ALF. BRAHDE

THE CONVERSATION READER

TEXT - CONVERSATIONS - DISCUSSIONS

WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO

ENGLISH INSTITUTIONS, LIFE, AND WAYS

MATERIAL FOR COMPOSITION

SIXTH EDITION

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CONTENTS.

PAGE

Contents ..... V—VII
Prefaces ..... IX—XVI
Chapter I. TIME 1
„ II. HOLIDAYS 3
„ III. MEALS: Breakfast — Lunch — Afternoon Tea —.... 6
Dinner — Laying the Cloth — Bill of Fare —... 9
Supper — Etiquette — A Dinner-Party 11
„ IV. SMOKING 16
„ V. THE POST OFFICE — 17
Writing a Letter — The Telegraph Service — ... 18
Sending a Wire — The Telephone 20
„ VI. TOILET: Dressing (1) Men's Clothes 22
(2) Women's Clothes — Undressing — 24
At the Tailor's 26
„ VII. THE WEATHER — Pressure — Temperature — Rain — Wind 28
„ VIII. THE HOUSE: An English House —..... 32
Rent. Leases. Flats. Rooms to Let — 34
The Ideal House — Moving — 35
My Own Room — Furniture 37
„ IX. THE THEATRE 41
„ X. EDUCATION: Education in England — School 44
„ XI. DO YOU SPEAK ENGLISH? 48
„ XII. TRAVELLING AND TRANSPORT 49
I. Means of Communication:
(1) Land Transit: Town Traffic — Railways — Cycling — 54
(2) Water Transit: By Canal — River — Sea —. 56
Submarine Navigation — 57
(3) Air Transit 58

		PAGE
	II. Motives for Travelling —	59
	Summer Holidays — Excursions	60
Chapter XIII.	ILLNESS — Medical Treatment	62
	Vaccination — Children's Diseases — Headache — Toothache —	64
	On Catching Cold	65
„	XIV. WHAT ARE YOU LIKE?	67
„	XV. THE BRITISH ISLES — Area — Population —	68
	Tour round Great Britain — Climate —	68
	Vegetation — Live Stock — Fisheries —	69
	Minerals and Metals — Manufactures —	70
	Commerce — Towns —	72
	Britain's Natural Advantages and Disadvantages	73
	History — Race	74
„	XVI. GEOGRAPHY	76
„	XVII. SOCIETY — Royalty — Peerage	78
	Baronets and Knights — Gentry	79
„	XVIII. HEALTH — I. Food — II. Air: Ventilation	80
	Respiration — III. Clothing — IV. Cleanliness —	82
	V. Exercise: Sports. Games. Athletics —	84
	VI. Rest: Sleep	86
„	XIX. INDOOR GAMES — Cards	88
„	XX. THE PRESS	90
	Publication of Books	93
„	XXI. MUSIC	94
„	XXII. RELIGION: The Church of England	95
	Nonconformity	97
„	XXIII. DRINK: Alcohol — Intemperance — The Temperance Movement	99
„	XXIV. THE ARMY AND NAVY: Military Systems —	101
	The Navy — The Army	101
„	XXV. ART	105
„	XXVI. CALLINGS	106
	(1) Professions: The Church — The Law — Medicine — Teaching — Architects — Engineering —	108
	The Army and Navy — The Civil Service	109
	(2) Art — — The Choice of a Career	110

		PAGE
Chapter XXVII.	TRADES	112
	(1) Business: Wholesale and Retail — Partnership — Joint-Stock Companies — Applications — Two Conversations —	113
	(2) Manufactures — Labour and Capital —	116
	Conciliation and Arbitration	117
„	XXVIII. THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT	118
„	XXIX. TRUSTS	119
„	XXX. NATIONAL AND MUNICIPAL SERVICES	120
„	XXXI. THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION	120
	I. Central Government:	
	(1) The Crown	121
	(2) Parliament: House of Lords — House of Commons	121
	(3) Ministers and Government Departments	123
	— Political Parties	124
	(4) The Judiciary: Courts — Judges —	126
	Juries — Criminal Procedure	128
	II. Local Government:	130
	The Local Government Board	131
	Counties — Districts — Parishes — Municipal Boroughs — Cities — London	
„	XXXII. THE BRITISH EMPIRE	132
	The Colonies — India — Egypt	133
Appendix I.	(PARLIAMENT:) The Franchise — The Ballot	135
	Bills — Procedure of the House of Commons	136
	Dissolution — Prorogation — Adjournment	137
„ „	(THE JUDICIARY:) The Bench and the Bar —	137
	Civil Law and Criminal Law	138
Appendix II.	DISCUSSIONS:	
	(1) On Corporal Punishment	139
	(2) On Vegetarianism	140
	(3) On Total Abstinence	141
	(4) On Conscription	142
Abbreviations		144

PREFACE TO THE SIXTH EDITION.

So many things have altered of late years that a revision of this book has become imperative. In most cases, however, the alterations needed only affect details, leaving the original ground-work and general plan of the book intact.

If the author may venture to add a few practical "Suggestions as to Use" to those already offered in his Preface to the First Edition, he would advise —:

A. *Setting quite short lessons*, to begin with — say, half a page or so. Such a lesson should be prepared, first as a *reading lesson:* idiomatic translation, correct pronunciation, and full assimilation of the technical vocabulary should be the aim. Here too will be the opportunity for the teacher to point out the various possibilities of answers to each question which he will expect the pupils to give when, next time, the lesson is to be treated as a *speaking lesson* (in addition to another half-page as a reading lesson).

B. Seeing that the full utilization of the various *series of questions* presents real difficulties to the pupils, self-conscious and tongue-tied as they naturally feel in the presence of a foreign language, a fuller treatment of this important point may not be considered superfluous.

In the case of distinctly backward pupils the teacher may —

at first — be contented with "echo-answers", that is, answers made up of the elements of the questions. Mere "Yes" or "No" should never be accepted.

In order to overcome the mental inertia and awkwardness of pupils a number of *introductory formulas to answers* should gradually be practised, and the various *possibilities of answers* to each question be indicated by the teacher. Some typical cases will make our meaning clear.

I. Questions concerning Habitual Occurrences — *e.g.*

Q. When do you get up in the morning? (p. 3) — A. It depends! On weekdays I generally get up at..., as I have to be at my work (at school) at ... sharp, but on Sundays and other holidays I like to stay in bed till...

OBS. *Rules* — indicated by: generally; as a rule; on an average, &c. — *suggest exceptions* — indicated by: it depends; occasionally; now and then; it may happen, &c.

II. Questions of Knowledge or Ignorance — *e.g.*

Q. When does the sun rise? (p. 3) — A (1). I'm sure I couldn't tell you. I must confess I have forgotten to look it up in the paper || A (2). I'm glad to be able to tell you that the sun rises at... I looked it up in the paper yesterday, as you told me to. I always do as I am told, you know.

OBS. Such a question naturally splits up into three: (1) Do you know the fact? — (2) If so: How do you know? — (3) If not: Why don't you know? — To take another question of the same category:

Q. Is it windy to-day? — A. I must say I didn't notice the wind on my way here this morning (evening), so I suppose it can't have been very high, or I should have noticed it. On the other hand, I don't think the weather can be quite calm, as in this country it is always more or less windy.

OBS. The special case of "Rules suggesting Exceptions"

may now become generalized as: *Opposites* — here: windy, calm — *suggest each other.*

III. Questions which call for answers involving Pleasure or Regret — *e.g.*

Q. Do you possess a watch? (p. 1) — A (1). I'm very glad to say that I do. I have had it now for (two?) years. My (father?) gave it me when I was confirmed || A (2). I'm very sorry to say that I have no watch, but I hope to get one before long, as my (uncle?) has promised me one at my confirmation, which is to take place next spring — (or:) on my next birthday, which is on (May 3rd?).

OBS. 1. Expression of Pleasure or the Opposite — 2. Time: When I got it — How long I have had it (or:) When I expect to get one — 3. Occasion — 4. Giver.

Q. Are you a good sailor? (p. 58) — A (1). Unfortunately I am a very bad one. Whenever the sea is the least bit rough, I feel awfully sick and have to lie down. So you can't wonder that I never go by sea if I can possibly go by land || A (2). I'm thankful to say that I'm a very good sailor. I've more than once been out in pretty rough weather and have never so far felt the least bit sea-sick. Last summer I crossed (the North Sea?) in a storm and was all right, while most of the other passengers were more or less sick, so that they couldn't stay on deck.

OBS. Whenever assertions are made — e.g. I am (not) a good sailor — the grounds for such should always be demanded: How do you know? — Illustrations taken from the actual experiences of the pupils will be warmly welcomed by the skilful teacher.

IV. *Possibilities*, as indicated in the text preceding the question, *should be exhausted — e.g.*

Q. On what floor is your room, or would you like it to be? (p. 37) — A (1). My room is on the ground-floor, but

I should prefer it to be on the 3rd floor, or even the 4th, as I don't mind stairs. The ground-floor, you see, is always cold in winter, and often damp. Besides, the noise and dust from the street may be most annoying || A (2). My room is on the 2nd floor, which I must say I prefer to the other floors, both the ground-floor, which is... (see above), and also the 3rd and 4th floors, for although I don't mind stairs particularly, still I would rather not have to go up too many of them || A (3). My room is on the top floor, and I only wish it were on the ground-floor, for even if the ground-floor may be cold and damp, and noisy and dusty, I do mind stairs more than anything else.

Q. Have you a good appetite, or are you a small eater? (p. 11). — A (1). I'm sure I can't complain of my appetite. It is excellent. But my (sister?) is a very small eater. She eats next to nothing. I often wonder that she can keep alive on so little food || A (2). I must admit that I'm a very small eater. My mother is always complaining that I eat next to nothing, and people wonder that I can subsist on so little food. But why should I eat more than I need? My (brother?), on the other hand, has an excellent appetite.

OBS. Both possibilities given in the double question should be taken into account: what does not apply to oneself may be true of somebody else (e. g. a relation, friend, acquaintance), and should be dragged in — even by the hairs.

V. *Generalities should be particularized* as to person, time, place. Thus, take "Causes" of "Catching Cold" (p. 65) —:

(1) The other night my sister went to a dance. She danced all night, and got into a violent state of perspiration, and thoughtless as girls will be, she sat down at an open window and drank something cold. The consequence was of course that next day she had an awful cold. (2) Yesterday my father had to run some distance to catch a tram-car and got into a violent state of perspiration. There was no room inside, so he had to stand outside in a bad draught, and now poor father has got such a cold. (3) While I was on my way to school last Monday it began to rain. I had very thin shoes on and got wet feet. At school I had no opportunity of changing my shoes and stockings (socks), so that is how I got my last cold. (4) When the whole class round about you are sneezing and blowing their noses, it is really next to impossible to avoid catching cold. I only wonder you haven't got one yourself.

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

Aim. The aim of this book is threefold: first and foremost, to serve as a basis for practice in speaking; secondly, to furnish material for exercises in composition; thirdly, to supply information about English institutions, life, and ways.

Principles. The book has been worked out on the following lines:

In the selection and detailed treatment of the subjects, as well as in the choice of vocabulary, a sharp distinction has been drawn between essentials and non-essentials, to the exclusion of the latter. Thus, in the chapters on Meals, Clothes, etc., those who make a point of completeness will undoubtedly miss numerous details — deliberately left out of this book on the principle that excess defeats its own end.

In the presentation of the matter it has been the author's constant endeavour to strike the line of least resistance by

giving the facts in their actual sequences, wherever any constancy in the succession of phenomena is generally accepted (see Dressing, Undressing, Laying the Cloth, Going to the Theatre, Sleep, etc.).

Finally, it has been one of the author's chief aims throughout the book to give the pupils the widest possible scope for self-activity through the numerous series of questions relating to their actual experiences, tastes, and aspirations. Young people, if given the chance, are no less eager than their elders to speak about their own concerns, and this eagerness, properly directed and assisted, should be utilized to the utmost.

Contents and Suggestions as to Use. The subject-matter falls into three groups:

I. *Text*, intended to impart information to the pupils on subjects of a general character, e. g. Health; or of a specifically English character, e. g. The British Isles. This "Text" should be thoroughly mastered by the pupils, so as to be more or less closely reproduced from memory by them, the teacher merely to prompt the pupils by now and then putting some leading question. (*Reproductive Activity*).

II. *Conversations*, intended to extract information from the pupils about their own private doings and habits, their individual tastes and aspirations. These conversations are based on various series of questions, to which the pupils should be led to produce as full answers as possible in complete sentences. (*Productive Activity*). The technical vocabulary to be used in the answers will as a rule be found in the questions themselves, in accompanying notes, or in the preceding text. Where these fail, the dictionary must be referred to.

The Conversations should be carried through the three following stages:

1. The teacher puts the questions and helps the pupils to

form answers in complete sentences. — Here will be found great scope for tact and skill on the part of the teacher in suggesting variations and extensions.

2. The teacher puts the questions, to which the pupils give answers prepared at home.

3. Some of the pupils put the questions, while others give the answers. This third stage may, if preferred, be reserved for a future recapitulation of the lessons.

Note. In this connection the author would point out that the same questions may with advantage be put to pupils at a less as well as at a more advanced stage, whether in the same class or in different classes. The younger or the backward pupils will keep more or less closely to the wording of the questions in their answers, while the elder or the more proficient pupils may attempt a bolder flight.

Before or after the third stage referred to above, *Composition* should be introduced. It should be particularly noted that the questions making up each series have, as far as possible, been placed in a definite, progressive order, one question leading up to the next, so as to enable the pupils to link their answers together to one whole and thus produce a continuous — oral or written — composition.

Finally, it is recommended to make some of the pupils repeat, by heart or by help of a few notes, their — corrected — compositions before the class, while the rest of the class, if sufficiently advanced, may be called upon to criticize: this to form a first attempt on the part of the pupils at lecturing and debating respectively.

Throughout the book, in "Text" as well as in "Conversations", care has been taken to point out traits peculiar to English institutions, life, and ways.

III. A few outlines of *Discussions* have been inserted by way of experiment. One of the pupils should be selected to take the affirmative of the case, and another the negative, as suggested by the Pros and Cons given in the text. These Pros and Cons are merely to be looked upon as suggestions to be broadened and supplemented by the pupils themselves. The rest of the class should be invited to take sides for or against.

In the case of less advanced pupils a bare statement of the Pros and Cons may suffice, one half of the class to take the arguments for, and the other half those against.

I. TIME.

1. Do you possess a watch? When did you get it? [At your confirmation?] Who gave it you?

Watches are made of gold, silver, nickel, and gun-metal. Some people wear their watches on a chain ("a gold watch and chain"); others carry theirs loose in their (watch-)pockets.

2. What is your watch made of? Do you wear it on a chain?

3. Is it a modern keyless watch, or an old-fashioned one which has to be wound up with a key?

4. At what time of the day do you generally wind it up?

Londoners often set their watches by the huge clock in the Clock Tower of the Houses of Parliament; within this clock is hung a large bell, known as Big Ben, which can be heard far and wide striking the hours, the half-hours, and the quarters of an hour. Others set their watches by some neighbouring church clock, etc.

5. What do you set your watch by?

Many watches (and clocks) are not at all reliable, but

need constant regulating: they gain, and have to be put back, or they lose, and must be put on.

6. Is your watch right (wrong, fast, slow)? Does it as a rule keep good time?

Suppose I don't possess a watch; or that I have none with me at the present moment, because (1) I have forgotten it at home; or (2) perhaps sent it to the watchmaker's to have it seen to: cleaned, regulated, or repaired, as the spring is broken; or (3) I may unfortunately have had to pawn it (at the pawnbroker's) during a temporary embarrassment* — or suppose that I have my watch on me, but that it has suddenly stopped, or that it does go, but is wrong, so that I dare not rely upon it, *then* I may ask you to tell me the time:

7. Please, what is the (right) time by your watch? *or* What time is it? *or* What o'clock is it? *or* (playfully) How goes the enemy?

How to tell the Time. Half and less than half you express by so much 'past' the preceding hour; more than half by so much 'to' the following hour.

e. g. It is half past twelve, 25 minutes past twelve, a quarter past twelve, 5 minutes past twelve | it is 25 minutes to one, a quarter to one, 5 minutes to one.

8. May I set my watch by yours?

The letters 'a. m.' and 'p. m.' in time-tables, &c. stand for Latin 'ante meridiem' (before noon or midday) and 'post meridiem' (after noon); e.g. Please be at the station at half past nine sharp. The train leaves at $9^{35\,a.m.}$ (*read:* nine thirty-five a.m.).

* Accidents will happen in the best regulated families, you know.

Miscellaneous Questions:

When does the sun rise at this time of the year?

About what time does it set?

When is it lighting-up time for cycles?

When do you get up in the morning? — At what time do you go to bed? — When do you dine?

[It depends! On weekdays I generally..., but on holidays I...]

As to punctuality: Do you insist upon punctuality in others? Are you punctual yourself?

I do hope you always keep good hours, that is, are at home and in bed in good time. Some people keep shockingly bad hours, not getting home until past midnight, in the small hours of the morning.

II. HOLIDAYS.

Saturday is a half-holiday for business people, most offices closing at about two in the afternoon. In many schools Saturday is a whole holiday; some, however, have two half-holidays, Wednesday and Saturday.

Sunday is very strictly kept in England: most places of entertainment, such as theatres, music-halls, and picture palaces, are closed all day, restaurants and public-houses ("pubs") most of the day; trains, buses, and tram-cars go less frequently; a few special Sunday papers appear, but none of the dailies. Dressed in their Sunday best, people go to church (or to chapel), often twice, services being held at eleven and at six. The English Sunday is a very quiet day indeed — a day of rest and worship.

Compare the English Sunday with ours.

There are three great church festivals: *Christmas*, *Easter*, and *Whitsuntide*.

On *Christmas Eve* the houses (and churches) are decorated with holly, ivy, and mistletoe. The old Christmas custom which allows a young man to kiss a girl he meets 'under the mistletoe' is now mostly observed in kitchens and servants' halls.

Before going to bed the children hang up their stockings at the foot of their beds, expecting that Santa Claus, the patron saint of children, will fill them with toys and sweets, ready for Xmas Morning, when, too, the grown-up members of the family exchange presents.

On *Xmas Day* the traditional Christmas dinner is served, consisting among other things of roast turkey (goose, beef), mince-pies, and plum-pudding. The Christmas pudding is much richer than the ordinary plum-pudding and not particularly good for the digestion. The Christmas tree, which, by the way, is not nearly so common in England as on the Continent (i.e. the rest of Europe), is lighted in the evening.

The 26th of December is known as *Boxing-day*. On that day Christmas-boxes — generally tips from sixpence upwards — are given to the postman, the milkman, the baker's boy, &c. Originally, Boxing-day was not kept as a holiday, but is now one of the four bank holidays, so called because on those days the banks are closed by Act of Parliament. The example of the banks has been followed by other institutions, offices, and shops.

On *New Year's Eve* people stay (or sit) up to hear the church-bells ring out the Old Year and ring in the New. *New Year's Day* is a bank holiday in Scotland, but not in England.

»A merry Christmas and a happy New Year.« — »Thank you, the same to you.«

Christmas cards (and New Year's cards) are sent out with some such Xmas greeting as: *Wishing you a Merry Christmas and a Happy* (or *Prosperous*) *New Year*, or *With the compliments of the (present festive) season* ... (business style).

The Christmas festivities come to an end on *Twelfth Night*, the 6th of January.

Shrove Tuesday or *Pancake Day*, formerly a day for shriving (or confessing sins), is now a day for eating pancakes. It comes just before *Lent*.

All Fools' Day is the 1st of April. Take care that the children do not make an April fool of you!

Shortly before *Easter* comes the confirmation of children by the bishop. *Good Friday* — not observed in Scotland — commemorates the crucifixion of Christ, *Easter Sunday* his resurrection, when 'He rose from the dead'. *Easter Monday* is a bank holiday.

Forty days after Easter comes *Ascension Day*, not kept as a holiday, and ten days later *Whitsunday*. *Whit-Monday* is a bank holiday, as is the first Monday in August.

The 9th of November is *Lord Mayor's Day*, on which day the Lord Mayor's Show takes place in honour of the newly elected Lord Mayor of the City of London.

1. Name the four bank holidays.
2. What holidays do you get at Christmas, Easter, Whitsuntide? — [A fortnight's holiday?]

3. What Midsummer Holidays do they give you?
4. Do you ever get a half-holiday or a (whole) day off?

YOUR BIRTHDAY.

1. When is (it) your birthday? When were you born? How old are you? Have you completed your (-th) year?
2. Do you keep birthdays in your family (by giving birthday presents, having a party, &c.)? Had you a party on your last birthday, or did you spend the day quietly ("in the bosom of your family")?
3. Did you receive many birthday cards, and had you many callers?
4. Did you get many presents? Name them. Did you wish for anything in particular, and did you get it?

Note. The usual form for a birthday congratulation is "Many happy returns of the day". Letters of congratulation often end with some such formula as: *With best wishes (for a happy birthday),*

I remain,

Yours sincerely, (affectionately, &c.,)
(Name.)

III. MEALS.

I. **Breakfast.** The first meal in the day is breakfast, so-called because then you "break" your "fast".

The maid sounds the gong for breakfast. Breakfast is ready.

The usual English breakfast consists of bacon and eggs, ham and eggs, or fried fish. Many take (oatmeal) porridge for breakfast. Besides, you will find bread and butter, toast, (orange) marmalade, and tea — less commonly coffee or cocoa — on a well-provided breakfast table.

Let me help you to some fish. [Thank you, no more *or* Just a little more, please.]

Help yourself, Mr —. — Please pass me the bread. May I also trouble you for the butter? [Oh, I am so sorry — *or* I beg your pardon.]

I am afraid you have made a poor breakfast. — [Thank you, I have done excellently (very well). I am quite satisfied.]

II. **Lunch** (or luncheon) is taken at one or two o'clock. Some prefer a hot lunch, others a cold lunch, consisting of some cold meat (beef, mutton, lamb, pork), left over from yesterday's dinner, or some sandwiches, made of two thin slices of bread and butter with some meat (ham, beef), or cheese between. With this meal water or beer is generally taken.

Compare your second meal with an English lunch.

III. **Afternoon Tea*** (between four and five o'clock). Ladies usually have a fixed "At Home" day, when they "receive" (visitors), and this is *the* time for making calls (or paying visits).

When the mistress of the house rings for tea, the maid carries the tea-things into the drawing-room. The tea-things are: tea-pot, cups and saucers, sugar-basin, and cream-jug, carried in on a (tea-)tray. A kettle of hot water is placed

* 'Meat tea' or 'high tea' is a late tea at which some meat dish or other substantial food (eggs, sardines, &c.) is served. 'Plain tea' is a restaurant term for tea and some sort of bread, e. g. buttered toast, (a) roll and butter, a bun.

on a spirit-stand. Besides, there is the cos(e)y to put over the pot to keep the tea hot.

On another table are arranged various kinds of cakes, sandwiches, bread and butter, toast, raspberry (strawberry) jam. The mistress makes the tea — "one teaspoonful of tea for each person and one for the pot" — and pours it out.

Do you like your tea strong or weak? Do you take cream (milk)? How many lumps (of sugar do you take)?

Won't you take another cup of tea? [Just half a cup, please.]

When tea is over the mistress rings, and the servant clears away.

*Mr. and Mrs. Norton.**
*The Misses Norton.**

Mrs. Harry Wright
at Home

*Saturday, 20th June, 19..**

*Tennis and Garden Games**
*4 to 7 P. M.**

319 Park Lane, W. *R. S. V. P.***

* to by written by the hostess.
** R. S. V. P. = Répondez s'il vous plaît, i. e. Please reply.

An "At Home" becomes a regular "Reception" when special invitations — generally on printed cards (see p. 8) — are sent out, which demand a reply. Some sort of entertainment is usually provided, such as music, dancing, and the like. Given a pretty garden, a garden-party is one of the most charming and popular methods of entertaining one's friends in summer; besides, such a function can be managed on a large scale at comparatively slight expense.

IV. **Dinner** is the principal meal of the day. The working classes dine about twelve o'clock, middle-class people frequently between six and seven, and fashionable people about eight o'clock, the usual time for dinner-parties. Very commonly the members of the family appear in evening-dress ("they dress for dinner"), whether guests are expected or not.

Laying the Cloth for Dinner. The mistress expects guests for dinner and instructs the house-maid to lay dinner for fourteen.

An hour or two before dinner the maid comes into the dining room, takes a clean (table-)cloth out of the sideboard drawer, and spreads it over the table.

She lays a table-spoon, a dessert-spoon, and a knife and fork (or several knives and forks) for each person; also a napkin (or serviette).

Next she puts a tumbler (for water) in front of each cover, and if the family take wine, some wine-glasses.

Having distributed the meat-plates and piled the soup-plates on the sideboard, she arranges the salt-cellars and cruet-stands (with oil and vinegar in bottles, mustard in

a pot, pepper in a box) at proper distances, fills the water-bottles (and wine-decanters), puts fresh flowers on the table, and sounds the first gong for dinner.

At the second gong all go in — down or up — to dinner, according to the position of the dining-room: frequently, the dining-room is on the ground-floor, and the drawing-room, where the guests assemble, on the first floor.

Immediately after the dessert the hostess signs to the lady taken in by the host: all rise, and the ladies with-'draw' to the 'drawing'-room. The gentlemen sit down again to an extra bottle of wine and to smoke a cigar(ette) before they join the ladies and have coffee with them in the drawing-room.

Note. There is no shaking hands after dinner, nor are thanks given to host or hostess for the meal.

In many families grace is said before and after the meal: For what we are going to receive [*after the meal:* For what we have received] may the Lord make us truly thankful, for Jesus Christ's sake. Amen.

BILL OF FARE.

Soups: oxtail (clear, thick), mock-turtle, oyster soup, pea-soup; chicken broth.

Fish: cod, haddock, herring, plaice, sole; salmon, trout.

Meat:* (a joint of) roast beef (well done or underdone), beefsteak, roast lamb (with mint sauce), mutton-chops (and potatoes), veal cutlets, pork sausages.

* Meat is generally served up with gravy (i.e. the juice of the meat) and not with made-up sauces, as with us. A witty foreigner is reported to have said that 'the English have a hundred religions and only one sauce'.

Vegetables
or

Greens: green peas, beans, turnips, carrots, cabbage — simply boiled in water.

Salads: lettuce, cress, radishes: either dressed with oil, vinegar, cream, etc., or eaten raw with salt. — [lobster-salad].

Poultry: chicken, roast goose (duck, turkey).

Game: venison, hare; partridge, pheasant, grouse.

Sweets: tarts (i.e. pastry with fruit or jam); pies, e.g. apple-pies, cherry-pies [*also* meat-pies]; plum-pudding, omelettes, pancakes.

Cheese.

Dessert: fruit, e.g. pine-apple, grapes, bananas, peaches, figs.

Wines: claret, hock, sherry, port(-wine), champagne.

Coffee with brandy or liqueurs and cigar(ette)s.

Questions.

1. Do you have dinner (or dine) at the same time on Sundays as on weekdays?
2. How many courses do you have for dinner?
3. What do you drink (or take) with your food?
4. Have you a good appetite? or Are you a small eater?
5. What is your favourite dish?
6. Is there any special food which disagrees with you?
7. Are (or have) you a sweet tooth? (i.e. Are you fond of sweet things?)

I do hope you are not dainty.

Proverb: Hunger is the best sauce.

V. **Supper.** Early diners take supper in the evening.

People who dine late on weekdays have early dinner on Sundays, between one and two o'clock (after Church); lunch is then left out, and supper taken between eight and nine in the evening (after Evening Service).

Supper is rather like lunch. In middle-class households it usually consists of cold meat with salad, tomatoes, etc., and a sweet, e. g. stewed fruit and custard, jellies. Beer and mineral waters are generally on the supper-table.

Etiquette. The invitations to a large dinner-party are sent out three weeks or more beforehand. For a smaller or more informal dinner from five to ten days is considered sufficient.

Mr. and Mrs. Stanley Hughes

request the pleasure of

*Mr. James Smith's**

Company at Dinner on

*Thursday, 22nd March, at 8 P.M.**

210 Eaton Square, S. W. *R.S.V.P.*

Invitation Accepted. Mr. Jas. Smith has great pleasure in accepting Mr. and Mrs. Stanley Hughes' kind invitation to dinner on Thursday, March 22nd.

* to be filled in by the hostess.

Invitation Refused. Mr. Jas. Smith presents his compliments to Mr. and Mrs. Stanley Hughes and regrets that a previous engagement prevents him from accepting their kind invitation to dinner on the 22nd inst. —

Be careful to answer a dinner invitation promptly. It should be a point of honour with every one that a dinner engagement once made should on no account be broken. Death or an infectious disease, it is said, are the only valid excuses for failing one's host and hostess.

Unpunctuality is extremely "bad form", and indeed an unpardonable sin in the eyes of the hostess. A quarter of an hour's grace is usually allowed, and all the guests should have arrived within that time.

On arriving leave your hat and coat in the hall. When ready, follow the servant to the drawing-room, where (s)he will throw open the door and announce your name. Shake hands with host and hostess, and exchange a few remarks with them.

The host will presently introduce you to the lady whom you are privileged to take in to dinner. On being introduced do not shake hands; simply bow and begin to talk to her*.

The duty of all guests is to be as pleasant, chatty, and bright as possible, to endeavour to enjoy themselves, and to make others enjoy themselves. Never sit silent for any length of time or look bored; though you may not really be amused, at least appear to be so. — When you say good-bye to the mistress of the house, don't forget

* When a lady meets a gentleman acquaintance, it is her privilege to be the first to bow — unless she wishes to 'cut' him; the gentleman returns her greeting by raising his hat. Gentlemen as a rule, touch their hats or simply nod on meeting.

to add some such phrase as: I have had such a pleasant evening *or* I have enjoyed myself so much.

Calls. Whether an invitation has been accepted or not, it is your duty to call on the hostess before the party comes off. After a dinner-party (or a dance) the call should be paid within a week or so. Leave two cards, one for the hostess and one for her husband, on the hall-table, as you go out. Never send up your card first unless calling on business.

In addition to these *courtesy* calls and *business* calls we make calls of *congratulation* for the purpose of congratulating an acquaintance on some pleasant event (his or her birthday, engagement, marriage, etc.), and calls of *condolence*, when we desire to condole, or express our sympathy, with a friend in a loss (s)he has suffered.

Although calls are properly made between three and six in the afternoon, they are known as 'morning calls' because of their being made before dinner, which in earlier times was taken about noon. — Ceremonial visits should never be paid on Sundays. Dress to be worn by gentlemen: frock-coat, top hat, dark-grey trousers, and gloves to match. Hat, stick, and gloves may be taken into the drawing-room, while overcoat, umbrella, and the like should be left in the hall. Full dress (or evening dress) should never be worn in the daytime.

A Dinner-Party. The other day I received an invitation to dinner, and as I was not otherwise engaged, I accepted it with thanks.

An hour before the time fixed for the dinner I began to get ready for the party. I washed myself, combed and brushed my hair very carefully, and got my evening

dress out of the wardrobe. As I looked it over before putting it on, I was rather annoyed to find several stains on the black trousers; moreover, there were some buttons loose or missing on the white waistcoat, and — worst of all — the dress-coat, which I had not been wearing for some time past, did not fit me at all. I had outgrown it. What was to be done? There was no time to be lost. I set about removing the stains as well as I could, got my sister to sew on the buttons, and finally managed to get into the coat, although at the imminent risk of bursting it at the back. The sleeves too proved ridiculously short, but there the cuffs would help to save appearances.

Not in the best of tempers I hurried off, and found all the guests arrived and only waiting for me. I apologized to the hostess for my late arrival and was introduced to the lady whom I was to take in (to dinner).

My partner proved to be a very charming young lady, with whom it was not at all difficult to keep a conversation going; we happened to know the same people; had been to the same plays; were both interested in literature and art; were equally fond of music, although neither of us played any instrument; did not care to discuss politics; detested card-playing; disagreed as to football being a proper game for ladies — in short, we got on capitally, and I soon forgot all my troubles — too soon, alas! or I should have been more careful in stooping down to pick up her napkin, which she kept dropping. There was a sharp, tearing sound. My coat had burst.

Give a description of the last dinner-party you were at (or went to), with full particulars as to —

1. Invitation — *[The invitation ran as follows....]*
2. Your answer.
3. Preparations as to dress, etc.
4. Introductions.
5. Table-talk (i.e. subjects you discussed at table).
6. Menu.
7. How did you enjoy the evening (or the party)?
8. Are you often invited out, and are you fond of going into society? or Do dances, evening-parties, dining-out, etc. bore you? — Do you (or your parents) see much company at home?

IV. SMOKING.

Do you smoke (cigars, cigarettes, a pipe)?

I. *Smokers. [Questions to be put by non-smokers].*

1. When did you begin to smoke regularly?
2. Do you smoke strong (mild) cigars? cheap (dear) tobacco? How much a month do you spend on tobacco?
3. Are you a great (a confirmed) smoker?
4. Has smoking become a habit with you? Could you leave off smoking at any moment, or have you become a slave to tobacco? — [I'm afraid I must admit....]
5. Have you ever had nicotine poisoning?
6. Are you of opinion that juvenile smoking should be prohibited by law? [Still, 'Forbidden fruit is sweet', they say]. At what age would you fix the limit? — What do you think of ladies smoking?
7. Is there a high duty on tobacco? Ought the duty to be raised, or to be lowered, or even to be quite abolished?

II. *Non-Smokers.* State reasons for being a non-smoker.

1. Doesn't smoking agree with you? or Don't you enjoy smoking? or Do you object to smoking on principle.
2. Do you regard smoking as a too expensive luxury? [But isn't a moderate use permissible? or Do you condemn all sorts of luxuries?]
3. Do you object to smoking as being injurious to health? [Then, what is your attitude towards other stimulants, such as beer, tea, coffee?]

Miscellaneous. To fill one's pipe. — To fill one's cigar-case from the cigar-box. — Have a cigar (a smoke)! — Would you oblige me with a light (a match)? — To light a cigar. — The cigar went out. — No Smoking Allowed. — Smoking-compartment (in a train), marked 'Smoking'. — Smoking-room. — A tobacconist.

V. THE POST OFFICE.

The Post Office is a government monopoly, that is to say, the government has reserved for itself the sole right of carrying letters. As one of the government departments the P. O. is under a minister of the Crown, the Postmaster-General. Its headquarters are at the General Post Office (G. P. O.), London.

Not only letters, single (and reply) post cards, picture post cards, newspapers and books (under wrapper), but also money orders, patterns and samples, are forwarded by post. Besides, parcels may be sent by Parcel Post, maximum weight allowed being 11 lbs. (= pounds).

Important letters may be registered at the P. O. against an extra fee (or payment).

In London there are up to eleven collections and deliveries daily. The postman, who delivers the letters, etc., gives a double knock before slipping them into the letter-box.

Questions.

1. Do you like writing letters? Do you carry on a large correspondence?
2. Are most of your letters private letters or business letters?

[To write on business].

3. On what occasions do we write letters of condolence? congratulation? invitation? thanks? apology? recommendation and introduction? inquiry?

When do we send in applications?

Note. To condole or sympathize with a person in (a loss he has suffered).

To congratulate a person on (having passed an examination, on his marriage).

To apologize, or make an apology, to a person for (rudeness, want of punctuality).

To recommend and introduce one person to another.

To inquire about a person's health, plans, etc.

To apply to a person for (advice, a vacant situation), e. g. Apply for further particulars to Mr. So-and-so, at 12 High Holborn, London, W. C.

WRITING A LETTER.

[Scene: A study, or library, or an office; ~~a writing-desk~~ and seat, or an office-stool; book-cases along the walls; on the desk: stationery, (such as pen and ink, (lead-)pencils, paper and envelopes), books of reference at hand; a waste-paper basket, etc.].

When I want to write a letter, I sit down at my writing-table (or -desk), take a sheet of note-paper, select a new pen, open the inkstand, dip my pen in the ink — or perhaps I use a fountain-pen — and begin (to write) my letter.

When I get to the bottom of the page, I blot the page on the blotting-paper before turning it over.

Having finished the letter, I read it through, correct any errors (or "slips of the pen"), and perhaps add a P. S. (i. e. a postscript). — In case of urgent (or pressing) business I request my correspondent to reply by return (of post or mail).

Then I fold the letter, slip it into an envelope, which I close and sometimes seal (with sealing-wax and a seal).

If not sure of the address, I look it up in the (Post Office) Directory*.

Having addressed (or directed) the letter, I stamp it and post it, either at the Post Office itself or in one of the red pillar-boxes (placed on the pavement).

For a short message I may only send a post card, or when travelling, a picture post card. — Many people collect picture post cards. Perhaps you are a collector yourself?

P. T. O.

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* Letters and parcels may be addressed to the Poste Restante at any head office in the U. K., there 'to be left till called for' by the addressee — e. g.

James Brown, Esq.
G. P. O. London.

[State reasons why you had to write a letter the other day and how you set about it, on the plan given above. The present tense to be changed into the past tense throughout].

THE TELEGRAPH SERVICE.

At first in the hands of private companies, the Telegraph Service is now a government monopoly, managed by the Post Office.

Inland telegrams (or "wires") may be sent to all parts of the U. K. at the rate of 1s. for the first twelve words, and one halfpenny for every additional word; stamps in payment to be affixed to the form by the sender.

Submarine Cables are telegraph wires laid under the sea. A submarine telegram is often called a 'cablegram', or simply a 'cable', and the corresponding verb 'to cable'.

Wireless Telegraphy. The Marconi system is the one adopted in Britain. Transatlantic messages are sent and received, and wireless telegraph apparatus are installed onboard warships and passenger steamers.

SENDING A WIRE.

When a message is urgent, I send a telegram (or "I wire").

I hasten to the nearest telegraph office, hurry up to the desk, and tear off a telegram form.

First, I write the address to which the telegram (or wire) has to be sent; next, the message itself, in as few words as possible. [Why so?]

Finally, I sign my name, sometimes adding my address.

At the counter I hand the telegram to the telegraph clerk, who reads it through, counts the words, and tells me what I have got to pay, giving me stamps to affix to the telegram *(English fashion).*

I pay the fee and leave the office, my part of the business being done.

The message is then transmitted by wire.

At the farther end the receiving clerk writes out the message on a form, folds and seals it — or puts it into an envelope *(English fashion)* — and gives it to a telegraph boy, who gets on his cycle and delivers it at its destination.

An extra fee is charged for delivery at a distance.

Telegrams can be sent "Reply paid", if desired.

Usual hours (of office) 9 a. m. to 7 p. m.

[Describe why and how you sent a telegram the other day].

THE TELEPHONE.

The telephone lines, which were formerly in private hands, have now all been taken over by the P. O. — Experiments in *wireless Telephony* have been going on for some years past.

How to Telephone. When I want to telephone to somebody, and there is no telephone at hand, I may go to one of the call-offices.

I ring up the exchange (or central office), and give the number I wish to be connected with.

As soon as I am in connection (or "get through"), I say, "Hallo, (is) that you, Mr. —? I am Mr. —".

When the conversation, which may last three minutes, is finished, I wish good-bye, hang up the receiver, [and ring off].

How much does it cost to subscribe to the telephone?
Have you one at home?
Is it a wall (or a table) instrument?
You are wanted on the 'phone'. — May I use your telephone? — You ought to be on the telephone.

Besides the carrying of letters, parcels, etc., the working of the telegraphs and the telephones, the P. O. manages a great number of savings banks, known as the P. O. Savings Banks, at which deposits can be made from 1 s. up to £ 50 a year, the total interest-bearing amount not to exceed £ 200. Interest is at 2½ per cent.

Finally, life insurances, from £ 5 to £ 100, may be effected, and annuities, up to £ 100, purchased through the P. O., which, by the way, also distributes Old Age Pensions.

VI. TOILET.

DRESSING.

(1) *Men's Clothes.*

I. As soon as I am called in the morning, I throw off the bed-clothes (blankets and sheet) and jump out of bed, take off my night-shirt and (flannel or woollen) vest, and take my morning bath (or 'tub'). —

Note. Englishmen would never think of sleeping in their vests, but only in night-shirts, or in pyjamas, i. e. a flannel or silk sleeping suit of loose trousers and jacket.

Having dried myself thoroughly with a rough towel,

I rub myself all over (the body) with my hands until I feel quite warm and comfortable.

This takes me about ten minutes.

II. I then put on my clothes, beginning with the vest and the (day-)shirt (white or coloured).

As to pants (or drawers): Many people wear pants all the year round, while others wear them only in winter; I for one don't use pants at all.

Next, I draw on my socks — I don't wear stockings any longer — and thrust my feet into a pair of slippers [so called, because they are easily 'slipped' on and off].

Having put on my trousers* and fastened my braces, I wash my face and hands with soap and a sponge, brush my teeth with the tooth-brush, and brush and comb my hair.

If I intend going out, I change my slippers for a pair of boots (or shoes), which I lace (up).

The next thing is to select a clean collar and — unless I have a dress-shirt on — a (false) front; also a pair of cuffs, and a tie, which I tie in front of the looking-glass — a rather delicate operation.

Finally, it only remains for me to put on my waistcoat and jacket.

Having made sure that my watch, purse, knife, bunch of keys, match-box, cigar(ette)-case, and (pocket-)handkerchief are in their respective pockets, I give a final glance at myself in the looking-glass to see that everything is right, go into the dining-room, and have my breakfast. — [How long does it take you to dress?] —

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* Knickers — short for knickerbockers — are worn, mostly by boys, but also by grown-ups when cycling and the like.

III. Glancing at my watch I see that it is high time for me to be off to my work (school, office, etc.).

I go into the hall and take my cap or (silk, felt, straw) hat down from the rack.

In case it is cold, I put on my (over-)coat, which I may button up or leave unbuttoned (or open).

Should it be raining, I turn up the collar of my mackintosh and thrust my hands into the pockets. Sometimes, I put on a pair of gloves.

I seldom use a stick or an umbrella, and galoches only when the streets are very muddy.

/ Into. p. 26

(2) *Women's Clothes.*

I. As soon as I am called in the morning, I take my morning bath. From the bath-room I go into the dressing-room in order to dress.

Having put on my underwear I change my slippers for a pair of boots or shoes, which I button or lace (up).

Next, I wash my face and hands, brush my teeth, and slip on my dressing-jacket in order to do my hair. — I no longer wear my hair down my back (loose, plaited or in plaits), but put it up by means of hairpins and a (tortoise-shell) comb, wearing it either low (on the nape of my neck) or high (on the top of my head), according to fashion. When I go to a party I have my hair dressed more elaborately by a hairdresser.

Finally, it only remains for me to put on my dress.

For *morning wear* I use a blouse and a plain skirt without any trimming. With a blouse I generally wear collar and cuffs, a tie, and a belt. If I have any housework to do, I put on a pinafore or an apron. —

For *afternoon wear* I change into a smart walking costume. — For *evening wear* and dances I use an evening gown or a ball-dress, i. e. a dress with a low bodice (or a low-necked dress), which I have had made at a fashionable dressmaker's.

Having put on my watch and chain and the rest of my jewellery (brooch, bracelets, rings), and taken a clean (pocket-)handkerchief, I give a final glance at myself in the looking-glass to see that my hair is tidy and everything right, whereupon I go into the dining-room and have my breakfast. — [How long does it take you to dress?]

II. Glancing at my watch I see that it is high time for me to be off to my work (school, office, &c.).

If the weather looks fine, I take my new hat and veil, which I have just got from the milliner's, out of the band-box and put them on. My hat is trimmed with feathers (lace, ribbons, artificial flowers). It is most stylish and suits me so well, I am told.

Next, I put on my jacket. — On very cold days I wear my warm coat and fur stole, and thrust my hands into a muff.

When it is very warm, I may just throw a light scarf over my shoulders. If the sun is shining so brightly that it dazzles my eyes or might spoil my complexion, I take a sunshade (or parasol).

Should it be raining, I prefer to wear my old hat, which hangs on the hall-stand [i. e. a combination of pegs, looking-glass, table, and umbrella-stand]. Besides, I put on my mackintosh and galoches, and take my umbrella.

Of course, I never go into the street without putting on a pair of gloves (kid, dog-skin, thread, &c.).

UNDRESSING.

As a rule, I go to bed at... (o'clock). Having wished my [parents] 'Good-night', 'Sleep well', I go to my bedroom and begin to take off my things. Some of these I hang in the wardrobe, others I place on my night-table or on my dressing-table, others again I fold neatly and place on a chair beside my bed — —

[Now, please mention the various articles of dress as you take them off at night, in due order and with the proper verbs. Note that the following verbs correspond to one another in the matter of dressing and undressing: to put on — take off | button up — unbutton (e. g. waistcoat) | tie — untie | fasten — unfasten | lace — unlace].

I first take off my....and hang it [on a peg on the wall]; next I.....

1. Do you wash yourself and brush your teeth before going to bed?
2. How long does it take you to undress?
3. Do you wind up your watch at night or in the morning?
4. Are you in the habit of reading in bed? Do you think this a good habit?

Don't forget to put out the lamp before you lie down to sleep.

Good-night.

AT THE TAILOR'S.

If you want your clothes to fit well, you must have them made to order (or to measure) at a first-class tailor's. Many buy their clothes ready-made, and poor people, who cannot afford to be fastidious (or particular), buy their clothes second-hand (or second-hand clothes).

Proverb. You must cut you coat according to your cloth.

When your clothes are getting worn and rather shabby, you may first send them to a repairing tailor to have them seen to and repaired: he cleans and presses them, sews on loose or missing buttons, and perhaps turns the coat.

If they are quite worn out and past repair, you resolve to order a new suit of clothes at a better tailor's. Before taking that step, you must have made up your mind, first as to their *use*, whether they are to serve as a morning suit for everyday wear, or as a dress suit (or evening-dress) for going into society.

Secondly, is the *stuff* (or material) to be light or heavy — for summer or winter wear? — It is a matter of course that it must be of good quality so as to wear well.

Thirdly, is the *colour* to be light or dark? Is it to be a plain or fancy (striped, checked) material? — In any case, take care to select a fast colour that will not fade in the sun.

The *cut* will have to be in the latest style (or fashion), as — without being a swell — you want to be in the fashion and object to wearing clothes out of fashion, not to say, old-fashioned clothes.

Last but not least, the *price* must be moderate (or reasonable).

When you have selected the stuff and settled the necessary details as to price, cut, lining, number of pockets, etc., the tailor takes your measure and inquires if it will be convenient for you to try on the clothes on a certain day, in order that he may see whether any alterations

will have to be made, more particularly with regard to the jacket (or the coat): he may have to let it out where it is too tight, or take it in where too loose, until it fits you perfectly.

Remember that clothes may fit to perfection, and yet not suit the wearer, if they are in bad taste.

Suppose you are dissatisfied with your tailor — Give reasons for dissatisfaction (as to wear, colour, cut, price) — You would like to try another tailor — Ask one of the others who is his tailor — whether he can recommend you a tailor who has a good assortment of materials, a fashionable cut, and moderate prices — how much he paid for the suit he is wearing — how long such a suit generally lasts him — whether his tailor gives credit — Would it be possible to get your things on the instalment system, or would you have to pay cash down, and if so, what discount would be given?

VII. THE WEATHER.

Whether the weather be cold, or whether the weather be hot,
You'll have to weather the weather, whether you like it or not.

The weather has at all times been one of the most common topics of conversation; nor is this to be wondered at when we consider its paramount importance, not only to those engaged in outdoor occupations, but also to the general health and comfort of the world at large. Besides, it cannot be denied that for the purpose of opening a conversation the weather constitutes an eminently natural, familiar, and safe subject. English people seem to be especially fond of discussing the past, present,

and future state of the weather, which may, to some extent at least, be accounted for by its particularly changeable character in the British Isles. "Weather permitting" is a reservation which comes natural to Englishmen when making appointments.

What is the weather like to-day? What sort of weather (day) are we going to have, do you think? — Rather fine day (morning, evening), isn't it? — Do you think this weather will last (or keep)? — There is a change in the weather. — The barometer is falling. — I am afraid we shall have rain (snow). — What a nasty (beastly) climate this is, etc., etc.

Pressure (of the air). The barometer, or (weather-)glass, is an instrument for measuring the pressure of the atmosphere. A gradual rise of the barometer indicates fine, settled weather, while a rapid rise is not to be trusted. A rapid fall of the barometer is a fairly sure sign of bad weather coming on, and an unsteady barometer indicates unsettled (or changeable) weather.

1. What does the barometer stand at? [stormy, rain, change, fair, very dry?]
2. Is it high (low—rising, falling—steady, unsteady)?

Temperature. The thermometer is an instrument for determining (or measuring) the temperature of the atmosphere. On the Centigrade (or Celsius) thermometer — used by scientific men all over the world and in general use on the Continent — the distance between the freezing point and the boiling point is divided into a hundred degrees (100°); on the Réaumur thermometer — not in extensive use — the scale is divided into 80°; on the Fahrenheit thermometer — in general use through-

out the Anglo-Saxon world — the distance is divided into 180°, the freezing point being fixed at 32° and the boiling point at 212°.

To convert a given number of degrees Fahrenheit into Centigrade (Réaumur): deduct 32, multiply by 5 (4), and divide by 9.

To convert degrees Centigrade (Réaumur) into Fahrenheit: multiply by 9, divide by 5 (4), and add 32.

Convert 77° F. into Centigrade. — Convert 10° C. into Fahrenheit.

Note. How hot it is to-day! — The heat is suffocating. — It is 80 degrees in the sun (the shade). — I am perspiring all over. —

How bitterly cold it is to-day! — The cold is intense. — It is 10° below freezing point. — The thermometer stands at zero. — My teeth are chattering with (the) cold.

1. What is the temperature in here? [Look at the thermometer.]
2. At what temperature do you work best?
3. Have we mild (or severe) winters in this country? Have we violent snowstorms? Does it often freeze hard, so that lakes and rivers are frozen over, and the ports ice-bound?

Rain. In the British Isles the rainfall is rather heavy, more particularly in the west. The sky is not very often bright and cloudless but generally dull, overcast, or even threatening. Sometimes, when the wind has settled in the rainy quarter, the rain will continue pouring down for days; it would seem as if it would never cease (or stop) raining. Light mists and dense fogs are frequent

in autumn and winter, while in summer thunderstorms, at times accompanied by hail, are by no means rare.

1. Does it rain much in this country? Is there any special rainy season?
2. Was last summer particularly dry or rainy?
3. Are there any clouds in the sky to-day?
4. Does it look like rain? Do you think we shall have rain? Perhaps it is raining already? If so, do you think it will keep on raining all day? Is it clearing up?
5. Are the streets dry (clean or dusty)? Are they wet (dirty, muddy)?
6. Are you afraid of thunderstorms? Have you ever been out in a heavy thunderstorm and got wet through (or to the skin)?

April showers bring forth May flowers. — After rain comes sunshine.

Wind. When there is no wind, the weather is said to be calm or quiet. As a rule, it is more or less windy: there may be only a gentle breeze stirring, or it may be blowing half a gale, a violent storm, or a perfect hurricane.

The wind may be in the north, south, east, west, or northerly, southerly, south-easterly, westerly, etc. At times it will be blowing steadily for days from the same quarter, while at other times the wind will be constantly changing from one point of the sky to another.

In the British Isles the prevailing winds are westerly and south-westerly; these are mild and rainy winds. The north and east winds are cool and dry.

1. Is it windy to-day, or is it calm? Is the wind as high to-day as it was yesterday? Has it risen, or has it fallen (gone down)?

2. What is the wind to-day?
3. What are the prevailing winds here?
4. Which winds bring rain? Which cold?

The Meteorological Office issues storm warnings and weather forecasts.

5. What is the forecast?

e. g. Variable winds, finally north-easterly; changeable and showery; foggy in places; temperature falling.

VIII. THE HOUSE.

I. AN ENGLISH HOUSE.

Entrances. Some seven or eight stone steps lead up to the front-door. If you have no latch-key, you knock at the door with the brass (or iron) knocker, or you ring the bell. (Visitors are often requested to do both). The door is opened by a house-maid in a neat white cap and apron, and you step into the hall, where you leave your things, that is, hang your hat and coat on the hall-stand (see p. 25) and put your umbrella in the umbrella-stand.

The front-door is the entrance reserved for the members of the family and for visitors. The servants and trades-people enter by the area-door. The area is a sunken space in front of the house, frequently separated by railings from the pavement. It gives light to the basement and contains a flight of steps leading to the area-door.

In the *basement(-story)* you may be allowed a peep into the kitchen, where 'cook' reigns supreme. An English kitchen is very often quite a cosy room with linoleum on the floor and a hearth-rug in front of the fire, pictures on the walls, and some comfortable chairs.

But for the vast (cooking-)range, the dresser, and the cooking utensils (e. g. kettles, pots and pans, saucepans) it might be almost taken for a living-room. The dirty work is done in the adjoining scullery, or back-kitchen. Besides these, the basement contains a pantry and some cellars (coal-cellar, wine-cellar).

On the *ground-floor* are to be found the hall, usually the dining-room, which is thus near the kitchen, and often a sitting-room (or parlour).

First Floor. You go up the carpeted staircase to the 'drawing'-room, to which the ladies with-'draw' after dinner, and where visitors are received. On the landing between the 1st and the 2nd floor there is often a back-room, used as a smoking-room or a study, or fixed up as a bath-room and lavatory (W. C.) combined.

On the *second floor* the nursery and the bed-rooms (with or without dressing-rooms attached) are to be found. It is customary to have one or two spare bedrooms (for visitors).

On the *top floor* the attics (or garrets) are frequently occupied by the servants. In houses in the country there may be a loft under the roof.

English rooms have often but one door each, opening into the hall or some passage (or corridor), and do not directly communicate with each other. By this arrangement much wall-space is saved.

Behind the house there may be a small back-yard or a garden. Often too, there is a front-garden, from which a (garden-)gate leads into the street.

Motto: An Englishman's house is his castle.

II. RENT. LEASES. FLATS. ROOMS TO LET.

Rent. It is the ambition of every Englishman to live in a house of his own, if not as his own landlord, at any rate as the only tenant. The landlord (owner, proprietor) lets his house to the tenant, and the tenant rents (takes, hires), it from the landlord, to whom he pays rent on quarter-day or quarterly (monthly, fortnightly, weekly). In England the rent is usually due at the end of the term; on the Continent it is often paid in advance. Tenants who are behindhand with their rent are said to be in arrears, e. g. He was three months in arrears with his rent *or* His rent was three months in arrears (or overdue).

Leases. Houses are not infrequently taken on a twenty-one years' lease, and building-sites on 'long leases' of 99 years. At the expiration of such a long lease the whole property (building as well as ground) falls to the landlord. Thus, whole districts of London are the freehold property of private individuals, (such as the Duke of Westminster), who have let it on lease, as leasehold property, to thousands of tenants for certain terms of years.

Flats. In Scotland, as on the Continent, the flat-system prevails, according to which several families occupy the same house. Of late years, this system has also found its way into English towns, more particularly London.

Rooms to Let. Single persons, who cannot afford or do not want to be householders, i. e. occupiers of the whole of a house or a flat, live in lodgings (rooms, apartments) as lodgers. Rooms may be taken furnished

or unfurnished. In boarding-house, Board (i. e. food) and Residence, or Lodging, (attendance, light, and fire included) are provided for shorter or longer periods. The inmates of such an establishment are the boarders* and the landlord (or landlady), who is not necessarily the owner of the house. (Compare the landlord of an inn or a hotel).

Conversation.

1. Is it usual with us to take a whole house, or do most of us live in flats?
2. Do you (or your parents) pay rent half-yearly? in advance or at the end of the term? Have you ever been in arrears with your rent and had to ask for a delay (of payment)?
3. What notice are you required to give in case of leaving?
4. Do you pay a high (moderate, low) rent?

III. THE IDEAL HOUSE. MOVING.

It is human nature to desire the maximum of comfort with the minimum of expense. We should all of us like to have a spacious place, in good repair, with all modern conveniences, such as bath-room, W. C., electric light in all the rooms as well as automatic light on the staircase, water and gas laid on, a lift, a bicycle-shed in the court-yard, good offices, comprising kitchen, pantry, cellars (stables and coach-house; garage); besides, cheerful living-rooms,

* Certain 'genteel' boarding-houses affect not to take in boarders or lodgers, but only 'paying guests' — a very good example indeed of what is termed 'a distinction without a difference'.

dry and light, with windows facing south or south-west, and no opposite neighbours; finally, a fashionable, central situation in a healthy and quiet neighbourhood — and all this at a moderate rent.

Moving is in itself such a troublesome, expensive, and risky affair that most people will think twice before taking such a step. However, necessity has no law.

Reasons for Moving. (1) Should your landlord for some reason or other give you notice to quit, you will have to look out for another place.

(2) Suppose the landlord threatens to raise the rent, you may be unwilling or unable to pay the additional rent.

(3) The place itself may not suit you any longer: the family may have increased, and you are cramped for want of room;

or some of the children have left home, perhaps to marry and start housekeeping on their own account, and the place has become too big for you;

or it may be a gloomy, old-fashioned place, in bad repair, with no modern conveniences;

or an unhealthy place, cold and draughty, damp and dark, in a dirty and noisy neighbourhood;

or an out-of-the-way place, far from your work and your friends.

In short, you may think that you will get better value for your money elsewhere.

Conversation.

1. What is your address? [I live at — (number, street, town, postal district)].
2. Do you live at home or in lodgings?

3. When did you move to your present place? How long have you been living there?
4. What were your (parents') reasons for moving from your old place?
5. Are you satisfied with your new rooms (or room)? — Contrast advantages with disadvantages.
6. Mention the number of rooms at your parents' (front-rooms and back-rooms) and their respective uses.

IV. MY OWN ROOM.*

Give a description of your own room, as it is, or as you would like it to be.

1. Have you got your own room, or are you soon going to have a room of your own?

Story or Floor. Some prefer the ground-floor because of the few stairs they have to ascend, whereas others, who don't mind stairs, object to this floor as being always cold in winter and often damp. Besides, the noise and dust from the street may be most annoying.

2. On what floor is your room, or would you like it to be?

Front or Back. View. Front-rooms are generally much more in demand than back-rooms, and consequently more expensive. The view of a number af back-yards may indeed be rather dull and depressing, more particularly to a person much given to gazing out of the window, but is it much better to have a row of ugly houses over the way, as is generally the case in towns, and your opposite neighbours interested in all your comings and goings?

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* As a preliminary exercise the pupils might describe their classroom.

3. Is yours a front-room or a back-room? What do your windows look on to?

Aspect. The windows of my room face due east. This has no doubt its drawbacks, as in consequence I get little or no sun, except early in the morning, and in winter it is next to impossible to get the room warm when the wind is in the east. In summer, on the other hand, it is always cool and pleasant.

4. Is your room a sunny one? Does it face (the) south?

Shape. Dimensions. My room is oblong, that is, somewhat longer than broad, and rather lofty (or high). Its dimensions are: sixteen ft. (long) by twelve ft. (wide) by ten ft. two in(ches) high (*often written thus:* 16′ × 12′ × 10′ 2″).

5. What is the shape of your room? Triangular, rectangular, square, oblong, oval, circular (or round)?

6. Would you call yours a good-sized room, or is it a small room, narrow and low-ceiled? Give its dimensions.

MY OWN ROOM *(Continued).*

Floor. English houses are nearly always carpeted all over, stairs as well as rooms, and no doubt a rich Persian (Smyrna, Turkey, Brussels) carpet in soft colours will contribute much towards making a room comfortable and cosy. Many people object to carpets owing to the lot of dust they accumulate and prefer their floors bare or covered with linoleum. A vacuum-cleaner, however, may dispose of that objection.

1. Do you prefer a bare floor to a carpeted one?

Ceiling. Walls. Most ceilings are whitewashed.

2. Have you a hanging lamp or a chandelier (suspended from the ceiling)?

3. Are your walls painted or papered? Are they hung with pictures, or are they bare?

Windows. Doors. Windows are either casement or sash windows. A casement (window) is made to turn on hinges; a French window is a large casement, often reaching down to the floor and opening on to a balcony, a verandah, or a garden. Sash windows are peculiar to English houses: the panes are set in two sashes, or frames, which move vertically, one sliding in front of the other; the upper sash may be pulled down, and the lower sash raised.

If you have heavy dark curtains which can be drawn before the windows, you have no need for blinds.

4. What kind of windows have you? Describe your curtains.

5. How many doors open out of your room? Where do they open into? Are there any folding-doors?

Heating. Most private houses here are heated by means of iron (or porcelain) stoves. A good stove will draw and heat well and never smoke. Public buildings are frequently heated throughout by hot air or hot water.

A striking feature of an English room is the open fireplace. The grate is that part of the fireplace which holds the fuel, while the chimney serves to carry off the smoke. The fender in front of the fire prevents falling embers and ashes from rolling on to the carpet, which latter is further protected by a hearth-rug. The fireplace is surmounted by the mantel-piece (or -shelf), on which are often placed a clock, vases, and various kinds of knick-knacks (i. e. small objects more for ornament than use).

6. How is your room heated?

Lighting. Rooms are artificially lighted by means of candles, (oil-)lamps, gas, and electricity. If you are going to have electric light installed in your room, you should see that one of the switches is placed just inside the door, so that you may switch on the light as soon as you enter, and switch it off as you leave the room.

7. How is your room lighted?

V. FURNITURE.

The kinds of wood mostly used for furniture are deal, oak, beech, mahogany, aud walnut; besides, there are numerous sorts of fancy woods, e. g. ebony. Furniture is bought at a furniture-dealer's and moved in a pantechnicon or furniture-van.

[At foot is given a list of the principal articles of household furniture. Some of the pupils should be set the task of describing the furniture of their own room, or as they would like a room of their own to be furnished, while others may describe the other rooms of a house. On repeating the lesson the pupils should change rooms.]

1. Tables: dining-table, writing-table, -desk (should be so placed as to allow the light to come in from the left, or else the person who writes will be sitting in his own light), toilet-table, (with looking-glass), night-table, wash-stand (with marble top).

2. Chairs: upholstered, wicker, arm-, easy-, rocking-chairs.

3. Sofas, couches, beds and bed-clothes (spring-mattress, bolster, pillow, sheets, blankets, counterpane or bed-spread).

4. Wardrobe, often with plate-glass mirror and a drawer (for keeping clothes), (linen-)press, chest of drawers (for keeping underwear, &c.), cupboard (for cups, plates, dishes), sideboard (for table-linen, plate, and other dining utensils), cabinet (for curiosities), (iron-)safe (for preserving money and valuables from thieves as well as from fire), book-cases.

5. An upright (cottage) piano, a grand.

6. Ornaments: flower-pots, vases, pictures (water-colours, oil-paintings, engravings, etchings), busts, screens, knick-knacks.

Of what kind of wood is the furniture of the room in question, or would you like it to be?

Specify where the various articles are placed: On your right hand as you enter the room from the (hall) you see — Along the left (right, opposite) wall — At the upper (lower) end of the room — In the left-hand top corner — Opposite (that) — To the right of the window — In the centre.

You might draw a rough plan of the room by way of illustration.

IX. THE THEATRE.

Some theatre-goers enjoy the older classical dramas — tragedies and comedies by Shakespeare and others — or modern realistic plays (by Ibsen, Bernard Shaw, etc.); others do not care for such, but prefer less artistic productions: sensational melodramas, light farces, etc.

If musical, we may go to hear an opera at the opera-house (in London: at Covent Garden), or some musical play (or light opera).

Are you fond of ballets and pantomimes?

Going to the Theatre. When I have made up my mind to go to the theatre, I generally book a seat in advance.

Having got ready in good time I start for the theatre, either on foot, or if the weather is bad or the streets dirty, I may take the tram or a taxi.

At the theatre I show my ticket to the attendant at the entrance, leave my things at the cloak-room, get a programme, and have my seat shown to me by another attendant.

I sit down and glance at the programme. Next I survey the audience through my opera-glass(es) to find out whether there are any acquaintances of mine among the spectators.

Shortly after, at a signal, the lights are turned down — except the foot-lights on the stage — and the curtain goes up. The performance has begun.

During the intervals (between the acts), unless I prefer to remain where I am, I may stroll into the lobby to get a little fresh air and to stretch my legs, or I may go to the refreshment-bar to get some refreshments.

As soon as the curtain has gone down on the last act, I hurry to the cloak-room to get my things. I put them on and set off for home.

Note. In London theatres, people who go to the cheaper seats are not obliged to leave their things at the cloak-room. In the more expensive seats it is customary for the ladies to wear opera-cloaks.

The cheaper seats being unreserved, numbers of people assemble outside the theatres long before the doors are opened, all anxious to secure seats in the front row. — By a small extra payment you can avail yourself of the so-called 'Early Doors'. Some theatres advertise 'No Early Doors'.

Between the acts female attendants come round with tea, ices, and chocolates.

General Questions.

1. Are you fond of going to the theatre? Do you go often?
2. Have you ever thought of going on the stage (i. e. becoming an actor or actress)?
3. Have you ever taken part in private theatricals? If so, what part did you act?
4. What kind of play do you prefer?
5. Name your favourite actor (actress; play; dramatist).
6. Give the titles of some of Shakespeare's plays which have been produced on our stage. Have you seen or read any of them?
7. Mention some of the principal metropolitan theatres.
8. Is it expensive to go to the theatre here? What does a seat in the stalls cost? What does the pit cost?
9. Where do you generally sit (in the theatre)?

Note. The names of the various parts of the "house" in English theatres differ very much. The majority of theatres seem to agree in dividing the seats on the floor (of the house) into the "stalls" (reserved seats) and the "Pit" (unreserved). Above, we find the "Dress Circle" (sometimes called the "Balcony") — where you are expected to appear in evening "dress", as also in the stalls — the "Upper Circle", and the "Gallery". At the sides are the "Boxes", which can hold some 3—6 persons. Boxes are often taken for the (London) season.

Special Questions.

1. How often have you been to the theatre this winter? Have you been to any "first nights"?
2. What did you see the last time you went?
3. Is it a serious play or a comic one?

4. How many acts are there? How long does it take?
5. Is the scenery beautiful? Where is the scene laid?
6. Could you tell us a little about the plot? Does the play end well or badly?
7. Who are the leading characters — the hero, heroine, villain —? By whom are they acted? Is the acting good?
8. Does the play draw? Is it a success or a failure? Was there a full house when you went?
9. Would you recommend us to go and see it? Would you care to go a second time yourself?

X. EDUCATION.

Motto: A well-educated man is "one who knows something of everything, and everything of some thing".

Education in England: (1) The *Elementary Schools* provide for the education of children up to their 14th year. (2) The *Secondary Schools* carry on the education of their pupils up to an age varying from sixteen to nineteen.

Foremost among secondary schools stand the so-called Great Public Schools, such as Eton, Rugby, Harrow, of which some were founded as far back as the 15th and 16th centuries. These schools, which are mostly boarding-schools, are more or less recruited from the well-to-do classes, being at once costly and exclusive.

Note. The American 'public school' is a day-school, that is, a school which the pupils attend in the day-time (as opposed to an evening-school), and at which they are not boarded (as opposed to a boarding-school). It is free (i. e. gratis), secular (i. e. giving no religious instruction), and open to all the world.

In connection with Secondary Education may be mentioned *Technical* (and *Commercial*) *Institutes* and *Schools of Art.* At these schools the pupils may attend (day or evening) classes in one or more subjects, such as English, shorthand, drawing, modelling, carpentering.

(3) *Higher Education* in England and Wales is provided for by ten universities (Oxford, Cambridge, the University of London, etc.), the majority consisting of a larger or smaller number of colleges, where most of the students live in common. Those who study at a university but have not yet 'graduated', or taken their degree, are known as undergraduates. (By a 'student' is understood any one who studies, whether at college or elsewhere).

Characteristic of all English education is the paramount importance attached to *games,* sometimes even at the expense of the regular studies.

Another characteristic feature of English school-life is the annual distribution of *prizes* on Speech-Day, when school breaks up at the end of the Midsummer term before the summer holidays. The prizes consist of books, instruments, money, etc., which are given to the cleverest and most industrious pupils.

Of the many *scholarships* some are entirely open to competition and awarded simply on the results of examinations, while others are reserved for necessitous candidates.

School. I go to a (secondary?) school. I was sent to school when I was (?) years old and have thus been at school for (?) years. Our school is attended by (?) pupils in all. There are (?) classes or "forms". I am in the (?) class. We are (?) pupils in my class.

School begins at (?) o'clock sharp and is over at (?). I have (?) lessons a week at school. Besides, I have lessons to prepare at home, which take me about (?) hours a day.

A Day at School. I have some (ten?) minutes' walk to school. I start from home in good time in order to be at school a few minutes before the bell rings. I am (never?) late for school.

In the long corridor (or in the cloak-room) I take off my hat and coat and hang them on my peg. Next, I go into the class-room and walk up to my desk, where I sit down and unpack my books, all the while nodding and talking to my special chums, as they arrive.

When the master appears we all get up. He wishes us "Good Morning" and tells us to sit down and take out our books. The master calls the roll (i. e. the list of names) to see whether any one is absent, and the lesson (in English, Mathematics, etc.) begins.

A lesson lasts (?) minutes, at the end of which time a bell rings as a sign that the lesson is over. The master tells us to put away our books, etc. and go down to the playground. "Walk downstairs quietly. Don't make a noise. Don't race."

There is a break of (?) minutes, the so-called 'recess', during which we have lunch, talk together, play games, or fight, as the case may be, until the next lesson begins.

In the afternoon when school is over, we pack up our books, put on our things, and go home.

Miscellaneous Phrases.

Silence — Attention — Look at your books — Don't disturb (whisper to) your neighbour, Tom — Don't copy from John — Don't answer back — Has the bell gone?

Please help me on with my coat — Are you coming my way? — Shall we walk (cycle) home together? — All right come along — Hurry up, I can't wait for you all day.

Teacher's Questions.

1. What is the date? [It is —].
2. Is any one absent?
3. What is the lesson for to-day?
4. Have you all prepared your lesson? (If not —) What excuse have you? Have you any valid excuse? (A written excuse preferred).

Excuses. Please, Sir, you must excuse me, I have not been able to prepare my lesson (properly, at all), because (1) I have been absent for some time and didn't know what to prepare; (2) I was ill (in bed) yesterday; (3) we had so many lessons to prepare for to-day that I couldn't possibly get through them all; (4) I was disturbed in my work by visitors from the country; (5) Mother was ill and wanted me at home to mind the baby, etc., etc.

Subjects. Examinations.

1. What are the subjects taught at your school?

[The so-called three R's: Reading, wRiting, aRithmetic — Mathematics, Science (Physics, Chemistry), Nature Study (Zoology, Botany) — Classics (Greek, Latin), Modern Languages — Geography, History, Scripture — Drawing, Needlework, Singing, Gymnastics].

2. Are you clever (bad) at languages? What is your favourite subject? Do you find this subject particularly easy, interesting, or useful for after-life?
3. Have you a good (poor) memory for dates (names, facts)?

4. Have you passed any examinations (or exams)? Are you reading (up) for any? [The Preliminary, Intermediate, Final Examinations].

5. When are you going to leave school?

For *Discussion on Corporal Punishment* see *Appendix II.*

XI. DO YOU SPEAK ENGLISH?

I. 1. What is your native language (or mother tongue)?

2. What foreign languages are taught at this school? [Classics, i. e. Latin and Greek — Modern Languages?]. What languages do you know?

3. Are you clever at languages? [I think I may say without boasting that — | I am afraid that I am not considered particularly —].

4. Are we, as a nation, considered to be good (poor) linguists? What about the English?

II. 1. When did you begin to learn English? How many lessons a week have you in English (French, German)?

2. What do you consider the most difficult part of the English language: its pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary?

3. Is the English spelling consistent? Can you tell with certainty from the way in which a word is spelt how it should be pronounced? [Unfortunately —]. — Compare the English orthography with our own.

4. Would you call English grammar distinctly simple or rather complicated as compared with Latin, German, or French grammar? — Point out some differences as to number of endings, rules, and exceptions to rules.

5. Is your vocabulary (i. e. your stock of words and phrases) extensive or limited? Are you better able to understand than to make yourself understood?

III. 1. Have you had any opportunity of speaking with Englishmen? [I am sorry to say that as yet —].

2. Are you able to express yourself pretty fluently: to carry on a conversation, take part in a discussion, even make a speech and give a lecture in English? — or can you only just make yourself understood?

[I cannot express myself fluently at all; I can hardly — much less — let alone —].

Don't be shy and dumb for fear of committing blunders. Pupils who make mistakes may be corrected, dumb pupils can't be.

Miscellaneous Phrases. Don't speak so fast, please — Please speak a little slower (louder, more distinctly) — (I) beg (your) pardon, I didn't quite catch your meaning — Would you mind repeating the last sentence? — Kindly spell that word — What is the meaning of ( )? — What is the English for ( )? — I am sure I couldn't tell you — I am afraid I haven't made myself clear.

XII. TRAVELLING AND TRANSPORT.

We travel by land, water, and air.

I. MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.

(1) *Land Transit.*

On land we move by road or by rail, — walking, riding, and driving.

Town Traffic. In big, crowded towns the problem of locomotion offers peculiar difficulties. In London the enormous passenger traffic has to be carried on partly *in the streets* by means of private carriages, e. g. landaus, broughams, drawn by horses; motor-cars, or motors, driven by petrol (or benzine); *or* by means of such public vehicles as cabs: two-wheelers, or hansom-cabs, (so named after the inventor), and four-wheelers, both horse-drawn; motor-cabs, or taxis, which have now nearly supplanted the horsecabs — by motor-buses and electric trams; — — partly *under ground*, where it is dealt with by 'underground' electric railways, which are run through an immense network of tunnels, or 'tubes'. Underground stations are reached by means of lifts and subways.

Transport of goods is effected by means of motor lorries, two-wheeled carts, and four-wheeled wag(g)ons and (covered) vans.

Railways.

State or Private Property? English railways are all in the hands of private companies, such as the Great Eastern (Northern, Western), the Midland Railway Company.

Have our railways been nationalized (i. e. made national property)?

Administration. At the head of such a company there is a board of directors, presided over by a chairman and elected by the shareholders. The responsible officer for the whole executive administration is the general manager.

Railway Staff. The number of railway servants is enormous. Suffice it to mention station-masters, guards, engine-drivers, firemen (or stokers), ticket-collectors, porters.

Stations. A terminus is the station at the end of a main line. Thus, Liverpool Street Station is the London terminus of the Great Eastern (Ry.); it contains eighteen platforms. Between two termini there will be a greater or smaller number of intermediate stations. Junctions are stations at which two or more lines meet. — The names of stations will be found on the platform benches and lamps as well as on large boards.

Explain the uses of booking-office, waiting-room, refreshment-room, railway book-stall, cloak-room.

The *rolling-stock* is made up of engines (or locomotives); goods-wag(g)ons, luggage-vans; 1st and 3rd class — less commonly 2nd class — passenger carriages, of which some marked 'Smoking', others marked 'Ladies' are set apart for smokers and ladies respectively. Besides, there are special sleeping- and dining-cars.

Trains. There are goods and passenger trains; slow, fast, express trains, the latter often travelling at a speed of 50—60 miles an hour; through trains, going the whole length of a long journey with few stops and no changes; excursion trains, run at reduced fares; corridor trains, &c. By 'up' trains we understand trains going up to London, by 'down' trains those going from London down into the country. — You look out your trains in a time-table.

Tickets. A 'through ticket' entitles you to go over different companies' lines with the same ticket (you 'book through'). 'Week-end tickets', available from Friday (or Saturday) till the following Monday (or Tuesday), are

considerably cheaper than ordinary return tickets. In summer 'circular (tour) tickets' and 'combined tour tickets', allowing the holder to break the journey at most stopping places, are issued for districts frequented by tourists.

Luggage. On English lines the 3rd class passenger is entitled to carry 100 lbs. of luggage free, the 1st class passenger 150 lbs. All luggage that goes in the luggage-van should be labelled by one of the porters at the luggage-office. Luggage is not registered except for abroad, in which case passengers get a receipt. — Luggage can be left at, or sent to, the cloak-room of any station (3d. a day per piece).

Notices. Alarm Signal, in case of emergency. To stop the train, pull down the chain. Penalty, for improper use, £ 5. — This ticket, which is available for a single journey only, must be given up at destination station.

1. Do you prefer going by train to going by steamer? Give reasons for preference.
2. What class do you generally travel (or go)? Why?
3. What is the maximum speed our trains travel at?
4. Have you (or any of your friends) ever been in any railway accident? Were you (they) seriously hurt, or did you (they) escape without any injury?

A Journey by Rail. Give a description of your last railway journey.

1. What was your destination?
2. Where are tickets sold? Did you take a single or a return ticket? Do we get any reduction on return tickets? Perhaps you have a season ticket?

3. Had you any excess luggage which had to be registered or only some hand luggage?
4. Did the train leave punctually? When?
5. What sort of train did you go by? Did it stop at all the stations?
6. Had you to change anywhere, or did you go straight through?
7. When were you timed to be at your destination? Did you arrive in time, or before time, or was the train late (overdue)?
8. How long did the whole journey take?

Miscellaneous. According to the time-table the train is due at 8^{45} p. m. — Hurry up, or we shall not be in time for (= be late for = not catch = miss) our train. — This carriage is full. — Are those two seats engaged? — Here is an empty compartment. Be quick and get in, or we shall be left behind. — Where are we to get out? At the last station but one (two, &c.) — Here we are already.

Hotels. The large railway hotels, managed by the companies themselves, offer as a rule first-class, if somewhat expensive, accommodation. The so-called private hotels have no licence to supply intoxicating liquors, but may in other respects be as comfortable as the best licensed houses. In some cases, however, they are practically nothing but boarding-houses. Temperance hotels which abound throughout the country, are less pretentious and have lower tariffs. — The 'Boots', who cleans the boots, expects a tip (or to be tipped) when the visitor leaves; so does the head-waiter, who presents the bill, and commonly too the chamber-maid, who does your room, even if their services are included in 'attendance'.

Cycling. The bicycle (cycle, bike) as a means of locomotion has become very popular with persons of nearly all ages and both sexes, whether used for business purposes, for exercise, or for pleasure.

The chief parts of a cycle are: the frame; two wheels (a front-wheel and a back-wheel), to which the tyres are fitted; the handle-bars with the handles, which you grip to balance and steer the machine; the pedals, which you tread when riding; the brake, which you apply (or put on) in order to slow down or to stop.

Besides, there are the accessories: the saddle; the bell (or on motor-cycles, a horn); the lamp, which must be lit after dark; the tool-bag, for possible repairs; the air-pump, to pump up the tyres. A (pneumatic) tyre consists of an inner tube, made of rubber and provided with a valve, and an outer cover. Many cyclists have their wheels fitted with mud-guards. Lady cyclists have gear-cases to cover the chain.

Before starting on a cycling-tour you should see that the machine is well oiled, the tyres hard (pumped up hard), and everything all right. On your return the unpleasant task remains of cleaning the machine before it is put into the cycle-shed.

Note. In England a cyclist is legally bound, under penalty, to carry a light from one hour after sunset until one hour before sunrise. The 'rule of the road' for cycles is the same as for carriages: in meeting, keep to the left; in overtaking, pass on the right.*

When is (it) lighting-up time?

Compare our rule of the road with the English.

* If you go right, you go wrong; if you go left, you go right.

Cyclists may have their machines insured against accidents, fire, and loss by theft for a premium which varies according to the value of the cycle. — Is your cycle insured? What is the premium?

*Conversation**. 1. Is this a good country for cycling? Are the roads good (level, smooth, in good repair), or bad (hilly, rough, in bad repair)? Is cycling popular with us?

2. Are you keen on biking?

3. How long have you had a cycle? Is your cycle a roadster or a racer? Have you a free-wheel?

4. Did you buy it on the instalment system, or did you pay cash down? How much per cent. discount do cycle-dealers allow on cash payment?

5. Have you had any expensive repairs? Are you handy at doing slight repairs yourself — e. g. when you get a puncture, can you repair it —? Perhaps your fingers are all thumbs?

Warning. Before you proceed to take your machine to pieces, you should pause and reflect whether you will be equal to putting it together again.

6. Have you ever met with any serious accident when biking — e. g. had a bad fall, run into something or other, collided with another cyclist —? — Have you knocked down or run over any person or animal?

7. What is your average speed per hour? What is the greatest number of miles you have covered in a day?

8. Have you ever taken part in a cycle-race?

Compare cycling with walking as regards speed, safety, health, comfort, and sociability.

* Those of the pupils who are not cyclists may be set to put the questions.

Miscellaneous. To get on, get off; to wheel one's machine; to back-pedal; to make a sharp spurt; to race; to have a complete break-down; to break the front fork; to break one's neck; a cycle-repairer.

Motto: If you are young, buy a bicycle; if you are old, try a tricycle.

(2) *Water Transit.*

Goods and passenger traffic is carried by canal, river, lake, and sea.

By Canal. Canals are artificial waterways, made either for river traffic or for ocean traffic. To the latter class belong the so-called ship canals, which are made either to shorten routes, e. g. the Suez Canal, or to bring inland towns into direct communication with the sea. Thus, the Manchester Ship Canal has made Manchester a port.

In England the canals have suffered greatly from railway competition; besides, quite primitive means of canal transport are still in use, chiefly barges towed by men or horses.

Distinguish between 'canal' and 'channel', and give instances of either: The Panama —, St. George's —, the Kiel —, the English —.

By River. It would be impossible to over-estimate the commercial value of the Rhine to Germany, the Danube to Austria, the Nile to Egypt, the St. Lawrence to Canada. Nor is the United Kingdom wanting in navigable rivers, if on a smaller scale, and large towns have sprung up on their banks. London stands on the Thames, Liverpool on the Mersey, Glasgow on the Clyde, &c.

By Sea. Britain is the greatest ship-building and ship-owning country in the world. Nearly half the total tonnage

of the world's shipping belongs to British shipowners, and the greater part of the carrying trade is done by British ships.

Wood and iron are giving place to steel as building material, and sailing vessels are rapidly being supplanted by steamships: paddle, (twin-)screw, and turbine steamers. We speak about passenger, mail, freight (e. g. coal, cattle) steamers. 'Liners' are ships belonging to a line, plying regularly between two ports (e. g. a Cunard liner), whereas 'tramp-steamers' wander from any one port in the world to any other, wherever a desirable freight may offer itself.

Some Representative British Shipping Companies. (1) The Cunard Steamship Company, Ltd. runs passenger steamers between Liverpool and New York. Some of the biggest and fastest ocean liners belong to this company, e. g. the Aquitania, exceeding 45,000 tons and attaining a speed of over 24 knots. It is propelled by turbines and fitted with Marconi's system of wireless telegraphy. All Cunarders are at the disposal of the government in case of war. Note that all ships belonging to this line have names ending in 'ia'. — (2) The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, universally known as the 'P. & O.', runs steamers from London to Lisbon in the 'Peninsula' (i. e. Spain and Portugal), and further viâ Gibraltar, Malta, Port Said, Aden, on to the 'Orient'. It has a contract with the government for the carriage of the mails to and from India, China, and Australia.

Submarine Navigation. Submarine boats, or submarines, are vessels which are capable of being navigated when submerged, or under the water, as well as on the surface

of the water. They are used for naval purposes as torpedo boats.

Conversation.

1. Do you prefer a journey by land to a voyage?
2. Are you a good sailor, or do you easily get sea-sick? (To feed the fishes = to vomit).
3. Have you ever been out on a rough sea, or only when the sea has been smooth (in rough weather or in calm)?
4. What is the longest voyage you have made?
5. Which is the shortest route from here to London? How long does the passage take?
6. Mention some of our most important steamship lines.
7. Have you ever thought of going to sea, entering either the Royal Navy or the Merchant Service?

(3) *Air Transit (or Aviation).*

The conquest of the air is one of the burning questions of the day. The flying problem depends for its solution upon four factors: flotation, or how to keep the machine floating; balance; propulsion, or how to propel it; direction, or how to direct or steer it. Experiments are being made with two distinct types of machines: the lighter-than-air flying-machine (or dirigible balloon, airship), generally cigar-shaped; and the heavier-than-air flying-machine, or aeroplane* (monoplane, biplane), constructed on the principle of the kite. Captive balloons are chiefly employed for military purposes.

* Military airmanship, particularly for reconnoitring purposes, is making great progress and has already revolutionized the tactics of war. All the great powers are busily creating air-fleets.

Mention some famous aeronauts (airmen, airwomen, aviators). What are the latest records of flights, or voyages, through the air? Have means for a safe descent (or landing) been devised?

II. MOTIVES FOR TRAVELLING.

Why do people travel?

Tourists are all those who travel merely for pleasure: they go away for a change (of air, scenery, people), or because they want to 'do' (i. e. to see the sights of) certain places. The Americans in particular are great 'globe-trotters'.

Many have to travel for the sake of their health: they are sent by doctor's orders to some watering-place for the bathing or to drink mineral waters; or to the south of Europe, to Egypt, &c., in order to winter in a milder climate; or to some mountainous region, to strengthen their lungs by breathing the pure, bracing mountain air.

An ever increasing number of persons go abroad for educational and similar purposes: to study languages, business methods, engineering, art, &c.

Those who travel on business to solicit orders, &c. for some business firm are known as (commercial) travellers, or representatives (of the firm in question). — Pedlars travel about retailing small-wares (tape, buttons, trimmings) which they carry with them.

Further, there are the explorers, who travel for scientific, missionary, and sometimes trading purposes, in order to explore and open up unknown regions: some undertake voyages of discovery to the Polar (i. e. Arctic and Antarctic) seas, while others penetrate into the wildernesses of Central Africa and Asia.

Mention some famous expeditions and their leaders, British and others. — Do you like to read books of travel?

Finally, there is the less distinguished class of travellers, known as 'tramps': partly, unemployed workmen who are forced by circumstances to 'tramp', or wander through, the country in search of work, and manage to keep body and soul together by doing odd jobs; partly, mere vagabonds and professional beggars, who don't want to work but simply sponge upon society.

Perhaps you could think of other motives for travelling?

Summer Holidays.

Planning. Suppose your summer holidays are approaching and you have to decide where and how to spend them: whether you will stay in town, go into the country, or perhaps go abroad. Such a decision will depend partly upon your own inclination, partly upon the time and money at your disposal, partly too upon the arrangements already made by your people and friends, with which you may fall in or not.

Maps, guide-books (e. g. a Baedeker), time-tables (e. g. an ABC or a Bradshaw) are consulted, and plans discussed with your friends.

Are you a good walker? — If so, a (week's) walking-tour might be just the thing for you, provided you can find congenial travelling-companions. Remember that 'two is company, three is none'.

Would you rather go to the seaside? — This would perhaps be the better plan if you like taking things easy: you may stroll about, eat and drink, play tennis, boat, bathe, and doze on the sands.

Are you keen on biking? — In that case I should recommend you to arrange a cycling-tour with some friends of an equally energetic turn of mind.

Have you any relations or acquaintances in the country? — If you are on friendly terms with them, you may expect an invitation to spend your holidays at their place. —

Now, please make up your mind:

How are you going to spend your holidays?

[Review possibilities, make your decision, and state reasons for same.]

Packing. Suppose you have at length made up your mind where to go: the first thing to do will be to make out a list of the things you are likely to want. If you are wise, you will be careful not to take more luggage than is strictly necessary. For a long stay you may need a big box or trunk to hold your things, while for a short absence a portmanteau or a Gladstone bag will do all right.

Where did you spend your last summer holidays? How long did they last?

How did you spend the time? Did you have a good time?

Excursions.

We go for (or make) an excursion, a walking-tour, a cycling-tour. We go for (or take) a walk, a drive (in a private carriage, a cab), a ride (on horseback, on a cycle, in a tram, an omnibus). We go by steamer (train, tram, aeroplane), in a balloon.

Mention the different kinds of excursions you have been on, and which of them you like best. State reasons for preference — (as being cheaper, speedier, safer, healthier, more comfortable, more sociable when compared with —).

We may go into the country (or to the woods) in order to botanize; because of the fine scenery; for the sake of exercise, health, the pure bracing air; or we may go by invitation, to visit some acquaintances. — Do you like going to picnics?

Conversation.

1. When did you go for your last excursion?
2. What was the weather like in the morning? Did it change in the course of the day?
3. Were you alone, or had you arranged to go with some friends? Do you as a rule prefer company on such tours to going by yourself?
4. What was your destination? When did you arrive?
5. How long a stop did you make? How did you spend the time?

[To bathe in the sea; to lunch in the open (air); to take a good rest lying on the grass; to admire the fine view, the picturesque scenery; to have games.]

6. Did you (or any of the others) meet with any mishap or accident on the way out or back?
7. Did you return by the same route as you went out? When did you come back?
8. Had you had a good time and thoroughly enjoyed yourself, or were you disappointed (tired out, wet to the skin, dusty, hungry, thirsty, cross)?

XIII. ILLNESS.

How many of us can say — "I have never had a day's illness in my life" —? There are indeed a favoured few who

ary very seldom ill, but these are greatly outnumbered by the unfortunate many who never feel quite well.

Have you a sound constitution, or are you delicate (or sickly)?

Remember that the strongest constitution may be ruined by neglect and carelessness, while the weakest can be strengthened by prudence and care.

Medical Treatment. When a person has been taken ill, and the illness threatens to be more than a passing indisposition, the (family) doctor should be sent for without delay.

The doctor feels the patient's pulse to see whether it is normal, or whether it beats too fast or too slow, looks at his tongue to see whether it is coated, and asks some questions about the general state of his health. From the various symptoms to be noted — such as pain, high or low temperature, sweat, cough, nausea, loss of appetite, sleeplessness — the doctor forms his diagnosis of the case, and accordingly decides on the treatment to be followed.

The method of treatment naturally varies with the form of illness. The doctor may prescribe certain medicines or drugs (pills, powders, opiates), the prescription to be made up at a chemist's (shop). [In England the family doctor has his own dispensary, where he makes up his medicines.]

In cases of indigestion the patient is put on a (strict) diet (e. g. a milk diet).

Those who suffer from nerves may be ordered complete rest (from work, excitement, &c.), or be sent away for a change (of air, scenery, &c.), if they can afford such a cure.

In various cases people are advised to go to watering-places for the bathing or to drink mineral waters. In other cases electricity and massage are used.

Consumptive patients are sent to sanatoriums (or sanatoria) to undergo an open-air treatment.

Patients are sent to the hospital in order to be properly nursed by trained nurses, or for the sake of isolation, if they suffer from some infectious disease, or to undergo an operation (performed by a surgeon).

Insane or mad people are confined in lunatic asylums, or madhouses (e. g. Bedlam in London). Unfortunately, insanity is but too often hereditary and incurable.

Vaccination is generally regarded as a preventive against smallpox. — Have you been vaccinated? Is vaccination compulsory in this country, as in England?

Have you had the ordinary *children's diseases,* such as (the) measles, mumps, (w)hooping-cough, scarlet-fever? — These are all highly infectious and often epidemic.

Headache. Some people constantly complain of headache. A phenacetin powder will often relieve the pain of a splitting headache but does not remove the cause of the complaint.

Are you a sufferer from headache?

Toothache. Which of you has not been afflicted with a raging toothache at one time or another? Is there any one present who has never been to the dentist('s) to have a hollow tooth stopped, or if too bad for that, drawn out?

The Americans, who are very fond of sweet things and iced drinks, are said to have the worst teeth and the best dentists of any nation. — Are you careful as to what you eat and drink? Do you brush your teeth every day, (at) night and (in the) morning? Have you your teeth regularly seen to (or examined) by the dentist every six months or so?

If you take good care of your teeth in time, you may be spared the necessity of ever having (a set of) false, or artificial, teeth.

ON CATCHING COLD.

Are you particularly liable to colds?

Causes. (1) There may have been a sudden change of temperature: You have got into a violent state of perspiration and drunk something cold, or sat down at an open window — you may have been sitting in a draught — you have got your feet wet and neglected to change your boots and socks (stockings), or had no opportunity of doing so — *or* (2) colds being highly infectious, you may have caught your cold from someone else.

Symptoms. The first symptom of a cold is sneezing. In a short time the nose is stopped up, so that it is difficult to breathe through it. Soon, however, the nose begins to 'run', and some relief is felt. Often the eyes too are affected: they water and feel hot and inflamed. You can neither smell nor taste, and you are so hoarse that you can scarcely make yourself understood. You have a sore throat and are troubled with a painful cough. Besides, you are slightly feverish.

No doubt about it, you are in for a bad 'cold in the head', if nothing worse.

Treatment. Such a cold should by no means be made light of and neglected but be promptly and duly attended to, or it may lead to bronchitis, influenza, and even consumption. Taken in time — always supposing nothing else sets in — it may be got rid of in a couple of days. The best thing for you to do is to go to bed at once and take something hot which will make you perspire freely. As a rule, a few days indoors will complete the cure.

In severe cases the doctor should immediately be sent for.

Prevention is better than cure. Woollen underwear, water-tight boots, no over- or underfeeding, plenty of open-air exercise, and a well-ventilated bedroom are the chief points to attend to, if colds are to be avoided.

Conversation.

1. How long is it since you were ill last?
2. What was the matter with you? Was it anything serious, or only a slight indisposition?
3. Did it come on suddenly? What were the symptoms?
4. What do you think brought it on? Had you been careless?
5. Was the doctor sent for? If so, what did he order? — If not, did you use any household remedies? [e.g. to take a dose of castor-oil, some brandy, a cup of hot camomile; to apply a bread poultice.]
6. How long did it last? Is this illness followed by a long period of convalescence?
7. Do you feel quite strong ('fit', all right) now?

You look pale (seedy, ill). I hope you will soon be better. Be careful, or you may have a relapse.

XIV. WHAT ARE YOU LIKE?

Give a description of yourself or of one of your friends.

1. *Name.* Give your (Christian) name and your surname.
2. *Age.* How old are you? When is (it) your birthday? In what year were you born?
3. *Stature.* Are you tall (short, small) for your age or of medium height? How many feet and inches do you stand in your stockings? Have you stopped growing?
4. *Weight.* What is your weight? — e.g. 8 stone 5 (1 stone = 14 lbs.) — Are you putting on (losing) flesh (or weight)?
5. *Figure.* Are you thin, or are you inclined to be stout, not to say corpulent, or are you just right, neither too fat nor too lean?
6. *Hair.* What is the colour of your hair? Are you dark or fair? Do you wear your hair long or short (close-cropped)? parted or brushed back from the forehead? Are you (or any of your people) inclined to be bald?
7. *Beard.* Do you wear a beard, whiskers, a moustache? Perhaps you are too young for a beard yet, but do you think of growing one when the time comes, or would you prefer to be clean-shaven?
8. *Eyes.* What colour are your eyes? Is your eyesight quite normal or defective? You are neither long-sighted nor short-sighted? Do you wear glasses (eye-glasses, spectacles, a monocle)? Do you squint?
9. *Nose.* Have you a straight or an aquiline nose? Must it be called a snub-nose?
10. *Voice.* Have you got a deep (bass) voice, or is it high (shrill)? Is it loud or low? strong or weak? Perhaps your voice is breaking?

Are there any special characteristics you would like to add?

XV. THE BRITISH ISLES.

Britain, or the British Isles, is the collective term for a large number of islands lying off the north-west coast of Europe. The two largest islands are Great Britain (divided into Scotland in the north, England and Wales in the south) and to the west Ireland (poetically named the 'Emerald Isle' from its green pastures).

Area. The total area of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is 121,000 square miles.

Population estimated at 46,000,000 (1920).

Tour round Great Britain. Suppose we make a tour round Great Britain onboard a steamer starting from London. We steam slowly down the Thames and out into the North Sea. Skirting the Kentish shore with its white chalk cliffs, we pass through the Straits of Dover (about 20 miles wide) into the Channel, which separates England from France. In going down the Channel we note the Isle of Wight, off the south coast of England, and further on, to the south-west, we are able to make out the Channel Islands, (politically, though not geographically, part of Britain). By this time we have left the Channel and got out into the Atlantic. We now strike due north, passing the Scilly Islands, noted for their mild climate; these are situated off Land's End, which is the most south-westerly point of England (in the county of Cornwall). Having run short of coal, we turn into the Bristol Channel and put in at Cardiff in order to coal. Next we steam along the southern coast of Wales, through St. George's Channel, past Anglesey, and into the Irish Sea. Having made a short call at the Isle of Man, (which strictly

speaking is not a part of England, at it has a governor and a parliament of its own), we proceed on our voyage through the North Channel and once more find ourselves in the Atlantic. We sail along the Hebrides, situated to the west of the Scottish coast, and bearing to the north-east, we steer between the Orkneys and the Shetland Islands into the North Sea. Striking due south we skirt the eastern coast of Scotland and England, making for our starting-point, London.

[One half of the class to make the same tour in the opposite direction.]

Climate. Owing to the prevailing westerly and south-westerly winds, which blow on an average for two out of three days, and which have been warmed by passing over the Atlantic, the climate is temperate, neither extremely hot nor extremely cold; ports and rivers are never ice-bound. The rainfall is considerable, particularly in the west.

Vegetation. Less than five per cent. (5 %) of Great Britain is woodland, the chief trees being the oak, ash, birch, elm, beech, and pine.

The chief crops are wheat, barley, and oats; some rye is grown for fodder. Potatoes are all-important in Ireland; hops are grown in the southern counties of England, more particularly in Kent. — About 30 % is grazing land.

Live Stock. Broadly speaking, cattle are bred in the lowlands, both for beef and for dairy produce (milk, butter, cheese), while sheep are bred on the hills, for wool and mutton. Pigs are kept in large numbers, for pork and bacon. The English have always been famous for their horse-breeding.

Fisheries. The shallow seas surrounding Great Britain, and particularly those washing the eastern shores, are rich in fish. The Dogger Bank, in the North Sea, is one of the richest fishing-grounds in the world, especially for cod and flat fish (plaice, sole, etc.); the herring fishery too is of great importance.

Minerals and Metals. Sandstone, slate, and granite quarries* are found in the mountains. In the plains, clay is used for pottery and for making bricks.

The immense English, Welsh, and Scottish coal-fields are the chief sources of British industry. The best steam-coal in the world is found in South Wales and is sent from Cardiff, on the Bristol Channel, all over the world. It gives out little smoke and great heat.

Next in importance to coal, and generally found in combination with it, comes iron. To complete the list, we may mention lead, some zinc, copper, tin, and salt.

Manufactures.

1. *Hardware* (articles of metal, such as cooking utensils, mechanics' tools) is the busy industry of the 'Black Country', which comprises South Staffordshire with portions of Warwickshire and Worcestershire; it owes its name to the immense volume of smoke poured out from the many furnaces at work day and night. Birmingham is the centre of this industry. Sheffield, in Yorkshire, is famous for its cutlery (knives, scissors).

2. *Earthenware* (or crockery: vessels formed of baked clay, e.g. basins, cups and saucers) is the principal industry of the North Staffordshire coal-field (the 'Potteries'),

* A quarry differs from a mine chiefly in being open to the sky.

with Stoke-upon-Trent as its most important manufacturing town.

3. *Textiles* (Wool, Cotton, Linen). Woollen manufacturing is the oldest textile trade in England. Its chief seats are Leeds and Bradford, in Yorkshire. — Cotton is by far the most important textile; its spinning and weaving into cloth are mainly Lancashire industries, of which Manchester is the market with Liverpool as its port.

Note. It is a fact of the greatest importance to the cotton industry all over the world that the supply of raw material is not developing so rapidly as the demand. Hitherto, Great Britain has been dependent mainly upon the United States for its supply. However, owing to the enormous development of cotton manufacturing in the United States themselves, as well as on the Continent (Germany, France), the British share of the cotton crop is being seriously restricted. Moreover, it may easily prove a grave danger to an industrial country to be dependent on another particular country for the supply of its most important raw material; it is sufficient in this connection to point to the terrible distress which prevailed throughout Lancashire during the so-called 'Cotton Famine', when the cotton supply failed in consequence of the American Civil War (1861—65).

It is therefore but natural that Great Britain should be anxious to develop further sources of supply — preferably too, within the Empire itself. Thus, India and Egypt have long been cotton producers on a rather large scale, and of late years, more or less successful experiments in growing cotton have been made in other parts of Africa as well.

Commerce.

1. *Imports.* The chief imports are food-stuffs and raw materials, above all cotton (from the United States, India, Egypt) and wool (from Australasia). Generally speaking, imports may be arranged in three classes: (1) Articles which cannot be produced in the country owing to the climate or soil, as cotton, tobacco, wine, tea, coffee, spices, silk; (2) articles which can be and are produced, but not in sufficient quantities to meet the demands of trade and consumption, as corn, dairy produce, wool, timber; (3) articles which are produced better and cheaper abroad, as silk goods, toys, musical instruments.

2. *Exports.* British exports consist of raw materials (chiefly coal) and manufactured articles, the latter constituting quite four-fifths of the total exports. Most important are yarns and textile fabrics, iron and steel (wrought and unwrought), including machinery; ships.

Religion, Education, Constitution (see special chapters).

Towns.

Why do people live in towns? Where do towns grow up?

People congregate in towns for convenience of manufacture, home and foreign trade, defence in time of war, or for general advantages, such as education, health, and pleasure. Towns grow up on sites suited for the above-named purposes.

1. *Advantages for Manufacturing.* Nearly all the chief towns in England were in earlier times to be found in the east, near the continental markets, until the use of coal for iron-smelting and of steam-power became general, changing the English people from a nation of farmers

into a nation of manufacturers, and causing numerous manufacturing towns to spring up on or near the coal-fields in central, northern, and western England, and in Wales (see *Manufactures*).

2. *Advantages for Trading.* Such towns as London, on the Thames; Bristol, on the Avon; Hull, on the Humber; Liverpool, on the Mersey; Newcastle-on-Tyne; and in Scotland: Glasgow, on the Clyde, are placed high up the rivers, where they have easy access both to the sea and to the interior.

3. *Military and Naval Advantages.* Portsmouth, Plymouth, Dover are important naval ports, strongly fortified and garrisoned. Dover is besides the chief packet station for the Continent.

4. *General Advantages* (Education, Health, Pleasure). Oxford and Cambridge are famous old university towns. Bath owes its importance to its healing waters. Brighton, on the south coast, and Scarborough, on the Yorkshire coast, are favourite seaside resorts.

What are Great Britain's Natural Advantages and Disadvantages?

1. The favourable insular position of Great Britain, situated as it is in the very centre of the civilized world, and at the same time protected from sudden invasion.

2. Its temperate climate, rendered cooler in summer and milder in winter by the surrounding seas and the influence of the Gulf Stream. — Against this must be set the sudden changes of weather and the great number of foggy and rainy days.

3. Its freedom from violent earthquakes, storms, and floods.

4. Its strongly indented coast-line with numerous excellent harbours, which are never ice-bound.

5. Its slow-flowing, navigable rivers, with high rising tides, forming natural highways.

6. Its fertile soil with only a small proportion of moorland and swamp. — Nevertheless, Great Britain cannot by far feed itself.

7. Its great wealth of minerals, especially coal and iron, indispensable for making and working machinery. — On the other hand, insufficiency or total lack of its most important raw materials, such as wool, cotton.

[Draw comparisons, on the plan given above, between Great Britain and some other country of your own choice.]

History. The earliest name applied to Britain is 'Albion', now only used in poetry.

The Romans called the island 'Britannia', the country of the 'Britons'*. The *Roman settlement* of Britain (as far north as the Forth) falls between 41 A.D. and 411, when the last legion was withdrawn. Their occupation of the country was a purely military one, and they seem to have mingled little with the natives — much like the Europeans in the East at the present day. Traces of this occupation are still left behind in ruins of walls, roads, villas, and baths. The Roman word for a road is 'strata', whence the present 'street' and 'Strat'ford; from the Roman 'castra' (camp) the endings 'caster', 'cester', and 'chester' are derived, and there are numerous old towns with these

* The Britons belonged to the Keltic (Celtic) race. Celts still form the chief population of Wales, the Isle of Man, Ireland, and the Highlands of Scotland.

endings to their names: Lancaster, Chester, Manchester, Leicester, Worcester, Gloucester, etc. are built on or near such old Roman camps.

Shortly after the withdrawal of the Roman troops the *Teutonic settlement* of Britain takes place (about 450). These Teutonic (or Germanic) tribes, who had been called in by the Britons in the south to assist them against their enemies in the north, go under the names of Angles and Saxons, and seem to have come from the northern part of Germany. In the course of time they conquered the country for themselves, except the western mountainous parts (Cornwall, Wales), where the native Britons maintained their independence for a long time.

The Angles have given their name to the country, the people, and the language, 'England' meaning the 'land of the Angles', or English. Sussex, Essex, and Middlesex get their names from the South, East, and Middle Saxons. Norfolk and Suffolk are the shires (or counties) of the 'North Folk' and the 'South Folk'. Such endings as 'ton' (town), 'ham' (home), 'bury', 'burgh', or 'borough' (fortified place) are true old English endings to be found in place-names all over the map (except in Wales and Cornwall): Kingston, Durham, Salisbury, Edinburgh, Peterborough, etc.

The incursions of the Northmen from Scandinavia — more particularly Danes and Norwegians — extend over more than two centuries, culminating in the *Danish Conquest* of England (1013—1042). Geographical names ending in 'by' (town) and 'toft' (enclosure) point to Danish settlement: Grims'by', Rug'by', Lowes'toft'.

With the *Norman Conquest* (1066) the long series of invasions, which had from time to time brought fresh blood into the country, came to an end.

Race. The typical Englishman (and Englishwoman) is neither Norman, Dane, Anglo-Saxon, Roman, nor Briton, but rather a product made up of all these elements. It should be noted, too, that for centuries there has been a steady flow of the Welsh Britons back into England, strengthening the British (or Celtic) element in the population, so that Welsh personal names, such as Jones, Williams, Davies, Thomas, and Evans, are among the most common in England.

To speak of an 'Anglo-Saxon Race' — on both sides of the Atlantic too! — may therefore be rather misleading, unless by this term we understand the modern English-speaking descendants of a number of different races, chief among whom were the old Anglo-Saxons.

XVI. GEOGRAPHY.

I.

Give a description of your own (or some other) country.

1. *Geographical Position.* In what part of the world is your country (or the country in question) situated?
2. *Boundaries.* On the north it is bounded by —? &c.
3. *Area.* How many square miles is it in extent?
4. *Surface.* Is it a flat (level), hilly, or mountainous country? Are there extensive plains? Is the ground broken up by deep valleys and wild mountain ranges? What is the highest point?
5. *Lakes and Rivers.* Mention the principal lakes and rivers. Where do the rivers flow into? Are they navigable?
6. *Climate.* Is the climate temperate (cold, hot, tropical)? dry or moist? healthy or unhealthy? What are the prevailing winds?
7. *Natural Resources.* Is the country rich in minerals and metals? Is the soil fertile? Can the country feed itself?

GEOGRAPHY. II.

1. *Population.* What is the number of its inhabitants? Is the country densely or thinly populated? What race(s) do the people belong to? What language(s) do they speak?
2. *Government.* What is the (form of) government? [An absolute (or even a despotic), a limited (or constitutional) hereditary monarchy? a republic?] — With whom does the executive power lie? With whom the legislative?
3. *Industries.* What are the chief occupations? [Farming (or agriculture), fishing, mining, trade, manufactures?]
4. *Commerce.* What are the chief exports and imports?
5. *Towns.* Mention the capital and some of the principal towns.
6. *Education.* Is elementary education compulsory and free (i. e. gratis)? Are there any universities? Is the standard of general education high?
7. *Religion.* Is there a state religion to which the majority of the population belong? Is there religious liberty, so that all religions are tolerated?

XVII. SOCIETY.

By *Society* is understood 'the socially distinguished'; the well-born, well-connected, well-bred, well-to-do members of a community; those who count from a fashionable or upper-class point of view — in short, the 'classes' as distinguished from the 'masses'.

Royalty (or royal persons) takes precedence of — i.e. goes before in point of rank and dignity — all others within the realm (or kingdom); the King and the Queen, the Prince and Princess of Wales, and the rest of the Royal Family.

The word *Peerage* means (1) the rank of a peer (lord, nobleman); (2) the peers (lords, nobles) collectively; (3) a book containing list of peers with genealogies, &c.

The peerage (nobility, aristocracy) comprises five degrees of rank, *viz.* duke (and duchess), marquis (and marchioness), earl (and countess*), viscount (and viscountess), baron (and baroness). Dukes and duchesses are referred to as *His Grace, the Duke of* (e. g. *Devonshire*), *Her Grace, the Duchess of* —, and addressed as *Your Grace.* Other peers and peeresses are referred to as *Lord (Lady) So-and-so,* and addressed as *My Lord, My Lady,* or *Your Lordship (Ladyship).*

Note. Of existing peers some are peers by descent, some by creation, having been created peers, or raised to the peerage, by the Sovereign; others again are peers by virtue of office, e.g. the two archbishops and the other Lords Spiritual, who, however, are but 'life peers', that is to say, their rank does not descend to their heirs.

* Count is a foreign title.

Peers by descent or by creation are hereditary peers, commonly with seats in the House of Lords. It should be distinctly understood that only the head of the family is a nobleman, whereas the children are commoners. In the case of the three highest degrees of nobility, however, the eldest son holds, as courtesy title, the father's second title, while younger sons of the two highest degrees are styled lords. Thus, *Viscount Cranborne* is the courtesy title of the eldest son and heir of the present *Marquis of Salisbury* (of the *Cecil* family), while *Lord Robert Cecil* is a younger son of the late Marquis. Such 'lords by courtesy', not by right, may of course like other commoners, be elected to sit in the House of Commons.

Baronets and *knights* do not belong to the nobility. They are addressed in writing as — e. g. — *Sir John Blank, Bar(one)t; Sir William Dash;* in speaking, use only Sir plus Christian name, omitting surname: *Sir John, Sir William.* The rank of a baronet is hereditary, not so that of a knight. The wife of a baronet or a knight is by courtesy styled *Lady So-and-so.*

The *Gentry** is a collective term for untitled persons of 'gentle birth and breeding', that is, well-born and well-bred, or simply well-to-do, people. In a narrower sense, it stands for the landed gentry (country gentlemen or 'squires'), but in a wider sense is extended to include professional men (officers, clergymen, lawyers, &c.) and — successful — artists, as well as the so-called aristocracy of wealth, or the 'upper ten' (thousand), such as the leading

* Baronets and knights are not infrequently included under this vague term.

bankers and City merchants, *not* shopkeepers, the latter not being supposed to belong to the category 'gentleman'.

In writing, place the abbreviation *Esq.* (i. e. esquire) after, not *Mr.* before, the name, or in the case of professional men, address them by professional title:

Thomas Lawson, Esq. — The Rev(erend) Arthur Benson — Col(onel) Percy Redmond — Professor J. Wilson.

XVIII. HEALTH.

Motto: Prevention is better than cure.

Hygiene, or the science and art of preserving health, aims at the prevention rather than the cure of disease. It lays down six golden rules of health, *viz.* that food should be wholesome, air pure, clothing sufficient, cleanliness practised, and exercise and rest taken when needed. To these rules may be added a seventh: that worry and flurry should be avoided.

I. FOOD.

Why We Eat and How to Eat. A distinction is properly made between those who eat in order to live and those who live in order to eat. It is a sad fact that most people who can afford to do so overeat themselves. It is to be hoped that in the course of time eating too much will come to be considered just as disgraceful a habit as drinking too much, so that gluttons will be ranked with drunkards. A good rule in this connection says, "Always rise with an appetite", that is to say, never eat so much that you cannot easily eat more. A second point is to eat slowly so as to get time thoroughly to masticate the food;

otherwise, the stomach will get more work to do than its share, and indigestion will be the consequence.

When to Eat. Food taken at irregular times is much more apt to disagree than if taken at fixed hours. There should be an interval of from four to six hours between meals, as it is most important that a fresh meal should not be taken until the previous meal has been digested.

What to Eat. Meat or Vegetarian Diet? Vegetarians abstain from animal food (flesh, fish, and fowl) and live on vegetable food (grain, fruit, nuts), with or without the addition of eggs, milk, butter, and cheese. As yet, however, most authorities seem to be in favour of a mixed diet, while at the same time recommending a more extensive use of vegetables and fruit.

For *Discussion on Vegetarianism* see *Appendix II.*

II. AIR.

Ventilation. Living in close, stuffy rooms means breathing poisonous air. To those who lead indoor lives the problem of pure air is identical with the problem of ventilation, or how best to renew the air without draughts. The ideal would be to make the air of the room as pure as the open air, since, normally, the foulest outdoor air is better than the purest air indoors.

In an ordinary living-room there are three means of ventilation: the chimney, for letting out the bad air; the windows, for letting in the fresh air; and the door, which however is the least effective ventilator of the three. It is a good saying that 'doors are made to shut and windows to open'.

Respiration. But the purest air may play around us and yet do us little good, if we don't know how to breathe properly. It is with the air of the lungs as with the air in a room: it needs to be changed frequently and thoroughly. We should therefore accustom ourselves to breathe deep so as to fill our lungs with fresh air, and to breathe out so as to get rid of the used-up air. Besides, take care to breathe through your nose, and not through your mouth.

1. Do you lead an indoor or an outdoor life? Are you much in the open air?
2. Do you sleep with your windows open?
3. Do you get out of breath when going upstairs, running, &c.?

Miscellaneous. The air is bad in here — it is not fit for breathing — it is suffocating — and what a nasty smell from the stove! The room needs ventilating (or airing). Do you mind my opening the top window a little? Would you mind closing that window nearest to you? — You should not sit at the open window, there is a bad (decided) draught — Is there a draught where you are sitting? — I caught my last cold (by) sitting in a draught, and I haven't got rid of it yet.

III. CLOTHING.

The purpose of clothes is threefold: from a sanitary point of view, they serve to protect the body from sudden changes of temperature as well as from wet, dirt, and injury; from an æsthetic point of view, they serve (or may serve) as ornament; from a moral point of view, they are worn for the sake of propriety.

What to Wear. Clothing material worn next to the skin should be a bad conductor of heat: it should allow heat to pass but slowly through in either direction. Such material will be cool in summer, keeping out the heat of the sun, and warm in winter, as it does not allow the heat of the body to escape and be lost. What is wanted is isolation of the body, and for that reason wool is best for underwear.

As regards outdoor garments, the overcoat is a sensible article of clothing, more particularly in a variable climate like ours, because in cold weather it can be buttoned up; if warm, it can be left open; if hot, it can be altogether left off. Some people wear a light overcoat in summer, a heavy overcoat (or greatcoat) in winter, and a mackintosh in rainy weather, while others, who want to make themselves hardy, never wear an overcoat in any season or in any kind of weather. — What do you do?

Boots should be water-tight. Remember to change your socks (or stockings) if they feel at all damp.

IV. CLEANLINESS.

"A dirty shirt may hide a pure heart, but it seldom covers a clean skin."

On this important subject we cannot do better than quote a medical authority who writes as follows: "It is unfortunately but too true of the great majority of people ('the great unwashed') that cleanliness decreases as we near the skin. The collar and cuffs are frequently changed, the shirt less often, the (under-)vest more seldom still, and the skin itself only thoroughly washed perhaps once a fortnight, and sometimes not even then."

Every day in winter a shower-bath — cold, cool, or tepid — should be taken, and once a week a hot bath followed by a cold shower-bath. After the bath dry yourself thoroughly with a rough towel, and next rub yourself briskly with your hands all over (the body) till you feel quite warm and comfortable. In summer, you should make it a rule, if at all possible, to have your daily bathe in the open sea. Swimming is one of the best exercises; however, be careful not to stay too long in the water, or you will come out shivering and blue with cold, or may even get cramp. Never bathe after a full meal. —

In the case of delicate persons, however, the daily bath may not be advisable. 'What is one man's meat is another man's poison'.

1. How often do you take a bath in winter? Do you take it at home or at the public baths?
2. Do you bathe in the open sea?
3. Have you been taught, or taught yourself, to swim (on the back, under the water; to dive, tread water, float)?

V. EXERCISE.

Every one should take a certain amount of outdoor exercise every day. Many belonging to the professional and trading classes, who follow sedentary occupations, use none of their muscles sufficiently, while many workingmen use some of them to excess and others insufficiently. [Compare clerks, shop-assistants, sempstresses, smiths.]

Motto: All work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.

An important point in all exercise is that to be useful it should be pleasant. Training of the body should go

hand in hand with mental recreation. A mere constitutional* taken in the same spirit as a dose of medicine does little good. Undertaken in the proper spirit — briskly and energetically — walking may be considered one of the best all-round exercises. Cycling is good enough in its way but offers only a one-sided training and is apt to be overdone. Lawn-tennis — the finest game for girls — cricket, football, golf, rowing, skating, tobogganing**, mountaineering, &c. make capital exercise, but should not be practised by those of weak constitutions; even for the strong and healthy such games and sports are not without risks and dangers, and, pursued in a reckless spirit, may easily cause sprains (of the ankle, the wrist) and strains (of the muscles, e. g. the heart), internal injuries (to the lungs, &c.), arising from over-exertion, and even result in accidents to life and limb.

Sports. Games. Athletics. In its wider sense, 'sport' is often used to designate outdoor games; in a narrower sense, it is frequently restricted to signify 'field sports', i.e. shooting (e.g. grouse, partridges, pheasants), hunting***, and fishing (e. g. trout, salmon), while by a 'sportsman' is almost exclusively understood one who goes in for field sports. Sport may thus be pursued singly as well as in company; it may be competitive or non-competitive. 'Games' presuppose company and (friendly) competition. Common to both sport and games is the idea of play as opposed to work.

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* i. e. a walk taken for one's health.

** i. e. sliding down snow-covered slopes on a 'toboggan', a Canadian word for a sledge.

*** In preference used about the chasing of foxes with hounds.

Note. Any element of competition (or rivalry) which may enter should never cease to be marked by the utmost goodfellowship as well as by a strong sense of fair play. No betting should ever be tolerated among gentlemen on the result of any game.

By 'athletics' may be understood any kind of regular physical training; in a narrower sense, athletics generally stands for running, leaping, wrestling, and boxing ('the noble art of self-defence').

Conversation.

1. Distinguish between sport, games, and athletics, giving instances of each.
2. Are you keen on outdoor games, or do you prefer a sedentary (indoor) life?
3. What game (or games) are you going in for this year?
4. What games (and sport) have you gone in for in your time?
5. Which of them do you consider the best all-round game?

Compare your favourite game (sport) with some other games, and point out advantages and disadvantages respectively as to nature of physical training, risks to be run, cost.

VI. REST.

Eight hours' work and eight hours' play,
Eight hours' sleep and eight shillings a day.

The sixth rule of hygiene concerns Rest. The most satisfactory form of rest is sleep. The amount of sleep needed varies with the season of the year, more sleep being required in winter than in summer, as well as with the individual, according to age, habits, and work. The average man requires from six to eight hours' sleep, old people less, and children more. Nothing ensures sleep better than hard bodily work in the open (air); indeed, in most cases, the manual worker will enjoy far sounder sleep than the brain-worker.

Another way of resting the brain is by change of occupation. Thus, physical exercise — whether in the shape of gymnastics, games, walking, gardening, or what not — is beneficial between lessons at school, or after sedentary work in an office and the like.

Conversation.

Sleep I. 1. Are you in the habit of sitting up late (at night), or do you generally go early to bed? What do you call early (late)?

2. Do you fall asleep quickly, or do you suffer from sleeplessness (insomnia), often lying awake and tossing about for hours?

3. Would you call yourself a sound (poor — light, heavy) sleeper?

4. Are you ever troubled with bad dreams? Do you ever remember your dreams in the morning? Do you think you dream every night? Do you believe in dreams?

5. Do you ever talk or walk in your sleep? Do you know of any sleep-walkers among your acquaintances?

6. Do you snore? (How do you know?) What do you think of snoring?

Sleep II. 1. How many hours on an average do you sleep during the night? Do you ever sleep in the day-

time, e. g. take an after-dinner nap? Do you think you get enough sleep?

2. Do you ever oversleep yourself (or sleep too long)?

3. Can you get up without being called, or are you called by the servant, or awakened by an alarm-clock (or alarum)?

4. Are you an early (late) riser? Do you get up at the same time on holidays as on weekdays?

5. Do you feel sleepy, tired, and cross in the morning, or are you at once wide awake, bright and fresh, and sociable?

XIX. INDOOR GAMES.

Games are either open-air (or outdoor) games, e. g. cricket, football, or indoor games, e. g. cards, chess. The latter may be further divided into games of skill, such as chess, draughts, billiards, and games of chance, such as dice, dominoes, cards.

[Give reasons for such distinctions].

Cards. A complete pack of cards — as used for instance at whist — consists of fifty-two cards, divided equally into four suits.

Note. The ace (the two, the three, etc.) of Hearts, the King of Diamonds, the Queen of Spades, the Knave (or Jack) of Clubs.

At the beginning of a game of cards (e. g. whist*) those who have arranged to take a hand cut for partners; if the card-party consists of only three, one of them will

* "Play the game fairly, keep your temper, and don't talk."

have to play dummy. The cards are then shuffled and dealt. — (Who deals? — There is a misdeal.) —

If the players do not like to play high, the stake may be fixed at a halfpenny (or a farthing) a point, or they may play simply for love (of the game). — Persons who are in the habit of playing for high stakes are known as gamblers, and if they make their living by it, as professional gamblers. A place of gambling (or gaming) is called a gambling-house (or gambling-den).

Fair play is a matter of course between gentlemen, while cheating is the practice of card-sharpers.

Note. What are trumps? — Who leads? — to have a bad hand (i. e. bad cards) — You must follow suit — to keep (break) the rules of the game — to win (lose) the rubber — Lucky at cards, unlucky in love.

Conversation.

I. *Players. [Questions to be put by non-players].*

1. Do you play (at) cards? — e. g. bridge, whist; ombre (seldom played in England).

2. Have you a fixed night once a week for playing cards?

3. What are your motives for playing? Do you play from interest in the game? or because you think card-playing a particularly easy way of killing time? or in order to win money?

4. Do you think it gentlemanly to play for the sake of profit?

5. What is the usual stake when you play?

6. Do you regard money lost at cards as a debt of honour to be paid before all other debts (e. g. your tailor's bill)?

7. Do you look upon cheating at cards as more or less dishonourable than other forms of cheating?

Non-Players. State reasons for being a non-player.

1. Does playing (at) cards bore you?

2. Do you object on principle to all such pastimes in general and to cards in particular? Do you look upon them as mere waste of time and social opportunities which might be better employed (e. g. in conversation, music)?

3. Do you condemn card-playing as particularly open to abuses, such as late hours, high play, unhealthy excitement, quarrelling?

4. Would you make an exception in favour of — say — chess? If so, is it because you consider chess a harmless recreation, or even a means of improving one's mind?

5. Doesn't it take long to become a good chess-player? Can you afford to spend the time and energy required, or do you think you could put them to a better use?

6. Do you accept the saying — 'Life is too short for chess' —?

XX. THE PRESS.

The word 'press', as used here, is an abbreviation of 'printing-press'; further, it stands for 'printed literature', more especially as applied to the 'literature of newspapers' (thus, the Daily Press).

Many of the most widely circulated newspapers, or journals, are issued as daily papers. They are published by a publisher or publishing firm, and edited by one or more editors, assisted by sub-editors and others 'on the staff of the paper'. Professional writers for journals are known as journalists, or 'Gentlemen of the Press' (con-

temptuously 'penny-a-liners'). There are not a few women journalists. Besides the proper journalists, such as (special, war) correspondents, reviewers (of books), reporters (of interviews, accidents, &c.), there are shorthand-writers, proof-readers, printers, printer's devils (i. e. errand-boys), compositors (or type-setters), &c., &c.

The reading public may take in a paper as regular subscribers to it, or buy single copies (or numbers) from day to day at a news-agent's or from a newsboy in the street *(English fashion).* Most English newspapers cost from 1 d. upwards per copy.

There are about five hundred periodicals published in London: morning and evening dailies, some appearing in several editions (extra, special); they do not come out on Sundays; — special Sunday papers, which do not appear on weekdays; — illustrated weeklies; — fortnightly, monthly, and quarterly reviews and magazines. Fleet Street is the head-quarters of London journalism, most of the great dailies being published in (or near) that street.

We distinguish between political party-papers, religious, sporting, comic, and technical papers.

English papers, as a rule, are printed in small type. They vary considerably as to size and number of pages. Each page is divided into columns. In the big newspapers the leader (or leading article) is often placed in the middle of the paper under the list of contents. Some papers prefix a short summary of news contained in the day's number on the front page. The regular matter is presented under certain headings, such as Foreign News, received from special correspondents, or through the great telegraphic news-agencies, e. g. Reuter; — City News, or Finance; — Official Announcements, such as appoint-

ments and promotions in the Church, the Civil Service, the Army, and the Navy; — Literary Reviews; — Theatrical Gossip; — Sporting Intelligence, which takes up a large part of most papers; — Weather Forecast, &c., &c. Articles are either anonymous or — less frequently — signed.

Advertisements may be found arranged under such headings as Births, Deaths, Marriages; Flats and Apartments to Let; Situations Vacant; Domestic Servants Wanted; Articles for Sale; Miscellaneous; Amusements, &c., &c.

Note. The 'Yellow Press' is a collective name for those sensational papers which make it their aim to stir up excitement in the public, at whatever cost to truth and decency, by means of fictitious or scandalous news, libels on private and public persons, and the like. A *libel* — originally meaning a booklet — may be defined as anything published in print or in writing, or by illustration, for the purpose of maliciously holding a person or an institution up to hatred, contempt, or ridicule. A libel may therefore be contained in a picture, e. g. a caricature, as well as in a book, pamphlet, newspaper, or letter. Persons libelled may bring an action for libel against the libeller. Further, publications of an indecent, blasphemous, or seditious character, directed against public morality, religion, or the constitution and government of the country, may come under the Law of Libel, which in England is rather strict. — It may be said about British pressmen that on the whole they respect public morality and the sanctity of private life, more at any rate than do many of their continental and American colleagues.

Conversation.

1. What is your favourite paper? What daily do you take in at home?
2. Is it a morning paper? Does it appear in several editions? Does it come out on Sundays? — Compare English with continental dailies.
3. As to the political colour of your paper: Is it a conservative (liberal, radical, socialist) paper? a government or an opposition paper? Perhaps it is a non-political paper? — Mention some of the leading political papers.
4. Is it a well-informed paper, i. e. reliable and containing the latest news?
5. As to circulation: Which paper is the most widely circulated (or read)?
6. If you had to give an opinion on the general tone of our press, would you call it good or bad? Does public debate turn on actualities rather than on personalities? Is the sanctity of private life respected? Is a fair hearing given to all sides?

Publication of Books. A book is rarely published at the expense of the author, but the copyright is made over to a publisher, who causes the book to be printed at a printer's and bound at a bookbinder's in one or more volumes; the great publishing firms generally have their own printing-offices. Further, the copies are distributed among booksellers for sale, and at the same time usually advertised in the newspapers. A good sort of advertisement is a favourable review by some well-known reviewer or critic in one of the leading papers or reviews. If the book sells well, it will soon be out

of print, or sold out, when it may be reissued, either unaltered in reprints, or in revised and enlarged editions.

XXI. MUSIC.

"Music has charms to soothe the savage breast,
To soften rocks, or bend a knotted oak."
(Congreve, † 1729).

"The man that hath no music in himself,
Nor is not mov'd with concord of sweet sounds,
Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils —
— — — — — — — — — — — — —
Let no such man be trusted."
(Shakespeare: Merchant of Venice).

General Questions.

1. Are you musical? i.e. Have you an ear for music, and are you fond of music?

2. Do you prefer vocal music (or singing) to instrumental music? Do you sing yourself? Have you a good voice — a bass, baritone, tenor; contralto, mezzo-soprano, soprano —? Are you a member of any choral (or any orchestral) society?

3. Do you often go to concerts, operas, etc.?

4. Who are your favourite composers? Mention some famous singers. — What is the English National Anthem? — Name some other popular songs.

Special Questions [to be put by those who do not play themselves].

1. What (musical) instrument(s) do you play (on)? [e.g. to play the piano, violin, violoncello or cello, guitar, banjo (all 'stringed' instruments) — the flute, clarinet, horn, trumpet ('wind' instruments, either of wood or of brass).*]

2. When did you begin to play the —?

3. Do you take music lessons? Do you practise every day so as to keep it up, or are you (badly) out of practice?

4. Do you know many pieces by heart? Are you able to play at sight? Can you play by ear?

5. Can you play accompaniments?

6. Do you feel nervous about playing before strangers? Do you need pressing when asked to play?

Miscellaneous. To read music (i.e. notes) — music and words — to buy some music — a band (of musicians) — an orchestra — a concert-hall**. — Distinguish between a 'tone' (i.e. a musical sound) and a 'tune' (i.e. a melody, or melodious series of tones). — to tune an instrument — to sing in tune, out of tune — not to be in (good) voice.

Playing duets is excellent practice for making beginners keep time.

XXII. RELIGION.

I. THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

The Church of England together with the Lutheran and Reformed Churches form the three principal Protestant Churches. It is also known as the Episcopal Church,

* The bagpipe is a (leathern) wind instrument peculiar to the Scottish Highlander.

** Music-halls, or 'Theatres of Varieties', are places of entertainment where the public are treated to singing, step-dancing, acrobatic feats, &c.

being governed by bishops, and as the Established Church, being established, or fixed, by Act of Parliament. The Church of England is a national institution, or a state church, in so far as (1) it has at its head the Sovereign, who claims the title of Defender of the Faith and Supreme Governor of the Church; (2) is directly represented in the House of Lords by a number of the bishops, the so-called Lords Spiritual; (3) is legislated for by the representatives of the people in the House of Commons. Numerically, too, it is by far the largest religious body in Great Britain. The Church, however, is not supported by money voted by Parliament, as are the Civil Service and the Army and Navy, but is dependent on endowments given in the course of time by private individuals.

The Thirty-Nine Articles (of Religion), drawn up in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, contain 'the true doctrine of the Church of England'. Subscription to these, as also to the authorized book of divine service, the so-called Book of Common Prayer, is compulsory on all the clergy. The principal contents of the articles are a declaration of faith in

the Holy Trinity, the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost — the Son of God, who was made very Man, was crucified, dead, and buried — the going down of Christ into Hell, and His Resurrection — obedience to the Ten Commandments — Original Sin — Predestination — two Sacraments ordained in the Gospel: Baptism and the Lord's Supper.

The Clergy. At the head of the clergy there are the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Archbishop of York. The jurisdiction of a bishop is called a diocese; the bishop

is assisted by archdeacons in the supervision of the clergy. The head church of each diocese is the cathedral, in connection with which there is a 'dean and chapter', i. e. a council of clergymen, called canons, whose president is the dean. The diocese is subdivided into parishes under rectors and vicars, who may engage curates as assistants in their work. When a layman takes Holy Orders he is first ordained a deacon; at the end of a year he is admitted to priest's* orders.

Clergymen of the Church of England do not serve on juries, nor do they sit in the House of Commons.

Churches. The two principal London churches are Westminster Abbey, close to the Houses of Parliament, and St. Paul's Cathedral, in the very heart of the City.

In Westminster Abbey (mainly Gothic style) the English sovereigns are crowned; besides, it serves as the last resting-place of many of the greatest English men and women: warriors, statesmen, men of science, artists, and poets. For the latter is reserved the so-called Poets' Corner.

St. Paul's, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren after the Great Fire (1666), is a remarkably fine specimen of Renaissance architecture. From the top of its magnificent dome there is, in clear weather, a splendid view of the town. Inside the dome there is the famous Whispering Gallery.

II. NONCONFORMITY.

Nonconformists, or Dissenters, are all those (Protestant) sectarians who refuse to 'conform' to, or who 'dissent'

* In most other connections 'priest' denotes a member of the Roman Catholic clergy.

from, the doctrines of the Established Church. Their pastors are known as ministers, and their places of worship as chapels. Accordingly, a distinction is commonly made between those who 'go to chapel' (dissenters) and those who 'go to church' (i. e. belong to the Church of England).

Most important among the numerous sects, or Free Churches as they like to call themselves, are (1) the Methodists or Wesleyans, so called after the founder, the Rev. John Wesley; (2) the Congregationalists, the successors of the old Independents of Cromwell's time; (3) the Baptists, who reject infant baptism and claim adult baptism; (4) the Society of Friends, popularly called the Quakers, who object to war and the taking of oaths; (5) the Salvation Army, founded and organized by 'General' Booth on a semi-military footing; its principal object is to reach the masses.

In **Scotland** we find the Presbyterian Churches (or 'Kirks'), ruled by ministers and elders (or presbyters).

In **Ireland** the great majority profess the Roman Catholic religion.

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1. What religion do(es) the majority of our countrymen belong to?
2. Is there a state church in this country? If so, compare our state church with the English Established Church.
3. What are the most important sects?
4. As to religious liberty: Are all religions tolerated?

XXIII. DRINK.

We drink to quench our thirst. Animals are content with water, but man must needs improve on nature. The artificial drinks most in use are tea, coffee, cocoa, and alcoholic beverages (or drinks).

Alcohol is present in all distilled liquors, or spirits, such as brandy, rum, gin, whisky (made in distilleries); in malt liquors, or beer, such as ale, porter, stout (made in breweries); and in wines (grown in vineyards and sold by wine-merchants).

Alcoholic drinks are publicly retailed at licensed* hotels and inns, restaurants and coffee-houses, public-houses, or 'pubs', and (saloon-)bars.

Intemperance signifies want of moderation, more particularly as applied to over-indulgence in alcoholic drinks; it often results in drunkenness, which means the state of being drunk as well as the habit of drinking to excess. A person who suffers from that vice is said to have 'taken to drink', or be (much) 'given to drink', or in one word, to be a drunkard.

Distinguish between habitual drunkards, intermittent drunkards, and occasional drunkards.

Note. A 'drunken' (tipsy, intoxicated) man is a man who has 'drunk' too much, or has got 'drunk'. — He is dead drunk. — He will drink himself to death.

The Temperance Movement. A moderate drinker will always keep sober. Those who have 'taken the pledge',

* For unlicensed hotels see Hotels, p. 53.

or bound themselves to total abstinence from alcoholic drinks (unless medically prescribed), are known as total abstainers, or teetotalers, and the movement as teetotalism. Some temperance societies pledge their members only to moderation in the use of alcohol, while others insist on total abstinence.

At the numerous temperance hotels no intoxicating liquors are supplied.

Conversation.

1. What do you drink (or take) with your food? [For breakfast I take . . . .].
2. What is the national drink of this country? Is the nation's Drink Bill a heavy one?
3. Compare the stimulants most in use here with those most in use in other countries, e.g. Russia, China.
4. Why do people drink too much?

   Some do it when they are overtired, on the ground that 'the machine must be kept going' — Others to drown worry and grief — Others again because they feel dull and want rousing, or out of sheer idleness, being unable to think of anything better to do — Many are led away by bad example, fashion, or a desire to appear manly (!)
5. What are the effects of the drink habit?

   Habitual drinking implies want of self-control and a consequent loss of self-respect. It lessens efficiency in work, ruins family life, and invariably undermines the health and shortens the life of its victim. There is an intimate connection between drink on the one side, and poverty, vice, crime, disease, and death on the other side.

6. Do people drink because they are poor, or are they poor because they drink?

For *Discussion on Total Abstinence* see *Appendix II (3).*

XXIV. THE ARMY AND NAVY.

Military Systems. In some form or other all the continental states of Europe had up to the time of the Great War (1914—18) adopted the system of universal military service, characterized as it is by conscription (or compulsory enlistment), short service in the regular army (or navy), and a long period in the reserves. Only Great Britain and, outside Europe, the United States of America followed the system of voluntary enlistment.

It was greatly owing to its insular position that Great Britain had not so far had the same need of a large standing army as the other great powers of Europe. The existing army must still be recognized every year by Act of Parliament, or it would cease to exist. Moreover, all the money for the military and naval services (the Army and Navy Estimates) has to be voted by the House of Commons every year, which places the complete control of both in the hands of the representatives of the people. It is indeed one of the prerogatives of the Crown to declare war, but no war could be carried on except by moneys voted by the House of Commons.

THE NAVY.

Motto: Rule Britannia! Britannia rule the waves!

Precedence of the Navy. Although it is usual to speak of the 'Army and Navy', the latter ranks first of

the two, so that naval officers take precedence of their military colleagues, the Navy being in fact the senior service and looked upon as the first line of defence, that is to say, the Navy would be expected to strike the first blow in case of a threatened invasion. It is indeed the opinion of many (the so-called 'Blue-Water School') that "if the Navy were beaten, nothing could save Britain". Hence the necessity for keeping the Navy up to at least the 'Two-Power Standard', i. e. to make the British Navy as powerful as any two other navies in the world combined. The consequent enormous naval expenditure has come to be looked upon as a kind of national insurance premium.

The principal **Objects of the Navy** are (1) to protect the Mother Country and the Colonies against an invasion by sea; (2) to 'police' the trade routes, so as to guard the lines of communication between the different parts of the Empire and thus protect British commerce. The latter object is all the more important as, in the first place, Great Britain cannot by far feed herself, but is dependent for the greater part of her food supplies (corn, meat, dairy produce, &c.) on her oversea commerce; secondly, some of the most important branches of British industry, such as the cotton and the wool manufactures, would soon altogether cease to exist but for the constant importation from abroad of the raw materials.

These are purposes of defence; however, in case of war, Great Britain would certainly not be content to stand on the defensive, but would rather, if possible, be the first to act on the offensive. The efforts of her Navy — in most cases her principal weapon of offence — would then be directed towards destroying or capturing the enemy's

navy and mercantile marine, blockading their ports, protecting the landing of troops, &c.

Administration. In contrast to the Army, the Navy is recognized as a permanent institution. The administrative and supreme executive body of the Royal Navy (R. N.) is the Board of Admiralty, made up of six Lords of the Admiralty, of whom the First Lord is a member of the Cabinet and responsible to Parliament for the policy of the Board.

The Navy is divided into a number of fleets, or squadrons, the most important being the Home, Channel, Atlantic, and Mediterranean fleets. Such a squadron is made up of battleships, armoured (protected) cruisers, (torpedo-boat) destroyers, torpedo-boats, submarines. The ships are manned by (commissioned) officers, non-commissioned (or petty) officers, and the crew (the common sailors, men, blue-jackets).

THE ARMY.

Administration and Organization. Corresponding to the Board of Admiralty, there is an Army Council, presided over by the Secretary (of State) for War, who acts as its responsible spokesman in Parliament.

A Field Army is an army engaged in a campaign. It consists of cavalry, infantry, artillery, engineers — the Four Services or Arms — besides the commissariat and medical corps: the whole under the command of one man (commander-in-chief), who feeds, transports, and manoeuvres his troops.

The principal **Objects of the Army** are (1) to act as a second line of defence in case of an invasion; (2) to guard the frontier of India; (3) to garrison the fortified places (fortresses, coaling stations, &c.), and generally to 'police' the Empire; (4) to form a mobile expeditionary force for oversea service in case of revolts or other dangers threatening any part of the British dominions.

Conversation.

1. What military systems do you know of?
2. Which system has been adopted in this country?
3. Characterize the system. Are all able-bodied men liable to serve? At what age? Can a respite be claimed? Are there no exemptions — e.g. by purchase, 'drawing a high number', finding a substitute, being the only son of a widow —?
4. Have the recruits to live in barracks? — What is the pay?
5. Is there a general time of service, or does it vary according to the different arms (or services)?
6. Would you rather serve in the Navy (in the marines)*, or in the Army (as a cavalry-man, an artillery-man, an engineer, a guardsman, or in the infantry, the commissariat)?
7. Have you any reasons for thinking you will be rejected (as unfit for military service), e.g. owing to defective eyesight or hearing, a weak heart, flat-foot, or other physical disqualifications?

* A 'marine' is a naval soldier; not to be confounded with 'mariner', poetically used for sailor (or seaman).

8. Have those who have been rejected to pay an extra tax by way of compensation? If not, do you think they ought to?

For *Discussion on Conscription* see *Appendix II (4).*

XXV. ART. I.

In a narrow sense the words 'art' and 'artists' are in preference used about painting and painters. The working-room of a painter is called a studio.

1. Are you interested in painting? Do you think yourself a judge of pictures? Would you even go so far as to call yourself a connoisseur?
2. Can you draw? Were (are) you taught drawing at school? You may even be an artist, if only an amateur?
3. Are you a collector of pictures? Have you (or your parents) got some fine pictures at home (water-colours, oil-paintings, engravings, pen-and-ink sketches, &c.)?
4. Do you prefer portraits to landscapes, historical to genre paintings*?
5. Who are your favourite painters? Could you mention some famous English masters and master-pieces?

ART. II.

1. Are there any valuable collections (of art) here which one might recommend to a lover of art?
2. Are they open free, or what have you to pay for admission?

* Genre paintings depict scenes of ordinary life.

3. Do you often go to picture-galleries, to winter (or summer) exhibitions?

4. What is your general impression of the last exhibition? Was it above or below the average? Often, you know, there is a lot of rubbish exhibited.

5. Was there any picture which struck you as particularly interesting? What does it represent? Is the colour fine? By whom is it painted?

6. Would you recommend us to go to the exhibition? Do you think it worth your while to go there a second time?

XXVI. CALLINGS.

In these days of division of labour and specialization of skill there is an ever increasing number and variety of occupations by which to make a living (or gain one's bread); at the same time, there is an ever increasing number of candidates for those occupations, and consequently an ever keener competition, in which 'the weakest go to the wall'. Success in the struggle for existence is dependent on the innate qualities of the candidate, which are a matter of heredity, and on the kind of general education and special training he has had the benefit of, which again is largely a matter of *£. s. d.*

Callings may be classed under professions, arts, and trades.

(1) PROFESSIONS.

The professions include clergymen, lawyers, medical men, teachers, journalists, architects, engineers, and the

officers and (higher) officials engaged in the military, naval, and civil services.

The Church (or the clerical profession). For those who want to enter the Church, university training and a degree (bachelor, master, or doctor) are not indispensable, although of great advantage. A layman who takes Holy Orders is first ordained a deacon, the other steps on the ecclesiastical ladder being those of curate, vicar, rector, archdeacon, dean, bishop, and archbishop; besides, there are army and navy chaplains and chaplains to the King. (See chapter on *Religion*).

The Law (or the legal profession). Lawyers include barristers and solicitors. The training of a law student is expensive, the works to be mastered voluminous and dry, calling for great perseverance and a good memory; the examinations to be passed are pretty stiff. In order to get on in this profession influential connections are particularly desirable, the more so, as it is at present greatly overcrowded.

Those who have been 'called to the Bar', or become barristers, are admitted to plead in the higher law courts, while solicitors may only plead in the lower courts. Etiquette debars barristers from doing business direct with their clients; they have to wait for briefs from a solicitor, a 'brief' being a 'short' statement (or summary) of the case, drawn up by the solicitor for the instruction of counsel (or the barristers). A briefless barrister accordingly means a barrister without any practice (or cases to conduct). The social standing of barristers, from among whom the judges are taken, is higher than that of solicitors, although the work of the latter is frequently more profitable.

Medicine (or the medical profession). A distinct liking for the work, a strong constitution, and some capital for buying a practice or a partnership are among the chief qualifications needed by the medical student. Medical men or 'doctors' include (1) physicians (who prescribe remedies; often high-class specialists, e.g. oculists, throat specialists), (2) surgeons (who perform operations, e.g. amputations) — also the official name of army and navy doctors — (3) general practitioners (who combine the activities of both physician and surgeon), (4) dentists, and (5) veterinary surgeons ('vets').

Teaching. The short hours (of work) and the long vacations are generally pointed to by outsiders as the great advantages of the teaching (or scholastic) profession. The short hours, as a rule, exist only in the public service (i.e. municipal service, there being no real state schools in England); moreover, there will generally be much preparation and correcting (of exercises) to be gone through out of school-hours. The few successful teachers are overworked, the rest underpaid. Headmasterships are few and far between.

Journalism (see chapter on *The Press*).

Architects. Among the many qualifications required in this profession a special aptitude for drawing is indispensable; so too is travelling at home and abroad for the purpose of studying the different styles of architecture. Many posts are open to the architect in the municipal service.

Engineering. This profession includes mechanical engineers (who design machinery), civil engineers (who

construct tunnels, bridges, &c.), and electrical engineers. Those who want a scientific and technical training generally study at a university or a technical school, besides serving an apprenticeship in a workshop. The demand for good engineers is constantly growing, and the whole world may be said to be open to them.

The Army and Navy (or the profession of arms). The standard of physical qualifications (as to chest measurement, height, eyesight, hearing) is particularly high. The occupation itself is healthy; it offers opportunities for seeing the world; there is the certainty of a pension.

The degrees of rank are (1) in the Army: cadet, second lieutenant, lieutenant, captain, major, lieutenant-colonel, colonel, major-general, lieutenant-general, general, field-marshal; (2) in the Navy: naval cadet, midshipman, sub-lieutenant, lieutenant, commander, captain, commodore, rear-admiral, vice-admiral, admiral, admiral of the fleet.

The Civil Service comprises all officials employed in the various government departments, such as the Home Office, the Foreign Office, the War Office, the Admiralty, the Customs, the Post Office. The civil servant should possess an aptitude for clerical work, be methodical, careful, and exact in small matters. A head for figures and statistics is particularly desirable.

Appointments are made subject to open competitive examinations of varying difficulty. Promotion to the higher grades depends on seniority, merit, and the occurrence of vacancies. Interest, however, exerted by willing and influential friends, may prove no less useful here than elsewhere. The work (or duties) may in some divisions be somewhat monotonous, not to say dull, but is rarely

overwhelming. The hours are short. Commencing salaries are indeed small but increase regularly; besides, sick pay is allowed, and there is the certainty of a pension on retiring. Dismissal need not be feared except in cases of gross misconduct and incapacity. — Civil servants cannot be elected for Parliament.

(2) ART.

Art includes music, the dramatic art, and the so-called 'fine arts': painting, sculpture, engraving, and architecture. Marked aptitude, or talent, for the work, dogged perseverance, and a strong belief in oneself, are the conditions of success in the artistic world.

Note. The term 'artist' is in preference used about sculptors and painters, more particularly the latter. By 'artiste' is commonly understood one who performs at music-halls.

All those who, having gone through a regular training, make their living by any art or profession are known as 'professional men' as distinguished from those engaged in trades (see chapter on *Trades*). By 'professionals' is understood those who make their living by arts and sports in which non-professionals, or amateurs, are accustomed to engage.

Conversation. The Choice of a Career.

Motto: "Every man can do his best thing easiest."

Introduction. The importance of the subject is obvious, seeing that every one — unless he be a 'gentleman of independent means' — will have to make a choice which

will decide the whole course of his life; moreover, it is a subject on which any one may at some time or other have to advise those nearest and dearest to him.

State what you intend to go in for, the qualifications required, and the reasons for your choice.

I. What are you going to be when you grow up? Are you thinking of going in for business or for any of the professions (law, medicine, teaching, &c.)?

Characterize the work: whether it be healthy or unhealthy; comparatively safe or attended with risks; indoor or outdoor work; a sedentary occupation; manual labour or brain work.

II. Qualifications. (1) Time and Cost of Preparation. How long does it take to qualify oneself for the work? Is the training considered expensive or inexpensive?

(2) Constitution. Is a particularly strong physique needed? Would bodily infirmities, such as short-sightedness, colour-blindness, a weak heart, count as disqualifications?

Draw comparisons with other occupations and point out differences.

III. Reasons for Choice. (1) Inclination and Talent. Is your choice due to genuine inclination for the work, a natural aptitude for it, or to any tempting prospects it may offer? or have you no better reason than 'a fellow has got to be something, you know'?

(2) Prospects. What are the prospects with regard to income, promotion, pension?

(3) Competition. Is the profession or trade in question already overcrowded? Is it open to free competition, or does success depend upon influential connections, money interests, &c.? Have you any one to back you up?

XXVII. TRADES.

The word 'trade' is allied to the verb to 'tread', and originally meant a path or walk; next, figuratively, a walk of life, i.e. a livelihood or regular employment, more particularly, a mercantile, mechanical, or industrial employment as distinguished from an art or a profession. Thus, to be in trade (i.e. in business); to apprentice a boy to a painter's trade* (i.e. a handicraft); the textile trades (i.e. the cotton, wool, and linen industries).

Tradesmen, or tradespeople, may be merely shopkeepers, such as drapers, stationers, tobacconists; or at the same time shopkeepers and mechanics (artisans), such as bootmakers, tailors, joiners, who keep both shop and workshop.

(1) BUSINESS.

Wholesale and Retail. Business-men are either wholesale dealers (merchants) or retailers, e.g. grocers, greengrocers.

Partnership. Two or more persons who jointly establish a firm are said to enter into partnership, e.g. the firm of *Smith Bros. & Co.* The partners are known as the heads, chiefs, principals, or employers, and those in their employ(ment) as employees. The latter may be employed (or engaged) in the office, the warehouse, or the shop.

To the office-staff belong messengers, office-boys, junior and senior clerks, including book-keepers, correspondents, (head-)cashiers, under the superintendence of one or more managers. In addition, most firms employ agents and (commercial) travellers, who act as their representatives.

* A 'Jack of all trades, and master of none' is a person who can do a hundred and one things, but none of them well.

Those employed in warehouses are warehouse-clerks and warehouse-men.

The shopkeeper, or shopman, has under him shop-assistants (shop-girls) to serve the customers.

Joint-Stock Companies. Big undertakings, such as (private) railways, steamship lines, banking and insurance businesses, are as a rule started as, or in the course of time converted into, joint-stock companies. The stock, or capital, is subscribed in shares, transferable by their owners, the so-called shareholders, of whom there must be at least seven. Most of these companies are 'limited' liability companies, indicated by 'Ltd.' at the end of the name, and signifying that each individual shareholder is only 'liable' (i.e. responsible) for his amount of shares subscribed for. The general administration is entrusted to a board of directors with a 'chairman of directors' as its president; the 'managing director' conducts the business of the company from day to day. In the ordinary course a general meeting of shareholders is held once a year.

Applications.*

I. *Introduction.* 1. Having heard that there will shortly be a vacancy in your office —

2. Referring to (In reply to) your advertisement for a clerk in to-day's Daily Telegraph —

I beg respectfully to apply for the situation (to offer my services).

II. *Age.* I am.....years old (of age).

III. *Present and Former Situations.* 1. I served my

* 'Applications' and the two following conversations are specially designed for commercial schools.

apprenticeship with Messrs.... of this town (city), and have now been in the office of Mr.... for the last... years.

2. I am now engaged in book-keeping (general office-work, English correspondence).

3. I was last employed with the .... Company, and have thus gained some experience in your line of business (am thoroughly acquainted with everything connected with the cotton trade).

4. I am at present disengaged.

IV. *Reasons for Leaving.* 1. I am now leaving owing to the discontinuance of the business (reduction of the staff).

2. My reason for leaving is that I should like to improve my situation but see no chance of advancement in my present employment.

3. I am leaving of my own free will as I am desirous of gaining some experience of business in other countries.

V. *Qualifications.* 1. I have passed the Preliminary (Intermediate, Final) Examination.

2. I have acquired a thorough knowledge of commercial correspondence in English....

3. I speak and write English....fairly fluently.

4. I am able to write shorthand at the rate of .... words per minute and to work the (Remington, Smith Premier, &c.) typewriter at....words a minute.

VI. *References.* 1. I shall be pleased to refer you to my present employer(s) for any information you may desire as to my character (conduct) and ability (capacity).

2. I beg to enclose copies of testimonials as well as a copy of my examination certificate.

VII. *Terms.* 1. I am willing to serve on trial for some months at a small salary.

2. I should expect a salary of not less than £ .... per ann(um).

VIII. *Close.* 1. Soliciting an interview, 2. Hoping to be favoured with a reply,

I remain,

Sir, (Sirs, Gentlemen,)

Yours most respectfully,

N.

Conversation. I.

1. How long have you been in business (in trade)?
2. In what line of business are you engaged?

[To be in the hardware (drapery, grocery, stationery, corn, shipping) line, in a bank, an insurance-office, &c.]

3. Is this your first engagement (situation)? If not, state where last employed and reasons for leaving.
4. Are you employed in an office (shop, a warehouse)?
5. What are the hours? Is there any interval for lunch? Do you close at the same time all the year round? Is overtime paid extra?
6. What are the duties? [e.g. in an office: to copy and despatch letters, address and stamp envelopes, attend to the telephone, run errands, keep the books (double entry), carry on the correspondence, cast up the accounts.]
7. What holidays do you get during the year? [e.g. a fortnight's summer holiday] — Do you ever get a day off?
8. Are you satisfied with the terms (as to duties, hours, holidays, salary)?
9. Do you shortly expect a rise (or increase of salary)?

If not, would it be any use to apply for one, and are you going to?

10. Is it usual with your firm to give their employees Christmas boxes? Do they allow a bonus over and above the regular salary?

11. How do you get on with your employers and colleagues (fellow-clerks)?

Conversation. II. Suppose a friend asked your advice as to the best way of entering your line?

1. How did you set about it yourself? Whom did you apply to? Did you apply in person or by letter?
2. Would you please draft a suitable application?
3. Is there any fixed time of apprenticeship to be served?
4. What would be the hours and the duties?
5. What are the prospects as to commencing salary, rise, and maximum salary?
6. As to chances of promotion: Is promotion slow or rapid in your line? Does it go by seniority, merit, or patronage ('backstairs influence')?
7. Are dismissals frequent or rare? given for trivial reasons, or only in cases of gross misconduct and incapacity?
8. What notice would you be required to give in case of leaving, or could you claim in case of dismissal?
9. Is the demand for clerks greater than the supply, or is the line already overcrowded?
10. What capital would eventually be required to start on one's own account?

(2) MANUFACTURES.

The word 'manufacture' originally signified a 'making by hand' (compare 'manual' labour, 'manu'script); in its

modern meaning it stands for the 'act of making', as well as the 'thing made', by machinery. As instances of manufactures, or manufactured goods, may be mentioned textiles (i. e. woven fabrics of cotton, wool, or linen) and hardware (i. e. articles made of iron and other metals, e. g. knives, kitchen utensils). Industrial work is carried on in (manu)factories, mills, and works, e. g. a boot-factory, a cotton-mill, a paper-mill, an iron-works. The manufacturer engages and dismisses the hands, or operatives (workmen and workwomen), who tend the machines.

Labour and Capital. In cases of dispute between masters and men the former may declare a lock-out, or the latter throw up work (go on strike, or strike, e. g. for higher wages).

A trade-union is a combination of workers within the same trade, organized for the purpose of protecting the interests of its members, the unionists, and generally raising their standard of life, by means of higher wages, shorter hours, and mutual assistance in cases of unemployment, sickness, accident, old age, or death.

To counterbalance trade-unionism temporary or permanent combinations of employers for the protection of the interests of capital are becoming more and more frequent.

Conciliation and Arbitration. In order to avoid stoppages of work with consequent loss of money, hardships, and mutual ill-feeling, an increasing number of trade disputes is being settled by *Boards of Conciliation*, that is, committees composed half of representatives of the men and half of those of the masters, to which disputes are referred. Should the plan of talking over and settling a dispute in such a joint-committee fail, the two parties

may go to *arbitration:* they agree to refer the matter to some impartial person chosen from outside, the 'arbitrator', who hears the evidence on both sides, and then gives his decision. Sometimes he acts alone, at other times both sides choose six or seven men who sit with him and make up a Board of Arbitration. In the latter case the arbitrator acts as chairman and has the casting vote.

XXVIII. THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT.

Co-operation means 'working together' for a common purpose. A co-operative society is a trading association of consumers whose object is to supply members with pure and unadulterated goods at cheap prices. The method employed consists, as far as possible, in dispensing with middlemen (wholesale-dealers and, more particularly, retailers) with a view to saving their profits for the members; secondly, in working on the principle of 'ready money and cheap prices' — the cash system — thus avoiding bad debts, which are inseparable from the credit system. In practice, however, the co-operative stores charge their members the ordinary retail prices, dividing the profits thus made every quarter or half-year.

Rules. There is no limit to membership: any one may join. Each person joining must take up at least a £ 1 share, generally paying one shilling on entrance, and the remainder, if he chooses, out of his dividends (i.e. profits to be 'divided' among the members at so much per pound of purchases). The maximum share of capital which one person can hold by law is limited to £ 200. Non-members may deal at the stores and receive discount as a rule at half the members' rate.

Note. The Army and Navy Co-operative Stores are *not* co-operative in the true sense of the word, the profits being divided, not among the mass of purchasers but among a small body of shareholders. They are based on the above principle of 'ready money and cheap prices', as are various establishments in London, e. g. Whiteley's (the self-styled 'Universal Provider'), and only differ from these in so far that purchasers must be members.

XXIX. TRUSTS.

Monopoly means 'sole' (right or power of) 'selling'. Free competition and monopoly would seem to exclude each other; still one may be the parent of the other. The trust system is a case in point.

A trust is a combination of competing businesses which amalgamate, or combine, in order to cheapen production, stop competition, and thus get the control of certain goods or industries. Gigantic trusts, such as the Standard Oil Company (Rockefeller), the Beef Trust, the Steel Trust, have sprung up in the United States, where the existence of a high tariff (or list of dutiable goods) makes it easier to maintain a trust by handicapping or entirely shutting out foreign competition. Trusts are however finding their way to Europe too, especially to such protectionist countries as Germany and Austria, whereas Free Trade England seems less favourable to the system.

XXX. NATIONAL AND MUNICIPAL SERVICES.

Whether undertakings which tend to become monopolies should be provided 'by the people for the people', or be entrusted to private initiative, is one of the burning questions of the day. According to the champions of public enterprise, undertakings touching national interests should be nationalized, or made state property, e. g. Railways, Post Office, Telegraphs; while those touching local interests should be municipalized, that is, taken over and worked by the municipal, or local, authorities. So far, the principal objects of municipalization have been waterworks, gasworks, electricity works, tramways.

In England, while the Post Office and Telegraphs are state services, Railways have remained private property. Numerous English towns supply municipal water, gas, and electricity, and run their own trams; in others, all this is left to private initiative. In Germany most of these public services have either been municipalized or nationalized, or at any rate placed under very strict control, whereas in the United States public opinion has hitherto decidedly favoured private enterprise.

XXXI. THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

England is a(n) hereditary, constitutional (or limited) monarchy, the power of the sovereign being limited by a constitution. The constitution has not however been adopted as a whole at any given date — as in the case of the United States of America and elsewhere — but is the outcome of a continuous growth throughout the centuries.

We distinguish between: I. Central Government, carried on by (1) The Crown, (2) Parliament, (3) The Government

Departments under the various Ministers of State, (4) The Judiciary — and II. Local Government, carried on by local bodies with powers to deal with local matters only.

I CENTRAL GOVERNMENT.

The supreme legislative (or law-making) authority is the King-in-Parliament, i. e. the King with the House of Lords and the House of Commons.

(1) **The Crown.** The Sovereign is the head of the State and the Supreme Governor of the Church. All legislation has to receive the Royal Assent, which as a matter of fact is never refused. The judges administer justice in the King's name, and the Government is His Majesty's Government. He alone can confer titles and honours, grant pardons to persons convicted of crimes, summon Parliament or dissolve it, declare war or make peace. However, he uses none of these prerogatives (or royal privileges) except under the advice of his ministers, and any order signed by the King must be countersigned by a minister, who thereby becomes responsible for the order — a fact which has given rise to the two sayings: 'The King can do no wrong' and 'The Sovereign reigns but does not rule'.

(2) **Parliament,** in its wider sense, includes the House of Lords and the House of Commons; in a narrower sense, it is commonly used about the latter only, while by a member of Parliament — an 'M. P.' — is exclusively understood a member of the House of Commons.

The House of Lords (or *Peers*), or the Upper House (of Parliament), consists of Lords Spiritual and Lords Temporal, about 600 in number. The Lords Spiritual are the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Archbishop of

York together with most of the bishops of the Church of England. These are only life peers, that is to say, the right to sit in the House does not descend to their heirs. The great majority of the Lords Temporal are hereditary peers. They are of five orders of nobility: baron, viscount, earl, marquis, duke. (See *Peerage* in chapter on *Society*).

The house is presided over by the Lord (High) Chancellor, who takes his seat upon the Woolsack, a large square bag of wool*, without back or arms, covered with red cloth. — [For the judicial functions of the House of Lords as the final Court of Appeal, see under *The Judiciary,* p. 126).

The House of Commons, or the Lower House, although the younger of the two, has in course of time come to be by far the more important. It counts 707 members, elected by constituencies, i. e. bodies of constituents or electors. The maximum length of a parliament is now five years. Members are paid £ 400 a year.

The House is presided over by the 'Speaker', on whose right hand sits the party in power (i. e. the Government party), with the ministers on the front benches; on his left hand, facing the ministers, sit the leaders of 'His Majesty's Loyal Opposition', with their supporters behind them. A member who wishes to make a speech rises and tries to 'catch the Speaker's eye'. He must address all his remarks to 'Mr. Speaker', and refer to members, not by name, but as — e. g. — 'The honourable member for the City of London'. (For further details, see *Appendix I*).

* Wool, be it remembered, was during the Middle Ages England's principal, or 'staple', export; hence the use of the Woolsack to symbolize the wealth of the country.

(3) **Ministers and Government Departments.** The head of the Executive is the Sovereign, who, however, can only act through his responsible ministers. The Prime Minister, or Premier, is chosen by the King from amongst the leaders of the dominant party, the other ministers being chosen by the Premier himself. The most important members of the ministry constitute the Cabinet, a body of some twenty persons. All the ministers must be members of either of the two Houses; if they cease to command a majority in the House of Commons, they must either resign (office) or advise the King to dissolve Parliament and summon a new one, which may give them the majority needed.

Note. The powers of the Cabinet are indeed enormous, not only in point of administration, but even of legislation, seeing, in the first place, that nearly all important bills are Government Bills, that is, brought in by members of the Government; secondly, the Government is in a position to exercise a strong pressure on its own followers by the threat of resignation, and on Parliament as a whole by the threat of dissolution. It has even been said that "at present the Cabinet legislates with the advice and consent of Parliament." Still, the sovereignty of Parliament appears in its power to make and unmake Government.

The ministers are the heads of the various Government Departments. In the list given below all the ministers are members of the Cabinet.

1. *The first Lord of the Treasury* is the nominal head of the Treasury, which controls the collection, management, and expenditure of the public revenue. The office of the First Lord is now a sinecure (i. e. an

office of profit without duties), commonly held by the Prime Minister, who may thus be free to attend to the general policy of the Government. The real work is done by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who corresponds to our Minister of Finance.

2. *The Lord (High) Chancellor* (see *The Judiciary*, p. 126).
3. *The Chancellor of the Exchequer.*
4-9. *Six Secretaries of State:*

The Home Secretary — short for: the Secretary of State for the Home Department — is the head of the Home Office (or Department), which deals with home affairs, e. g. police regulations, prisons, the administration of Factory Acts, &c., &c.

The Foreign Secretary is the head of the Foreign Office, which deals with foreign affairs.

The Colonial Secretary. — The Secretary for India.

The Secretary for War (see chapter on *The Army and Navy*, p. 103).

The Secretary for Air is the head of the Air Ministry, which has the control of the Royal Air Force.

10. *The First Lord of the Admiralty* (see chapter on *The Army and Navy*, p. 103).
11. *The President of the Board of Trade,* who deals with both trade and traffic.
12. *The President of the Local Government Board* (see *Local Government*, p. 131).
13. *The President of the Board of Education.*
14. *The Postmaster-General* (see chapter on *Post Office*, p. 17).

Political Parties. *"You may protest against party government, but your protest will come to nothing, unless you can form a new party to support it."*

Government in the United Kingdom is party government on the two-party system, that is to say, there are two principal parties, competing for power and prepared, if in a majority, to undertake the responsibility of administration. Minor groups there exist outside these two predominant parties, but none of them have so far ventured to form a government.

The two great historical parties of Whigs and Tories have gradually developed into the *Liberals* and *Conservatives* of present times. — The *Irish Nationalists* form a group by themselves, having for their main object 'Home Rule for Ireland', i. e. Irish self-government by the establishment of a separate Irish parliament in Dublin. The extreme Irish party, the so-called *Sinn-Fein* ("Ourselves Alone"), are not content with Home Rule, but demand the recognition of an independent Irish republic. — The first Home Rule Bill, brought in by Mr. Gladstone, the then leader of the Liberals, in 1886, caused a split in the Liberal Party: a considerable section of the Party, consisting of the milder Liberals, who feared that the union between Great Britain and Ireland was threatened, withdrew from the party and formed a group of their own, under the name of the *Unionist Party,* in close alliance with the conservatives. At present, Unionists and Conservatives practically act as one joint party, called as frequently by the term Unionist as by the term Conservative. — The *Radicals* form the more advanced, or even extreme, wing of the Liberal Party. They have not a few points of contact with the *Labour Party,* directly representing labour (i. e. the working class) and having its own policy on labour questions. Several of these Labour Members are Socialists.

(4) **The Judiciary.** Every man is equal before the law — Every man is held to be innocent until he is proved to be guilty — No man can be tried twice for the same offence — All Courts of Justice are open to the public.

Courts. — 1. *Inferior* (or *Lower*) *Courts.* At the bottom of the judicial ladder stand the *County Courts*, which deal with minor civil cases, and *Petty Sessions* (or *Police Courts*), which deal with minor criminal cases. Petty Sessions are 'sittings' of one or more unpaid magistrates, the so-called Justices of the Peace (J. P.'s): county gentlemen of high social standing, who need not have had any kind of legal training. In the Metropolis and some of the larger towns the police courts are presided over by Stipendiary Magistrates, i. e. professional judges in receipt of a stipend (or salary).

Quarter Sessions are larger assemblies of magistrates, held in every county once a quarter to try offences for which a jury is required.

2. *Superior* (or *High*) *Courts.* The *Assizes* (i. e. sittings, sessions), or *Courts of Assizes*, are held four times a year by itinerant judges, sent out from the High Court of Justice, which has its head-quarters in London. For the purpose of the Assizes the country is divided into eight 'circuits', or districts, within which the judges travel round from town to town. If there are two judges, the one who takes the civil business sits in a black robe, while the judge who takes crime sits in a red one.

The High Court of Justice sits in the Royal Courts of Justice in the Strand (London). It is made up of three divisions, of which the largest is the King's Bench Division, originally presided over by the King in person, now by

the Lord Chief Justice of England, who receives a salary of £ 8000 a year. The King's Bench supplies the judges who go on circuit, the Assize Courts being in effect but local, temporary branches of the High Court. Appeals lie to the High Court from Quarter Sessions and other inferior courts.

The Court of Appeal (for civil cases) and the *Court of Criminal Appeal* hear appeals from the High Court and Assizes. From these courts of appeal cases may be carried to

The House of Lords, which is the final court of appeal. Ordinarily, however, it is not the whole House which hears appeals, but only the 'Law Lords': such members as are holding, or have held, high judicial office, with the Lord Chancellor as president.

The Crown. One of the royal prerogatives is the power of pardoning offenders; in practice, this power is always exercised on the advice of the Home Secretary.

The Judges. The Lord (High) Chancellor is the highest judicial officer in the Kingdom. He is a member of the Cabinet and Speaker of the House of Lords, himself ordinarily, though not of necessity, a peer. He advises the Crown as to the appointment of judges. His salary is £ 10,000 per annum.

English judges enjoy a high degree of independence, holding office as they do 'during good behaviour', so that they cannot be removed except upon an address to the King passed by both Houses of Parliament. A judge of the High Court is appointed for life at a salary of £ 5,000 a year. As the representative of the Sovereign, who is the 'Fountain of Justice', he is paid almost royal

honour: when he goes on circuit, he is taken to court in a state carriage with trumpeters riding in front; in court he wears a wig and robe, and is addressed as 'My Lord', although he may not be a peer*.

Juries. There are various kinds of juries: Assizes and Quarter Sessions each sit with two juries: a Grand Jury and a Petty (or common) Jury. A *Grand Jury* is a jury of accusation, consisting of from twelve to twenty-three jurors (or jurymen), who hear the evidence for the prosecution alone in order to decide whether there is a case to be tried or not. If a majority of at least twelve find that there is a case to be tried, they return what is called a 'True Bill', and the trial proceeds before the judge at Assizes, or the magistrates at Quarter Sessions, sitting with a Petty Jury. If the majority find that there is no case (i. e. that the evidence is insufficient, there is said to be 'No True Bill', and the accused is released**. — A *Petty Jury* is a jury of trial. It consists of twelve persons, who hear the evidence for both sides and return either a verdict of 'Guilty', upon which the judge pronounces sentence, or 'Not Guilty', when the prisoner is discharged (released, set free). The verdict must be unanimous; if the jurymen cannot agree upon their

* For "The Bench and the Bar" and "Civil Law and Criminal Law" see Appendix I, pp. 137—39.

** A Coroners's Jury is a kind of Grand Jury, presided over by a public officer, the coroner (frequently a medical man), whose duty it is to hold a preliminary inquiry, or 'inquest' in cases of sudden or violent death. A frequent verdict is 'Accidental Death': or the jury may return a verdict of 'Wilful Murder against some person or persons unknown', or some individual named, thus preparing the way for a criminal prosecution before the Assizes.

verdict, the trial must take place anew before another jury. — Note that the judge decides questions of law, the jury questions of fact.

Criminal Procedure. Suppose that a criminal offence has been committed, and that a person who is suspected of being the offender has been arrested by the police. Such an arrest, by the way, cannot ordinarily be effected without a warrant from a magistrate.

In a few hours the prisoner is taken before the magistrate (or bench of magistrates). The Court now has to decide upon one of several courses. If it thinks the case (or evidence) against the prisoner too weak, it will discharge him; or it may remand him (i. e. send him back into custody) in order to give time for further evidence to be obtained. If there is proof that the prisoner has committed a minor offence with which the Court is competent to deal, it will fine him or send him to gaol; but should the offence be a grave one, the Court will commit the prisoner to gaol to await his trial before a higher court; or he may be admitted to bail.

If after this preliminary examination the Grand Jury finds a 'True Bill', the trial proceeds before the judge at Assizes* or the magistrates at Quarter Sessions. The prisoner is placed in the dock, and a Petty Jury is sworn to give a true verdict 'between our Sovereign Lord the King and the prisoner at the Bar'. The prisoner is then asked to plead 'Guilty' or 'Not Guilty'. If he pleads 'Not Guilty', counsel for the prosecution (or the

* The Central Criminal Court, popularly known as 'The Old Bailey', is practically the Assize Court for London. It sits at least twelve times a year.

Crown) opens the case, explaining to the jury the nature of the offence, and how he proposes to prove the prisoner committed it. Witnesses for the prosecution are next called, placed in the witness-box, and sworn — 'I swear that the evidence which I shall give..... shall be the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth' — examined, cross-examined (by counsel for the defence), and sometimes re-examined (by the prosecuting counsel). Counsel for the defence then calls his witnesses, if any; these are examined, cross-examined, and possibly re-examined. This done, counsel for the defence addresses the jury and is followed by counsel for the prosecution.

After the speeches of counsel the judge 'sums up' (the case), as fairly and impartially as possible reviewing the evidence given on both sides and pointing out its strong and its weak features. The jury then consider their verdict, which must be unanimous. If they return a verdict of 'Not Guilty', the judge orders the prisoner to be discharged. If he is found guilty, the judge proceeds to pass sentence, which may be: death, penal servitude, imprisonment with or without hard labour, whipping, or a fine — according to the character of the offence.

In *civil procedure* the jury, if there be one, is said to 'find for the plaintiff' or 'for the defendant', whereupon the judge gives judgment and deals with the question of costs.

II. LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

Principles: Special interests should be entrusted to those specially interested — (As to rates:) Those who benefit should bear the burden.

The Local Government Board is the central department for everything relating to public health, poor relief, and local government generally. All local authorities are subject to its control and bound to obtain its sanction for the purpose of making bye-laws, levying rates, &c.; their accounts, too, are audited by the Board.

The Board, which nominally consists of a number of ministers, never meets, but the work is done by a President assisted by a large staff.

England and Wales are divided into a number of *administrative counties*, which do not necessarily correspond with the old geographical counties (or shires). Each county has its County Council, consisting of a Chairman, Aldermen, and Councillors. The powers and duties of the Council are manifold: to keep in repair the main roads, control elementary education, make bye-laws, levy rates, &c., &c.

The county is subdivided into *districts (urban and rural)*, each of which has a District Council. The district is further subdivided into civil *parishes* (to be distinguished from the ecclesiastical parishes under rectors and vicars). The District Council has large powers in respect of sanitation (i. e. public hygiene): it looks after the sewerage, prevents and removes nuisances, &c.; besides, it keeps in repair the district roads, while the footpaths come under the parish authorities.

Note. A *municipal borough* is a town which has received a charter of incorporation from the Crown. The Corporation consists of the Town Council — made up of the Mayor, Aldermen, and Councillors — and all the burgesses, i. e. the ratepayers of the

borough. In a *city** the ratepayers are called citizens. Some boroughs are 'county boroughs', that is, they form administrative counties by themselves, while others are subordinate to an administrative county, for most purposes ranking with urban districts.

At the head of a few of the largest cities there is a Lord Mayor, the best-known being the Lord Mayor of London, who is, however, chief magistrate of the City of London only. The Lord Mayor, who resides at the Mansion House, has a salary of £10,000, which is invariably insufficient to meet his expenditure, as he has to do the honours of the City, entertaining on a lavish scale, getting up subscriptions, and the like.

The Metropolis outside the City is divided into twenty-eight boroughs, each having a council of its own for local affairs, while for the common affairs there is the London County Council (L. C. C.).

XXXII. THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

'George V., by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of all the British Dominions beyond the Seas King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India'. Such is the full title of the sovereign who now wears the British crown.

The Empire may be divided into three chief groups:

* In England the word city is commonly applied to a borough in which there is or has been a cathedral church. In America any big town is called a city.

the United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Ireland), or the Mother Country (see special chapter on *The British Isles*, pp. 68—76) — the Colonies — India.

Note. By 'Greater Britain' is understood: 'those countries beyond the seas out of which Britons have made a new and greater Britain', i. e. the English-speaking colonies. (Compare the 'Greater Greece' founded in Italy by the old Greeks).

THE COLONIES.

I. Foremost in importance stand the so-called *dominions*, or *self-governing colonies*, with representative legislatures to whom ministers are responsible (responsible government). Self-government has been granted by the Imperial Parliament only to countries in which the white element predominates, such countries being: the two federations of Canada and Australia, the Union of South Africa, besides Newfoundland and New Zealand.

The *Dominion of Canada* — also known as *the* Dominion — is a federation of states or provinces, each of which has a provincial parliament, dealing with local affairs, and a governor, whereas for the common affairs there is the federal or 'Dominion Parliament' (on the two-chamber system), and a Governor-General, appointed by and representing the Crown, and acting under the advice of ministers responsible to the Dominion Parliament.

The *Commonwealth of Australia* is a federation of the states of the Australian continent, constituted on much the same lines as the Canadian federation. The *Union of South Africa*, made up of Cape Colony, Natal,

the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State, is the youngest of these groups of self-governing colonies.

II. The *Crown Colonies* are governed more or less directly by the Crown, under the advice of the Colonial Secretary. Some of them have legislative councils, whose members are either nominated by the Governor or elected by the population; in others the Governor is the government itself. Examples of Crown Colonies are: Gibraltar, Malta, the Strait Settlements, the West Indies.

INDIA.

India comprises *British India*, directly governed by British officials, and the *Native States*, under native rulers who enjoy a limited independence.

As a result of the Great Mutiny (1857) the administration of India was transferred from the East India Company to the Crown, and a special Secretary of State for India was added to the Cabinet. The King-Emperor is represented on the spot by a Governor-General, styled Viceroy.

Since the declaration of a British protectorate over *Egypt* in 1914 this country is no longer part of the Ottoman (or Turkish) Empire, but as much a part of the British Empire as any of the native Indian states. Nominally, the government is carried on by a native prince, the Sultan, but the real power is exercised by the British representative, the High Commissioner.

The Soudan is a kind of dependency of Egypt, subject to the joint rule of Great Britain and Egypt.

APPENDIX I.

PARLIAMENT.

The Franchise. By the four Reform Acts (of 1832, 1867, 1885, 1918) the franchise, i. e. the freedom or right to vote, has been extended to most men of full age, that is, twenty-one years old, and women of thirty years of age.

Disqualified from voting are: infants (i. e. any one under age), peers, aliens (i. e. foreigners who have not become naturalized), idiots, lunatics, bankrupts, and persons convicted of certain crimes. *Disqualified from membership* are — beside those already mentioned — judges, Government clerks, and clergymen of the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, and the Roman Catholic Church. Nonconformist ministers may become members.

The Ballot. The voting is secret, or 'by ballot', ballot meaning: (1) a little ball or a slip of paper used in secret voting; (2) secret voting itself. At the polling station the voter is given such a ballot paper, on which he puts a cross (×) against the name of the candidate he wishes to be returned to Parliament (i. e. elected). He folds up the paper and puts it into a ballot box. When the poll closes, the boxes are opened under due precautions and the votes counted, and whichever candidate happens to have the majority of votes will be declared to have been 'duly elected as member of Parliament' for that constituency. — While formerly a

General Election would extend over many days, all polling now takes place on one and the same day.

Bills. Most bills may originate (i. e. first be introduced) in either of the two Houses. The rule is however for nearly all the important bills to originate in the Lower House, and then be sent up to the Upper House, there to be passed, amended (i. e. altered), or thrown out (i. e. rejected). Money bills, which have for their object either the grant of public moneys or the imposition of taxes, must be introduced in the House of Commons and by a minister, not by a private member, and cannot be amended nor rejected by the Lords*. Before a bill can become an Act of Parliament and part of the law of the land, it must receive the Royal Assent; the Crown has not however exercised its right of veto for more than two hundred years past.

Procedure of the House of Commons. A bill has to be read three times, during which 'readings' any number of amendments may be moved (or proposed), and either carried or rejected. The decisions of the House are recorded by so-called 'divisions': the House divides, that is, those in favour of the bill pass out into one lobby, and those opposed to it into another. After the division the Speaker declares whether the 'Ayes' or the 'Noes' have it (i. e. the majority of votes). The Speaker does not vote himself, unless the numbers be equal, when he gives the casting vote.

In this connection may be mentioned the 'Whips', who

* It is as the chamber representing the people that the House of Commons has taken to itself this power over Money Bills, on the principle of 'No taxation without representation'.

play a most important part in the organization of parties. They are certain members of Parliament whose duty it is to see that as many members as possible of their respective parties attend in order to vote at important divisions.

Distinguish between dissolution, prorogation, and adjournment —:

Dissolution. The same royal proclamation dissolves one parliament and summons a new one, with a general election coming in between. — A session is terminated by *prorogation,* which, like dissolution, is effected by order of the King. Prorogation does not affect the seats of members, but kills all bills which have not become law before Parliament is prorogued. — *Adjournment* is the device for terminating a sitting; it is the act of each House for itself, and merely suspends the transaction of current business. The House of Commons generally adjourns (its sittings) before midnight, but occasionally there will be 'all-night' sittings.

THE JUDICIARY.

The Bench and the Bar. The 'Bench' means (1) the seat on which the judges or magistrates sit in court; (2) the judges or magistrates themselves — as distinguished from the 'Bar', which means: all those who have been 'called to the Bar', or been admitted to plead in the higher courts, that is, the barristers* collectively. A barrister appears in court in wig and (woollen) gown.

* Solicitors may only plead in the lower courts. See further under *The Law* in chapter on *Callings,* p. 107.

Leading members of 'the learned profession' are appointed King's Counsel: a K. C. wears a silk gown (he has 'taken silk'), and it is from amongst the King's Counsel that the judges are chosen.

Civil Law and Criminal Law. A *civil wrong* consists in an infringement of some private right, such as a breach of contract (e. g. a breach of promise of marriage), trespass (e. g. unlawful entry upon some other person's ground). It rests with the injured party whether or not he will bring an action against (or sue) the other party (e. g. for damages). — A *crime* is a public wrong, that is, a wrong looked upon as a matter of public concern. Public wrongs are taken in hand directly by the State, the accused being prosecuted* in the name of the King. Criminal offences are divided into (1) treason, which stands in a class by itself — (2) felonies, which include most of the graver offences, such as murder and manslaughter**, arson (i. e. maliciously setting fire to buildings, ships, &c.), larceny (or theft), burglary, embezzlement (i. e. misappropriation by an employee of moneys or goods entrusted to him), bigamy, and certain kinds of forgery — (3) misdemeanours, which include all other crimes, from grave offences like riots, perjury, bribery, down to rather trifling offences, like fortune telling.

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* The notice, 'Trespassers will be prosecuted', is incorrect in so far as mere trespassing, where no wilful damage is done, is no crime, but only civilly actionable.

** Murder is distinguished from manslaughter as being intentional or 'of malice aforethought'. Ordinarily, death (by hanging) is the only sentence which can be passed for murder, whereas manslaughter is punishable with a maximum of penal servitude for life.

The King can pardon crimes after conviction; but he cannot pardon a civil wrong done to a private person, which would amount to depriving him of his remedy. In like manner, the King can stop a criminal prosecution, but he cannot stop a civil action.

APPENDIX II.

(1) *Discussion on Corporal Punishment.*

What is your opinion of Corporal Punishment (boxes on the ear, thrashing or caning)? Would you have it restricted to a certain age and certain gross offences, such as dishonesty, lying, impudence, disobedience? or Are you of opinion that Corporal Punishment ought to be entirely abolished?

Before you decide, please consider the following pros and cons of the question (i. e. arguments for and against), and add others, if you can.

Pros. Some are in favour of Corporal Punishment as being particularly effective because prompt. — Besides, pupils are said in this way to get accustomed to the hardships of real life. — At any rate, Corporal Punishment should be kept as a final resource, when other disciplinary means have failed.

Cons. Those opposed to Corporal Punishment maintain that if C. P. is prompt, it may at the same time be hasty. — There should be other ways of accustoming pupils to the hardships of real life than by punishment; otherwise, pupils ought to be caned daily. — Finally, frequent thrashings, etc. brutalize master and pupil alike, and are

dangerous to the mutual good feeling which ought to exist between the two.

Now, what are your views? State reasons for same.

(2) *Discussion on Vegetarianism.*

Pros. The supporters of vegetarianism maintain that —:

1. Man is frugivorous (i. e. fruit-eating) by nature, his structure not being adapted for a meat diet. The apes, which are nearest to man, are vegetarians. A vegetarian diet is preferred by children.

2. Much better health is invariably enjoyed by vegetarians. The unnatural craving for stimulants is due in many cases to animal food, whereas vegetarianism makes for temperance and a peaceful disposition.

3. A vegetarian diet is as nourishing as, and unquestionably much cheaper than, a meat diet, besides being capable of as much variety as any meat diet can offer.

4. The slaughtering of animals, accompanied as it needs must be by much pain and cruelty, is degrading to humanity in general, and particularly brutalizing to those who have made it their trade.

Cons. The opponents of the vegetarian system object that —:

1. The structure of man's teeth and digestive organs prove him to be an omnivorous animal. Besides, all the remains that have been discovered establish beyond dispute that primitive man was a hunter, living almost exclusively on a flesh diet.

2. The arguments against animal foods from a hygienic point of view apply only to their excessive use.

3. Whether an exclusively vegetarian diet is as nourishing as a mixed diet is the very point in question. Visits to vegetarian restaurants do not speak in favour of the variety and appetizing nature of vegetarian cookery.

4. A certain amount of pain is inevitable in nature. Cruelty must of course be condemned, but may in the present instance be much mitigated, if not wholly done away with, by substituting public slaughter-houses for private ones. Sensitive people should not become butchers.

(3) *Discussion. The Pros of Total Abstinence.*

1. Alcohol is a poison, not a food. It lowers the temperature.

2. The indulgence in alcohol is always unnecessary (except in certain cases of illness). Animals drink nothing but water. At best such indulgence means setting a bad example to our weaker brethren.

3. The gratification afforded by alcohol is slight and passing, while the injurious effects may be enormous and permanent.

4. The death-rate of total abstainers is lower than that of non-abstainers, a fact recognized by several life insurance companies, which actually offer a rebate to total abstainers.

5. Alcoholism is the source of most of our pauperism and crime, thus involving an immense waste of human life, not to mention the unnecessary private and public expenditure.

6. Where liberty leads to licence, and licence involves such enormous evils, the State is called upon to interfere by way of prohibition in order to keep people out of harm's way.

The Cons of Total Abstinence.

1. Whether alcohol should be called a food or not is still an open question. Its stimulating influence on an overtired man is beyond dispute.

2. Its abuse is of course harmful, but then excess in everything is bad. The point is to set an example of right use, which is something equally far removed from abuse and disuse.

3. The gratification afforded by alcohol may be perfectly innocent, and is indeed indispensable to many hard-working men.

4. The statistics as to the death-rate are valueless as they include drunkards. Such insurance companies as offer reduced premiums to total abstainers do so mainly for the sake of advertisement and competition.

5. Drunkenness, which by the way nobody thinks of defending, is the effect rather than the cause of poverty and criminal tendencies.

6. State prohibition would be a gross infringement of the liberty of the subject. If the worst came to the worst, it would be 'better for a nation to consist of free drunkards than of sober slaves'.

(4) *Discussion on Conscription.*

Do you look upon Conscription as injurious — a necessary or an unnecessary evil — or as beneficial?

Pros. Those in favour of the system see in it an instrument of national physical education and democratization; from a moral point of view, the discipline of universal drill is alleged to create habits of order, obedience, and loyalty. — The citizen, who enjoys so many privileges, must naturally in return take upon himself certain duties. — The principles of compulsory taxation and education having been universally accepted, why not the principle of compulsory military service? — Even apart from these considerations, political reasons suffice to make the system indispensable.

Cons. Those opposed to Conscription maintain that: Conscription is not the only possible system. — Education, physical as well as moral, might and ought to be given in other and better ways. — Conscription means an unjustifiable waste of productive forces on unproductive objects.

(In the case of small states:) No efficient defence is possible against a powerful enemy; consequently, no army is better than an inefficient army. — Neutrality, guaranteed by the (Great) Powers, is the only policy practicable.

ABBREVIATIONS

A. D. — Latin: Anno Domini — In the year of our Lord.
A. M., a. m. — Latin: ante meridiem — Before noon.
Bros. Brothers.
C. Centigrade.
Co. Company.
e. g. — Latin: exempli gratia — For example.
Esq. Esquire.
etc., &c. — Latin: et cetera (= and the rest, and so on).
F. Fahrenheit.
ft. foot — feet.
i. e. — Latin: id est — That is.
inst. instant (= the present month).
Jas. James.
lb. — Latin: libra — pound.
Ltd. limited (liability company).
Messrs. Messieurs.
oz. ounze.
P. M., p. m. — Latin: post meridiem — Afternoon.
p. page.
P. O. Post Office.
pp. pages.
P. T. O. please turn over.
Rev. Reverend.
Ry. Railway.
S. W. South-western (postal district, London).
U. K. United Kingdom (of Great Britain and Ireland).
viz. — Latin: videlicet — namely, to wit.
W. Western (postal district, London).
W. C. Western Central (postal district, London). — Water-closet.