the old, was conveniently left out of sight. To speak of modern English as a corrupted form of the old is not less inaccurate than to call a modern rifle a corruption of an old flintlock.

The science of language was not so very long ago treated as a natural science; it has now definitely taken its place as a mental science.

Speech is not a thing that can be handled or seen; it is mental activity manifesting itself through physiological means. We cannot even strictly speak of speech as living;

its life is less than the life of summer flies. Excited by the outer world, by the society in which a man lives, the mind sets the organs of speech in activity; the outgoing stream of breath is thrown into vibration. The air pulses to and fro; these strike the ear; the movement travels into the brain, leaving impressions behind that may last for a lifetime. Psychology, physiology, physics, physiology, psychology, these form the circuit along which speech travels (Preyer, 282-290).

When we speak we are quite unconscious of all the complicated movements in our mind and body. The proof of unconscious activity is one of the greatest triumphs of modern psychology; the neglect of this capacity of the mind is the chief defect of our language teaching. All that passes consciously into the mind remains unconscious as a potential working factor. By exercise power consciously acquired can be translated into power manifested unconsciously. In any language the mind forms psychologic groups, such, for example, as strong and weak verbs, the plurals of nouns, &c.; these groups are allied to others in a perpetual state of change and growth, as Paul has well shown in the first chapter of his *Principien der Sprachgeschichte*.*

These groups must not be confused with the categories abstracted by grammatical reflexion, though of course they usually overlap one another. Before doing a piece of German prose, I have sometimes made the class run over the irregular verbs occurring in it; in spite of this precaution many of them come out weak, showing that an English boy forms unconsciously categories for his German. The neglect of this unconscious activity of the mind is the main source of the *stupor pædagogicus* in schools; the fault lies with us, the blame with the boys.

With the acquirement of what we consciously teach runs the unconscious formation of certain beliefs and prejudices.

* There is now an English translation by Dr. H. A. Strong.

By beginning Latin too early, we encourage the theory that languages are to be learnt by the eye, that the letter is more important than the sound, that there is no need to express one's own thoughts in a foreign tongue, that languages are built up mosaic-like out of paradigms and syntax rules, and many other views diametrically opposed to the truth. Of course, we do not wish to do all this; but we are guilty none the less, and shall continue guilty as long as we attend to the subjects taught rather than to the psychology of the child.

Language, then, is psychologic activity manifested through physiological means: it must therefore obey all the laws of psychology and physiology.

The whole process of speech consists in the reproduction by memory of forms already heard and in the shaping by analogy of new ones on their model. When a set of these groups has been made in the mind unconsciously, it is found that a considerable number of forms lie outside it: these constitute the "exceptions." Historically, they are the remnants of earlier normal groups which occurred in every-day speech so often that they became fixed in the mind firmly enough to resist change. Now, as these forms can be retained only by a pure act of the memory, the child is more likely to make mistakes in them than elsewhere, and a fair length of time must be allowed before we can expect them to be accurately reproduced. It is hard to imagine anything more unsound psychologically than the method in our grammars of putting a list of "exceptions" immediately after the rule, often without a single example obeying the latter. Apart from their being dug out of various strata of the language by the misguided industry of grammarians, they will probably not be met with in the school life of a boy, and they ought to be felt as "exceptions" when they are first met with—a thing impossible unless the mind has been for some time impregnated with the normal types.

Not only must our rule be invariably derived from the language, but enough examples must be given at a time to

make the rule spring up as it were by itself ; all that militates against it must be kept in the background. Small points, the writer has practically found, are usually resolved by three examples ; harder ones, especially in syntax, by not less than five. This imperatively demands the most careful preparation on the part of the teacher, and a wealth of illustration that only a good practical command of the language can give.

By skilful questioning he must know how to entice out of the child what lies dormant in his mind. Under the right treatment the boy's face grows as still as water, and ripples into a smile when the unconscious knowledge rises into the light of the conscious. The mind comes down with a snap on the example and the rule, and it is no burden to retain them both.

We may now, under the guidance of Preyer (pp. 305-330), pass to a short sketch of the manner in which a child learns its native tongue. Roughly speaking, the conditions are the same at the beginning of a foreign language. At birth the infant lacks the anatomical, physiological, and psychologic means of speech ; all is as yet undeveloped.

In the production of single sounds vowels precede the consonants, those requiring the least exertion of the parts of speech coming as a rule, but not always, first. The law of least effort is not invariably followed in language. This will be more fully treated of under "Phonetics." The child rises slowly from sounds to syllables, from syllables to words, from words to sentences. The tone, the accent, the pitch of the voice arouse the child's attention rather than the separate sounds.

In the majority of children the capacity to understand spoken words precedes the power to reproduce them, as the impressive side is developed earlier than the expressive. In beginning a new language, therefore, the teacher must be content to give for some time before he demands anything in return. The seed must be left for a while in the soil of the unconscious, till the intermediate paths between the sensor

centre for sounds and the motor centre for their reproduction have fashioned themselves (Preyer, 289, 320).

The child learns to speak by associating ideas which it already has with sounds imitated at first without any regard to meaning; the meaning is coupled to them later by association.

Again, the child obtains a complete mastery over the language spoken at home without the aid of grammar, dictionary, reading, or translation, of which we see and hear so much in school. The language is learnt entirely by the ear without the intervention of writing; it is concerned only with the needs of every-day life, and is a simple, unconstrained idiom in which all the words employed have a definite fixed meaning.

The thing and the word denoting it call one another up as readily as a ball rebounds from the cushion of a billiard table. The child learns the language as a harmonious whole—accent, intonation, sentence melody, and dialect, as well as the single sounds and words.

A child obtains complete control over the home dialect provided it hears that only and no other: the memory retains what the child can understand and finds interesting; all else is forgotten in two or three days. How many of our works of literature are read in schools because they are interesting to the master rather than adapted to the boy's capacity?

The question whether a centre for language exists by inheritance in a child that has not yet learnt to speak must be answered in the negative; if it does not hear spoken sounds no such centre is formed. In this case the ganglion cells of Broca's centre are used for other purposes, or they suffer atrophy. In learning to speak, however, first the sound centre, then the syllable and word centre, and lastly the dictorium are gradually built up. By its own activity the brain grows (Preyer, 330). We must reproduce a little activity in our children when they begin a foreign language; and this must imperatively take place through the ear, and not through the

eye, as in teaching Latin. This brings us to the discussion of Phonetics.

PHONETICS.

“Ohne Laute, keine Sprache.”

To demand a knowledge of phonetics from the language teacher is to ask no more than a knowledge of his notes from a musician. Phonetics as such is not a school subject, but the master must be a phonetician, and happily a little phonetics goes a great way; the difficult points in the science are very difficult, but there is a good deal of plain sailing. One of the great achievements of modern science is Mr. A. Melville Bell's analysis of the vowel sounds; the Indians more than two thousand years ago had worked out the consonants with striking accuracy.

Phonetics are the solitary branch of philology in which England has added to the knowledge of the Continent; the young and vigorous school we have set going in Norway has just formed a society, the “Quousque Tandem,” for the improvement of the teaching of modern languages. For our national honour, we English teachers ought to be the readiest to apply the results of this science to the art of teaching. Unfortunately, our phoneticians are as little schoolmasters as our schoolmasters phoneticians; the expansive subtilty of Mr. A. J. Ellis, and the curt conciseness of Mr. Sweet, have deterred many from entering on the study. If the writer may offer any advice to a fellow-teacher it would be, Read the portion in Huxley's *Physiology* on the organs of speech, get a human throat from a medical friend, or study a wax model—there is an excellent one at Guy's Hospital—and then work steadily at Mr. Sweet's *Handbook of Phonetics*. Some portions will have to be gone over many times, but when they are once mastered it is convenient to have them so short.

Parallel with the *Handbook*, his excellent little *Elementarbuch des gesprochenen Englisch* may be read. Johann

Storm's *Englische Philologie* is very clear and interesting; in it the reader who desires to extend his phonetic knowledge will find all the best literature mentioned. A more theoretical view of the subject in general can be obtained from E. Siever's *Grundzüge der Phonetik* (3rd edition).

The main objections against phonetics seem to be the learning of a new alphabet, and a vague sort of fear that English literature will die a sudden death if we alter our orthography. But we do not object to spend a little time in learning the Greek alphabet—one, too, that the Greeks themselves never saw; as for the latter objection, it finds no harbour in the mind of any true philologist, but flourishes among the half-taught, who, if the truth were told, would probably confess that they fondly imagined the spelling of their Shakespeare to be the same now as when he wrote.

Whatever our object in learning a foreign language may be, whether we wish to speak it or only to read it for purely scientific or literary purposes, the actual spoken language of to-day must form the base. For practical purposes, errors of accident or syntax are of less importance than imperfect pronunciation; a language mispronounced is a language unrecognisable. On the literary side the beauties of style can only be *felt* by their distinction from the talk of every-day life; the spoken language is the only ultimate source of the literary, it is not by any means a corrupt form of the latter. For educational purposes, the spoken language is obviously superior to the literary as the starting-point in our teaching: the vocabulary is limited in range, the words used have fixed definite meanings, the grammar is restricted, and, as the facts lie well within the knowledge of the child, his attention is concerned only with the form, he translates from the very beginning in block, sentence by sentence.

The pronunciation cannot be "picked up." An English boy

may hear *Quelle* correctly spoken a hundred times ; he will always pronounce it like his own *quell* till his attention has been directed to its formation. Frenchmen cannot understand our confusion of *pécher* and *pécher*. Each language has its own delicate shades of sound carrying distinct differences of meaning ; phonetics alone can enable us to pronounce them properly.

Throughout our language teaching, the study of English must always be several stages ahead, especially in phonetics, as our orthography is the worst in Europe, and consequently, English children have a confused sense of the connection between sounds and their written signs, and hardly any idea at all of their true formation. This blurred feeling is carried into other languages, and it is curious to observe how a scholar who shudders in grammatic pain at a wrong gender or a faulty construction, will make without a qualm gruesome errors in pronunciation, errors which a knowledge of the physiological production of the sound would remove at once.

Just as the infant lacks the physiological and psychologic means of speech, so too does the child lack them in the presence of a new language. Indeed, the child is somewhat worse off, as the tendencies produced by the native language stand in the way. For the physiologic side we need a thorough gymnastic of the organs of speech by means of our phonetics ; for the psychologic side we need, by continued exercise *in* the foreign language, by repeating the conscious till it becomes the unconscious, to arrive at length at the *Sprachgefühl* of the foreigner.

The writer hopes to bring out a small book for teaching phonetics in schools. As it is almost impossible to write on the subject without new types, he must content himself now with a few remarks in the hopes of helping other teachers who may be groping towards a method. First write on the board a set of words like *pit, bid ; cab, gap ; cats, cads ; catch, cadge* : the difference between voiced and unvoiced sounds will be soon felt and lead up readily in the endeavour to

explain where the vibration comes from, to a short physiological account of the chest, throat, mouth, &c. The teacher will discover that the class has peculiar views of its own—that the heart, for example, is in the backbone, or that the alimentary canal is the place for ailments! In case an actual throat cannot be shown to the class, large diagrams should be used. A very good one is F. Techmer's *Wandtafel zur Veranschaulichung der Lautbildung*.

The next step will be to determine the place in the mouth where the different consonants are produced; in choosing the order of the sounds we must work from the lip inwards. The class must not be helped too much, but left to think for itself. At first the answers will be very wild, but by pitting boys with the most divergent fancies against one another, clearness comes in time. Finally, by arranging the consonants into open (= spirant), shut (= stop), and nasals, we get the scheme shown in the *Elementarbuch*, p. xxvii.; this table can be simplified by putting the voiced and unvoiced sounds together, and by describing *h* and *l* below it. Instead of *wh* I employ a "barred *w*," like a Greek ω with a bar over it, and *y* for *j*.

The boys copy this table on a large scale in black ink, afterwards the French consonants in red ink, and the German in pencil, thus bringing into relief the agreements and differences.

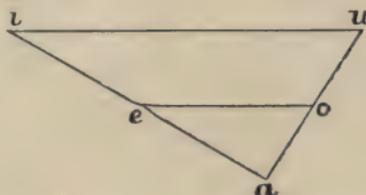
In order to avoid, as far as possible, any confusion between phonetic letters and the alphabet, I always print the latter on the slate with red chalk, made by dipping a piece of ordinary chalk into red ink. Boys will often produce a sound in chorus with the rest of the class that they seem unable to bring out by themselves; a gymnastic drill of the muscles regulating the movements of the parts of speech can be carried out by means of the teacher's hands. Let the left when outstretched mean "unvoiced," the right "voiced"; when the hand is raised, the class must pronounce the "shut" sound; when lowered, the "open." In going on to the vowels, the mystery "of sometimes *w* and *y*" may be explained by defining the sonant as

the "syllable carrier," including not only the vowels, but also, at times, *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r*; thus

SONANT.	CONSONANT.
<i>i</i> saving	saviour
<i>u</i> nudge	language
<i>l</i> ankle	anklet
<i>m</i> hansom	some
<i>n</i> written	ten
<i>r</i> represent	present

This will thoroughly impress on the class the inadequacy of the Latin alphabet to represent our sounds, and help to develop the feeling that the sound is more important than the letter.

For the vowels I prefer a diagram showing the actual place in the mouth where they are produced to the Bell-Sweet rectangle. The following triangle is very instructive:—



The child feels at once that any number of vowel sounds are possible, and that the signs give, so to speak, only the central positions. The *e* may travel upwards towards *i* and become "close" as in English, pronounced English, or downwards towards *a* and become "open." Similarly for *o*. The reason for the mutation of *a* to *e* is obviously caused by an *i* in the succeeding syllable. When the space between the tongue and the roof of the mouth is still more narrowed, *i* and *u* become consonants.

Again, *i* and *e* are "front" vowels, and have a tendency to palatalise *k* and *g*, showing us how *church* and *Sisero*, for example, were developed out of *kirk* and *Kikero*. When the French and German vowels are written in red ink and pencil

on the same diagram, the striking differences in the vowel systems of the three languages are clear enough to make the dullest boy feel that he must really train his organs of speech to acquire a passable pronunciation.

The German sounds are thus shown in W. Viotor's *German Pronunciation*, p. 9, and the French by Passy in Viotor's *Phonetische Studien*, p. 24. Besides this, a diagram of the tongue, looked at from the roof of the mouth, should be given ruled in bands, with the corresponding vowels on them; opposite these bands on the right, the lip aperture, and on the left, an angle showing how far apart the jaws ought to be. Particular stress must all through be laid on those points where the English habits will have afterwards to be corrected: thus in "table," the *l* is sonant for English, consonant for French. We have a tendency to make our vowels end in "vanishes": thus pay = peⁱ, no = noⁱ; this hinders us in acquiring the pure vowel sounds of French and German.

In English there is a general tendency to draw the tongue back, with the tip pointing towards the alveolars, while there is a strong disinclination to push the lips out — "It doesn't look nice," as one of my boys once told me. In French the lips are much more active both in rounding and in slit-like formations; in German the tongue is stretched straight out in the middle of the mouth, while the lips are more active than in English, and less so than in French. (Storm, 21; Sievers, 103; Bierbaum, 31; Techmer, 18, 19.)

In what order are we to teach foreign sounds? Here again we must observe the stages through which the child passes in acquiring its native tongue.

Although no general rule can be set up (Preyer, 431), we shall not go far wrong in following a remark of F. Schulze's in his book, *Die Sprache des Kindes*, p. 27. "The order in which the sounds of speech are produced in the mouth of the child begins with those that require the least physiological effort, and passes gradually to those that require the greatest."

At first the sounds are imitated mechanically, without any sense of their meaning, just as movements of the head or hand are mimicked by an infant. The power to produce the single sounds precedes that of combining them (Preyer, 429-433). In choosing our type words for practice, imperatives should be taken as far as possible, as they satisfy the demand for the sentence as the unit.

Any phonetic system designed for school use should satisfy the following conditions:—

Each single sound must be represented by a single sign, and *vice versa*; *h* as a diacritic is to be avoided.

It is better to invent new signs than to employ old letters, (as *c, j, q*) with a new value, nor must letters be taken over from one language to another, e.g., *ç* (= *ch* in *ich*), a phonetic sign in German and a letter in French. The cross associations are too much for boys.

Diacritical marks over the line are to be avoided; it is hard enough to make boys dot their *i*'s.

The new signs should be as far as possible graphic: thus "open *o*" is better represented by an *o* left open at the top than by *o* ("turned *e*"). For "open *e*" the horizontal bar may be left half drawn, and finished for "close *e*."

Names must be given to the new signs, and their place in the alphabet definitely settled.

It would simplify one's way through the maze of various phonetic systems if a list of words were drawn up containing the elementary sounds in English, French, and German; then each author in his own system could equate his signs to the list. This would have the advantage of clearly showing when two languages had the same sound; thus E5 = G8 might mean that the fifth vowel in the English list, say *mēn*, is the same as the eighth in the German list, *männer*, and so on.

Are we to begin with a phonetic transcription? Yes, decidedly, for French. The modern orthography is a very corrupt representation of the pronunciation in the seventeenth century, and is surpassed in badness only by the English, in which

symbols mainly due to Anglo-French scribes of the Plantagenet period, and imperfectly adapted to an Elizabethan pronunciation, are retained in the reign of Victoria! (Skeat, *Principles of English Etymology*, p. 333.)

The first attempt to apply phonetics in teaching the grammar of a foreign language was made by W. Viator in his *Englische Grammatik*. The magic simplicity of our inflexional system grows clear in its phonetic dress, and we proudly recognise in our tongue two of the leading attributes of advanced culture, simplicity and wealth; the swift grace and easy movement of English are all lost because we make it wade up to the knee in cacographic mud.

Let us turn to French. Plump go all the plurals of nouns with the sole exception of the *cheval, chevaux* group, the singular of the verbs has very nearly given up every sign of person, the masculine adjective can be derived from the feminine by means of a few simple rules. (Viator, 15.)

All the elaborate apparatus that we fondly imagined to be grammar, turns out to be nothing more than the swollen hollowness of a bad orthography. Like the portentous horror of the genii in the Arabian Tales, the magic sound reduces them to a small vase where they can be safely kept.

Finally, a few words as to a very real fear on the part of many teachers. Things being as they are with an imperative demand on the part of examiners for correct spelling, shall we not hopelessly confuse our scholars and ourselves by the introduction of a phonetic notation? Experience alone can tell us, and, as far as we can judge at present, it is not unfavourable. According to Mr. Sweet (III., 582), it has "certainly shown that children taught reading phonetically, will master both phonetic and ordinary reading quicker than a class taught unphonetically will master the latter only." M. Paul Passy, a well-known French writer on our subject, says that a four years' experience has shown the phonetic teaching to be practically superior to the old. (*Englische Studien*, X., 335 and 412.)

Viator's complaint, too, that English orthography is "an in-

ternational misfortune which hits us and our German "school-boys," is worth some attention. The one thing at the present moment in the way of English becoming the universal language is our orthography.

What are the advantages of beginning with phonetics? First and foremost, they compel the child to watch himself, instead of learning parrot-fashion what he is told.

As the ultimate element of language really is the sound and not the letter, we follow the method of nature in placing the sound first. The grammatical forms are abstracted unconsciously from the spoken, and not consciously from the written language; when freed from orthographical confusions, they become few and simple. Compared with Greek and Latin, this simplicity is not poverty, but ease.

The work in class grows more lively and interesting; the master influences the boys more immediately and profoundly. It is healthier to use the lungs than the eye and hand.

A theoretic and scientific knowledge of a language cannot be obtained in the future except on the base of a genuine practical mastery over it.

The capacity to express one's thoughts freely and directly in another tongue, demands considerable intellectual activity; the effort to attain it affords far more "training" than an excessive occupation with grammar.

After a little work at phonetics boys learn to "speak out" by themselves; our teaching is heavily discounted by their not hearing one another. A knowledge of phonetics is the foundation of shorthand.

If we still harbour doubt as to the wisdom of beginning with pieces phonetically transcribed, passing afterwards to the traditional spelling, we ought to be very clear on the difficulty of going from the spelling to the sound. Suppose some innocent Spaniard had learnt English by himself in the belief that the spelling and pronunciation agreed as closely as in his own language, while another had confined himself to books written entirely in phonetic characters, which would be the more advanced after six months' residence in England?

In beginning a new language the *form* in which ideas are expressed is new ; the ideas, then, must be old and familiar, they must be drawn from every-day life. The mind cannot fix its attention at the same time both on the substance of thought and on the form in which it is expressed. In this first or phonetic stage our chief aim is to give a good pronunciation ; if some of the common errors are allowed to pass unchecked at the beginning, they will last through the whole school life.

So far as the master is concerned, Felix Franke's "Phrases de Tous les Jours" is an admirable model ; if it were possible to arrange the material under the same grammatical categories as in Joh. Storm's "Französische Sprechübungen : Mittlere Stufe" (the only part as yet published), we should be fairly near perfection.

At first the weight of the work falls almost entirely upon the teacher ; he must be the walking mouthpiece, grammar, dictionary, all in one. "The pupil must hear the sounds frequently, have his ears, as it were, bathed in the sounds, so that he can recall them mentally when he makes the effort to repeat them. . . . Subsequently the teacher should read frequently to the pupils, especially what they know ; and do it in his best manner, not in that hurried indistinct fashion, with head depressed over the book, which teachers too often affect" (Ellis, 14). The point to be insisted on is the correct reproduction of *the sounds as sounds* ; the meaning can be put into them as soon as they are impressed on the memory and fall trippingly from the tongue. The free English translation on the page opposite the phonetic transcription must be taken in sentences, with a careful avoidance of any attempt at word-for-word translation. We must use it, too, as sparingly as possible ; it is generally possible to tell from a child's face and tone of voice whether he understands what he is saying.

As soon as a noun or verb occurs for the third or fourth time we demand the whole sentence in which it made its first and second appearance, thus getting all the help we can from

the law of association. In this way the child will unconsciously be getting ripe for the strict scientific view of a word as the molecule of a sentence—the atom being, of course, the sound—and for a sense of the intimate connection between form and meaning.

These sentences will contain most of the future “irregularities” of the grammar, but as they are not yet recognised as such they will cause very little difficulty. Ringing any changes on them should be avoided, as we want to approach the grammar later on with a mass of material under perfect control; they can be gone over till they are known almost by heart. It is great fun to see two small boys taking the persons of a dialogue, while the rest of the class watches in envious admiration or sweeps down on the smallest mistake with a chorus of correction.

READER.

We now pass to the “reader,” the centre of our system, the *corpus vile* from which we learn our orthography, our vocabulary, our grammar. Fables, letters, tales, descriptions of striking historical scenes, all in modern prose, carefully graduated and printed in the usual spelling.

We begin somewhat as follows. Let the teacher learn by heart the first piece, say Lessing’s fable of “The Sparrows.” A useful little exercise for him will be to transcribe it phonetically beforehand; he will make some interesting discoveries as to the accuracy of his pronunciation. Then with voice, eye, and hand all active, let him declaim the fable to the class, exaggerating just a little the sounds peculiar to the German. After telling the gist of the story in English, he will repeat the first breath-group of the German sounds, and after a slight pause pitch on some boy to repeat purely as a sound sequence. The whole class will be kept on the alert if the rule be observed of never letting the boys know beforehand who is expected to answer. After a whole sentence has been thus repeated, the teacher will give again the breath-groups and with them the English, *taking the*

words in the German order, this being the natural one for a German—the object of the bald English is merely to give the meaning. Explanations must at first, of course, be given in English, but as soon as the class knows fairly well what a piece is about, and in all repetition work, the foreign language should be employed—our chief aim being to learn French or German, not English.

When the piece has been finished in this way the books may be opened, and one of the best boys put on to read and to give the English translation with the words in their proper order. Their previous phonetic training and the sound of the teacher's voice will be sufficient to counteract the perturbation caused by the new spelling; mistakes in pronunciation must, of course, be mercilessly rooted out. Again the books are closed, and a lively shower of questions, such as the native teacher would rain down on a reading class of his own, must arouse interest and develop fancy—things as important as the knowledge of genders or the irregular verbs. Halting attempts to reproduce the story can be improved and amplified, the children being encouraged to ask the master questions. Finally, an idiomatic translation from the master is followed by another declamation of the German.

As soon as a few pieces have been done in this way, a systematic exploitation may be commenced of the material acquired. First, the orthography. With the books open the teacher pronounces each word and asks whether the vowel in it is long or short. As the answers are given he writes the words down on the slate as in the annexed table. Curiosity will ask why he puts them in such different places.

VOWELS.

<i>Short</i>	{	allein, ausgebessert, denn, kommt,	}	double consonant.
		verlasst		
	{	als, alt, fand, Glanz, Kirche, Nest,	}	two consonants.
		Sperling, ward, welche		
{	}	das, was	monosyllables ending in single cons.	

VOWELS.—Continued.

Long	{	gab, dastand, kamen	} not denoted.	
		wozu		
		nun, suchen, zu		
		grosse		ss.
		unzählig, ihr, Wohnung		h.
		sie, schreien, wieder		ie.
			aa, ee, oo.	

The rules in the last column must be discovered inductively by the boys themselves. If the examples are not enough to make the rule show itself, more must be given, or the letters affected may be underlined.

Now for the grammar. Rule the slate in two, putting English on one side and German on the other. Take the nouns first, and elicit from the class the different ways of forming the plural in English; put against them the German, always with the article, saying nothing about gender yet. "We will do the adjectives and verbs a little later on." Below the piece the *primitive words only* should be printed in the same type and arranged in small groups according to the parts of speech; the other words can stand below in smaller type. The "lesson for next time" will be simply to learn by heart the vocabulary of the primitives.

The teacher should know with faultless accuracy the first dozen pieces or so, and, as new points in grammar turn up, refer back continually to examples that have already occurred. Boys are delighted to find that they really know more than they gave themselves credit for.

Preceding the reader should be a grammar containing only the absolute essentials. Here let no "exception" or list, even with the saving clause of being learnt as vocabulary, dare to show its head. "Single words and forms in teaching are a clumsy breach of psychology and pedagogy" (Viator, 20). Spaces might be left for small important groups, such as the masculines in *-e* without mutation, and entered as they occur in

the reader. Later on come occasional lessons devoted entirely to the grammar, the paradigms being taken with the book open and each word embodied in a sentence. Boys are not the only persons who cease to think when they say paradigms by heart: grammarians themselves occasionally do nod; *naissons* is somewhat late, and *ich starb* is forewarned with a vengeance—it will be so useful in the next world!

Another pedagogic error of lists is the juxtaposition of closely-allied forms. After *der* Band or *die* See has become firmly fixed in the mind, we can safely confront them with *das* Band or *der* See. To give them all at the same time must produce confusion.

Neither is the power to say the paradigms correctly of very great value, for the good of repetition lies not so much in remembering the same impression of a thing at different times as in the recognition of it as one and the same in different relations (Perthes, iv. 20).

The right-hand side of the grammar should contain the syntax of the accidence on the left; the sentences must invariably be printed above the rule, and they, not the rule, are to be learnt by heart.

Considering the weight laid on grammar in our language examinations, the following more general considerations may perhaps find a place here.

GRAMMAR.

“Magis offendit nimium quam parum.”

Grammar is a science presenting the facts of a language arranged under certain categories—descriptive, historical, logical, or philosophical. The science, hard enough in itself, is rendered needlessly harder by the obstinate persistence of grammarians in refusing to recognise that a large portion of language cannot be explained logically; it is retained purely by the memory, and, like a well-worn coin, everybody knows what it stands for, though the time and place of its stamping have been forgotten.

For a modern Englishman, it is no explanation to say that in *the more the merrier*, "the" is an old instrumental: all sense of the instrumental case died out of the English mind long ago. Our language is an abstraction made by taking the average speech of a number of Englishmen who do not differ largely from the normal type, as opposed to other normal types such as French or German. Each member of the English group has, in common with his fellow-countrymen, an individual manner of thought, and individual manner of expressing that thought by spoken sounds.

To learn a foreign language, then, thoroughly is no easy matter; we understand it when the same outward manifestation arouses the same inner movement of the mind, we speak it when the same inner movement is accompanied by the same outward manifestation, as in the case of a native.

All the reformers from Ratke down to Grimm have grown eloquent in combating the mistake that grammar can teach a language. "This," says the latter, "is an unspeakable piece of pedantry that we should find some trouble in making a Greek or Roman, who had risen from the dead, understand" (Bierbaum, 62). Not an exact knowledge of all the rules of the grammar, nor some skill in their application, will give the power of speech. There is no time for conscious reflection, the thought and the word must spring up in the mind simultaneously; and this power, this readiness, will never be acquired by the conscious method of reflection, but only by the unconscious method of imitation and incessant repetition.

The task of the grammar is a purely subsidiary one—it must classify *known* facts by making clear what the child has already half felt, half seen in his reader. Instead of appearing to settle everything, like a despotic governor whose reason or want of reason cannot be seen, the rules must be simply short and concise statements summing up the facts of the language. It might, perhaps, be a wise thing to put in the hands of the children a grammar containing only well-selected

sentences *without the rules*, and to leave their induction to the teacher.

How many Englishmen could justify their use of the subjunctive or of the verbs of mood by quoting rules? Then why do we demand from English boys more than the foreigner himself could give? We must learn to think *in* before we think *of* the language. We want to sow with the left hand and reap with the right. Grammar is not elementary in the teaching of languages, and what we now ask from the lowest classes we ought to postpone to the highest. If we demand a legitimation from the rules of the grammar, why not refuse to receive a piece of reasoning unless accompanied by its rules of logic?

As soon as the reader has been finished and the study of works of literature begun, a large grammar, arranged somewhat like a dictionary, may be used. The paradigms given in the reader should be met here in the same type; the arrangement being mainly descriptive, with examples taken entirely from modern prose. In making groups for the nouns and verbs, only those that have at least fifteen or twenty examples should be given, all others being relegated to alphabetical lists. The forms can be marked as they are looked out, and then gone over at stated intervals.

As far as possible the grammar should, by means of different print, distinguish clearly between the logical and idiomatic sides of the language, as well as keep on one side all remarks not immediately useful in learning the language of to-day (Münc, 29, 33).

But to return to our reader. As soon as the first dozen pieces have been read, and the vocabulary of the primitives occurring in them thoroughly mastered, a search can be made for derivatives. Word-formation is as much an integral portion of a language as the accidence or syntax, and ought to receive the same share of attention. As a guide in the selection of the vast number of possible compounds, those forms only are to be given which the child will find later on in the reader. These exercises are peculiarly fruitful, especially in German.

A sense of the connection between form and meaning is gradually aroused; and the child is being properly prepared for learning the accident of a synthetic language. To take an English boy who has no real sense of case, and to suddenly give him five in Latin is to demand from him too great a mental spring.

The teacher will find it advisable to limit himself very strictly as to the main points of grammar to be insisted on during each month; examples for the accident may be denoted by dots, and for the syntax by lines drawn under the words. After a while, some sharp boy will probably say, "Please, sir, I think I know why we are marking that word." "Well?" "It's a comparative that doesn't modify." "Very good; now pick them all out and compare with the grammar." In this way the subjunctive mood can be very well attacked, and rules formulated for the particular cases; good examples may be committed to memory.

As we work our way gradually through the reader, repetition must be incessant. A thorough and swift command over the back work is really as important in language as in mathematics; inaccuracy or hesitation is a fatal hindrance to the power of speech (Ellis, 11).

Together with many short pieces, fit for *intensive* reading, one or two easy tales of some length should be read *cursorily*, just for the fun of the thing—no more being demanded than a knowledge of the story. These pieces may be printed in one or other of the eight alphabets with which German youth is plagued. Considerable practice in the written characters is needed to decipher many notices posted on museums or University boards. To an Englishman there is some slight solace in this alphabetical luxuriance, as it affords a retort to rude remarks on the stupidity of our weights and measures and spelling.

Parsing at first must be very sparingly indulged in. If a boy knows the plural of a noun or the parts of a verb, it is immaterial to him at this stage whether they are regular or

irregular ; that will grow clear when he has gained material enough to classify. A sharp look-out must be kept for idiomatic turns and phrases ; they could be entered in an exercise book and learnt by heart. If we use a printed collection, the phrases removed from their context do not make a strong impression, and we run the risk of learning archaic turns.

This incessant occupation with a text in front of him, this continued return to material continually offering new suggestions and displaying unsuspected wealth, cannot fail to work back beneficially on the method of reading books in English. Our main object being to concentrate the child's attention on the language itself, dictation will become important as a substitute for written translation. The almost forgotten art of listening is cultivated, as well as the power of grasping with the ear the foreign sounds—the first and most necessary thing when we put foot on foreign soil. The pieces already studied intensively are the best for dictation, and, since it is hardly possible to write a single sentence in a foreign language correctly unless it is really understood, this exercise gives us a training in exactitude comparable to that of mathematics. Here alone in our language-teaching is there no escape, no loophole for mistakes. The exercises when corrected form good material for repetition work, as the words can be freely underlined. When the boys know that "places" will depend afterwards on a raking fire of questions in the foreign language strictly limited to the words underlined, they mark them with peculiar attention. After the piece has been thoroughly threshed out in this way, the papers are collected and the class left to give the substance in their own French or German, and to invent new sentences on the model of the old.

The main object of the reader being to give a thorough knowledge of the accident and the first beginnings of the syntax, the number of pieces in it need not be great, and every piece should be read. For the middle classes in the school, French offers us a rich variety of stories in modern

prose ; good examples are harder to find in German. Some of these may be read chiefly for vocabulary and syntax, in order to prepare us for the poetry and prose masterpieces in the highest classes.

Although a considerable improvement has taken place of late years in the notes to school editions, we are still reminded at times of Goethe's remark that many books seem written not for us to learn out of them, but to show that the author knew something. Lives of the writer, biographical data about unimportant persons, æsthetic disquisitions far above the heads of the children, scraps of etymology, often wrong in themselves, and when right of small value in making the meaning clearer, had better stay away. The fear of the reviewer seems more present than the mind or age of the child. Some editors, wise perhaps in their own generation, credit the teacher with next to no knowledge or industry in preparing his work.

The notes must be worked out on a consistent plan for definite classes ; explanations on things such as the foreign boy would need, being kept distinct from points of language. In the latter we need the pronunciation of proper names, the leading examples in the book of any difficult construction, paraphrases in the foreign language of important words with their synonyms, and, above all, the variations in the selected work from the modern prose of every-day life.

While the higher classes are reading the masterpieces of the literature, they might also have very short accounts of the foreign history and literature given them, written in language easy enough to be understood without the need of translation.

For the future commercial man, a short chatty book, somewhat on the lines of Becker's *Charicles*, and written in the foreign language, would be extremely useful. To the merest skeleton of the history, geography, and government of the country, should follow accounts of school life, the manners and customs of the inhabitants, the famous sights of the

leading towns, the money and metric systems, hints on etiquette, art, music, and the theatre, everything in fact that bears on the life of to-day.

What has become of translation, of exercises? Their limitation and partial extinction we shall endeavour to justify below. After three or four years' study of the vocabulary and grammar, entirely through the reader and easy prose texts, it is hoped the boy will be in a position to read literature as such, leaving all the paraphernalia of the earlier stages behind him. We must endeavour to give him some foretaste of the sweets for whose enjoyment he has undergone so much drudgery: we approach the æsthetic stage of artistic enjoyment. While we gaze with rapt attention and drink in the beauty of the Venus of Milo, is our delight enhanced by remembering that the marble is made of calcium oxide and carbonic acid gas? It is an indignity to turn a masterpiece of literature into a happy hunting-ground for compound plurals or even for the rules of the subjunctive. Shall we learn anatomy on the bodies of our dead friends?

The crown and summit of the language master's activity is to make some of his sense for the splendour and beauty of foreign literature—some of his sense for the warm breath of humanity glowing in its pages—pass into the souls of his boys; they must catch some of our delight, our joy—joy being, as Goethe finely puts it, the mother of all the virtues. With our over-grown curriculum we lead or drag them up the steps of too many of the fair gardens of knowledge, but, after a brief glimpse through the gates of the sun-lit glades and flower-bordered paths, we turn them back into the turmoil and struggle of life, ill-fed and unsatisfied. "I've forgotten everything I learnt at school; I never found it of much use." Let us fill our children with a genuine love for literature, with a desire to know more than they read with us, and we shall hear fewer and fewer of such unjust remarks. But literature we must read as literature; we must endeavour for the time being to transform ourselves into fellow-countrymen of the

author. Textual criticism, archæology, philology—these are the veriest handmaids of the school ; their work is over when they have left the best possible text at the school gates.

“What happens when you read Homer : do you enjoy the poetry, or are the words all roots ?” a distinguished philologist was once asked. “Roots,” was the reply given with a melancholy smile. We often see papers set on “Literature,” but the questions are almost invariably concerned with the language in which the literature is written—a very different matter. We can imagine Shakespeare in the realm of shades receiving a set of the Clarendon Press edition, and on being told that they were chiefly used in schools, putting them on his shelves under the title “The Revenge of Holofernes” !

TRANSLATION.

What *is* our object in translation ? Unless we know where we are going we cannot go there. The native speaker, we may reflect, uses his grammar unconsciously, and never employs translation at all ; and yet around these two our method of teaching centres. Our whole system seems planned to give a self-conscious knowledge about the language and not the language itself : we do not place the reasoning of the critic above the spontaneous work of the artist ; why then do we rate a knowledge of the visible signs of a foreign tongue so much higher than a practical power over the audible, spoken language, in fact the very language itself ?

If our object is to penetrate into the very arcana of another tongue, to think and feel as a Frenchman thinks and feels, then surely this will be accomplished the quicker, the more the English is kept out of sight.

Or is it our aim to turn out future translators of German books ? If so we shall be content to leave them “within six weeks of speaking the language.”

“We have given your son, sir, a thorough training in Harmony and Counterpoint ; occasionally he has had a

little playing on a dumb piano. In six weeks, with continued practice, we hope he will be able to play a tune passably well!" Ought it not rather to be our desire to give a real command over the language, even though that command be limited to things of every-day life? Theoretically we do, indeed, look on the capacity to speak as one of the aims of our teaching, but it "doesn't pay" in examinations—as little as the examinations themselves "pay" in after life—and, worst error of all, the power to speak is put at the end of the school career, or more correctly outside of it, instead of at the very beginning. But, perhaps, we shall be told we translate for the sake of "mental training." Well, training, if it is anything, is the persistent and consistent application of fixed principles, and that the grammar cannot afford simply because grammar and logic are not congruent. But, apart from theoretical justifications made for external consumption, let us try to see a little more closely what happens with the ordinary boy.

He has, say, twenty lines of Latin to do. After reading the first sentence through, he picks out the subject and then the verb; * he turns up the dictionary for his noun, and after sensibly skipping the dubious or antiquated etymology, begins to wonder whether the meaning is under I.A., Ia, or II. B. (*b*); on the road he has to turn back sometimes to the three pages of abbreviations at the beginning. However, he gets a meaning at last, and the process is repeated with the verb and the other words, with a flying reference, perhaps, to the grammar for some irregular gender. Then comes a hunt through the index to the syntax—that is, if he is lucky enough to have an index—and at last, the meaning is fairly clear; frequently, however, this is by no means the case, and he dives into the dictionary and grammar again. This is a danger to which conscientious boys are liable. With patient and misdirected ingenuity, they arrive at a false

* For an attack on this method see "The Art of Reading Latin," by W. G. Hall (Ginn & Company).

construction, but the labour of finding it was so great that the first impression remains stronger than the later correction.

The good boy works in this fashion; the ordinary boy leaves his grammar at school, skims through the lines as quickly as he can, writes down the words that are utterly foreign to him, turns up the dictionary, puts down the first meaning he comes across, and is quite happy next day if he escapes the Task Book. Is this where the training comes in?

In class there is a raking fire of questions directed apparently on the principle of "take care of the grammar, the æsthetics will take care of themselves." After vivisectioning the author in this manner a translation is made, and the child does all he can to prevent his weak English from being twisted quite out of shape by the foreign idiom. Then comes the turn of the "paper master," with his blue pencil and cabalistic signs. However, even the ordinary boy gets a fair copy made at last, and we creep on towards the examination. Then one morning a strange thing happens. The master touches the acmé of absurdity by saying, "We haven't time to read the Latin (or French); get on with the translation." What is the lesson—Latin, French, English? Not only must the boys read the French aloud as a connected whole after the details have been discussed, but the teacher must declaim it to them in the finest style he can muster; for if we really desire to teach French, the French must be the first thing to be heard, and the last thing must be a memory haunted by the clear thoughts and the clear sounds of the French.

Even if this dictionary and grammar procedure gave what is claimed for it, we have still to ask whether its intrinsic value, compared with that of other subjects, is worth the time devoted to it in the strictly limited number of school hours in a boy's life.

With regard to the above, it may not be superfluous to point out that an attack on method is not an attack on a subject: we may love Vergil without being lost in admiration of the way we were taught to read him. We do not

disparage a mountain view by telling a tourist that he could have come up by an easier and better route.

Another branch of the translation method is the veritable "night side" of our system, I mean the exercise-book. Since the vain attempt to teach a language by means of short, disconnected sentences was introduced into Germany about seventy years ago, there has been a steady rise in the number of hours devoted to Latin, but the results are not better, nay, they are worse (Perthes, iv. 11).

After the French Revolution had given the death-blow to the real use of Latin as a means of communication, this new method was gradually evolved in the hope of infusing some show of life into the ghostly dilettanteism of "prose composition," that sickly branch of study kept alive only by the golden sap of prizes and scholarships.

To prophesy the failure of such a system ought not to need any profound knowledge of the nature of language; the merest common sense is surely enough to see the impossibility of making anything homogeneous out of such disparity in difficulty as the two parts of an exercise.

The form in which to clothe a thought is given at once in the mother tongue, and we need know little more than the meanings of the separate foreign words to translate them with fair accuracy; but with the converse the form is almost entirely lacking. To obtain even a feeling for it we must first and for some time insist on attention being paid to it as embodied in sentences in the foreign language. Models and rules are insufficient at this stage, for the child is quite lost directly a sentence occurs, not slavishly like the old. After a little progress with the scales, does the music-master ask his pupil to write down the notes of what he has just played?

The unconscious absorption of the form through delight in the matter we quite miss, because of the vapid stupidity of the disconnected sentences we inflict on our pupils. Perhaps it might not be unfruitful in results if the reader were to put aside these lines now and to take as literature for half

an hour the exercise-book he has been using lately, and then turn to a few pages of the author read in class. Should his conscience grow qualmish, he may solace himself with the reflection that in our generation at least, no power will arraign him before the dread court of Psychology and Pedagogy before casting him into the circle reserved for those who have sinned against youth.

The fundamental error at the base of this system is the belief that language can be reconstructed *à priori* on the model of certain types, or by the exercise of the logical faculty in the correct application of the rules of grammar. This, as we have seen, leaves entirely out of view the portion retained purely by memory, and the mind lost in a mass of details where thought must wait on form, tied in a psychologic knot by the attempt to do two things at once, hobbling through the language on grammar and dictionary as crutches, when suddenly confronted with the lively interchange of thought in conversation, finds itself unable to use the material acquired; and the British parent complains more in sorrow than in anger, that, after years of patient work at school, his son cannot understand what is said to him, nor stammer out sentences for his most obvious wants.

Teachers can grow eloquent enough about the patience required to teach children. How about the patience of the children with us when we offer them the banausic banality of our exercise-books!

Les premières amours sont les plus vives is certainly highly instructive for a ladies' school, and our comic papers do right in holding such gems up to ridicule. That source of amusement, however, would swiftly dry up if the writer had to replace what he laughs at with two or three good sentences. When some remark not wholly foolish has been found, the noun or verb turns out to be irregular or not yet given, and in changing the forms sense vanishes.

Translations from English into a foreign tongue lie really outside the school, and, if exercises must be done, they should not come till at least after two years' reading, and

then only in aid of the study of the syntax. It is impossible to translate into a foreign language unless the mind feels in it more or less at home.

The ultimate expression of any reform in method is a change in the time-table, and I would seriously urge on all in authority to try at least the experiment of putting the exercise-book at the beginning of the second year. Since this sort of work comes early in the school life, a change would not interfere with any public examination; from this lucky fact, the worst fault is most easy of reform.

Instead of spending most of our time in the lower classes in correcting exercises, let us get into the language as soon as possible, and stay in the language as much as possible. Translations, at first, we must of course have, but they should be idiomatic; "the English boy says *this*, the German *that*, when he wants anything."

As soon as possible, however, we must begin to use paraphrases in the foreign language, rather than send the child to a dictionary with English meanings; our object all through being to transplant ourselves into the method and manner of thought of the foreigner. For the French, A. Beaujean's abridgment of Littré, or P. Larousse's *Dictionnaire complet illustré* may be used; Wenig's *Handwörterbuch der deutschen Sprache* is a handy book, in which the new orthography is given.

As long as we think in English and translate into French, we do not know French. However swift the process takes place, there must be a great psychologic gap between the conscious arrangement of elements and the unconscious flow of real speech. The knowledge of the medical student will help him little in a race: his chance depends not on theory, but on practice. This practice in a foreign language is the proper work of the school, and can be done better there than afterwards, when the richer spiritual life makes it more and more difficult to clothe thought in a foreign garb.

Occasional written translations into English are in their proper place only in the highest classes, and our chief

demand on an English translation is that it should be English.

The most interesting way to teach composition is by means of short stories; not only is sufficient material given, opportunity is afforded as well for the individuality of the child to come to the front, a point of capital importance as a corrective to the levelling tendency of class work. Of course, in French and German more discussion and help must be given; this exercise would make an excellent substitute for *Unseens*. In the higher classes a variation can be got by giving a free English translation of some foreign original for retroversion, the work to be done in the class-room without assistance; after a discussion of the papers sent up, two or three of the best may be compared with the original; in this way we can begin to develop a sense of what translation really means.

In close connection with this exercise stands the art of letter-writing. That the school should be mainly a preparation for after life seems a reasonable demand, but in the neglect of this pleasant art it shows almost a hostile front. For the mass of people, letter-writing is the sole form of original literary work; and although we may not be able to teach grace of style, clearness we can and ought to give. The introduction into schools, even for "commercial boys," of actual business letters, is a grave mistake—they belong to the counting-house. Neither do we want the letters of the great literary men of the last century, but the easy unaffected style of the present day—such as "brother Hermann" writes to his "dear Karl" in *Eine Alpenreise*, by Wagner.

VOCABULARY.

In the Middle Ages it was a daily school task to learn a certain number of words by heart, so fully was the need of a vocabulary recognised. Comenius, indeed, endeavoured with 8000 words to give a slight idea "of the whole world and the Latin language." The mechanical deadness which such a

method induces could not fail to call forth a warm opposition on the part of the reformers of the end of the last century. "Learning by heart" fell into disrepute. Vocabulary lessons, however, we must have again as a regular part of school-work. Educated men are said to use about 3000 words in every-day life; to acquire this store stands in importance next to the pronunciation and the grammar. For practical use after leaving school it is even more important. To say how this is to be done is not an easy matter. On what principle are we to classify the words—by the alphabet, the things around us, the parts of speech, etymology, or psychology?

The first plan hardly needs any discussion; the second somehow grows very dull in practice, nor can it be consistently carried out, as it would be highly inconvenient to get together all the things belonging to any particular class of words.

Now, since the primary office of words is to carry meaning, they must be arranged, as far as possible, in those groups which analogy forms unconsciously in the mind. For this we need very much a small edition of Roget's *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases*. While avoiding out-of-the-way words, and a pedantic attempt to include everything, the groups should be arranged more in accordance with modern views on psychology, and contain only those words that an educated man uses. The groups of this ideological dictionary should then be sedulously worked over in the English classes, by forming sentences with them. Our orthography is a heavy burden to us with its "spelling lessons." "Meaning lessons" are more needed, as any teacher may convince himself if he will ask his boys to write out the meanings of the technical terms they have been using for years in their Geometry or Algebra. The corresponding French and German vocabularies should be printed in precisely the same way, so that, with the English vocabulary open before him, the child could tell at once from its position in the page the meaning of the French or German word.

Later on, when we wish to drop translation as much as possible, the foreign vocabularies can be taken alone, and cross associations will be avoided. How are we to acquire these groups? First and foremost we must never ask the child to learn a word he has not already seen as an integral part of a sentence. We do not begin to teach anatomy by presenting the student with a confused heap of disjointed bones; a single word by itself has no more meaning than a single bone.

Perthes' plan, as explained in the Reader above, is undoubtedly the best to begin with; but this alone will hardly give a real command over the vocabulary of the primitives. After a fair number of them have been mastered, the words should be ticked off in the vocabulary parallel to the English. As soon as any particular one has a majority of ticked forms, the teacher can make up easy sentences for the others, and the whole group may be learnt by heart. The ingenuity of the class can be exercised by making it use up the material thus acquired in the formation of new sentences.

As soon as the higher classes have acquired a fair store of words, they may be gradually rearranged on etymological principles, so far as these are applied to showing the *inner* construction of the language. This may be done best by a thorough study of the irregular verbs.

It may not be superfluous to point out that some caution is necessary in grouping cognate words: the new theories on the Arian vowel system, adding the European *e*, *o* to the Sanskrit *a* for the parent speech, have not yet got into the books of reference. We must not couple *shire*, for example, with *shear*, as the *i* does not belong to the same vowel rank.

By this time a number of derivatives will have been unconsciously absorbed, and, as soon as a clear feeling for some of their formative elements has been obtained, we can work over our primitives again by making words (*e.g.*) ending in *-able*, *-ung*, *-eur* compound verbs in *be-*, *er-*, &c., &c. In this way the sense for the connection between meaning and form

will be developed, and a good foundation laid for the future study of Latin and Greek.

A useful plan for saving the time of the children is to work through the author set with a note-book cut step-wise into an alphabet, and to enter the leading derivatives as they occur under their respective primitives. Then we can either take one page and explain the family of words on it, or we can work through the note-book and pick out all those that have the same formative element. In this way, by preparing for the coming words, we can read faster, and, even if some are partially forgotten, the right translation will be remembered when it is seen in the dictionary.

Delightful essays have been written on the culture of nations as derived from a study of their vocabulary, but, as far as the writer knows, they are confined entirely to the most ancient periods of the language; for modern times such an investigation would be equally valuable and far more interesting. We may, perhaps, get such a piece of work done when the view that the study of the ancients is but one wing in the mighty edifice of the science of language, obtains adequate recognition.

PHILOLOGY.

Like phonetics, philology is not a school subject save in English. The teacher should know a great deal about it, and the children should hear uncommonly little. In mathematics, we constantly feel how our knowledge of the higher branches modifies the particular way in which we present the elementary parts; in the same way our statements on language should be made as far as possible in that form in which the pupil, if he advance far enough, will meet with them in philology. For example, the vowels of allied words in the Arian parent language are known to belong to certain fixed ranks of which the majority are formed by *e* and *o*, followed by one of the medians *i*, *u*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, as may be clearly seen in the Greek *leipō*, *leloipa*, *elipon*. When the word was accented on the

ending, the vowels *e* and *o* were assimilated to the following median, which then became sonant. In passing into Teutonic, *e* developed into *i* before another *i* or an *n* followed by a consonant; thus Latin *vertit* = *wird*, *ventus* = *wind*; *o* became *a*—Lat. *hostis* = *Gast*; the sonants *l*, *m*, *n*, *r* developed a preceding *u*, and under certain conditions *u* became *o*. Hence we have

<i>ī,</i>	<i>ai,</i>	<i>i,</i>
<i>eu,</i>	<i>au,</i>	<i>u,</i>
<i>e—i,</i>	<i>a,</i>	<i>u—o.</i>

The first group is preserved in verbs like *ride*, *reiten*; the second in *seethe*, *sieden*; the third in *help*, *helfen*—*bind*, *binden*. The last is numerically the most important, so without saying a word to the child about the above we teach the German irregular verbs in this way:

<i>werden</i> — <i>wird</i> ;	<i>ward</i> — <i>wurden</i>	<i>geworden</i>
<i>helfen</i> — <i>hilf</i> ;	<i>half</i> — <i>hülfe</i> ;	<i>geholfen</i>
	<i>hälfe</i> ;	
<i>binden</i> ;	<i>band</i> ;	<i>gebunden</i> .

We must learn then to connect these vowels thus:

<i>e—i</i> ;	<i>a, u</i> ;	<i>u—o</i> .
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The first pair we have already noticed in *Hilfe*; *Berg* and *Gebirge*; *Wetter* and *Gewitter*.

The imperative of *binden* is *binde*; but those which show the change *e—i* in the present indicative have, almost without exception, an *i* in the imperative without the final *e*, as *helfen* and *hilf*, *gelten* and *gilt*. In the past tense the vowels in the singular and plural used to be different, as in our *was* and *were*; but, as soon as the reason for this was forgotten, a struggle for existence began between them. In *war* and *waren*, we see that *a* runs right through, but the *r* of the plural has killed the *s*; at the present moment *wurde* for the singular is driving out *ward*. Now, the past subjunctive is made regularly by mutation of the vowel of the plural, as *würde*; but, when the vowel in the singular of the past in-

dicative killed the vowel in the plural, the past subjunctive did not correspond, and new forms like *bände*, *hälfe* were made by analogy.

These double forms are now struggling for life with one another, and grammarians differ as to which of them should be retained; some say *sünge* marks more distinctly the difference between the moods, others ask for uniformity. We must follow the lead of the best authors.

The vowels of the past tense are found in a large number of masculines that modify in the plural—*Band*, *Spruch*, *Schlag*, *Fluss*, &c. Again, factitive verbs are made by mutating the vowel of the past *singular*, so we couple *sat*, *set*; *drank*, *drench*; *sank*, *senken*. These strictly should be weak verbs, but in cases like *schmelzen* the primitive and derivative are the same, and confusion between the weak and strong conjugation naturally takes place.

Another large class of nouns ending in *t* may be connected with the verbs by the law that in Primitive Teutonic all gutturals and labials passed into their corresponding spirants before this *t*: thus *drive*, *treiben*—*drift*, *Trift*; *may*, *mögen*—*might*, *Macht*; *bow*, *biegen*—*bight*, *Bucht*.

Analogy may be used incidentally to show how *Mittwoch*, *été* have become masculine through being associated with a group of allied masculine nouns. In the French verb, of course, we show the connection of the future and conditional with the present and imperfect of *avoir*, and form the tenses from their different stems.

Instead of the usual four conjugations it would be better to accept Chabaneau's more scientific division into living and archaic (*Histoire et Théorie de la Conjugaison française*, 1878). In the former the accent is very nearly always on the ending, and from it alone are new verbs made—those in *-er* from nouns, in *-ir* from adjectives; in the latter the accent shifts. This method has been carried out in the *Neufranzösische Formenlehre nach ihrem Lautstande*, by E. Koschwitz.

In the above we have kept to the principle of restricting philology to showing the *inner* formation of the language;

this, however, is not the method most in vogue. Some of our grammars and readers present us with something over which they are pleased to put "Grimm's Law." A mnemonic formula ASH, SHA, HAS is to help us; the sounds apparently are divided, like boiled eggs, into hard and soft. A stands for aspirate and, as we learn by the way, for spirant too: that is, *father* and *fat her* are the same! Unfortunately, this pleasing law breaks down when we compare *father*, *mother*, *brother*, with *Vater*, *Mutter*, *Bruder*. Of course, boys soon get to believe that etymology is a game where the letters of the alphabet are shaken up in a bag and you take out what you like; another firm conviction, which always rouses the wrath of Mr. Skeat, is that English "comes from" German. They cannot believe anything else; after getting, with scant courtesy to the vowels, a hundred words from the German, it is idle to add the saving clause: "You mustn't think that English is derived from German."

A curious defence for the retention of Latin in schools, is sometimes put forward on etymological grounds: "to understand the English language thoroughly it is necessary to have a knowledge of Latin." While gratefully acknowledging any expression of the desirability of learning English *thoroughly*, it may be pointed out that the same holds true for half the languages of Europe, including especially Scandinavian, Norman-French, and Old English. When will classical scholars help us to understand our own language thoroughly by giving us a trustworthy etymological dictionary for Greek and Latin? English from Latin? Why not Latin from English, as thus—

sit *sat* *ne-st*
"down-sit."

The vowel in *nest* has been lost; the accent was originally on the ending; therefore the Latin *sedeo* must be connected with *nīdus*. The length, then, of the *i* is due to the loss of a *z*, springing from an *s* voiced by the voiced *d*: *nīdus* <

nizdos < ni-sd-os ; so sēdi < sezdi < se-sd-i, a reduplicated perfect we see. Again, Arian *d* both in English and Latin passes with a following *t* into *ss*: *oida*—*wit*, *iwiss*, *wīse*; so *sed-to-s* > *sessus*, and the verb *sedeo* is clear. But this we shall scarcely see in our time, as it demands from English masters in English schools a philological knowledge of English.

One point of capital importance is altogether overlooked by these classical philologists—the change of meaning. Even our professed etymologists subordinate it far too much to the changes of sound. The scientific study of the former has only just begun, and the principles are not yet sufficiently settled to apply them to school work. A month's study at vowel gradation in Old English would teach more etymology and philology than years of school Latin; if we really desire to test the value of this method take any ten pages of the French Reader, write down all the words the boys do not know, and see how many can be explained etymologically. Even then it will often be easier to learn the meaning at once than to follow the various changes from Latin to modern French; we stand a chance, too, of blurring the scientific sense for language, by putting side by side changes in form that it took centuries to bring about. We set up cross associations, and they are the one thing to be avoided in teaching language; let us take one subject at a time, and get a clear, firm grasp on it before we venture to compare. Let us not confuse the practical mastery of a modern tongue with the scientific study of its origin; we must learn things as they are, before we begin to investigate how they got to be what they are.

In spite of a fondness for the subject, the writer has come, after some considerable experience, to the belief that the intrusion of comparative philology into school work is positively harmful. In a class averaging sixteen years of age and preparing for the London Matriculation a carefully drawn up set of German cognate words was given in the hope of strengthening a weak vocabulary in "Unseens." *Strafe* was soon sent up as "strap"; this gave food for reflection, and

the perpetration of the following gave the death-blow to Grimm, and killed even the desire to expatiate on Verner: "The Latin word *hostis* is represented by the runic *gastiz*—no boy can resist a rune—and we see that *o* becomes in Teutonic *a*. Let us take the word *dog*: we have first *dag*, then by metathesis *gad*; now *g* becomes *k*, and *d*, *t*, and so we have *cat*." The class was delighted, and some of the boys in the "Matriculation English" took out their pocket-books to preserve so wonderful a fact. Next morning, when it was demanded why *cat* hadn't become *dog*, they began to see that they had been trifled with. We had no more Grimm that day nor next.

Finally, if the principles laid down in the preceding pages are in the main right, our present method needs a thorough reform. Who is to begin the change? What is the chief hindrance in our way? The change must come from the Universities; our hindrance lies in the exaggerated respect paid by the British public to examinations, while it takes no trouble to see that they will test the capabilities it wants or that the examiners are specially fitted for their work.

We shall not teach either foreign languages or other subjects adequately till scholarships can be freely gained for them at our Universities, and the graduate feels that his future chance for a headmastership is as good as if he had taken up classics, mathematics, or science. Or rather, the particular subject he is to teach ought to be made subordinate to his knowledge of pedagogy. In the past the schoolmaster has been confused with the scholar; now we run the risk of confusing him with the specialist. In appointing a cook, do we select the man with the largest larder or the biggest round of beef?

The scholar lacks intellectual detachment, the specialist a right sense of proportion in estimating the value of his subject. With each the main occupation is with a thing; with the schoolmaster it is a mind. The true doctor is an artist, with his skill based on science; he sees instinctively what the particular individual patient before him wants at that particular moment. We should be artists in the souls of

children, but as long as we are allowed to offer great knowledge of a single subject joined to a rough empirical experience, instead of a profound study of the child's mind, we shall rise in matters of teaching, in spite of all our enthusiasm, devotion, and hard labour, no higher than the level of the herb-woman and the bone-setter.

Considering the large number of men and women engaged in education, and the intrinsic value of the subject, is it too much to ask our Universities to give us *Schools* or a *Tripes for Teachers?*

At present our method in examining for foreign languages is little short of ludicrous; in the great majority of cases the highest honours *can* be won by the deaf and dumb! Of the four elements of language, hearing, speaking, reading, writing, not a single one is adequately tested. The weight is thrown on translation and the exceptions in the grammar; the former the native speaker never wants, and the latter he absorbs unconsciously. So far can false views on the nature of language mislead us.

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1495 (?) Here begynneth a treatyse called Peruula.

Picture of master in a large chair with a birch in left hand; at his feet, three boys with caps on: "What shalt

thou doo when thou haste an englyssh to be made in latyne. I shall reherce myn englyssche fyrst ones, twyes or thryes, and loke out my princypal verbe, and aske hym this questyon, who or what. And that worde that answeyryth to the questyon shall be the nomynatif case to the verbe." Colophon. Prynted at westmynstre, in Caxtons hous, by wynkyn de worde.

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"Here foloweth the seconde booke of thys lytell worke, in the whych shalbe treated of cōmunications, and other thynges necessary to the lernynge of the sayde Frenche tonge."

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This Grammar is much livelier reading than most of its successors. Full phonetic transcriptions are given and a set of correspondences of the letters between English and German: "though a certain rule or standing certainty can not be prescribed (as we could wish it were) through the whole language without instances and exceptions."

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A remarkable preface of twenty-six pages gives a mass of valuable information, tracing the history of Latin Grammar from Crates down to 1635. If ever the History of Grammar

in England is written these few pages by Twells will be one of the leading authorities. Those who desire "uniformity in grammar" will not derive much pleasure from the history of the attempts made to set it up.

"As for what was afterwards dully and foolishly delivered by the Latins, it ought not to be imputed to one that was a Greek: . . . it is to be ascribed to their Sottishness, who either did not well understand their own Language; or else wholly neglected the use of Grammatical Disputations . . .

"Strange Fate! That a Grammar, which all men, that wear their Senses, acknowledge to be tedious and impracticable. A Grammar, which interferes with all the Principles of true Didacticks, should deceive the World for the space of One Thousand eight Hundred and Fifty Years!"

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1714. **T. Ruddiman** : The Rudiments of the Latin Tongue.

Ruddiman complains feelingly of the varying views of grammarians ; he attacks the theory that putting the whole grammar into Latin "carries the Learner more directly to the Habit of speaking Latin, a practice much used in our schools."

See "The Life of T. Ruddiman" by **G. Chalmers**, 1794, and "Great Scholars" by **H. J. Nicoll**.

1718. **A. Blackwall** : An introduction to the Classics : containing a short discourse on their excellencies, and directions how to study them to advantage.

1718. **R. Johnson** : Additions and Emendations to the Grammatical Commentaries, with a reply to Mr. W. Symes.

1718. **R. Johnson** : Noctes Nottinghamicae : or cursory objections against the syntax of the Common-Grammar, in order to obtain a better.

There is a long "Preface to the School Masters."

"'Tis not to be suppos'd that a Government can have that Passion for, or interest in Lilly's Grammar, as to enjoyn It upon School-Masters against their Will."

1719. A supplement to the English Introduction of Lily's Grammar . . . with a preface, in which an account is given of the method used in the two lowest forms of the said school [at Exeter], with the reasons thereof ; and a defence of the early and long Use of Terence therein.

1720. **John Clarke** : An Essay upon the Education of Youth in

Grammar-Schools. In which the Vulgar Method of Teaching is examined, and a New one proposed.

Replaces the Grammar at the beginning by the use of Literal Translations. The whole Essay is full of common sense.

1721. A compendious way of teaching the learned languages, and some of the Liberal Sciences at the same time; us'd formerly by Tanaquil Faber.

The Introduction contains a good history of Latin Grammar.

1723. A compendious way of teaching Ancient and Modern Languages, formerly practised by the Learned Tanaquil Faber

- 1725-31. **T. Ruddiman** : Grammaticae Latinae Institutiones.

The preface to the reader gives an interesting sketch of the history of Latin Grammar. In Scotland there was a 17th edition of the Institutiones in 1815; in England, a 24th edition in 1782. A German edition by Stallbaum was published in Leipzig in 1823, and used by Dr. B. H. Kennedy (see 1844).

1731. **J. Clarke** : An Essay upon Study. Wherein Directions are given for the Due conduct thereof, and the Collection of a Library, proper for the Purpose, consisting of the Choicest Books in all the several Parts of Learning.

1733. **J. Clarke** : A new Grammar of the Latin Tongue comprising all in the Art necessary for Grammar-Schools. To which is Annex'd a Dissertation upon Language.

“The sole Occasion the Generality . . . have for the Latin Tongue is to read usefull Books writ in that Language, easily and familiarly.”

1733. A Dissertation upon the Way of teaching the Latin Tongue : Wherein the Objections raised against Mr. Ruddiman's . . . Grammar . . . are answered and confuted; And the vulgar Practice of teaching Latin by a Grammar writ in the same Language, is justified and defended.

A lively defence of Ruddiman's Grammar, and an attack upon the new Latin Grammar by Mr. John Clarke, School-master at Hull.

1743. **J. Barclay** : A treatise on Education.

1750. **J. T. Philips** : A compendious way of teaching antient and

modern languages, formerly instituted by the learned Tanaquil Faber . . . also an Essay on Rational Grammar. To which are now added, Proposals for a new Method of Domestick Education. Fourth edition.

1793. An Introduction to the Latin Tongue for the use of Youth. Eton.

1795. An elementary introduction to the Latin Grammar, with practical exercises, after a new and easy method.

“The young scholar may now begin to make some short Latin sentences: this early practice will at once excite his ambition and flatter his pride.”

1809. [Sidney Smith.] Essays on Professional Education by R. L. Edgeworth. *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. XV., pp. 40-53: “return our thanks for the courage with which he has combated the excessive abuse of classical learning in England.”

The article is written in the slashing style.

1817. Public education, consisting of three tracts, reprinted from the *Edinburgh Review*, the *Classical Journal*, and the *Pamphleteer*, together with the defence of Public Schools, by the late Dean of Westminster.

1818. **N. G. Dufief**: Nature Displayed in her mode of teaching Language to man, being a new and infallible method of acquiring languages with unparalleled rapidity . . .

The method simply consists in learning some thousand phrases before the grammar is touched.

1825. **W. Duverger**: Comparison of French and English Languages.

1826. **T. W. C. Edwards**: The Eton Latin Grammar, a plain and concise Introduction to the Latin Language being Lily's grammar abridged for the use of the young gentlemen of Eton College.

“In this edition the construing is given in a manner far superior to that of any edition published.”

1826. Hamilton's Method of Teaching Languages. *Edinburgh Review*, Vol. XLIV., pp. 47-69.

A lively article with a vigorous attack on the loss of time in looking words out in a dictionary.

1827. **Arth. Clifford**: A letter to the Right Honourable the Earl of Shrewsbury on a New Method of Teaching and Learning Languages.

The method really consists in learning a large vocabulary

by heart. The father and mother can teach about 1000 Latin words to the child at the age of 3-5 years!

1828. **George Long**: An introductory lecture delivered in the University of London on Tuesday, November 4th, 1828.
1829. **L. Mühlensfels**: Introductory Lecture on the Study of German.
1829. **A. Clifford**: Instructions to Parents and Teachers respecting the use of the elementary books for the Latin Language.
1830. **L. P. R. Fenwick de Porquet**: The Fenwickian System of Learning French.
1830. **George Long**: Observations on the Study of the Latin and Greek Languages. An Introductory Lecture delivered in the University of London, November 1, 1830.
1836. **Alexander Allen**: An Etymological Analysis of Latin Verbs. For the use of schools and colleges.

The interesting preface of XLIII. pages affords a good view of philological opinions at the time on roots and crude forms. It is based mainly on Pott's *Etymologische Forschungen* and Dr. Struve's book—*Ueber die Lateinische Declination und Conjugation* (1823).

The author apparently imagines the primitive man as one day making up his mind to have a language, and then glueing it together in this fashion—

Preposition.	Reduplication.	Connecting Vowel.	Root.	Flection Syllable.	Tense Vowel.	Plural Sign.	Person Sign.
<i>con</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>er</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>t</i>

1836. **Rev. M. Russell, LL.D.**: Observations on the Advantages of Classical Learning, viewed as the means of cultivating the youthful mind, and more especially as compared with the studies which it has been proposed to substitute in its stead.
1836. **J. Ward**: A short Introduction of Grammar, generally to be used: compiled and set forth for the bringing up of all those that intend to attain to the knowledge of the Latin Tongue.
1836. **Thomas Wyse, Esq., M.P.**: Education Reform; or, the Necessity of a National System of Education. Vol. I.
1838. **Dr. L. Lersch**: Die Sprachphilosophie der Alten, dargestellt an dem Streite über Analogie und Anomalie der Sprache.

1838. **Dr. William Smith** : Latin Exercises for Beginners.
1839. **George Long** : What are the advantages of a Study of Antiquity at the present time ?
Central Society of Education. Third Publication. P. 184.
1839. **William Smith** : On the Study of Comparative Grammar.
Central Society of Education. Third Publication. P. 315.
Based on the labours of Bopp, Grimm, and Pott.
1842. **J. S. Blackie** : On the Study of Languages. In Tait's *Edinburgh Magazine*, Vol. IX., pp. 747-754.
1842. **C. Levert** : A general and practical System of Teaching and Learning Languages, applied to all Languages, especially the French.
1844. **A. J. Beresford Hope** : Essays on the Study of the Latin Tongue. Pp. 71-91.
1844. **Dr. B. H. Kennedy** : Latinae grammaticae curriculum ; or, A Progressive Grammar of the Latin Language for the use of all classes in Schools.
Doggerel verses are given for the gender and some nouns of the third declension ; the syntax is in Latin with English interspersed.
1845. **J. S. Blackie** : On the Teaching of Languages. *The Foreign Quarterly Review*, Vol. XXXV., pp. 170-187.
1846. **T. H. Key** : A Latin Grammar on the System of Crude Forms.
Based on Forcellini, Ramshorn, Zumpt, and Madvig.
1847. **John Robson** : On the Comparative Advantages of some Methods of teaching Latin and Greek. *The Classical Museum*, Vol. IV., pp. 388-427.
1850. **J. Price** : On the Study of Languages. *The Classical Museum*, Vol. VII., pp. 196-200.
1852. **J. S. Blackie** : On the Studying and Teaching of Languages.
1852. **Jacob Grimm** : Über den Ursprung der Sprache.
1853. The School Claims of Languages, Ancient and Modern. In the *Westminster Review*, pp. 450-498.
A vigorous attack on the exaggerated claims often made for the Classics.
1854. **C. Richardson** : On the study of Language.
1855. **Steinthal** : Logik, Grammatik und Psychologie.
1856. **Fr. Haase** : De medii aevi studiis philologicis.
Mediaeval grammarians are full of errors in accident and

- lexicon, but excellent in philosophy ; modern Syntax really follows Ebrard Bethuniensis Graecismus, 1124. (See 1887.)
1856. **Berthold Sigismund** : Kind und Welt.
1857. *Grammatici Latini ex recensione H. Keilii.*
 There are excellent indices in the last volume. According to Mr. Nettleship, all the works given are really based on the labours of not more than twelve grammarians, none of whom lived later than the Antonines.
1858. **J. E. Carlile** : Grammar Schools.
 In "Essays by Ministers of the Free Church of Scotland, edited by W. Hanna."
 Gives an interesting sketch of the history of Latin Grammar in Scotch schools.
1859. **Ch. L. Livet** : La Grammaire française et les grammairiens au XVI^e siècle.
1859. **C. E. A. Schmidt** : Beiträge zur Geschichte der Grammatik.
1861. [**W. Lily**]. **Roscoe Mongan** : The School and University Eton Latin Grammar.
1865. **M. B. Lévy, II.** : De l'enseignement des langues vivantes en France.
1867. *Essays on a Liberal Education.* Edited by Rev. F. W. Farrar.
 I. **C. S. Parker** : On the History of Classical Education.
 II. **H. Sidgwick** : The Theory of Classical Education.
 III. **J. Seeley** : Liberal Education in Universities.
 IV. **E. E. Bowen** : On Teaching by means of Grammar.
 V. **F. W. Farrar** : On Greek and Latin Verse Composition as a general branch of Education.
 VI. **J. M. Wilson** : On Teaching Natural Science in Schools.
 VII. **J. W. Hales** : The Teaching of English.
 VIII. **W. Johnson** : On the Education of the Reasoning Faculties.
 IX. **Lord Houghton** : On the present Social Results of Classical Education.
1869. **Ch. Thurot** : Extraits des divers manuscrits latins pour servir à l'histoire des doctrines grammaticales au moyen âge.
1870. **D. Nasmith** : The practical linguist ; being a system based entirely upon natural principles of learning to speak, read, and write the German Language.

The distinctive point of the method was to obtain the relative numerical value of words, by reading five books through and ticking off every word as it occurred: "some words had a numerical value of upwards of one thousand, others fell to and below five." The Vocabulary is divided into permanent and auxiliary. The Accidence has a repellent look: the English in the exercises is first Germanised. "How can I help it?" becoming "What can i [*sic*] therefore?" and so on.

1871. **W. D. Whitney**: Language and Education. In the *North American Review*, Vol. CXIII., pp. 343-374.

Hermann Perthes: Zur Reform des lateinischen Unterrichts auf Gymnasien und Realschulen.

1873 and 1885. Erster Artikel. Über den Plan einer "lateinischen Wortkunde im Anschluss an die Lectüre."

1874 and 1885. Zweiter Artikel.

1886. Dritter Artikel. Zur lateinischen Formenlehre, sprachwissenschaftliche Forschungen und didactische Vorschläge.

1886. Vierter Artikel. Die Principien des Übersetzens und die Möglichkeit einer erheblichen Verminderung der Stundenzahl.

1876. Fünfter Artikel. Erläuterungen zu meiner lateinischen Formenlehre.

The first two articles of this important work appeared originally in the *Zeitschrift für das Gymnasialwesen*. They form the starting-point of a movement, since grown very powerful, for a thorough-going change of our method in teaching all languages.

The first, second, and fourth articles are of general interest; every teacher of the Classics ought to read the whole.

Although the German love of system may not suit the English temperament, we cannot but envy the point and precision given to pedagogic discussions in Germany by the fixed limits within which they have to move.

1874. **Julius Jolly**: Schulgrammatik und Sprachwissenschaft.

1875. **A. J. Ellis**: On the Acquisition of Languages. Reprinted from the *Educational Times* for 1st Nov. 1875.

1875. **Dr. F. Pfalz**: Über den Bildungswerth der fremden Sprachen im Schulunterrichte.
1875. **R. H. Quick**: The First Steps in Teaching a Foreign Language, with some accounts of celebrated methods.
1876. **H. Breymann**: Sprachwissenschaft und neuere Sprachen.
1876. **Henry Sweet, I.**: Words, Logic, and Grammar. *Philological Society's Transactions*, pp. 470-503.
A remarkably acute paper, especially in the treatment of Grammar.
1876. **M. Taine**: On the Acquisition of Language by Children.
In *Mind*, Vol. II., pp. 252-259: A Translation of an Article that appeared in the *Revue Philosophique*, 1876.
1877. **Darwin**: A biographical Sketch of an Infant. In *Mind*, a quarterly review of psychology and philosophy.
1877. **Henry Sweet, II.**: A Handbook of Phonetics, including a popular exposition of the principles of Spelling Reform.
1878. **J. Baumgarten**: Französische Sprache und französischer Unterricht.
An admirable article in Schmid's *Encyklopädie*, Vol. II., pp. 647-709.
1878. **Fr. A. Eckstein**: Der lateinische Unterricht, in Dr. K. A. Schmid's *Encyklopädie des gesammten Erziehungs- und Unterrichtswesens*. (First edition.)
The article in the second edition (1877) has been published separately by **Dr. H. Heyden**.
Reviewed by **Heller**, in the *Wochenschrift für classische Philologie*, V., 7.
1878. **B. Perez**: Les Trois Premières Années de l'Enfant.
1878. **F. Pollock**: An Infant's Progress in Language. In *Mind*, Vol. III., pp. 392-401.
1879. **A. H. Sayce**: How to Learn a Language. *Nature*, p. 93.
1880. **S. S. Haldemann**: Note on the Invention of Words in *Proceedings of the American Philological Association*.
1880. **M. W. Humphreys**: A contribution to Infantile Linguistic, in *Transactions of the American Philological Association*, XI., 6-17.
1880. **M. B. Lévy, I.**: Les Langues mortes et les Langues vivantes dans l'Enseignement secondaire.
1880. **F. Lichtenberger**: How to teach and learn Modern Languages.

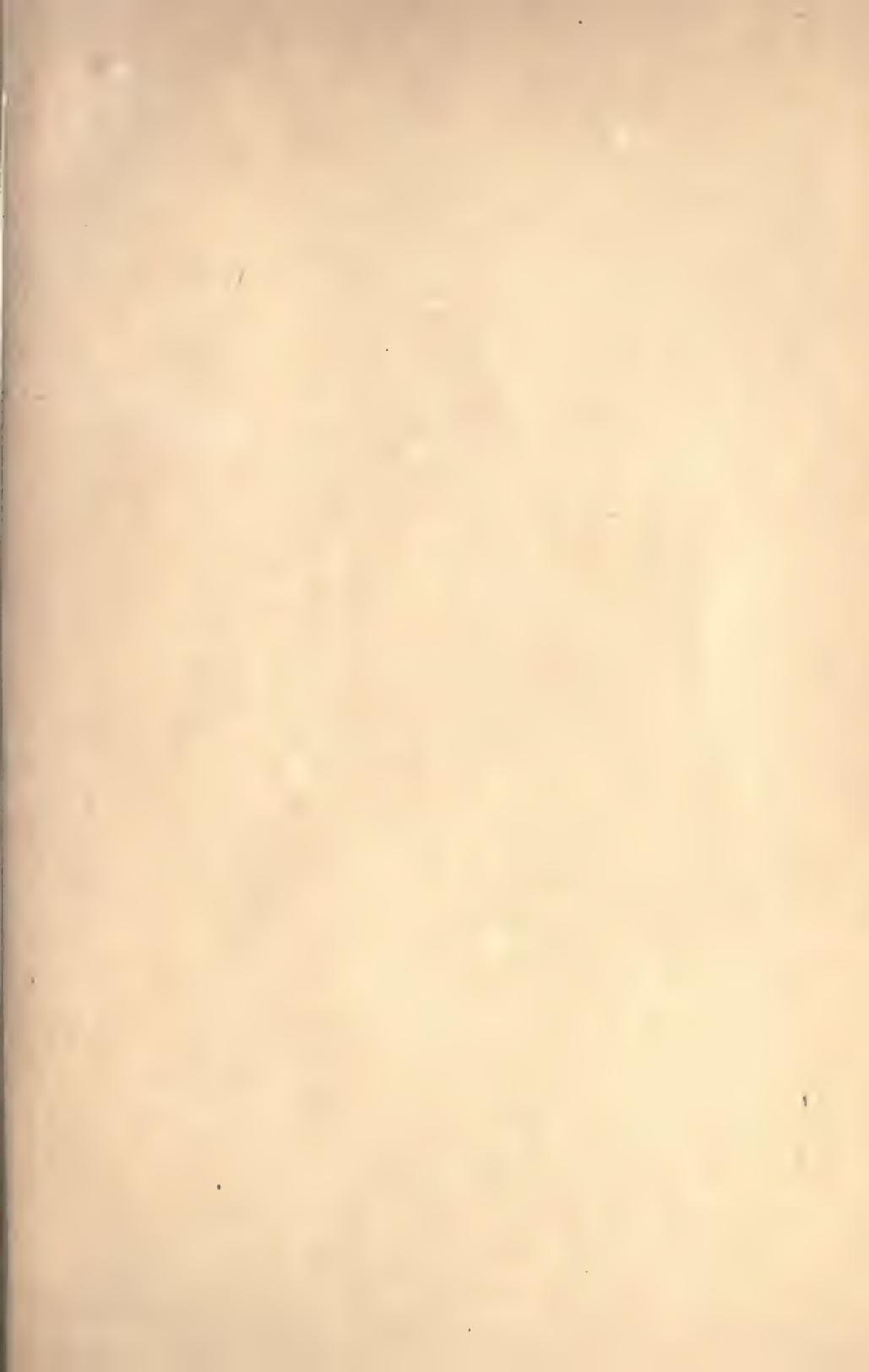
1880. **O. Rade** : Die psychologischen Grundzüge des Unterrichts in der Muttersprache.
1880. **Fritz Schultze** : Die Sprache des Kindes.
1880. **W. Viector** : Die wissenschaftliche Grammatik und der englische Unterricht. *Englische Studien*, III., 106.
1881. **Ch. Thurot** : De la Prononciation française.
On early French books from 1521–1800.
1881. **Edward B. Tylor** : Anthropology.
The chapters on Language, pp. 114–181, are sound, and form a good starting-point for the scientific study of language.
1881. **Wyma** : The Mental Development of the Infant of to-day, in the *Journal of Psychological Medicine and Mental Pathology*, VII., pp. 62–69.
1882. **S. Brassai** : Die Reform des Sprachunterrichts in Europa.
1882. **G. Körting** : Gedanken und Bemerkungen über das Studium der neueren Sprachen auf den deutschen Hochschulen.
1882. **Gustav Lindner** : Kosmos.
“Die Beobachtungen von Lindner gehören zu den besten, welche überhaupt vorliegen.” (Preyer.)
1882. **J. Müller** : Quellenschriften und Geschichte des deutschsprachlichen Unterrichts bis 1550.
The leading books between mediaeval and humanistic times are given with great fulness and accuracy.
1882. *Quousque tandem*. Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren ! Ein Beitrag zur Ueberbürdungsfrage.
1886. *Quousque tandem* (**Wilhelm Viector**). Zweite um ein Vorwort vermehrte Auflage.
1883. **C. Bursian** : Geschichte der klassischen Philologie in Deutschland, von den Anfängen bis zur Gegenwart. 2 Bde.
1883. **Richard Hiller** : Die Latein-Methode des J. A. Comenius.
Contains a full bibliography.
1883. **Karl Kühn** : Zur Methode des französischen Unterrichts. Ein Beitrag zur Reform des Sprachunterrichts und zur Ueberbürdungsfrage.
Reviewed by H. Klinghardt, in *Englische Studien*, VII., 491.
1883. **Dr. Wilh. Münch** : Zur Förderung des französischen Unterrichts, insbesondere auf Realgymnasien.
1883. **G. A. Schrumpf** : How to begin French.
An educational essay.

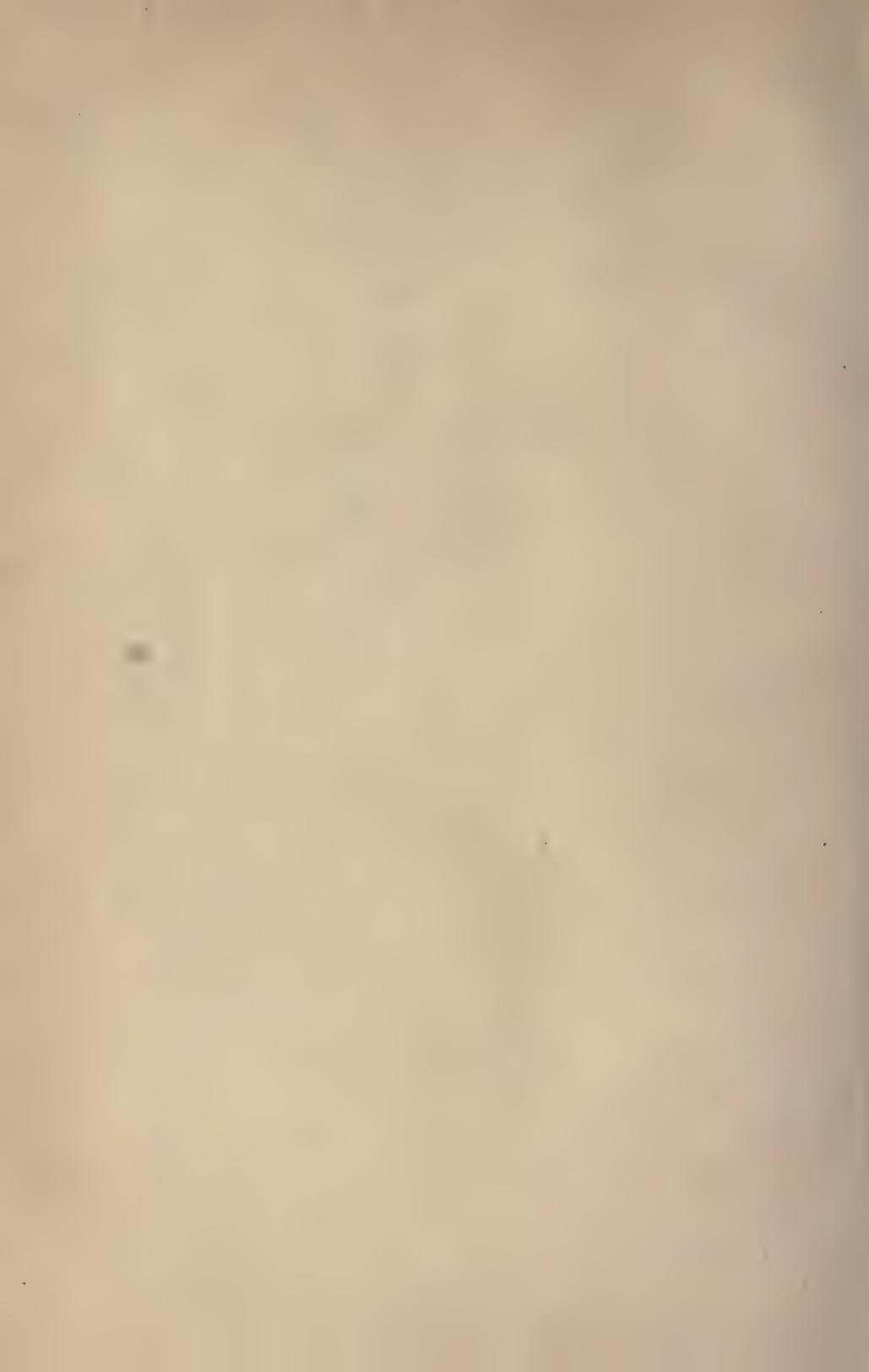
1883. **R. P. Scott**: English in the Higher Education.
1884. **Dionysii Thracis ars grammatica**, edidit **Gvstavs Ohlig**.
This excellent critical edition has full indices at the end. The paradigms taken from a MS. at the Vatican are the earliest I have seen. The edition has been reviewed by Egenolf in the *Wochenschrift für klassische Philologie*, V., 7.
1884. **Felix Franke**: Die praktische Spracherlernung auf Grund der Psychologie und der Physiologie dargestellt.
An admirable little tract.
1884. **W. Preyer**: Die Seele des Kindes. Beobachtungen über die geistige Entwicklung des Menschen in den ersten Lebensjahren.
There is an American translation by H. W. Brown.
1884. **Henry Sweet**, III.: On the Practical Study of Language.
Philological Society's Transactions, pp. 577-600.
1885. — Spelling Reform and the Practical Study of Languages, a paper read before the English Spelling Reform Association, December 16th, 1884.
1885. **J. J. Baebler**: Beiträge zu einer Geschichte der lateinischen Grammatik im Mittelalter.
1885. **H. Breymann**: Wünsche und Hoffnungen, betreffend das Studium der neueren Sprachen an Schule und Universität.
1885. **J. Neudecker**: Das Doctrinale des Alexander de Villa-Dei und der lateinische Unterricht während des spätem Mittelalters in Deutschland.
1885. **G. C. Schrumpf**: French School Books for English Pupils, published before the 19th century. *Journal of Education*, p. 190, p. 266. See also p. 397.
1885. **Henry Sweet**, IV.: Elementarbuch des gesprochenen Englisch.
1885. **F. Hornemann**: Zur Reform des neusprachlichen Unterrichts auf höheren Lehranstalten.
1886. — Zweites Heft.
1885. **H. Klinghardt**: Die Lautphysiologie in der Schule. Englische Studien, VIII., 287.
1885. **F. Techmer**: Sprachentwicklung, Spracherlernung, Sprachbildung, in his *Internationale Zeitschrift für allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft*, Vol. II.
1886. **H. Nettleship**: The Study of Latin Grammar among the

Romans in the first century A.D. *The Journal of Philology*, Cambridge, Vol. XV.

1886. **Dr. Julius Bierbaum** : die Reform des fremdsprachlichen Unterrichts.
1886. **Ph. Kuhff** : Le Principe et la Méthode de l'Enseignement scolaire des Langues vivantes.
1886. **H. Paul** : Principien der Sprachgeschichte. (First edition, 1880.)
Prof. Strong has made an English translation.
 This book is quite indispensable for the student of language ; it is like very stale bread, dry but nourishing.
 Reviews on it will be found in :—*Revue critique*, 1887, No. 1 ; *Literarisches Centralblatt*, 1887, p. 215 ; *Berl. philol. Wochenschrift*, VII., p. 531 ; *Modern Language Notes*, II., 8 ; *Internationale Zeitschrift für allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft*, III., 357.
1887. **J. Bierbaum** : Die analytisch directe Methode des neusprachlichen Unterrichts.
1887. **C. Colbeck** : On the Teaching of Modern Languages in Theory and Practice.
1887. *Eberhardi Bethuniensis Graecismus* : Edited by **Dr. Joh. Wrobel** (Breslau) as the first volume of a *Corpus grammaticorum medii aevi*. It is to be hoped that the volumes will rapidly succeed one another.
 Dettweiler gives a full review in the *Berliner philologische Wochenschrift*, VIII., 26.
1887. **K. Foth** : Der französische Unterricht auf dem Gymnasium. Auch eine Reformschrift.
1887. **Hugo Hoffmann** : Über Sprachentwicklung und die darauf sich gründende Einführung in den ersten Sprachunterricht der Elementarschule.
1887. **Otto Jespersen** : Der neue Sprachunterricht. *Englische Studien*, X., 412.
1887. *Journal of Education*. **A. Sidgwick** : The Future of Classical Education, p. 257. **Mr. Colbeck** : On Modern Language Teaching, p. 141. **Dr. R. W. Hiley** : The Study of Modern Languages in England, p. 307.
1887. **Dr. B. Jowett** : On Modern Language Teaching. A speech delivered at the Congress of French Professors. See *Journal of Education*, p. 113, or *Dittes' Paedagogium*, p. 799.

1887. **H. Klinghardt** : Techmer's und Sweet's Vorschläge zur Reform des Unterrichts im Englischen. *Englische Studien*, X., 48.
1887. **H. Klinghardt** : Ziele und wege der modernen sprachwissenschaft. *Englische Studien*, XI., 197-208.
 In the same volume will be found several reports of discussions by practical schoolmasters on the Teaching of Languages. By the side of these copious *Verhandlungen* the reports of our Headmasters' Conferences make a very poor show indeed.
1887. **G. Körting** : Neuphilologische Essays.
 The chief object of the school is to give the children the power of reading the great works of literature.
1887. **M. Lazarus** : Sprache.
 In K. A. Schmid's *Encyklopädie des gesammten Erziehungs- und Unterrichtswesens*. Second edition, Vol. IX., pp. 41-73.
 Students of Paul's *Principien* should read this article.
1887. **H. Neubauer** : Die Reformbewegung auf dem Gebiete des Sprachunterrichts und die höhere Bürgerschule.
1887. **Prof. Dr. Sievers** : Ziele und Wege der modernen Sprachwissenschaft. In the *Paedagogium*, edited by Dr. F. Dittes,
 A short and lucid statement of modern views on language.
1888. **A. Thirion** : The Teaching of French in English Schools.
1888. **H. Klinghardt** : Ein Jahr Erfahrungen mit der neuen Methode. Bericht über den Unterricht mit einer englischen Anfängerklasse im Schuljahr 1887, '88.
1888. *Journal of Education*. **H. W. Eve** : Greek or Latin? p. 331.
Dr. E. A. Abbott : Latin through English, p. 381.







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