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EIGHTH GENERAL MEETING, LIVERPOOL, 1911

THURSDAY, JANUARY 5TH

At 8.30 p.m. a reception was held in the Tate Library of Liverpool University, where the guests were welcomed on behalf of the Association by Vice-Chancellor and Mrs. Dale, and Professor and Mrs. Postgate. Exhibits were made of Aldine texts and other rare publications of Classics.

At 9 p.m. a series of Tableaux was presented in the Arts Theatre by Students of Liverpool University and of the City School of Art, under the direction of Messrs. C. J. Allen, R. C. Bosanquet, F. V. Burridge, and P. F. Gethin. The scenes portrayed were in illustration of well-known passages from Augustan poets :

I. Vergil, *Aeneid* VI. 295 ff.—“Aeneas, journeying through the Nether World, sees Charon ferrying the ghosts across the Styx.”

II. Vergil, *Aeneid* II. 402 ff.—“At the downfall of Troy, the sight of Cassandra haled from the Temple of Minerva drives Aeneas' followers in frenzy to attack the victorious Greeks.”

III. Vergil, *Aeneid* XI. 799 ff.—“Camilla is treacherously killed by Arruns.”

IV. Vergil, *Aeneid* XI. 1 ff.—“Aeneas, having killed Mezentius, erects a trophy to the God of War.”

V. Vergil, *Eclogue* VI. 13 ff.—“Silenus is caught napping.”

VI. Vergil, *Georgics* IV. 485 ff.—“Orpheus looks back, thus breaking the compact by which Eurydice was returning with him from the dead.”

VII. Tibullus, I. iii. 83 ff.—“Tibullus is reunited to Delia.”

Miss Florence Farr gave a recitation of the Latin passages represented by each tableau. Programmes were distributed containing translations into English Verse or Prose by the

following members of the Association: Mr. James Rhoades, Mr. C. J. Billson, Professor J. W. Mackail, Mr. F. M. Cornford, and Dr. A. W. Verrall.

The performance gave manifest enjoyment to the large assembly which witnessed it. The best thanks of the Association are due to the members of the City School of Art, to Miss Florence Farr, and to all others who contributed to this excellent result.

FRIDAY, JANUARY 6TH

THE Association met at 9.45 a.m. in the Arts Theatre of the University; Professor POSTGATE occupied the chair.

The minutes of the last General Meeting having been taken as read,

Professor POSTGATE said,—“The first duty which devolves upon me in this place is a peculiarly melancholy office; it is to ask you to render the last tribute of your gratitude and affection to the memory of the honoured dead. In losing Mr. Butcher we lose one who from the day on which the Association was founded, just over seven years ago, has taken a chief and ever-increasing part in the furtherance of its welfare and the direction of its policy. Mr. Butcher gave himself without stint to our service. The only reward which he asked is one that it is some comfort to us to-day to feel has been fully granted to him—the knowledge of its great and ever-growing prosperity. As a Member of the Council from the outset, and as Chairman of that body after the retirement of the late Lord Collins, first President of the Society, he devoted all the keenness and loyalty of his nature to the mass of administrative work of the Council. What the Society owes to him in that capacity only those who have been associated with him can fully tell. But all know the lustre which was cast upon the Association by the prominent position that he held in it, and all can testify to the tact and insight which he displayed in presiding over its deliberations. His great distinction as a scholar and as a sympathetic interpreter of the classics, and as a power in the educational world, are not less known to all, and need nothing that I can say to-day. His work as a teacher belongs to a somewhat earlier period; and it has been, so to speak, merged in his later and more manifold activity. But I can still remember the great delight of my experience of

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nearly forty years ago, when for all too brief a time I came under his teaching at our common College. Of his personal gifts I can hardly trust myself to speak. The sense of private loss wells up and makes me fear that I should fail in my duty to the common sorrow. Our friend was not young as years go; but he had in him the buoyancy of perennial youth. For us he will be always young; and we feel once more to-day the truth of the immortal phrase of Pericles: for the spring has gone out of our year. I will ask you to allow me to conclude with a few lines from a passage of English poetry, his graceful rend-
 which, in the Latin verse of which he had such a mastery, of my earliest recollections:

‘For talents mourn, untimely lost,
 When best employ’d, and wanted most.
 Mourn genius high, and lore profound,
 And wit that loved to play, not wound;
 And all the reasoning powers divine,
 To penetrate, resolve, combine;
 And feelings keen, and fancy’s glow,—
 They sleep with him who sleeps below.’

I have to propose to you, on the recommendation of the Council, the following Motion:

‘The Council and Members of the Classical Association desire to express their profound sorrow at the loss which the Association, and the classical studies of this country, have sustained in the death of Mr. S. H. Butcher, Chairman of the Council, Vice-President and former President, their deep and grateful appreciation of the devoted services which he has rendered to the Association, and their sincere sympathy with his relatives in their bereavement; and that a copy of this Resolution be forwarded to Mr. Butcher’s representatives.’

Dr. HEARD.—“I feel it is a great honour to have been asked to second this Resolution: but no one can be so painfully conscious of the fact that he cannot speak adequately on such an occasion. I speak not only as a Member of this Association, but as the representative, by your kind invitation, of the Classical Association of Scotland; an Association smaller in numbers and perhaps not so stately in its procedure, but yet senior i

point of origin. It owed its existence in no small degree to Mr. Butcher. I think it is impossible to estimate what a debt of gratitude is due to Mr. Butcher from Scotland. His coming there at that moment was a kind of revelation of what Greek literature meant ; and all through every one felt that we had in Mr. Butcher a man who not only by insight, and by extraordinary felicity of expression, but also by his very personality had a wonderful attractiveness as an interpreter.

I remember very well the speech that he made at the Farewell Dinner when he resigned his Professorship and left Edinburgh. It was a speech altogether unique ; I never in my life heard anything similar to it. It was full of deep thought and very graceful expression, and was a kind of exposition of all that we owed to Greek. But it was delivered in a very simple, natural way, with no sense of effort or elaboration, because it so obviously proceeded from the man himself. He himself in his personality was, as I say, the best interpreter we have had of the Greek spirit. And all this he lavished upon everybody. We are apt to think of these great scholars mainly as producing pupils somewhat like themselves. But Mr. Butcher's influence extended over a very wide area. I have never heard but one opinion about him ; I have never known any one who was not proud to have been under his instruction. Of course such a teacher produced great pupils ; but he also had a great influence upon the humbler students.

I never heard any one speak with more enthusiasm of Butcher as Professor than a man who was working in a shop kept by his father, and yet was a student at the University. And I think throughout Scotland, amongst the many students who have attended the lectures, there will still abide in their minds that love for the sincerity and strictness of thought and expression in Greek which Butcher was the first to make them recognise. I do not think any stranger that came to Scotland ever left it so much beloved. I believe his influence was very extensive indeed, and I believe there are many men now who are better men from what they remember of Butcher as Professor at Edinburgh. His loss indeed is an untold loss ; but there is some compensation for it in thinking of the large number who came under his influence, and in whom to a certain degree his spirit,

I believe, will always survive. I gladly give this very brief and very imperfect testimony to him whose loss is for me, and for all his friends, one of the greatest losses we have had in life."

Professor HARDIE.—"Dr. Heard has so well expressed what we all feel in Scotland that I think I need not add more than a very few words to what he has said. It is very difficult to speak of what for myself is the severance of a continuous friendship of sixteen years. Mr. Butcher is one who needs no eulogy to this audience. However, as one who was actually his colleague for many years in academic work—for nine years at Edinburgh—perhaps I may be allowed to speak of him for a few moments as a colleague and as a teacher. When I went to Edinburgh in 1895 I was much impressed by the great sympathy and insight with which he had mastered the whole system of education in Scotland, and by the influence which he exerted as an educational authority in the country.

When he was my colleague, one got into the habit of saying, 'I must ask Butcher about this.' I used to collect topics on which I meant to consult him, and I have done so continuously through all these years. But my last note of topics was never discussed. When he resigned his chair in Edinburgh some years ago, and shortly afterwards became Member for Cambridge University, I said to him, 'You must regard yourself not only as Member for Cambridge, but as Member also for the Scottish Universities.' Only a year or two after that an occasion occurred in which a Bill was introduced in Parliament which seemed to affect the interests of the Scottish Universities; and when I wrote to Mr. Butcher about it he, of course, most loyally responded, and spoke on the subject in the House with the grace and lucidity that characterised all his utterances, with that simplicity and obvious good sense which appealed to all Members of the House, I think, and not only to those on his own side of it.

As a teacher he is not known to me so directly. I remember attending as an undergraduate some of his lectures in Oxford when he was a Fellow and Tutor of University College—largely attended lectures they were, from which I derived much instruction and inspiration. At Edinburgh I did not know directly what his lectures were like. One does not attend a colleague's lectures, or hear much about them at the time; but I heard of

them afterwards from many graduates who told me how much they owed to him. Many of them are in India now, and in other distant places, but I feel sure that all these graduates of Edinburgh share the feeling of loss that is ours to-day. We know what we have lost; I know what I have lost in losing such a counsellor. But we do not know what exactly the country has lost, if he had been spared some day, in high office perhaps, to deal with such interests as that of education throughout the country, or the relations of this country and Ireland."

The Rev. Professor BROWNE.—"I feel that a great responsibility has been put upon me at short notice, but it is one that I could not refuse to undertake. I have been asked to support this Motion because I have come from Ireland to this meeting as one of the representatives of the Classical Association of Ireland, and Mr. Butcher, though he had lived out of Ireland a good deal, always felt and spoke as a thorough Irishman; and I think that the interests of that country were perhaps as deep in his heart as any of the other large interests which he represented. Of course, it is in connexion with the Classical Association that we think of him to-day. I should like to say that when we founded the Classical Association of Ireland a few years ago he was our first President, and the fact that he came over to undertake that office was, I think, one of the causes which made it possible for us to have such measure of success as we have attained. He has left us at a critical time for the interest of classics; and one cannot help specially regretting that he was so suddenly removed from this earth at a time when it seemed perhaps that he might have helped to bring people together and so promote the work of the Classical Association, even in ways beyond those that have hitherto been found possible.

We have heard a good deal about him as a scholar and as Professor: he always struck me more as a man who was singularly gifted with such charm, and such personal magnetism, and such wonderful power of sympathy for bringing people together, and helping a cause like the cause we have met to represent, in a way that very few men, perhaps I might say no other man, I have met or heard of, could have done. I will say no more except to express my hope, and I think the hope of the other members of the Classical Association, that if we have not

Mr. Butcher any longer among us we may hope still to have something of his spirit left among us."

Professor J. W. MACKAIL.—"It is perhaps hardly necessary to add anything to what has already been said on the subject which is in all our hearts; yet I cannot but feel it something of a melancholy satisfaction to be able just in a very few words to express my own feeling. I do not think any one who has not, like Dr. Postgate and myself, been working with Mr. Butcher from the beginning of this Association till now can fully realise the immense service which he did to it. He was indeed the life of it; and I can hardly put it better than by quoting words of his own when he was our President at Cambridge three years ago. Speaking of the death of Jebb, who was to have occupied that office, he said: 'No one can fill his place. For our generation he has stood as the perfect type of the scholar and the humanist; for years past he has been the undisputed leader of our band.' That is what Mr. Butcher himself has been; he has been our undisputed leader, and no one can fill his place. The feeling we have about him was summed up in a single sentence by Lord Cromer in a letter written to me the other day, just after his death. 'Few men,' he said, 'have been more universally or more deservedly beloved.' It was not so much our admiration for his brilliant scholarship that lay deepest in our heart; it was our affection for his beautiful, transparent, and affectionate personality that remains with us as something abiding through life."

The Resolution was carried in silence by all standing.

Professor POSTGATE next paid a tribute to the memory of Lord Collins, who, as Sir Richard Henn Collins, Master of the Rolls, was unanimously chosen first President of the Classical Association, and who was elected afterwards for a second term of office. "Lord Collins," said Professor Postgate, "notwithstanding the important avocations and serious duties of his high office, attended the meetings of the Council most regularly, gave us all the benefit of his legal learning, and brought his luminous mind to bear upon the problems of the Society's organisation and direction. His genial hospitality will be remembered by members of the Council, and also the unfailing courtesy with which he conducted the affairs of the Association as well as of

the Council. He left us owing to the pressure of public business soon after his Presidency ; but he has always taken the deepest interest in the Association's welfare, and I am sure that in him we have lost one of our sincerest friends.

The Resolution I have to propose is as follows :

‘ The Classical Association desires to express its sense of the grave loss which it has sustained by the death of Lord Collins, its first President, and to acknowledge with gratitude the invaluable service he rendered to it and to the promotion of classical study by the ungrudging interest he took in its formation and in the early stages of its organisation and work, and to record its deep sympathy with his relatives in their bereavement. ’ ”

Professor SONNENSCHN.—“ Very few words are necessary from me in seconding this Resolution ; and even if I were to speak at length I could not give adequate expression to the great loss which we have suffered through the death of Lord Collins, or to the sorrow which we feel at separation from so warm a friend. As one of the Secretaries of the Association I was brought into contact with the late Lord Collins on many occasions ; and I endorse very cordially what our Chairman has said in regard to the great help and encouragement which he gave us. Lord Collins was himself an accomplished classical scholar, and I well remember how keenly interested he was in the promotion, the furtherance, and the development of classical studies, and how living was his sympathy with all our work. He was frequently in attendance at Council meetings, where he put at our service his consummate legal knowledge and his wide experience of affairs. Nor is it right to forget that he was not content with taking a part in our deliberations ; he desired to enter into personal relations with us, and on several occasions he and Lady Collins extended to us the graceful hospitality of their house.”

This Resolution also was carried by all standing.

Mr. J. H. SLEEMAN read the Report of the Council as follows.—“ The Council is glad to report that the Association has every reason to be satisfied with the work of the past year. The membership of the Association, which stood at 1,350 in October 1908, at 1,400 in January 1910, now stands at about 1,500.

The active support of the Bombay Branch has resulted in a large increase of membership in India. The Council would, however, welcome a wider and a more rapid extension of membership at home. The objects of the Association should appeal not only to professed students, but to all who believe in the humanising influence of the Greek and Roman civilisations and the importance of ancient ideals in the life of the present day.

It is hoped that negotiations now proceeding will shortly result in the creation of new Branches and Affederated Associations. In future a page or two of the *Proceedings* will be allotted to each of the Affederated Associations, on which to record an account of their work during the year.

The Year's Work has been handed over to the Classical Journals' Board, which is now responsible, financially and otherwise, for the publication of three journals: *The Year's Work*, *The Classical Review*, and *The Classical Quarterly*. The Council wishes it to be generally known that persons who join the Association before the end of April in any year are entitled to receive copies of *The Year's Work* bearing the date of the preceding year. *The Classical Review* and *The Classical Quarterly* will in future be supplied to members of Affederated Associations on the same terms as to members of the parent Association.

The Council is glad to announce that, acting on the recommendation as to the requirements for University Matriculation Examinations in Latin adopted at the last General Meeting, the Board of Greek and Latin Studies of the University of London has unanimously recommended the adoption of Set Books in its Matriculation Examination.

On May 6th the members of the Association resident in Oxford held a meeting with a view to making the objects of the Association better known. At the afternoon session held at All Souls' College (Sir William Anson in the chair), Mr. Butcher and Professor Gilbert Murray spoke on the value of classical literature. In the evening at Magdalen College (the Vice-Chancellor in the chair) five Oxford historians read papers on the subject of Ancient Imperialism, with special reference to Lord Cromer's Presidential Address of last year; and these papers were published in *The Classical Review*, June 1910, pp. 107 ff.

Doubts having been raised as to the advisability and legality of the Resolution of Council *re* Associate Members (see Report of Council for 1909, *Proceedings* for 1910, p. 38), the Council has resolved that no steps be taken to carry the Resolution into effect at the next General Meeting.

The Council announces, with deep regret, the resignation of two of its most valued officers, Professor Sonnenschein and Professor Flamstead Walters. Professor Sonnenschein has been one of the two Honorary Secretaries of the Association ever since its foundation; Professor Flamstead Walters has held the office of Treasurer during a period of specially heavy work. The Council desires to express its cordial thanks to Professor Sonnenschein and Professor Flamstead Walters for their ungrudging services to the Association.

The Council begs to offer its sincere congratulations to the Right Rev. E. L. Hicks, one of its Vice-Presidents, on his elevation to the see of Lincoln.

The Balance-sheet for the period January 1st to December 20th, 1909, was printed in the last volume of *Proceedings* (pp. 142, 143), and is now submitted for approval. A corresponding Balance-sheet for 1910 will appear in the *Proceedings* for 1911.

The Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology has continued its labours during the past year and issued its Report, which the Council herewith submits for the consideration of the Association.

The Liverpool Branch has associated itself with the Council in an invitation to the Classical Associations of Scotland and Ireland to appoint representatives to attend the General Meeting at Liverpool. The invitation has been cordially accepted by both of these Associations, and the Council is glad to welcome their representatives.

At the close of the year a heavy blow has fallen upon the Association in the death of Mr. S. H. Butcher, one of our Vice-Presidents, Chairman of the Council since 1906, and formerly President. Only those who are familiar with the inner working of the Association are able to appreciate the unique services which he has rendered it and the keen and self-sacrificing interest which he has taken in all departments of its work. Nor can the Council leave unmentioned the fact that, since 1905, he put

the hospitality of his house at the disposal of the Association for meetings of Council, and of a large number of Committees. It is with feelings of the very deepest regret that the Council records his loss.

The Council has also to lament the death of Lord Collins, the first President of the Association, since then a Vice-President, who took an active part in the inauguration of the Association, and in particular in the framing of its constitution."

MR. E. HARRISON read the Report of the Journals' Board.—

"The following arrangements have been made for 1911 :

The Classical Review will be edited jointly by Dr. Rouse, who has been its Editor since the separate publication of *The Classical Quarterly* began, and Mr. A. D. Godley, Public Orator of the University of Oxford and Fellow of Magdalen College.

A change in the Editorship of *The Classical Quarterly* has been necessitated by the resignation of Professor Postgate, who has edited the journal since its institution to the great advantage of classical learning. His place will be taken by Professor E. V. Arnold, Professor of Latin in the University College of North Wales, Bangor, and Mr. F. W. Hall, Fellow of St. John's College, Oxford.

The management of *The Year's Work in Classical Studies* was transferred by the Council of the Classical Association to the Board in the course of the year. Dr. Rouse, who has edited this annual from the first, and has been largely responsible for its success, will be followed by Mr. L. Whibley, Lecturer in Ancient History in the University of Cambridge and Fellow of Pembroke College. The initial expenses incidental to the change of printer and publisher at very short notice proved unexpectedly heavy, and the Board thought it right to assign about £40 of them to Capital Account. This Account now stands at £184 15s. 11d.; which total includes loans from members of the Association to the amount of £44; the remainder being practically equal to the original deposit from the funds of the Association, £150. Thus, thanks to the generosity of private donors and of the Philological Societies of Oxford and Cambridge, the Association has acquired two journals, reduced their price to its members, and somewhat raised the Editors'

honoraria, without any but the smallest expense from its own funds.

The complete balance-sheet for the year cannot yet be presented, as the publisher's account has not been made up; but from an interim account which was kindly furnished by Mr. John Murray for the first six months it seems fairly certain that, apart from the allowance thus made for initial expenses, the income for the year will either completely cover the outgoings, or be only some £5 short. This satisfactory result is largely due to the increase both in the quantity and quality of advertisements, and to the steady decrease in the cost of production, both of which we owe to the publisher's care.

The Board desires to express to the Association its consciousness of the kind consideration which it has experienced from Mr. John Murray in its financial relations with his house, and also to the generous interest which Mr. Murray's staff, and especially his Editorial Secretary, Mr. R. B. Lattimer, have devoted to the service of the journals. The Board has also to thank Professor John Williams White, of Harvard, for his most kind help in negotiating a new agreement with Messrs. Ginn and Co. for the American sale."

Mr. R. C. SEATON, in presenting the Treasurer's Report, said,—
"I must begin by reminding you that the accounts now placed before you have been made up by Professor Flamstead Walters, who wishes me to express his regret at his inability to be present to-day. The first thing to do is to confirm the accounts of 1909. I need not detain you with them; they are printed in the current *Proceedings*, and were to some extent discussed at the last meeting. The chief points are as follows: the receipts—I am omitting shillings and pence—were £362, and the expenditure £306. It was possible during the year to make a further investment of £100, making altogether very nearly £700. The smallness of the balance towards 1910 is explained as due to the paying of £150 to the Journals' Fund.

We turn now to the present Balance Sheet, from December 21st, 1909, to December 17th, 1910. The receipts were £483 from subscriptions and entrance fees, and £23 interest on investments, making altogether £506. The expenditure was £411, leaving

about £95 to the good. The effective receipts, however, were not quite so much. The £506 has to be diminished by the payment of certain sums. There was the repayment of £14 18s. over-paid. That arises from members often forgetting that they have paid already and then paying over again, which is not anything to be objected to from the Treasurer's point of view; but sometimes they want their money back. A large amount of this is accounted for by the fact that one member, intending to pay 7s., paid £7 by mistake. The other item of £19 10s. is the amount paid back in entrance fees to the branches. That is merely a question of account. They pay the entrance fees, and then get them back again.

Noticeable features in the Accounts are put down by Professor Walters as follows: The contributions of Federated Associations; the purchase of *The Year's Work* by the Classical Association of New England and others; so that the cost of *The Year's Work* has been reduced by about £30; next, the increase of new members, due partly to the Oxford Meeting in May, but chiefly to the eminent success of the Bombay Branch already referred to. Since then we have had a number of fresh members from the Bombay Branch. The members have largely availed themselves of the advantage afforded them of paying for the Journals with their Classical Association subscription, and many more will probably do so this year. I may add that a sum of £175 14s. 6d. has been handed over in the course of the year to the Treasurer of the Journals' Board.

The increase of work on the Hon. Treasurer in consequence has necessitated the appointment of a salaried clerk to the Treasurer of the Classical Association and the Journals' Board, and this work has been done admirably by Miss Christian Burke.

I would like to impress on members the great advantage of paying their subscription through their bank. In that way the Treasurer gets the money due without having to ask for it, and without having to send receipts. On the other hand, the member does not feel so much the wrench of parting with his money, and the line of least resistance is found in continuing his subscription, not in dropping it; because if he does nothing the subscription goes on.

I beg to move the approval of the Accounts of 1909 which are before you."

Professor CONWAY.—"In formally seconding the adoption of these Reports, perhaps I may take the opportunity of calling the attention of the members of the Association here present to the restriction of the privilege of reduced subscription to the Journals to the first two months of the year. The Council have resolved that any subscriptions paid later than February 28th must be at the usual rates offered to the public, not at the reduced rates offered to members of the Association. I would like to add my own entreaty to that of Mr. Seaton that members of the Association would adopt the method of paying their subscriptions to the Journals' Board, as well as to the Association, through their banks."

The Resolution was carried.

Professor MYRES.—"It is my privilege to propose that the Lord Bishop of Lincoln be invited to accept the office of President of this Association. Even before he had entered upon the distinguished career which has been his, Dr. Hicks occupied a prominent place in English scholarship; and his contributions to it have taken a peculiar and valuable form in that, I think, it is to him, more than to any other English scholar, that the present prosperous state of the study of Epigraphy in this country is due. We know Dr. Hicks' publications of the Greek Inscriptions in the British Museum; we know perhaps even better his little *Manual of Greek Historical Inscriptions*, which has effected real awakening to a whole fresh side of classical study. In his busy life in the north, in Manchester, and now at Lincoln, Dr. Hicks has still found time to keep up a real interest in the studies which had made his name known earlier in life. He has had, as we know, great opportunities (and has made the greatest use of them) of being of service to higher education, and to education of every grade under modern conditions. The highest recognition, then, of his scholarship and distinction we can offer him, and also the greatest service we can ask of him for this Association, is to invite him to become our President."

Professor CONWAY.—"I beg to second the Resolution on behalf of the Manchester Branch, of which Canon Hicks was President

for many years. Every one who has known anything at all of the work of excavation and publication which our Branch has attempted, knows that it owes everything to the inspiration and patient guidance of Canon Hicks. We are delighted that the Association as a whole should confer upon him the greatest honour it can offer."

The Resolution was carried *nem. con.*

Professor MACKAIL.—"I have the pleasure of proposing that with certain modifications which I shall state, the existing Vice-Presidents should be re-elected for the following year. The list of these is somewhat long, and as it is, I think, familiar to all members I need not read the names. Therefore I will merely mention the changes it is proposed to make. Three of these changes are not being made, of course, by us, but by operations independent of us. In the first place Canon Hicks, now Lord Bishop of Lincoln, and just elected our President, disappears from the list; also Mr. Butcher and Lord Collins. I shall, therefore, propose that two other names be added to the list of Vice-Presidents. Our present President, Sir Archibald Geikie, was Vice-President before being raised to that higher position; and it will, I am sure, be in accordance with the general wishes of the Association, as it has been in accordance with our practice hitherto, if upon his vacating the office of President he be elected by us Vice-President once more. I need not say anything of his claims; they are well known, and we shall have further confirmation of them this afternoon. Perhaps I may add in this connexion that we all must feel the deepest gratitude to Sir Archibald for having consented to come to give the Presidential Address here at a time when, owing to a recent severe and melancholy domestic loss, any public appearance must be for him a source of no inconsiderable trouble. I have also to propose that to the list of Vice-Presidents there be added the name of Professor Sonnenschein.

I am glad to find from the reception with which the proposal has been met that I need not commend it. But I must say this, that his services as Secretary to the Association from the beginning have been very great indeed, and all his colleagues on the Council, and I am sure all members of the Association, feel

the deepest gratitude towards him for the labour he has spent, the zeal and devotion he has shown, and his uniform good temper. I beg to propose that, with these two additions, the Vice-Presidents be re-elected for the ensuing year."

Professor ARNOLD.—"I have pleasure in seconding the proposal and in associating myself with every word Professor Mackail has said on this subject. I could not add more or suggest anything other than that."

Professor POSTGATE.—"Before putting the Motion I will ask if any one has any other name to propose in addition to the list now before us. Perhaps I may take this opportunity of expressing my personal gratification at the two additions that will be made to the list of Vice-Presidents. I have been in continual communication with Sir Archibald Geikie since our arrangements for this meeting were set on foot, and I can speak most heartily of the interest he has taken in its proceedings, and his deep regret that he would have to limit his share in it to the Presidential Address. I must say also how gratified I am to support the Motion which proposes to honour my old friend and colleague, Professor Sonnenschein. Professor Sonnenschein and I were associated together as Secretaries from the very first, but he proved himself to be made of more strenuous stuff than myself; for he went on with the arduous tasks of the Secretaryship when I felt compelled to relinquish them, and has now served for the biblical term of seven years. For seven years he has worked unremittingly for the Association. I can speak with full knowledge of what he has done; and I would say there is no Motion the Association could pass which more rightly deserves its assent than this Motion to make him a Vice-President."

The Resolution was carried unanimously with acclamation.

Professor SONNENSCHN.—"I should like to say one word of gratitude for the recognition you have given to my work. I must not detain you; but it would be a personal satisfaction to me to say that I do feel the honour you have conferred upon me very keenly. The work I have done for this Association has been a labour of love. And what I am particularly glad of in this connexion is that, as one of your Vice-Presidents, I shall still have an opportunity of doing the Association such services as lie in my power."

Mr. J. H. SLEEMAN.—“I have great pleasure in proposing the election of Mr. Seaton as Treasurer in place of Professor Flamstead Walters, whose resignation we so much regret, and I wish to couple with that proposal a hearty vote of thanks to Professor Walters for his ungrudging services to the Association for so many years. It is obvious to all of us how arduous an office is fulfilled by the Treasurer of this Association, especially now that his labours are so much increased by the accounts of the Classical Journals. I am sure that Mr. Seaton will prove a worthy successor to Professor Flamstead Walters. We have already had an illustration of his grasp of the Association's finance.”

Mr. W. LORING seconded the Resolution.

The vote of thanks to Professor Flamstead Walters, and the election of Mr. Seaton as Treasurer, were put to the vote and carried.

Professor R. C. BOSANQUET.—“I have pleasure in asking the Association to re-elect Mr. Sleeman as Secretary, and to couple with him Mr. Caspari. This is a moment when it is important that there should be continuity in the conduct of the Association. We are losing several tried officers, but we may rely on Mr. Sleeman to carry on the tradition; he should become the senior Secretary. And I believe he could have no fitter colleague than Mr. Caspari, who in the early years of the Association was closely allied with Professor Sonnenschein in Birmingham, who has had a distinguished career as historian, has worked at Oxford and at Birmingham, and is now making his mark as teacher of Ancient History in London; who, moreover, possesses business-like qualities for which, perhaps, the city of Liverpool which nurtured him may claim some credit. He will serve the Association, I believe, with devotion. We ought not so much to invite as to beg such a man to undertake the very arduous and responsible work of the Secretaryship.”

Professor SONNENSCHN seconded the Resolution.

The Resolution was carried.

Professor POSTGATE.—“We have now to elect five members to fill the five vacancies on the Council. Perhaps a few words

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of mine may serve in regard to those whose names have been submitted to us. Professor Bosanquet requires no recommendation to us here to-day. Professor Walters' services you have already heard set forth. Mr. A. B. Ramsay, of Eton, is a master at what has always been considered the premier classical school of the country. But that is not why his name is proposed to-day. He conferred upon this Association at its inception one of the greatest services that at the time it was possible to confer. It was most important that it should be recognised as a proper body for all scholastic institutions to support, and Mr. Ramsay brought into the net the whole of the assistant masters at Eton without exception. How he did it I don't know, but he did it. Besides this, he has served us on committees of which he has proved himself an invaluable member. His scholastic duties, of course, are onerous, but he hopes to be able to find time for the work of the Council. Mr. Chambers, of Birmingham, is recommended to us by the weighty authority of Professor Sonnenschein. And I am sure, looking round at the ladies present, that Miss Jex-Blake will not require any commendation."

The proposal that these five members be elected to serve on the Council for the following three years was put to the meeting and carried.

Mr. J. H. SLEEMAN proposed.—"That the next General Meeting of the Association be held in London early in January 1912."
"The meeting," he added, "will probably be held at one of the London Colleges. But that is a matter which cannot be fixed at once. It will have to be discussed in the Council."

Mr. DE WINTON seconded.

The Motion was carried.

At 11.15 a.m. the Association proceeded to consider the Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology.

Professor SONNENSCHN moved the following Resolution :

"That the Report of the Terminology Committee be adopted, and that the scheme of Terminology therein contained be recommended for general use as a standard terminology for the fundamental facts of grammar."

"I desire firstly," he ' to offer a few words of



explanation. The first part of this 'double sentence' (to adopt our own term given in Recommendation VII) is the ordinary form in which the Chairman of a Committee asks the body which has appointed the Committee to accept the result of the Committee's labours. In this instance the Joint Committee was appointed by eight different Associations; and therefore this, or an equivalent motion, will be moved in eight different Associations during the early part of this year. I wish to say, however, something about the word 'adopted.' All that is intended is that the Classical Association be asked to give its general approval to the Report as meeting the objects for which the Committee was appointed. The word 'adopted' is not intended to suggest that the Report must be either taken or left exactly as it stands without any sort of modification. On the contrary, I think the method which we adopted last year when the Interim Report was proposed to you for general approval should be repeated this year. On that occasion an opportunity was given to the Association to express criticism of, or dissent from, any particular Recommendation of the Committee; and three points were, in fact, referred back to the Committee for further consideration: (1) our proposed abolition of the term 'Indirect Object'; (2) our neglect of the term 'Apposition'; (3) our proposed use of the term 'Bare Subject.' I may add that all these points have been reconsidered; and the Committee has, in deference to the wishes of this and some other Associations, modified its proposals in such a way as to meet the views of as many teachers as possible. I take it, then, that the final form which my Resolution will assume to-day will be somewhat like the Resolution passed last year,¹ namely, 'That the Report receive the general approval of the Association except in regard to certain particular points which the Association refers back to the Committee for further consideration, with a recommendation that they be modified.'

The second part of my double sentence is taken from the Report itself (page 7):—'It is the hope of the Committee that the terminology suggested in the present Report will be widely adopted by teachers, by writers of school books, and by exam-

¹ [The Report published in the *Proceedings of the Classical Association for 1910* is defective at this point (p. 21). See p. 45 of the present volume.]

ining bodies, as a standard terminology for the fundamental facts of grammar.' In this sentence the Committee attempted to express the object of the whole movement. Let me just remind you what happened in the year 1908 at the Birmingham meeting. There the subject was first mooted, and the desire was felt that some movement should be set on foot to secure some greater amount of uniformity in the treatment of the grammars of the languages taught in schools. This is not the occasion on which to repeat the arguments then used in support of this reform. Suffice it to say that the evils of the present system, or rather no system, were emphasised, and it was thought that a serious attempt should be made to see whether something could not be done to put the teaching of grammar on a sounder basis, and, in fact, to unite the whole country in the adoption of some uniform scheme of grammar teaching. The steps which we took to secure this end were probably the only ones which were at all practical.

There is no body in this country in a position to formulate a scheme for Grammatical Terminology and to impose it upon all teachers. The Board of Education, I am told, would never contemplate the laborious and delicate task of framing a grammatical terminology for use in all schools. I think our method, then, has been the only one possible; that is, the method of getting the several Associations interested in this matter to appoint a Joint Committee. For it is necessary in any such scheme to consider the interests not of any one language, but of all the five school languages in relation to one another, and to secure as wide a basis of teaching experience as possible. Many people, no doubt, thought that we were attempting the impossible—that we should never get a Joint Committee like that to agree upon any scheme. That prediction has not been verified. Of course, there have been differences of opinion in regard to particular points of grammar. But on the whole the Committee has worked together with great harmony; and it has arrived at a body of Recommendations which the large majority of its members cordially approve. The Committee has, in fact, shown a disposition for which I, as Chairman, feel grateful—a disposition to sink individual preferences about particular points of grammatical doctrine in view of the necessity for a common scheme in the practical work of schools. The Committee has

recognised that if those individual preferences of teachers are not subordinated to the opinion of the majority, it is the pupils who have to pay the penalty.

If you look at the statistics given at the end of our Introduction, I think you will agree that the Committee has worked very hard. But the game has been worth the candle if, as we hope, we have made possible a reform which will put this country in the position of having realised what is only a pious aspiration in other countries—the ideal of a standard terminology in all grammar teaching. We have, of course, no power to enforce our views upon any body of teachers or upon individual teachers; but by drawing up a scheme of a standard terminology we have taken an important step in the direction desired; that is, if teachers and writers of books will try to bring their teaching into harmony with this scheme. I desire also to add, in view of a possible misunderstanding, that there is not the slightest idea on our part of legislating for all time. Grammatical science, like other sciences, advances; and some years hence it may be found that new light has been thrown on some particular difficulty or obscurity in grammar which will necessitate a reconsideration and revision of some of the Recommendations contained in this Report. I take it that no member of the Committee would for a moment desire to block the way to such reconsideration. On the contrary, the time is sure to arrive when some further action on the part of this or some other Committee will be necessary. But no science could advance if the possibilities of future developments were to be regarded as a reason why the results of present-day inquiry and experience should not receive expression. All that we could hope to do—all that we attempted to do—was to bring our scheme into touch with the best grammatical theory and the most enlightened practice of the present day.

I must refer here for a moment to a document¹ which is not formally before us, because it has not been circulated officially or circulated to all the members of the Association, but which

¹ [With the view of lightening the discussion, Professor E. V. Arnold circulated among the members of the Association present at the meeting a pamphlet of detailed criticisms upon the proposals of the Terminology Committee. This is the pamphlet referred to by Professor Sonnenschein and other speakers in the debate.]

has been circulated among those members who were expected to be present at this meeting—I mean the paper by Professor Arnold, in which the methods of the Committee have, I am sorry to say, been denounced, and denounced with some asperity. This is not the place for me to go into a detailed criticism of Professor Arnold's contentions. But I could, if necessary, discuss every point which he has raised and say something on the other side. Indeed, all his chief points have already been before the Committee, in one form or another, and have been rejected. What I want rather to say is this, that his suggestions for the amendment of our scheme lose some of their force because it seems that he is in reality an opponent of the whole movement. This comes out clearly in what he says about tenses; he speaks of the impropriety of trying to find any common scheme of tense terminology. 'One cannot complain much that an old evil is not removed, but the notion of forcing the tense-systems of the five languages into one framework is not sound' (p. 13). That is a sample of Professor Arnold's attitude to the whole scheme. If it is unsound to attempt to find a common scheme of tense terminology, then it is unsound to attempt to find a common scheme of terminology in regard to almost every point, because there is nothing more clear than that a common scheme of tense terminology can be found.

When Professor Arnold talks about 'foggy metaphysics' and 'unscientific procedure,' I can only say that the Committee knows something about scientific grammar, and does not agree with Professor Arnold.

But there is one matter in regard to Professor Arnold's opposition that I think ought to be mentioned. If he objected to the whole thing, he should have raised his objections last year. He should, indeed, have raised his objections in 1908, when the whole movement was started; but at any rate when the Interim Report was presented he ought to have tried to stop further procedure. Instead of that, he allows the Committee to devote another year to the scheme, and then steps forward to declare that our work is practically of no avail—although I must add that in some passages of his paper he does introduce some expressions of approval in regard to certain parts of our work.

With one remark of Professor Arnold I agree. 'The

report,' he says, 'is even yet not complete' (p. 1). That is perfectly true in one sense. We might have gone into greater detail in regard to all sorts of matters, but we had to limit ourselves to fundamental matters. When he adds, 'By a subsequent Resolution it is proposed to commit the Association in advance to any amendments which the Committee may think fit to introduce,' he seems to forget the practical difficulties involved in bringing eight Associations into touch with one another. It can only be done by way of a Committee. It seems necessary, then, to entrust that Committee with powers to make such amendments in its Report as are demanded by the general voice of the Associations, as expressed on occasions like the present. No other amendments of the Report are contemplated by the Resolution to which Professor Arnold refers. We desire to change the Report as little as possible.

I had intended to speak on one or two matters of grammar in which I am specially interested, and on which I hope that the Report throws new light; but the Chairman reminds me that time presses, and I must reserve my remarks for another occasion. Possibly some of them will come up to-day in connexion with the proposals for amendment which have been notified; and I shall then have an opportunity of indicating the attitude of the Committee. As it is very important that ample time should be allowed for the discussion of any such moot points, perhaps I had better close here, by simply moving the first Resolution which stands in my name."

Professor RHYS ROBERTS seconded the Resolution in the following terms.—"I have much pleasure in seconding this Resolution. The Committee seems to have succeeded admirably in its task of removing needless difficulties which attend the beginner's path in the five languages concerned. Technical terms have been reduced in number; they have also been made uniform wherever this can be done without violence to the individuality which languages as well as men possess. General laws have found clear expression. Illustrative examples, many of them interesting for their associations, literary or historical, have been freely provided. And it has been wisely pointed out that some of the distinctions drawn, even in the brief Report before us, belong to a comparatively advanced stage in the learner's course.

It is pleasant to read this explicit recognition of the fact that grammar, in its higher phases as reflecting the life and not the dead fixity of language, must necessarily come late, when the mind is more mature and the materials more abundant. The beginner's method must be largely inductive; and, as he goes along, he will find that the so-called 'rules' bristle with exceptions, particularly in Greek, with its wonderful flexibility and freedom. The love of literature will be his best incentive if he is encouraged to read rapidly; and he will come to regard grammar as the servant of literature, rather than literature as the servant of grammar. Literature (as we all know) has existed before now apart from formal grammar; formal grammar has never existed apart from literature. Homer lived and died without dreaming of Monro's *Homeric Grammar*, splendid aid though that is to the modern student. As was once said by Dean Colet, the founder of the famous school with which the present Secretary of the Committee is so honourably connected, 'In the beginning men spake not Latin because such rules were made, but, contrariwise, because men spake such Latin the rules were made.'

Another attractive thing about the Report is the modest glimpse it gives of a comparative method. Here we moderns have a clear advantage over the monoglot Greeks of antiquity. It was a surprising achievement on their part to invent grammar at all; we must not grumble if they did not discover comparative grammar as well. During the long period of analysis which followed the epochs of original production, it is possible that the cosmopolitan Stoics, including Zeno himself, who is said to have been of Phoenician origin, may have hoped that their grammatical studies would make it easier for the foreigner to acquire Greek. But, whether or no this was among their aims, it is certain that a passion for impossibly exact definition, and for excessive system, has too often (in Greek, in Roman, in mediaeval, and in modern times) tended to convert the *grammaticus*, who is etymologically a *literary* person, into a doubtful ally of literature. Still, it is the power to read Greek and Latin authors with facility and accuracy that the intelligent critic of to-day always, and rightly, puts forward as his first test of what is called a 'classical education.' This test must be more fully satisfied in the future than it has been in the past, unless Greek and Latin are to become

merely a department of learning for a few specialists, instead of an element in the culture of many a bright boy who is destined for some other career than that of lifelong study.

Another and a final reason for feeling satisfaction with the Report is the fact that it is the outcome of friendly co-operation between teachers who have sometimes been supposed to be at variance. So important is this first concerted effort, and so full of promise for the future of literary studies generally, that any opposition which imperilled its chance of a fair and speedy trial (subject of course to such corrections of actual error as we may owe to the vigilance of Professor Arnold and others) would, I am sure, cause grave regret to us all. There has clearly been much give-and-take in small matters throughout the Report, as was necessary if anything was to be done at all. The teacher of Greek and Latin is to discard words which have been so often on his lips, as 'protasis' and 'apodosis'; the teacher of the modern languages is to abandon terms like 'possessive' and 'nominative of address.' The governing principle appears to have been that the precise names adopted for the grammarian's tools do not so greatly matter if only different names are not used to denote the same thing. Consequently much deference has been rightly paid to ancient tradition in this matter of nomenclature; terms of Stoic origin have been largely retained even when (as in 'dative,' for example) their etymology shows that grammar was then in its infancy. And may not we, on our part, hope that the day is long since past, if it ever existed, when teachers of Greek were prone to forget that for the modern Englishman, as for the ancient Greek, first of all should come the mother tongue and the national literature; and that there are 'classics' in the literatures not only of Greece and Rome, but of England, and of those great continental countries which, together with England, lead us back step by step to the classical world? The cause of ancient and modern literature is one cause, and the real significance of the Report which we are now considering is that it seems to recognise this vital fact."

Professor ARNOLD.—"My first task is to thank Professor Sonnenschein for the kind advertisement he has given to my little pamphlet upon this terminology question. When he said that the proposals of the Committee were discussed, I noticed

that the remark was received with only modified enthusiasm ; but when he remarked that the Report was commented upon and denounced with asperity, then I observed a general desire to become possessed of copies.

Professor Sonnenschein has also complained that I have not done justice to the work of the Committee ; and let me confess at once that I have not attempted to do so. I do not think it is my duty to sit in the judge's chair and distribute praise and blame. I thought it would be of far more importance to the Association that I should assume the position of attack. I think there are good things in this Report ; they will find their place in time ; but if there are bad things in the Report it becomes an immediate duty to attack them. For this Association to commit itself in haste to proposals which cannot stand investigation, and which will seem less and less sound as time goes on, would be to diminish its influence and to injure such work as it can hope to do. I am afraid those who get hold of my comments will be disappointed to find not much of the asperity to which Professor Sonnenschein has referred. The only thing quoted is that I have used the words 'more or less foggy metaphysics.' Is that an unfair term ? There is such a thing as metaphysics. Is there any one who will say that metaphysics generally is *not* foggy ? I should say that 'foggy metaphysics' is the standing danger of grammar, and has been so for the last 100 years, if not for the last 2,000 years ; and no remark I have made can be regarded as more of the nature of a platitude than that. But I still maintain that this Report is spoilt all the way through by 'foggy metaphysics' ; and I shall hope to show that with regard to certain most important matters.

First of all I may say that I feel very much surprised at the whole way in which this matter has been brought before the Association. Never have I heard *that which claims to be* a great scheme of reform brought before a public body with less enthusiasm and conviction than this scheme has been brought forward to-day. The proposal before us is that the Report be adopted. What I would ask you to consider is what these words mean. I think that is germane. Professor Sonnenschein said that it does not mean that we pledge ourselves to adopt the whole Report, but that we adopt the general principle ; and

that we are afterwards going to consider in regard to what details we can make corrections; that other Associations are going to consider also the details; that the Committee, on which we have only a small representation, is going to select from those suggestions such as it pleases; and that we shall have prematurely to adopt what will be the final result of all these negotiations. Well now, I submit that that is a dangerous course for any Association to adopt. If we are going to pledge ourselves to a great reform we should know what it is; we ought to discuss it on its merits. But the proposal made is that we shall not do this; but that we shall adopt the whole scheme and leave the details of the whole scheme to be settled by some one afterwards.

According to the wording of the Resolution we are to adopt the scheme, and then it is to be printed and circulated with such amendments as may be made by the Joint Committee. That is, we are to adopt the Report before we know what the suggestions are as regards amendments; we are to adopt in advance the suggestions of all the other Associations represented on the Joint Committee as well as our own. I venture to say that no great reform has been carried out in that way. The normal course would be to move that the Report be received; and then proposals might be brought forward in detail to see if members could agree with them. Then, perhaps, having established agreement, some one might propose the adoption of the Report. I do not know what step to take to meet such a proposal as this other than by the direct negative. I think at this stage in the discussion the Association would be most unwise to adopt the Report. Without wishing to be unfair to the Committee, I feel bound to point out that I regard a number of the Recommendations, and those which are supposed to go to the root of the matter, as unsound in principle, and dangerous to the progress of grammar in this country. I am glad to think that I have with me really most of our own representatives; that I have with me Professor Rhys Roberts, who seconded the Motion, and who pointed out at the very beginning of his eloquent address that Language existed before Grammar. That is the very point for which I have contended in my considerations on the Report, namely, that Language existed before Grammar, and that the

function of Grammar is to collect and arrange the facts of Language—that is, the observed facts, those that come from the study of Language. However, I propose to refer only to the main matters in this Report, but with the preface that I do not consider that discussion in a meeting like this can dispose of them in a satisfactory way. Matters of this kind must be thrashed out in public in the public press, in print, and by the ordinary means of scientific discussion. Till that is done no Association can come to any satisfactory conclusion.

With regard to the General Preface, which deals with the desirability of grammatical reform: that, of course, we do not altogether deny, especially as stated in the instructions given to the Committee, viz. that where the matter is the same the terms should be uniform. Where the matter is the same! But the *matter very often is not the same. The matter of different languages is different.* The Report ignores the fact that Greek and Latin are very unlike indeed; also English and French and German in many vital points. To lay down the principle that we are to take French and English and German, and to build up the Latin and Greek Grammar upon that foundation, is to lay down a false foundation; it is unsound, and will not stand any real test. But I will try to show that in detail. The first main point we come to is on pages 10 and 11, where the Report deals with the Object, the Indirect Object, and so on. It has taken me some time to try to realise to what all this is leading up. As far as I see it is this: that when we have noun-constructions in a sentence we recognise first of all the Subject. It is laid down there as a general principle that every sentence has a Subject. That is one of the so-called 'fundamental facts' which to my mind are not facts. It is laid down on metaphysical grounds that every sentence must have a subject, whereas our observation tells us that numerous sentences have not got subjects; and this is so especially in Latin. The passive impersonal verbs are a large feature in the Latin Grammar, and they cause the Latin teacher great anxiety. Take an impersonal passive verb that you come across every day in Caesar; there is no observed Subject. How, then, are we to start upon the principle that a sentence must have a subject, when experience every day shows the contrary?

Next, it is asserted that there is an Object. I do not deny it; but neither does it seem very obvious. If there is an Object, what is an Object? If we say in a general way that which is expressed by the Accusative Case is the Object, it seems to me a colourless and unobjectionable statement: that is a statement which I have always used in my classes and found convenient. But that is not the proposal made here. The proposal is to run a line of demarcation right through the Accusative uses, to call some the Object, and to put others in another category altogether as Adverb Equivalents. Many Latin Grammars speak not only of the Direct Object in Latin, but of the Retained Object. If we say *ludum ludere*, 'to play the game,' they will call *ludum* the Object. If I understand these proposals rightly it will cease to be so regarded; it will become an Adverb Equivalent."

Professor SONNENSCHN.—"No."

Professor ARNOLD.—"It will remain the Object?"

Professor SONNENSCHN.—"Yes."

Professor ARNOLD.—"Is that so stated in the Report? It is a vital point, and stands at the root of the treatment of the Accusative Case in Latin. This Report is obscure as to whether it becomes the Object or does not become the Object. I venture to say that, the simplification supposed to be gained by this Report is largely illusory the whole way through. The apparent simplification is due to the fact that all the important problems in Latin are ignored and left in a state of nebulous fog; or, at any rate, for the present they are unexplained.

Now another matter: let us take the sentence 'I have made no progress.' Is 'progress' here the Object? In many grammars it is regarded as such in Latin. Or is it an 'Adverb Equivalent'? If we translate into English, 'I have not progressed at all,' it looks like an 'Adverb Equivalent.' Translate, 'I have made no progress,' and it looks like the Object. Which is it to be in the Latin Grammar of the future?"

Professor SONNENSCHN.—"I think it is recognised clearly that no hard-and-fast line between Object and Adverb Equivalent can be drawn; that, in fact, the two things run into one another. But, nevertheless, neither of these categories can be dispensed with in grammar."

Professor ARNOLD.—"We have arrived at the point that,

although it is asserted there is an Object, it is admitted that it is not clear where the line is to be drawn between Object and Indirect Object, between what is the Object and what is called the Adverb Equivalent. But what is an 'Adverb Equivalent'? I presume it means something that is more or less like an Adverb. Well, I maintain these things are not in the least like Adverbs, although Adverbs may be like them. That is to bid defiance to historical grammar.

I pass on to the next main point—that is, the subdivision of the sentences into Noun Clauses, Adjective Clauses, and Adverb Clauses. Now, that is in my opinion a most vital error. I have been assisted by one of the members of the Association to trace the source of it to a German authority of almost 100 years ago, and that explains once more why we have foggy metaphysics. It comes from the land of foggy metaphysics. I think we are misled in endeavouring to follow the Germans. For this subdivision of sentences into the Noun Clause, Adjective Clause, or Adverb Clause rests upon a pure illusion; there is no such thing; it is mere fancy, which cannot be proved and cannot be used; and I venture to say that no Latin teacher has ever been able to use this division to any practical purpose."

Professor POSTGATE.—"May I point out to Professor Arnold that he will have an opportunity of dealing subsequently with this particular point and with other points of detail on his alternative Motion? I am sorry to have to make this suggestion, but considerations of time make it necessary. I understand that he is moving the Motion of which he has given notice?"

Professor ARNOLD.—"I am speaking to Professor Sonnenschein's Motion at present. My Motion is one for adjournment. I do not propose to move it now, though I may see occasion to do so later when I have ascertained more thoroughly the feelings of the members present."

Vice-Chancellor DALE.—"May I suggest that if Professor Arnold does not move his Motion now he will not be in a position to do so later?"

Professor ARNOLD.—"I think it is best on the whole that I should take the position of opposing Professor Sonnenschein; that is substantially my position to-day. I am endeavouring to

show not so much that the Report is wrong, but that the Report is not proved with regard to its main features. It is not necessary for me to attempt to demonstrate to you here present that I have views upon this subject which are more sound than those of the Committee. I do not expect to be able to do that. It is sufficient for me to point out if I can that there are views held by respectable authorities in Grammar, and in common use, which have not yet had full consideration, and which have not yet been upset by the Recommendations of this Committee. I much regret the time I am taking up ; but it is not, after all, of my choice. Latin Grammar is such a large subject, and occupies such a large field in the teaching of language. The division of sentences into Noun Clauses, Adjective Clauses, and Adverb Clauses is very familiar and almost established with regard to modern languages ; but I wish to point out that it has never been demonstrated, nor explained in a satisfactory way, but always assumed. Thus the clauses called Noun Clauses have not properly any real resemblance to Nouns ; they have resemblance in their use to the Nominative and Accusative Cases. There are certain of them which are used as the Subject of the sentence ; they are also used as the Object of the sentence ; and it can, therefore, be fairly said that they are used sometimes as Subject Clauses and sometimes as Object Clauses. But they are not in use as Indirect Objects, and not any of them used as Adverb Equivalents ; nor have they any correspondence whatever to other parts of the Noun system. Sentences which are called Adjective Clauses have some sort of resemblance to adjectives, but by no means exclusively. They also have a great resemblance to Nouns. I have given an example—‘Hannibal who conquered Italy’ : that is to be called an Adjective Clause under this classification. Yet it is the exact equivalent to ‘Hannibal the conqueror of Italy.’ ‘The conqueror’ is substantive. It might just as well be called the Noun Clause.”

Professor CONWAY.—“The structure of the Report on this matter was very careful. Professor Arnold is putting before the Association examples which have been carefully avoided, and I will explain why they were avoided. Some of us who signed the Report are entirely in sympathy with Professor Arnold on this main question, but there is nothing in it that

requires any one to describe this or that particular clause in Latin in this or that particular way. It is left to the individual teacher to say whether he regards it as a Noun, Adjective, or Adverb Equivalent. On the other hand, in justice to the majority of the Committee, I am bound to submit that they thought these distinctions of great importance in English Grammar. Professor Arnold's objection to a 'Noun Clause' applies equally to a 'Noun'; for in English every Noun can be used as an Adjective."

At this point a question was put by Mr. W. G. RUSHBROOKE as to the length of time to be accorded to single speakers. In order to secure the fullest possible discussion of the Report it was agreed that after an adjournment for luncheon the session should be continued in the afternoon.

Professor ARNOLD.—"In regard to these Adverb Clauses, they are equally illusory, and they have been shown to be so by the Report itself. The earlier part of the Report describes as Adverb Equivalents certain parts of the Noun system, and therefore anything which is equivalent to an Adverb must, according to the preceding part of the Report, be equivalent to a certain part of the Noun. Now, as against that we have the facts of the Latin language, which are so entirely ignored in this part of the Report. There are a great number of sentences which are essentially one in character, and which by this Report are divided where they ought to be put together; the final clauses, for instance, as introduced by *qui* and by *ut*, are essentially the same, and in our teaching we have to bring them together. In this Report, if I interpret it aright, we have to separate them; one is an Adjective and the other an Adverb Clause—in any case the matter is left in some obscurity. It would have been an enormous gain if we had something approaching uniformity in terminology in Latin Grammar. But this Report makes no progress in that direction. The obscurity is deep, and two-thirds of our terms are not in the least touched by it. I believe there is room, if we give time and consideration, for great progress in this matter, and for great improvement in our terminology. But I do not believe that by any hasty Adoption of the Report we shall reach any important reform."

Professor SONNENSCHN — "With the approval of the meeting

I would like to change the words 'be adopted' to 'generally approved.'"

Professor RHYS ROBERTS agreeing to this alteration in the Motion, the CHAIRMAN put to the meeting the proposed substitution, which was accepted.

MR. W. G. RUSHBROOKE.—"I do not think I shall trespass long on the time of an almost exhausted meeting, but I want to meet at once Professor Arnold's deprecation of the charge of 'asperity' as attributed to his pamphlet. It is difficult to avoid using such a term of a pamphlet which speaks in one place of the Committee's 'random remarks,' and in another of their 'random methods,' while elsewhere he charges them with 'blindness to patent facts,' and again with an endeavour to 'thwart the future progress of grammatical science.' Upon page 1 of Professor Arnold's *Considerations* it is somewhat unfairly said that the Report 'has never been considered by the Council of the Association,' because a large proportion of this Report was received and considered by the Association last year. It is still more unfair to say that 'a large number of its Recommendations have not won the approval even of a majority of the Association's representatives.' The whole of the representatives of the Association number four; a majority, then, would be three out of four. It would be fairer and more exact to say 'only one of the Association's representatives, so far as is shown by the signatures, has dissented from more than one of the forty-six Recommendations of the Committee.' Again it is not quite fair to say (p. 4) that the Committee has paid little attention to the positive achievements of grammatical science, though there are fifteen or twenty references to grammatical books dealing with the progress of grammatical science. Then on page 5 we are told, 'Whilst classical teachers should always be ready to consider suggestions made by teachers of English, they will, in my opinion, be entirely false to their trust if they allow the teaching of Greek and Latin to be distorted in order that they may follow where they ought to lead.' But the principle of 'give and take' was the principle upon which the Report was constructed, and the only principle upon which any united action could have been secured. But the value of Professor Arnold's criticisms may be estimated not only by the 'asperity' and

unfairness of his pamphlet, but by the point against which he directs his chief attack. He speaks of 'the crowning error of the Report' as 'the classification of subordinate clauses as Noun, Adjective, and Adverb Clauses. He describes this classification as 'unscientific, inconsistent, and impracticable.' I am not quite sure whether I understand what he means; but if he means by impracticable, not practically useful to the teacher, then I am prepared to join issue with him at once and to say that not only is this division into Noun, Adjective, and Adverb Clauses useful for practical purposes of teaching, but that it is eminently useful."

Professor GRANGER.—"I agree with the advisability of signifying general approval of the Report as it stands; though I only regard it as a step towards a reform which cannot be long delayed."

Professor CONWAY.—"I should like to propose, instead of the first of the two Resolutions—'That the Report of the Terminology Committee be received, generally approved, and commended to the most careful consideration of the teachers and the writers of books dealing with the languages concerned, as an important advance towards a practical degree of uniformity in the use of grammatical terms.'"

As one who has taken part in the work of this Committee, I am bold enough to think that it has succeeded in doing a certain amount of work which need not be done again, and which will be of practical service to teachers in this country. On the other hand, I never dreamed that it would be possible for any one Committee to draw up a scheme of Grammatical Terminology so perfect that it would be enforced as a kind of Athanasian Creed. Again and again in the discussions of the Committee our proceedings have been shortened by the consideration that we need not hope to arrive at absolutely final decisions on all the questions that emerged; we were content to go as far as we could, and at all events we tried to point out clearly the grave difficulties of existing practice. Much of the eloquent attack which has been made on the work of the Committee seems to be based on a misunderstanding of one of the prefatory sentences of the Report. It seems to be assumed that the Committee recommended that the Grammar of Latin and of the other languages should be

constructed on the basis of English Grammar. But the Recommendations of the Committee do not do that in the least, but rather the reverse. Surely it will be an excellent result if in the teaching of English and other modern languages (especially of French) there can be introduced at least something of the precision and comparative clarity of terminology to which classical teachers have been accustomed for centuries past. The work of the Committee will not be wasted if we can do away with something of the appalling contradictions existing in grammatical terminology in schools. English and French Grammar have never been considered from this point of view, that the terminology used in one class-room shall be in harmony with the terminology used in the next class-room, and this kind of practical form is not in the least injured if we leave on one side the totally distinct question of improving the terms of Latin Grammar. Professor Arnold has brought two different accusations against the Committee which are mutually destructive. He accuses us on the one hand of doing too much, and laments on the other that we have not done enough. If Professor Arnold had been a member of the Committee which represented eight different bodies, the last thing he would have desired would have been that such a composite assembly should set its hand to the task of rewriting Latin Grammar. The business of the Committee was to face the difficulties that presented themselves when the different languages are taught to the same pupils, and with those difficulties it has tried to deal quite faithfully. I would beg the members of the Association to remember that the Report is not enforcing a new system of terminology upon all the languages; it has merely sought to find more useful substitutes for the terms in use in teaching certain languages where these have proved unsatisfactory. I beg therefore to move the Amendment I have read."

Mr. THOMAS MAY seconded the Amendment, and appealed to all present to give it support. He said,—“Shorthand and other subjects are rapidly taking the place of the Classics. Serious attempts are being made to exclude Latin and Greek from the curricula and examinations of our learned professions. We ought not, then, to stick at swallowing a few verbal changes in grammatical terminology when the alternative is to swallow the entire abolition of classical studies from our modern curricula.”

The CHAIRMAN.—“Will Professor Sonnenschein accept the Amendment as a substitute for the original Motion?”

Professor SONNENSCHIEIN.—“It seems to me Professor Conway’s Amendment will meet the essential needs of the situation quite as well as my own Motion, whilst at the same time avoiding the difficulties in the direction of apparent stringency. Therefore I think I may, as Chairman of the Committee, take the responsibility of accepting the Amendment.”

Professor RHYS ROBERTS assenting, the CHAIRMAN put to the meeting the substitution of the Amendment for the original Motion. This was agreed to.

Mr. J. W. HEADLAM.—“I would ask if, in the event of this Resolution being passed, and if valuable criticism of the details appear in the different learned periodicals—I would ask whether the Committee would be prepared to continue their labours, and to bring officially before the Association any further suggestions that may be made?”

Professor SONNENSCHIEIN.—“The Committee has already devoted a great deal of time to this subject, and it would not, I think, be prepared to go on with it indefinitely, though I think a limited amount of further work might be undertaken. In any case, however, the Committee is prepared to take into consideration the representations that may be made to it by the Classical Association and by any other Association represented on it. A certain number of meetings, three or four more perhaps, must be held. But how much longer the Committee would be prepared to go on with its labours I am not in a position to say.”

Professor CONWAY.—“It seems clear that one more meeting of the Committee, to consider minor improvements, would be desirable, but I feel sure that the Committee as it is constituted has done all the work that it can reasonably be expected to achieve, and I hardly think the attempt to arrive at finality would justify the considerable expense involved in further meetings.”

The amended Motion was put to the Meeting and carried *nem. con.*

Mr. HEADLAM proposed a hearty vote of thanks to the members of the Association who had served on the Terminology Committee for the great labour they had given in drawing up the Report.

Professor ARNOLD seconded the vote of thanks.

This was carried by acclamation.

Professor CONWAY moved as an introduction to any specific Amendments that might be added: "That the Association explicitly reserves its judgment on the following points:—"

Mr. J. H. SLEEMAN seconded.

The Motion being put to the vote, was carried.

Mr. N. H. BAYNES made a suggestion that a selection of criticisms passed during the ensuing year upon the Report of the Committee should be published in one of the Association's periodicals.

The meeting adjourned at 1.15 p.m.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON

The discussion on the Report of the Terminology Committee was resumed at 2.30 p.m.

The CHAIRMAN (Professor POSTGATE) suggested that it would be convenient if the points in the Amendment of which Professor Arnold had given notice were discussed first.

Professor ARNOLD.—"I propose the following:—

"That this Association explicitly reserves its judgment on the following points:

(a) The classification of subordinate clauses as Noun, Adjective, and Adverb Clauses;

(b) The position of Latin clauses in which *cum* is used with the Subjunctive;

(c) The terms Past Subjunctive and Past Perfect Subjunctive;

(d) The desirability of supplementing the terminology for the special needs of Latin and Greek.

"Taking point (a) first, I think the strongest argument in regard to it is the hesitation which the representatives of the Classical Association feel about this particular Recommendation. Professor Conway specifically reserves his approval on the point as requiring further consideration. Mr. Thompson has been opposed to the division all the time it has been before the Committee. As to Dr. Rouse, I cannot find that he is in favour of it from anything he says. Professor Sonnenschein I know accepts it only with certain reservations. It is a point, then, that ought to be further considered, not perhaps in the hope that we shall

ever quite agree, but at any rate with the idea that we may arrive at the possible limits of divergence."

The motion having been duly seconded, Professor SONNENSCHN pointed out that the Committee as a whole was very strongly and almost unanimously in favour of the classification recommended. Some members of the Committee who had their doubts whether something else might not be substituted had withdrawn in deference to the overwhelming majority of the Committee in favour of this classification. He added that it did not correctly represent his attitude to say that he accepted the Report "only with certain reservations."

The proposal was then put to the Meeting, but was lost.

Professor ARNOLD.—"The next point upon which I would ask the Association to reserve judgment is in regard to the position of Latin clauses in which *cum* is used with the Subjunctive. My own feeling is that this subdivision is not satisfactory as regards the Latin language. Of course I am aware that those interested in other languages might not be interested in this point. But the position of Latin clauses in which *cum* is followed by the Subjunctive Mood is that they do not correspond with any one of these Sections that are here mentioned. I think, therefore, we ought to reserve ourselves in regard to the Latin Grammar, and give ourselves the option to have a special Clause for this purpose."

Mr. GLYNN WILLIAMS seconded.

After a short rejoinder by Professor SONNENSCHN, the proposal was put to the Meeting and was lost.

Professor ARNOLD.—"The next point is—'the terms Past Subjunctive and Past Perfect Subjunctive.' It is proposed to introduce a new term, Past Subjunctive, for a term which is universally accepted, namely, the Imperfect Subjunctive. The new term, I think, has no advantage except that it brings uniformity in connection with certain uses in modern languages. So far as it brings this about it is helpful; but in other directions it is harmful, because as a matter of fact this particular tense does not in all its uses correspond to any one tense in any modern language, but sometimes with one and sometimes with another. If this proposal is accepted I think we shall then have two terms in use for the Imperfect Subjunctive—the Past and the Imperfect

Subjunctive—which will mean confusion. As with the Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, and so on, long use has so established these terms that every one knows what they mean, without attaching much importance to the intrinsic meanings of the terms. I think this particular innovation we have now under consideration ought not to be accepted until there are some signs that it will be acceptable in a larger sphere than can be represented to-day.”

Mr. J. E. R. ALLEN, in seconding, said,—“ I think the inclusion of a new term like Past Subjunctive for one familiar so long would introduce practical difficulty as regards the acceptance of the new terminology, and would tend to prejudice teachers against adopting the new scheme.”

Mr. E. LOVEGROVE.—“ Would the acceptance of this Amendment mean delay in the publication of the Report ? ”

Professor SONNENSCHN.—“ At the request of our Chairman I rise to say that the passing of any of these proposed Amendments would, no doubt, delay the publication of the Report, but not necessarily for any considerable time. The last speaker but one objected to the term ‘ Past Subjunctive.’ (Of course the term ‘ Past Perfect Subjunctive ’ follows upon the use of Past Perfect Indicative, which we proposed and which we think important.) The defence of ‘ Past Subjunctive ’ is contained in the note at the foot of page 33, viz. that the Latin ‘ scriberet ’ is not necessarily ‘ Imperfect ’ in meaning. Therefore we thought it better not to call it Imperfect. The advantage of ‘ Past Subjunctive ’ is also that it applies to Latin the same term as may be used for the corresponding tense in modern languages—namely, for the English ‘ wrote,’ the German ‘ schrieb,’ and the French ‘ écrivit.’ But if the Association thinks the term undesirable, it might be reconsidered by the Committee.”

The proposal was then put to the Meeting. It was carried by a majority of one vote, the Association thus signifying its desire that the point should be reconsidered by the Committee.

Professor ARNOLD.—“ And I would further move, in the form suggested as a rider, ‘ the desirability of supplementing the terminology for the special needs of Greek and Latin.’ ”

The Motion was seconded, but on being put to the meeting was lost.

MR. DE WINTON.—“I hope it will not be thought that any criticisms of mine are made in a captious spirit, or without a due sense of the enormous pains and trouble taken by this Committee of learned experts. When I look at their names I am amazed at my own temerity in having the audacity to bring forward any proposal. My claim on your indulgence must be that I have had thirty-five years’ experience as a teacher of young boys. In that capacity I would plead earnestly for greater simplicity of Grammatical Terminology than is given in this Report, especially in regard to long terms which my experience enables me to say would confuse and daunt the youthful mind.

Notwithstanding what has been modestly put forward by Professor Sonnenschein, I hope that this Report will at any rate settle the question of Grammatical Terminology for some time to come. If, however, it is to bring about such settlement I do think that more time is needed for the discussion of some details. No one wants to see the attempt made again, which the late head master of Eton aptly described to me as trying to explain *ignotum per ignotius*. But we do want something a little more simple in certain respects than we get in this Report.

On Page 8, Section 1, I would propose the omission of ‘the group of words,’ on the ground that it is very much simpler to make one word the subject of a sentence.

On Page 9, Section 2, I would suggest that for Predicative Adjective, Predicative Noun, or Predicative Pronoun, there should be substituted the word ‘complement.’ This may seem a contradiction of what I said about simplicity, but I have found the word ‘complement’ is not at all difficult for young pupils to understand; in the sense that it fills up the meaning of the sentence I find it less puzzling than what is set forth in this Report.

On Page 19, Section 19, I would move to omit the words ‘or Pronouns,’ because I am perfectly convinced myself that it is best to treat ‘ipse’ and words like ‘même,’ ‘selbst,’ as Adjectives and not Pronouns. Any one accustomed to teaching Latin knows the dreadful confusion in the youthful mind between ‘ipse’ and ‘se,’ and the only good explanation one can give is that ‘se’ is always a noun standing alone, and ‘ipse’ always an adjective, the thing with which it agrees being frequently understood. I suggest that the words ‘or Pronouns’ be omitted. They

might be called emphasising adjectives, although I think the word 'emphasising' is rather hard for small boys.

Page 23, Section 30.—After the words 'recognise that' I would propose that these words be added, 'have frequently in addition an adverbial force.' It seems that in that clause the adverbial force of those words is left out altogether.

Page 25, Section 35.—Here I would propose that we retain the word 'Objective' for purposes of English Grammar. To adopt the word 'accusative' is undoubtedly to produce confusion in the youthful mind, whether passing from English to Latin, or from Latin to English, both of which ordering of events takes place in our classes. I think 'Objective' is a better term.

Page 28, Section 40.—My proposal here is to omit 'would write—Future in the past'—and 'would have written—Future Perfect in the Past'—from the Indicative Tenses. I think the expression 'Future in the Past' is a terrible stumbling-block to the small learner, of either sex. With all due deference I submit that 'would' is only Future in an Indirect Clause. To call 'would have written' Future Perfect in the Past is very confusing, and involves a contradiction in terms which is bad for the learner.

Page 31, Line 13.—I would ask that after 'scripsit—Perfect,' there be added 'and Aorist.' I find it a great advantage as a teacher to get boys accustomed early to those two uses of the Latin Perfect. And I do not think any harm or confusion would arise from admitting there the word I propose. I urge that strongly.

Page 32, in Table.—Omit 'scribebat' before 'scripsit.' It is important not to elaborate instances too much, and I hold that strictly the word 'wrote' is Aorist, not Imperfect. For simplicity and clearness of arrangement 'scribebat' had better be left out.

Page 35, Section 43.—On the ground I have already urged, that it is better not to use long terms, I would beg leave to propose that the term 'Subjunctive Equivalent' be omitted. I must say it seems to me unnecessarily clumsy. Why not call it simply and plainly 'Subjunctive Tense'?

I beg to thank the Meeting for its kind patience in listening to my suggestions."

Mr. FRANK JONES seconded in the following terms.—“The Objective is one of the few terms used in English Grammar which really has sense behind it. In such a language as Latin we have two Objective Cases, and in English one Objective Case. Therefore, to attempt always to make any distinction between the various Objective Cases when we have only one form is a matter of very great difficulty and of little practical value. I would take as an example the difficulty of distinguishing the Dative in ‘I thank him’ from the Accusative in ‘I see him.’ I would support the last speaker in regard to his contention on the point of ‘Emphasising Adjective.’ In regard to ‘Future in the Past’ it seems to me that ‘Future from the Past’ is a better description of the tense. Further, I would support the last speaker in what he said about the Perfect and Aorist, which seems useful in teaching.”

Mr. W. G. RUSHBROOKE.—“I will only say, in regard to a number of these suggestions, that they have been very carefully discussed by the Committee, and I imagine that it would take a great many recommendations from the different Associations that we represent if, for instance, the word ‘complement’ were to be inserted again. Nearly all the points brought forward to-day have received our close consideration, and I am sure that if the mover of this Resolution had heard the debates in which these questions were canvassed, not once but often, he would withdraw many of his proposals.

In regard to ‘Future in the Past,’ that term is already adopted by French grammarians. Representations came from one or two Associations on that point. However, its use has been found practically useful in France.”

Mr. R. H. ELLIOTT.—“From my experience I would say that there is more to be urged against the use of the word Objective Case than Accusative. So I hope that point may not be reconsidered.”

Professor SONNENSCHN.—“That is a strong point. The term Objective would be inapplicable in such a sentence as ‘He lived here many years.’ Yet it is not the Nominative. The only term properly applicable is Accusative.”

Miss SILCON.—“I should be against the points raised being

brought forward again, and the decisions arrived at being set aside in favour of others.

"I have found one of the greatest difficulties that children experience is the hard-and-fast line they draw with words which in Latin can be adjectives and which are constantly used alone. I think it most important to keep the distinction of Emphasising Adjectives or Pronouns."

The CHAIRMAN proceeded to put to the Meeting each of Mr. de Winton's Amendments separately, with the following results:—

1. On Page 8, Section 1.—To strike out the words "the group of words or." Lost.

2. Page 9, Section 2.—For "Predicative Adjective, Predicative Noun, or Predicative Pronoun" to substitute the word "complement"; the word "terms" afterwards to be read "term." Lost.

3. Page 19, Section 19.—To strike out the words "or Pronouns." Lost.

4. Page 23, Section 30.—After the words "recognise that" to add "these words have frequently in addition an adverbial force." This was withdrawn.

5. Page 25, Section 35.—To retain the word "Objective" for purposes of English Grammar. Lost.

6. Page 28, Section 40.—To omit "would write—Future in the Past" and "would have written" from the Indicative Tenses. The voting showed 11 for and 11 against. The Chairman gave his casting vote in favour of the proposal being sent to the Committee.

7. Page 31, Line 13.—After "scripsit—Perfect," to add "and Aorist." Carried.

8. Page 32, in Table.—To omit "scribebat" before "scripsit." Lost.

9. Page 35, Section 43.—To omit the term "Subjunctive Equivalents" altogether, and to call such simply the "Subjunctive Tenses." Lost.

Professor SONNENSCHN.—"I will simply move without any comment the second Resolution put down in my name:—'That the Report, with any Amendment that the Committee may think fit to introduce, be published and put on sale at the price of sixpence as early as possible this year.'"

Mr. W. G. RUSHBROOKE seconded.

Mr. DE WINTON.—“ Do the Committee anticipate Amendments coming from other Associations before holding the final meeting ? ”

Professor SONNENSCHN.—“ The Modern Languages Association meets next week, and other Associations at an early date. So there need be no delay.”

The Resolution was put to the Meeting and was carried.

[ADDENDUM TO THE DEBATE ON THE INTERIM REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY, JAN. 1910.

THE Council of the Association, at a meeting on Saturday, January 25th, 1911, passed the following Resolution :

“ That in the opinion of the Council the Minutes of the General Meeting, held at King’s College, London, in January 1910, need to be amended by the insertion of a statement that the Interim Report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology was approved subject to the reservations and suggestions contained in pp. 12-14 of the *Proceedings for 1910*.”

NOTE.—This statement should be added at the foot of p. 21 of the *Proceedings for 1910*.]

At 3.30 p.m. Professor J. L. MYRES read a paper on “ The Geographical Aspect of Greek Colonisation ” :—

“ The programme of the meeting tells you that this lecture is to be short, and my friend Professor Postgate tells me that he hopes I shall keep it plain. The two things ought to be compatible ; and indeed all that I shall attempt is to state broadly and in outline a few general ideas, and some of the evidence for them ; presuming, as I am sure that I may, that the majority of the facts are familiar to you, and only exhibiting them to you at a less accustomed angle, and in a selected light. Like the tableaux which we have enjoyed, these glimpses of Greek colonisation in its geographical aspect will necessarily be discontinuous ; if they leave you with at all so lively an impression of how things looked and felt in the early Mediterranean world, I shall have succeeded better than my hope.

The geographer, like the chronologist, asks two questions, and two questions only, of his materials. The chronologist asks first—‘*When* did the events occur?’ and then, if he is also a historian—‘*Why then*, and in that order?’ The geographer in the same way asks first—‘*Where* did it happen?’ and having ascertained the geographical distribution of his facts, he goes on to ask *Why there?* And as all the facts of history happen *somewhere*, as well as *somewhen*, there is not one of them which has not also its interest for the historical geographer, whose privilege it is to ask the double question, ‘*Why* did what happened *then*, happen also just *there?*’

This is an aspect of historical study as attractive to most beginners as it has been, I fear, unfamiliar to some teachers of history. Considering how much we classical scholars think it necessary to know about words, and the arrangement and nomenclature of them, I sometimes wonder that we are content with so moderate acquaintance with the distribution of the men who used them, and with the variety of the regions they inhabited.

The Mediterranean world of classical antiquity owes its place in the history of man to the fact that it is essentially a Greek world. To assert this, I need hardly say, does not in any way conflict with the notion of a Mediterranean world which politically was an Empire of Rome, and continued to enjoy its inheritance, long centuries after its prime, mainly because of the coherence which Roman administration had enforced. There have indeed been moments, especially in the history of lands about the western basin, when it lay in the balance whether this western sea should not find its own fate, regardless of its eastern sister; or become, as indeed it did in later phases of disruption, the consort or the dependent of Atlantic sea-power. But neither Carthage, nor Tyrrhenia, nor that earlier civilisation whose monument is the pre-Minoan masonry of Malta and Sardinia, built anything more than the material basement of an Empire; and the Roman, when his hour came, struck his first blows outside Latium, not wholly for himself, but in defence of something external, the light to which he alone was called to bear witness. It is as the vehicle of Hellenism, no less than of Christianity, that our world venerates Rome; and while we speak of the Mediterranean world as a Roman Empire, we mean, nevertheless, by

that, an organisation of its regions and peoples, which in almost all achievements was essentially Greek.

This Greekness of the Mediterranean seaboard has been as persistent as it is ancient. Far outside the area which is peopled to-day by continuous Greek-speaking folk, it is broadly true to say that all the seaports of the Levant and also of the Black Sea owe their main importance to Greek enterprise. Their activity and prosperity are due in a large measure to the presence there of Greek trading houses of long standing, whose only rivals are the Armenian merchants in the north, and Syrians (and a few Armenians also) on the south coast, more particularly as one approaches its eastern end. In every port of the Levant, when Sunday morning brings out, as it does, the national flag of every boat that has on board a mast and a man—a gracious custom more honoured in the breach in the Mersey—it is the skyblue-and-white of Greece which forms a steady background to the rest; and the same flag is commonly seen to be as far north as the ports of the Black Sea, the Macedonian coast, and the Adriatic, and as far west as Tripoli and Tunis. It may be seen, too, not infrequently in harbours so far afield as Genoa and Marseilles. And this pervasion of the Mediterranean Sea by Greek seafaring enterprise is not a thing of yesterday. It is one of the oldest facts in European history. Already in the fifth century B.C., when Herodotus was first writing continuous history of a European nation, it was to commemorate the successful struggle of a league of Greek sea-powers, not to win, but to *reclaim*, the Mediterranean as a Greek sea, from the combined aggressions of rivals in Tyre, Carthage, and Etruria, leagued under the patronage of the greatest land-empire which the world had known till then, and backed by the full weight of the armed force of Persia.

For already in the sixth century, as now, Greece itself (meaning by that term the Greek-speaking extremities of the Balkan Peninsula) was but one, and by no means the most prosperous or influential, of Greek lands. In the Aegean Archipelago, not only Crete and the Cycladic Islands, but the whole foreshore of Macedonia and Thrace, swarmed with Greek colonies and trading depots. Above all, every bay and creek of western Asia Minor had already its Greek city, large or small, with some four

or five centuries of history behind it, and an uninterrupted record, during that period, of growth and prosperity, material, intellectual, and aesthetic. Then too, as now, but in far greater degree, the other shores of Asia Minor north and south, from Rhodes to Tarsus, from the Bosphorus to Trebizond and Batum, together with the European coasts of the Black Sea past Costanza and the mouth of the Danube to Odessa and ports of the Crimea and Sea of Azof, prolonged far into the Levant and the Euxine the string of seaport settlements. Cyprus too was mainly Greek, though Phoenicians clung jealously to the anchorage where modern Larnaca stands, and to one or two sacred spots in the interior of the island. Even Egypt, averse, then as now, from foreign intercourse, except on the most restricted scale, had its 'treaty-port' under Greek jurisdiction and management at Naucratis, and experienced, from this ancient Shanghai, the effects of political intrigues, promoted and financed mainly by Greeks, and directed mainly towards the 'pacific penetration' of the country and the liberation of its trade from an incubus of conquest as recent as the Manchu conquest was when Europeans first landed in China. For the administration of Egypt by Orientals, whether Assyrian or Persian, had all the effects unfavourable to Mediterranean enterprise which we associate in our day with the Manchu regime in China.

Westwards again, all through the eastward parts of Sicily, we have Greek colonies; as well as in all ports and landing-places of southern Italy, from Otranto and Tarentum to the Strait of Messina, and from Messina again northwestwards to Paestum, Naples, and beyond. Even infant Rome grew up well within a penumbra or outer halo of Greek civilisation, and owed much of its exceptional character, among Italian states, to its early patronage of Hellenism. Up the Dalmatian coast indeed there were few Greek colonies, and these of less repute and more troublous history; but Greek metal-work and pottery found their way somehow to the markets of Bologna and Este, which had a busy export trade across the Alps into the parts about Switzerland and Bavaria.

Further westwards again, Marseilles in Herodotus' time had been a Greek city of wealth and influence for more than a century, holding all the strings of inland trade up the Rhone and down

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the Rhine and the Seine, to the far-off coasts of the Baltic and the Channel, and even to Kimmerian lands beyond ; while eastwards and westwards, along the shores of Savoy, the gulf of the Lion, and Pyrenean Spain, a continuous series of daughter-colonies, from Marseilles itself and from its Ionic mother-state Phocaea, extended from Genoa on the east almost as far as the mouth of the Ebro. The very names of these Massiliot States survive as those of the modern towns of the Riviera. Nice is *Nicaca*, and commemorates some forgotten victory of Greek settlers over Ligurian natives ; Antibes is *Antipolis*, ' the town over the way ' ; Ampurias is *Emporian*, the trading ' factory ' for the consignment of goods into Spain ; above all, Monaco was the great landmark where the temple of Herakles of the Lonely House, *Monoikos*, gleamed far out to sea—where now the palace stands—to guide Phocæan ships as they worked their way, past Sardinia and Corsica, towards Marseilles. Thus the total area of distribution of the ancient Greeks in their prime upon the shores of the Mediterranean Sea shows much similarity to that of their modern counterparts, and this for a very good reason, namely, that in both cases the colonisable parts of the Mediterranean basin had really been probed pretty well to their extreme limits by a nation of experts in transport and exchange.

It is, in fact, in this sense chiefly that the ancient world has been handed down to us as being (what indeed essentially it was) a Greek world ; but it was, as we have seen, a Greek world just because it was essentially Mediterranean—a world, that is, which in all the chief functions of human life, and in all the principal human relations between its several parts, faced inwards upon the shores of a Midland Sea.

But even the Eastern Mediterranean had not always been the Greek World which we commonly figure it ; and, in a sense, it is possible to name centuries, and even decades, for the date-marks of its Hellenisation. Indeed the suddenness of achievements like the opening of Sicily or Pontus provokes comparison with the discovery of America, or oceanic navigation to the Indies. Yet this is only one side of the matter. Our comparison with the voyages of the Renaissance is a just one in this also, that there was all the difference between the discovery of a New World and the creation in it of an organic counterpart to the

Old ; or to vary the comparison, between the voyage of Vasco da Gama and the proclamation of an Empress of India. Greek colonies existed in the west, a full generation before 700 B.C. ; but the Battle in the Bay of Cumae falls even farther below Salamis, in the perspective, than Trafalgar falls below the Battle of the Nile. And as fruition was gradual, so preparation had been long ; incomparably longer, in fact, and in many directions more spacious too, than the prelude to Portuguese discovery. Indeed, with even our present knowledge of Minoan seamanship and trade, we should more justly recur for a parallel not to the Great Voyages, but to the Crusades ; viewing the latter, as we well may, as an effort to recover lost provinces and ports, quite as much as a lost sanctuary. The solid gains, I mean, were Famagusta and Rhodes, the Tarentum and Syracuse of the Crusaders' Seas ; the great failures were not Acre or Jerusalem, but Antioch and Alexandria retained in alien hands, as Alalia and the Cinyps River had been in the sixth century B.C.

But if we people the physical map of the Mediterranean with Greek colonies, even in their maturest distribution, we shall be struck at once with their strange irregularity. While Pontus swarms with nearly a hundred Greek cities, large and small, the Adriatic is almost bare ; Ionia is as Greek as Euboea, but beyond the southward sentinels in Rhodes, Greek settlements are rare and secluded, until we come to Cyprus, and a little cluster on the Cilician coast. North of the Aegean again, the Thraceward parts have the same uncongenial look. Westward, South Italy and Sicily are Greek as far as Selinus and Himera ; but west of Cyrene and her sisters—almost an African Sicily—there is nothing, and the belated and disastrous venture of Dorieus shows clearly there how the Greeks had missed what little chance there was. With the successes of Cumae and Massilia before us, the question we are forced to ask about the Western basin is not, I think, 'How did Greeks expatiate so far ?' but 'How did Carthage find room there at all ?' To questions like these, the answer is of course in great part historical ; but our history will be the sounder if it is based on a reasoned geography of these striking and surprising distributions.

Now, it is mainly because it is at last possible to look back into an earlier cycle of enterprise, as well as to look forward

over the subsequent ages, that the Greek colonisation of the Mediterranean coasts, familiar as it is to us all, deserves, as I think, to be worked over again. We need not expect to revolutionise our conception of its outlines and general course. Dates and personages and elementary facts of the distribution and grouping of the colonies may remain, on the whole, as they were. In a few cases, indeed, the scepticism which was wholesome twenty years ago begins to be shown superfluous; new finds on the sites (as in Sicily) supporting old genealogies, and Thucydides' abstract of them, in rather unexpected ways. It is rather with the content and meaning of the enterprises, than with their formal shape, or their precise internal sequence, that we are now to be concerned; with the efforts of man as one of the minor forces of Nature, in aggressive, often futile, conflict with scenery and climate, and at times with the rival efforts, or inertia, of other men.

It is very good for us, students of the humanities—and emphatically for those of us who are so closely engaged in teaching them—to force ourselves once in a way to remember that in certain respects we are within measurable distance of knowing all that can profitably be known about these phases of man's work, so long as we look at the matter from man's point of view. Our chief hope of advance is to agree quickly with our rivals in the Faculty of Science, and ask them, very humbly, to tell us a little of how man's triumphs look when they are regarded as corollaries and resultants of great conflicts in which Nature can win as well as we. I do not mean any such latter-day anthropomorphism as inspired Maeterlinck's impersonations of Fire and Water, still less the revengeful interiors of his Oak and Bull. These, and their like, only flatter our human pride while they pretend to warn it; they keep man posted in the focus of their limelight—no less than we, in the diffused daylight of classrooms. What I would rather look to is a reconstruction of a Mediterranean World, as a geologist like our distinguished President, or a naturalist, or a forester, looks at it; with man minute and ephemeral in a corner of the picture, working infinitesimal defacement of the foreshore and marshlands—damage that one storm or flood that meant business could obliterate in a night; slipping across to new hunting-grounds, in cockles and

walnutshells, between waves and lightnings which could wreck them by squadrons; yet by these and other expedients saving time, annihilating space, dispelling and perforating obstacles, till he has distorted the features of his world out of all recognition: till Attica and Southern Italy look like Scythia, and the Pillars of Herakles are as near to Sparta as Samos, and London barely half as far from Liverpool as most places in Kent or Sussex.

For such inquiries as these, into what I may fairly call, by a borrowed name, *Man's Place in Nature*, and as an introduction to the method of them, the Greeks' expansion over the Mediterranean is a favourable field. It lies near enough to ourselves, and sufficiently within the light of history, for its human aspect to be knowable adequately in its main outlines; yet it is early enough in the history of material science for Man to be still under fairly strict control, alike as regards his own movements and his enjoyment of Nature's gifts. It lies also far enough forward in the total perspective for us to see, beyond it, in something more than outline, that earlier movement of Aegean peoples outwards, to which I have alluded already; a movement which in some ways anticipates the Hellenic effort, and yet in others offers strong contrasts, which demand, and will surely receive, an explanation. And this explanation will itself come probably quite as much from the physical as from the human aspect of the matter; for our knowledge of Minoan man is still completest—and will probably long remain so—on those sides of his life which brought him most directly in touch with Nature in the mere struggle for existence and for material efficiency.

Foremost among the points of similarity between the Minoan and the Hellenic Aegeanisation of the surrounding regions, is their essentially seaborne distribution. The cradles of both movements are maritime or insular; and in both, when the movements are once started, their insular aspect becomes subordinate; for we must remember that, until a late stage in both, Crete plays the part, not of an island accessible and approached from all sides, but of a continental region forming a continuous land-barrier along the south shore of a landlocked Archipelago. Even in the *Odyssey*, which seems to me to preserve much sealore of the Late Minoan Age, the south side of Crete is still 'top-side,' washed by a *mare superius*, such as the Adriatic

appeared to be in the 'sailing-directions' of Cumae and Ostia. Crete 'faces north,' that is for the greater part of its history. It is only a predominant Egypt, or a predominantly Egypt-seeking commerce, which can give temporary importance to Hierapytna, or Fairhavens, or even to Phaestos.

This seaborne quality both of Minoan and of Hellenic colonisation is so familiar to us all that it needs perhaps to be emphasised by a contrast; for it is not at all so familiar an idea, I think, that the two greatest changes of distribution, geographically speaking, in the Greek world were not essentially seaborne at all; they used the sea, it is true, but they used it as an auxiliary, not as their chief vehicle. The Migrations which wrecked the Minoan Age in its decline were migrations of landmen, *πολυπλάνητοι κάρτα*, intrusive across land frontiers and along land avenues. The sea stopped them, with a few exceptions only; and these exceptions, as has been observed more than once of late, are due to the fact that in all headlong advance the vanguard of the pursuer, entangled with stragglers of the pursued, is inevitably swept onwards with them. This much indeed is familiar enough. What is not so obvious, though it seems to me no less clear, is that after Greek colonisation in the accepted sense had reached its full tide oversea, and the Greek World so constituted had spent nearly two centuries in what we commonly treat as a process of intensification rather than of further spread, a new career was then given to Greek energy and enterprise by Alexander; with the result that, in hardly more than a generation, whole regions and kingdoms unapproachable before, as at first sight it seemed, were injected and infiltrated with an active, progressive, and daily multiplying throng of Greek adventurers, for whom one monarch after another, of every line, is forced in his turn to play the part of *oikistes* and *eponymos*, till the Greek East was filled with Antiochs and Seleuceias and Attaleias; nor did the process cease till Pompeiopolis had given place to the Cæsareas, and Caesarea and Tiberias to Hadrianopolis.

Once established, it is true, this regime of continental Hellenism used the midland seas, which intersected it, with the inherited skill of the preceding age; but the very reason why seamanship (and still more naval architecture) continued in the Hellenistic centuries to make the great advances which we know,

was that sea-trade was forced now for the first time into lively competition with land-trade, in a regime whose land and sea traffics were alike in the hands of Greeks. The suddenness, too, with which this new state of things reveals itself, amid the very dust of Alexander's marches, is the best evidence of the degree to which preparation had gone forward, silent and ubiquitous, all through the days of Persian rule. The King of Kings—'Paternal,' 'Princely,' or 'Penny-wise,' it made no difference—with administrative and mercantile genius from Babylon and Sardis at his elbow, had been organising, and engineering, and all but *macadamising* his kingdom of kingdoms, between Hellespont and Indus. Greeks, on their part, as travellers, prospectors, concessionaires, above all as the foremen and agents of Eastern and Western finance alike, had swarmed in and taken occupancy wherever there was a collector or a post-office. Satraps and client kings, all through the Persian decline, were filling in the pattern, unawares, with the zeal inspired by commissions such as theirs on the business which they brought in to the mart of marts. So that, as the fourth century drew on, and *fainéant* kings sat in the seat of Darius, the cry grew urgent among the practical men, and was not without echo in journalism, that 'something had got to be done'; and Alexander, in the fullness of time, found the other half of that something done already for him, by the completest and most business like organisation, and the finest civil service, of the pre-Roman world.

I have ventured to stress the outlines of this companion sketch of landward expansion, partly to put the seaborne colonisation of the earlier age into historical and also into geographical perspective; partly to insinuate, by comparison of a struggle with one of the most obliging enemies in history, some notion of the hardships and incalculability of the task which faced the seaborne colonists. Echoes of the terror, in spite of which they achieved their end, remain in the vocabulary of Greek sea-poets. The 'merry Grecian coaster,' like his Semitic-speaking rival, was at bottom a land animal. 'They that go down to the sea in ships, that occupy their business in great waters: these men see the Works of the Lord'—the amazing power, the uncanny complexity of the 'Limitless.'

In many ways, of course, Aegean and indeed all Mediterranean seafarers have their lot cast in pleasant places. There is the marked regularity of the seasonal winds, in the sailor's summer; the practical absence of tides, and consequent uniformity, from day to day, of almost all currents (Euripus and Charybdis were as weird as they were, just because they were so nearly unparalleled); the permanent depth of all harbours and shoals, and the stable contours of bays and capes; the bright limpidity of the water, betraying rocks, shoals, and tunny alike—itsself in part due to tidelessness, as well as to the predominance of pure limestones on shore. There is the rarity of great sea-beasts, again: the seal and the porpoise are harmless, and rank as benevolent,¹ and even among the sharks the big bad ones are the gift of de Lesseps; they come up through the Canal. All these graces made navigation easy, when it was possible at all.

Of course there is another side to the picture. Only this autumn I had news of a British liner, involved in Euboeydon at the same place and season as St. Paul, and forced to shut off steam and lie to, for pitiless hail and Kimmerian darkness. At the other extreme, even the seasonal winds can faint at times: I have spent three days of *bonatza* drifting from Amorgos towards Kalymnos, and eleven between Cyprus and Alexandria. No wonder, then, that currents, and sea-drifts hardly worthy of the name of currents, counted for much, once they were known, when man's other motive-powers were so small. Odysseus, you will remember, quite plausibly explains his casting up in Ithaca by a shipwreck 'out topside of Crete'—*μέσσον ὑπὲρ Κρήτης*; and St. Paul's crew, driven out of their bearings in the same had Cretan water, assume after a while that they are being 'driven up, and down, in Adria,' past Ithaca therefore a long way; and in fact they were abreast of Sicily before they grounded.

This current, indeed, it was which set Sicily and Magna Graecia, and in the same way also Egypt, so near, in the Minoan Age, and for Hellenic sailors likewise, and Cyrene and the Cinyps river so remote from the ordinary run of adventure; which

¹ I have myself worshipped before a troglodyte "Phocaea" off Budrum, and joined with a boatful of normal Greeks to deter an "emancipated one"—alas! a *ῥάσταλος*—from wasting revolver-shots on the porpoises.

isolated so remarkably the few early colonies along the south coast of Asia Minor ; and then made the fortune of Attalia when an Antioch was strong enough to hold the land roads to the East, and there was an Attalus, its own creator and patron, to see fair play for convoys through the *hinterland* of that long cross-winded traverse which separates Rhodes from the Hellespont. Something of the same weight, too, has to be allowed in the Western Mediterranean, for a similar set of the current northward from Messina to Campania, and eventually round past Alalia to the long chain of the Phocæan Riviera from Monaco to Marseilles. Any one who has watched the glacial outflow of the Var, as it smears the blue bay far westward, to Antibes and beyond, οὗτος ὡνὴρ οἶδε τὸ λέγω.

At first sight it looks as if winds and currents such as these withdrew with one hand the blessings they gave with the other ; Phocæan exiles may sink their iron and vanish in sunset glory ; but *vestigia nulla retrorsum* is a poor motto for the merchant. Yet the export of goods is not, after all, so very unlike that export of men which is the essence of colonisation. In one of the great seaports of the world, I must speak with a landsman's reserve, but, broadly speaking, almost all trade—I exclude mere 'tramping' and the 'casual labour' of ship-society—has an outward and a homeward side. No procession of timber-laden donkeys could have been noted by Herodotus, plodding up-river ever from Babylon to the Armenian uplands, if it had not been for the ease with which Euphrates permitted Armenia to supply the demand of Babylon for palm-wine and other up-country produce ; and we may be sure that many a merchant let sound boat-ribs go at firewood prices before some one devised that ingenious mode of return. Meanwhile, even in the file of donkeys, Herodotus (who I fear had no head for business) omits to mention the one which carried the wine-price—for it is difficult to believe that Armenians were trading for glory. It was, however, the natural facility of river transport that initiated this kind of trade ; the mode of return, for boats, or donkeys, or men either, was indifferent, or a later refinement.

This is true enough, as we can see, in the export of goods. In the export of men, still more (as was obvious at first), it is the outward facilities alone which really matter ; and these

matter the more if, as so often happens, the spur to colonise at all is the resolve to be quit of the homeland finally ; or—what amounts to much the same—if the homeland, for whatever reason, is resolved to be quit of *you*.

In the event, however, the fact that Greek colonisation was in so many cases 'down-stream' matters a great deal. Nothing, in the early phases of the movement, could have been more unfavourable either to the spread of Greek emigrants at all, or to the creation of independent and self-sufficient enterprises abroad, than a physical regime in which return was favoured, or permitted, on at all the same terms as emigration. The very words, ἀποικεῖν, ἀποικία, are by themselves significant of this, which emerges also from every foundation-story that we can recover ; the Greek colony had to be planned from the moment of its inception as a transmigration from old to new homes, deliberate, complete, and irreversible. Here, again, the pendant-picture is supplied by the practice of Rome, which propagated a citizen-population along land-routes, not oversea, and utilised the security of habitual return, which those armoured avenues offered, to retain its colonists as citizens of its own, in spite of their change of domicile. For Rome to 'colonise' oversea, was to adapt, late and precariously, a midland institution to transmarine conditions : in Greece it was the rarest of accidents if, as with Gela and Agrigentum, an ἀποικία had land-communication at all with its metropolis.

* Two special regions may conveniently be noted here, in which special regimes of water and weather went far to determine the behaviour of the Greeks. At first sight the Adriatic would seem devised on purpose to be an avenue of access to the North. Its narrow shape should restrict the force of its seas ; innumerable coves indent its eastern shore ; Otranto, Brindisi, Bari, Castellamare, Ancona, and Spina, on the other side, make stepping-stones all the way to Ravenna and the Po Valley roads. At its southern end it opens on to one of the most crowded highways of Greek navigation, the transit from Corcyra to Tarentum. At its northern, it is the terminal of more first-class highways than any equal stretch of the Mediterranean coasts, with the possible exception of Propontis and the Gulf of Alexandretta. Yet while

Phocaeans were settled at Massilia and trading at Tartessus, and Miletus had its eighty depots round the shores of the Euxine, the Adriatic remained all but inviolate; even in the fifth century Herodotus had to write for a public to which Rhenus, Rhodanus, and Eridanus were all but synonyms, in geography as in philology; Aristaeas emerges from his northern journey not at a Venice or Ravenna, but in South Italy, on a main line probably for Tarentum, or perhaps for Cumae. The only Great Northern Road, moreover, of which the historian had any fuller information is a *land*-road through the Dalmatian highland; and even this is non-Hellenic as far south as Dodona.

If we look at the physique of the region, however, the question solves itself. The general water-circulation, as we have seen, sweeps past the mouth of the Adriatic, not into it, and draws all drifting traffic to Tarentum and Croton, and away from Brindisi. One of the most prevalent winds blows directly down the length of the trough; deterrent in itself, and hateful, even more, for the heavy rollers which succeed it, and the detestable choppiness at the entrance where it meets the Ionian main-swell. 'Etesian' winds of the familiar Aegean kind are in any case hardly to be counted on, so far to the west and north; and such off-shore winds as arise within the Balkan coastline are dangerous and incalculable Harpies. Once caught by these, even below Corcyra, neither god nor skipper shall save you till you are abreast of the Strophades. In a lengthward swell, of the kind I have described, the 'Bocche' of the Dalmatian coves are Scylla and Charybdis in one; the Italian harbours are hardly more hospitable; even Ancona crooks the wrong way for traffic from the south. Bari, then as now, has the best fish-market in those seas, but its Saint Nicholas has beacon fame, eloquent of perils no less than of rescue from them. And there is another reason why the Adriatic should repel a Greek. If we are familiar with the distribution of European rainfall, we are aware how copious is the precipitation all along the Dalmatian and Illyrian shore. We know from our *Odyssey*, which holds so many graphic touches of western Greek nature and scenery, that it is Zephyr who pours out the snow, and the land-wind Eurys who makes it vanish away; and we remember the pitiless persistent drenchings which saturate Miss Durham's books. To pass from any part of penin-

sular Greece, and most of all from its Aegean shores, or from Ionia, into Adriatic weather, is like exchanging Norfolk for the Lakes or the West of Scotland. Now, it is a commonplace of the books of antiquities that Greek life is life out-of-doors; it is life, that is, most intimately adapted to normal Mediterranean conditions; it involves long sittings in the open air, for public business, for religious rites, for drama and literature—for all that makes life liveable. In Rome, as we know well, we are already on the border-line of really 'Mediterranean' weather; at most seasons of the Latin year, the state occasions of society, its *dies fasti* and *festi*, were best arranged, like Coronations, in collusion with the Clerk of the Weather; and we recall the tremendous power of veto entrusted in Rome to the Meteorological Office. Even in the western parts of Greece itself, the rain had found out the weak places in the City-State, and popular instinct was to federalise and get wet by deputy. At Megalopolis the Thersileion had a roof.¹ Up the Adriatic, therefore, we may be sure, *πολιτική*, the soul of the City-State, was at a discount. Molossians and Illyrians were content to be ruled by kings; and the few Greeks who traded thither saw little inducement to colonise. It was hardly what you might call a Dry Man's Country.

Not only was Adriatic weather thus exceptionally unpropitious. Any local traffic there was, had to bow to the storms, and adjust itself to local conditions. In after days, as we know, skill thus specialised, in navigation and trade, did in fact spring up, at Hatria and Ravenna, and again, long after, at Venice; but this also was down-wind export, and originated at that end of the long trough where tradeable wealth was nearest and most accessible. Far earlier, however, Dalmatia and Illyria themselves, as we are now beginning to realise, had utilised the dark ages of the Migration Period in something the same way as had their Italian counterpart, Etruria. Certainly Minoan traders found this sea rather less inhospitable than their successors. The latter came too late. The Adriatic, in fact, had developed, in the interval, sea-powers of its own; it was clearly in active intercourse with the defenceless 'upper' shore of Italy, and, as

¹ Infested by 10,000 Arcadians, I suspect it was *πύξ* in more senses than one.

the tribe-names show, had probably immigrated into it, as the Albanians did again in their turn. To what extent these Adriatic seafarers traded outside their own water, or even devoted themselves, within it, to trade of any peaceful sort at all, is still obscure; but if, as some indications suggest, Adriatic culture affected sea-front settlements of the Minoan series (in their latest stages, at least) as far afield as Syracuse; and if, as other faint hints lead me to believe, similar influences were active on the western Greek coasts as far south as Elis and perhaps even in Crete;¹ if, in fact, there really existed something in the Adriatic itself, of the southern fringe of which the Greek tales of Taphians and Phaeacians² may represent a memory,—then, at all events, we have ample reason shown why Greek enterprise left the Adriatic on one side in the decisive fashion that we can see.³

In contrast with this blank region, let us turn to another, access to which seems at first sight even more ingeniously beset with physical obstacles, but where the Greek colonised strongly and permanently in spite of them. The Black Sea, as its names, ancient and modern, imply, is an evil 'stepmother of ships.' Its great extent, and complete exposure to violent winds, both seasonal and spasmodic, give almost oceanic violence to its waters. For the Greeks, indeed, it was *πόντος* without competitor. Its southern and Asiatic shore, which would naturally strike us as likely to lend importance to the region, is its lee-shore, from the Bosphorus to Trebizond, almost to Batum: and the local Etesian is more on-shore than along-shore from Bosphorus to Danube also. Quite apart, too, from these internal perils, the very access to the Euxine is precarious. The strong perennial current of the straits is outwards to the Aegean; and it has been strong enough to class the Hellespont as a river rather than as sea, from Homer's *ῥόος Ἑλλησπόντου* onwards.

¹ *Liverpool Annals of Archaeology*, iii. 143-4.

² The Phaeacians in any case were known to have made exodus from an inland and upland home along these coasts, about the same time as the Achaeans broke out into the Aegean.

³ Professor Mahaffy reminds me very justly that in estimating the inhospitality of the Adriatic account should be taken also of the geographical obstacles to landward enterprise across so abruptly mountainous a hinterland.

The straits themselves, too, lie almost in the eye of the seasonal wind. In the earliest times, indeed, Troy, as Mr. Bérard has shown, had a significance—which Sigeum, its successor, never wholly lost—as a place of portage, between roadsteads facing inwards and outwards; so that the sea could be abandoned, temporarily or for good, when traffic was impossible up-wind. There were mitigations, it is true. A seaward current so capricious in its course as Xerxes' engineers found it, made many long eddies and backwaters. There were other portages, probably at Abydos, and Cyzicus, and perhaps elsewhere besides. There were local morning and evening winds like that which served Phormio so well in the Gulf of Patras. Makeshifts such as these made upward navigation possible, 'if the gods played fair'; and it seems possible that all sea-going vessels, in antiquity as now, in those seas carried a reserve of oarage represented by the full strength of the crew.¹

With all these mitigations, however, the navigation of the Straits was always laborious, and the swift run home on the return voyage was small consolation, except to men for whom this was the motive of the whole trip. But this presumes imports, not emigrants, as the primary cargo of Euxine shipping; and we find ourselves confronted by a different type of enterprise from that which we commonly and rightly regard as characteristic of Greek colonisation. That men should willingly leave a society which was harassed, or corrupt, or merely over-populous, and face hardship and risk to win security and fair play, is intelligible enough; it presumes, however, not only that a new home was to be accessible without too grave peril, but that the physical surroundings of it were to be tolerable when you arrived. In the Mediterranean region generally, this could almost be taken for granted. The proximity of so large a mass of moderately warm water guaranteed a climatic uniformity which is surprising when we attend to its details. Genoa, for example, has a winter no colder than Peiraeus, and Ephesus, and Tarsus; Crete, Cyprus, and Carthage have no hotter summers than Corcyra and Per-

¹ The value set, even by the moderns, on this reserve of motive power is perhaps best measured by their distracting reluctance to use it except *ὡς δεῖ καὶ ὡς ἂν ὁ φρόνιμος ἐρέσται*; for it is in fact their very last resource.

gamon. But whereas the Black Sea is very potent to cool the great heat about its shores, so that Constantinople and Trebizond range as summer stations with Marseilles and Genoa, and are markedly cooler than either Salonica or Dyrrhachium, which are nearly on the same grade of latitude, it is far less efficient to moderate the winter. Odessa ranks approximately with Vienna and Paris, and even Sinope rather with Rome and Madrid than with Miletus or Metapontum, which compare at this season with the Riviera. And these rigours of course affect man's food as well as his comfort. Sinope and Amisus alone, of all the great Pontic cities, can grow their own olives; and the oliveless region presses hard upon the Thracian shore of all Propontis too. It is the only province of the whole Greek world, down to Alexander's time, in which this staff of life failed.

Now, I do not mean to press to an absurdity the predicament of an oil-bred man transported beyond the frontier of the butter-eaters, but something of his revulsion and distress of body will be real to those who have made the reverse experiment, and tried, being *φύσαι* butter-eaters, to tolerate food cooked with oil; or who have transgressed that other gastronomic frontier which lies next northward of our own, and exchanged our milk-fats for blubber. How serious a drawback the deficiency of olives was to the Pontic colonies, we can estimate, however, from glimpses of efforts to supply this need. Only one state of the whole Greek world had serious interests in Pontus, beyond the range of its Megarian doorkeepers; and what its oil-trade meant to Miletus, we know from such early hints as the strategy of Alyattes, the sophism of Thales, and Solon's encouragement of olive culture—the latter an integral part, as I think is appreciated now, of his attempt to redress that ruin of Attic agriculture which came by influx of Pontic corn.

For it is the Pontic corn, as we know well, that was the primary motive of Pontic colonisation, and the key to this exceptional and otherwise inexplicable enterprise. In a world built like the Greek world, with its minute detached oases of fertility dotted about in a desert of 'thorns' and 'stony ground,' or of no less 'harvestless' waters, the presentiment of famine was ever present. Material prosperity, reviving after the sea-raids and the Migrations, had multiplied the nation and *not*

increased the joy. Either fresh corn must come, or some of the mouths must go—oversea or else underground. The lesser and perhaps also the less gifted states sent their spare mouths oversea, and some of these exiles, even outside Pontus, found opener and more fertile country as their adventures swung clear of the contorted zone of Alpine mountain-structure; rolling chalk-downs, and escarpments of marls and sand, as in Calabria; broad tracts of river-silt, round Metapontum and Sybaris—a coast-wise St. Louis and St. Paul; or high dry plateaux, vivified, as in Cyrenaica, by sea-wind and dew more than by rain. But the majority of these found their cornland at hazard and un-awares; having other aims and interests, they grew their first corn for their own needs, ἐπὶ στήσι, like those other Scythians; so that it was only gradually that they had surplus for sale. Miletus, on the other hand, with good fortune so incredible that I am impelled to ascribe some of it to anonymous foresight and invention, like the discovery of our own North-West, sought and found on the prairie beyond that *Lacus Superior*—‘black-sea-water’ indeed, like its New World antitype—a Manitoba and Alberta of inexhaustible grass-land fertility, blessed above all with a navigable river-system which drained corn like water straight into the Great Lakes, and made Olbia the Duluth of Greece; instead of outwards, like our Saskatchewan and Mississippi, into some Caspian ‘Bay’ or Baltic ‘Gulf.’ For the present, too, that other contrast was a windfall, which supplied a native Scythian population that could plough as well as hunt and fight. How far they could be Hellenised beyond the baboo-stage attained by Skyles, and how far Hellenisation either precluded or replaced settlement of real Greeks inland, is a problem which it is still too early to attack.

I need not press the analogy, to weary you, of the gold, the furs, the backwood riverborne timber that came from behind the corn, further than to note that, like the Hudson Bay Company, and for the same reason, Miletus kept its own counsel, and its vast monopolies; and alone among the great colonising states of the Greek world, seems, until its fall, to have kept some kind of hand over its factories. It was probably indeed from his friend Thrasybulus, that Periander learned that other lesson which gave Corinth, sole initiator in this respect, that

control over its later colonies which endured till the siege of Potidaea. Only after the destruction of Miletus do we find Aegina, which as usual was trying to make the best of both worlds, in enjoyment of the favour of Persia, and apparently also of a monopoly of the Hellespont under the very eyes of Xerxes. No wonder that with this world of wealth at its command Miletus occupied a place apart, in Ionia itself, in the eye of the King of Sardis, in the no less practised eyes of Cyrus and Darius. No wonder that the greatest of those Persian reconnaissances which preceded the direct attack on Greece, and fill the Fourth (and part also of the Third) Book of Herodotus, was apparently calculated—whatever its actual performance—to probe the *hinterland* of this Milesian Canada, and estimate its value as annexable estate. No wonder, either, that with his new knowledge thus gained, both of the North and of its great Captain, Darius acted promptly when that dispatch from Megabazus came. The hand that administered the Pontic Manitoba must at all cost be prevented from creating an Ontario in Thrace.

I have chosen this Pontic region for more detailed study, partly because it is obviously exceptional in its geographical quality and position; partly because it is one of the few in which we can see Greek enterprise at work on a really large scale, unhampered by the political quarrels which elsewhere transformed so much human energy into mere friction-heat; partly also because for this very reason it anticipates at an early stage in the history of Greek freedom, commonly so-called, much that is otherwise exhibited only after the City-States had become encysted in the densening tissues of the Great Beasts which partitioned Alexander's empire; when they had been constrained, in a new sterner sense, to mind the King's Peace, and their own business.

To compare with Milesian organisation, we may refer most profitably to the enterprises of Phocaea. Apart from one Proponitid adventure at Lampsacus—dear above all Hellespontine towns to the King of Sardis, as a prospective place-of-arms, should reason fail to move the Doge of Miletus—I cannot recall any Phocaean colony lying east of Messana; and west of Chalcidian Messana all is either Chalcidian or Phocaean, with the justifiable

exceptions of the Samian Lipara, and Laus and Scidrus, which are the postern gates of Sybaris. With the known friends and foes of Phocaea itself in our mind, we need have little hesitation in concluding that Phocaean specialisation and Phocaean privilege in the west are aspects of one and the same understanding with the Chalcidian syndicate which held the keys of the strait, and many other keys besides; that the development of Phocaea's enterprise, to left and right of her second self at Massiha, proceeded on a definite plan; and that the last ill-fated expedition, which began so prosperously at Alalia, and ended at Velia so lamely, was both designed, and also after failure reconstructed, to complete her lines of communication from Messana northward.

What use Phocaea made of her great success, Marseilles, is perhaps not hard to divine. There was all Provence to plant with olives ἐπὶ πρῆσι, and a backwood trade in pig's meat, not unworthy of Chicago; there was the famous pitch—one old-world substitute for rubber—from Auvergne and Savoy, and not improbably a good deal of tin and other northern goods. Few colonial cities of the first rank, in fact, can be studied so closely or clearly as Marseilles, thanks partly to its long prosperity and the consequent fullness of its literary record, partly to the copious archaeological commentary which is supplied from southern and central Gaul. In particular, we have here, for once, an area of great magnitude, over which it is possible to trace for a long series of periods the actual importation of manufactured articles and the successive effects of their styles on native arts.

It is less easy to see what Phocaea gained from the string of minor cities which gem the Riviera from Genoa to Hyères, and repeat themselves along the seaward spurs of the Pyrenees, and away beyond towards the Ebro. Were they just cutting timber and making pitch? or had they already olives and wine for sale? or must we fall back upon those vaguest and yet probably most ubiquitous of commodities—import of salt and export of men? Massilia certainly was both a salt-factory and a great slave-mart, and both these businesses involve a multitude of sub-stations; but the bare mention of them brings us hard up against the old desperate consideration that so long as primary objects of exchange were as perishable as either men or salt

it is almost hopeless to prove their occurrence, much more to estimate their extent.

I have had to mention more than once already the obvious fact that over a large part of its area Hellenic colonisation was but reconquering regions which had been exploited and colonised by Aegean people once before already. But this was not always so, and it is matter of common knowledge that for loss as well as for gain the new distribution does not square exactly with the old. In Cyprus, for example, the Minoan occupation of which, though late, was exceptionally vigorous and thorough, fresh Hellenic enterprises hardly appear at all. The reasons here seem to be mainly three. *First*, Cyprus lies so far afield, and is so well protected by inhospitable shores and adverse currents along the direct way thither, that the worst fury of the Northern Invasions was spent before they touched it. The legends which connected Curium, for example, with Argos, and Lapathus with Sparta, seem rather to refer to Achæan or pre-Achæan than to Dorian foundations, and to rank with the Cyprian adventures of Teucer and Menelaus. Such spent missiles of Armageddon as struck Cyprus at all seem indeed to have reached it by ricochet from Asia Minor, the culture of which, in the early iron age, was certainly at work in the island. *Secondly*, the collapse elsewhere of the regime to which the Aegean cities of Cyprus had belonged, though it left them derelict in a sense, threw them at this crisis in their growth upon their own resources, and the event showed that they were strong enough to survive. The so-called 'Phoenician' cities, Citium, Amathus, and Idalium, differed in no essential point of culture from their 'Greek' neighbours. Official documents were indeed written in Semitic at Citium; but Idalium was bilingual, and Amathus, if anything, Greek-speaking, though the evidence is here very slight. *Thirdly*, when Aegean adventurers began to come to Cyprus more frequently again—they had probably never wholly ceased to find their way thither—it was round a fully-constituted system of Cypriote city-states that they rallied for further aggression eastwards; and there was therefore no more need of *oikistes* or formal *apoikia* than in Crete or Rhodes. It was not indeed until the far later breakdown of the balance of power in

the Levant, when the 'bruised reed' gave way again to Nebuchadnezzar and to Cambyses, that anything like missionary enterprise was required in Cyprus to keep its Hellenism dominant.

Contrast with this the fate of Minoan settlements in the west. In Sicily they were of earlier origin by far than in Cyprus; even Tarentum, one of the latest of them, is but little subsequent; and like the Cypriote colonies, they were able to maintain themselves for some while after they were isolated from their fatherland. Their influence on the arts and industries of Apulia and Iapygia had been considerable, and lasted long. Yet in Sicily a completely new start had to be made altogether, with Archias and Theocles; even the sites of the settlements are not precisely the same. Only at Syracuse does the plural form of the name suggest that the memory of an originally multiple settlement had not quite died out when Archias landed on Quail Island. More surprising still, the new colonisation begins almost at the farthest end, at Syracuse and Naxos; there is long to wait even for Tarentum and the new Corinthian Corcyra; and longer still for Croton and Sybaris, which we should naturally have expected to precede the exploitation of Sicily. It is hardly conceivable that the first settlers ventured on the oceanic voyage direct from Cephallenia; either therefore there was some strong attraction in Sicily itself, or there was some good reason why they should pass by Magna Graecia. Such a reason would exist if Magna Graecia was preoccupied by the survivals of an earlier regime, and there is just enough indication of such survivals to make this alternative worth studying. Metapontum, certainly, and more vaguely others of the 'Achaean' group of cities, claimed origin from heroes 'returning from the Trojan War'; claims which, like those of a few sparse settlements which professed to be Phrygian or Trojan, seem clearly to point back to memories of the Late Minoan Age, and reinforce the glimpses of acquaintance with South Italy, and even with Sicily, which are given in the *Odyssey*. We should not perhaps lay too much stress on the 'Achaean' name which has so strangely adhered to these Magna Graecian towns; for they may very well have been 'Achaean' in that secondary sense which made Ἀχαιοὶ brother of Ἴων in the Hellenic family-tree—in the sense, namely, that the same stresses in Central Greece and the districts round

the Isthmus, which drove out eastward the men who colonised Ionia, were apparently believed to have thrust kindred exiles westward; more fortunate at the moment, because they had kinsmen of their own already oversea on the Late Minoan sites of the 'Trojan War series' such as we have now recovered, at Tarentum and elsewhere; but ultimately less enviable, in that the fair lands which they occupied had only agricultural value, and in addition were to be exposed, not once nor twice, to barbarous inroads not unlike those which they were trying to escape. To sum up a long story, in South Italy and Sicily, Minoan and Hellenic colonisations seem distinct but superimposed, whereas in Cyprus, as we have seen, they are merged. But the clue which comes to us in both cases from the archaeologists would be of little use in either, if we severed it from its geographic setting.

In the hope of commending to your interest an aspect of Greek studies which I confess has a growing fascination for myself, and I think I may venture to say for other students here, I have purposely confined myself to a few special instances, all characterised by comparative simplicity of structure and largeness of scale; not only because the distractions and entanglements of individual caprice are thereby made more nearly negligible, but also because in them we are on safer ground for our analysis of the geographic situation. For in the Mediterranean, as elsewhere, Nature, like Man, has an infinite diversity of detail, which a romanticist might call caprice, and a Greek respected as *τύχη*, while he shrank from converse with it. Only when we force ourselves to put the detail out of focus for a while, and look steadily, as the student of a geographic region must, at the larger uniformities, and those resultants of them which are calculable, do elements of order and instructiveness begin to emerge, and an outline of Greek colonisation as a whole, into which, when we come to the details, we may find that those details fit. Some day, but not now, it may be the time to dwell on the diversities, the idiosyncrasies, the wonderful likes and dislikes of individual cities and the men they bred; the geographical distribution of Eretrian, or Parian, or Megarian 'interests,' as bewildering as the colonial interests of Holland or Portugal or France would be if we had not the historic clue. To-day all

I have tried to do is to point to uniformities and trace broad outlines. If I have not succeeded in being very short, I hope I have at least been plain."

At 5 p.m. SIR ARCHIBALD GRIKIE delivered his Presidential Address :—

"Before beginning my Address I should like to be allowed to add an expression of my own sympathy to that which has been manifested to-day in regard to the loss which the Association and the country have sustained by the deaths of Mr. Butcher and Lord Collins. It is not easy to find words for my own deep regret at the loss of these personal friends. As members of the Association know, they had a rare power of endearing themselves to those privileged with their friendship. The death of Mr. Butcher is a national loss ; but to us it comes with a more personal touch. He was the life and soul of this Association. I suppose no man ever worked harder for the interests of an organisation with which he was connected than Mr. Butcher did for the Classical Association. We must all deeply regret that so gentle, kindly, and lovable a nature has passed away, and that we are without the help of his wise counsels and his sound scholarship. But he has left a memory that we shall cherish to the last moment of our lives.

When the Council of the Classical Association honoured me by proposing that I should accept the office of President of the Association, the first impression made on my mind by their letter was one of great astonishment. It seemed that somehow I had received a communication that must have been meant for some one else. I have no pretension to classical scholarship. I can only claim that in a life devoted to the prosecution of natural science I have not lost the taste for those classical studies which were a joy to me in my younger days. But they have been taken up by me only fitfully and at long intervals, as a relaxation in the midst of wholly different pursuits.

In considering the subject of the Address which it

would be my duty to deliver at the Annual General Meeting, I felt that to choose some scientific theme might be convenient to myself, but would be rather out of place before such an assembly as the present, while, on the other hand, I knew my weakness in the field of classical learning. Finally, I made choice of a subject which has long engaged my attention, and which recommended itself to me as in some degree a kind of compromise between classics and at least one aspect of natural science—that is, between your special studies and my own. I have found much enjoyment, as a student and lover of Nature, in tracing among the authors of antiquity the mental attitude shown by them towards the world around them, and in thus learning how far they expressed feelings that were in sympathy or at variance with those which prevail in our own day. I propose to consider the evidence for the existence of the love of nature among the Romans, and to inquire in what forms this feeling found utterance in literature and in art during the later decades of the Republic and the first century of the Empire—the golden age of Latin literature. This theme is obviously so wide that not more than a mere sketch of it can be comprised in a single address. Instead of attempting to range over the whole of its extent I shall restrict myself to a brief discussion of two or three subdivisions of it. But before entering upon this discussion let me invite your attention to some preliminary considerations.

We are sometimes told that the Romans were essentially a practical or even a prosaic people; that while in law, administration, military affairs, engineering, architecture, and other spheres of political and social activity they were unrivalled by any race in ancient times, yet in literature, in philosophy, in art, and in science they owed their knowledge and inspiration to the Greeks. There is a common belief that even when they gave expression to their own genuine and spontaneous sentiments they consciously or unconsciously imitated or actually reiterated what they had imbibed from the Hellenic world. That the intellectual debt of Rome to

Greece was gigantic has never been disputed, and was freely admitted by the Romans themselves. But such a masterful race could not always live in intellectual fetters. It eventually discovered how to find vent for its own convictions and feelings in its own forms of expression. There may be difficulty in always discriminating between what was borrowed from what was truly native. Yet careful analysis shows that after full allowance is made for Greek influence, a genuine national Roman spirit can be recognised both in literature and in art.

It is indeed inconceivable that an intellectual people could dwell in such a land as Italy without being directly and powerfully impressed by the various natural features around them, and without finding for these impressions and feelings language of their own choice. Probably no part of Europe is more eminently fitted to awaken national enthusiasm, to quicken the growth of a patriotic spirit, and at the same time to stimulate that love of nature which is implanted in man as one of his pristine instincts. Italy includes a conspicuous portion of the loftiest mountain chain on the Continent; it is traversed by ample rivers; it comprises numerous lakes, some embosomed among the northern mountains, others farther south, nestling within the craters of extinct volcanoes. From the cool, mossy springs among its hills rippling brooks descend into the plains. The geographical form and position of the country have given it a singularly wide range of climate, together with that diversity of vegetation which such a climatal range ensures. The soil in the cultivable areas is usually deep and fertile, yielding all kinds of crops, as well as the choicest flowers and fruits. On either side of the peninsula a long extent and endless variety of coast-line is washed by the two seas, which on their placid surface reflect the deep blue of the Italian sky.

Some of the physical features of the country have undoubtedly had a potent influence upon the history and development of its inhabitants. Among these features, of

special significance has been that of the broken and rugged chain of the Apennines, which runs down the whole length of the peninsula. In early times it served to separate various tribes from each other. To the dwellers on the plains along either flank of this great back-bone, the wider landscape has always been bounded by a mountainous distance on the one side, and by the far gleam of the open sea on the other. The western lowlands are diversified by many isolated eminences on whose summits citadels were built long ages ago, and by many groups of hills up whose steep slopes, from time immemorial, little towns have climbed (*'scandentes de vallibus arces'*) which still remain inhabited and form so characteristic and delightful an element in Italian scenery. From the northern frontier, with its snowy, pine-covered Alps, the traveller passes southward across the rich cornlands, rice-fields, and mulberry plantations of the Lombardy plains to the flanks of the Apennines, with their woods and meadows, their vineyards and olive-groves, which accompany him league after league until he finds himself among the palms, orange and lemon trees, myrtles, laurels, and the other characteristic plants of the southern provinces.

In one important respect the seashores of Italy wear an aspect different from that which is familiar in the countries of Western Europe. The Mediterranean being a nearly tideless sea, there is comparatively little variation in the level of its surface. Hence the frequent wide tidal flats, exposed between high and low water in so many bays and estuaries on the coasts of the Atlantic, are here absent. Day after day the water keeps nearly within the same limit along the shore, and the storms which disturb it, though sometimes severe, are less so than those of the ocean outside.

Another characteristic which marks off Italy from the rest of Europe is furnished by the volcanic energy of which the country has been the theatre since long before the advent of the earliest human population. The eruptions of Mount Etna were a source of wonder and awe throughout the basin of the Mediterranean ere the dawn of history. Made known

to the Hellenic world by the Greek colonists and traders, they afforded a theme for Greek poets long before any Latin singer had arisen to recount their terrors. It was not only in Sicily, however, that such manifestations of subterranean commotion took place. The islands of Lipari and Vulcano occasionally broke out in eruption. Stromboli, which is still constantly active, appears to have been in this state as far back as history extends. Ischia, too, has again and again been the scene of disastrous outbreaks. Nor is it difficult to believe that some of the numerous now extinct craters that stud the region from Campania to Tuscany may have continued their eruptions after the aboriginal settlers appeared among them, for even now hot springs and emissions of sulphurous and other mephitic vapours show that the subterranean fires are smouldering not far beneath the surface. Furthermore, Italy from the remotest time has been subject to earthquakes, not infrequently of a disastrous type. These various manifestations of mysterious underground energy could not but deeply impress the imagination of primitive races, engendering superstition and colouring the popular conceptions of an underworld.

A land so varied in its scenery, so benign in its climate, so fertile in its soil, so exuberant in its vegetation, so prolific, therefore, in its ministrations to the well-being of man, has been feelingly claimed by one of its modern poets to have been dowered with 'the gift of beauty.' Two thousand years ago the same natural charms existed, and it would have been strange had the Romans proved insensible to them. There can be little doubt, indeed, that an appreciation of these charms was one of the grounds of that national sentiment of patriotism for which the Romans were distinguished among the peoples of antiquity. The more they saw and learnt of other countries, the stronger grew their conviction that none of those was so pleasant a land to dwell in as Italy, for nowhere had Nature so bountifully poured out her riches for the service of man. This pride in their fatherland is well brought out in the picturesque

scene with which Varro prefaces his treatise on agriculture. He describes how when he entered the temple of the goddess Tellus he found there a group of his friends waiting for the return of the sacristan, and looking at a painting of Italy which appropriately decorated the opposite wall. One of the company jocosely remarked that as according to the old proverb 'the Roman conquers by sitting down,' they should meanwhile seat themselves on the benches. The map (or perhaps allegorical figure) of their country led to a conversation on the various merits of Italy, which in their opinion might be regarded as a vast orchard, that yielded in abundance everything useful to man. What spelt, they asked, could be compared to that of Campania, what corn to that of Apulia, what wine to that of Falernum, what olive oil to that of Venafrum? ¹

The same patriotic fervour breathes through the poetry of ancient Rome. It finds its fullest expression in the writings of Virgil. The contemplation of the manifold glories of Italy awakened in that sweet singer a vivid emotion and became a main inspiration of his muse. Now and again, as in the often-quoted passage in the second Georgic, his feelings on this subject found vent in a burst of enthusiasm, which grew more overmastering as the varied elements of Italy's loveliness and strength passed in succession before his poetic vision—her eternal spring, her rich fields of corn, her vines and olives, her abundant flocks and herds, her many lakes—the huge Larius and sea-like Benacus—her winding shores washed by two seas, her numerous havens, her wealth in veins of brass and silver and in the gold of her rivers, her noble cities, her many towns perched on rugged heights, with rivers gliding beneath their antique walls.² Such passages may be cited not only in proof of the poet's intense loyalty to the land of his birth, but as evidence of his vivid appreciation of the beauties of Nature. The richness of the Italian landscape filled him with joy, while at the same time it brought to his remembrance the

¹ *De Re Rust.* I. ii. 1.

² *Georg.* II. 136-65.

deeds of the illustrious men of the past by whom the country had been fused into one nation and had been made the mistress of the world.

‘Salve, magna parens frugum, Saturnia tellus,
Magna virum.’

This commingling of the most devoted patriotism with a deep and pure affection for Nature gives to the poetry of Virgil an undying charm.

The divisions of my theme which I have selected for consideration on this occasion are four in number. First, Flowers; second, Rural scenes; third, Mountains; and fourth, the Sea.

I. The love of flowers is one of the simplest and most rudimentary forms of a feeling for Nature. Beginning in earliest childhood, it advances by insensible degrees in races as in individuals, until it grows into that affectionate appreciation of the mute appeal made to the human heart by meadow and woodland, moor and mountain, sea and sky, which becomes one of the purest pleasures of life.

Among the Romans the love of flowers was intense and universal. It pervaded their social customs, it found expression in their art, and it often gave a tender touch to their literature. The wearing of wreaths on festive occasions and at ordinary meals was a pretty usage, though it came to be debased by ostentatious luxury. Flowers appeared at bridals, at burials, and on endless other occasions when joy or sympathy was to be expressed.

Beyond these more or less domestic uses, flowers played a prominent part as subjects for painting and sculpture. No feature in the internal decoration of a Roman dwelling-house was more conspicuous than the profusion with which flowers, leaves, and fruit appeared in the frescoes on the walls both of the rooms and of the open courts. The visitor to Pompeii or to the treasures of the Naples museum cannot fail to be impressed with the exuberance of this floral display. Although much of the vegetation is conventionalised to

suit the recurrent festoons and garlands that stretch their graceful forms across the walls, we can easily see that the plants were copied directly from nature, for their forms and colours are often accurately rendered. Still more artistic and elaborate are the detailed floral studies in some of the ancient mansions which have been uncovered in and near Rome.

Among the relics of Roman sculpture in the Augustan age none are more impressive for their truthfulness and their exquisite grace of treatment than the leaves, flowers, fruit, and branches carved on the Ara Pacis and other monuments of the same period. It has been well remarked by Mrs. Strong that while 'plants appear in Greek art only to be conventionalised into architectural forms, in Roman art the love of natural form conquers the stylistic tendency. To those who are familiar with the conventional forms of the lotus in Egyptian art, or of the acanthus in Greek art, it is almost a surprise that even the political Imperial plants, the symbolic laurel, the oak, and the olive, were never conventionalised, but showered their shapely leaves and fruit over every space artistically available.'¹

In Latin literature appreciation of flowers is often expressed, and among the poets has suggested some pathetic similes. Thus, when Catullus, broken-hearted at the faithlessness of his beloved, thought of quitting Italy in despair, the image that seemed most fitly to symbolise his own blighted affection was that of 'a flower on the edge of the meadow which has been caught by the passing ploughshare.'² His tender feeling for flowers is conspicuous in the familiar passage wherein he compares a maiden before and after marriage to 'a flower that has grown sequestered in a fenced garden, unknown to cattle, upturned by no plough, caressed by the breeze, strengthened by the sun, nourished by the shower, and coveted by many a youth and many a maiden. But after it has been culled from its slender stalk, it fades away, and is then coveted neither by maidens nor youths.'³

¹ *Roman Sculpture from Augustus to Constantine*, 1907, p. 76.

² Catullus, XI. 22.

³ LXII. 39.

Still more luxuriantly do flowers bloom almost everywhere in the poetry of Virgil. Like his own bees ('tantus amor florum') he loved to linger among the banks of wild thyme and violets, noting by name and affixing some appropriate epithet to each plant that had given him pleasure—the scented anise, the late-flowering narcissus, the white lily, the bee-haunted saffron, the bending acanthus, the lowly bloom, the soft hyacinth, the yellow marigold, the wan-coloured ivy, the shore-loving myrtle, the blue-grey willow, and the generous, long-lived olive, fosterer of peace. Even in the *Aeneid*, where, amid scenes of carnage, the poet chooses an image that will deepen our sympathy for the untimely fate of a hero, he compares the dead body of the youthful Pallas to 'a blossom plucked by a maiden's hand from tender violet or drooping hyacinth, which has not yet lost its radiance and beauty, though it can no longer draw sustenance from its mother earth.'¹

A love of flowers involved a fondness for gardens, and no feature in Roman domestic life was more conspicuous than the desire to gratify this taste. Not only around the large mansions in the city (like the 'magnos Senecae praedivitis hortos'), but even within the enclosing walls of small houses, room was found for plots of flowers, or a shrubbery, a group of trees, or even sometimes a single tree. No visitor to Pompeii can fail to be struck with the frequency of these intramural gardens. They may be only a few square yards in extent, and they are to be found even in small and modest dwellings closely pent between narrow streets. Outside of the walls of a town space could be given to much more extensive gardens and pleasure-grounds.

One of the objects in the formation of a Roman garden was, as Cato prescribed, to supply the family with the floral chaplets that were needed for festivals or daily use. Another end was to provide, where possible, green shade in the open air during the heat of summer. We can imagine the care with which the shrubs and trees in a town garden were

¹ *Aen.* XI. 68.

tended, when the family was too poor to migrate from the city during the hot season.

In all the gardens, whether urban or rural, and whether small or large, art and nature were combined in a characteristic fashion. Where space permitted, straight tree-shaded alleys, formal terraces, close-trimmed hedges, and shrubs cut into all manner of topiarian vagaries, were interspersed with statues, hermae, vases, and other architectural objects. Even among the tiny gardens within some Pompeian houses the same taste was displayed in miniature; the flower plots had their spouting statuettes and mosaic fountains that kept up a pleasing murmur of falling water.

II. In the early days of the Republic, when Rome was comparatively small, and its inhabitants were still for the most part engaged in agriculture, probably little difference in habits and tastes existed between those who dwelt within the walls and those whose daily work and domicile lay outside. But with the growth of the city and the consequent increase in the requirements and amusements of urban life, there gradually grew up a diversity of manners and morals between the town-bred and the country-bred parts of the population. The rural inhabitants, especially in the upland districts, long retained their simple life, their industry, and frugality, while in Rome the growing luxury of the upper classes, the idleness and thriftlessness of the lower orders, together with all the evils arising from a constantly increasing servile population, led to a serious relaxation of the pristine virtues of the Latin race. Before the end of the Republic this deterioration was plainly perceived by observant men, and some efforts were made to stem its progress. Varro, who held that 'divine Nature had given the fields, while human art had built the cities,' thought it wise policy to bring the people back to the land. He maintained that the peasantry 'had led a pious and useful life, and were the only representatives left of the virtuous race that lived in the reign of Saturn.'¹

¹ *De Re Rust.* III. i. 4, 5,

One important result of the growth of the city was to drive the well-to-do classes into the country during a part of the year. Owing to its dust and smoke, and the tumult of its noises, Rome grew by degrees so intolerable in summer that escape to some country retreat was made by all who could afford the expense of removal. Tibullus thought a man must be made of iron who could remain in Rome.¹ By the time of Statius, as the Dog-days drew near, the throng of society in the city used rapidly to thin, and the numerous country retreats received their summer visitors. Some of the citizens made for Praeneste, others for the cool grove of Diana at Lake Nemi, or the forests of Mount Algidus, or shady Tusculum, or the pleasant freshness of the Anio among the woods of Tibur.² A large proportion of the migrants went to the seaside, which all the way from the mouth of the Tiber southward to the far side of the Bay of Naples was dotted with little towns and an almost continuous chain of villas. The 'mansiones' on the high roads were not attractive dwellings, while the 'cauponae' and 'tabernae' in the country towns and rural districts were generally small, dirty, and crowded, so that the erection of private houses in the country became absolutely necessary. The wealthier Romans provided themselves with villas in different districts, that they might vary their retreats according to the season of the year. Even Cicero, who would hardly in those days have been accounted rich, had some seven seaside houses along the shores of Latium and Campania, besides his larger villas at Tusculum and Arpinum.³

The annual summer exodus from Rome became the vogue, and the demands of fashion appear to have been not less imperious in those days than they are now. Of the multitude that fled from the city, the proportion may have

¹ *Eleg.* II. iii. 2.

² *Silvae.* IV. iv.

³ It appears from his letters that he had a house of his own at Antium, Astura, Forminae, Sinuessa, Cumae, Puteoli, and Pompeii. He appears to have been fond of making a round of sojourns at these houses, spending a few days at each in succession.

been small of those who had a genuine love of the country and of a simple life there in the enjoyment of Nature. As many urban dissipations as could be transported were no doubt carried to these various summer resorts, and probably many of the sojourners were glad enough when the passing of the summer heats allowed them to resume their gay life in the city.

To those, however, who took pleasure in the fresh and open face of Nature, these temporary absences from the ‘*magnae vaga murmura Romae*’ must have recruited mind as well as body. To such a man as Cicero, for instance, they were of the utmost value in resting and restoring his mental powers. He tells us that it was his habit to keep up his spirits by seeking rivers and solitude, and that when at rare intervals he could escape for a few days from his duties in Rome, he was glad to retreat to his native home at Arpinum, among the picturesque defiles of the Fibrenus and Liris, where the extreme beauty of the scenery, the solitude and the health-giving air of the place, reinvigorated him.¹ The younger Pliny, also, in describing his Laurentine villa, breaks out into an apostrophe to its charms—‘O Sea, O Shore, true and retired place for study! how much have you taught me! how many thoughts have you inspired!’²

The feelings of pleasure awakened by country sights and sounds find full and joyous utterance among the Latin poets. These writers delighted in depicting rural scenes. Even when they lived in Rome, it was not in the city but in the memory of what they had seen and heard among the woods and meadows, by the brooks and rivers, or by the shores of the sea that they found their inspiration. It is interesting to trace how these rural influences impressed the colossal genius of Lucretius. Among all the poets of ancient or modern time, he stands out as the one who may most fittingly, and in the widest sense, be called the poet of Nature. As a philosopher and man of science, he devoted

Epist. Att. XIII. xvi. ; *Epist. Quint. Fr.* III. i. ; *De Leg.* II. i.

² *Epist.* I. ix.

his life to the contemplation and investigation of the universe. His intense and insatiable desire was to seek out and to interpret to mankind the hidden causes and inter-connections of all the changes that are unceasingly in progress on earth, sea, and sky. Following the teaching of his master Epicurus, he had gathered much knowledge which he believed would benefit his fellow men, and he threw his whole soul into the task of expounding this knowledge and showing what he believed to be its practical utility in dealing with the most serious problems of human life. No one has ever had a more vivid perception of the beauty and harmony, the regulated movement and order of the universe. Creation and decay were seen by him to be the invariable system ; but he also recognised that there had been an upward evolution both in inanimate and animate forms. He was filled with what he called 'a divine pleasure and awe'¹ as he contemplated Nature, and in language often rugged, but sometimes impressively noble and solemn, he tried to convey to others what he conceived to have been the history of this world. He seems at times, indeed, to doubt whether any language would be adequate to reveal what with his mental vision he had seen and learnt, or to impart the thrill of delight with which his contemplation of the inner workings of Nature had filled his own soul.

And yet this sublime poet, soaring amid the heights of his atomic philosophy, had the tenderest and most human of hearts, full of sympathy for sorrow and suffering, whether in man or beast. Amid all his speculation he retained his love of the simple beauty of the lowliest flower, and his interest in the welfare of every living creature. His great poem abounds with passages which show how closely he noted the changes of the sky and the varied aspect of the earth in the succession of the seasons, with what kindly feeling he watched the toil of the husbandman, and with what tender sympathy and profound melancholy he felt the sadness and the frailty of human life. Let me give only a

¹ *De Rer. Nat.* III, 28.

single quotation from his poem in proof of how genuine and all-embracing was Lucretius's love of the country: 'At last the rains cease which our father the sky has showered upon the bosom of our mother the earth. Luxuriant crops spring up, and the branches grow green upon the trees, which are soon heavy with fruit. From these sources our own race and the race of beasts are nourished; thence, too, we see happy towns alive with children, and the leafy woods ringing on every side with the voices of young birds; thence, also, the fat cattle rest their wearied bodies amid the glad pastures, while the milky stream flows from their distended udders, and a new brood, made light-hearted with the pure milk, sports wantonly with feeble limbs upon the tender grass.'¹

By none of the Latin poets were the rural landscapes of Italy sketched so often and with such loving devotion as by Virgil. Born on the fertile plains of the Po, yet within sight of the towering Alps on the one side and the heights of the Apennines on the other, he was fortunate in the smiling landscapes amidst which his youth was passed. They inspired his earliest verse; and in after years, when he had risen to fame and had long quitted his paternal home, these same scenes continued to fire his imagination and to give a life and charm to all his poetry.² Thus, what he called, in a striking phrase, the '*divini gloria ruris*,' which had irradiated his boyhood, remained with him as a bright and animating influence to the end of his life.

¹ *Op. cit.* i. 250.

² If the last eight lines of the fourth Georgic can be understood to mean, what they seem literally to imply, that the whole poem was written at Naples, Virgil's memory for the details of the scenery and rural life amidst which he spent his youth must have been extraordinarily retentive. His descriptions and allusions are given with as much force and accuracy as if the landscapes of the north were still present before his eyes. The many similes in the *Aeneid* drawn from his youthful reminiscences bear still stronger testimony to the fidelity of his observation and the pleasure he took in recalling scenes which he so vividly remembered.

The whole atmosphere of the Eclogues is that of the country, and more especially of the district in which the poet was born. We seem to see the green meadows along the reed-fringed river-banks, the line of venerable beech-trees with their doddered tops, near the little farmyard that was perhaps his own early home, and the far-off lofty mountains that cast their long evening shadows across the plain. We seem to hear the murmur of bees from his willow-hedge, the cooing of his wood-pigeons, and the moan of the turtle-dove from the tall elm-tree.

It was in the composition of the Georgics, however, that Virgil found fullest scope for the expression of his joy in rural scenes and his meditative appreciation of Nature. The subject he chose was nominally the rules and practice of agriculture, which had been recently discussed by Varro in a precise and methodical manner. But to Virgil it proved a congenial theme for poetic treatment. Illumined by his imagination, rich in his own practical experience of country life, and affording at every turn opportunities for the expression of his love of woods and fields, of meadows and streams, and of life in every form, it became in his hands one of the great masterpieces of literature, wherein the varying aspects of earth and sea and sky are depicted with the most enthusiastic affection and the most consummate art.

The poet's boyhood and youth had given him an intimate knowledge of the life of the farmer and a warm feeling for the trials which, even in so favoured a country as Italy, affected farming. In his poem he amply recognises the laborious and unintermittent toil of the husbandman. The struggle with Nature, wherein man is not always the victor, awakens Virgil's sympathy. Yet in spite of here and there thin or ungenial soil, or inclement seasons, or insect-plagues, or other too numerous evils, he feels assured that in all the range of human employments, no lot is more to be envied than that of one who has to till the soil or to rear flocks and herds. And to illustrate how far this lot is happier than that of the sailor, the soldier, the merchant, or

the politician, he draws the well-known picture of the old-style farmer with which he closes the second *Georgic*.

As another and remarkable example of the influence of an early life in the country upon a poetic temperament we may look for a few moments at the case of Horace. He was born, not in a luxuriant plain, like that where Virgil first saw the light, but in a somewhat rugged and sterile territory on the eastern flank of the Apulian Apennines. Of this early home the poet retained two vivid impressions, to which occasional allusion is made in his verse. He remembered it as 'pauper aquae,' for in summer many of the springs and brooks cease to flow at the surface, and the drainage in large measure finds its way towards the sea in underground passages among the limestone rocks. But still more did he recall the one large river of the district, the Aufidus, which, while in the hot season it may dwindle to a mere shrunken streamlet, in seasons of heavy rain bears headlong to the Adriatic the accumulated waters of the greater part of Apulia. The floods of this river remained in his memory as a kind of type of Nature in her most energetic mood. Every time he takes occasion to bring its name into his poems, he couples with it a different epithet, indicative of its impetuosity and destructiveness, as it rushed along with a roar that could be heard from far. Not improbably it was to some catastrophe which he had himself witnessed, or had heard of, that he refers when he speaks of men who, greedily seeking for more than their fair share of this world's goods, are apt to be swept away, together with the bank on which they stand, by the fury of the 'Aufidus acer.' And when he wished to picture the irresistible onset of the Roman army against the barbarians, he likens it to the 'bull-like Aufidus as he waxes wroth, and rushes down with dire havoc upon the fertile plains below.'¹

Horace was an eminently social being. He must have been excellent company, and he was consequently welcomed among the cultivated circles of his day. A stranger, intro-

¹ *Sat. I. i. 58; Carm. IV. xiv. 25.*

duced to him as he strolled along the Via Sacra, might have taken him for a typical 'man-about-town,' well acquainted with the latest gossip of good society, and not unfamiliar with the newest tricks of the cheats and jugglers and fortune-tellers of the Circus and the Forum. That he was fond of Rome and its varied life cannot be doubted. Yet it seems equally clear that he did not find there his greatest happiness. He calls himself a 'ruris amator,'¹ and there is no reason to doubt the truth of his assertion that in the midst of the stir and noise of the city he often longed ('meus animusque'²) for the quiet of his country home, where he found the fullest pleasures of his life. He complained that amidst the turmoils of town he found it impossible to write poems.³ But at his little farm among the Sabine Hills, which he owed to the appreciation and generosity of Maecenas, among the fields and woods which he loved, by the clear Bandusian spring and the prattling brook Digentia with its mossy rocks, he felt restored to himself and to the Muses. It was in the midst of these surroundings that he found his highest inspiration. He compares himself to the Matinian bee, flitting over banks of wild thyme, by wood and stream.⁴ Or at times he would lie stretched in reverie upon the sward near the mouldering shrine of some half-forgotten native divinity,⁵ for human associations ever mingled with his delight in Nature. Thus to the varied and genial influences of this little valley among the Apennines, literature is largely indebted for the *Odes*, which have been a perennial joy to every successive generation, and have placed Horace in the first rank of lyric poets.

III. Until hardly more than a century and a half ago, as is well known, mountains, all over the world, were looked upon with general abhorrence as barren, repulsive, and

¹ *Epist.* I. x. 2.

² *Epist.* I. xiv. 8.

³ A century later the same complaint was made by Martial, *Epig.* X. lviii. lxx. ; XII. lvii.

⁴ *Carm.* IV. ii. 27.

⁵ *Epist.* I. x. 49.

dangerous parts of the earth's surface, haunted by wild beasts, and in some places by still wilder men ; therefore to be avoided, or only to be traversed when necessity compelled, and then with due circumspection and every precaution against possible disaster. Yet when we remember the conspicuous place which mountains hold in Italian landscape, it may seem strange that they should have received such scant treatment in Latin literature. On the northern frontier the chain of the Alps had to be crossed by the Roman armies before the transalpine territories could be conquered and incorporated into the Empire. After the Conquest came the crowd of traders who, following the standard, established communications with all parts of the subject lands. The various passes, especially after good roads had been made through them, must have been frequently traversed and become fairly well known by the beginning of the Christian era. Again, the range of the Apennines brought mountain scenery within reach of everybody, from one end of the peninsula to the other. Yet to our modern eyes it may seem astonishing that not only is little notice taken of these conspicuous features in the scenery of the country by the writers either of prose or verse, but that such brief references as are made to them not infrequently include some accompanying epithet of disparagement.

Of all the poets of the golden age of Latin literature, Lucretius is the only one who appears to have himself climbed mountains. His keen interest in the grand elemental forces of Nature would naturally lead him into those rugged, lofty, and solitary regions, where cloud and storm have the noblest theatre for their display. He complains, indeed, that half the surface of the earth has been greedily seized on by mountains, the forests of wild beasts, rocks, desolate swamps, and the sea.¹ But he alludes to some of his own experience in the ascent of mountains, and in watching the movements of clouds above their summits. He speaks of wandering among the dark hills and waking the echoes by

¹ *De Rer. Nat.* V. 200.

shouting for his companions. After a picturesque account of a review of great legions on the plains, with their marches and charges of infantry and cavalry, he adds that, seen from a place among the high mountains, this tumultuous mass of men appears to be at rest. In another passage he alludes to forest fires among the mighty mountains.¹ But there is no indication throughout the poem that the impressive scenery of these regions had exercised any special fascination on his mind, or left there any marked and indelible impression.

Although Virgil was born and spent his youth within sight of the Alps on the one side and the Apennines on the other, neither range draws from him any description or encomium. He several times merely mentions the Alps, and once refers to the pine-clad Vesulus (Monte Viso), the loftiest and most prominent peak to the west of the basin of the Po. The Eclogues contain allusions to mountains that are not named. Virgil's most detailed reference to the subject is, if I mistake not, that in which he alludes to 'great Father Apenninus as he roars with his quivering ilexes and joys to raise his snowy crest into the air.'² All the poet's references are to mountains at a distance, which form the background of his landscapes. Of their inner scenery he says nothing.

Horace, too, gives us no mountain pictures, though he frequently alludes to the heights as beheld from afar. It is easy to see from the epithets with which he couples his references that mountains had no attraction for him. They are in his vocabulary cold, wintry, snowy, remote, inhospitable, frightful; but not a word is said of any grandeur or beauty they may in themselves possess. And this is all the more remarkable in his case, seeing that his farm lay among rocky scenery, and not far from the higher and wilder part of the Sabine mountains.

Even Catullus, whose home was on the Lago di Garda, with its mountain ridges on either side and the snowy Alps at no great distance beyond, makes no mention of these

¹ *Op. cit.* I. 897; II. 331; IV. 575.

² *Aen.* XII. 703.

uplands, save on one occasion when he refers to 'marching across the lofty Alps.' His exquisite sonnet on Sirmio contains no allusion to the mountainous girdle that encircles the lake.

Nor are prose-writers more appreciative of the grander features of Italian scenery. Thus Cicero, when discussing the force of habit which reconciles us to what we may naturally dislike, remarks that we may come to find pleasure even in mountainous and wooded places, if we have lived long enough in them.¹ The younger Pliny, who had several villas on the Lake of Como, and was exceedingly fond of that district, in which he was born, praises the view of the lake in letters to a friend, but has nothing to say of the mountains on which, to our modern eyes, the charm of the scenery so greatly depends. Again, when he describes in some detail the views to be seen from his Tuscan villa in the vale of the Tiber, and from a neighbouring height, he makes no reference to the scenery of the adjacent Apennines.²

Little can be learnt from the extant ancient frescoes as to the conception which the Italian artists had of mountain forms. In the large collection of these mural paintings at Naples a few small landscapes show distant blue mountains and near conical wooded hills. But probably the most interesting, though least artistic, representations in that series are to be found in some of the foregrounds and backgrounds of the mythological or other figure-pictures, where what may be called caricatures of rocky ground are introduced. Naked rocks are shown in 'impossible positions, impending in dangerous instability or branching out into rugged fantastic arms from a narrow base on the ground. It would seem that in these cases the artists, instead of drawing from any actual rocky landscape, endeavoured, entirely from imagination, to reproduce in visible form the widespread popular conception of the horrors of the mountain world, where rocks in all varieties of fantastic and threatening shapes forbade the approach of man.

¹ *De Amic.* 19.

² *Epist.* I. iii. ; II. viii. ; V. vi.

IV. A striking contrast is to be remarked between the Greeks and the Romans in their relation to the sea. Subdivided by the waters of the Aegean into innumerable islands and peninsulas, where the scattered communities could keep in touch with each other only by boat or ship, Greece naturally became a nursery of seamen. Her more adventurous spirits sailed westward and founded colonies on the most distant shores of the Mediterranean. This national familiarity with the sea is abundantly reflected in Greek literature. From the time of

‘That blind bard who on the Chian strand,
By those deep sounds possessed with inward light,
Beheld the Iliad and the Odyssee
Rise to the swelling of the voiceful sea,’

the epithets applied to the deep throughout Greek poetry show how much its endless variety of surface and colour, its beauty and its majesty, appealed to the Hellenic imagination.

Italy, with its peninsular form and its indented coastline, might have been supposed to be likely to foster a strong body of sailors. But as communication between the different parts of the country could be maintained by land, there was much less occasion there for transport by water. Moreover, the Latin race and the surrounding tribes which it gradually absorbed into the growing Republic were mainly farmers and shepherds. When they came into conflict with Carthage they realised for the first time the necessity of being strong at sea as well as on land. Having, however, no fleet of war-galleys, they had to borrow vessels from the more important Greek colonies in Southern Italy¹ Not until the year 260 B.C., during the first Punic war, were they able to build a navy of their own. Yet it was not commanded by Romans, but by Italian Greeks, while its crews were made up of men from the subject states and even of slaves and outcasts.² The naval service, indeed, was never held in high esteem among the Romans. After the destruction of

¹ Polybius, *Hist.* I. xx.

² Mommsen, *History of Rome*, Books III, V.

Carthage the fleet was allowed to fall into such neglect that piracy became rampant in the Mediterranean. In the year 67 B.C. Pompey cleared the seas of the corsairs; but not until Augustus had established strong fleets at Ravenna, Misenum, and Frejus could sea-borne commerce pass freely to the Atlantic ports on the one side and to the shores of India on the other, and the Romans could be regarded as

‘Lords of the wide world and wild watery seas.’

Yet although a considerable seafaring element may have grown up in the population from the early years of the Empire onward, the changes and excitements of sea-voyages do not seem to have had much attraction for civilians. Here and there a philosopher journeyed to make acquaintance with far countries, or a tourist travelled to scenes of historic or scientific interest, or youths went to Greece for purposes of study; but for the most part, only men who had some official duty abroad or an overmastering curiosity to visit foreign scenes ventured upon the open sea.

Nevertheless, Roman society towards the end of the Republic and during most of the Empire may be said to have had a passion for the sea-coast to which so large a flock of visitors repaired in the summer season. As I have already said, the whole western shores of Italy, from the mouth of the Tiber to Sorrento, were crowded with these annual migrants, to whom the freshness of a sea-breeze was a welcome change from the stifling air of the town, and a wide view of the open Mediterranean was a delightful relief from the close-pent houses and narrow, noisy streets of Rome.

On the less-frequented parts of the coast there was much to engage the attention of those who cared to watch the changes of sea and sky and the effects of these changes on the land. To Virgil, for example, the margin of the sea seems to have been a favourite place for observation and meditation, and he has put into words some memorable records of his musings there. Although his early years

were passed in an inland district, he had doubtless with his own eyes beheld the mirror-like surface of the neighbouring Adriatic, and had listened to the murmur of its waves breaking on the flat shore.¹ But it was only after he made his home on the Bay of Naples that he became fully familiar with all the varying moods of the sea in calm and storm. His acuteness of observation as well as his gift of felicitous expression are well exemplified in the similes which he takes from the sea, alike in the *Georgics* and the *Aeneid*. In one of these passages he pictures a wave beginning to whiten with foam while still far from land, bearing its broad breast from the deep and rolling onward to the shore, like a mountain, till at last it breaks in loudest thunder upon the rocks, while the surge boils up from its deepest eddies and whirls the black sand aloft.² The application of the term 'black' to sand in this simile deserves remark, for ordinary shore sand is familiarly known to be pale yellow or even white. There can be little doubt, however, that the epithet accurately describes what the poet himself saw. We may not improbably infer that the storm which supplied him with his image occurred in the Bay of Naples, where the sand in some rocky places is black from the trituration of the dark lavas of the district.³

It must be confessed, however, that the general burden of Latin poetry in regard to the sea is one of disparagement and complaint, sometimes even of passionate invective. We look there in vain for anything akin to the enthusiastic admiration of the beauty and grandeur of the ocean, now so fully recognised by the modern world. Even Lucretius, whose imagination was so alive to the mighty energies of

¹ *Eclog.* II. 26; V. 83; IX. 57.

² *Georg.* III. 237-41.

³ This inference derives support from a passage in the *Aeneid* (IX. 715) where reference is made to the building of the villa substructures at the Bay of Baiae. Huge masses of stony materials were there launched into the sea, which was so convulsed as to throw up the black sands and to raise a tumult that reverberated to Procida and Ischia.

materials had been brought of which her frame was built. He was evidently pleased to picture to himself the birth-place of his favourite yacht, to think of her native forest and the wind whistling through the pines that had supplied her timbers. He appealed to Pontic Amastris and box-clad Cytorus as witnesses that these timbers had once waved green on their mountains and that her oars had first been dipped in their waters. From that far-distant clime the vessel had borne her master through many furious seas and through all kinds of weather, until at last, quitting the salt main, she was steered up the broad rivers Po and Mincio into the placid lake of Garda, where in peaceful old age she was dedicated to the sailor's friends Castor and Pollux.

Recollections of this voyage or of others made by the poet are sprinkled all through his poetry. There can be little doubt, for instance, that the beautiful description of the dawn at sea, in the 'Peleus and Thetis,' represents a scene which he himself witnessed from the deck, when the first breath of morning was roughening the placid deep, and the wavelets, rippling gently with the sound of laughter against the sides of the vessel, broadened more and more as the breeze freshened and as they glided far away from the brilliant reflection of the rising sun.

The same masterpiece among his poems begins with a striking exordium wherein the thought of the voyage of the Argonauts at once calls up, with characteristic enthusiasm, a vision of the pine-clad Mount Pelion, whence, according to tradition, the timbers of their vessel were brought. Pallas herself had built the frame, joining the ribs to the curved keel, and completing a sea-chariot which would fly before the lightest breath of wind. The memory of the deeds of his own yacht may well have risen in the poet's remembrance as he pictures the *Argo*, the first vessel that ever dared to scour the blue deep, now under sail and scudding across a windy sea, and now speeding along under oars that lashed the water into white foam. As in imagination he

watches her progress, he thinks how in that heroic age ('*nimis optato saeculorum tempore*'), when gods and men were young, the faces of the Nereids would peer above the waves to gaze with wonder on this new monster of the Ocean.¹

Although he made little account of them, Catullus did not wholly escape the storms that beset the Adriatic and Aegean waters. He speaks of having sailed through many furious seas ('*tot impotentia freta*'²), but he avers that never did he make any vows for safety to the gods of the shores by which he sailed,³ whence we may perhaps infer that he rather enjoyed rough weather at sea. But his crew were probably less self-possessed, and he may have been thinking of them when in an ode to his friend Manlius he alludes to the prayers to Castor and Pollux for a calm and prosperous voyage offered up by the sailors who have been tossed about in a dark tempest.

In his cruises the poet would learn the seaman's habit of scanning the changes of the winds and other aspects of the sky and the weather. The fickleness of atmospheric conditions, together with their independence and disregard of all human wishes and efforts, had doubtless impressed him in his musings on shipboard. He puts his own experience into the mouth of Ariadne when he makes her exclaim, 'Why do I vainly complain to the regardless and senseless winds, which can neither hear the words addressed to them, nor return any reply?'⁴ And when she is forsaken by Theseus the faithless memory of the hero is likened by the poet to the clouds which, driven by the winds, leave the lofty crest of a snowy mountain—a simile which may be a recollection of what he had seen when coasting past the ranges of Thrace, or perhaps a reminiscence of the Alps beyond the far recesses of the Lago di Garda.

The epithets applied by Catullus to the sea and its

¹ Catullus, LXIV. 1-18.

² IV. 18. In the touching poem on his brother's tomb he speaks of himself as "*multas per gentes, et multa per aequora vectus*" (CI. i.).

³ IV. 22.

⁴ LXIV. 164.

shores are always felicitously descriptive, and such as would naturally be selected by a man to whom the objects were familiar and pleasant to recall. He more than once picturesquely varies the word for 'shore' (*litus*) by using in its stead the word for 'seaweed' (*alga*) in allusion to a characteristic feature of the strand. His seafaring experience suggested the figurative language in which he alludes to human grief, as where he compares his sorrowing friend Manlius to a 'shipwrecked man who has been cast ashore by the foaming waves of the deep,' and speaks of himself, mourning the loss of a beloved brother, as one 'plunged in the billows of misfortune.' His eye had been continually fixed with delight on the waves breaking along lines of beach, and he refers again and again to a whitening shore ('*albicans litus*') and foaming shores ('*spumosa litora*').¹ The ceaseless motion of the sea greatly impressed his imagination—the '*tremuli salis undas*,' the '*ponti truculentum aequor*,' the '*rapidum salum truculentaque pelagi*,' with their '*spumantibus undis*.'² The cadence of his verse seems at times to be charged with the life and movement of the waves, as where in two lines he brings before eye and ear the plunge of the breakers on a far stretch of sandy beach :

'Litus ut longe resonante Eoa
Tunditur unda.'³

In conclusion : if for a few moments we look back across the gulf of twenty centuries, and try to form a mental vision of that momentous period of human history which has supplied the memorials that have engaged our attention this evening, the first impression that suggests itself is apt to be one of continual unrest. We see the downfall of the Republic under which Rome achieved greatness, and from amidst the carnage of civil war and the ruins of political liberty we note the rise of a great military empire. We think of the alternations of benevolent despotism and brutal

¹ LXIII. 87 ; LXIV. 121.

³ XI. 3

² LXIV. 128, 155 ; LXIII. 179.

tyranny which marked the course of that empire through the centuries. We observe the ancient national cult still holding an enfeebled sway over the main mass of the population, but rejected and derided by the more educated members of the community, and invaded by new and strange forms of superstition and worship from Egypt and the East. We seem to hear the discordant voices of the different schools of philosophy, each with its specious panacea for the ills of humanity. We realise that religion and morals no longer controlled men as they had done in bygone days, and that although efforts were made to restore their influence, no serious arrest of their decay was accomplished. We perceive that amid the general ferment, Christianity, the cause of the most gigantic moral upheaval that had ever visited mankind, was steadily making its way into every region under the sway of Rome.

And yet during the period with which we are dealing there were long intervals of outward quiescence, when the Pax Romana was maintained throughout the vast empire. The establishment of a strong central government gave a powerful stimulus to commerce and industry. Wealth rapidly increased and became more generally distributed, bringing in its train an acceleration of luxury and extravagance. Nevertheless, in spite of this material prosperity, the openings for the gratification of political ambition and the attainment of civic distinction, which had been one of the distinctive features of the Republic, tended to become in various ways restricted or closed when the direction of the affairs of the country lay in the hands of one man. It was natural that intellectual activity should then seek escape into the opener air of poetry, history, philosophy, and science. In these wide fields, thought recovered some at least of its freedom. It was there and then that those literary and artistic masterpieces were produced which are the immortal memorials of the golden age of Rome. It is easy to understand that one effect of the curtailment of political freedom would be to turn men more than ever to Nature in search

of that solace and refreshment which they could find nowhere else. To some minds it was the scientific contemplation or attentive observation of the world around them that especially furnished this mental relief and enjoyment, as in the case of Lucretius at the beginning of the period, and of Pliny the Elder and Seneca at its close. To others mere contact with the free, fresh, and ever-changing face of Nature brought with it a full measure of delight which found an utterance in the rich music of Latin poetry. The chords that were then struck in the literature of Rome are those which still vibrate to-day most clearly and loudly in our own hearts, and bring us into closest touch with the inner soul and spirit of the best of the Romans. For they express the instinctive joy of man in the world around him—that

‘ Primal sympathy
Which having been must ever be,’

and which, as a universal bond, brings into one common brotherhood the thoughtful spirits of every century and of every tongue.”

Upon the conclusion of the President’s Address,

Dr. CATON proposed a vote of thanks in the following terms.—
“ Our Association has had the good fortune ever since it was founded to be presided over by men of classical and literary distinction, and, whatever the modesty of Sir Archibald Geikie may imply, it is manifest that we still enjoy that advantage in an eminent degree. Moreover, we know that, in addition to classical and literary distinction, he also holds premier rank in the scientific world. I venture to mention this very obvious fact, for the reason that it is the dual point of vantage on which he stands as a classical scholar and a great authority in natural science which alone has rendered possible the production of so unique and delightful an address as we have heard to-day.

Sir Archibald’s intimate knowledge of the gems of Latin prose and verse, along with the expression of his own profound sense of the beauty and wonder of Nature, have been interwoven

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in a strain of graceful English which in its charm and its music has captivated his audience in no ordinary measure. I hope we shall have the opportunity of reading this address; it is not enough merely to have heard it on one occasion only.

I beg to propose a sincere and hearty vote of thanks to our President for his visit to our meeting, and for his most interesting

Professor MAHAFFY.—“I beg to second the vote of thanks which has been so eloquently proposed. I confess that whatever doubt Sir Archibald Geikie might have felt about his capability of treating a classical subject, I had none, and none of you could have had, who knew well that, whatever his knowledge, it is founded upon a rock!

But what I did not expect was the grace and finish with which he treated the Humanities, which one would think very far removed from the main studies of his life. He has gathered so many interesting and delightful passages from the poets, and put them together so ably, that I cannot but think he has produced a very favourable picture of Latin poetry indeed; because, when you have read it all through, you will find that those passages, except in Virgil, are really scanty, and Virgil, I think, has been the main poet who has given the Romans a character for having felt and loved Nature. How much Virgil took from the Greeks of course we cannot know, except so far as his treatment of Theocritus and Aratus goes, and from them we can find a great deal of what he said; but with this wonderful feature with regard to Aratus, that, having translated line after line of Aratus, he has turned the Greek silver into Roman gold. From what Sir Archibald has said about mountains, and also about the sea, I think there is a feature worth mentioning, which is that the ancients loved the sounds of Nature more than the sights—‘the moan of doves in immemorial elms, and murmur of innumerable bees.’ Therefore I think they were not pleased with great mountain scenery, any more than was Johnson in the eighteenth century with the wild mountains of Scotland, which he called the ‘protuberances of the country.’ At this late hour I will not detain you any more, but will merely repeat my full appreciation of the admirable address given by Sir Archibald Geikie.”

The vote of thanks was carried by acclamation.

Sir ARCHIBALD GEIKIE, in acknowledging the vote, said,—“ I thank you heartily for your vote of thanks. It has been a pleasure to me to come, though it has been at some little personal inconvenience. Probably it has been explained to you why I have found it difficult in making an appearance here to-day. In simply giving this Address, I feel I have not done my duty as President, but I must throw myself upon your indulgence for my failure.”

On Friday evening the members of the Association were courteously entertained by the Lord Mayor of Liverpool (Councillor S. Mason-Hutchinson) and the Lady Mayoress in the Town Hall.

SATURDAY, JANUARY 7TH

THE Association met at 9.45 a.m. in the Arts Theatre of the University. Professor POSTGATE occupied the chair.

MISS JANET CASE read the following paper on the *Eumenides* of Aeschylus:—

“Aeschylus received his gods of Olympus as an inheritance from Homer, but he left his own imprint upon them; and his deeper and more spiritual conception of Zeus is his most significant gift to the religious thought of Athens. Between his Zeus and the other Olympians there is no rivalry; for Zeus stands above and aloof. But Aeschylus did not hesitate to depict the struggle, of which Homer seems unaware, between the new gods of Olympus and the primitive chthonic powers whom they ousted. Of this struggle the end is always the same: the mastery of Zeus, who establishes his rule of reason for the rule of violence, and by a deliberate blending of the older powers with the new resolves the discord into a harmony.

Professor Ridgeway has thrown much light upon the *Supphants* (and incidentally on the *Eumenides*) in his paper contained in *Cambridge Praelections*, 1906. This volume—containing also the late Dr. Headlam’s paper on the *Agamemnon* Choruses and Dr. Verrall’s on the Vote of Athena—and Dr. Verrall’s introduction to his edition of the *Eumenides* have suggested—or provoked—the better part of what I have to say on the *Eumenides*.

Professor Ridgeway has argued convincingly that behind the *Supphants* lies the memory of a conflict between the ideals of the older social system of exogamy (or marriage *outside* the limits of kinship), in which mother-right prevailed, and of the newer system of endogamy (or marriage *within* the limits of

kinship), involving a more stable conception of marriage, with the corollary of father-right in exchange for mother-right, which latter system was associated with Zeus.

The *Suppliants* ends with the repulse of the fifty cousins, the unwelcome suitors of the fifty daughters of Danaos, which means a temporary reverse for the newer system. In the second play of the Trilogy the marriages were consummated; but on the wedding night each bride killed her husband. All but one. Hypermnestra refrained from love of Lynceus. And in the *Danaides* she is arraigned for disobedience to her father and for the marriage, but is acquitted by the pleading of Aphrodite herself. And so the newer way of Zeus was justified, where, as in the case of Hypermnestra, *love* set its seal on the newer and stabler bond. The way of Zeus prevailed; but with reconciliation of the old ideals and the new.

Again, in the *Prometheus Bound* we see the Titan Prometheus defying Zeus, a new and truculent god, who has only just set his heel upon the older race of Titans, and is still rebelling against Fate. But we know that at the last Zeus was bound to win, and we can foresee the reconciliation of Prometheus with a wiser and a nobler Zeus, and even guess at his ultimate admission to a place among the gods of Olympus.

And in the *Eumenides* as well there is the same progression from conflict to victory and conciliation. The treatment of this theme in the *Eumenides* is the subject of my paper. And the points (not necessarily either new or controversial) to which I invite your assent are these :—

1. That in this play the conflict between Old and New, which holds the imagination almost to the exclusion of any human interest, is complex; for that (a) up to the verdict it lies between the Erinyes and Apollo, but (b) from the verdict to the end it lies between the Erinyes and Athena.

2. That (a) in the first part, with the exception of the lyrics, the Erinyes are blood-suckers on the trail of a matricide, with the specialised function of mother Erinyes; but that (b) in the second part, as throughout in the lyrics, they reassume the wider character of the other plays, and stand for avengers of wrong done to god, or guest, or parent, or indeed, of wrong of even wider range.

3. That in the first conflict the question turns solely on *kinship*; and is probably reminiscent of a transition period from mother-right to father-right; and that it rests on two considerations:

(a) Which is the closer bond, a son's to his father or a son's to his mother?

(b) Which is the closer bond, a wife's to a husband or a son's to his mother?

4. That we have here in opposition the newer law of Zeus, who is father of gods and men, and regarded as the institutor of marriage, with its corollary of father-right, and the older law that preceded this stabler marriage law, under which mother-right prevailed. And that it is natural that Apollo, the son of Zeus and his *προφῆτης*, and Athena, a daughter peculiarly his own, should uphold the father-claim thus associated with Zeus; and that the Erinyes, primeval chthonic powers, akin to the Earth-mother (*παμμήτωρ*, the All-mother, as Aeschylus calls her, *P. B.*, 90), should uphold the older, mother-claim.

5. That (a) the outcome of the first conflict could be foreseen, for Apollo expressly cites the authority of Zeus; and as Eteocles says (*Sep.*, 514), 'No one ever yet, I think, saw Zeus defeated' (*κοῦπω τις εἶδε Ζῆνά που νικώμενον*); but that (b) the outcome of the second conflict is not to be so easily assumed. The Erinyes need not have been appeased. According to some versions it seems that they were not.¹

6. That the actual substitution of a trial, where each side can be heard and a deed of blood may be condoned by reason of extenuating circumstances, for the pitiless hunt of the Erinyes, marks the advance of Delphic religion upon a more primitive mode of thought. And that this procedure of Apollo and Athena, and the dissipation of the bad venom of the Erinyes by Athena's power of persuasion, alike show the working of the law of Zeus, which is, as we know from *Prometheus Bound*, that wit and reason should be the ruling principle, not violence.²

7. That, though Apollo and Athena appoint the trial and

¹ Cf. Eur., *Iph. Taur.*, 970, and Eur., *El.*, quoted by Dr. Verrall, *Camb. Prael.*, 1906, p. 92.

² Aes., *P. B.*, 214-5, ὡς οὐ κατ' ἰσχὺν οὐδὲ πρὸς τὸ καρτερὸν χρεῖν, δόλῳ δὲ τοὺς ὑπερσχόντας κρατεῖν.

Athena wins the Erinyes, they are only instruments of Zeus, who, here as elsewhere, rules and reconciles.

To turn now to the play itself. It is hardly necessary to establish by quotation the antithesis of Old and New. It recurs so often: we have for example, 'Thy youth hath ridden us down, divinities grown grey' (νέος δὲ γραίας δαίμονας καθιππάσω)—*Eum.*, 150, and 'O ye younger gods, ye have ridden down the ancient laws' (ὦ θεοὶ νεώτεροι παλαιούς νόμους καθιππάσασθε)—778-9; and the references to Apollo tricking the Μοῖραι (the Fates), and so on.

1. In regard to the first conflict, Orestes, it is true, begins the defence. But in his dilemma he had had but one motive: to do the right. And, his own judgment failing him, he had simply obeyed the god who bade him kill his mother to avenge his father, and promised him he should be quit of blame (ἐκτὸς αἰτίας κακῆς, *Cho.*, 1030), if he obeyed; but failing obedience, threatened sickness and exile, the pursuit of the Erinyes, the very penalties, in fact, which attend the spilling of kindred-blood (*Cho.*, 269-97). The mother-murder was an act of faith in God. It is Apollo's word that stands to be condemned or justified. The responsibility is his alone. That this is so is clear from the way in which Apollo assumes the full responsibility for the cleansing of Orestes and his trial, 'For I persuaded you to kill your mother' (καὶ γὰρ κτανεῖν σ' ἔπεισα μητρῶον δέμας, l. 84), which assumption is fully endorsed by the Erinyes themselves at line 200, 'You are wholly and singly responsible for the deed' (ἀλλ' εἰς τὸ πᾶν ἔπραξας ὧν παναίτιος).

2. That the Erinyes are here specialised as mother-avengers is clear from the line taken in the prosecution, which is based solely on degree of affinity.

3. In direct opposition to Apollo they maintain that the blood-tie of a son to his mother is closer than that of a son to his father, and that a blood-tie between husband and wife is non-existent.

The competing points of view are plainly set out more than once.

(1) In the dialogue between Apollo and the Erinyes in his temple. 'By your oracle,' they say, 'you bade him kill his mother.' 'By my oracle,' Apollo replies, 'I bade him exact

vengeance for his father' (ἐχρησας ὥστε τὸν ξένον μητροκτονεῖν. ἐχρησα ποινὰς τοῦ πατρὸς πράξαι)—202-3. At line 210 the Erinyes define their office, 'We drive mother-slayers from their homes' (τοὺς μητραλοίας ἐκ δόμων ἐλαύνομεν). 'What, even if she be a husband-slayer?' (τί γάρ, γυναῖκός ἦτις ἄνδρα νοσφίσῃ;)—211. The answer reveals a primitive conception of marriage that implies no bond. 'That would not be a spilling of kindred-blood by kindred-hands' (οὐκ ἂν γένοιθ' ὁμαίμος αὐθέντης φόνος)—212. These Erinyes, in their specialised capacity, refuse to admit the claim of the murdered husband for vengeance for spilt kindred-blood, which was freely admitted in the *Choephoroi*. Compare the 'Take heed, beware thy mother's angry hounds,' said by Klytaimnestra, as she stands face to face with Orestes, and his 'And how shall I escape my father's, if I leave this thing undone?' (ὄρα, φύλαξαι μητρὸς ἐγκότους κύνας. τὰς τοῦ πατρὸς δὲ πῶς φύγω, παρεῖς τάδε;)—*Cho.*, 924-5.

Apollo on the other hand argues that marriage constitutes the closest bond of all. He appeals to the sanctity of marriage, symbolised by the mystic marriage of Zeus and Hera, and the binding character of the Cyprian. This is quite in the spirit of the *Supphants*. 'Dishonoured and of no account you make the troth-plight of Zeus and Hera Teleia, and Cypris too is cast into dishonour by this argument, from whom come to men *their nearest and their dearest joys*' (Dr. Headlam's translation of φίλτατα, l. 216).

ἡ κάρτ' ἄτιμα, καὶ παρ' οὐδὲν ἡνύσω
 Ἑρας τελέας καὶ Διὸς πιστώματα
 Κύπρις δ' ἄτιμος τῷδ' ἀπέρριπται λόγῳ,
 ὅθεν βροτοῖσι γίγνεται τὰ φίλτατα (213-6).

(2) At the preliminary enquiry conducted by Athena at Athens the Erinyes again define their office; but this time using the general term βροτοκτονούντας (421)—if that be the true reading—instead of the μητραλοίας of 210. 'We drive homicides from their homes,' they say—and so Orestes, 'for he thought fit to be the slayer of his mother' (φονεὺς γὰρ εἶναι μητρὸς ἡξιώσατο)—425. Orestes repeats Apollo's argument, 'I slew my mother to avenge my dear father's death' (ἐκτεῖνα τὴν τεκοῦσαν . . . ἀντικτόνοις ποιναῖσι φιλτάτου πατρός)—464-5.

And (3) at the trial the Chorus once more deny the blood-

relationship of Klytaimnestra and the man she slew οὐκ ἦν ὄμαιμος φωτός δὲν κατέκτανεν (605); 'And am I,' Orestes asks, 'the blood-relation of my mother?' (ἐγὼ δὲ μητρός τῆς ἐμῆς ἐν αἵματι);—606. The Furies are aghast at such impiety. 'Do you disown the closest tie of mother-blood?' (ἀπεύχει μητρός αἷμα φίλτατον);—608, and *cf.* 216.

Apollo justifies an act that avenged the father's death without thought of what was due to the mother, by the consideration that it is worse for a man to die, and he a king, and by his wife's hand too, and by guile (625-30). And when the Erinyes press him hard, he maintains on obsolete physical grounds that fatherhood counts for more than motherhood in procreation.¹ He denies to motherhood the very function and name of parent, citing Athena, who had Zeus for father, but no mother. This is the standpoint of Olympian Apollo, which gets a curious backing from the underworld. At l. 100 Klytaimnestra's ghost, that comes to prick on the sleeping Furies, says the dead reproach her for the murder of Agamemnon; but no spirit is angry for her sake, though she died by her own child's hand.

There is no other argument. This, with a side-appeal to the self-interest of Athens, constitutes the defence. Athena closes the discussion. Enough has been said. She catches up Apollo's instance of her own birth. Like him, she is 'wholly on the father's side' (κάπρα δ' εἰμὶ τοῦ πατρός)—738. If the votes are equal, hers will be cast for acquittal. The votes *are* equal. So tense is the crisis, so hard the apportionment of claims. And by her vote Orestes is acquitted. The claim of the father has prevailed.

4. Where father and mother claims conflict, it is natural for Apollo, son of Zeus, and Athena, the daughter that had no mother, to take the father's side; while the Erinyes, chthonic deities akin to the Earth-mother, as naturally take the mother's.

But in this case there is a direct mandate from Zeus himself.

At line 470 Athena said this was too big a thing for any man to think to judge it—nor might she. For Orestes is her suppliant, so she cannot refuse him; and yet, if the Erinyes are

¹ According to Dr. Headlam, *Aes. Eum. Transl.*, note on 658, an Egyptian doctrine, for which he quotes Diod. Sic. i. 80.

beaten, they will blight the land. It is the dilemma of King Pelasgos in the *Suppliants* (*S.*, 472-9). And, as a fact, neither her court, composed of the best of the burgesses (487), nor she, as president of the court, decided it. The judges' votes are equal. Her casting vote was determined only after she had heard Apollo's plea, and knew that he spoke the will of Zeus. He said, 'I am a prophet, and I shall not lie. Never did I say anything on my prophetic seat, of man or woman or of city, that Zeus, father of the Olympians, did not command. I would have you know how weighty is this claim, and I charge you obey my Father's will. For an oath is not mightier than Zeus' (*μάντις ὦν δ' οὐ ψεύσομαι. | οὐπώποτ' εἶπον μαντικοῖσιν ἐν θρόνοις, | οὐκ ἄνδρός, οὐ γυναικός, οὐ πόλεως πέρι, | ὃ μὴ κελεύσαι Ζεὺς Ὀλυμπίων πατήρ. | τὸ μὲν δίκαιον τοῦθ', ὅσον σθένει μαθεῖν, | βουλῇ πιφάσκω δ' ἤμμι' ἐπισπέσθαι πατρός | ὄρκος γὰρ οὔτι Ζηγνὸς ἰσχύει πλέον*)—615-21.

5. After that her way was clear. And indeed later on (797) she herself explicitly refers the victory to Zeus when she reminds the baffled Furies that the testimony was from him. And the audience must have known what verdict to expect.

Athena, once the local *κορή*, is now more Olympian than the Olympians. Zeus' word decides.

I do not understand how Dr. Verrall can say, as he does in *Cambridge Praelections*, 1906, p. 90, that 'Athena decides upon a casual preference'; or how he can call Athena's vote 'essentially accidental,' as he does in his introduction to his edition of the *Eum.* (p. xxviii). To me her vote seems of the very essence of the play; and it seems quite in keeping with the religious spirit of Aeschylus that this fundamental issue should after all be taken out of the jurisdiction of men, even of the best of them, and left in the hand of God.

I lay to heart Dr. Verrall's warnings¹ against attributing to Aeschylus a knowledge of origins that he had not got. I know that Dr. Frazer and Professor Ridgeway know a great deal more than ever Aeschylus did of father-right and mother-right. I recognise that Professor Ridgeway's² contention that this was still 'a burning question' in fifth-century Athens is not proven.

¹ A. W. Verrall, *Eum.*, Intro., p. xxi and p. xlii.

² *Camb. Prael.*, 1906, p. 158.

But the fact remains, as it appears to me, that this case is argued, as Professor Ridgeway indicated,¹ on the basis of affinity, viewed from the standpoints of the old order and the new respectively, and of nothing else. Even if Aeschylus was walking by tradition only (though in face of the *Suppliants* this seems hard to believe), and was but dimly conscious of a basis in historic fact for rival claims in law of father and of mother, the rival claims are there. Against the plea that has behind it the sanction of Zeus, he sets the tradition of immemorial custom. To Orestes the two ties had presented equal claims. His instinct of loyalty to his dead father was confounded by the instinctive appeal of the mother-tie, which Aeschylus never ignores, as Sophocles did in his *Electra*. He does not even belittle it; he gives it its full weight. At the critical moment of the *Choephoroi*, Orestes hesitates in an agony of doubt. 'Pylades, what shall I do? Am I to scruple to kill my mother?' (Πυλάδη, τί δράσω; μητέρ' αἰδεσθῶ κτανεῖν;)—*Cho.*, 899. And Pylades answers, 'What then becomes of the oracles of Loxias in time to come and his sure pledges? Better have all men your enemies than the gods' (ποῦ δὴ τὰ λοιπὰ Λοξίου μαντεύματα | τὰ πυθόχρηστα, πιστά τ' εὐορκώματα; ἅπαντας ἔχθρους τῶν θεῶν ἡγοῦ πλέον)—*Cho.*, 900-2.

Orestes boggled at the choice, but the word of God was clear. And now again the votes of men are cast this way and that, in equal numbers. But Olympus stands undivided for the father. May not the split votes of the judges, only half of whom were swayed by Zeus' word, indicate that here is recorded the parting of the ways between the old law and the new?

1 b. We turn now to the second conflict.

As implacable blood-suckers, that take no heed of circumstance, the Erinyes were bound to go before the newer law of Delphi. And as mother-avengers, where the mother's claim conflicts with the father's, they were bound to go under the existing social and religious system. But that is not the only aspect of these old-world divinities, who shift their character with bewildering rapidity.

Already in the *Agamemnon* we have heard of the ὑστερόποιον Ἐρινύ (Ag., 589) sent by Zeus on the transgressor of the law of hospitality; and of the curse-spirit (ἄλδστωρ) of the race, whose

¹ *Camb. Prael.*, 1906.

mere embodiment Klytæmnestra claimed to be when she killed her husband for her dead child's sake (*Ag.*, 1501). In the *Choëphoroi* we have seen Orestes and Electra evoking their father's Erinyes in that strange, primitive scene where they lash the angry ghost to action at the tomb. Orestes is himself, as it were, the embodied Erinyes of his father, whose action wakes to fury the hell-hounds of his mother (*Cho.*, 924-5). And in the *Eumenides*, as the Chorus burst into song at sight of Orestes crouching at Athena's shrine, and in their awful binding hymn, they avow themselves the punishers of wrong done to god or guest or parent, father or mother as it may be.

As guardians of the sanctity of family life and of the helpless stranger—servants of Zeus who, sooner or later, punishes wrongdoing—they must at all cost be retained for Athens. No State could dispense with them and prosper. And this Athena knows. In her first speech to the court, in the first part of the play (696-9), she had counselled the citizens to honour neither a lawless nor a despot-ridden rule, nor yet to cast out Fear wholly from the land. For what man that hath no fear is just? In this she had but echoed the very phrases of the great song of the Erinyes earlier still, when, with the institution of the court and the possibility of the sinner's escape from doom, they felt the beginning of the end, and protested against the upheaval of the old order (490-565).

So are the two threads interwoven, and so we are prepared for the beauty of the close, as the rugged majesty of the Erinyes shows through their monstrous forms, compelling admiration as well as awe.

It is Athena's turn now. Her task is to win these great Earth-powers to keep watch and ward over the city's morals, and to give it increase, though now they threaten the land with blight and ruin, and to blast the growth of wholesome life, whether of man or beast or field.

5 (b). And here the end could not have been foreseen. For, as Miss Jane Harrison showed in her *Prolegomena to the Study of Greek Religion* (ch. v.), the identification of the Erinyes (angry ones) with the Semnai (the dread goddesses), who had a cult on the Areopagus, and the Eumenides (kindly ones), after whom the play gets its title, though they are not expressly

named, was not something that really happened at Athens.¹ It is simply a vision born of the creative thought of Aeschylus, touched to quickness by the will to reconcile.

6. If the trial, with its ordered speech before the *δικασταί*, was more in accord with the law of Zeus (that reason should be the ruling principle, not force) than the relentless pursuit of the Erinyes, yet the bearing of Apollo at the trial was not exactly conciliatory. He pays back the Erinyes in their own coin. It is left to Athena to show to the full the compelling force of *θελκτήριοι μῦθοι* (81)² which Apollo had from the very first indicated to Orestes as the saving means. Her persuasion of the divinities of the old order to renounce their antagonism, and incline their hearts towards the purpose of the God of the new, is the consummation of the Trilogy. I learn from the article on *πειθῶ* in Roscher's *Lexicon*, that by the fifth century *πειθῶ* was regularly contrasted with *βία* and *ἀνάγκη*,³ both in things politic and in love. She is in part a goddess, in part simply the abstract quality of winning speech. In the *Suppliants* Aeschylus calls her the daughter of Aphrodite (with whom she was in fact associated in cult and in art). 'And companying their dear mother (Aphrodite) are Desire and she to whom nothing is denied, winning Persuasion' (*μετάκοινοι δὲ φίλα ματρὶ πάριςιν | πόθος <ᾤ> τ' οὐδὲν ἄπαρνον | τέλειθαι θελκτορι πειθοῖ*) — *Sup.*, 1038-40.

Aeschylus, it is true, knows a sinister *πειθῶ* too. In the *Agamemnon*, with its Titanic handling of sin and punishment, the avenger in the blood-feud, who in turn becomes the victim, has himself to thank in part for his undoing (all but Orestes). He falls for the most part through *ἄβρις*, defined by Professor Murray⁴ as 'that which passes all barriers that would restrain a man with *αἴδως* in him.'

This, as Dr. Headlam⁵ showed, lays a man open to *πειθῶ*

¹ Contrast the fact that there was at Athens a local cult of Prometheus in conjunction with Hephaistos, which may well have helped to determine the mode of working out the reconciliation of Zeus and Prometheus in the last play of that Trilogy.

² Cf. *Sup.*, 447.

³ Cf. Herodotus, viii, 111, quoted by Roscher.

⁴ *Rise of Gk. Ep.*, p. 265.

⁵ *Camb. Prael.*, 1906.

(Temptation) or to *ἔρως* (Passion), which leads him on to fresh *ἔβρις*, and so to *ἄτη* (Ruin). And this *πειθώ* Aeschylus calls the daughter of *ἄτη* (*Ag.*, 385).¹

But, as in the *Danaïdes*, it is *ἔρως*² that justifies Hypermnestra, and *πειθώ* on the lips of Aphrodite that wins her case, so here too *πειθώ* on Athena's lips is a divine instrument of peace, dispelling violence. She is the final vindication of the way of Zeus.

To the first hot outburst of the Erinyes, Athena's answer is: 'Be persuaded of me' (*ἐμοὶ πειθέσθε*) not to take it so sorely. Ye are not beaten. The trial resulted fairly in equal votes, not to thy dishonour (794-6). The testimony was of Zeus (797). She proffers a dwelling-place in the land, and honour from her citizens. This is met with the same outburst.

Again she says, 'Ye are not dishonoured' (*οὐκ ἔστ' ἄτιμοι*). —824. She hints at force. She could use the thunder of Zeus. She holds the keys. But there is no need of that (*ἀλλ' οἷδ' ἐν αὐτοῦ δαί*)—829. 'Be thou persuaded' (*σὺ δ' ἐν πειθέῃς ἐμοί*). They shall have part in the marriage rites (835). But again they curse. 'The cunning tricks of the gods (*δόλοι*, Prometheus' word) have robbed me of mine ancient honours' (845-7). But Athena's courtesy is unshaken. She has respect for their age. They curse again: but Athena will not tire of well-speaking. 'Nay, if *Persuasion* is a thing sacred in your eyes (*ἀλλ' εἰ μὲν ἁγρόν ἐστί σοι πειθοῦς σέβας*), the charm and soothing of my tongue (*γλώσσης ἐμῆς μέλιγμα καὶ θελεκτήριον*), why, then, stay here' (*σὺ δ' οὖν μένοισ ἄν*) . . . —885-7.

And then at last the words begin to tell. The Chorus make tentative enquiries. At 900 we have *θ' ἐλξεν μ' ἔοικας*, 'Behke you will charm me.' And they consent to be soothed and to bless the land with increase, while Athena, in words recalling their own of the binding hymn, glorifies the power of their curb on evil-doing. Persuasion has had her perfect work.

7. This brings me to my last point. When Persuasion has done her work, and the Erinyes consent to lay aside their anger and accept a home and worship on the Areopagus, Athena claims no triumph.

Here, too, as in the trial, the victory belongs to Zeus, 'I

¹ βιάται δ' ἡ τάλανα πειθώ, | προβούλου παῖς ἀφ' ἑρως ἀτας.

² *Danaïdes* frag.

am glad at the eyes of *Persuasion* that look upon my tongue and my lips to guide them, . . . but it is Zeus, the God of Eloquence (Dr. Headlam's translation of ἀγοραῖος) that won the fight' (στέργω δ' ὄμματα πειθούς, | ὅτι μοι γλώσσαν καὶ στόμ' ἐπωπῆ . . . ἀλλ' ἐπράτησε¹ Ζεὺς ἀγοραῖος)—970-1-3.

It is still Zeus who conquers, Zeus who reconciles. And as the great procession leaves the stage, the last words link the names of Zeus and Fate. 'Zeus All-seeing and Fate have joined to bring this thing about' (Ζεὺς <ὁ> πανόπτας | οὕτω μοῖρά τε συγκατέβα)—1045-6.

Zeus has triumphed, not by dispossessing the Fates and the Furies, but by walking with them in the way of peace."

Mr. GLYNN WILLIAMS, in proposing a Vote of Thanks, said.—"Any comments of mine would sound like 'howling after music.' I shall therefore confine myself to proposing a sincere vote of thanks to Miss Case for her lucid exposition of the complicated and not always consistent doctrines of Aeschylus in the 'Benevolent Goddesses,' and for the fascinating and arresting phraseology in which that exposition was couched."

Mr. R. C. SEATON seconded the Vote of Thanks.—"I have no special knowledge of the Eumenides, and therefore feel it would be presumption on my part to criticise Miss Case's lecture. There is, however, one point I should like to mention, the curious question of the Mother-right and the Father-right. The former is, as is well known, evidenced by the peculiar custom of the *Couvade*. Now, whatever may have been the view of that custom in the fifth century B.C. it is clear that some two or three hundred years later it came to be considered an entirely non-Greek custom. If you read Apollonius Rhodius, Book II., you will find a passage in which there is a clear reference to the custom among the Tibareni as a curiosity and mark of barbarism. It is heard of also in Corsica, and has been found in South America."

The Vote of Thanks was carried by acclamation.

Professor POSTGATE having vacated the chair, it was taken by Professor CONWAY.

Professor POSTGATE read a paper on "The Truth about

¹ Cf. *Sup.*, 623-4.

Latin Prose," in which the conclusions of an article by Professor Charles Exon of Galway, published in the *Irish Educational Review* for 1910, vol. iii. No. 11, and also separately issued, were examined.

"Professor Exon, taking phrases from Professor Hardie of Edinburgh, propounds a thesis which may be set out as follows. Of the two different ways in which Latin Prose composition has been cultivated, the one, prevalent rather in Germany and other countries than in this, which treats it merely as a means of enforcing an exact knowledge of syntactical rules in the earlier stages of Latin study, is defensible and should be retained; but the one in which, as in this country, literary qualities are aimed at, and not mere grammatical accuracy, is not defensible, and should be abolished.

This is a plain issue, plainly put, and I shall endeavour to exhibit the same quality in discussing it.

Professor Exon first applies himself to the argument that Latin Prose Composition 'provides a valuable mental discipline,' that it has a 'gymnastic,' or, as he seemingly prefers to call it, an 'ascetic' value. Here he ventures to generalise.

'It is applied,' he says (p. 4 of the reprint) 'to other subjects besides Latin; but wherever and whenever we meet with it in discussions on education it must be gravely suspected of radical unsoundness. It is never appealed to as a reason for adding new subjects to the curriculum: only as a reason for retaining certain subjects the teaching of which is traditional, but has come to be questioned. No subject that is not already taught is ever examined with a view to testing its value as a provider of mental discipline.'

'The argument,' he says, 'though sincere is not quite serious.' And I am afraid the same may be said of the reply. Does Mr. Exon really think that the gymnastic, or disciplinary, value of a subject can be estimated without some, and indeed without a considerable, experience? Apply the principle elsewhere, and see what follows. Equestrianism is an old mode of locomotion, aviation a new one. Horse-riding has generally been held to be good for the liver. Why not question the validity of this plea for horse-riding on the ground that it has never been advanced for aeroplaning?

Professor Exon next alleges that Latin Prose is now a survival from times in which it had a practical use, and that its practice 'is really kept alive by conservative feeling.' This transference of an issue from the arguments for and against a policy to the motives of its supporters and opponents is a familiar irrelevance. Let us leave it to the gladiators of the political arena.

Grappling now with details, Professor Exon traverses the contention that it confers the power of writing good English. To this we may in substance assent. I do not suppose that any one would claim more than that the close attention to the original, which the effort of rendering it involves, sharpens and clarifies our feeling for its style and expression. That this it does, is, I believe, beyond dispute. Not a few present will bear me out when I say that an exercise in Latin Prose is often at the same time a lesson in English literature. But I agree with Mr. Exon that there is no better way of learning to write a language than by writing it, and I should cite in illustration the case of John Bright, who, as I have read somewhere, was innocent of both Latin and Greek, and this to an extent that he is reported to have said that the translation of the dialogues of Plato by Jowett was a greater feat than the writing of the original.

But we have again to join issue with Mr. Exon when he suggests (p. 6) that devotion to Latin must injure our English by encouraging that bald and wooden, though miscalled 'accurate,' style of translating, which is the burthen of Professor H. Darnley Naylor's complaint (in his admirable little book *Latin and English Idiom*) against many of the current versions of the Greek and Latin Classics. That these faults exist is undoubted. But the explanation is not so simple as Professor Exon supposes, as we shall presently see.

In his next paragraph Professor Exon betrays a sense of irritation. 'The least admirable,' he writes, 'of all defences of Latin Prose is that which seeks to exalt its importance by belittling modern languages and literatures. In a well-known manual¹ we read that the chief faults of English are "looseness, indirectness, and inconsistency. These it shares at any rate with most highly developed modern languages."' This accusation, he

¹ The quotation is from *Sermo Latinus*, pp. 4 sq.

says, is 'not true,' and adds that 'no serious attempt is made to prove it.' He goes on to urge *per contra* that 'the language of the Romans accurately reflects their indifference to fine distinctions,' and he seeks to show this by citing instances in which the analysis of a thought in expression is not pushed as far in Latin as it is in English: *admiratur* means 'he admires' or 'he expresses admiration for,' *contemnis* 'you despise' or 'you affect to despise,' *officium* 'duty' or 'sense of duty,' and so on (p. 7). Here Professor Exon himself discriminates insufficiently. The Romans were not 'indifferent' to these fine distinctions; but their language had not reached the stage in which they are fully developed. The reproach of 'indifference' should be reserved for languages which possess fine distinctions and yet neglect to observe them.

But it is with no small astonishment I learn that the existence of these failings in our native tongue is denied. I had thought that its frequent lack of precision was notorious. Ask our judges, ask the official draftsmen of our laws if English is an unambiguous language, and hear what they say. The late Sir John Seeley once observed to me in conversation that its ambiguity was so great as to make it a most difficult thing to draw a treaty in English. It is not that English is destitute of resources for accurate expression: the trouble is that it does not use what it has. Its machinery for expressing time in verbs is far more complete than that of either Latin or Greek; but is it employed consistently? I need say nothing of the well-known misuse of the present for the future in dependent sentences; but here is an example of a different kind. In an idiomatic version of a letter of Cicero we read: 'Therefore I *shall* not so much as recommend him to you; his own arrival *will* be recommendation enough.' But the Latin is '*ne commendo quidem*' and '*commendabit*,' and the distinction in Cicero's tenses between present and future recommendations is obliterated in the English rendering. Turn to persons. Is not the merging of the singular and the plural of the second personal pronoun under a single form (*you*) a serious defect? Look at the confusion which it introduces into the translation of passages like Plantus' *Rudens*, 706 sq. '*Exi e fano, natum quantumst hominum sacrilegissime. Vos in aram abite sessum.*' And what are we to say for *he* and

they? 'Addressing the magistrate and referring to the plaintiff, the defendant "said that he should not accept his statement."' *Who* should not accept the statement, and *whose* statement should he not accept? Latin reported speech is not a perfect means of expression; but it is far superior to that of English, in which it is often most difficult, and sometimes impossible, to discover where a report begins or ends. I recall a passage in a novel of Mr. Stanley Weyman, where the writer passes from narration of occurrences into a description of the actor's reflections upon them. The passage runs as follows:

'Looking on him and her, and remembering how he had treated her, and why he had come to be in this place, I felt unmanly tears rise to my eyes. The room was still a prison, a prison with broken mortar covering the floor and loopholes for windows; but the captive was held by other chains than those of force. When she might have gone free, her woman's love, surviving all that he had done to kill it, chained her to his side with fetters which old wrongs and present danger were powerless to break.' (Stanley Weyman, *A Gentleman of France*.)

The words from 'The room was still a prison' to the end of the extract are not a description of the scene, but the thoughts of the onlooker upon it, and this in Latin would be shown by a change of mood. But the English phrasing gives no clue, and I have never had a pupil who translated it correctly.

Another part of the indictment may be illustrated from a passage of English which has been admirably rendered into Latin by Professor J. G. Frazer. The author is Lord Macaulay, who has exerted an enormous, and not wholly beneficial, influence upon subsequent English writing, and the subject is the battle of Sedgemoor:

'The horse and foot in a long narrow column passed the Black Ditch by a causeway. There was a similar causeway across the Langmoor Rhine; but the guide in the fog missed his way.'

I draw attention to the last two sentences, and, postulating that language is given us to express our thoughts, I claim that, considered as language, this they fail to do—that one of the chief

ideas is left without expression, that the rest of the passage is burdened with the weight of carrying its implication, and that two statements which in themselves have nothing to do with each other are irrelevantly and incoherently contrasted. 'There was a similar causeway across the Langmoor Rhine; but the guide in the fog missed his way.' Suppose there was. Is the hour of an army's march to battle through bewildering darkness a proper occasion to describe what were, or were not, the salient features of the country? And what is the meaning of the *but*? You can say if you like, 'The ditch' (Rhine is a local word for 'ditch,' as Macaulay leaves you to guess if you can) 'was *there*, but it was invisible.' Or you can say, 'They had to *cross* a second ditch by another causeway; but the guide *missed his way*.' But you cannot contrast an aberration and a causeway. Now see how Dr. Frazer applies the method of Latin to set the English right. 'Alteram ex fossis, cui Nigrae nomen, aggere traierunt, iamque *restabat* altera aggere et ipsa *traicienda*, cum,' etc.

Take another example, earlier in the same piece, which will illustrate the irrelevance and futility engendered by our national weakness for 'picturesque' expression.—

'The clock struck eleven, and the Duke with his body-guard rode out of the Castle.'

Why tell us that he 'rode'? Was his Grace of Monmouth in the habit of trudging afoot to the field, or had he but just acquired a horse? 'The clock struck eleven.' How do you know that, my Lord Macaulay? Were you there, or have you contemporary evidence that its striking gear was in order? *But perhaps you would imply that the strokes of the clock started the Duke on his march?* . . . 'Dickory, dickory, dock. The mouse ran up the clock. The clock struck one and the mouse was gone. Dickory, dickory, dock!' Now listen, sir, to what Dr. Frazer makes of your English: '*secunda uigilia* Caecina cum delectorum manu ex arce *proficiscitur*,' and own that in his Latin you have a more pertinent and dignified representation of a general's departure for a battle.

There is no tendency of English more noticeable, or less in accordance with any ideal of linguistic expression, than its disinclination to call anything, about which it is talking, by the

same name the second time that it called it by the first, but to substitute for this some other title or description more or less inapplicable. The tendency may be seen at riot in the columns of the daily, and particularly of the sporting, press. For this there appear to be two reasons—the defect in English pronouns, on which I have already touched, and a purely sensuous or physical repugnance to the repetition of the same sound, even when that repetition is demanded by the sense. Of the mischief which it works I have had a notable example in the past term. A perfectly clear piece of argumentation from the beginning of the *Tusculans*, on the question whether the dead were miserable, was set to our Intermediate students. The argument is vitiated unless the same word is kept to render *miser* throughout; but with hardly an exception my translators chose to vary it.

I trust that I have shown that there is good reason for the criticisms directed against English as a medium of expression. But Professor Exon, waxing in animation and expanding in generalisation as he proceeds, declares (p. 8) ‘this whole endeavour to recommend the study of Latin and Greek by deprecating the great modern languages is utterly futile. There is no legitimate comparison between languages, only between civilisations. The language fits the average mind of its native speakers as closely as the skin fits the body. All languages are equally perfect if they express—as they normally do—equally well what the average man among their speakers wants to express. There is no other criterion or standard by which we can estimate the excellence of a language.’

Before a proposition of this kind I sit down in stupefaction. I know of no engine of reason by which it can be assailed. I might have argued that a modern Englishman would find the Greek, say, of Plato or Demosthenes a much better medium for expressing his ideas than the Chinook or Arunta of Mr. Exon. But I am forbidden this comparison of languages, and I must confine myself to the civilisations from which the languages are indivisible. It is as though (to use the metaphor introduced here by Mr. Exon) he were a merchant of furs, and should reply to a customer who observed that his sealskins were not so good as they used to be, ‘Pardon me; you must not compare the *skins*, madam. You must only compare the *seals*.’

The 'aesthetic' argument is tackled next. Professor Exon appears to deny that to imitate a monument of ancient genius helps us to appreciate it. I think it does, at least to some extent and in certain cases. But the matter is debatable, and relatively but of small importance.

Having thus got rid of the alleged advantages of Latin Prose by classing them as 'doubtful,' Professor Exon next considers the price that is paid for them; or, in other words, the mischiefs that are wrought in its name. He finds that these are two. 'The study of the ancient literatures and civilisations is hindered and impoverished' through its means, and at the end it fails to effect its object, as 'the average student does not write Latin Prose with ease and accuracy.' On the first count I agree with him, to this extent that I think too much time is often spent upon it, and that it would be well if our students read more Latin and wrote less. The amount got through nowadays at school and college appears to be less than it was, and our Latin Prose composition, as well as the rest of our work, suffers thereby. Nor would I maintain that the results are altogether satisfactory. But this I ascribe to the teaching rather than to the subject. I will indicate some points in which improvement is possible. In the first place there are too many passages of English set, those chosen are often too hard, and too few of them deal with concrete subjects and actual everyday life. Yet it is just these in which it is easiest to realise the differences of the Roman civilisation from our own most vividly and substantially. Nor, again, should translation into Latin be confined to passages of English authors. These should be interspersed with renderings of the idiomatic character which Mr. Naylor's book is written to recommend. Again, the exercises set for Latin composition should be as near as possible in matter and spirit to what the students are at work on at the time. In the present session I have been struck by the preference which the students in my Intermediate class showed for pieces based on the Livy which they were reading over others which had no such connexion. Further, there should be from the beginning more 'Free Composition' than there is, and in this I include speaking Latin as well as writing it. From the first I have held this; and from it, in theory at least, I have never swerved. It is more than forty years

since I proposed to a schoolfellow that we should beguile our homeward plodding through dirty and dreary streets with the charms of Latin conversation. He assented to the principle, but stipulated that the language should be Greek. And in this language accordingly we discoursed upon our affairs, to the astonishment or the amusement of the men in the street.

It is surely the chief use and prime test of a fair knowledge of a language to be able to express one's own thoughts in it, and but a minor matter to make it the vehicle of other people's. Nor am I greatly disturbed by the apprehension that for much of what we may want to say there will be no warrant in Cicero or Livy. For me the crucial question is not 'Did Cicero or Livy write thus and thus?' but 'Would they or their contemporaries have written thus and thus, had they been writing Latin now?' If we feel we can answer 'Yes,' we have surely obtained a result which was worth some sacrifice.

It may be urged further in favour of free composition that for two of the most patent faults of our present methods—the painful hunting up of 'equivalents,' and the dragging in of inappropriate 'tips' and conceits—it affords comparatively little opportunity or encouragement. In it a composer is left to his own resources, and he has free scope for that individuality which even the rendering of set passages cannot altogether destroy, as all know who have studied the 'fair copies' of the acknowledged masters of classical composition. All homes of Latin studies might do worse than follow the example of Trinity College, Cambridge, and set a subject for original composition at least once in a term.

Translation of set passages cannot, of course, be excluded from the curriculum. It has certain advantages of its own, and these are just the advantages which make it useful in examination. A well-chosen piece for translation into Latin Prose forms a perfectly definite test, and as fair a one as can be found. This cannot be said of a theme or an essay. The candidate may have an excellent knowledge of Latin, but nothing to say on the subjects proposed. This cannot fail to handicap him. And this, no doubt, is one reason why Latin themes and essays have no place in our examinations, and by an illogical consequence none in our teaching system either.

Throughout his paper Professor Exon deals largely in the paradoxical. But there is surely no greater paradox than his main contention. For ages it has been held that if you would know a language you must know it from both sides—that you must be able to compose as well as to read in it. For only thus can a language be real and alive to you. And accordingly composition has formed a part of every thorough linguistic curriculum. But to Professor Exon Latin is really ‘dead,’ and his interests in it are those of the dissector and the osteologist.

But there is yet a paradox within a paradox. As Professor Exon is so hot in the defence of English, I would say at once that for literary potency and performance I regard the English language and literature as inferior only to the Greek, and that it is just because I am convinced that we, its speakers, are to our marrow a literary race that I hold it paradoxical to imagine that we all tolerate any system whatever of teaching any language whatever in which form and style are bidden to stand aside, while nothing is to be written in it save and except for grammatical edification. This is what I would say upon Professor Exon’s German ideal.

And now we come to consider what he would put in the place of Latin Prose. From the way in which he and, to some extent, Professor Naylor talk, one might think that no regard was paid to English style in translation, and no credit allotted to it. It is not, however, my experience that the English even of the honours students is ‘scandalously bad.’ In comparatively recent times, as I have pointed out elsewhere, there has been a great improvement in the style of classical translations, whether lay or professional, and the days of Paley and Buckley and the Bohn translators as a whole are past. Accordingly I say, in the first place, that Professor Exon’s ‘substitute’ is no substitute, because we have it already. In the second place, I say it is no ‘substitute’ because it does not discharge the function of that for which it is substituted. Professor Exon says it does; for he writes of a faculty which he seemingly desires to discredit or disparage—‘the power of distinguishing between the thought itself and the form of words in which it is for the moment clothed’—that it can be imparted as well by translation from Latin into idiomatic English as by the reverse process. I wish it were as

easy to reverse things as this. But the ascent to the unfamiliar is something quite different from the descent to the familiar. Professor Exon may prefer going downhill, but he must not say it does the same for the muscles as going up.

Once more Professor Exon, and Professor Naylor, whom he is here following, have not succeeded, as appears to me, in realising the very difficult conditions to which translation from the classics is subjected. It is often, as I think, a far harder thing to render a piece of Latin into English satisfactorily than a similar piece of English into Latin. *Why?* I have heard the answer, 'Oh, you can see the faults in your English, for you are an Englishman. But you cannot see the faults in your Latin, because you are not a Roman.' I doubt if those who use this argument are exactly aware what it involves. Our knowledge of Latin-into-English and of English-into-Latin are not two things, but two sides of the same thing, indissolubly connected and as impossible to separate as the concavity and convexity of a hollow sphere. And if our Latin translations from English be unsound, our English translations from Latin will, from another side, be unsound too.

The real trouble lies elsewhere. It lies in some radical and essential points of difference between Latin and English. The first is that English is a composite language with two vocabularies; but Latin is a simple language, having but one. I will take an instance from the 1st book of Livy, ch. 12: '*Romani Sabinique in media conualle duorum montium redintegrant proelium; sed res Romana erat superior.*' This might be translated, 'The Romans and Sabines renewed the engagement in the valley between the two hills; *but the fortune of Rome was in the ascendant.*' And maybe Professor Exon would be satisfied with this English and would not stick at the metaphor. But if I read the translation to a roomful of average working-men, I should expect some one to ask, 'But, I say, mister, *where* was the ascendant?' In the Latin of Livy, however, there is not a single word which would not have been at once intelligible to the youngest child and the humblest artisan in the streets of Rome. The translation above, then, is convicted of introducing an element of alien pretentiousness into a phrase of simple and natural dignity. Now let us try the other tack and resort to the native vocabulary. 'But Rome' (or 'what

was Rome') 'was the higher.' There is something that all can understand, and yet we feel that it is inadequate. It translates the Latin 'res Romana erat superior,' but it does not correspond to it. Now, the translator *from* Latin into English is continually harassed by having to make choice between these two strata in our language, but the translator *into* Latin is free from all such embarrassment.

Again, English is, for practical purposes, a non-inflexional language, and its order of words is a part of its syntax, and so, from grammatical necessity, invariable or variable, only to a very slight extent. It is, therefore, at a considerable disadvantage as a medium for translating an inflexional language in which the order is free and can be freely used for grouping and emphasis.

Lastly, the differentiation of linguistic expression has been carried much further in English than in Latin. This is no hindrance to the translator from English into Latin. He knows, for example, that 'a spirit of duty,' 'a regard for duty,' 'the concept of duty,' may all be expressed by *officium*; but when he has what I may call the 'germinial *officium*' before him, he is often in sore perplexity by which of these analytical expressions he had better render it. The same applies to grammatical forms, as I have shown elsewhere. I will repeat one example here. Ovid, *Tristia* III. vii. 47, writes, 'Ingenio tamen ipse meo comitorque fruorque,' where the ablative is constructed equally with the 'passive' verb *comitor*, and the 'deponent' verb *fruor*. The Latin is clear and terse; but can it be rendered in English except by what is either clumsy or false?

Professor Exon has, I fear, left out of sight these stumbling-blocks in the path of a conscientious translator from Latin or Greek. I do not accuse him of recommending inaccuracy, and I am wholly at one with him in the demand that our English should be as good as we can make it. But his depreciation of 'accuracy' is likely to do harm by appearing to disparage the prime merit of a translation, which is that it should be, in the highest sense, a faithful reproduction of the original. My most recent experiences of pass and honours students do not suggest that they need incitement to pursue the primrose path of paraphrase. How often have I had to say to them in the past few months, 'Your duty is to translate what is before you into the'

best English available. You are not entitled to alter or to embroider your original.' Let us by all means continually insist that translations shall be worthy representations both of the form and of the substance of what we are translating; but let us not fall into the error of inferring that because the translation is bald and halting, the original has not been appreciated.

Let me conclude with a Cambridge anecdote. A college lecturer once read aloud a fine passage of a classical author to his lecture room, dwelling with force and fervour on its excellencies. One of the class came up to him afterwards, and said, 'It is a beautiful passage, sir. But how do you translate it?' 'Translate it!' said the lecturer. 'I would not do it such an injury.'"

The CHAIRMAN.—"Before inviting discussion I must express the delight with which we have listened to Professor Postgate's stimulating paper. We have often had the privilege of hearing writers of distinction in their own branch of work, but we have never been conscious of listening to one who was a more complete master of the art of which he spoke. Indeed, in the two arts of writing Latin and of teaching others to write it, there can be no teacher of the English-speaking world who is not a pupil of Dr. Postgate."

Professor HARDIE said that he gladly responded to the invitation to take part in the discussion. His position was not only that of a delegate from Scotland; he had been a member of the Association from the first, though he had hitherto been unable to be present at any meeting. When he first saw the title of Professor Postgate's paper, he wondered whether it perhaps veiled a still more scathing attack on Latin Prose than had been made by Professor Exon; but he did not suspect Professor Postgate of such an attitude, and he rejoiced to find that it was in fact a highly humorous and delightful vindication of Latin Prose. Professor Exon's arguments had seemed to him altogether unconvincing. The question of "disciplinary" value was never raised, he said, about any new subject—which was surely untrue; no one would propose to introduce Chinese for its disciplinary value alone—which might be admitted. Therefore Latin Prose should be ejected. But the disciplinary value of a subject was

only one of several questions which might be asked about it, whether it was old or new.

Professor Exon laid it down, on the authority of psychologists, that it was unnatural to write a language if one did not speak it. To say this was to draw too rigid a line of separation between things not really separate. Psychologists had been known to do that before now. Extensive reading of a language seemed to result naturally in some attempt to use it for the expression of ideas, in writing or possibly even in speech. To exaggerate the difference between speaking and writing led to the fallacious belief that Latin was, in some real and important sense, a "dead" language. There were two things to be distinguished rather than four—apprehending a language, whether read or heard, and using it, whether in writing or speech. And the second seemed to follow naturally from the first. It ought to follow without very great effort. He was ready to concede to Professor Exon that too much time was sometimes spent over composition. If the pupil said that it took him hours to hammer out a version, the remedy in the case of junior pupils was to set them easier passages. A senior pupil could be advised to drop composition for a time, whether verse or prose, and read several books of Virgil or Livy before he attempted it again. To set an English passage for composition was not the only resource. A freer use of the language could be elicited in various ways. Dr. Rouse had recently expounded to them in Scotland the method which he followed at the Perse School, and which appeared to be successful in the hands of its inventor. Whether it could be prescribed for adoption by all teachers was another question; a teacher would be more likely to use effectively a method which he had devised for himself by the light of experience. Good results, he had found, could be obtained by setting, for Latin comments, a group of passages bearing on recognisable incidents or personages of history or mythology. Sometimes the pupil mistook the allusion, and wrote a good Latin note on the wrong thing. What was the value to be assigned to a good Latin note on Tiberius Gracchus if the passage was about the Emperor Tiberius? But that was a mere detail. The method could be made to work; and when such notes had been written by a class, the conditions became favourable for using Latin orally in explanation or discussion.

Methods might vary, but he could not admit that, in the serious study of any language—and Professor Exon had proposed specially to dispense with composition for Honours students—it was either unnatural or inexpedient to require the pupil to write it, in one way or another.

Professor HENRY.—“ I think we should all be very grateful indeed to Professor Postgate for his admirable paper. When a distinguished philologist takes fright, and gives away not only the outworks but the citadel as well, we should point out where the fallacies arise. One argument urged is that a great deal of time is wasted on Latin Prose, and undoubtedly there is much truth in the charge. Compositions that are too difficult are set, and we are more or less suffering from the effort of trying to get students to write Latin Prose too soon. It is comparatively easy to write a simple narrative in Latin, and if we were content with what seems less at the beginning we should gain more in the long run. If we were to keep students longer at simple narrative, perhaps a great deal more would be attained. Professor Exon, in his rather persuasive pamphlet, seems to despise altogether the ‘ ascetic ’ value of Latin Prose. It is absolutely incumbent upon the teacher to point out the necessity of adequate attention on the part of the student not simply to the words and the expression, but to what lies behind ; to look from the expression to the fact. I do not know any discipline better than that ; or, if properly exercised, better in its results. Another point is the contrast between Latin and English, the structure of Latin and the structure of English ; the use of connecting particles, and the logical relation between one sentence and the other. In teaching one has to point out the necessity of first finding the logical structure before putting pen to paper. The whole thing has to be cast and recast by a method of thought the disciplinary value of which is undeniable. These points Professor Exon overlooked. I think we were all pleased—certainly I was—that Professor Postgate’s paper dealt with this subject.”

Miss SILCOX, having been invited by the Chairman to say something about the disciplinary effect of Latin prose, said.—“ It is very cruel of Professor Conway to call upon me. Whilst listening to the remarks of Professor Postgate, and agreeing as to the enormous value of the subject, there has been running

in my mind an analogous subject—the great waste of time, more especially in Girls' Schools, incurred in the teaching of French. It is, of course, much to be valued if girls can speak French with very correct idiom and pronunciation. I think all this has great disciplinary value. But girls who have no ear, or inadequate throat muscles, are put through the same mill, with consequent great waste of time. To a great extent the same thing goes on in Latin. In each case, of course, the difficulty is how to differentiate between those who will become skilful and those who never can be. The reading and writing of Latin is useful for these also—that is, if you do not insist upon the most tremendous accuracy. That is, I think, where the curse of the subject lies. All those who have had the great gift of composition, such as scholars of old, began from their nurseries to speak the language. If others are unable to do the same they think they are without any knowledge at all. If you start at a later stage to learn the language you get the value of the training, but in view of the fearful blemishes that are in evidence that does not satisfy everybody. There is the difficulty, and I do not quite see how it is to be overcome, because, unless the subject has been part of your daily thought from a very early period, I do not think, except in rare or exceptional cases, you can get extreme accuracy. That is just my difficulty.”

Mr. HERBERT RICHARDS, invited by the Chairman to contribute to the discussion, said,—“It is very good of Professor Postgate to give us such a valuable and interesting paper. I have not, however, had the advantage of reading Professor Exon's pamphlet; and moreover I had no intention of speaking; I came to hear what was said.”

Mr. R. C. SEATON.—“I must express the pleasure I also have felt in hearing Professor Postgate's lecture, for I have had some experience of teaching Latin Prose. The late Mr. Walker, the former head master of the school in which I was engaged, was an experienced psychologist. When asked how he could defend Latin Prose, he said it had the advantage of making boys think for themselves. I know he used to keep boys three or four years doing nothing but Conditional Sentences in Greek and Latin. Although at first the boys felt this was a toil, afterwards they were often thankful that they had undergone the discipline. Bu^c

that represents an earlier age than that to which Professor Postgate referred. Boys are, as Professor Hardie said, too soon set to put Latin sentences into English; and Bradley's *Aids to Latin Prose*, although an excellent book, is too hard for such young students. I remember finding the sentence, 'He showed a want of judgment,' translated by a boy *monstravit egestatem consilii*. The boy had looked up the words in the dictionary, and it is by no means easy to explain *why* the result was not right. The greater richness of the English language is manifested in the way in which it is easy to say the same thing in different words. The speeches of public orators show how they keep repeating themselves, and yet appear to be saying something new. The Authorised Version of the English Bible shows the same tendency. You find verse after verse in which the same thing is said, but in different words. In the Epistle of St. James, in the course of two verses, one Greek word is rendered in three different ways—'apparel,' 'raiment,' and 'clothing.' This was defended by the translators on the ground that, as the Bible was so very important, every word should have a fair chance of coming in."

Professor CONWAY then expressed to Professor Postgate, on behalf of the Meeting, their gratitude for his very enjoyable lecture.

Professor POSTGATE.—"I am glad to find that the speakers on the whole are very much in agreement with my general thesis. I can assure them that any suggestions which have been cast out in the course of their remarks will receive my most careful attention when I revise my paper for publication. I offer my gratitude for the expression of thanks for my humble attempt to provide what a former school-fellow of mine once said that he found in the conversation of his master, 'instruction combined with amusement.'"

Mr. COOKSON proposed a hearty Vote of Thanks to all who had taken part in seeking to make the visit of the Association to Liverpool a success—to the organisers, the Lord Mayor and Lady Mayoress, to the University Club and Athenaeum, to the hosts and hostesses, especially to Miss Dale, the Secretary of the Hospitality Committee, to the Hon. Secs. of the Liverpool Branch, Mr. Forbes and Mr. Stewart, to the Committee of the

Liverpool Branch, and to Professor Bosanquet and the Members of the Liverpool School of Art for the Tableaux.

Professor GILBERT DAVIES.—“I believe that it is as an alien guest that I am to second this proposal. But in seeing so many well-known faces before me, it is difficult for me to assume the feelings which befit such a guest. However, I should like to express my own feelings of gratitude to the Association, which has been good enough to invite me here as one of the delegates of the Scottish Association, and I am sure this sense of gratitude is shared by my brother-delegates from Scotland and Ireland. May I also express the hope that if the Liverpool University is so kind as again to invite the Association to hold their conference in this city, we may be among the delegates? On returning to Liverpool after four years I find that the University has blossomed with many new establishments of varying beauty; when we next come, I hope it may have blossomed into a room better fitted for our Meeting than this theatre. We owe thanks for generous hospitality to the Lord Mayor and Lady Mayoress; and, as friends of learning and education, we owe thanks also to the Corporation of Liverpool for the consistent sympathy and support which its enlightened policy has given to the University.”

Professor CONWAY, in putting the Vote of Thanks, associated with it the name of Vice-Chancellor Dale.

The Vote of Thanks was carried by acclamation.

VICE-CHANCELLOR DALE.—“I respond not unwillingly to the Chairman’s call; yet if one must speak the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, there has been none connected in any way with your visit with a more shadowy and unsubstantial claim for thanks than myself. I noticed with amusement that my eldest daughter, with the enterprise and audacity of her sex, has secured for herself the tribute that belongs to her mother, and I look forward with considerable apprehension to the time when the expression of your gratitude will be received in the family circle. The only remedy that occurs to me at the moment is that I should succeed in detaining Professor and Mrs. Conway to make the necessary explanations! You have, I know, an important discussion coming on; but perhaps I might in a sentence or two express

for all the bodies you have linked together in what one can only describe as a comprehensive vote, what pleasure it has given to all concerned to do what they could to make the visit of this Association pleasant and successful. The secretaries, Mr. Forbes and Mr. Stewart, have lavished an enormous amount of work in your behalf, and to them especially your gratitude is due. My hope is that before long we may be able to welcome the Association in Liverpool again, but at a pleasanter time of the year, and with the sky less unfriendly, when you may be enabled to see all that Liverpool means to us."

Professor POSTGATE having resumed the Chair,

Professor SONNENSCHN proposed:—

"That the Classical Association express approval of the principle of 'Faculty Differentiation' at Matriculation Examinations, as strengthening the position of Classics in Faculties of Arts, and as making for efficiency in all departments of University work."

"My resolution does not seek to determine precisely what should be the conditions of the entrance examination at any particular University; for the principle of Faculty Differentiation admits of various applications, according to the conditions and the aspirations of particular Universities; but it does declare that this principle is one which ought to be adopted by all Universities, and then interpreted by them in accordance with their own special conditions and aspirations. Thus it has a relation to the question of 'Compulsory Greek' at the older Universities, and indeed indicates the lines on which this difficult question may find its true solution. But it has no *special* relation to the older Universities, and I desire to treat it as far as possible only in its wider aspects.

The principle is a very simple one—that every University ought to require of those entering on a course of study at it an adequate preparation for that course of study. When a student enters a University he ought, if he comes there to study at all, to come prepared for a certain course of study. In some cases he ought to possess a considerable acquaintance with the very studies which he will pursue at the University; in others, it is sufficient if he possesses a basis of general knowledge, on which the edifice of special knowledge may be erected. To the

former category belong Arts students, to the latter students of Medicine.

The reason is that a University is a place of higher study. This has been generally recognised by Universities, by imposing a test on entrance.

But the general practice of British Universities in the nineteenth century has been to employ a common Matriculation Examination for all students, whatever their future course of study is to be. It is this practice which my Resolution attacks as no longer suitable to the conditions of the times. What I hold is that we should recognise that every University course is of the nature of special study along some particular lines, and should require of entrants a corresponding basis of knowledge. My position may be summed up by saying that a candidate for any University degree should be required at entrance to matriculate *in some particular Faculty*.

The great advantage of this is efficiency of work and the turning out of a really competent graduate. The weakness of the current practice is that students who are supposed theoretically to be prepared for study in *any* Faculty are, in fact, prepared for study in *no* Faculty in particular.

But, it may be asked, 'Why is this matter brought up at the Classical Association? How does it concern us?' My answer is that it concerns very vitally the study of Classics in particular."

After referring to the study of Latin in the newer Universities, and the difficulties which arise if students are admitted to a first year's course in Latin who do not possess a rudimentary knowledge of the language, Professor Sonnenschein read the following extract from a letter written by Dr. Fotheringham:—

"Nothing is more common at London University than for school teachers to select their pupils' subjects for matriculation with an eye to nothing but the passing of that examination, and without any reference to the Faculty in which they intend to study. I have several students at this moment, who had been learning Latin at school, and were then made to lay it aside for about a year while preparing for Matriculation, who resumed it after passing Matriculation, and are now taking it for Intermediate Arts. A majority of our Intermediate Arts students,

both at King's College and at King's College for Women, have passed Matriculation without Latin. When the Classical Board unanimously asked the University of London to require all candidates to pass in Latin at Matriculation before proceeding to Intermediate Arts, the utmost concession that we could obtain was the insertion of a footnote in the Matriculation Regulation recommending such candidates to offer Latin in Matriculation. I hope that your Resolution, if phrased so as to deal only with alternative subjects, will strengthen us if we renew the attack."

Referring to the application of the principle to Oxford and Cambridge, Professor Sonnenschein continued as follows :—

"I have already said that the principle admits of varied application, according to the needs of particular Universities. Whereas in Birmingham Latin only, not Greek, is made compulsory for Matriculation in the Faculty of Arts, there seems no reason why Oxford and Cambridge should not make Greek as well as Latin compulsory for this Faculty, and that without lowering the standard of attainment in Latin. I believe strongly in the desirability of Greek for all students of letters, languages, and literatures, whether ancient or modern. On the other hand, Greek is not necessary, or not so necessary, for students entering on a course of study in other than Arts subjects; and the beauty of the principle of Faculty Differentiation is that no candidate need be excluded from a University course in Science because he has been educated on the modern side of a school where no Greek is taught. I desire to avoid as far as possible the thorny question of 'Compulsory Greek' at the older Universities; but I feel bound to add, as a member of an Association which makes it one of its objects to maintain the study of Greek, that I am afraid that if the older Universities cling to their present practice of demanding Greek from students of all Faculties, they may ultimately be unable to maintain it as a necessary condition for entrance on any Faculty. In this connexion I will read some extracts from a letter sent to-day by Professor Mackail :—

'I regret very much that I am called back to London by official duties, and thus cannot be present in order to support the Motion which you are bringing before the Meeting to-morrow morning. I am entirely in sympathy with the Resolution you

are proposing, and I hope that you will make free use of this hasty note which I write between hours of to-day's Meetings.

'The question of Compulsory Greek at Oxford is only one local aspect of a much larger question, that of the test which is applied to ascertain the competence of entrants on a University Course leading to a degree. In this matter the primary thing to take into account is that the test shall be, first, adequate, and secondly, relevant. This consideration on both its sides implies Faculty Differentiation in form or in substance.

'I am particularly glad to note the last clause in your Resolution. To strengthen the position of Classics is the aim and object of the Classical Association, but we hold most strongly that this is not only consistent with, but essential to, general educational efficiency over the whole field of study; and that the efficiency of any one branch of learning is an index to, and a contributory force towards, the efficiency of all the others, and of that whole sphere which they jointly constitute.

'This Resolution, if adopted, will help towards removing the senseless opposition between the Classics and Science, which in any case is yielding before better acquaintance, and which would entirely disappear if the study of both Science and the Classics could be freed of its present vices and faults. One of the great defects in our national system of higher education is the low standard of what University education means; and this lowness of standard in University education directly follows on the inadequate or inappropriate tests of competence set up at entrance. To raise the standard, differentiation by function is clearly indicated as the means.

'The principle, I gather, is saving Latin at Birmingham; it can save Greek at Oxford and Cambridge. The matter is not one of "relief" from Greek or from Latin, or from any other subject; it is one of adapting the requirement to its object. Otherwise we fall back into the old vicious system of "protecting" certain educational industries, as though they were ends in themselves and not means to a larger end.

'The objections, so far as I am aware of them, are:

'(a) The difficulty when a student wants to change his School or Faculty, or when he does not know which School or Faculty he wishes to pursue. The answer is that he ought to know; that supplementary machinery for meeting cases of change is quite simple; and that choice from the outset will save great waste of time and effort in unsystematic study pursued to little profit because having no distinct aim before it.

'(b) There is a risk of financial loss if the entrance test is raised. This is an improper reason for acquiescing in a deliberately low standard of work.

‘(c) There are students who have to be coaxed and bribed into learning something, and who must be dealt with tenderly ; those, for instance, who “ can get good ” from a Literae Humaniores course, but don’t know Greek. The answer is that exceptions should be treated as exceptions and not made into rules.’”

Professor SONNENSCHN, continuing, said.—“ My Resolution is not inconsistent with the principle of a good general education : only we must recognise that a good general education may be acquired in more ways than one, that there is, in fact, such a thing as a liberal education without Greek, which, though not adequate for a thorough-going course of study in literary subjects, may be all that is practically attainable as a preliminary to a course of study in such subjects as physical and natural science and medicine. It may be said that a differentiated Matriculation examination limits the student’s freedom of choice of subjects of study. The answer is that some limitation is desirable. A student ought not to be allowed to study at the University what he is not competent to study with profit. On the other hand, there is no need to adopt a narrow definition of what may be included in a Faculty. Mathematics, for instance, is rightly admitted by all or most Universities as a possible subject for a degree in the Faculty of Arts. And there should be no bar to transference from one Faculty to another, by passing an examination in additional subjects. I may add that the principle of Faculty Differentiation was adopted by the University of Birmingham at its initiation in 1900, and has worked exceedingly well, giving satisfaction in all the Faculties ; and I am glad to see that it has been adopted quite recently by the University of Belfast, and to a certain extent by the University of Leeds. I am confirmed, then, in my belief that it is the policy of the future, the merits of which will be more and more appreciated as the principle gets to be better known.”

Mr. J. H. SLEEMAN, in seconding the motion *pro forma*, read the following letter from Professor HAVERFIELD :—

“ I am unavoidably hindered from attending the Annual Meeting of the Classical Association, and therefore I ask to be allowed a brief word on paper in respect of Professor Sonnenschein’s Motion. Faculty Differentiation is a phrase, not perhaps a well-chosen phrase, which has lately been much used, especially in

connexion with the compulsory Greek question at Oxford and Cambridge. The idea underlying it seems to be this—that an undergraduate on matriculating should enter a definite Faculty (or course of studies); that he should pass an entrance examination appropriate to that Faculty, and gain admission thereby at once to University and to Faculty; and—as a sequel—that he should not afterwards change his Faculty without (I imagine) complying with some special conditions or requirements letting him into another Faculty. The actual working of any such idea must obviously depend greatly on what exactly is meant by Faculty. Now, there is at present no agreement among the Universities of the world as to the number of subjects which may be included in one Faculty, and I do not think any Motion which (like Professor Sonnenschein's) omits to explain what range it gives to the word 'Faculty' can be profitably accepted as likely to do much good.

But apart from this uncertainty, there is a question which must arise, no matter what definition of 'Faculty' be given, the question of the freedom of the student to choose his studies. That freedom seems to me vital. At present in most Universities students are free—as free, that is, as the inevitable conditions of their courses of study permit. In German Universities a student takes his degree in a definite Faculty, but in German Universities the Faculties cover a very wide range of subjects. The restriction on freedom is therefore very small; men can, and do, attend lectures on a far more extensive series of subjects than those which form the basis of their final degree dissertation. In an English University we reach the same freedom in another way. Let me give two illustrations from Oxford. At Oxford, men sometimes offer Mathematics for Honour Moderations and Modern History for Honour Finals, and experienced teachers tell me that for certain classes of learners the combination produces an excellent mental training. Again, I had a pupil at Oxford who won a First Class both in *Literae Humaniores* and in Natural Science, and, I have no doubt, profited much by this union of philosophical and physical science. But such jumps from the Arts Faculty to the Mathematical or Natural Science Faculties would, so far as I can see, be practically forbidden by Faculty Differentiation at Entrance and Entrance Examinations.

I see, therefore, a definite evil in Faculty Differentiation at Entrance. I will add that I do not see the need or the use of it. I admit, of course, that it is most necessary that a University Honour Course should include all subjects needed for the proper pursuit of that course. Thus it is, or might be, urged that no one ought to be allowed to win Honours in a Latin Course, or even in a Modern Literature Course, unless he could also show a

knowledge of Greek. But it would not follow that he *must* show this knowledge of Greek before he is admitted to the University with the intention of reading for Honours in Latin. In fact, in view of the specialisation which prevails at some schools it is desirable that he should not be rigidly required to do so. Let me take a case well known to me. A boy was trained in mathematics because at his local grammar school he could get little good teaching except in mathematics; when he came to the University he showed an aptitude for archaeology, and in archaeology he has since done good work. To the right development of such a man—hard enough in itself—Faculty Differentiation would present a final obstacle.”

Dr. J. K. FOTHERINGHAM proposed the following Amendment:—

“That in the opinion of the Classical Association, where a choice of subjects exists at a Matriculation Examination candidates should be required to select their subjects with a view to the Faculties to which they seek admission, instead of being left to make their selection according to their own discretion. The Association holds that such a differentiation of Faculties would strengthen the position of Classics in Faculties of Arts, and would make for efficiency in all Departments of University work.”

“It would be undesirable at the tail end of this Meeting,” he continued, “for us to pass a Resolution which could be interpreted as condemning compulsory Greek. I have deliberately drafted the Amendment so as to leave the question of compulsory Greek entirely outside the scope of the Motion. The effect of my Amendment is otherwise identical with that of the original Motion. If the question of compulsory Greek had been introduced in set terms, there would have been determined opposition to this Motion. It has not been introduced in set terms, but at the same time we have to consider how the Motion will be interpreted. The mover himself said that Greek should not be made compulsory upon all occasions and under all circumstances at Oxford and Cambridge. That may seem reasonable; but that is not the view taken by the majority of Congregation at Oxford. A proposal for making Greek optional for Honours students in Mathematics and Natural Science was discussed a few years ago in Congregation, and the proposition was

defeated by 200 votes against 163. At a discussion taken last term, a proposal for making Greek optional was again defeated, but on that occasion we had not the same definite issue. The prevailing opinion at Oxford is that Greek should be compulsory on all students; but it appears to me that we should leave that a purely open question at this Meeting. If this question is excluded, our Motion only deals with the simple issue of the optional subjects. I believe nearly all the newer Universities have introduced a scheme by which some subjects are obligatory at Matriculation and others optional; at London English and Elementary Mathematics must be taken by all candidates—the Mathematics being not so wonderfully elementary. Every candidate is required in addition to offer either Latin or some kind of Natural Science. If the latter is offered instead of Latin, then he must offer some language other than Latin and other than English. Apart from those restrictions there is free choice. These alternatives more or less correspond to the requirements of students in different Faculties, but the fact is that the differentiation is not in practice governed by Faculty. The effect is that candidates choose the subjects which they find easiest, and we know that they often come knowing little or nothing of Latin. We do not want people to try to make Classics their strong point at the University without having had some strong inducement to study Classics before they come. This is not always realised by the advocates of option at Matriculation. At King's College, London, we constantly find good students in Latin who have perhaps started a little late and who have done no Greek. They have not been encouraged at school in spite of their capacity for Latin. They generally in that case go in for Honours in English. They sometimes feel themselves obliged to lay their Classics aside simply because they have not started the subject sooner. We must, therefore, make use of our Matriculation Examinations, and that must be done by making some amount of Classics compulsory for students in the Faculty of Arts."

Mr. E. E. GENNER, in seconding the Amendment, said,—“I agree with Mr. Fotheringham that it is undesirable, especially at the tail end of this Conference, to bring forward a Motion which is intended to produce different effects upon different classes of Universities. I should think it an impertinence on

my part, with a purely Oxford experience, to dictate to the Universities of Birmingham or Liverpool what they should do; and similarly the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have their own problems to face. The Mover says that his Resolution is intended, if possible, to include both types of University; but since it would diminish the amount of Classics required in, say, the University of Oxford, it seems to me we should face the two questions separately; that we should support the Resolution, if we see fit, as regards the 'newer' Universities, and leave the other problem at present undetermined. As regards Oxford, the Resolution plays into the hands of that differentiation at school, that premature specialisation, of which we sometimes see the misfortune. Even despite 'compulsory Greek,' some come to us from certain Technical Colleges with an education in Science and nothing else. They have had no literary training whatever; and those who, like myself, would stand for compulsory Greek under all circumstances at Oxford are not in favour of increasing the number of such students. We stand, I think, for Greek in Responsions, because we know that the dropping of it will cause a considerable drop not only in Greek, but in literary education generally in the schools of the country. That may be a 'tendency of the age' to which we in Oxford are expected to bow. But I do not think we ought to bow before it, but to oppose it; and here we should do wisely not to pronounce upon a controversial point; but we should pass such an Amendment as Mr. Fotheringham has proposed."

Professor CONWAY.—"As an Association we should hardly engage in an acute struggle of University politics. I am not now moving an Amendment, but in the event of that proposed by Mr. Fotheringham being carried and becoming the substantive Motion, I will then submit the following Amendment:—

'That the Association is not prepared to question the principle of a common basis of general education continued to Matriculation level.'

In general criticism of the Motion I would plead that it tends to premature specialisation. Surely a boy should not decide at fourteen instead of seventeen or eighteen which course of study he will take when he comes to a University. Just as I feel it

would be undesirable for this Association to express an opinion on the Oxford and Cambridge question which has been raging during all the time this Association has been in existence, so I think it equally undesirable for it to hold the scales as between the policies adopted at Manchester and Birmingham and London respectively.

In each locality it depends upon the resources and curricula of the schools. Speaking for Manchester, I should say that we should lose some ten per cent. of our students in Arts if we did not provide some rather elementary teaching in Latin for those who come to us not yet knowing enough to enter our Intermediate class, and many of these are students whom it is well worth while to encourage. The effect of the Motion is to declare that, in the opinion of this Association, the Universities may lawfully say, and should normally say, to every intending student, 'If you mean to study Science, there is no need whatever for you to learn Latin.' I do not want the Universities to say that to the Schools; much less do I want this Association to say it."

The CHAIRMAN.—"The Motion was only seconded *pro forma*. I must, therefore, ask Professor Sonnenschein whether, having regard to the views expressed in the discussion, he will withdraw his Motion."

Professor SONNENSCHIN.—"I am aware that no one rose spontaneously to second my Motion. But possibly on consideration some members may see reasons in favour of the course I propose; and in view of this I should like to have a little more knowledge of the feeling of the Meeting. I quite admit that this Motion may be interpreted as an expression of opinion as to the proper course to be pursued at Oxford and Cambridge; and I do not want to divide the Association on any controversial question. Yet I know that I am not alone among Oxford men; in fact, there is quite a strong party who would regard this as a wise solution of the question. I regard the Amendment of Mr. Fotheringham as going a step in a direction along which I would like to go further. To change the metaphor, I regard half a loaf as better than no bread, and, therefore, I prefer the first Amendment to that of Professor Conway. I cannot withdraw my Resolution, because the effect would be that the Amendment would fall to the ground. Though there may be no one present

prepared to support me, I do not feel inclined to withdraw my Motion."

MR. COOKSON.—"It seems to me this discussion has taken such a turn that any Motion that is carried, and any expression of opinion arising on such Motion, are likely to be seriously misunderstood outside this room. Much of what has been said by Professor Sonnenschein to-day would have been highly appropriate if addressed to another audience, but it does not seem to me to have anything to do with the Association as such. I feel strongly that anything carried to-day may be interpreted elsewhere, outside, in a manner likely to do serious harm to the Association."

MR. J. W. HEADLAM.—"I wish to say a word in support of Mr. Cookson. In the short time we have had for discussion the difficulties of the question have hardly been touched upon. Professor Conway spoke about the Differentiation of Faculties. I would suggest that variation in the age at which an examination is taken is an equally important factor, whether it should be taken from fourteen to sixteen, or at seventeen or at eighteen, and we cannot come to a decision on this subject without that point being fully discussed."

The CHAIRMAN then put Dr. FOTHERINGHAM'S Amendment, which was carried by a large majority. The Amendment having thus become the substantive resolution, Mr. J. W. HEADLAM moved that the discussion be adjourned *sine die*. This was seconded by Professor E. V. ARNOLD.

A MEMBER.—"As opposing the Motion for adjournment, I should like to have some definite result to-day from the discussion which *has taken place*. I should like to have some expression of opinion against such principle as that of Faculty Differentiation, and upholding the general basis of a liberal preparatory education at Matriculation. What we do at Matriculation is what we do in the schools; and, if I understand things aright, it only remains a matter of time after the removal of Greek to remove Latin from all the Matriculation that people may think necessary, and the removal of Mathematics from Matriculation, and so on, and so on. In fact, it opens the whole flood-gates. We could not then maintain any general standard. I would, therefore, like some expression of opinion which would be to some extent adverse to this question of Faculty Differentiation."

The CHAIRMAN thereupon put the Motion :—"That the discussion be adjourned *sine die*,"

This was carried.

Mr. J. W. HEADLAM proposed a Vote of Thanks to Dr. Postgate for presiding.

Professor DOBSON seconded the Vote, with the remark that where a discussion stretched over several hours it needed to be carefully, tactfully and firmly dealt with by the Chairman. They had had a good example of the way the Chair should conduct itself in controlling the Meetings.

The Vote of Thanks was carried by acclamation and suitably acknowledged by Professor Postgate.

The proceedings then terminated.

On the afternoon of the same day a party of members made an excursion to Ince Hall, Blundellsands, and by the kind permission of the owner, J. Weld Blundell, Esq., inspected the extensive collection of classical sculptures and other antiquities. The special privilege thus accorded to the Association was greatly appreciated by those members who were able to avail themselves of the owner's courtesy.

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REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON GRAMMATICAL TERMINOLOGY

*Being a revised and extended issue of the Interim Report
presented in December 1909*

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INTRODUCTION

A PROPOSAL for the simplification and unification of the terminologies and classifications employed in the grammars of different languages was mooted at the Birmingham meeting of the Classical Association on October 10, 1908¹; and in December of the same year the Council took steps to invite other Associations to join in the movement. Early in 1909 a Joint Committee was constituted, consisting of representatives elected by eight Associations—The Classical Association, The Modern Language Association, The English Association, The Incorporated Association of Headmasters, The Association of Headmistresses, The Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, The Incorporated Association of Assistant Mistresses in Public Secondary Schools, The Association of Preparatory Schools. To the twenty-one members of the Committee thus appointed two members were added by co-optation—Dr. Henry Bradley and Miss Edith Hastings. Two honorary correspondents were also appointed—Prof. F. Brunot of the Sorbonne, and Geheimer Oberregierungsrat Dr. Karl Reinhardt of the Berlin Education Office. In November 1909 Mr. L. von Glehn took the place of Dr. Spencer as a representative of The Modern

¹ See *Proceedings of the Classical Association* for 1908, p. 83; and addresses on *The Teaching of Languages* delivered to the North of England Educational Conference, January 8, 1909, and on *Simplification and Uniformity in Grammatical Terminology*, delivered at the annual meeting of the Incorporated Association of Headmasters, January 13, 1909, by Professor Sonnenschein.

Language Association ; and at the beginning of 1910 Dr. Boas and Mr. Thomas succeeded Dr. Gow and Miss Dingwall as representatives of The English Association. In 1910 a second representative of The Association of Preparatory Schools was added to the Committee, making its total number twenty-four.

At the first meeting of the Committee Professor Sonnenschein was elected Chairman, and Professor Conway Honorary Secretary. Professor Rippmann was subsequently appointed Honorary Treasurer ; and Mr. Milner-Barry, Honorary Secretary of the Enquiries Sub-Committee. At the end of 1909 Professor Conway resigned the Secretaryship through pressure of other work, and Mr. W. E. P. Pantin was appointed in his place.

The movement seems to have been well timed. The Committee has received unmistakable evidence that many teachers feel that a reform of this kind is needed. The principle has been cordially approved by a large number of individual correspondents, and by the leading educational journals. Unnecessary perplexities and difficulties at present confront pupils studying several different languages at the same time, and the teacher of one language frequently undoes the work accomplished by the teacher of another.

Moreover the Committee has learnt with interest of the existence of an important movement for the reform of grammatical terminology in France. The report of a French Commission, signed by Prof. Brunot and M. Maquet, was submitted to the Ministry of Public Instruction in 1909, and taken into consideration by a Committee of the *Conseil Supérieur*. By the courtesy of M. Liard, Vice-Rector of the University of Paris, and the kind offices of the Director of Special Enquiries and Reports of the Board of Education, this report was communicated to the Joint Committee in February of the present year, with an intimation that any comments on it which the Joint Committee might desire to make would be welcomed. The report of the French Commission was therefore taken into consideration, and comments on it were forwarded to M. Liard through the Director of Special Enquiries in June. In July the Ministry took action by issuing an *Arrêté* (dated July 25, 1910), containing an official scheme of grammatical terminology.¹ No knowledge

¹ This scheme of terminology will be referred to below under its title of *Nomenclature Grammaticale*.

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of grammatical terminology beyond that indicated in this *Arrêté* is to be required at any examination of elementary schools or for the certification of teachers for such schools, or at any examination of secondary schools up to and including that which marks the end of the secondary school course. This scheme, like the report of the Commission which preceded it, deals with the terminology of French grammar only. But the Joint Committee has found it of great service as showing what terms of French grammar will be recognized in France hereafter; and it has influenced the Joint Committee in their choice of some of the terms to be recommended for use in this country, as indicated below.

In America too a need for the simplification of grammatical terminology seems to be felt.¹ The Classical Association of New England has adopted the following resolution and communicated it officially to the Joint Committee—"That the Executive Committee be instructed to signify to the Joint Committee on Grammatical Terminology recently formed in England the interest of this Association in their work; and to request that the grammars used in America be taken into account, to the end that the results of their deliberations may be available in this country." Communications have also been received from Continental scholars suggesting an international congress on the subject; and the Committee hopes that, when the time is ripe and the ground has been prepared in the several countries concerned, an international congress may be arranged. At the same time the Committee is of opinion that such a conference should be preceded by full discussion in each of the countries separately, and that in each country the mother-tongue should form the basis of the grammatical scheme to be constructed.

¹ "Surely nowhere under heaven can there be a land in which there is greater confusion in grammatical terminology or greater failure on the part of boys and girls to master the grammar of any single language, even their own." Professor John C. Kirtland, in *The Classical Weekly* (New York), May 22, 1909.—"It [i.e. a unified scheme of terminology] seems to me to promise an immense gain in the effectiveness and economy of our work in English Grammar." Jessie Frances Smith, Head of the English Department in the Wadleigh High School, New York (*Educational Review*, Rahway, N.J., and New York, Oct. 1910).

At a preliminary meeting of the Joint Committee held in London on Feb. 27, 1909, it was resolved to make the project known as widely as possible, and to invite the co-operation of the general body of teachers of languages in this country. A circular letter was therefore issued on March 8 to all the members of the eight Associations represented on the Committee. This circular stated the object of the Committee to be "to consider the terminology used in teaching the languages, ancient and modern, including English, commonly studied in English schools, in the hope of framing some simplified and consistent scheme of grammatical nomenclature, tending in the direction of uniformity for all the languages concerned." It seemed well to ascertain at the outset what points of current terminology were found, in actual practice, to be causing error, confusion, or other difficulty in the minds of English pupils of any age. Teachers were therefore asked to inform the Committee what terms used in modern text-books they had found unserviceable or less serviceable than others used to denote the same thing. In reply to this enquiry over a hundred answers, some of them very full, were received, and the Committee found them of great value, especially in determining the points on which reform is most urgently and most generally desired.

The result of the Committee's deliberations has been to confirm its belief in the possibility and the desirability of the reform contemplated. It was found that, although differences of opinion manifested themselves on particular points of grammatical doctrine, there was on the whole a large amount of agreement on fundamental matters; nor did any cleavage arise between teachers of ancient languages on the one hand and teachers of modern languages on the other. Most of the resolutions of the Committee have been reached either unanimously or by substantial majorities.

With a view to facilitating the use of the terminology herein proposed, the Committee has thought it well to suggest in the case of each of the English terms recommended a corresponding German and French term, for the use of teachers in this country who employ these languages in their grammatical teaching.

At the close of the year 1909 the Committee presented an Interim Report containing the conclusions which it had

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reached up to that time. This Interim Report was discussed by nearly all the Associations represented on the Committee at their General Meetings of the year 1910, and the reception which it met with was in all cases favourable and in some particularly cordial. Certain sections, however, of the Report were criticized and referred to the Committee for further consideration. These criticisms were, as might have been expected, not entirely consistent with one another. What one Association disapproved was in some cases warmly approved by another Association. Nevertheless there were several sections which did not commend themselves to a considerable number of the Associations; and these are now presented in an amended form, in order to meet the views of as many teachers as possible. But all suggestions received, whether from Associations or from individual scholars and teachers who have favoured the Committee with an expression of their views, have been very carefully considered by the Committee, and the present Report contains amendments of detail in many places. At the same time the Committee has not seen reason to depart from its main principles as to what will prove most serviceable to the cause of sound grammatical teaching in the country. It is the hope of the Committee that the terminology suggested in the present Report will be widely adopted, by teachers, by writers of school books, and by examining bodies, as a standard terminology for the fundamental facts of grammar. The Committee, however, recognizes that, in dealing with special points of grammar which arise in connexion with more advanced work, teachers and writers of text-books will find it necessary to supplement this standard terminology by additional terms not inconsistent with those here presented. On the other hand, it will readily be understood that the very scope of the Committee's work has made it necessary to recommend some terms the use of which the Committee would deprecate in the early stages of learning a language, as expressing distinctions which belong to a comparatively advanced stage of learning.

There have been altogether twenty-four meetings of the Committee, nine in 1909 and fifteen in 1910, lasting on an average $3\frac{1}{4}$ hours each; and also many meetings of sub-committees.—It is the intention of the Committee to produce a

final issue of the present Report early next year, after it has been submitted to the Associations represented ; it is therefore desirable that the Report be taken into consideration by the Associations as soon as possible.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The corresponding German and French terms are given after each of the recommendations.

I. That the first stage in the analysis of a sentence be to divide it into two parts, to be called the *Subject* and the *Predicate*, the *Subject* being the group of words or the single word which denotes the person or thing of which the Predicate is said, and the *Predicate* being all that is said of the person or thing denoted by the Subject.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Subjekt</i>	<i>Sujet</i>
<i>Predicate</i>	<i>Prädikat</i>	<i>Prédicat</i>

In the following examples the Predicate is distinguished from the Subject by heavy type :—

The merciful man **is** merciful to his beast
 Uneasy **lies** the head that wears a crown.
 How sweet the moonlight **sleeps** upon this bank !
 Long live the King !
 Hätte ich es doch nicht gesagt !
 Quid mihi Celsus agit ?
 Cinq étrangers sur dix savent notre langue.
 Τίς ἀγορεύειν βούλεται ;

NOTE 1.—Where the Subject consists of several words, the Noun or Noun Equivalent around which the other words are grouped may, when necessary, be distinguished as the *Subject Word*.

NOTE 2.—In a normal sentence the Subject and the Predicate are fully expressed, but there are instances in which either the one or the other is only implied, wholly or in part.

Examples :—

Come [you] here.—[I] thank you.—What a beautiful night
 [it is] !
 Diesen Kuss [gebe ich] der ganzen Welt.
 Nugas [agis].
 [Je vous demande] mille pardons.
 Αἰδώς [ἔστω σοι ὁ ἑμὴν].—Μοῦρῶ · δάλλει ἱππος.

II. That the part of the Predicate which indicates

- (a) what the person or thing denoted by the Subject is declared to be, become, be named, or seem
 (b) what the person or thing denoted by the Object (see Rec. IV.) is declared to be made or named

be called the *Predicative Adjective*, *Predicative Noun*, or *Predicative Pronoun*; and that the same terms be applied to Adjectives, Nouns and Pronouns similarly used in connexion with other Verbs than those mentioned above.

Predicative *Prädikativ* *Prédicatif*

The term 'predicative' is also applicable to Equivalents of Adjectives and Nouns used predicatively (Recommendation V.).

Examples:—

- (a) He is happy.—He was made happy.—I will live a bachelor.
 Thou art the man.—Are you not he?
 The ring is of great value.
 Der Himmel wurde grau.
 Haec insula vocatur Mona.—Nudus ara, sere nudus.
 Vous êtes studieuses, mesdemoiselles.—C'est moi.
 Πολλῶν ὁ καιρὸς γίγνεται διδάσκαλος.—Χαλεπὰ τὰ καλὰ.—Φαίνεται προδοὺς τὴν πόλιν.—Ὁ ποταμὸς βεῖ μέγας.—Πρῶτος προσβάλλει
- (b) It made him happy.—Home they brought her warrior dead.
 Man heisst den Löwen den König der Tiere.
 Hanc insulam Monam vocant.—Caesar Helvetios primos debellavit.
 On l'a élu roi.
 Νόμις ἀδελφούς τοὺς ἀληθινούς φίλους — Ἐλαβε τοῦτο δῶρον.

NOTE 1.—Predicative Adjectives, Nouns, and Pronouns always express some part of the Predicate, but they differ widely from one another in regard to the proportion which that part bears to the part expressed by the Verb. Thus: (1) He is happy, (2) He became happy, (3) He looked happy, (4) He went to bed happy.

NOTE 2.—The terms 'copulative' and 'factitive,' as applied to some of the Verbs employed in sentences of the above classes (a and b respectively), should be abandoned as unnecessary.

NOTE 3.—The term 'proleptic,' though useful to describe the Adjective in instances like "Ere humane statute purged the gentle weal" (Shakespeare, *Macbeth*, III. iv. 76), "*Rubra*

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Gedenke meiner. (Genitive Object)
 Credo tibi. (Dative Object)
 Victoria uti nescis. (Ablative Object)
 Μαντική οὐ πελθεμαι. (Dative Object)
 I wish to learn. Discere cupio. (Infinitive as Object)
 He asked me many questions.
 Er lehrte mich die deutsche Sprache.
 Illud te rogo. } (Two Objects)
 Gorgias adulescentes dicere docebat.
 Βασίλειος ἡμᾶς τὰ ἑπτα ἀπαιτεῖ.

NOTE 1.—In such sentences as “He gave me a book,” “Pecuniam tibi credidi,” the words *me* and *tibi* may be called the *Indirect Object*.

NOTE 2.—Although in such examples as those quoted above the Infinitive is clearly an Object, it is impossible to draw the line historically between these uses and those in which the Infinitive has a more or less distinct adverbial character, e.g. “Possum dicere,” “Multa habeo dicere,” “Gaudeo videre.”

NOTE 3.—The Committee recommends the term *Retained Accusative* for use in sentences which are passive inversions of such active constructions as “He asked me many questions,” “They awarded him the prize.”

Examples :—

I was asked many questions.
 He was awarded the prize. (Retained Accusatives)
 Doctus iter melius.
 Ξενοφῶν ἐπετράπη τὴν ἀρχήν.

V. That any group of words or single word which (not being an Adjective) is used either predicatively or as an epithet qualifying any Noun in the sentence be called an *Adjective Equivalent* or be said to be *used adjectivally*; and that any group of words or single word which (not being an Adverb) is used to qualify any Verb, Adjective, or Adverb in the sentence be called an *Adverb Equivalent* or be said to be *used adverbially*.

Examples :—

(a) Adjective Equivalents :—

The man in the moon.—A ring of great value.

Sei guten Muts.

Regina pecunia.

Elle était joyeuse, riant toujours et à tous.

Οἱ νῦν ἀνθρώποι.

(b) Adverb Equivalents :—

Come unto these yellow sands.

Horst du's klingen mächtigen Rufes ?

His rebus gestis, domum rediit.

Il demeure à Rome.

Ἀθήνησιν (or ἐν Ἀθήναις) οἰκεῖ. — Ὅταν ἔλθῃς, ἐρῶ.

VI. (a) That sentences containing only one predication be called *Simple*.

(b) That sentences containing one main predication and one or more subordinate predications be called *Complex*.

<i>Sentence</i>	<i>Satz</i>	<i>Proposition</i>
<i>Simple Sentence</i>	<i>Einfacher Satz</i>	<i>Proposition Simple</i>
<i>Complex Sentence</i>	<i>Zusammengesetzter Satz</i>	<i>Proposition Complexe</i>

Examples :—

- (a) The quality of mercy is not strained.
 Wer reitet so spät durch Nacht und Wind ?
 Dic, M. Tulli.
 La haine est la colère des faibles.
 Πάντα βέλ.
- } (Simple Sentences)

- (b) He jests at scars that never felt a wound.
 Wer nie sein Brot mit Tränen ass . . .
 Der kennt euch nicht, ihr himmlischen Mächte.
 Dic mihi quid feceris.
 Quand il reviendra, je le lui dirai.
 Ἐὰν τοῦτο πράξῃ, κόλασθήσεται.
- } (Complex Sentences)

VII. That the terms *Double* or *Multiple* be used to describe any Sentence or any member of a Sentence which consists of two or more coordinate parts.

<i>Double</i>	<i>Doppelt</i>	<i>Double</i>
<i>Double Sentence</i>	<i>Doppelsatz</i>	<i>Proposition Double</i>
<i>Double Subject</i>	<i>Doppeltes Subjekt</i>	<i>Subject Double</i>
etc.	etc.	etc.
<i>Multiple</i>	<i>Vielfach</i>	<i>Multiple</i>
<i>Coordinate</i>	<i>Beigeordnet</i>	<i>Coordonné</i>

The adoption of this recommendation renders unnecessary the term 'Compound Sentence,' which is ambiguous, being often used to denote what is called a Complex Sentence above, VI. (b).

Examples :—

God made the country and man made the town.
The tale is long, nor have I heard it out.
Words are like leaves; and where they most
abound } (Double Sentence)
Much fruit of sense beneath is rarely found.

The buyer and the seller came to an understanding.
Der Kaiser und sein Feldherr entzweiten sich.
Ἡδονὴ καὶ λύπη ἐν τῇ πόλει βασιλεύσεται } (Double Subject)

Conticuere omnes intentique ora tenebant. (Double Predicate)

Après quoi, Jean { entra dans la maison,
se débarrassa de son sabre,
remplacé son képi par un
vieux chapeau } (Multiple Predicate)
et s'en alla retrouver le curé.

Il reprit et continua sa vie d'autrefois. (Double Verb)

Lifeless but beautiful he lay.
Golden und rosig wehen } (Double Predicate
Die Wolken drüber her. } Adjective)

Die Rose, die Lilie, die Taube, die Sonne, } (Multiple Object)
Die liebt' ich einst alle in Liebeswonne.

VIII. That a part of a sentence equivalent to a Noun, Adjective, or Adverb, and having a Subject and a Predicate of its own, be called a *Subordinate Clause* (*Noun Clause*, *Adjective Clause*, or *Adverb Clause*); and that this nomenclature be adopted whether the Predicate be expressed by a Finite Verb or by an Infinitive.

<i>Subordinate Clause</i>	<i>Nebensatz</i>	<i>Proposition Subordonnée</i>
<i>Noun Clause</i>	<i>Substantivsatz</i>	<i>Proposition Substantive</i>
<i>Adjective Clause</i>	<i>Adjektivsatz</i>	<i>Proposition Adjective</i>
<i>Adverb Clause</i>	<i>Adverbialsatz</i>	<i>Proposition Adverbiale</i>

Examples :—

That you have wronged me doth appear in this.
The proposal that he should be appointed was dropped.
Tell me whose is fancy bred.
People believe him to be dead.
Dixerunt eum esse mortuum.
Tu ne quaesieris (scire nefas) quem mihi, quem tibi,
finem di dederint.
Hac re homines bestius praestant quod loqui possunt.
Je crois qu'il vient.
Τὸ φθόνῳ τοῦτο μόνον ἀγαθὸν πρόσεστι, ὅτι μέγιστον κακὸν τοῖς
ἔχουσιν ἐστίν. } (Noun Clauses)

I wandered lonely as a cloud

That floats on high o'er vales and hills. (Adjective Clause)

Mancher wäre kein Bösewicht geworden, wenn man ihn nicht dafür gehalten hätte. (Adverb Clause)

NOTE 1.—The Committee was nearly equally divided upon the question whether participial expressions such as the Latin Ablative Absolute construction should be called Clauses or Phrases (Recommendation IX.).

NOTE 2.—In regard to the part of a complex sentence which is not subordinate the Committee recommends that in cases where it contains a Subject and a Predicate of its own it be called the *Main Clause*; but that where it does not, it be called the *Main Predicate* or the *Main Verb*, as the case may require.

Examples :—

If (When) you call me, I will come. (Main Clause)

That he has gone is clear. (Main Predicate)

That you are right implies that I am wrong. (Main Verb)

<i>Main Clause</i>	<i>Hauptsatz</i>	<i>Proposition Principale</i>
<i>Main Predicate</i>	<i>Hauptprädikat</i>	<i>Prédicat Principal</i>
<i>Main Verb</i>	<i>Hauptverb</i>	<i>Verbe Principal</i>

IX. That a part of a Sentence consisting of a group of words equivalent to a Noun, Adjective, or Adverb, but not having a Subject and a Predicate of its own, be called a *Noun Phrase*, *Adjective Phrase*, or *Adverb Phrase*.

Phrase

Ausdruck

Locution

Examples :—

I stood on the bridge at midnight. (Adverb Phrases)

The clock on the bridge struck the hour. (Adjective Phrase)

Ein Jüngling von edlem Gefühle. (Adjective Phrase)

Mens alitur oratoribus poeticisque legendis. (Adverb Phrase)

Tanta in tanto viro vitia referre pudet. (Adjective Phrase)

Un bateau à vapeur. (Adjective Phrase)

Οἱ στρατιῶται οἱ ἐν τῇ πόλει. (Adjective Phrase)

Ἐκρατεῖτε ἐκ τοῦ προσέχειν τοῖς πράγμασι τὸν νοῦν. (Noun Phrase)

NOTE 1.—The difficulty felt by the Committee in recommending the term 'Phrase' in this sense (see Interim Report, p. 9) has now been removed by the action of the French Ministry of Public Instruction, which has adopted the term 'Proposition' (not 'Phrase') for use in France in the sense

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of 'Sentence' and 'Clause.' See *Nomenclature Grammaticale*, 1910, p. 4, and compare Recommendations VI. and VIII. above.

NOTE 2.—For the nomenclature of expressions like 'because of,' 'as to,' 'in case,' 'in order that,' see Recommendation XXXIII.

X. That sentences be classified as follows in all the five languages :—

- (a) STATEMENTS (corresponding to logical judgments) :
e.g. "It is so," "I speak the truth."
 - (b) QUESTIONS (the interrogative forms of statements, in some cases mere inversions of them or differing only in tone of voice) :
e.g. "Is it so?" "What is it?" "You think so?"
 - (c) DESIRES, including Commands, Requests, Entreaties, Prayers, Wishes :
e.g. "So be it," "Speak the truth," "Tell me not in mournful numbers," "Ruin seize thee, ruthless king," "May your shadow never grow less."
- The term 'Desire' is here used in a technical sense
(= Expression of desire).

NOTE.—EXCLAMATIONS such as the following are a fourth class of sentence, always distinct in meaning and intonation and to a great extent also in form (including order of words) from both Statements and Questions ; but they do not stand on the same level of importance as the three kinds of sentence enumerated above :—

- "How true it is!" "How true!"
- "Welch eine Wendung durch Gottes Sendung!"
- "Quam pulcher est!" "Ut perii! ut me malus abstulit error!"
- "Qu'il est riche!" "Que de fleurs!"
- Ὡς καλῶς εἶπας. Οἷα πείσομαι κακά. (Contrast Questions with ὥς, ποῖος, etc.)

The term 'Exclamation' has wider uses ; but it is here applied to a limited class of sentences, viz. those introduced by Pronouns, Adjectives or Adverbs which in other contexts are either interrogative (e.g. 'how') or relative (e.g. ὥς), but are here exclamatory.

<i>Statement</i>	<i>Aussage</i>	<i>Déclaration</i>
<i>Question</i>	<i>Frage</i>	<i>Question</i>
<i>Desire</i>	<i>Begehrung</i>	<i>Prière</i>
<i>Exclamation</i>	<i>Ausruf</i>	<i>Exclamation</i>

XI. That Noun Clauses be classified on the same principle as non-dependent Sentences (Recommendation X.) in all the five languages, and that the classes be called—

(a) DEPENDENT STATEMENTS :

e.g. "I think it is so," "I hope that he will come,"

"He thought that it was so,"

"That you have wronged me doth appear in this."

(b) DEPENDENT QUESTIONS :

e.g. "Tell me what it is," "They asked what it was."

(c) DEPENDENT DESIRES (Commands, Requests, Entreaties, Prayers, Wishes) :

e.g. "I demand (require, desire) that this be done,"

"They demanded that it should be done."

"Mind you speak the truth," "Oro facias,"

"Hortabantur veniremus," "Impero ut fiat."

"I wish I were dead" ("I have the wish: were I dead!"), "Vellem adesset."

Βούλει λάβω ματ; "Ορα μὴ πέσῃς.

NOTE 1.—DEPENDENT EXCLAMATIONS stand in the same relation to the other forms of Dependent Speech as Exclamations to the other forms of non-dependent Sentences (X.):

e.g. "See how they run," "Vides ut alta stet nive candidum Soracte," "Mirum quantum illi viro fides fuerit," "Vous voyez comme il travaille" (contrast comment in questions), Ἐθαύμασα ὡς εὐμενῶς τὸν λόγον ἀπεδέξατο.

Dependent

Abhängig

Dépendant

NOTE 2.—The term 'dependent' as here used is not synonymous with 'subordinate' (see Recommendation VIII.): it denotes the subdivisions of one particular kind of Subordinate Clause, and calls attention to the close relation which subsists between these clauses and non-dependent sentences (Recommendation X.).

NOTE 3.—The term 'non-dependent' has been preferred to 'independent' because in the practice of the class-room 'independent' is liable to be confused with 'in dependent.'

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XII. That Adverb Clauses be classified as follows in all the five languages :—

(1) CLAUSES OF TIME :

e.g. "When I ope my mouth, let no dog bark."

(*Temporalsätze, Propositions de temps*)

(2) CLAUSES OF PLACE :

e.g. "Fools rush in where angels fear to tread."

(*Lokalsätze, Propositions de lieu*)

(3) CLAUSES OF REASON :

e.g. "Freely we serve, because we freely love."

(*Kausalsätze, Propositions de cause*)

(4) CLAUSES OF PURPOSE :

e.g. "And wretches hang, that jury-men may dine."

(*Absichtssätze, Propositions de but*)

(5) CLAUSES OF RESULT :

e.g. "He is so weary that he cannot speak."

(*Folgesätze, Propositions de conséquence*)

(6) CLAUSES OF CONDITION :

e.g. "If you have tears, prepare to shed them now."

(*Bedingungssätze, Propositions de condition*)

(7) CLAUSES OF CONCESSION :

e.g. "Murder, though it have no tongue, will yet speak."

(*Konzessivsätze, Propositions de concession*)

(8) CLAUSES OF COMPARISON :

(a) Manner :

e.g. "Heaven does with us as we with torches do."

(b) Degree :

e.g. "It is as long as it is broad."

"It is longer than it is broad."

"Blood is thicker than water."

(*Komparativsätze, Propositions de comparaison*)

NOTE 1.—The Committee recommends that the terms 'protasis' and 'apodosis' be abandoned, and that the terms *If-clause* be used for the Clause of Condition and *Then-clause* for the Main Clause.

NOTE 2.—The Committee recommends the retention of the term *Absolute* (German *Absolut*, French *Absolu*) as applied to the constructions called Nominative Absolute, Accusative Absolute, Genitive Absolute, Ablative Absolute.

XIII. That the following parts of speech be recognized:
 Parts of Speech. *Noun, Pronoun, Adjective, Verb, Adverb, Preposition,*
Conjunction, Interjection.

<i>Noun</i>	<i>Nomen</i>	<i>Nom</i>
<i>Pronoun</i>	<i>Pronomen</i>	<i>Pronom</i>
<i>Adjective</i>	<i>Adjektiv</i>	<i>Adjectif</i>
<i>Verb</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Verbe</i>
<i>Adverb</i>	<i>Adverb</i>	<i>Adverbe</i>
<i>Preposition</i>	<i>Präposition</i>	<i>Préposition</i>
<i>Conjunction</i>	<i>Konjunktion</i>	<i>Conjonction</i>
<i>Interjection</i>	<i>Interjektion</i>	<i>Interjection</i>

NOTE 1.—The Committee is of opinion that the term 'Substantive' should not be used as the name of a part of speech.

NOTE 2.—The terms Article and Numeral should be used to designate not separate parts of speech but subdivisions of other parts of speech.

<i>Article</i>	<i>Artikel</i>	<i>Article</i>
<i>Numeral</i>	<i>Numeral</i>	<i>Nombre and</i>
	(Plural Numerale)	(as an adj.)
	or <i>Zahlwort</i>	<i>Numéral</i>

NOTE 3.—Interjections are not parts of speech in quite the same sense as other words are; but some interjections stand for a whole sentence (Exclamation), e.g. 'alas!' = 'how sorry I am!'; and some are capable of taking an Accusative, or a Genitive, or a Dative Case, e.g. 'ah me!', οἱμοι τῶν κακῶν, 'vae victis!'

XIV. That the terms *Collective* and *Abstract* be retained for the practical purpose of framing certain rules of grammar, e.g. that collective nouns may take a plural verb, and that abstract nouns in *-io* in Latin and in *-heit* or *-keit* in German are feminine; but the Committee deprecates the practice of classifying all Nouns under the heads 'Abstract,' 'Concrete'; 'Proper,' 'Common.'

XV. That the words 'my,' 'thy,' 'her,' 'its,' 'our,'
 Pronouns 'your,' 'their,' and 'his' as used in "his father";
 and 'mein,' 'dein,' 'sein,' 'ihr,' 'unser,' 'euer,' 'Ihr';
 Adjectives. 'meus,' 'tuus,' 'suus,' 'noster,' 'vester'; 'mon,'
 'ton,' 'son,' 'notre,' 'votre,' 'leur'; ἐμός, σός, ἡμέτερος,
 ὑμέτερος be called *Possessive Adjectives*. So too 'mine' and
 'thine' as used in poetry before a vowel.

XVI. That in their ordinary use English 'hers,' 'ours,'
 'yours,' 'theirs,' and 'mine,' 'thine,' 'his,' as used in "This
 is *mine*," "This is *his*," "*His* is better than *hers*";
 German 'meiner,' 'der meine,' 'der meinige,' etc.; French
 'le mien,' etc., be called *Possessive Pronouns*.

Possessive *Possessiv* *Possessif*

XVII. That English 'this' and 'that,' if used with a
 Noun, be called *Demonstrative Adjectives*, but if used without
 a Noun be called *Demonstrative Pronouns*; and that the same
 terminology be applied to the corresponding words in the
 other languages.

Demonstrative *Demonstrativ* *Démonstratif*

XVIII. That the words 'myself,' 'thyself,' 'himself,'
 'herself,' 'itself,' 'ourselves,' 'yourselves,' 'yourself,' 'them-
 selves,' as used in sentences like "I hate myself," "Leave
 them to themselves," be called *Reflexive Pronouns*; so too
 the following words in the corresponding use—German
 'mich,' 'dich,' 'sich,' etc., Latin and French 'me,' 'te,'
 'se,' etc., Greek ἐμαυτόν, σεαυτόν, εαυτόν, etc.

Reflexive *Reflexiv* *Réflexivi*

XIX. That the words 'ipse,' 'selbst,' '-même,' 'myself,'
 'yourself,' 'himself,' 'herself,' 'itself' (in the sense of 'ipse'),
 and αὐτός be called *Emphasizing Adjectives or Pronouns*.

Examples :—

Ipse dixit.—Nomen tenus erat super ipsum.

I said it myself.—Here's a shilling for yourself.

Emphasizing *Emphatisch* or *Betonend* *Emphatique*

XX. That in view of the twofold use of many verbs the terms *Transitive* and *Intransitive* be applied to uses rather than to classification, i.e. that it is better to speak of a verb *used transitively* or *intransitively* than to speak of a transitive or an intransitive verb.

Transitively
Intransitively

Transitiv
Intransitiv

Transitivement
Intransitivement

Examples :—

Used transitively

He moved the rock.

The birds are building
their nests.

Used intransitively

The moon moves round the earth.

Birds build in spring.

XXI. That in English sentences containing such expressions as "He laughed at the story," it is generally advisable to treat the Verb as used intransitively, and to take the Preposition with the Noun that follows as forming an Adverb Equivalent.

NOTE.—In English it is difficult to draw a line determining at what point an Adverb or a Preposition becomes so closely attached to the Verb as to make the term 'Compound Verb' necessary. But there are certain constructions in which, side by side with the analysis just recommended, it is necessary also to recognize that the process of composition has been nearly completed : viz. :

- (1) When the Verb and the Adverb or Preposition are together used in the passive, although the Verb alone could not be so used, e.g. "The matter was talked about," "The distinction was whittled away."
- (2) Where the meaning of the Verb + the Adverb or Preposition varies according to the closeness of the connexion between the two ; contrast, for example,
 - (a) "He laughed at everything good" with "Did he laugh at 2 o'clock in the morning ?"
 - (b) "The doctor was sent for" with "The boy was sent for the doctor."

XXII. That the term 'active' be no longer used in the sense of 'transitive,' and that the term 'neuter' be given up altogether in connexion with Verbs.

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XXIII. That the term *Impersonal Verb* (or *Verb used impersonally*) be retained in its ordinary sense.

XXIV. That the term *Auxiliary Verb* be retained in its ordinary sense, and that Verbs that are not auxiliary be described as *Verbs with full meaning*.

XXV. That the terms *Strong* and *Weak*, as applied to conjugation and declension, be retained.

Examples :-

<i>Strong</i>	<i>Weak</i>
to fall	to fell
brechen	lernen
guter Wein	der gute Wein
der Mann	der Knabe

XXVI. That the words 'when,' 'where,' 'whither,' 'whence,' 'how,' 'why,' etc., together with the **Adverbs** and **Con-** corresponding words in other languages, when **junctions.** introducing questions, whether non-dependent or dependent, be termed *Interrogative Adverbs*.

<i>Interrogative</i>	<i>Interrogativ</i>	<i>Interrogatif</i>
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German : *wann, wo, wohin, woher, wie, warum*, etc.

Latin : *quando, ubi, quo, unde, quam, quomodo, ut* (= 'how'),
cur, etc.

French : *quand, où, d'où, comment, pourquoi*, etc.

Greek : *πότε, ὅποτε, πηνίκα, ὅπηνίκα; ποῦ, ὅπου; ποῖ, ὅπου;
πόθεν, ὅπόθεν; πῶς, ὅπως*

XXVII. That no words which can be treated as Adverbs be included among Coordinating Conjunctions; it being recognized that some Adverbs qualify the sentence as a whole and not any single word in it. [See Recommendation XXXI.]

Such words as the following, then, are Adverbs :—

therefore, consequently, so; daher; itaque, igitur; alors; ovv. yet, nevertheless; doch; tamen; néanmoins; ὅμως, μέντοι, also, moreover; auch; etiam, quoque; aussi; καί = 'also.'

NOTE.—The German words quoted above involve as a general rule inverted order, like other Adverbs in German. There is therefore a practical convenience in calling them Adverbs rather than Conjunctions.

XXVIII. That the words 'and,' 'nor,' 'or,' 'but,' and in modern English 'for,' together with the corresponding words in other languages, be termed *Coordinating Conjunctions*,

German: *und; noch; oder; aber, allein, sondern; denn.*

Latin: *et, atque, ac, -que; neque; aut, vel, -ve; sed, at, autem, verum, vero; nam, namque, enim.*

French: *et; ni; ou; mais; car.*

Greek: *καί, τε; οὐδέ, μηδέ; ἤ; ἀλλά, δέ; γάρ.*

Coordinating

Beordnend

Coordonnant

NOTE.—In an earlier use, some instances of which are found in Shakespeare, the English 'for' was a Subordinating Conjunction (= 'because'): *e.g.* "They are not ever jealous for the cause, but jealous *for they are jealous*" (*Othello*, III. iv. 180).

XXIX. That the same term (*Coordinating Conjunction*) be applied to the words 'both' (followed by 'and'), 'neither' (followed by 'nor'), and 'either' (followed by 'or').

German: *sowohl* (followed by *als*), *weder* (followed by *noch*); *entweder* (followed by *oder*).

Latin: *et* (followed by *et*), *que* (followed by *que*); *neque* (followed by *neque*); *aut* (followed by *aut*), *vel* (followed by *vel*).

French: *et* (followed by *et*); *ni* (followed by *ni*); *ou* (followed by *ou*).

Greek: *τε* (followed by *καί* or *τε*), *καί* (followed by *καί*); *οὔτε* (followed by *οὔτε*), *μήτε* (followed by *μήτε*); *ἤ* (followed by *ἤ*); *μήν* (followed by *δέ*).

XXX. That on syntactical grounds (*e.g.* the rules for the order of words in German) it is desirable to give the same name in all the languages considered to such words as the German *wenn* and *dass*, introducing Adverb Clauses or Noun Clauses; and that the name for all such words be *Subordinating Conjunction*, though it is desirable to recognize that the origin of many of these words in case constructions or other adverbial expressions can still be clearly traced.

Subordinating Unterordnend Subordonnant

The following are some of the more important of these words:—

- (1) introducing Adverb Clauses of Time :
*when ; wenn, als ; cum ; quand, lorsque ; ὅτε, ἐπεί.
 while ; während ; dum ; pendant que ; ὥς, ἐν ᾧ.
 before ; Ehe, bevor ; ante (prius) quam ; avant que ; πρίν.*
- (2) introducing Adverb Clauses of Place :
where ; wo ; ubi ; où ; οὗ, ἐνθα.
- (3) introducing Adverb Clauses of Reason :
because ; weil ; quia, quod, cum ; parce que ; ὅτι, διότι.
- (4) introducing Adverb Clauses of Purpose :
that, in order that ; damit ; ut ; afin que ; ἵνα, ὅπως.
- (5) introducing Adverb Clauses of Result :
that ; dass ; ut ; que (after si, etc.) ; ὥστε.
- (6) introducing Adverb Clauses of Condition :
if ; wenn, falls ; si ; si, en cas que, au cas où ; εἰ.
- (7) introducing Adverb Clauses of Concession :
*though ; obgleich, obwohl ; etsi, quamquam, quamvis,
 cum, ut ; quoique ; εἰ καί, καὶ εἰ.*
- (8) introducing Adverb Clauses of Comparison :
*as ; wie ; ut, sicut, quam ; comme, que ; ὥς.
 than ; als ; quam ; que ; ἢ.*
- (9) introducing Noun Clauses :
that ; dass ; quod, ut ; que ; ὅτι.

XXXI. That the term *Connective* be used to comprise all words, whether Pronouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, or Conjunctions, which serve to connect clauses or sentences.
 [Recommendations XXVII, XXVIII, XXIX, XXX, XXXII.]

NOTE.—The term *Link* may be used as a short substitute for ‘Connective.’

XXXII. That the term *Relative* be retained in its ordinary use, as the specific name for certain connective Pronouns (e.g. Lat. *qui, quae, quod*) and Adjectives (e.g. Lat. *qualis, quantus*), and as indicating the origin of many Conjunctions, and both the origin and the actual use of words like Engl. *when, where*, Lat. *cum, ubi*, Fr. *où, que*, when they introduce an Adjective Clause with a Noun as antecedent, e.g. “the season *when* the roses bloom,” “the house *where* he was born.”

NOTE.—The traditional term ‘relative’ is, of course, inadequate: words like ‘who,’ ‘which,’ differ from other pronouns by marking the clause or sentence which they introduce as forming part of a larger group.

XXXIII. That groups of words like ‘in order that,’ ‘in case,’ be described as *Compound Conjunctions*, and groups like ‘because of,’ ‘as to,’ as *Compound Prepositions*.

XXXIV. That in English Grammar the distinction of Gender be not emphasized.

NOTE.—The objection to distinctions of gender in English is that they are (1) unnecessary and (2) misleading. To call ‘father’ masculine, ‘mother’ feminine, ‘table’ neuter leads to nothing in English grammar; for, as there are no inflexions of gender in adjectives in modern English, there is no agreement of the adjective with its noun in gender; and further, to use the term ‘masculine’ as denoting male, ‘feminine’ as denoting female, and ‘neuter’ as denoting neither male nor female is to adopt a false definition of the term ‘gender.’ In German, Latin, French, and Greek there is only a partial identity between ‘masculine’ and ‘male,’ ‘feminine’ and ‘female,’ ‘neuter’ and ‘neither male nor female’; nor is it true that the distinctions of gender in these languages are ultimately based upon distinctions of sex. For the results of modern research on this question see Brugmann,

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Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik, 2nd edition, Vol. II., part 1, pp. 82-103, and the discussion of the question (in a review of the abridged edition of this book) by R. S. Conway, *Classical Review*, Vol. XVIII. (1904), p. 412. See also the brief statements relating to English nouns and pronouns in H. Sweet's *Primer of Historical English Grammar* (1902), § 231, and the *English Accidence* in the Parallel Grammar Series, by J. Hall and E. A. Sonnenschein (1889), § 49, § 74.

XXXV. That the terms 'Objective,' 'Possessive' and 'Cases.' 'Nominative of Address' as names of Cases in English be discarded, and that so far as possible the Latin names of the Cases be used.

Thus.—

Instead of 'Subjective' the term *Nominative* should be used ;

„ „ 'Nominative of Address' the term *Vocative* should be used ;

„ „ 'Objective' the two terms *Accusative* and *Dative* should be used ;

„ „ 'Possessive' the term *Genitive* should be used.

Examples :—

I am ; thou art ; he is ; etc.	(Nominative)
Where art thou, beam of light ?	} (Vocative)
Good day, Sir.	
Nobody saw me.	} (Accusative)
Who saw him die ?	
I saw Mark Antony offer him a crown.	(Dative)
Caesar's trophies	} (Genitive)
Caesar's images	
Caesar's murderers.	
A stone's throw.	
Tempe's classic vale	

NOTE.—The term *Case* is necessary even for English Grammar by itself, in view of the surviving inflexions, especially in Pronouns, and also because it is desirable for the learner to recognize the likeness of English, so far as it extends, to more highly inflected languages.

From this point of view the following statement may be made in regard to the Cases in English :—

English, like German, has five Cases, viz. Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, Genitive, and Dative. In modern English many of the distinctions of form which originally existed have fallen away, but the differences of meaning are of great importance, as may be seen, for instance, in the double use of 'him': e.g. "I brought *him* here" (Accusative); "I brought *him* a present" (Dative). Moreover the distinction between the Accusative and the Dative of Nouns in sentences which have both Cases is marked by their order in the sentence (Dative before Accusative): e.g. "I gave my son a present"; "It saved my father much trouble." See H. Sweet, *New English Grammar*, Part II., §§ 1823, 1990; C. T. Onions, *Advanced English Syntax*, § 103.

On the importance of order of words as one of the means employed by languages to mark distinctions of Case, see Wundt, *Die Sprache* (Vol. I. 2 of his *Völkerpsychologie*, ed. 1900, pp. 73-85). The distinction between the Nominative and the Accusative, for example, is marked (if at all) only by the order of words in several classes of Nouns and Pronouns even in highly inflected languages: e.g. Neuters, in the singular and the plural, in German, Latin, and Greek; Feminines, in the singular and the plural, in German; Masculines plural and many Masculines singular in German; all duals in Greek.

XXXVI. That the same names of Cases be used also in German and French.

<i>Case</i>	<i>Kasus</i>	<i>Cas</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Nominativ</i>	<i>Nominatif</i>
<i>Vocative</i>	<i>Vocativ</i>	<i>Vocatif</i>
<i>Accusative</i>	<i>Akkusativ</i>	<i>Accusatif</i>
<i>Genitive</i>	<i>Genitiv</i>	<i>Génitif</i>
<i>Dative</i>	<i>Dativ</i>	<i>Datif</i>

Examples :—

Nom.	Je l'ai dit.—Ich habo es gesagt.
Voc.	Vous avez tort, mon ami.—Sieh, Herr, den Ring.
Acc.	Il me vit.—Er sah mich.
Gen.	J'en ai quatre.—La maison dont j'ai la clef.—Der Schlüssel des Hauses.
Dat.	Il me dit cela.—Er sagte es mir.

NOTE.—The traditional names of the Cases seem to the Committee preferable to new terms such as 'Werfall' (for

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Nominative), 'Wenfall' (for Accusative), 'Wesfall' or 'Wessenfall' (for Genitive), 'Wemfall' (for Dative), which are used by some teachers and writers of grammars in Germany.

XXXVII. That in English and French the combination of a Preposition with a Noun or Pronoun be called a *Casephrase*; and that if the case of the Noun or Pronoun depending on the Preposition be named, it be called the Accusative.

Examples :—

He came to London. He travelled with me.
Nous sommes allés au théâtre. Je suis revenu avec lui.

NOTE.—In French the latter part of this recommendation can be justified not only by obvious convenience but also historically, since in Vulgar Latin, both on inscriptions and in late writers, we find the Accusative replacing the Ablative after Prepositions (*Saturninus cum suos discentes*, at Pompeii even, i.e. before A.D. 79, see Meyer-Lübke, *Grammaire Comparée des Langues Romanes*, II. p. 29); and similarly in Byzantine Greek (from A.D. 600) and in vernacular modern Greek all Prepositions take the Accusative as their ordinary construction.

XXXVIII. That in Latin the names used for the Cases be as follows: *Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, Ablative*; and that the term *Locative* be used to describe forms like 'humi,' 'ruri,' 'Romae.'

NOTE.—The retention of the traditional names of the Cases in Greek and Latin to denote the particular categories of form is not inconsistent with the treatment of Cases like the Greek Genitive and the Latin Ablative as 'syncretic' Cases—the Greek Genitive having absorbed the functions of the original Ablative, the Latin Ablative those of the original Instrumental and Sociative (which were identical in form) and largely also those of the Locative.

Examples.—

Ὁ θάνατος ἐλευθεροῖ τὴν ψυχὴν τοῦ σώματος. (Genitive for original Ablative)

Ναῦν εἶλον, αὐτοῖς ἀνδράσιν. (Dative for original Sociative)

Securi percussus est (Ablative for original Instrumental)

Eo anno interfectus est (Ablative for original Locative)

XXXIX. That the order of the Cases (where found) be as follows —

Nominative
Vocative
Accusative
Genitive
Dative
Ablative

Tenses
of the

XL. That the following scheme of names of Indicative. Tenses of the Indicative be adopted.

In this scheme account is taken not only of the relations of the tenses in the five languages to one another, but also of the needs of each language as taught separately. The verb 'write' is taken as an example (3rd person singular).

ENGLISH.

<i>writes</i>	Present	<i>has written</i>	Present Perfect
<i>will write</i>	Future	<i>will have written</i>	Future Perfect
<i>wrote</i>	Past	<i>had written</i>	Past Perfect
<i>would write</i>	Future in the past	<i>would have written</i>	Future Perfect in the past

with special Continuous Forms of each (*is writing, will be writing, was writing, would be writing, has been writing, etc.*), which mark the action as *going on*, and Compound Forms of the Present (*does write*) and Past (*did write*), used in negative and interrogative sentences and to express emphasis.

Verbs like 'be,' 'love,' 'know,' which denote a state as distinct from an act, have as a rule no special Continuous Forms.

The tense called Past has a double use, (1) as a Past Historic, *e.g.* "On his arrival he wrote to me", (2) as a Past Continuous, marking the action as either *going on* or *habitual* in

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the past, *e.g.* "He wrote while I read," "The poor soul sat sighing," "England loved Queen Victoria," "Milton wrote Latin as well as English verse."

The Future in the past and the Future Perfect in the past are seen in examples like "I thought that he would write," "I thought that he would have written before this." [For the usage in Main Clauses of Conditional Sentences see Recommendation XLIII.]

GERMAN.

As English, except that German has no special Continuous Forms and no Future in the past or Future Perfect in the past of the Indicative Mood.

<i>schreibt</i>	Present	<i>hat geschrieben</i>	Perfect
<i>wird schreiben</i>	Future	<i>wird geschrieben haben</i>	Future Perfect
<i>schrrieb</i>	Past	<i>hatte geschrieben</i>	Past Perfect

The German Past has the same double use as the English Past: (1) as a Past Historic, *e.g.* "Als er ankam, schrieb er an mich"; (2) as a Past Continuous, marking the action as either *going on* or *habitual* in the past, *e.g.* "Das Wasser rauscht, das Wasser schwoll, ein Fischer sass daran"; "Goethe schrieb Balladen."

The German tense that corresponds to the English Present Perfect is used (1) as a Present Perfect, *e.g.* "Er hat schon an mich geschrieben," "Ich habe geliebt und gelebet"; (2) colloquially as a Past Historic, *e.g.* "Nach seiner Ankunft hat er an mich geschrieben." Hence this tense is called simply 'Perfect,' in order to distinguish it from the English 'Present Perfect.'

The forms *würde schreiben*, *würde geschrieben haben* have the same functions as the Future in the past and the Future Perfect in the past of English and French, but they belong to the Subjunctive Mood (see Recommendation XLIII, Note 3).

<i>Present</i>	<i>Präsens</i>	<i>Perfect</i>	<i>Perfekt</i>
<i>Future</i>	<i>Futur</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>	<i>Futur-Perfekt</i> (for <i>Futurum Exactum</i>)
<i>Past</i>	<i>Präteritum</i> (if the shortened form <i>Präterit</i> is unacceptable)	<i>Past Perfect</i>	<i>Präterit-Perfekt</i> (or, if this is unacceptable, <i>Plusquam-perfekt</i>)

The following table shows the chief correspondences of the tenses of the Indicative in the four foreign languages to the tenses of English¹:—

ENGLISH	GERMAN	LATIN	FRENCH	GREEK
writes	schreibt	scribit	écrit	γράφει
is writing				γράφει
will write	wird schreiben	scribet	écrira	γράφει
will be writing		scribebat scripsit	écrivait écrivit	εγγράφε(ν) ἔγραψε(ν)
wrote	schrieb	scribebat	écrivait	—
was writing				—
would write				—
would be writing				—
has written	hat geschrieben	scripsit	a écrit	ἔγραψε(ν)
has been writing				(Passive γράφεται)
will have written	wird geschrieben haben	scripsit	aura écrit	εγγράφε(ν)
will have been writing		scripserat	avait (eût) écrit	—
had written	hatte geschrieben		aurait écrit	—
had been writing				—
would have written				—
would have been writing				—

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XLI. That a *Subjunctive Mood* be recognized in English, German, Latin, and French; and in Greek a *Subjunctive Moods*. and an *Optative Mood*: and that their chief tenses be named as in the following table.

The examples are in the 3rd person singular.

ENGLISH.

<i>write</i>	Present Subjunctive	<i>have written</i>	Perfect Subjunctive
<i>wrote</i>	Past Subjunctive	<i>had written</i>	Past Perfect Subjunctive

GERMAN.

<i>schreibe</i>	Present Subjunctive	<i>habe geschrieben</i>	Perfect Subjunctive
<i>schriebe</i>	Past Subjunctive	<i>hatte geschrieben</i>	Past Perfect Subjunctive

LATIN.

<i>scribat</i>	Present Subjunctive	<i>scripserit</i>	Perfect Subjunctive
<i>scriberet</i>	Past Subjunctive ¹	<i>scripsisset</i>	Past Perfect Subjunctive

FRENCH.

<i>écrive</i>	Present Subjunctive	<i>ait écrit</i>	Perfect Subjunctive
<i>écrivit</i>	Past Subjunctive ²	<i>eût écrit</i>	Past Perfect Subjunctive ³

GREEK.

<i>γράφῃ</i>	Present Subjunctive	<i>γεγραφῶς ᾗ</i>	Perfect Subjunctive
		<i>γράφῃ</i>	Aorist Subjunctive
<i>γράφει</i>	Present Optative	<i>γεγραφῶς εἴη</i>	Perfect Optative
		<i>γράφειε(ν)</i>	Aorist Optative

[For the other tenses of Greek and German see Recommendation XLIV.]

¹ This term, besides indicating the parallelism of the Latin form to the forms in other languages, is truer of Latin taken by itself than the term 'Imperfect (or Past Imperfect) Subjunctive'; for the action denoted by this tense is not necessarily incomplete or continuous: e.g. *Quid scriberet?* 'what was he to write?'; *Imperavi ut scriberet*, 'I commanded that he should write.' Nor are the forms in *-rem, -res, -ret* derived from the Continuous or Imperfect forms of the Indicative in *-bam, -bas, -bat*.

² This French Subjunctive (*écrivit*) corresponds in use both to the Past Continuous or Imperfect and to the Past Historic of the Indicative Mood.

³ This French Subjunctive (*eût écrit*) corresponds in use to both of the Past Perfect forms of the Indicative (*avait écrit* as well as *eut écrit*).

XLII. That it be recognized that the above-mentioned Subjunctives and Optatives differ in respect of their temporal signification from the tenses of the Indicative to which they correspond in name.

Subjunctives and Optatives, as used in expressions of Will, Anticipation, Purpose and Wish, involve as part of their meaning a reference to future time,¹ the Present Subjunctives commonly referring to what is in prospect at the time of speaking (what *is to be*), and the Past Subjunctives to what was in prospect at some time in the past which the speaker has in mind (what *was to be*); and the Greek Optatives referring in some usages to what *is to be*, and in others to what *was to be*. The Perfect, Past Perfect and Aorist of these moods differ in general from their other tenses in describing a *completed* action as in prospect (now or then), though in some usages no sense of completion is conveyed.

Examples :—

God save the King !

The Committee recommends that this kind of clause bear (=shall bear) the name 'Noun Clause.'

It is requested that answers be written concisely.

He said that he would do it if he were asked (= 'should be asked').

Man bestraft (bestrafte) ihn, damit er sich bessere.

Er wollte nicht warten, bis ich käme (= 'should come').

Quid faciam ?—Quid faceret ?

Venio ut videam.—Venit ut videret.

Metuo ne absim.—Metuebat ne abesset.

Attendez que je vienne.—Je suis resté jusqu'à ce qu'il partît (= 'should have gone').

Λέγωμεν (Εἰπωμεν).—Λέγου (Εἴπωι).

Τούτο πάλυ ἵνα συνεργός ἔχω.—Τούτο ἐν αἰῶσι ἵνα συνεργός ἔχωμι.

¹ In some uses, however, the reference to the future has disappeared, so that the modal tense form has come to refer to the same time as the corresponding tense of the Indicative: e.g. in some Dependent Questions and some Consecutive Clauses of Latin (relating to a matter of fact), such as "Quid *sit* nescio," "Tantopere exarsérunt iudices ut roum *condemnauerint*."

In German the distinction between the primary and the secondary tenses of the Subjunctive has to a large extent fallen into disuse (since the sixteenth century), so that modern German cannot be said to have a rule of Sequence of Tenses.

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Comp. ed. Aetic

Non prius duces ex concilio dimittant quam ab his sit concessum ut arma capiant. (So even in clauses of purpose, occasionally: e.g. Ne dederit gratis quae dedit, usque dabit.)
 Antequam de adventu meo audire potuissent ('should have been able'), in Macedoniam perrexi.
 Περιμένετε ἕως ἂν ἀνοιχθῇ τὸ δεσμοτήριον.
 Περιεμένομεν ἕως ἀνοιχθῇ τὸ δεσμοτήριον.
 Μηδενὶ τῶν Ἑλλήνων βοηθεῖτε ὅς ἂν μὴ πρότερος βεβηθηκὼς ὑμῖν ᾖ.
 (Οὐδενὶ βοηθεῖν ἐβούλεσθε, ὅς μὴ πρότερος βεβηθηκὼς ὑμῖν εἴη.)

NOTE.—In some usages (especially in clauses of condition) the Past Subjunctive has come to express not futurity from a past point of view but *remoteness of expectation* at the time of speaking.¹

Examples :—

If he came, I should be glad. (Contrast 'If he comes (come), I shall be glad.')
 Wenn er doch endlich eine Wohnung fände, die ihm gefiele!
 L'entreprise dût-elle échouer, il sera toujours beau de l'avoir tentée.

XLIII. That *Equivalents of Subjunctive forms* or *Subjunctive Equivalents* be recognized in English; especially forms compounded with 'may,' 'might,' 'shall,' 'should' in Subordinate Clauses, and forms compounded with 'should' (1st person) and 'would' (2nd and 3rd person) in Main Clauses.

Examples :—

I am writing in order that he may write in return. (Equiv. of Present Subj.)
 I wrote in order that he might write. (Equiv. of Past Subj.)
 The agreement requires that he shall write. (Equiv. of Present Subj., which would also be good English)
 The agreement required that he should write. (Equiv. of Past Subj.)
 I feared lest he should write. (Equiv. of Past Subj.)
 If he asked me, I should write. } (Equiv. of Past Subj. in
 If I asked him, he would write. } Main Clause)²

¹ The same idea of remoteness is expressed in French by a past tense of the Indicative, e.g. S'il venait ('if he came'), je serais heureux.

² Cf. 'It were well' = 'It would be well'; 'To lose thee were to lose myself.'

NOTE 1.—All these forms, being compounds of verbs which have such meanings as permission or possibility, obligation, willingness or intention, naturally relate to some act which lies in the future from the standpoint of the speaker or from some other point of time which he has in mind.

NOTE 2.—Of the above-mentioned Subjunctive Equivalents the forms 'I should (you would, he would) write' and 'I should (you would, he would) have written' as used in Main Clauses of Conditional sentences may also be described by the names *Future in the past* and *Future Perfect in the past* respectively, their mood being not specified. These forms, whatever their mood may be, are clearly the past forms of 'I shall (you will, he will) write' or '. . . have written,' corresponding in this respect to the Past Subjunctive which is used in the Subordinate Clause of the same kind of Conditional sentence ('if he asked me'), and to the Past Imperfect Indicative in the corresponding clause in French ('s'il demandait').

If it be asked how a Future in the past has come to be used to express, as it does in these cases, merely a remote possibility as to what may happen in the future regarded from the present standpoint, the answer is that to state now that something yesterday seemed likely, without adding that the same thing still seems likely, inevitably suggests that the likelihood has diminished, *i.e.* that the thing will happen *only under certain circumstances*: cf. 'Is he coming?' 'Well, he *was* coming.' 'I *should* do it' properly means 'I was under an obligation to do it (but I don't say that I am still under the obligation).' The same shift of meaning is seen very clearly in Latin, where *facturus eram* is a frequent substitute for *facere* or *fecissem* in the Main Clause of a Conditional sentence, *e.g.* *facturus eram, si liceret* or *licuisset*. An expression which originally denoted remoteness in time has here come to be used to denote remoteness of likelihood or expectation, *i.e.* to express the idea of *conditioned futurity*.

NOTE 3.—The German forms 'würde schreiben,' 'würde geschrieben haben' may on the same principle be called simply

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Future in the past and *Future Perfect in the past* respectively ; for although they are clearly compounded with a Subjunctive auxiliary (*würde*, Subjunctive of the Past of *werden*) and therefore belong to the Subjunctive Mood, yet there are no compound Indicative tenses in modern German of which they can be called the Subjunctives, and therefore none from which they need to be discriminated.¹

XLIV. That in German and Greek there be recognized, in addition to the modal tenses enumerated above (Recommendation XLI.), two others, which are used mainly in Reported Speech :—

<i>er werde schreiben</i>	Future Subjunctive
<i>er werde geschrieben haben</i>	Future Perfect Subjunctive
<i>γράφει</i>	Future Optative
<i>γεγράφουτο</i>	Future Perfect Optative (Passive)

Examples :—

Er sagt (sagte), er werde kommen.
 Er sagt (sagte), er werde gekommen sein.
 Εἶπεν ὅτι γράψει (μεμνήσονται).

XLV. That the term *Gerund* be used to denote the Verb-nouns English Verb-noun in *-ing* and the French Verb-noun in *-ant*, as well as the Latin Verb-noun in *-ndum*, *-ndi*, *-ndo* ; and that the term *Supine* be retained in Latin.

XLVI. That the Verb-nouns and Verb-adjectives formed from the several tense stems of the Verb be named as indicated in the following table :—

¹ In Old German (to the time of Luther) a corresponding Indicative existed—*er wurde schreiben*, which was equivalent in meaning to *er schrieb*. (See Sutterlin, *Die deutsche Sprache der Gegenwart*, § 273 ; Moser, *Historisch-grammatische Einführung in die frühhochdeutschen Schrift dialecte*, p. 226 ; Paul, *Deutsches Wörterbuch*, under 'Werden.') The turning of the auxiliary into a Subjunctive gave to the compound tense the meaning of futurity.

I. VERB-NOUNS

1. INFINITIVES.	English	German	Latin	French	Greek
(a) ACTIVE					
Present	(to) write	schreiben	scribere	écrire	γράφειν
Perfect	(to) have written	geschrieben haben	scripsisse	avoir écrit	γεγραμέναι Aor. γράψαι
Future			scripturus esse		γράψειν
(b) PASSIVE					
Present	(to) be written	geschrieben werden	scribi	être écrit	γράφεσθαι
Perfect	(to) have been written	geschrieben worden sein	scriptus esse	avoir été écrit	γεγράφθαι Aor. γραφῆναι
Future			scriptum iri		γραφήσεσθαι
2. GERUNDS.					
(a) ACTIVE					
Present	writing				
Perfect	having written		scribendum	(en) écrivant	
(b) PASSIVE				(en) ayant écrit	
Present	being written				
Perfect	having been written				

3. SUPINES.

II. VERB-ADJECTIVES

1. PARTICIPLES.					
(a) ACTIVE					
Present	{ writing going	{ schreibend gehend	{ scribens iens	{ écrivant allant	{ γράφων ιὼν
Perfect	{ having written having gone			{ ayant écrit étant allé	γεγραφώς Aor. γράψας
Past	gone	gegangen		allé	γράφων
Future			{ scripturus iturus		
NOTE.—The term 'Past Participle Active' is only wanted in the case of verbs used intransitively (e.g. 'go').					
(b) PASSIVE					
Present	being written			étant écrit	γραφόμενος
Perfect	having been written	geschrieben	scriptus	ayant été écrit	γεγραμμένος Aor. γραφείς
Past	written			écrit	γραφένος
Future		zu schreibend	scribendus		γραφένος

2. GERUND-ADJECTIVES.

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P. SHAW JEFFREY. ⁴	W. E. P. PANTIN, <i>Hon Sec.</i>

¹ But dissenting from the Recommendation as to Dependent Exclamations "The point is not, however, very important, and there is some real difficulty about the class of sentences so named" (H B)

² With reserve as to Recommendation XXXVI "Cases in French should be limited to Pronouns and the Article (in which actual changes of form occur), in accordance with the scheme of terminology adopted by the French Ministry" (C. B)

³ With reserve as to the terms Noun Clause, Adjective Clause, and Adverb Clause, wherever they occur

⁴ With reserve as to Recommendations XXXVI, XXXVII, and the French portion of XI. "It seems to me unwise in the subjects treated in these sections to depart from or add to the terminology of the *Nomenclature Grammaticale*, as devised by the French Ministry." (L. von G)

⁵ With reservations.

⁶ With reservations "on particular points of grammatical doctrine."

ADDENDUM.

WE, the undersigned minority of the Terminology Committee, regret that the Committee has decided to make no recommendation as to the nomenclature of French pronouns such as *me* and *moi*. Our views are fully stated in an Addendum to the Interim Report issued in 1909 and reprinted in the *Proceedings of the Classical Association*, Vol. VII. (1910), pp. 137-140, and to these views we adhere.

R. S. CONWAY.

R. M. HAIG BROWN.

EDITH HASTINGS.

E. L. MILNER-BARRY.

ELEANOR PURDIE.

W. G. RUSHBROOKE.

STATEMENT OF ACCOUNTS

<i>Credit and Receipts.</i>							
					£	s.	d.
Entrance-fees (147)					36	15	0
Subscriptions, 1908-9 (131)					32	15	0
„ 1910 (510)					127	10	0
„ 1911-12-13 (84)					21	0	0
Life Members (16)					60	0	0
Libraries					1	8	0
Associate Members						15	0
Odd Sums						9	0
Subscriptions paid direct into bank					158	0	0
					438 12 0		
<i>Year's Work</i> (postage and sales)					1	6	0
Sales of <i>Reports</i>					1	7	6
Fees from South Africa C.A.					2	2	0
„ „ South Australia C.A.					2	0	0
From New South Wales C.A. (<i>Year's Work</i> and <i>Proceedings</i>)					13	16	6
From South Africa C.A. (<i>Year's Work</i>)					10	15	0
From New England C.A. (<i>Year's Work</i>)					13	6	3
					44 13 3		
For <i>Classical Quarterly</i> and <i>Classical Review</i> —							
Through Hon. Treasurer					74	14	0
„ Bank					101	0	6
					175 14 6		
Interest on Investments (less tax):—							
£289 18s. 5d. New Zealand 3½% Stock					9	11	2
£300 India 3½% Stock					9	18	0
£100 Deposit at Chartered Bank					3	15	4
					23 4 6		
Balance from 1909						39	10 9
					£721 15 0		

Audited and found correct,
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STATEMENT OF ACCOUNTS

185

DECEMBER 21ST, 1909, TO DECEMBER 17TH, 1910.

<i>Expenditure.</i>					£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Printing and Stationery	...	...	...	...	28	9	3			
Postage	...	...	...	...	17	9	0			
Clerical assistance	...	...	...	...	50	14	0			
Railway expenses of Members of Council and Committees	...	...	...	...	51	11	5			
Bank-charges	...	...	...	...		1	12	9		
Returns of subscriptions paid in error	...			...	11	18	0			
<i>Grants to Branches—</i>					£	s.	d.			
Manchester	...	...	...	1	5	0				
Birmingham	..	..	...		5	0				
Nottingham	...	.	...		10	0				
Liverpool	...	...	...	3	10	0				
Bombay	...	..	...	14	0	0				
							19	10	0	
Grant to Terminology Committee	...	...		...	10	0	0			
Share to same of Sales of <i>Reports</i>	...	...		...		7	6			
<i>Proceedings</i> , vol. vi.	...	...	...	...	67	6	10			
<i>Year's Work</i> , vol. iv. (less Sales of "Pro- nunciation," 10s. 2d.)	...	...	...	...	39	11	11			
London Meeting	...	...	...	...	34	12	11			
Oxford Meeting	...	...	...	...	19	8	0			
								411	11	7
Paid to the Hon. Treasurer of the Journals' Fund								175	14	6
Bank-balance, December 17th, 1910	...	...		...				134	8	11

£721 15 0

(Signed) C. FLANSTEAD WALTERS,
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RULES

*Adopted at the first General Meeting of the Association, May 28th, 1901;
Amended at the General Meetings of January 5th, 1906, October 10th,
1908, and January 11th, 1910.*

1. The name of the Association shall be "THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION."

2. The objects of the Association are to promote the development and maintain the well-being of classical studies, and, in particular: -

- (a) To impress upon public opinion the claim of such studies to an eminent place in the national scheme of education;
- (b) To improve the practice of classical teaching by free discussion of its scope and methods;
- (c) To encourage investigation and call attention to new discoveries;
- (d) To create opportunities for friendly intercourse and co-operation among all lovers of classical learning in this country.

3. The Association shall consist of a President, Vice-Presidents, a Treasurer, two Secretaries, a Council of fifteen members besides the Officers, and ordinary Members. The officers of the Association shall be members thereof, and shall be *ex officio* members of the Council.

4. The Council shall be entrusted with the general administration of the affairs of the Association, and, subject to any special direction of a General Meeting, shall have control of the funds of the Association.

5. The Council shall meet as often as it may deem necessary upon due notice issued by the Secretaries to each member, and at every meeting of the Council five shall form a quorum.

6. It shall be within the competence of the Council to make rules for its own procedure, provided always that questions before

the Council shall be determined by a majority of votes, the Chairman to have a casting vote.

7. The General Meeting of the Association shall be held annually in some city or town of England or Wales which is the seat of a University, or at any place within the limits of the British Empire which has been recommended by a special resolution of the Council; the place to be selected at the previous General Meeting.

8. The President, Vice-Presidents, Treasurer, Secretaries, and Council shall be elected at the General Meeting, but vacancies occurring in the course of the year may be filled up temporarily by the Council.

9. The President shall be elected for one year, and shall not be eligible for re-election until after the lapse of five years.

10. The Vice-Presidents, the Treasurer, and the Secretaries shall be elected for one year, but shall be eligible for re-election

11. Members of the Council shall be elected for three years, and on retirement shall not be eligible for re-election until after the lapse of one year. For the purpose of establishing a rotation the Council shall, notwithstanding, provide that one-third of its original members shall retire in the year 1905 and one-third in 1906.

12. The Election of the Officers and Council at the General Meeting shall be by a majority of the votes of those present, the Chairman to have a casting vote.

13. The list of *agenda* at the General Meeting shall be prepared by the Council, and no motion shall be made or paper read at such meeting unless notice thereof has been given to one of the Secretaries at least three weeks before the date of such meeting.

14. Membership of the Association shall be open to all persons of either sex who are in sympathy with its objects.

15. Ordinary members shall be elected by the Council.

16. There shall be an entrance fee of 5s. The annual subscription shall be 5s., payable and due on the 1st of January in each year.

17. Members who have paid the entrance fee of 5s. may compound for all future subscriptions by the payment in a single sum of fifteen annual subscriptions.

18. The Council shall have power to remove by vote any member's name from the list of the Association.

19. Alterations in the Rules of the Association shall be made

by vote at a General Meeting, upon notice given by a Secretary to each member at least a fortnight before the date of such meeting.

20. The Classical Association shall have power to enter into relations with other bodies having like objects with its own, upon their application to the Council and by vote of the same. The Council shall in each case determine the contribution payable by any such body and the privileges to be enjoyed by its members. The President of any body so associated shall during his term of office be a Vice President of the Classical Association. But the members of the associated body shall not be deemed to be members of the Classical Association, nor shall they have any of the rights or privileges of members beyond such as they shall enjoy through the operation of this rule.

The provisions of Rules 8, 10, 12, and 16 shall not apply to the Vice-Presidents created under this rule. If the President of any body so associated is unable to attend the meetings of Council, the Council shall have power to invite that body to nominate a representative to serve for a limited period (not exceeding one year) as an additional member of Council beyond the number 15 mentioned in Rule 3.

NAMES AND ADDRESSES OF MEMBERS

** * This list is compiled from information furnished by Members of the Association, and Members are requested to be so kind as to send immediate notice of any CHANGE in their addresses to R. C. SNATON, Esq., M.A., Woodbun, Reigate, Surrey, with a view to corrections in the next published List. The Members to whose names an asterisk is prefixed are Life Members*

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ALLEN, S., M.A., Lisconnan, Dervock, Co. Antrim.

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NAMES AND ADDRESSES OF MEMBERS 195

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Glossop Wood, Mrs. A. K.
Matlock Bath . . . Watkins, Miss L. B.
Repton Cattley, Rev. A.
 Wilson, T. I. W.

DEVONSHIRE—

- Exmouth* Sandford, Miss.
Fremington . . . Church, H. S.
Paignton Bubb, Rev. C. S.
Plymouth Thompson, J.

DEVONSHIRE—*continued*

- Silverton* Evans, W. H.
Tarjnmouth . . . Veysey, W. B.
Torquay Howard, Rev. A. W.
Yelverton
 R.S.O. Radford, Miss E.

DORSET—

- Sherborne* Bensly, Rev. W. J.
 Hoyle, Miss S. F.
 King, Rev. H. R.
 Smith, N. C.

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- Darlington* . . . Fuller, Miss B. B.
 Massingham, A.
 Smith, A. J.
Durham Bramwell, W. H.
 Cruickshank, Rev. A.
 H.
 How, Rev. J. H.
 Jeavons, Principal F. B.
 Tombs, J. S. O.
 Walker, Rev. D.
Sunderland . . . Hughes, Miss M. V.

ESSEX—

- Braintree* Couttauld, G., Junr.
Brentwood Ashbee, J. H. N.
 Bean, Rev. E.
Chigwell School . . . Swallow, Rev. R. D.
Colchester Bourne, Miss M. E.
Dovercourt Valentine, J.
Felsted Stephenson, Rev. F.
Kelvedon Rhoades, J.
Saffron Walden . . . Hirst, Miss M. E.
Waltham Abbey . . . Johnson, Rev. G. H.
Walthamstow . . . Guy, Rev. R. C.

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 Cowl, Prof. R. P.
 *Dobson, Prof. J. F.
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 Muschamp, J. G. S.
 Newcomb, Miss E.
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 Ellam, E.
 Exton, G. F.
 Faithfull, Miss L. M.
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 Latter, H.
 Newman, W. L.
 Pearman, Miss C. G.

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 Waterfield, Rev. R.
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 Wishart, Miss J. R.
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Hayling Island . . . Bryans, C.
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 Osborne . . . Godfrey, C.
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 Oke, A. W.
Southsea . . . Banks, Mrs. L.
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 White, Miss E. L.
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 Kirby, W. R.
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 Moor, Miss M. F.
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 Greene, C. H.
 Hopkins, T. H. C.

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Bushey . . . James, Miss L.
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 Waters, G. T.
 Wright, Rev. H. C.
Hertford . . . Dundop, Miss M. M.
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Lotchworth . . . Miall, Prof. L. C.
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 Chamberlain, H. M.
 Goss, W. N.
 Purton, G. A.
Charing . . . Barker, E. J. P. Ross.
Chislehurst . . . Myers, Ernest.
Eastry . . . Northbourne, Lord.
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 New . . . Gwatkin, Miss E. R.
Folkestone . . . Jelf, C. R.
Footscray . . . Pearce, J. W. E.
Gravesend . . . Conder, Miss E. M.

KENT—*continued*

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	Tancock, Rev. C. C.
<i>Tunbridge Wells</i>	Barnard, P. M.
	Bull, Rev. R. A.
	Honnywill, M. J.
	Sanders, Miss A. F. E.

LANCASHIRE—

Ashton-on-

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<i>Blackburn</i> . .	See STONHURST.
<i>Blackpool</i> . .	Sarson, Arnold.
<i>Bolton</i> . .	Archer, F.
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	Dymond, Miss O.
	Kidd, E. S.
	Lipscomb, W. G.

*Burley-in-**Wharfedale*

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	(Bishop of Burnley).
	Henn, Hon. Mrs.

Castleton . .*Lancaster* . .*Littleborough* . .

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	Brown, A. Theodore.
	Brown, Miss L.
	Browne, Very Rev.
	Joseph.
	Campagnac, Prof.
	Caton, Dr. Richard.
	Coghill, Mrs.
	Collie, Miss F. A.
	Connell, Rev. A.
	Cradock-Watson, H.
	Dale, A. W. W.
	Forbes, Kenneth.
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	Gibson-Smith, Rev.
	Canon.
	Gladstone, Robert.
	Gorse, Rev. H.
	Hardeman, J. T.
	Harrison, Miss E.

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	Kitchener, E.
	Lancelot, Rev. J. B.
	Le Page, Miss
	Linton-Smith, Rev. M.
	Macnaughton, D. A.
	Mason, Miss D.
	McCormick, Rev. J. G.
	Moore, Miss E.
	Muspratt, E. K.
	O'Malley, B. F. K.
	Pallis, Alexander.
	Postgate, Prof. J. P.
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	Robertson, A. J.
	Robinson, Miss M. E.
	Sing, Miss B. E.
	Sing, Miss E. J.
	Smith, Miss E. M.
	Smith, Miss W.
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	Strong, Prof. H. A.
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	Thornaby, Miss B.
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	Watts, A.
	Woodward, C. A.
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	Buller, Rev. F. G.
	Burrows, Prof. R. M.
	Burstall, Miss S. A.
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	Carruthers, G.
	Carter, Rev. T. N.
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	Conway, Prof. R. S.
	Conway, Miss.
	Dakers, H. J.
	Dauncey, G. H. J.
	Dawkins, Prof. W.
	Boyd.
	Dawkins, Miss E.
	Boyd.
	Donner, Sir E.
	Eckhard, Mrs.
	Ewart, Miss E. J.
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	Fry, C. E.
	Goodyear, C.
	Guppy, H.
	Hall, Joseph.

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 Hogg, Prof. H. W.
 Hopkinson, Alfred.
 Hopkinson, J. H.
 Horsfall, Rev. A.
 Howarth, Miss A.
 Kelly, Canon J. D.
 Kelsey, C. E.
 Knox, Rt. Rev. E.
 (Bishop of Man-
 chester).
 Lilley, Miss M.
 Llewellyn, Miss G.
 Macalpine, B. J.
 MacLure, J.
 Massey, Mrs.
 May, T.
 Mead, P. J.
 Montague, C. E.
 Montague, Mrs.
 Moulton, Rev. J. H.
 Paton, J. L.
 Peake, Prof. A. S.
 Roby, A. G.
 Sadler, Prof. M. E.
 Simon, Mrs. H.
 Sinclair, Prof. Sir W.
 J.
 Sutton, E.
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 J. E. C.
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Oldham . . . Gregory, Miss A. M.
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Preston . . . Nicholson, Miss J.
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Rainhill . . . Pilkington, Mrs.
Rochdale . . . Stenhouse, Miss S. E.
 Furneaux, L. R.
Rossall School . Houghton, Rev. E. J.
 W.
 Nicklin, Rev. T.
 Taylor, G. M.
Salford . . . Casartelli, Rt. Rev. L.
 C. (Bishop of Sal-
 ford).
Stonyhurst . Davis, Rev. H.
 Plater, Rev. C. D.

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Widnes . . . Lewis, Richard.

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 Sloane, Miss E. J.
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Lutterworth . . Darlington, W. S.
Melton Mowbray . Freedy, J. B. K.
Thoby . . . Billson, C. J.

LINCOLNSHIRE—

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Horncastle . . . Walter, Rev. J. Con-
 way.
Lincoln . . . Fry, T. C., Dean.
 Hicks, Rt. Rev. E. L.
 (Bishop of Lincoln).
 Hicks, Mrs.
Louth . . . Worrall, A. H.
Stamford . . . Lovegrove, E. W.
Spalding . . . Sharp, Rev. D. S.

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Girls . . . Young, Miss M. S.
Aske's School,
Hampstead . . Spilbury, A.
Bedford Coll. . . MacGregor, J. M.
 Morton, Miss M.
 Stradwick, Miss E.
 Tarrant, Miss D.
Blackheath High
School . . . Gadesden, Miss P.
City of London
School . . . Chilton, Rev. A.
Clapham High
School . . . *Ghey, Miss F. L.
 Twenberry, Miss E. L.
Cole Court . . . Bewsher, J.
Cole's Gr. Sch. . . Lucas, J. W.
Publick Coll. . . Mose, H. P.
Dulwich H. Sch. . . Furness, Miss S. M. M.
East Putney H.
School . . . Hewatson, Miss R. E.
Haberghashers'
School . . . Coleman, H. O.
Hampstead
The Hall . . . Marshall, Rev. and
 Mrs. D. H.
York House Sch. . . Hawkins, C. V.

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	Fotheringham, J. K.
	Guthkelch, A.
	Hales, J. F.
	Headlam, Rev. Dr. A. C.
	Legg, Rev. S. C. E.
	Nairne, Rev. Prof. A.
	Oakeley, Miss H. D.
	Spalding, K. J.
	Turner, B.
	*Walters, Prof. W. C. F.

Lewisham High School . . . Adams, Miss E. M.

Mary Datchelor School and Training Coll. . . . Reeve, Miss J. J.

Merchant Taylors' Sch. . . . Bampfylde, F. G.
 *Conway, Rev. F.
 Masham, Rev. J. G.
 Nairn, Rev. Dr. J. A.
 Wells, G. H.

Mill Hill Sch. . . . McClune, J. D.

N. London Collegiate Sch. . . . Armstead, Miss H.
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 Slater, Miss W. M.
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Owen's School, Islington . . . Cholmeley, R. F.

Queen's College . . . Harper, Miss B.
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St. Mary's Coll. *Powell, Miss H. L.
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St. Olave's Gr. School . . . Kingdom, T.
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 Witton, F. W.

St. Paul's Girls' School . . . Gray, Miss F.
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St. Paul's Sch. . . . Botting, C. G.
 Gould, T. W.
 Hillard, Rev. A. E.
 Jones, A. Melville.
 La Motte, D.
 Loane, G. G.
 Mathews, L. H. S.
 Melhuish, J. E.

*Pantin, W. E. P.
Sion College . . . Milman, Rev. W. H.

LONDON—continued

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<i>Stationers' Sch.</i>	Chettle, H.
<i>Stockwell S. Sch.</i>	Mason, Miss L. G.
<i>Streatham High School</i> . . .	Powell, Miss M. H.
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<i>Tollington H. S.</i>	Martin, Miss A. P.
<i>University Coll.</i>	Caspari, M. O. B.
	Gardner, Prof. E. A.
	Platt, Prof. A.
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	Spenser, Dr. H. J.
<i>Westfold Coll.</i>	Alford, Miss M.
	McDougal, Miss E.
	Parker, Miss C. E.
	Richardson, Miss A. W.
	Steele, Miss C. A. J.

Westminster School . . . Gow, Rev. J.
 Sargeant, J.
 Smedley, J. F.

Wimbledon High School . . . Gavin, Miss E.
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Wimbledon Schoolbourne . . . Beasley, T. E.
King's Coll. Sch. Smith, Douglas.
 Wotherspoon, G.

Wood Green, County School . . . Bruce-Forrest, E.
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 Bailey, J. C.
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 Balcanes, Lord.
 Balfour, Rt. Hon. Gerald.
 Barker, Miss E. Ross.
 Barnett, P. A.
 Beeching, Canon H.
 Behrens, N. E.
 Bell, Edward.
 Bell, Rev. Canon G. C.
 Bennett, Mrs. A. H.
 Benson, Godfrey R.
 Blundell, Miss A.
 Bonser, Right Hon. Sir J. W.
 Bradley, Prof. A. C.

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 Colvin, S.
 Cramer, J.
 Cromer, Rt. Hon. Earl
 of
 Crofts, T. R. N.
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 Davidson, D. D.
 Davidson, M. G.
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 Dingwall, W. F.
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 Ford, H. G.
 Garnsey, E. R.
 Gaselee, Miss E. S.
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 Gos-e, Miss T.
 Greene, H. W.
 Grigg, E. W. M.
 Gurney, Miss A.
 Gurney, Miss M.
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 Halsbury, Earl of.
 Harper, Miss E. B.
 Haydon, J. H.
 Haynes, E. S. P.
 Headlam, J. W.
 Heath, H. F.
 Hetherington, J. N.

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 Howell, Miss L.
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 Hutton, Miss C. A.
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 Kennah, Rev. D.
 Kennedy, Hon. Sir
 W. R.
 Kensington, Miss F.
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 Knight, Miss C.
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 Lattimer, R. B.
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 Leaf, Walter.
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 Lee, Sidney.
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 Linnell, Miss B. M.
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 Longman, C. J.
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 Loring, W.
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 Macmillan, G. A.
 MacNachten, Rt. Hon.
 Lord.
 Magnus, L.
 Marillier, H. C.
 Marshall, J. W.
 Matthews, Miss M. W.
 Mattingley, H.
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 and Mrs.
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 Michael, Miss E. McL.
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 Millington, Miss M. V.
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 Minturn, Miss E. T.
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Pollock, Sir F.
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Poynter, Sir E. J.
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Richmond, O. L.
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Thomas, H.
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Thomson, H. R.
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Varley, R. S.
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W.
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Northampton . Charlesworth, G. N.
Oundle . . . Nightingale, A. D.
Sanderson, F. W.
Squire, S. G.

NORTHUMBERLAND—

Beal Hodgkin, T.

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Hadow, W. H.
Mann, Rev. H. K.
*Richards, Miss S. E. S.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE—

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Ganger, Prof. F. S.
Gullford, E. L.
Houston, Miss B. C.
Leman, H. M.
Russell, J.
Strangeways, L. R.
Walker, Miss C. G. W.
Wood, R. S.
Woodward, Miss A.
Retford
Gough, Rev. T.

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Brackley . . . Ashwin, Rev. R. I.
Charlbury . . . Robertson, M.

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Greene, W. A.
Balliol College . *Bailey, Cyril.
Lindsay, A. D.
Pickard-Cambridge,
A. W.
Strachan - Davidson,
J. L.
Wood, H. McKinnon.
Brasenose Coll. Flaverfield, Prof. F. J.
Heberden, C. B.
Christ Church . Anderson, J. G. C.
Blagden, Rev. C. M.
Davidson, M. G.
*Dundas, R. H.
Murray, Prof. G. G. A.
Owen, S. G.
Sanday, Dr. W.
Stewart, Prof. J. A.
Strong, The Very Rev.
T. B.
Warner, Rev. W.
*Corpus Christi
College* . . . Grundy, G. B.
Livingston, R. W.
Sidgwick, A.
Whitwell, R. J.

OXFORDSHIRE—continued

Exeter College . *Binney, E. H.

- Farnell, L. R.
Henderson, B. W.
Keatinge, M. W.
Wright, Prof. J.

Hertford Coll. . *Burroughs, E. A.
William, Rev. H. H.

Jesus College . *Genger, E. E.
Hughes, Rev. W. H.

Koble College . Cooper, H. R.
Lock, Rev. W.
*Owen, A. S.

*Lady Margaret
Hall* . . .

- Agles, Miss E. M.
Clay, Miss A. M.
Jex-Blake, Miss H.
(Principal).
McClutcheon, Miss
K. H.

Lawson College . Wordsworth, Miss E.
Powder, W. Warde.

- Gardner, Prof. P.
Maichant, E. C.
Merry, Rev. W. W.
Minto, J. A. R.

Magdalen Coll. . Bencke, P. V. M.
Brightman, Rev. F. E.
*Cookson, C.

- Cowley, A.
Fletcher, C. R. L.
Godley, A. D.
Smith, Prof. J. A.
Warren, T. H.
Webb, C. C. J.
Wilson, Rev. H. A.

Merton College . Allen, P. S.

- *Fyfe, W. H.
Garrod, H. W.
How, W. W.
Joachim, H. H.
Miles, J. C.
Scott, G. R.
Scott, Walter.

New College . . Brown, A. C. R.

- *Butler, H. E.
Henderson, H. E.
Joseph, H. W. B.
Matheson, P. F.
Spauner, Rev. W. A.
Wilson, Prof. J. Cook.

Oriel College . Phillips, Rev. F. R.

- *Richards, Rev. G.
Shadwell, C. L.

Queen's College . Allen, T. W.

- *Clark, A. C.
Grenfell, B. P.
Hunt, A. S.

OXFORDSHIRE—*continued*

Queen's College . Magrath, Rev. J. R.
(*continued*) . Walker, Rev. E. M.

St. John's Coll. . Ball, S.

*Hall, F. W.

Powell, J. U.

Snow, T. C.

Stocks, J. L.

Somerville Coll. . Lorimer, Miss H. L.

Penrose, Miss R.

Trinity College *Coupland, R.

Ellis, Prof. R.

Pichard, H. A.

University Coll. . Chavasse, A. S.

Macan, R. W.

*Stevens-on, G. H.

Wadham Coll. . Diewitt, J. A.

Pope, G. H.

Richards, H.

Webster, E. W.

*Wells, J.

Worcester Coll. . Elliott, R. T.

Gerrans, H. T.

Lys, Rev. F. J.

Oxford . Chapman, R. W.

Cooper, Miss A. J.

Cowell, W. H. A.

Fleming, Miss A.

Goodwin, Miss N. M.

Grenfell, Mrs. A.

Hodge, Miss D. M. V.

Hogarth, D. G.

Jerram, C. S.

Lane-Poole, Miss D. J.

Lewis, Miss E.

Moss, Rev. Canon H.

W.

Myres, Prof. J. L.

Peacock, M. H.

Pope, Mrs.

Rhys, Miss M.

Robinson, G. G.

*Rogers, Miss A. M. A.

Schomberg, Miss I.

Shawyer, J. A.

Worley, Miss M. L.

Remenham . Gwilliam, Rev. G. H.

Wilney . Newton, Miss A.

Yarnen . Evans, H. A.

RUTLANDSHIRE—

S. Luffenham . Richards, Rev. J. F.

Uppingham . Mackenzie, Rev. H. W.

Taylor, A. C.

SHROPSHIRE—

Newport . . . Gough, Miss M.

SHROPSHIRE—*continued*

Shifnal . . . Yate, Lt.-Col. A. C.

Shrewsbury . . Alington, Rev. C. A.

Pickering, T. E.

SOMERSETSHIRE—

Bath . . . Ealand, Mrs. J. M.

Legard, A. G.

Richards, F.

Williams, R.

Bruton . . . Norton, D. E.

Hamouth . . . Sandford, Miss E. H.

Milverton . . . Mills, Miss B. T.

Wells . . . Robinson, Dean, J.

Armitage.

Weston-super-

Mare . . . Bathiscombe, E. M.

Syson, Miss M. F.

STAFFORDSHIRE—

Barton-under-

Needwood . . . Holland, W. R.

Colwich . . . Balfour, Graham.

Denstone Coll. . Clark, Rev. R. M.

Farley . . . Denman, Rev. C

Handsworth . . Clendon, A.

Geuner, Miss G. R.

Lichfield . . . Phillips, Rev. L. A.

Newcastle . . . Bakewell, Miss D. L.

Marshall, Miss A. M. C.

Powell, Miss M.

Stafford . . . McCrea, Miss G. J.

Stoke-on-Trent . Barke, Miss E. M.

Riley, Miss M. E.

Smith, Miss Ingham.

Sutton Coldfield . Richardson, G.

Uttoxeter . . . Daniel, A. T.

West Bromwich . Manley, Dr. J. H. H.

Pearse, P. J.

Wolverhampton . Ager, R. L. S.

Caldecott, W.

Davies, R.

SUFFOLK—

Ipswich . . . Elliston, W. R.

Watson, A. R.

Lowestoft . . Phillips, Rev. W. Rich-

mond.

Goode, A. G.

Southwold . . . Silcox, Miss L.

Westleton . . . Hogarth, Miss M. L.

SURREY—

Burgh Heath . . Langdon-Davies, B. N.

Camberley . . . Knight, R.

Caterham . . . Watkins, Rev. P. M.

SURREY—continued

Charterhouse

- School . . . Bryant, Rev. E. F.
 *Kendall, G.
 Longworth, F. D.
 Rendall, Rev. G. H.

Cheam School . . . Tabor, A. S.

Claygate . . . Armitage, N. G.

Cranleigh Sch. . . . Antrobus, G. L. N.

 Tyler, C. H.

Croydon . . . Ferguson, Miss M.

 Layman, Miss A. M.

Englefield Green . . . Donkin, Prof. E. H.

 Taylor, Miss M. E. J.

Epsom . . . Gardiner, E. N.

Furnham . . . Milne, J. G.

 Woodward, Prof. W. H.

Godalming . . . Carlisle, A. D.

 Linzell, Miss E. M.

 Orange, Miss B.

 Page, T. E.

 Tildesley, Miss E. M.

Guildford . . . Rawnsley, W. F.

Haslemere . . . Dakyns, H. G.

 Geikie, Sir A.

Hindhead . . . Selwyn, Rev. E. C.

Kew . . . Bernays, A. E.

Kingston . . . Hutton, Miss E. P. S.

Kingston Hill . . . Mayor, Rev. Prof. J. B.

Limpfield . . . Jackson, C.

Oxted . . . Hardcastle, H.

Reigate . . . Rundall, G. W.

 Seaton, R. G.

Richmond . . . Brownjohn, A. D.

 Church, Rev. A. J.

 Geden, Rev. A. S.

Sanderstead . . . Rhodes, Miss C. M.

Surbiton . . . Dawes, Rev. J. S.

 Dawes, Miss M. C.

 Millard, V. C. H.

 Worters, Miss E. B.

 Zimmern, A. E.

 Zimmern, Miss D. M.

Tadworth . . . Elliman, G. D.

Worthingham . . . Pearson, A. C.

Weybridge . . . Dawes, Miss E. A. S.

SUSSEX—

Bexhill . . . Drowning, Oscar.

Bognor . . . Ledger, W. H.

Brighton . . . *Belcher, A. Hayes.

 Davies, Miss C. H.

 Dawson, Rev. W. B.

 Hett, W. S.

 King, F. L.

 Lunn, Miss A. C. P.

 Ryle, Miss E.

 Thomas, A. H.

SUSSEX—continued

Buried

East (Trinstead) . . . Hussey, Rev. A. L.

Eastbourne . . . Radcliffe, W. W.

 Browne, Rev. E. L.

 Johns, Miss F. L.

 McKay, H. G.

 Saunders, T. B.

 Williams, C. A.

 Williams, Rev. F. S.

Hove . . . Carson, H. J.

 Thring, L. T.

 Tower, B. H.

Mayfield . . . Thompson, Sir E.

 Maunde.

Rye . . . Watkiss, Sydney.

St. Leonards . . . Marshall, Rev. A. G.

Steyning . . . Lea, Rev. E. T.

West Horsham . . . Moore, E. W.

 Upcott, Rev. A. W.

 Winbolt, S. E.

Worthing . . . Bennett, G. B.

WARWICKSHIRE—

Birmingham

Alder, Miss M. B.

Archibald, Miss E.

Ball, Miss M. G.

Barrett, Miss H. M.

Baugh, Miss E. N.

Bayliss, A. E.

Burrows, Ven. Arch-

deacon W. O.

Chambers, C. D.

Chapman, Rev. Dom.

Creswell, P. T.

Gilson, R. C.

Gore, Rt. Rev. G.

(Bishop of Birming-

ham).

Harris, J. Hendel.

Heath, C. H.

Hobhouse, Rev. Canon.

Jones, Frank.

King, Mrs. Wilson.

Lee-Strathg, Miss J. L.

Lewis, Dr. O. B.

Measures, A. E.

Munford, Prof. J. H.

Nimmo, Miss.

Norris, Rev. John.

Parkinson, Rt. Rev.

Monsignor.

Quech, Miss K.

Sonnenschein, Prof

E. A.

Stock, St. George.

Swann, Miss M. G.

Vince, C. A.

WARWICKSHIRE—*continued*

<i>Birmingham</i>	Vincent, H. A.
<i>(continued)</i>	Williams, Herbert.
<i>Leamington</i>	Beaven, Rev. A. B.
	Loveday, Miss A.
	Turner, Miss E.
<i>Marston Green</i>	Gilson, Mrs. R. C.
<i>Rugby</i>	Cole, E. L. D.
	David, Rev. A. A.
	Michell, W. G.
<i>Stratford-on-Avon</i>	Hodgson, Rev. F. A.

WESTMORLAND—

<i>Ambleside</i>	England, E. B.
	Lewis, Rev. F.
<i>Grasmere</i>	Haslam, Rev. A. B.
	Koby, H. J.
<i>Kendal</i>	Moor, S. A.
<i>Kirkby-Lonsdale</i>	Leach, Miss A. K.
<i>Kirby Stephen</i>	Taylor, Rev. C. B.
<i>Milnthorpe</i>	Hamilton, J.

WILTSHIRE—

<i>Marlborough</i>	Penny, Miss D. A. A.
<i>Marlborough College</i>	Atkey, F. A. H.
	Fletcher, F.
<i>Pewsey</i>	Branfoot, Rev. W. H.
<i>Salisbury</i>	Bernard, Canon E.
	Deniman, Miss M. K.
<i>Swindon</i>	Mackesy, Rev. T. L.

WORCESTERSHIRE

<i>Avechurch</i>	Impey, R. L.
<i>Bromsgrove</i>	Fuiness, E. H.
	Hendy, F. J. R.
	Mayall, A.
<i>Dudley</i>	Buike, Miss M. E.
	Hubback, Miss C. J.
	M.
<i>Hagley</i>	Fairbairn, Rev. A. M.
<i>Kidderminster</i>	Adam, Miss M. E.
<i>Malvern</i>	House, H. H.
	James, Rev. S. R.
	Salmon, H. G. C.
<i>Northfield</i>	Dix, C. M.
<i>Shipston-on-Stour</i>	Wyse, W.
<i>Stourbridge</i>	Wordsworth, Miss E.
	C.
<i>Stourport</i>	Baldwin, S.
<i>Worcester</i>	Chappel, Rev. Canon W. H.
	Morris, H. H.

YORKSHIRE—

<i>Beverley</i>	Rossiter, Miss G. M.
<i>Bradford</i>	Broadbent, C. H.
	Falding, Miss C. S.
	Keeling, Rev. W. H.
	Pickard, Miss K.
	Roberts, Miss M. E.
<i>Dewsbury</i>	Holme, A. F.
	Tunnichffe, Miss A. C.
<i>Doncaster</i>	Claxton, J. A.
	Evans, S. F.
<i>Eskdale</i>	*Lewis, L. W. P.
	Smyth, C.
<i>Halifax</i>	Edwards, W.
	Elliott, R. H.
<i>Heaton</i>	Taylor, Miss M. A.
<i>Hessle</i>	Kemphorne, Rt. Rev. C. (Bishop of Hull).
<i>Ilkley</i>	Hughes, Miss J. G.
	Waid, C. H.
<i>Hull</i>	Allwood, Miss.
	Saunders, J. V.
<i>Ilkley</i>	Atkinson, C. W.
<i>Kirkstall</i>	Allison, F. W.
<i>Leeds</i>	Bodington, Sir N.
	Clark, E. K.
	Connal, B. M.
	Gillespie, C. M.
	Grant, A. J.
	Hickey, Rev. J.
	Libbey, Rev. E. Jackson.
	Lidderdale, E. W.
	Lupton, Miss E. G.
	Price, A. G.
	*Roberts, Prof. W. Rhys.
	Smith, Miss M. L. S.
	Ure, P. N.
	Wilson, R.
	Wynne-Edwards, Rev. J. R.
<i>Malton</i>	Pearson, Miss I.
<i>Northallerton</i>	Wood, Rev. R. G.
<i>Oswaldkirk</i>	Mathews, Rev. J. E.
<i>Ripon</i>	Barran, Sir J. N.
<i>Robin Hood</i>	
	Farside, W.
<i>Sedburgh</i>	Dowson, F. N.
	Hanison, B. C.
	Lowry, C.
	Malin, F. B.
<i>Settle</i>	Pickard, Miss E. M.
<i>Sheffield</i>	Arnold, A. J.
	Couzens, Miss F. M.
	Dudley, L. C.
	Eliot, Sir C.
	Ellis, Mrs.
	Escott, Miss A. E.

YORKSHIRE—*continued*

<i>Sheffield</i> . .	Forster, E. S.
(<i>continued</i>)	Gibbons, W. M.
	Green, Prof. J. A.
	Johnson, Robert.
	Newman, Miss M. L.
	Sleeman, J. H.
	*Summers, Prof. W. C.
<i>Wakefield</i> .	Abel, H. G.
	Ashforth, Mrs.
	Eden, Rt. Rev. G. R.
	(Lord Bishop of
	Wakefield).
	Houghton, A. V.
	Thompson, Carleton.
<i>Yeadon</i> . .	Eckersley, J. C.
<i>York</i> . .	Heathcote, W. E.
	Miles, Miss.

ISLE OF MAN

(<i>Castletown</i> . .	Wickesey, J. T. W.
-------------------------	--------------------

WALES

ANGLESEY—

<i>Beaumaris</i> . .	Dodd, E. E.
----------------------	-------------

CARDIGAN—

<i>Aberystwyth</i> .	Anwyl, Prof. E.
	Bensly, Prof. E. von B.
	Brighthouse, T. K.
	Grundy, W. W.
	*Marshall, Prof. J. W.
	Roberts, Principal.

CARNARVON—

<i>Bangor</i> . .	Arnold, Prof. E. V.
	*Williams, Prof. T.
	Hudson.
	Williams, W. G.
<i>Criccieth</i> . .	Jones, C. C. Lloyd.

DENBIGH—

<i>Colwyn Bay</i> .	Ostborn, T. G.
<i>Wrexham</i> . .	Bidgood, Miss G. A.
	Leckenby, A. E.

GLAMORGANSHIRE—

<i>Cardiff</i> . . .	Davies, G. A. T.
	Norwood, Prof. G.
	Pearson, Miss M. E.
	Robertson, Rev. W. L.
	*Slater, Prof. D.
<i>Conbridge</i> . .	Mayo, G.
<i>Penarth</i> . . .	Whitefield, Miss E. G.
<i>Swansea</i> . . .	Benger, Miss L. M.

MONMOUTHSHIRE—

<i>Abertillery</i> . .	Cartwright, Miss M.
<i>Monmouth</i> . .	James, L.

PEMBROKESHIRE—

<i>Haverfordwest</i> .	Henson, Rev. J.
<i>Pembroke</i> . .	Perman, Miss I. A.

IRELAND

<i>Belfast</i> . .	*Dill, Prof. Sir S.
	Henry, Prof. R. M.
	Laurie, Geo. E.
(<i>Longues Wood</i> .	Nolan, Rev. T.
<i>Derryock</i> . . .	Allen, S.
<i>Donnypatrick</i> .	Pooler, Rev. Dr.
<i>Dublin</i> . . .	*Beane, Prof. J. I.
	(Trinity Coll.).
	*Brown, Rev. Prof. H.
	(University).
	Cruise, Sir F. R.
	Delany, Rev. W.
	Keen, Miss E. A.
	La Touche, C. D.
	Mahaffy, Rev. Prof.
	Plunkett, Count.
	Purser, Prof. L. C.
	Thompson, John.
<i>Dundrum</i> . .	Ferrall, C. N.
<i>Enniskillen</i> . .	Allen, J. E. R.
<i>Galway</i> . . .	*Exon, Prof. C.
	McElderry, Prof. R. K.
	Pye, Prof. J.
<i>Sligo</i>	Willis, Miss M.
<i>Tullamore</i> . .	Keene, Rev. J.

<i>Aberdeen</i> . .	Harrower, Prof. J.
<i>Ballater</i> . . .	Taylor, Rev. A. F.
<i>Blairgowrie</i> .	Ramsay, Prof. G. G.
<i>Edinburgh</i> . .	Bell, J. M.
	Bell, W. M.
	Fernd, R. H.
	Green, G. Buckland.
	Hardie, Prof. W. H.
	Heard, Rev. W. A.
	Stevenson, Miss E.
<i>Glasgow</i> . . .	Davies, Prof. G. A.
	Bennis, W.
<i>Glenasmole</i> . .	Clarke, Rev. E. W.
	Hyslop, Rev. A. R. F.
<i>St. Andrews</i> .	Abernethy, Miss A. S.
	Barnett, Prof. Dr.
	John.
	Grant, Miss J. M.

SCOTLAND—continued

St. Andrews . Pearson, Miss E. R.
(continued) Shewan, A.
Tarradale . Yule, Miss A. F.

EUROPE

AUSTRIA—

Innsbruck . . Grafton, Rev. F. W.

BELGIUM—

Brussels . . . Taylor, Miss A. M.
Louvain . . . Canoy, Prof. A. J.

GERMANY—

Halle - an - der -
Saale . . . Robert, Prof. Dr. C.

ITALY—

Florence . . . , Benn, A. W.
Steele, J. P.
Rome . . . , Ashby, T.

MEDITERRANEAN—

Cyprus . . . Cobham, C. D.
Jasonidy, O. J.

RUSSIA—

St. Petersburg . Tchirkine, S.

SWITZERLAND—

Davos Platz . . Huggard, W. R.

NORTH AMERICA

CANADA—

<i>Halifax</i>	. . .	Murray, Prof. Howard
<i>Kingston</i>	. . .	Anderson, Prof. W. B. Cappon, Prof. J.
<i>Montreal</i>	. . .	Peterson, Principal W.
<i>Toronto</i>	. . .	*Auden, Prof. H. W. Robertson, Prof. J. C. Smith, Prof. G. O.

U.S.A. CONNECTICUT—

New Haven . . . Goodell, Prof. T. D.

U.S.A. ILLINOIS—

Chicago , , . Hale, Prof. W. G.

U.S.A. MASSACHUSETTS—

Cambridge . . White, Prof. J. W.
Newtonville . . Wallace, Miss I. M.

U.S.A. MICHIGAN—

Ann Arbor . . Kelsey, Prof. F. W.
Wenley, Prof. R. M.

U.S.A. MINNESOTA---

St. Paul , , O'Brien, Rev. P.

AMERICA—continued

U.S.A. MISSOURI—

Warrensburg . Yeater, Miss L. J.

U.S.A. NEW HAMPSHIRE—

Ereter . . . Kirtland, Prof. J. C.

U.S.A., NEW YORK—

Ithaca . . . Elmer, Prof. H. C.
Djelal Bey.

New York . . *Hirst, Miss G. M.
Hodges, A. L.
Knapp, Prof. C.
Lawson, L. M.
MacVay, Miss A. P.
Wye, Miss T.

Poughkeepsie . . . Leach, Prof. Abby.
Macurdy, Miss G. H.
Schenectady . . . Ashmoie, Prof. S. G

U.S.A. PENNSYLVANIA—

Washington . . Bryce, Rt. Hon J.

U.S.A. VIRGINIA—

Charlottesville . Fitzhugh, Prof. T.

ASTA

INDIA—

<i>Ahmedabad</i> . .	Braham, H. V.
	Wild, A. C.
<i>Ahmednagar</i> . .	Boyd, C. C.
	Gallie, Major J. S.
	Knight, H. A.
<i>Ambala</i> . . .	Drummond, Maj.-Gen.
	F. H. R.
<i>Bombay</i> . . .	Ailinger, Rev. Father.
	Anderson, G.
	Barlee, K. W.
	Batchelor, Hon. Mr.
	Justice.
	Beaman, Hon. Mr.
	Justice.
	Bell, W. M.
	Bolas, E. J.
	Boyd, C. C.
	Bright, G. E.
	Burns, Mrs. C.
	Cadell, P. R.
	Cameron, Rev. J.
	Carmichael, Hon. Mr.
	G.
	Chandavarkar, Sir N.
	G.
	Corrue, Lieut.-Colonel
	W. G. R.
	Cuveher, M. M.
	de Quadros, J. P.
	Drummond, Capt.

ASIA—continued

India—continued

<i>Bombay</i> . . .	Elliott, R. A. E.
(continued)	Paulkner, E.
	Gubbay, M. S.
	Haigh, P. B.
	Haig-Brown, W. A.
	Hart, Mrs.
	Holton, J. E. B.
	Johnston, D.
	Kincaid, C. A.
	Lamb, Hon. Mr. H. A.
	Larbolette, Rev. F. X.
	Madon, D. M.
	Marrs, R.
	Martin, Rev. Father A.
	Meyer, Dr. F. A.
	Palmer, Rt. Rev. E. J.
	Pavil, N. P.
	Percival, P. E.
	Pigott, R. E. R.
	Quin, Hon. Mr. H. O.
	Reade, B. C.
	Rickards, F. T.
	Russell, E. C.
	Sale, E. L.
	Sanderson, P. M. D.
	Sheppard, S. T.
	Sowerby, Mrs.
	Stephanos, A. D.
	Swann, Major-General J. C.
	Tarachand, R. K.
	Vaeth, Rev. A.
	Vakil, F.
	Wadia, B. J.
	Wadia, C. N.
	Willis, R. A.
<i>Belgaum</i> . . .	Wiles, G.
<i>Bijapur</i> . . .	Shannon, G. C.
	Shepherd, W. C.
<i>Broach</i> . . .	Rothfield, O.
<i>Burma</i> . . .	*Lee, F. R.
<i>Calcutta</i> . . .	Jenkins, Hon. Mr.
	Jukes, J. E. C.
	Macunghten, H. P. W.
<i>Hyderabad</i> . . .	Vernon, C. V.
<i>Karachi</i> . . .	Pratt, E. M.
<i>Karwar</i> . . .	Monteath, G.
<i>Kathianwar</i> . . .	Monteath, J.
	Owen, W. G.
<i>Khandwa</i> . . .	Roughton, N.
<i>Madras</i> . . .	Corley, F. E.

ASIA—continued

India—continued

<i>Nasik</i>	Kennedy, R. C. H. G.
	Maconochie, A. F.
<i>Poona</i>	Pratt, Hon. Mr. F. G.
	Swile, L. C.
	Wren, P.
<i>Purnea</i>	Farine, G.
<i>Rangoon</i>	Weckerspoon, G.
<i>Saturu</i>	Brayne, A. F. S.
<i>Simla</i>	Rainy, G.
<i>Thana</i>	Laird - Macgregor, G. E. L.
<i>Tirhoot</i>	Watson, Mrs. F.
KOREA	Tchirkine, S.

AUSTRALASIA

NEW ZEALAND—

<i>Christchurch</i> . . .	Bowen, C. G.
<i>Dunedin</i>	Adams, T. D.
	Morrell, W. J.
<i>Hawke's Bay</i> . . .	McLean, Miss M.
<i>Wellington</i>	Brown, Prof. J. R.

NEW SOUTH WALES—

<i>Broken Hill</i> . . .	Gilling, Miss M. E. C.
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QUEENSLAND—

<i>Brisbane</i>	Bousfield, F. S. N.
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S. AUSTRALIA—

<i>Adelaide</i>	Hollidge, D. H.
	Naylor, Prof. H.

TASMANIA—

<i>Hobart</i>	Williams, Prof. W. H.
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VICTORIA—

<i>Melbourne</i>	Leeper, A.
<i>South Yarra</i>	Williams, Miss S. J.

W. AUSTRALIA

<i>Perth</i>	Hutchison, C. S.
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NORTH AFRICA

EGYPT—

<i>Cairo</i>	Furness, J. M.
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SOUTH AFRICA

CAPE COLONY .

<i>Cape Town</i>	Lewis, J. G. B.
<i>Pretoria</i>	Peterson, Prof. A. C.

WEST INDIES

<i>Barbadoes</i>	Dalton, Rev. H. A.
<i>Jamaica</i>	Barrows, Miss M. M.

° THE CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION

MANCHESTER AND DISTRICT BRANCH

President :

THE REV. CANON HICKS, M.A.

Vice-Presidents :

THE RIGHT REV. THE BISHOP OF MANCHESTER; THE RIGHT REV. THE BISHOP OF SALFORD; MISS S. A. BURSTALL, M.A.; PROFESSOR W. BOYD DAWKINS, F.R.S., D.Sc.; SIR E. DONNER, BART., B.A.; THE VEN. WILLOUGHBY C. ALLEN, M.A., ARCHDEACON OF MANCHESTER; PROFESSOR R. M. BURROWS, M.A.; THE REV. J. H. MOULTON, D.LITT., HON. D.D.; J. L. PATON, ESQ., M.A.; PROFESSOR M. SADLER, M.A., HON. LL.D.; THE RIGHT REV. BISHOP WELLDON, D.D., DEAN OF MANCHESTER; THE VICE-CHANCELLOR OF THE VICTORIA UNIVERSITY; H. WILLIAMSON, ESQ., M.A.

Hon. Treasurer :

H. J. DAKERS, ESQ., M.A.

Hon. Secretaries :

MISS M. S. LILLEY, B.A.; J. MACINNES, ESQ., M.A.

Secretary of the Excavation Committee :

J. H. HOPKINSON, ESQ., M.A.

Committee :

PROFESSOR R. S. CONWAY, LITT.D. (Chairman); T. L. AGAR, ESQ., M.A.; THE REV. E. P. BARROW, M.A.; J. F. DOBSON, ESQ., M.A.; H. GUPPY, ESQ., M.A.; PROFESSOR H. W. HOGG, M.A.; J. H. HOPKINSON, ESQ., M.A.; C. E. KELSEY, ESQ., M.A.; MISS E. LANG, B.A.; MISS G. LLEWELLYN, B.A.; THOMAS MAY, ESQ., F.S.A. (SCOT.); P. J. MEAD, ESQ., B.A.; C. E. MONTAGUE, ESQ.; MISS R. H. REES, B.A.; MISS H. V. SCHMIDT, B.A.; MISS A. SHILLINGTON, B.A.; A. S. WARMAN, ESQ., B.A.

The year's work began with the Annual Business Meeting, held on January 28th, in the John Rylands Library. Professor

Flamstead Walters gave a lecture on some important questions connected with Greek Tragedy. The Officers and Committee were elected.

On June 25th the Branch visited the excavations which are being conducted at Holt, near Wrexham, by Mr. Arthur Acton. The party was fortunate enough to inspect the site and the collections of pottery under the personal conduct of Mr. Acton and were entertained by him with the utmost kindness.

On October 17th the Branch met to take a formal farewell of their retiring President, the Lord Bishop of Lincoln, and to make him a presentation of books. The meeting opened with a lecture by Mr. F. A. Bruton, M.A., on recent excavations on Roman sites. Sir Edward Donner, Bart., was elected to succeed Dr. Hicks as President, and Canon J. G. Simpson was elected a Vice-President.

On October 24th a public lecture at the University, by Professor Gilbert Murray, on "Greek Tragedy," was followed by a social meeting of the Branch, at which Professor Murray was present.

As mentioned in the Appendix to the Proceedings for 1908, the Excavation Committee had in 1908 conducted some interesting excavations on the site of the Roman Fort at Ribchester, discovering, among other objects of importance, an inscription erected by the Emperor Severus and subsequently modified by Caracalla. Since then it has been in prolonged consultation with the local Committee, with the double object of erecting a museum on the spot, in which the objects found may be permanently preserved, and of continuing and completing the excavation at the fort, which at its present stage leaves several interesting problems unsolved. Through the efforts of the local Committee considerable progress has been made. The ecclesiastical authorities have consented to sell the necessary portion of glebe-land, one part of which, after the excavation, is to be used as the site for a new Parish Room; and the National Trust for the Preservation of Ancient Monuments has consented to undertake the Trusteeship of the Museum to be erected on the other part.

The Branch's scheme for the interchange of lectures in schools has continued to operate through the year.

During 1910 there were nearly 70 regular members and about the same number of associate members.

BIRMINGHAM AND MIDLANDS BRANCH

The list of officers for 1910-11 is as follows :

President :

THE RIGHT REV. THE LORD BISHOP OF BIRMINGHAM.

Vice-Presidents :

G. BALFOUR, Esq., M.A. ; THE VEN. ARCHDEACON BURROWS, M.A. ; THE REV. CANON FORD, M.A. ; R. CARY GILSON, Esq., M.A. ; F. J. R. HENDY, Esq., M.A. ; G. HOOKHAM, Esq., M.A. ; THE RIGHT REV. BISHOP ILSLEY, D.D. ; THE REV. S. R. JAMES, M.A. ; J. T. MIDDLEMORE, Esq., J.P. ; THE REV. J. NORRIS ; PROFESSOR SONNENSCHN, D.LITT. ; C. A. VINCE, Esq., M.A. ; THE REV. R. WATERFIELD, M.A.

Hon. Treasurer :

H. ARNOLD HATFIELD, Esq., B.A., 107, City Road, Edgbaston.

Hon. Secretary :

R. W. REYNOLDS, Esq., M.A., King Edward's School, New Street.

Hon. Registrar :

MISS INEZ WATSON, 49, City Road, Edgbaston.

Hon. Secretary of the Reading Circle :

MISS H. M. BARRETT, M.A., 100, City Road, Edgbaston.

Committee :

MISS ALDER ; MISS BAUGH ; THE REV. A. P. BEAVEN, M.A. ; THE REV. W. F. BURNSIDE, M.A. ; THE REV. A. CATTLEY, M.A. ; THE REV. W. H. CHAPPEL, M.A. ; A. CLENDON, Esq., M.A. ; R. CARY GILSON, Esq., M.A. ; C. H. HEATH, Esq., M.A. ; THE REV. CANON HOBHOUSE, M.A. ; MISS LOVEDAY ; A. E. MEASURES, Esq., M.A. ; MISS NIMMO ; PROFESSOR SONNENSCHN, D.LITT. ; ST. GEORGE STOCK, Esq., M.A.

The following public lectures were delivered :

February 24th.—"The Relation of Platonism to Christianity."

By Mr. J. H. Sleeman, M.A.

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October 20th.—Paper by Mr. A. C. Benson, M.A., followed by a discussion on "The Place of Latin in the School Curriculum."

November 10th.—A lecture on "Greek Study in Relation to some Literary Influences of To-day," promised by Mr. S. H. Butcher, M.P., had to be cancelled, owing to the illness of the lecturer, and in its place an address was given by Father Phillips on "The Rosetta Stone."

The Reading Circle continues to meet, and has done excellent work.

LIVERPOOL AND DISTRICT BRANCH

President :

PROFESSOR J. P. POSTGATE, LL.D.

Vice-Presidents :

THE RIGHT REV. THE LORD BISHOP OF LIVERPOOL ; THE VICE-CHANCELLOR OF LIVERPOOL UNIVERSITY ; MISS BAINES ; PROFESSOR R. C. BOSANQUET ; THE REV. JOSEPH BROWNE, S.J. ; PROFESSOR E. T. CAMPAGNAC ; R. CATON, ESQ., M.D. ; THE REV. A. CONNELL ; H. CRADOCK-WATSON, ESQ. ; ROBERT GLADSTONE, ESQ. ; F. GRIFFIN, ESQ. ; PROFESSOR P. HEBBLETHWAITE ; THE REV. CANON KEMPTHORNE ; THE REV. J. B. LANCELOT ; J. G. LEGGE, ESQ. ; PROFESSOR J. L. MYRES ; A. PALLIS, ESQ. ; EMERITUS PROFESSOR H. A. STRONG, LL.D. ; H. E. VIPAN, ESQ. ; H. V. WEISSE, ESQ.

Hon. Treasurer :

H. MONTGOMERY, ESQ.

Hon. Secretaries :

KENNETH FORBES, ESQ. ; HUGH STEWART, ESQ.

The numbers of the Branch have maintained a fairly satisfactory level. There are 48 full members of the Association, besides 41 associate members.

The increased local interest in classical studies was shown during the year by the enterprise of a private committee, who undertook an excavation on the site of the Roman station of Magidunum, on the Fosse Way, near Bingham. The excavation yielded evidence of pre-Roman occupation in some polished stone weapons; there were also suggestive finds of pottery and small objects, but no trace of buildings was discovered till the very close of a season, when a portion of the *vallum* was unearthed. †

BOMBAY BRANCH

Patron :

HIS EXCELLENCY BREVET-COLONEL THE HON. SIR GEORGE
SYDENHAM CLARKE, R.E. (Retd.), G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E.,
Governor of Bombay.

President :

THE HON. MR. JUSTICE BEAMAN, I.C.S.

Vice-Presidents :

THE HON. MR. JUSTICE BATCHELOR, I.C.S.; THE RIGHT REV.
E. J. PALMER, M.A., LORD BISHOP OF BOMBAY; MRS. E. A.
R. HAIGH; THE HON. MR. J. L. JENKINS, C.S.I., M.A., I.C.S.;
THE HON. MR. R. A. LAMB, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.; MAJOR-
GENERAL J. C. SWANN, C.B.

Hon. Treasurer :

J. E. B. HOTSON, Esq., M.A., I.C.S.

Hon. Secretary :

THE REV. FATHER AILINGER, S.J., St. Xavier's College,
Bombay.

Committee :

G. ANDERSON, Esq., M.A.; THE HON. SIR N. G. CHANDAVARKAR,
B.A., LL.B.; N. P. PAVRY, Esq., B.A., LL.B.; S. T.
SHEPPARD, Esq.; P. B. HAIGH, Esq., M.A., I.C.S.; F. T.
RICKARDS, Esq.

The Hon. Secretary of the Branch has great pleasure in reporting that the Branch, which was formally constituted in January 1910, has prospered beyond the utmost expectations of its founders. It began with a nucleus of 18 members of the Central Association, to which were added 23 others at the constituent meeting. Since that time the membership has more than doubled, and is now within a few of a hundred. The greater number of the members are resident in Bombay, but there are many, also, scattered over the whole of the Presidency, and a few in different parts of India.

Prospects of the future of the Branch are even more favourable. Papers have already been promised by the following members : Messrs. J. H. Marshall, C.I.E., Director-General of Archaeology in India, F. T. Rickards, R. F. L. Whitty, Otto Rothfield, C. A. Kincaid, E. J. Bolus, and the Rev. John Cameron.

The Branch regrets to record the loss sustained in the death of Mr. D. Johnston, one of its earliest members. It has also lost a valued friend in Dr. S. H. Butcher, M.P., whose advice was of the greatest help at the time of its formation.

Since the Constituent Meeting on January 20th, 1910 (reported in the previous volume of the Proceedings), five meetings have been held before large audiences :

June 14th.—The Rev. Father Ailinger, S.J., read the first half of a paper on "The Classical Pronunciation of Latin."

July 18th.—Mr. A. C. Wild, I.C.S., read a paper on "The Indian Origin of Greek Music."

August 25th.—The Rev. Father Ailinger, S.J., read the second half of his paper on "The Classical Pronunciation of Latin."

November 28th.—General Swann, C.B., gave a lecture on "Alexander's Eastern Campaign."

January 10th, 1911.—Mr. G. Anderson read a paper by Mr. Walter C. Shepherd, "On Translating the Classics into English."

REPORT FROM THE
CLASSICAL ASSOCIATION OF NEW SOUTH WALES
1909—1910

President :

THE HON. W. P. CULLEN, M.A., LL.D., Chief Justice of
New South Wales.

Vice-Presidents 871

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D.C.L., P.C. ; HIS HONOUR JUDGE BACKHOUSE, M.A. ;
PROFESSOR THOMAS BUTLER, B.A. ; THE RIGHT REV. Mc
SIGNOR O'BRIEN ; THE REV. ANDREW HARPER, M.A., D.D.
MISS LOUISA MACDONALD, M.A. ; MISS BADHAM ; MR
GARVIN ; MRS. STILES ; A. J. WEIGALL, ESQ., M.A. ; C. F
HODGES, ESQ., M.A. ; THE REV. R. J. LITTLE, S.J. ; THE
REV. BR. CLEMENT ; ALEXANDER MACKIE, ESQ., M.A.
THE REV. C. J. PRESCOTT, M.A.

Hon. Treasurer :

PROFESSOR W. J. WOODHOUSE, M.A.

Hon. Secretary :

F. A. TODD, ESQ., B.A., PH.D.

Council :

MISS ELEANOR WATSON, M.A. ; C. J. BRENNAN, M.A. ; AS-
SISTANT PROFESSOR E. R. HOLME, M.A. ; C. H. KAEPPFEL, ESQ.
I. MUTTON, F.C., B.A. ; A. C. MILLARD, ESQ., B.A. , H.
NICHOLAS, ESQ., M.A. ; A. B. PIDDINGTON, ESQ., B. ,
J. LEE POLLING, ESQ. ; THE REV. L. B. RADFORD, M.A.,
D.D. ; L. H. ALLEN, ESQ., B.A., PH.D. ; T. A. H. WING,
ESQ., M.A.

At an Inaugural Meeting, convened by Mr. E. R. Garnsey
and Dr. F. A. Todd, and held in Sydney on May 31st, 1909, it
was resolved, upon the Motion of Professor W. J. Woodhouse,
seconded by Mr. E. R. Garnsey, That the Society, to be called

