

Modern Language Teaching

Volume I

A. P. R. Howatt and Richard C. Smith

The Reform Movement



MODERN LANGUAGE TEACHING

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The Reform Movement

Selection and new introduction by
A. P. R. Howatt and Richard C. Smith

Volume I

Linguistic Foundations



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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Overview

The late nineteenth-century Reform Movement in modern language teaching began dramatically in 1882 with the publication of a short, polemical attack on grammar-translation methods in German schools (*Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!* ('Language Teaching Must Change Direction!')) by a young teacher of English, Wilhelm Viëtor (1850–1918). Subsequent pan-European cooperation between phoneticians and teachers culminated in the publication of two works by distinguished scholars which were instrumental in the establishment of an 'applied linguistic' approach to language teaching in the twentieth century: *The Practical Study of Languages* (1899) by Henry Sweet (1845–1912) and *How to Teach a Foreign Language* (1901/1904) by Otto Jespersen (1860–1943). In the meantime, the movement had benefited from developments in the new science of psychology, with *Die praktische Spracherlernung* ('Practical Language Learning', 1884) by Felix Franke (1860–86) representing one of the first attempts to develop a scientific theory of language learning.

The Reform Movement attracted support across Europe, spurring the development of new professional associations and journals. In turn, the publication in these journals of reports of innovative practice contributed to a greater sense of autonomy and professionalism among modern language teachers, who had hitherto tended to live under the shadow of classical language teaching. Particularly influential in establishing this new 'esprit de corps' were a number of reports of teaching experience in Germany (including *Ein Jahr Erfahrungen mit der neuen Methode* ('One Year's Experience with the New Method', 1888) by Hermann Klinghardt (1847–1926)) and in Britain (notably *The Teaching of Languages in Schools* (1888) by W. H. Widgery (1856–91)).

Around the turn of the century Reform Movement principles became firmly established in national guidelines for modern language teaching in a variety of European countries, and for their establishment in France and Belgium, Paul Passy (1859–1940), the founder of a teachers' association later known as the International Phonetic Association (IPA), deserves much

of the credit. Passy, who was both a distinguished phonetician and an accomplished teacher himself, personifies the alliance between linguistics (in particular, phonetics) and language teaching which was the Reform Movement's most durable contribution to the establishment of a modern language teaching profession.

This set of five volumes provides a comprehensive overview of the Reform Movement, containing major works by all of its main protagonists, together with a variety of less well-known writings. This first volume contains works which clarify the Movement's linguistic (largely phonetic) foundations, while Volume II charts the early years of the Reform Movement, up to 1887. Volumes III and IV mostly contain later works which illustrate progress in Germany and France, and Britain and Scandinavia, respectively, up to about 1901. Finally, Volume V contains contemporary bibliographies and overviews of the Movement as a whole.

Each volume has its own Introduction, containing notes on individual works and authors and incorporating brief summaries of items in languages other than English. For this first volume we preface these notes and summaries with a 'General Introduction' to the set as a whole, offering insights into the historical and educational background to the Reform Movement, the reasons why reform in modern language teaching was being promoted in the last two decades of the nineteenth century, the common rationale which emerged for reform proposals, and the short- and long-term influence of these proposals. An overall chronology of the Reform Movement completes this 'General Introduction'.

Background

The Reform Movement was very much a child of its time. Reform in one shape or another was the defining feature of a Europe anxious to preserve the status quo from the kind of violent revolution that had engulfed the continent after 1789 and threatened to do so again in 1848, but concerned at the same time to extend social and political influence to those most likely to exploit the benefits of the brave new world of entrepreneurial endeavour and scientific progress. Education was seen as the key to a successful marriage of economic growth and social stability. It was in Germany, which, as the Prussia of Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767–1835), had done the most to modernise its education system in the wake of the humiliating defeat by Napoleonic France, that progressive and effective educational change was most in evidence. The famous 'kindergarten' project of Friedrich Froebel (1782–1852) was particularly well-known, but it was only one of a number of pioneering experiments which attracted the attention of educationalists from all over the world. It was therefore appropriate that the reform of modern language teaching should have been initiated in Germany in the early 1880s, though it quickly spread to Scandinavia and, later, other areas of Europe.

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While the achievements of German education in the nineteenth century were substantial, they also had their dark side, particularly in the *Gymnasien* ('grammar schools'), where youngsters were heavily over-burdened with excessive expectations of intellectual achievement and denied the freedom to explore their personal responses to the emotional and moral dilemmas of growing up – a theme that is presented with considerable power in Franz Wedekind's (1891) play *Frühlings Erwachen* ('Spring Awakening') set in a *Gymnasium* of the 1890s. This helps to explain why the generally accepted 'founding document' of the Reform Movement, Wilhelm Viëtor's *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!* ('Language teaching must change direction!', published under the pseudonym Quousque Tandem in 1882), carried the subtitle *ein Beitrag zur Überbürdungsfrage* ('a contribution to the overloading question') (see Volume II). The specific point raised in the pamphlet was that the homework burden could be substantially lightened by reformed methods of modern language teaching which relieved pupils of the need to prepare ahead (a practice which, Viëtor claimed with some justice, deprived learners of an accurate model of correct pronunciation provided by the teacher). But the real significance of Viëtor's decision to become involved with the 'overloading question' lay in the way it showed the serious commitment within the Reform Movement to the improvement of education in general.

Before moving on to consider Reform proposals in detail, it is worth noting the special role played in the Movement by the teaching of English. All the leading reformers were anglicists of one kind or another. Some like Paul Passy in France and Hermann Klinghardt in Germany were teachers of English in schools, while others such as Wilhelm Viëtor himself for instance and the great Otto Jespersen in Denmark taught in universities and made serious contributions to English studies through their publications. In England itself Henry Sweet focused as much of his formidable intellect on the problems of describing and teaching Anglo-Saxon as he could spare from his beloved phonetics. There were no doubt many reasons for this bias, but one of them contrasts so sharply with our contemporary experience that it is worth a moment's reflection. The close attention enjoyed by English at this time did not reflect its educational importance but rather the reverse. When the Movement began it was hardly ever taught in the German *Gymnasien* because it was 'too easy', and even in the less academic *Realschulen* where it was available, it was rarely the first foreign language. Experiments like Klinghardt's (Klinghardt 1888, 1892) were conducted at *Realschulen* and did not threaten anybody's exam marks in French or Latin (Klemm 1889/1903 (see Appendix 1) does, however, report on an innovative English lesson he observed in a *Gymnasium* in the Rhineland, showing that by the end of the 1880s the picture had already begun to change). The story in France was similar, with German cast in the leading role in the lycées. Given the reforming zeal of English-teaching professionals in the continental countries, it is a little ironic that England itself was to prove the most resistant to the new

ideas, due in no small measure to a uniquely idiosyncratic secondary school system dominated by a set of high-prestige boarding schools ('public schools') which reflected their Oxbridge mentors' contempt for modern languages and devoted all their energies to the classics. The grammar schools (the real English counterparts to the *Gymnasien* and *lycées*) did little but imitate 'their betters' in the battle to attract good students. But perhaps it was precisely the success of English in providing the cutting-edge of European reform that deprived the anglophone world of a progressive role model for language teaching in schools. Whatever the reasons were, neither Britain nor the USA really benefited from reform, and teachers in both countries generally failed to grasp the important distinction between reform in the secondary schools and the adoption of 'direct' or 'natural' methods which they associated in particular with the commercial language schools of Maximilian Berlitz (see Howatt and Smith 2000). These began in Providence, Rhode Island, in 1878 (only four years before the European Movement began) and shared some of the same philosophy, but their aims, clientèle and methods were quite different.

To return to our main topic, the reform of modern language teaching in European secondary schools was long overdue but, once started, it spread like wildfire. We should look now in more detail at the state of modern language teaching on the eve of Viëtor's 1882 pamphlet.

The need for reform

By the start of the Reform Movement in the early 1880s, modern languages had been moving (slowly) onto the curricula of European secondary schools for roughly a hundred years. Before 1700, Latin and, to a lesser extent, Greek had dominated the school day for most grammar school pupils (who were much younger than today's secondary students – the normal starting-age being eight, with university entrance about six years later), but from the middle of the eighteenth century the ideas of the Enlightenment had begun to encourage a more secular stance towards schooling and with it a growing sympathy for curricula that attended in some measure to practical subjects. Progress was, however, erratic and the details varied considerably from country to country. One of the key changes was the adoption of the mother tongue as the medium of university education, and the consequent reduction in the status of Latin. This did not mean that modern languages were immediately recognised as suitable subjects for university study in themselves, but the change was a serious setback to the absolute power hitherto enjoyed by the classics, opening the way, in principle at least, to greater curricular choice and flexibility in the schools.

Until this shift, the study of modern foreign languages had largely been confined to individual adults whose educational background had provided them with the necessary knowledge and skills to attempt to teach themselves.

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All foreign language study followed essentially the same approach and the years spent memorising Latin grammar at school were put to use in acquiring a knowledge of other languages. The standard textbook before about 1800 was a fairly substantial manual containing a comprehensive set of different materials (detailed grammar rules, pronunciation and spelling guides, word-lists, collections of texts, etc.), all designed for self-study purposes. Such manuals were, however, unsuitable for school use: they were ungraded and lacked the kind of practice exercises that suited the needs of school classes. A new approach was needed and in 1783 a German teacher of French, Johann Valentin Meidinger (1756–1822), published a textbook well-suited to school use called *Praktische französische Grammatik*. It was carefully organised, with each lesson offering a small set of grammar notes plus a short vocabulary list, which were presented in a graded step-by-step manner with plenty of sentences to translate into the foreign language (hence the reference to ‘practical’ in the title). Later books along the same lines added sentences for translation into the mother tongue and sometimes also reading texts. Reading worthwhile literature was the principal aim of these courses (‘conversation’ being rejected as too trivial for grammar school purposes – and who would the pupils actually converse with anyway?). For obvious reasons the approach eventually became known (to its critics) as ‘the grammar-translation method’.

Unfortunately, as time went on, the modest and limited aims of the early grammar-translation textbooks were no longer deemed appropriate for anxious teachers preparing students for the increasingly heavy demands of examination syllabuses. What had happened was that modern language teaching had been drawn into a less than friendly competition with the classical establishment, which was already worried about its future now that Latin had disappeared from university lecture theatres. They tried to tag modern languages as essentially unworthy of serious academic attention, calling them ‘trivial’ and ‘soft options’. These and similar sneers prompted modern linguists to exaggerate the difficulty of French and German by introducing greater quantities of ‘grammar’ (that is, the minutiae of endings, genders, exceptional plurals, etc.) and extending the literature syllabus. Both developments led inevitably to a huge increase in the amount of vocabulary that had to be memorised. In French and German schools English was despised for having ‘no grammar’ (i.e., no grammatical genders, few endings and only a tiny handful of irregular plurals) but, as we have already noted, this meant it was the first to benefit from reform when it finally arrived.

The key battleground between the ancients and moderns lay in the newly devised institution of public examinations that had been set up in many European countries during the early to mid-nineteenth century. These were designed to impose a measure of uniformity on the plethora of private schools which had been established to take advantage of the ambitions

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of the newly affluent industrial middle classes, and to monitor standards generally. In most countries this examining role was taken on by the state, but the United Kingdom parliament refused to become involved and delegated the task to the universities.

The example papers in Appendix 2 derive from a typical but relatively low-level British public examination in 1880, namely the Junior Certificate of the Local Examinations of the University of Glasgow (see also Benson (2000: 46) for another, earlier example). University entrance was one of the practical uses for these certificates, but they were important in many other vocational contexts.

The French paper is clearly modelled on the Latin one but flaunts its difficulty by including two lengthy verse texts for translation into English (the Latin paper has only one, plus a prose text, both of moderate length). These are followed by a set of grammar questions to be answered in French and finally a twenty-line English text for translation into French (this was the so-called ‘prose’, the most dreaded of all language exam questions, and, unlike the Latin equivalent, there was no help with the vocabulary). Notice in particular the opening sentences:

A merchant had invited friends in town to his country-house by the sea-side, in order to entertain them with a rare kind of sea-fish, called lamprey. Several dishes were put on the table, and at last there came a large dish covered over, which was supposed to contain the lampreys.

(University of Glasgow 1880: 39)

Even without ‘lamprey’, which is clearly designed to deliver a knock-out blow to any unseemly self-confidence on the part of the candidates, the style of the text as a whole is self-consciously ‘literary’, lexically dense and syntactically complex, all of which stimulated the ‘washback effect’ on the classroom which has already been mentioned: massive vocabulary memorisation to forestall ‘lamprey’-type tricks, grammar traps (notice that ‘lamprey’ is used collectively in the first sentence and as a countable noun in the second – this is no accident), plus a heavy diet of literary reading. There was no opportunity for self-expression in French, and of course there was no oral component in the examinations, though the inclusion of verse was often claimed to be a kind of ‘stand in’ for speech.

In order to prepare for their ordeal by examination modern language students had to take courses expressly designed to meet these requirements. Thus, Bahlsen (1903/1905, in Volume V) offers one account, from personal, painful memory, of lessons based on the textbooks by Karl Plötz (1819–81) which dominated French instruction in German schools in the nineteenth century:

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Committing words to memory, translating sentences, drilling in irregular verbs, later memorizing, repeating, and applying grammatical rules with their exceptions, – that was and eternally remained our main occupation.

(Bahlsen 1903/1905: 12)

Plötz's school textbooks were particularly associated with grammar-translation in late nineteenth-century Germany (and they were to be attacked severely in Viëtor's (1882) pamphlet). His most successful (and notorious) course was the *Schulgrammatik der französischen Sprache*, which had already gone through twenty-seven editions by the time of his death in 1881, when his son Carl Gustav (b. 1851) took over editorial responsibility. Whatever the textbook, though, traditional (grammar-translation) lessons everywhere followed very much the same design:

A Traditional (Grammar-Translation) Lesson Plan

1. *New Grammar Rules.* A traditional language lesson typically started with the new grammar rules as set out in the textbook. The material was presented in the learners' mother tongue and participation by students was minimal. An alternative method was to set the new rules as a homework task, in which case the teacher's role was to test whether they had been learnt. For pupils the safest way of getting through unscathed was to learn them by heart.
2. *New Words.* Word lists (which could be very long) were learnt by heart and tested in class orally and/or in writing.
3. *Translation.* The remainder of the lesson focused on two sets of sentences designed to illustrate the new grammar and vocabulary. It was traditional for the first set to be translated into the mother tongue and the second into the foreign language (a much more demanding exercise). The standard procedure was for a few to be translated orally 'round the class' with the rest being set as homework.
4. *Reading.* Reading worthwhile literature was a traditional long-term aim, and most classes would have a 'reader' from which texts could be read aloud (the only opportunity pupils had to speak the foreign language) and translated into the mother tongue.

Language lessons along these lines could be effective with an exceptional teacher, but in general they were repetitious and extremely tedious. Learners heard very little of the foreign language and spoke even less. There was little coherence in the material, which was dominated by lists of disconnected

words and sentences. Apart from the reading, the emphasis was on formal knowledge rather than the skilled use of language. Little wonder then that W. H. Widgery summed up the UK's central educational problem ('our chief hindrance', as he called it) in the following comment: 'our hindrance lies in the exaggerated respect paid by the British public to examinations, while it takes no trouble to see that they will test the capabilities it wants' (Widgery 1888/1903: 58).

A rationale for reform

When reform finally came to language teaching in the 1880s, it focused on two main issues: (a) the linguistic content of the syllabus and teaching materials and (b) classroom methodology. (Viëtor's (1882) *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!* establishes this dual approach explicitly, being divided into two sections dealing with 'I. Sprachliches' (linguistic concerns) and 'II. Unterrichtliches' (pedagogical concerns).) In both areas reformers drew on the newly developing sciences – of language and learning respectively – to develop convincing arguments for change. To use a modern phrase, the Reform Movement was an 'applied linguistic' enterprise that sought to bring practical benefits to language pedagogy through the application of theoretical insights and descriptive expertise. However, it is important to stress that, unlike some more recent exercises of a similar kind, the Movement went to great lengths to involve the teaching profession and it was particularly helpful, as we have already mentioned, that most of its leaders had practical classroom experience behind them.

The reformers' central linguistic criticism was that traditional language teaching ignored the spoken language and, in doing so, set itself against the basic principle of the new linguistic sciences, namely the primacy of human speech – a tenet that came to dominate modern linguistics throughout the twentieth century. In the 1870s the issue had been brought into especially sharp focus by the emergence of a new and academically controversial group of linguistic scholars associated in particular with the University of Leipzig. The group were dubbed 'Junggrammatiker' (literally 'young grammarians' but normally rendered in English as 'neo-grammarians' (see Morpurgo Davies 1998: Chapter 9)), a pejorative phrase intended to express the disapproval of an academic establishment that resented the somewhat brusque challenge they represented. The neo-grammarians complained that contemporary research was slipshod (they particularly disliked the practice of using 'exceptions' to shore up rather shaky 'rules') and argued that more care should be taken with the collection of genuine scientific evidence. It was the latter point that drew them towards the spoken language, in particular dialectal speech that was 'uncontaminated' by the prescriptive concerns associated with the written standard language. Although they remained inside the established tradition of historical (diachronic) linguistic research (the time

was not yet ripe for synchronic studies) the neo-grammarians reinvigorated language studies and in doing so attracted students to Leipzig from all over the world – including Viëtor himself and the future founder of modern linguistics Ferdinand de Saussure. Much later on, in 1913, the young Leonard Bloomfield also came to Leipzig to hear the by now rather elderly men whose ideas had impressed him in America (cf. Bloomfield 1914).

The primacy of spoken language was a principle of great importance to general linguistic science but it was not fully realised until the next century. Of more immediate practical relevance in the 1880s was the progress that had been made in scientific phonetics as represented in particular by Henry Sweet's *Handbook of Phonetics* in 1877 (reproduced in this volume) and his collection of texts published as *Elementarbuch des gesprochenen Englisch* ('Primer of Spoken English', in Volume II). The latter work appeared in 1885 and provided the starting-point for Klinghardt's experiments in his school in Reichenbach (see Klinghardt 1888, in Volume III).

The new interest in speech had both positive and less clearly beneficial classroom consequences. The good news was that oral work was allocated a leading role throughout the learning process from the opening presentation of new texts, through detailed oral question-and-answer work in class, to follow-up tasks such as 're-tells' when the content of a text would be recapitulated in a spoken summary. Pronunciation was attended to in great detail, a task for which teachers were not yet well-equipped and which implied the need for a major reform of teacher training. We need to bear in mind that the demand for modern language classes frequently outran the supply of local (i.e. 'non-native speaker') teachers and the gap was often filled with native speakers whose academic qualifications were variable and who were rarely committed to remaining in any one neighbourhood for long. Some of these teachers were no doubt excellent (Wilhelm Viëtor, for instance, taught German in England) but they were not ideal, particularly for school pupils whose courses often lasted for many years. The hope of the Reform Movement leaders was that phonetics would provide a solution to the problem through foreign language speech training which would lift non-native teachers to the level of native speakers – and in a sense beyond them, since phonetics offered much more than skilled performance. Local teachers could then provide the stable presence in the schools that was rarely possible with largely itinerant foreign teachers (Sweet (1884: 594–5) makes these points clearly, if rather aggressively).

There was, however, a more controversial side to the involvement of phonetics, namely the use of phonetically transcribed texts in the early stages of language learning, in order, it was claimed, to prevent the emergence of pronunciation errors. The emphasis on transcription was particularly marked in respect of English and French, both of which have orthographical systems that are difficult to learn. On the whole pupils did not like what they saw as 'learning a new alphabet' and even the most committed teachers remained

unconvinced (see for instance Klinghardt 1888: 40–1). One of the key pedagogical arguments which the phoneticians did not always take on board was the delay to the introduction of written work caused by the extended use of transcription (especially one as complex as Sweet's in the *Elementarbuch*). It was unfortunate that transcribed texts became emblematic of the whole Reform approach (it was often termed the 'Phonetic Method' as a result) and therefore hindered its adoption by giving opponents a not unreasonable cause for anxiety. The bottom line of the Reform Movement – as of every proposal since that has tried to improve the success of language teaching in schools by increasing the importance of the spoken language – was the need to train large numbers of teachers to speak the foreign language confidently and accurately. This could not be done quickly, and Europe would have needed a much more systematic approach to teacher preparation for reform to be fully implemented in the way that Sweet, Passy, Viëtor and the other Reform Movement leaders initially hoped.

Before leaving the spoken language issue, it is important to stress that reformed language lessons were not conceived of as 'conversation classes' – anything that smacked of 'tourist chat' would have been banned from schools as supremely trivial. Spoken language for the Reform Movement teachers was 'spoken prose', not 'conversation', to use Abercrombie's (1963) very helpful distinction. As Klemm's (1889/1903) observations show quite clearly (see Appendix 1), the class texts were essentially written texts designed to be used as the basis for oral work (for 'comprehension questions', to use a modern classroom term). There were few if any dialogues, and little along the lines of twentieth-century 'speech work' or oral drills. Failure to see the difference between 'spoken prose' and 'conversation' probably did more damage to the cause of reform, particularly in the UK and USA, than anything else because it resulted in the serious intentions of the Movement being inextricably confused with the (deliberately) simplistic conversational routines of the Sauveur–Berlitz tradition of 'natural' direct method teaching ('Are you a teacher?', 'No, I am not. I am a pupil', 'Have you a blue coat?' 'No, I have a yellow coat', etc., etc.). This kind of 'conversation' may have offered adult beginners in the 1880s an exciting new language learning experience, but it had no place in the grammar schools. Typically, the spoken language of the Reform Movement class followed exactly the same rules of discourse (teacher initiation–pupil response–teacher feedback) as those observed in every other secondary school lesson (cf. Sinclair and Coulthard 1975), but in a foreign language.

To move to the second major area of reform, classroom methodology, we can see that the 'applied linguistic' orientation of the Movement was not restricted to linguistic matters but also included a serious attempt to apply the principles of the new science of psychology to the design of classroom instruction. The most influential idea at the time was the notion of 'association', and its application to language learning seemed to offer a unifying

principle of some value (in Sweet's *Practical Study of Languages* (1899), it appears to play a key role, though see also Atherton 1996). Learning a foreign language meant learning associations of all kinds: learning to associate sounds sequentially, for instance, to create fluent utterances, learning to associate words grammatically to form connected sentences, and learning to associate sentences to form texts – the connected text being the key pedagogical device in the new methodology, forming a replacement for the frequently nonsensical isolated sentences of grammar-translation materials.

Association was a hugely influential insight in late nineteenth-century language teaching because it provided the rationale for an alternative to translation through its claim that words in a foreign language should be associated directly with 'things' and not with words in the pupils' mother tongue. All the reformers had something to say along these lines, but the most explicit was Felix Franke, in his influential 1884 pamphlet *Die praktische Spracherlernung* ('Practical Language Learning', in Volume II). See especially the sequence of diagrams on pages 30–3 where he discusses the formation of direct associations ('Verknüpfung') between ideas (B, 'Begriffe') and foreign language expressions (F, 'fremdsprachliche Ausdrücke') as opposed to indirect associations through the mother tongue (M, 'Muttersprache'). These ideas underpinned what is nowadays termed the 'monolingual principle', namely that foreign language classes should be conducted in the foreign language. However, this principle was interpreted in a sensibly moderate way by most reformers, who allowed the use of the students' mother tongue in two specific classroom contexts: (a) when it was necessary to check that pupils had understood the meaning of new items (see Step 2 of the Lesson Plan below) and (b) for the teaching of formal grammar (see Step 5). Unfortunately this principle was sometimes elevated to the status of an absolute law – mainly by the Berlitz schools – and, as happened with phonetics, this exaggeration alarmed some teachers, particularly older ones with less self-confidence in their ability to control a class in a foreign language, thus setting them against all aspects of reform. The importance of sensitive teacher education was crucial and the relative failure of the Movement in Britain (already referred to above) may have been due in part to the loss in his mid-thirties of W. H. Widgery (1856–91) who, along with Hermann Klinghardt and Max Walter in Germany, had become one of the most well-known enthusiasts for the new ideas within the language teaching profession in Europe. Widgery's sensible and well-informed proposals for change were disseminated in his (1888) pamphlet *The Teaching of Languages in Schools* (in Volume IV) but his personal example was greatly missed in the 1890s and beyond.

Klemm (1889/1903, excerpted in Appendix 1) gives an account of a specific lesson which clearly shows the influence of Reform Movement ideas (see also Brebner 1898, in Volume III), but it is worth summarising here the general pedagogical framework that emerged from the theoretical principles outlined above:

A Reform Movement Lesson Plan

1. *The New Text.* 'Reformed' lessons usually started with the oral presentation of the new text (often a short extract of a longer piece). This presentation was conducted in the foreign language and included some teacher–pupil discussion, particularly with more advanced classes.
2. *New Grammar and Vocabulary.* The oral presentation was carefully designed to provide a context for the teaching of new grammar and vocabulary. At this stage the emphasis was on comprehension, and checking in the mother tongue was not discouraged. The systematic study of the new grammar was postponed until after the text had been thoroughly assimilated (see Step 5 below). Close attention was given to the correct pronunciation of all new items.
3. *Oral Class Work.* The central section of the lesson consisted of detailed question-and-answer work on the new text, conducted orally and entirely in the foreign language.
4. *Re-telling the Text.* When the intensive work on the text was finished, learners were often asked to re-tell it in their own words, either orally or as a written exercise.
5. *The New Grammar.* Once the language of the text was thoroughly familiar, the teacher gave a systematic account of the new grammar, linking it where necessary to earlier lessons. This procedure of drawing generalisations out of linguistic data became known as the 'inductive' study of grammar as opposed to the traditional 'deductive' process of beginning with the rules and then applying them to construct example sentences. The mother tongue was normally used for this task, though it was also a useful foreign language activity for advanced students who had acquired the specialised vocabulary of grammatical discourse.

Finding or creating suitable connected texts for foreign language teaching purposes was a major headache for the new methodology. Quite apart from qualitative features such as the intrinsic interest of a text or its aesthetic qualities, there was a constant conflict between two sets of linguistic criteria which were often difficult to reconcile. On the one hand texts were supposed to be typical samples of normal, relatively colloquial language in use, but on the other they provided the basic teaching material for an identifiable group of learners – they had to be at the right level of difficulty for that group, contain instances of the specific grammar and vocabulary which was to be taught in particular lessons, and so on. Then there were questions of educational value, particularly with texts intended for young school pupils.

Striking the right balance between these competing aims has been a recurrent theme in the history of language teaching (the modern debate over ‘authenticity’ is a case in point, for instance), and Sweet’s discussion of the problem in Chapter 13 of *The Practical Study of Languages* (1899) contains important insights that are still relevant today.

To sum up, at the heart of the Reform Movement was the conviction, sustained by the dominant theoretical notions of the time, that spoken language provided the foundation for all linguistic phenomena, including in particular the processes of natural language acquisition. It followed therefore that a seriously responsible and principled approach to the teaching of foreign languages in schools must be rooted in the same soil and in particular must promote a confident spoken fluency in young pupils, for whom language learning should be a worthwhile and enjoyable experience.

The impact of the Reform Movement

The effects of the Reform Movement can be evaluated in two different ways. The first concerns its contemporary impact (that is, its diffusion during the twenty years following the publication of *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!*), and the second its longer-term influence on the teaching of foreign languages, particularly in schools. From both perspectives it can generally be counted a success and in some respects a triumph, but there were negative reactions and relative failures as well, some of which we have already mentioned in passing. In examining the short- and long-term influence of the Reform Movement we should be careful – as far as possible – to distinguish between its impact on professionalisation and language teaching theory (including its effects on curricular guidelines and textbook design) and developments in actual practice in the schools, bearing in mind also that the pace and extent of reform inevitably varied in different geographical and institutional settings.

As regards the contemporary impact of the Movement, there is little doubt that it represented a defining moment in the development of the profession across Europe. Firm foundations were provided for modern language teaching theory, professional associations and journals were founded around the new ideas and, generally speaking, the status of modern languages in schools was greatly enhanced, with instruction in the living languages finally emerging from the shadow of Latin and Greek. No later initiative in the field was able to profit from such a formidable array of talent right across the spectrum from theory to practice. Its intellectual leaders, Henry Sweet and Otto Jespersen, for instance, knew how to communicate effectively with classroom practitioners without in any sense ‘talking down’ to them. In fact their two major handbooks – Sweet’s *Practical Study* (1899) and Jespersen’s (1904) *How to Teach a Foreign Language* (both in Volume IV) – together cover the full educational spectrum from the ordinary secondary school

classroom (Jespersen) to the individual learner or specialist study group (Sweet). Jespersen (1904: 3–4) notes how Viëtor and Passy were also well-placed ‘on the boundary’ between linguistic scholarship and teaching. For example, Passy’s experience as a teacher is as much in evidence as his academic expertise in his (1887a) *Les sons du français*, one of the standard, and most popular phonetic works of its time (a 1907 English translation is included in this volume). By 1894, the major theorists of the Movement, with the notable and – to Continental reformers – inexplicable exception of Sweet were, additionally, well-placed in the academic establishment and able to use their prestige and influence to good practical purpose for teacher training and the further diffusion of reform (Viëtor had become a professor at the University of Marburg early on, in 1884; Passy was awarded a chair in Paris in 1894, at the age of thirty-five; and Jespersen became a professor at the University of Copenhagen in 1893, at the even younger age of thirty-three; Sweet, though, had to wait until his fifty-sixth year before finally being offered a Readership in Phonetics at Oxford, in 1901).

Between the two poles of linguistic scholarship and teaching there were other important publicists for the new ideas – Hermann Klinghardt, Max Walter and W. H. Widgery come to mind immediately, all of them innovative secondary school teachers who managed to find the time to produce thoroughly researched and well-written pamphlets; there were, though, many other teachers whose names are less well-known (Kühn, Dörr, Quiehl, Rossmann, Wendt, Western and Brekke are singled out by Jespersen (1904: 3), for example) but who helped to propagate the new methods via journal articles, pamphlets, meetings of teachers’ associations, and so on. One of the first of these associations, under the leadership of Passy, eventually (in 1897) became known as the International Phonetic Association (IPA), but it had existed under other names (initially, the Phonetic Teachers’ Association) since its foundation in Paris in the early years of the Movement (in 1886). The Association’s journal, *Le maître phonétique* (1889 onwards, originally founded in 1886 under the title *The Phonetic Teacher*), became as well-known as the IPA itself and with its practical (but specialist) content complemented more generalised local journals like the indispensable *Englische Studien* in Germany. Viëtor himself founded a German journal for phonetics, *Phonetische Studien*, in 1888, which he incorporated in 1893 within another new but more specifically teaching-related journal, *Die neueren Sprachen*. Between 1876 and 1893, Breyman (1895) lists no fewer than 550 contributions to what he terms the ‘Reform literature’, and his bibliography (included in Volume V) is a selective one.

Teachers in Germany and Scandinavia were to be particularly active in the Movement and a series of conferences helped to propel the key reform principles (priority of the spoken language; use of phonetic transcription; use of connected texts; inductive teaching of grammar; reduction of translation) into the consciousness of the profession. These principles were debated

heatedly and repeatedly, both at academic philological congresses, for example in Stockholm in 1886 (see Passy 1887b, in Volume II, and Palmgren 1887, in Volume IV) and at conferences of fledgling modern language teacher associations in various countries, for example in Hanover in 1886 (see Rhode 1887, in Volume III) and Cheltenham in 1890 (see Viëtor 1891, in Volume IV). As early as 1886 Viëtor (1882/1886: vi) felt able to describe the groundswell of support for reform as a *Movement* ('Reformbewegung') and by the end of the decade, in Germany and Scandinavia at least, this movement had 'reached that second and more important stage when the teachers began to put the reform into practice and when the editors of school-books began to give it more and more consideration' (Jespersen 1904: 2). This did not mean that the battle for the new ideas had been completely won – there were numerous objections and misunderstandings, which the Movement's leaders struggled hard to counteract. Among the misconceptions they had to combat are those mentioned by Brebner (1898: 17): that they were 'anti-grammar' (instead, she emphasises, grammar *is* taught, but in an inductive way which is more attractive, rational and thorough) and that they were hostile to Composition (as she says, translation into the target language is replaced by a whole variety of production exercises involving creative manipulation of the target language, including 'free composition'). At the Fourth Nordic Philological Congress in 1892, Western and Jespersen had to argue strongly in defence of Reform proposals against the concerted attacks of traditionalists (Anon. 1892).

By the 1890s, though, the original Reform leaders were being backed up in their efforts to counter resistance by enthusiastic teachers who could refer to successful practical experience. Passy's own reports of use of phonetic transcription were crucial in the early stages, although not sufficient to convince all teachers. Following the much-anticipated appearance of Sweet's *Elementarbuch des gesprochenen Englisch* ('Primer of Spoken English') in 1885 (see Volume II), more and more coursebooks were produced with connected – and, often, phonetic – texts which could be used for 'New Method' teaching, as Reform principles were beginning to be labelled in Germany. The conference reports, articles and pamphlets by teachers like Klinghardt and Walter were crucial in this second phase, as was their willingness to open their classrooms to visitors. Thus, Gilbert (1954: 18) has remarked how their experiences, as much as if not more than the writings of the early theorists, positively influenced Widgery and W. Stuart MacGowan in England towards the end of the decade (see Volume IV).

As reform took hold in practice, some of the phoneticians' more cherished principles had to fall by the wayside, or be deferred. The use of phonetic transcription, in particular, remained the biggest sticking-point among the reform-minded teachers, as indicated by Brebner (1898: 24–31) in a survey of practice in Germany in the late 1890s which is included in Volume III. However, with this one major exception, The Reform Movement began to

have a significant impact on official curricular guidelines in the centralised educational systems of Continental Europe. As early as 1891, reform principles were incorporated into regulations drawn up by the Prussian education ministry, within an overall response to the debate on the overburdening crisis. In Scandinavia, Austria and Switzerland, too, national governments recognized the need for reform centred on use of the spoken language, and later, the governments of Belgium and France began to follow suit (see the Chronology below, and the introductions to Volumes III and IV for more detail on these curricular developments). Progressive teachers, linked together in their newly founded associations, were firmly behind these developments, and at an International Congress which brought together members of diverse local associations in 1898 in Vienna, a motion was passed supporting the adoption of reform principles in all elementary teaching of foreign languages (Hawkins 1981: 130). In 1901, the Prussian government finally recognised the usefulness of phonetic symbols in teaching, and in 1901–2 Reform Movement principles were officially recommended in France, under the term ‘Direct Method’, though the use of phonetic symbols and transcription was not supported. Reform was never institutionalised in the same way in the UK, with its decentralised, somewhat chaotic, education system, but the efforts of Sweet, Widgery and MacGowan finally seemed to pay off in the first decade of the twentieth century, as school teachers became increasingly interested in the ‘Direct Method’ which had emerged from the Reform Movement and been recently established in France.

From its conception in the minds of a few phonetically (and internationally) inclined scholars and teachers in the early 1880s, the intellectual and political reach of the Reform Movement had thus spread enormously by the first years of the new century, giving rise in the process to a new professional infrastructure of associations, journals and in-service training opportunities. To establish their dominance in the battle of ideas, the early reform theorists had focused on a shared set of core principles. Inevitably, though, once the intellectual battle began to be won and as reform began to take root in actual practice, the diffusion of ideas was accompanied by some dilution and dissipation of these initial principles. This tendency was clear early on in Germany, where the ‘New Method’ first began to affect classroom practice: apart from the fact that many (otherwise progressively minded) teachers remained reluctant to use phonetic transcription, there were various forms of *compromise* between traditional and new ways of teaching, and a so-called ‘vermittelnde Methode’ (‘mixed’ or ‘compromise’ method) emerged in the late 1890s as the most dominant. The same phenomenon was observable later in other areas of Europe (in France, for example, it was the ‘*méthode mixte*’ which became established most generally in practice, despite the government’s (1901–2) promotion in theory of the more radical ‘*méthode directe*’).

In the eyes of ‘radicals’, no doubt, the original Reform principles may

appear to have been generally diluted in the years preceding the First World War, and Reform was often seen to have failed for this reason, but two alternative interpretations suggest themselves, both of which highlight the continuing influence of the Movement in the first decades of the twentieth century, and indeed down to the present day. Firstly, it can be argued that the establishment of ‘moderate reform’, including ‘vermittelnde Methode’ or ‘méthode mixte’ – as opposed to conservatism and unadulterated grammar-translation – was a clear sign of the Reform Movement’s continuing success, as its influence extended beyond a hard core of progressive teachers into the practice of increasing numbers of more ‘ordinary’ teachers. Secondly, it should be noted that early twentieth-century observers who remarked on a prevalence of compromise were often themselves more ‘radical’ (for example, in hoping to see full implementation of the monolingual principle) than had originally been envisaged by the Reform Movement initiators themselves. The internal standards of evaluation may have become higher, in which case this in itself is a sign of the progress rather than decline of the Movement’s influence. There may also have been confusion in the minds of some outside observers as to the initially intended nature of school-based Reform, with greater priority being placed in their minds on the monolingual principle (as a result of Berlitz publicity and associated confusions surrounding the meaning of the ‘Direct Method’ label, the use of which had become prevalent in France, and thence Britain and the USA in the first decades of the twentieth century).

It is clear, also, that from the start there were significant *enhancements* of the reform approach which were contributed by practitioners themselves, probably the most influential being Klinghardt’s advocacy of *Realien* – that is, the provision of information relating to the contemporary social life of the target culture, not, as is commonly assumed today, the illustrations or ‘real objects’ used to convey this information. As teachers experimented, there was also an inevitable influx of ideas into practice from sources other than the initial Reform theorists (for example, the influence in Germany of Hartmann’s ‘Anschauungsmethode’, Alge’s teaching in Switzerland using ‘object lessons’, and the ideas of Gouin (see Howatt and Smith 2000) were all particularly remarked upon by Brebner in her (1898) report). Inevitably, the Reform Movement had opened up possibilities which had not been predicted by its founding theorists, and as it became a practical experiment as opposed to simply a blueprint for change, teachers themselves developed or brought in new and in some cases influential ideas. This tendency should be defined, though, as an ‘enrichment’ of the Reform’s original intentions, rather than as a ‘dissipation’ of some kind.

Finally, among practitioners, different *emphases* or *tendencies* within the overall Reform approach emerged, giving rise to different ‘method labels’ as the ‘New Method’ became better established (and less and less ‘new’). One early alternative label was ‘phonetic method’ (first used by Passy himself),

but in Germany different teachers began to claim they were following the ‘analytical method’, ‘direct method’ or ‘imitative method’ in the 1890s. Again, this can be interpreted positively (as a symptom of the Movement’s diffusion into practice) as well as negatively (as a sign of dilution or dissipation). Jespersen for one (1904: 2) was to argue for the more positive interpretation, making a virtue of the plethora of labels which came to be applied, and of the fact that they were associated with mutually consistent principles which had been established by a body of progressive scholars and teachers rather than being associated narrowly with particular founding figures (as was the case, for example, with the narrower and more commercial ‘Berlitz Method’). The plethora of labels, he says, is due to the fact that ‘it is not one thing, but many things that we have to reform, and that is of course the reason why the reformers themselves fall into so many sub-parties’ (Jespersen 1904: 3). We should stress again, then, that these method labels represent different emphases or ‘strands’ within the initially conceived ‘reform’ or ‘new’ method (or, as we would prefer to call it, approach). In sum, once the initial intellectual battles had been largely won, there was much debate among teachers over different practical emphases within the overall methodological ‘matrix’ of the Reform Movement, and this was symptomatic of effective diffusion in practice, not dilution of or dissipation away from Reform Movement ideals. Indeed, in Continental Europe at least, the Reform Movement established a paradigm which provided the boundaries for ‘progressive’ methodological debate for years to come. This point is clearly made for the French context by Puren (1988: 121), who identifies, within what he terms ‘direct methodology’, three basic ‘methods’: ‘direct’, ‘oral’ and ‘active’. Viewed as emphases, or principles within reformed teaching, these correspond broadly to some of the tendencies which were identified earlier on in the German practitioner debates described above.

Nevertheless, the pace and extent of diffusion into practice varied according to context, and the initial unity of the Reform Movement was indeed dissipated as reform came to be interpreted differently in different areas of Europe, within different local networks of teachers. Many of the trends within Germany were to be reproduced, with some delay, in other European contexts (for more detail on developments in France, as well as Germany, see our introduction to Volume III; for Britain and Scandinavia, see Volume IV). In France, Reform was not to be fully established officially until 1901–2 (in the form of ‘Direct Method’), and – as Puren’s (1988) work has made clear – the trends towards both compromise with traditional teaching and factionalism within reformed methodology which had been observed in the 1890s in Germany and Scandinavia occurred later in this context. In the UK (and the USA), however, the Reform Movement was always to remain less influential in practice than on the European Continent, and even in theory the Direct Method was often conceived in rather reductionist terms, being associated with the ideas of Gouin and Berlitz rather than those of the Reform theorists

and school teachers. Modern language teaching in both Britain and the USA had to wait until the post-Second World War era for significant inroads to be made by the spoken language.

The ultimate test of new ideas for language teaching in schools is the extent to which they influence courses of study and teacher training, are reflected in textbooks and examinations, and – crucially – are adopted and adapted by sizeable numbers of teachers. From this perspective, it seems clear that in its long-term results the Reform Movement *was* a watershed in the history of language teaching, not only for professionalisation and theory but also for actual classroom practice. Wherever, today, the spoken form of the target language has a significant place in school classrooms, the use of connected texts or dialogues is preferred over isolated sentences, inductive is preferred over deductive teaching of grammar, and/or the teaching of contemporary social life is given a place alongside or instead of literature, present-day practice can be said to derive ultimately from the late nineteenth-century Reform Movement.

Having considered the impact of the Reform Movement on actual practice in some detail, let us end by returning to our points of departure: the original historical and educational context for reform, and the way in which the Reform Movement drew from background linguistic and psychological theory, for the first time, in what might be termed an ‘applied linguistic’ enterprise. One of the most important successes which the Reform Movement did so much to promote and consolidate concerns the gradual extension within national and local curricula of the teaching of modern languages, and the diminishing role of Latin and Greek. By the First World War the value of modern language study was much more widely recognised in most of the European countries, and even in all but the most elite secondary schools in the UK and the USA. The Reform Movement had achieved a modern, scientific, forward-looking, and above all autonomous reputation and status for modern language teaching, largely due to its appeal to the progressive background sciences.

Another of the Movement’s clearest and most long-lasting contributions, then, was the establishment of precisely this new, scientifically influenced ‘paradigm’ for relating theory to practice, which has not yet been superseded, even when the *contents* of language teaching theory have changed. Although the term ‘applied linguistics’ has only been widely used since the years after the Second World War (when American linguists, inspired by the ideas of Leonard Bloomfield, first became involved in language teaching), the establishment of an applied linguistic orientation to the resolution of language teaching problems had come much earlier, with the involvement of phoneticians such as Sweet, Viëtor, Passy and Jespersen and the appeal to contemporary learning theory by Franke.

The apparent divorce of this paradigm from educational issues has recently come under attack (cf. Pennycook 1994), but this divorce may have

been a relatively recent development, or just one tendency within the overall constellation of Reform Movement ideas. It is clear that Viëtor, for example, wished with his suggestions to help solve a general educational problem, that of ‘overburdening’. A renewed study of his work, and of the way the Reform Movement in Germany, in particular, was intimately linked to overall reform of the educational system, may provide one opportunity for reconnecting present-day applied linguistics with educational concerns.

Finally, we should return to one aspect of the Reform Movement which unfortunately did not have a long-lasting influence, that is, its initial internationally oriented, pan-European nature. As reform was established at different paces, and through the medium of different local networks subject to different influences, this international character was gradually superseded, and local or national interpretations of reform took the place of pan-European unity. The First and Second World Wars represent the antithesis of everything the early reformers had hoped to achieve through their own international discussions of and support for the teaching of living languages, for purposes of intercultural communication and understanding. From this perspective, the trans-border collaborations supported by the Council of Europe and the European Union in recent years represent a welcome return to the heritage of the Reform Movement.

To end this summary of the nature and impact of the Reform Movement in modern language teaching, we leave the last word to Jespersen:

... it is not with theoretical sophistries that we have to do; it is not the whim of one man, but the sum of all the best linguistic and pedagogical ideas of our times, which, coming from many different sources, have found each other, and have made a beautiful alliance for the purpose of over-turning the old routine. Modern languages, which were formerly treated like Cinderella in our schools and universities, began to feel of age, and want to have a word to say, because they cannot put up with various arrangements which may have been more or less satisfactory for the classical languages, but do not suit modern languages at all. These want to be treated as living, and the method of teaching them must be as elastic and adaptable as life is restless and variable.

(Jespersen 1904:4)

A chronology of the Reform Movement

- 1882 Wilhem Viëtor’s *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!* (Language Teaching Must Change Direction!) published under the pseudonym ‘Quousque Tandem’.
- 1883 Karl Kühn’s *Zur Methode des französische Unterrichts* (On the Method of Teaching French).

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

- 1884 Felix Franke's *Die praktische Spracherlernung auf Grund der Psychologie und der Physiologie der Sprache dargestellt* (Practical Language Learning. Described on the Basis of the Psychology and Physiology of Language). Jespersen's Danish translation appears in the same year.
Henry Sweet's 'The practical study of language'. Paper delivered to the Philological Society in London, 16 May.
Wilhelm Viëtor becomes Professor of English at University of Marburg.
- 1885 Henry Sweet's *Elementarbuch des gesprochenen Englisch* (Primer of Spoken English).
Philological Congress in Giessen, Germany: Modern Languages Section, chaired by Viëtor, votes in favour of Reform principles.
- 1886 Foundation in Paris of the Phonetic Teachers' Association, 2 January, under leadership of Paul Passy.
Death of Felix Franke.
First issue of *The Phonetic Teacher*, May.
Third Nordic Philological Congress in Stockholm, 10–13 August.
Meeting of Pedagogy Section, chaired by J. A. Lundell, votes in favour of Reform principles.
Foundation of Scandinavian Quousque Tandem Society, under leadership of Otto Jespersen, J. A. Lundell and August Western.
First Conference of German Association of Modern Language Teachers, in Hanover, 4–6 October.
Second edition of *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!*, with Viëtor's authorship acknowledged.
- 1887 Paul Passy's *Les sons du français* (The Sounds of French).
- 1888 W. H. Widgery's *The Teaching of Languages in Schools*.
Hermann Klinghardt's *Ein Jahr Erfahrungen mit der neuen Methode* (One Year's Experience with the New Method).
Max Walter's *Der französische Klassenunterricht* (Class Teaching of French).
Foundation of the journal *Phonetische Studien*, under editorship of Wilhelm Viëtor.
- 1889 Phonetic Teachers' Association changes name to 'L'Association Phonétique des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes'. Foundation of the journal *Le maître phonétique* (replacing *The Phonetic Teacher*), under editorship of Paul Passy.

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- 1890 Conference on the teaching of modern languages, Cheltenham, organised by W. Stuart MacGowan and W. H. Widgery, 11–12 April.
- 1891 Death of W. H. Widgery, August.
Prussian Ministry of Education draws up regulations recommending main Reform principles.
- 1892 Hermann Klinghardt's *Drei weitere Jahre Erfahrungen mit der imitativen Methode* (Three Further Years' Experience with the Imitative Method).
Foundation of Modern Language Association of Great Britain, under leadership of W. Stuart MacGowan, December.
Fourth Nordic Philological Congress in Copenhagen, 18–21 June.
August Western and Otto Jespersen defend Reform principles against attacks of traditionalists.
- 1893 Foundation of the journal *Die neueren Sprachen* (incorporating *Phonetische Studien*), under editorship of Wilhelm Viëtor.
Otto Jespersen becomes Professor of English at University of Copenhagen.
- 1894 Paul Passy becomes Professor of General and Comparative Phonetics at École des Hautes Études, Paris.
- 1895 Belgian government decrees that spoken language should be basis of all elementary language instruction and be taught through natural and intuitive teaching techniques.
- 1897 L'Association Phonétique des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes changes name to 'Association Phonétique Internationale' (API), or (in English) 'International Phonetic Association' (IPA), January.
Belgian ministerial circular recommends Reform principles.
- 1898 International congress of modern language teachers in Vienna accepts principle of increasing oral work.
- 1899 Henry Sweet's *The Practical Study of Languages: A Guide for Teachers and Learners*.
Paul Passy's *De la méthode directe dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes* (On the Direct Method in Modern Language Teaching).
Wilhelm Viëtor gives lectures on 'Die Methodik des neusprachlichen Unterrichts' (Modern Language Teaching Methodology) at the Marburg Summer School, repeated in 1900 and 1901, and published in book form in 1902.
- 1901 Henry Sweet becomes Reader in Phonetics at University of Oxford.

Circular of French Ministry of Public Instruction mentions 'Direct Method', recommends Reform principles.

Prussian Ministry of Education course of study incorporates all the main Reform principles.

Otto Jespersen's *Sprogundervisning*, issued in an English translation as *How to Teach a Foreign Language* in 1904.

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Appendix 1

'How English is taught in Germany'

Source: Klemm, L. R. (1889/1903) *European Schools, or What I Saw in the Schools of Germany, France, Austria, and Switzerland*, republished 1903 in 'International Education Series' ed. W. T. Harris, New York: Appleton, pp. 94–6.

In order to provide an example of how Reform principles were interpreted in practice, we reproduce here an extract (pp. 94–6) from L. R. Klemm's (1889/1903) *European Schools*. This book contains a series of short accounts of lessons that Klemm (an American educationist) observed during a private study tour of the continent in 1888. Most of his tour was spent in Germany (eleven out of fifteen chapters), but it also took in France (two chapters), Austria and Switzerland.

Education in late nineteenth-century Europe, and particularly in Germany, attracted a great deal of international attention, being a central element in the economic expansion and social reform of the period. Interested visitors came in considerable numbers, among them Dr Klemm, who appears to have been a freelance writer with 'numerous school-books' and a work entitled *Chips from a Teacher's Workshop* to his credit (Klemm 1889/1903: title page). The rather informal, even 'chatty' tone of this title is maintained in *European Schools*, but it is also a serious, if rather personal, investigation of 'good classroom practice' from a man with considerable experience himself. It takes the form of a series of sharply etched vignettes of the classrooms he visited and the lessons he witnessed, and provides a valuable counterweight to the generalisations and statistics of more official reports. As W. T. Harris (US Commissioner of Education) puts it in his introduction, the book is designed primarily 'to show teachers and pupils at work' (p. v). The extract comes from the beginning of Chapter 5, which reports on four lessons observed in Crefeld (now Krefeld) in the Rhineland.

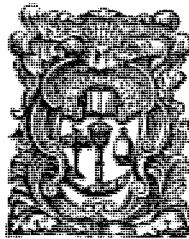
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UNIVERSITY OF GLASGOW

LOCAL EXAMINATIONS

REPORT, LISTS OF SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES
AND EXAMINATION PAPERS FOR 1880,
WITH THE REGULATIONS FOR

1881.



GLASGOW:
JAMES MACLEHOSE, 61 ST. VINCENT STREET,
Publisher to the University.
1880.

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B. 1.—LATIN.

Time—Two Hours.

EXAMINERS—PROFESSOR RAMSAY, LL.D., AND REV. COLIN CAMPBELL, B.D.

1. Translate—

Compluribus *expugnatis* oppidis Cæsar, ubi intellexit frustra tantum *laborem sumi* neque hostium fugam captis oppidis reprimi neque *his noceri* posse, statuit *expectandam* classem. Quæ ubi convenit ac primum ab hostibus visa est, circiter CCXX naves eorum paratissimæ atque omni genere armorum ornatissimæ profectæ ex portu nostris *adversæ* constiterunt; neque satis *Bruto* qui *classi* præerat, vel tribunis militum centurionibusque quibus singulæ naves erant attributæ, constabat quid *agerent* aut quam rationem pugnæ insisterent. Rostro enim noceri non posse cognoverant, turribus autem excitatis tamen has altitudo puppium ex barbaris navibus superabat, ut neque ex *inferiore* loco satis commode tela adjici *possent* et missa ab Gallis *gravius* acciderent.

2. Translate—

Dicendum et quæ sint duris agrestibus arma ;
Queis sine nec potuere *seri* nec surgere messes :
Vomis, et inflexi primum grave robur aratri,
*Tarda*que Eleusinæ matris volventia plaustra,
Tribulaque, traheæque, et iniquo *pondere* rastræ ;
Virgea præterea Celei vilisque *supellex*,
Arbutæ crates et mystica vannus Iacchi :
Omnia quæ multo ante memor provisæ *repones*,
Si *te* digna manet divini gloria ruris.

3. Parse in full the words in italics, and in each instance give the rule for the construction.

4. Give the Perfect Indicative and Present Infinitive of *fateor*, *morior*, *pasco*, *ulciscor*, *veto*.

5. Translate into Latin—

- (a) I have learnt from my friend what you are going to do tomorrow after your brother is gone.
- (b) I fear that our men will not capture the town, because they are few and the walls are higher than their ladders (*scala*).
- (c) The Emperor is drawing up (*instruo*) an army along the Rhine, not to attack (*adgredior*) France, but that (*quo*) he may the better defend Germany.

B. 2.—GREEK.

Time—Two Hours.

EXAMINERS—PROFESSOR JEBB, LL.D., AND MR. MURDOCH.

I. 1. Translate—

“Ἀρταίος δέ, ὃν ἡμεῖς ἠθέλομεν βασιλέα καθιστάναι. καὶ ἐδώκαμεν καὶ ἐλάβομεν πιστὰ μὴ προδώσειν ἀλλήλους, καὶ οὗτος οὔτε τοὺς θεοὺς δεῖσας οὔτε Κύρον τεθνηκότα αἰδεσθεῖς, τιμώμενος μάλιστα ὑπὸ Κύρου ζῶντος νῦν πρὸς τοὺς ἐκείνου ἐχθίστους ἀποστάς ἡμᾶς τοὺς Κύρου φίλους κακῶς ποιεῖν πειρᾶται. Ἄλλὰ τούτους μὲν οἱ θεοὶ ἀποτίσαιτω· ἡμᾶς δὲ δεῖ ταῦτα ὀρώντας μήποτε ἐξαπατηθῆναι ἔτι ὑπὸ τούτων, ἀλλὰ μαχομένους, ὡς ἂν δυνώμεθα, κράτιστα τούτο, ὃ τι ἂν δοκῇ τοῖς θεοῖς, πάσχειν.” Ἐκ τούτου Ξενοφῶν ἀνίσταται, ἐσταλμένος ἐπὶ πόλεμον ὡς ἐδύνατο κάλλιστα, νομίζων, εἴτε νίκην διδοῖεν οἱ θεοὶ, τὸν κάλλιστον κόσμον τῷ νικᾶν πρέπει, εἴτε τελευτᾶν δεοί, ὀρθῶς ἔχειν τῶν καλλίστων ἑαυτὸν ἀξιόσαντα ἐν τούτοις τῆς τελευτῆς τυγχάνειν· τοῦ λόγου δὲ ἤρχετο ὧδε.

2. Parse *τεθνηκότα*, *αἰδεσθεῖς*, *ζῶντος*, *ἐχθίστους*, *ἐδώκαμεν*, and *πάσχειν*, giving the principal parts of the verbs, and the comparison of the adjective.
3. What are the stems of *βασιλέα*, *θεοῖς*, *τελευτῆς*, also of the verbs *ἐσταλμένος*, *ποιεῖν*, *ἴστημι*, and *δίδωμι*? Decline the participle *τεθνηκώς* in the three genders.
4. In what respect is the comparison of *καλός* irregular? Mention what is understood with *τελευτᾶν*, and what is the construction with *τυγχάνειν* when followed by another verb.

II. Construct the following sentences :—

- (a) Orestes wished to avenge his father.
Ἵρέστης ἐθέλω τιμῶρέω πατῆρ.
- (b) Winter was giving place to fruitful summer.
χειμῶν ἐγχωρέω εὐκαρπος θέρος.
- (c) They blame despotism and Periander's advice to Thrasylbulus.
ψέγω ἡ τυραννῖς καὶ ὁ Περικλᾶνδρος Θρασύβουλος συμβουλίαι.
- (d) They hung up these spoils in honour of the gods.
θεοῖς (dat.) λάφυρον οὗτος πασσαλεύω.

B. 3.—FRENCH.

Time—Two hours.

EXAMINERS—M. MONNIER, B.TH., AND PROFESSOR YOUNG, M.D.

1. Translate into English—

A peine ai-je achevé, que chacun renouvelle,
Par un noble serment, le vœu d'être fidèle :
L'occasion leur plait, mais chacun veut pour soi
L'honneur du premier coup, que j'ai choisi pour moi.

La raison règle enfin l'ardeur qui les emporte ;
 Maxime et la moitié s'assurent de la porte ;
 L'autre moitié me suit, et doit l'environner,
 Prête au moindre signal que je voudrai donner.
 Voilà, belle Emilie, à quel point nous en sommes.
 Demain j'attends la haine ou la faveur des hommes,
 Le nom de parricide ou de libérateur,
 César celui de prince ou d'un usurpateur.
 Du succès qu'on obtient contre la tyrannie
 Dépend ou notre gloire ou notre ignominie :
 Et le peuple, inégal à l'endroit des tyrans,
 S'il les déteste morts, les adore vivants.
 Pour moi, soit que le ciel me soit dur ou propice,
 Qu'il m'élire à la gloire ou me livre au supplice,
 Que Rome se déclare ou pour ou contre nous
 Mourant pour vous servir, tout me semblera doux.

2. L'un me brûle mon rôt, en lisant quelque histoire,
 L'autre rêve à des vers, quand je demande à boire ;
 Enfin je vois par eux votre exemple suivi,
 Et j'ai des serviteurs, et ne suis point servi.
 Une pauvre servante au moins m'était restée
 Qui de ce mauvais air n'était point infestée,
 Et voilà qu'on la chasse avec un grand fracas,
 A cause qu'elle manque à parler Vaugelas !
 Je vous le dis, ma soeur, tout ce train-là me blesse ;
 Car c'est, comme j'ai dit, à vous que je m'adresse.
 Je n'aime point céans tous ces gens à latin,
 Et principalement ce Monsieur Trissotin :
 C'est lui qui dans des vers vous a tympanisées
 Tous les propos qu'il tient sont des billevesées,
 On cherche ce qu'il dit après qu'il a parlé
 Et je lui crois pour moi le timbre un peu fêlé.
3. (a) Les noms de personnes (propres) prennent-ils la marque du pluriel ?
 Dans quels cas ?
- (b) Donnez le pluriel des substantifs suivants :—*carbonaro*, *lazzarone*, *alleluia*, *ave*, *credo*, *fac-simile*, *post-scriptum*.
- (c) Deux sujets unis par *ni*, *ou*, veulent-ils le verbe au pluriel ?
 Qu'elle est l'exception ?
4. Translate into French—

A merchant had invited his friends in town to his country-house by the sea-side, in order to entertain them with a rare kind of sea-fish, called lamprey. Several dishes were put on the table, and at last there came a large dish covered over, which was supposed to contain the lampreys. But when the cover was removed it was found to contain some gold coins, instead of the expected fish. The merchant, observing the astonishment

of his guests, said, "My dear friends, the kind of fish I promised to entertain you with is this year three times as dear as I thought it was—they are a gold piece each. I remembered that in this village a poor labourer was lying ill, and that his family was starving. The poor people might live for six months upon what one dish would cost. Now, gentlemen, if you wish to have the sea-fish I will send for them without delay and get them dressed directly; but if you would rather let the poor man have the money, I will entertain you with river-fish equally well-tasted, and less expensive." All the guests approved of the proposal. Every one of them added a gold coin, and the poor man was relieved for a whole twelvemonth.

B. 4.—GERMAN.

Time—Two Hours.

EXAMINER—PROFESSOR DITTMAR.

1. Translate into English—

Machen Sie mich so schlimm wie Sie wollen; ich will darum nicht schlimmer von mir denken als von meinem Hunde. Vorigen Winter ging ich in der Dämmerung an dem Kanale und hörte etwas winseln. Ich stieg herab und griff nach der Stimme, und glaubte ein Kind zu retten; und zog einen Pudel aus dem Wasser. Auch gut, dachte ich. Der Pudel kam mir nach, aber ich bin kein Liebhaber von Pudeln. Ich jagte ihn fort, umsonst; ich prügelte ihn von mir, umsonst. Ich liess ihn des Nacht nicht in meine Kammer; er blieb vor der Thüre auf der Schwelle. Wo er mir zu nahe kam, stiess ich ihn mit dem Fusse; er schrie, sah mich an und wedelte mit dem Schwanze. Noch hat er keinen Bissen Brod aus meiner Hand bekommen; und doch bin ich der Einzige, dem er hört und der ihn anrühren darf. Er springt vor mir her und macht mir seine Kunst unbedenkenlich vor. Er ist ein hässlicher Pudel aber ein gar zu guter Hund. Wenn er es länger treibt, so höre ich endlich auf, dem Pudel gram zu sein.

2. Translate into German—

A poor man had a parrot. This parrot had been taught to say the words, "There is no doubt about it." These words were all it could learn; to every question it always gave the same reply, "There is no doubt about it." One day its master went to the market to sell it. "Who will buy my parrot? I'll give it for twenty pounds." A man, turning to the parrot, said, "Polly, art thou worth twenty pounds?" "No doubt about it," was the reply; and the man, delighted with the

answer, bought the bird. Very soon, however, he repented his bargain, and, standing beside the cage one day, said, "What a fool I was to throw so much money away!" "No doubt about it," said the parrot, and was right for once.

3 Correct the following sentences :—

Das Tau befeuchtet das Erde. Der Krankerleitet Schmerzen. Die Glocke leuted um die Läute zum Kirchen zu rufen. Der Führer leihtet. Der Jude leidete Geld an der armen Frau. Die Hunde häulen; das Wunde heiled. Der Hirt sizte bei seines Hert und kochte seines Essen während seine Härde draussen weitete. Ich waitete mir von der anblick der Landschaft. Auch von die Bäumer welche am schönsten bluten, zuletzt die Blüten abfallen. Ich ging über den See zu dem Amerika. Die Loch Katrine ist eine malerische See. Einen reissenden Fürsten empfangen das Jugend an die Kränze mit Grenzen und Lieder.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Appendix 2

***University of Glasgow Junior Certificate Local Examination
papers for Latin, Greek, French, and German (1880: 37–41)***

Source: University of Glasgow (1880) *Local Examinations: Report, lists of successful candidates and examination papers for 1880 with the regulations for 1881*, Glasgow: Maclehose pp. 37–41.

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INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION SERIES

EUROPEAN SCHOOLS

OR WHAT I SAW IN
THE SCHOOLS OF GERMANY, FRANCE
AUSTRIA, AND SWITZERLAND

BY

L. R. KLEMM, PH. D.

AUTHOR OF "CHIPS FROM A TEACHER'S WORKSHOP"
AND NUMEROUS SCHOOL-BOOKS

NEW YORK
D. APPLETON AND COMPANY
1903

CHAPTER V.

CREFELD (RHENISH PRUSSIA).

1. HOW ENGLISH IS TAUGHT IN GERMANY.

FOR more than one reason I had studiously avoided teachers of languages; but, in a city where I was well acquainted with the principal of the gymnasium, I inquired about the present status of the method of teaching modern languages, and struck a rich field. I was ushered into a class-room where the boys of "Tertia" were taught English. The Tertia represents the eighth school year or the fourth in the high-school. The teacher had been a tutor in England, and spoke English very fluently. His method did not resemble the ancient Ollendorffian method, nor had it much in common with Sauveur's method. He proved once again that the truth is not found in extremes, but in the middle. It was a decidedly instructive and fruitful lesson. Let me give a meager outline of it:

A pupil told in English the historical anecdote of the Spartan mother who had two sons in the war. When a