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PRONUNCIATION FOR SINGERS.

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# PRONUNCIATION <br> FOR SINGERS. 

WITH Especial reference to the


## WITH NUMEROUS EXAMPLES AND EXERCISES FOR THE USE OF TEACHERS AND ADVANCED STUDENTS.

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j. "Lascia ch'io pianga," p. 227.
5. "Non più andrai," p. 228.
6. "Non è ver?" p. '229.
7. "Pur dicesti," p. 229.
8. "Possenti Numi," p. 230. See German, No. 4.
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## PREFACE.

On 27th, 28th, and 29th of December, 1871, I gave three lectures on "Pronunciation in Singing" at the request of Mr. John Curwen, the president, before the Tonic Sol-fa College at its Christmas gathering. Part of the matter of these lectures was subsequently worked up by Mr. Curwen, and corrected by myself, for the last edition of his "Standard Course," and is again explained and illustrated with diagrams in his "Teacher's Manual." To this last work he asked me to contribute Tables of the Pronunciation of the German. Italian, and French languages, to enable any Tonic Sol-faist on taking up a song in those languages to have some clue to the sounds he had to utter, even if he were ignorant of the language After these were completed, however, Mr. Curwen felt that it would be advisable to add a few songs in each language with the pronunciation fully explained and the translation annexed. But when this was done, he found that the result would $\cdot$ be too much for a mere insertion into another work, and ought to appear as a separate treatise. I then suggested that such a treatise shonld contain a very full account of English pronunciation, and the mode in which both the acknowledged and the unacknowledged sounds of speech are produced, to enable the teacher not only to shew what was right, but to correct what was wrong, by instantly pointing out the vicious action of the speaker, and thus leading him to set it right. The only condition Mr. Curwen made in agreeing to
this suggestion was that there should be an abundance of examples Hence arose the present work
For more than thirty years I have been paying attention to the subject of speech-sounds, as a science and as an art, for the purpose of teaching to read English, and for the purposes of comparative philology. I have resided three years in Germany, a year and a half in Italy, and more than six months in France I have been quite recently studying provincial pronunciation throughout England, for the purposes of my treatise "On Early English Pronunciation, with especial reference to Shakspere and Chaucer," of which these studies will form the fifth volume, and in pursuing them I have had to pay most particular attention to the varieties of English speech, and discriminate between the comparatively modern, literary, or "received" form, which prevails among educated speakers especially in the South of Engiand, and the comparatively ancient, illiterate and "provincial" forms which prevail among the uneducated or untravelled in other parts of the country. I am not a singer, although I have had sufficient voice to try all the necessary experiments, and in the winter of 1856-7, I went through a course of Tonic Sol-fa instruction to make myself familiar with this scheme of teaching vocal music. But my principal assistance in understanding the relations of singing to speech, has been derived from Professor Helmholtz's great work " On the Sensit.
tions of Tone," of which a translation by myself was published by Messrs. Longman, in July, 1875. I have also, of course, studied all the principal works relating to speech-sounds in various languages, have had especial instruction from natives of various countries, and have made practical observations in great detail and with great care on English provincial speakers, and have been familiar for more years than I care to remember with the process of representing spoken sounds by symbols which should express not merely the separate elements but the different modes in which they are put together by different speakers. These are my qualifications for attempting to carry out Mr. Curwen's wishes.
The object of this book is to shew the course of training which a singer should undergo in order to enunciate his words clearly and accurately, so as to be intelligible to an audience that had no "book of the words." Throughout the work, the singer, as distinct from the speaker, has been kept in view, and for this purpose attention has been drawn in the opening Section to the principal points which distinguish singing from speaking. All the exercises are supposed to be sung. At the same time, the work will be of great use, I hope, to all who have to train children to speak English correctly, or to acquire a correct pronunciation of German, Italian, and French But as the book was not written for speakers especially, much has been omitted which would be more or less useful to them, and much has been inserted, which a speaker, who is not a singer, may find unnecessary. Attention is also paid exclusively to the received pronunciation of the English, German, Italian, and French languages. Such varieties as it would interest a singer to know are mentioned incidentally, but the whole subject of comparative phonology as bearing on comparative philology, has been most carefully avoided. Students of this importunt linguistic inquiry will, however, necessarily find much assistance in the following pages.

The following pages are, of course, not meant
for young beginners. They are written for those advanced students who have sufficient determination to instruct themselves, and who wish to understand the subject in order to instruct others. There is not a passage in this book which ought not to be familiar to a teacher of singing, although very little of what follows has hitherto found its way into manuals for the singer, and that little is seldom accurate. But, of course, there is much concerning the voice and its management, which does not enter into the purpose of a treatise strictly limited to pronunciation. Hence the following pages are really supplementary to all treatises on singing, while they are introductory to all treatises on English elocution and on the pronunciation of the foreign languages named, and also to all treatises on comparative philology. The principal new point which is here treated at length is the action of vowel on vowel, and consonant on vowel, to which I gave the name of "glide" in a tract on "English Phonetics," published in 1854, long before Mr. Melville Bell used the term in his "Visible Speech" (1867), with a slightly different sense. On these glides depends all intelligibility in singing, because they determine the principal audible effect of consonants, more especially final consonants. Hence I have prepared an elaborate series of exercises upon thent in the "Glossic Index" (pp. 151-181).

A systematic method of representing speechsounds is indispensable for any work like the present. My "Glossic" effects this object by means of the ordinary letters of the alphabet in their most usual English significations, so far as these would serve, eked out by German usages occasionally, and sometimes by other contrivances. This mode of spelling is so simple for ordinary English readers that I have never found one who experienced the least difficulty in reading off sentences thus written, even without special instruction. Glossic has also been used by Mr. Curwen in the "Standard Course" and "Teacher's Manual," and hence will be familiar to the majority of advanced students who take up this book. As

Glossic was specially invented by me for the purpose of writing all English dialects by one alphabet, every sound which was required for this treatise had already been properly symbolised, and hence there was no object in introducing any other set of signs.

The arrangement of the work is as follows:After drawing attention (in Section I., pp. 1-6) to the contrast between speaking and singing, and sketching a number of exercises to impress these differences strongly in the reader's mind, provided he carry them out (which, once for all, I may state, I suppose that all readers who wish to derive profit from the work will do with all exercises), I proceed (in Section II., pp. 7-11) to consider the cause of those difficulties as respects the vowels, and shew that this is to be sought in their peculiar nature as modifications of original qualities of tone. Then, previous to a detailed exposition, I give (in Section III., pp. 12-17) a short key to the method of notation employed, and a systematic arrangement of all the signs used, together with diagrams of the positions of the mouth subsequently referred to. The Glossic Index (in Section XII., pp. 151181) gives the exact page and column where the mode of producing the sound represented by each individual sign can be found, in proper connection with its related sounds. After this (in Section IV., pp. 18-23) a brief account is furnished of the nature and action of the organs by which speechsounds are produced, limited to what is necessary for properly understanding and observing the following explanations. Section V. (pp. 24-41) is devoted to the Vowels, and Section VI. (pp. 42-55) to the mode in which vowels are combined into diphthongs, by the generation of the vowel glides, which are so important to singers. Section VII. (pp. 56-60, takes into account a series of actions of the glottis in commencing or attacking and ending or releasing vowel sounds, which were first named " glottids" in my "Early English Pronunciation," (p. 1129) under which heading it is here convenient to include aspirates and the bellows-actions of the lungs or "physems"
(fei $\cdot$ semz), though the latter would be separated in a more exact classification. These lead on to the Consonants proper, which occupy the whole of Section VIII. (pp. 61-86, and should be studied completely even by those who do not immediately desire to learn German, Italian, or French, because the introduction of the consonants peculiar to these languages gives a far more complete view of the relations of speech-sounds than would be possible if attention were confined to one language only, and when studied thus in proper connection, the sounds, which singers are sure to require some day, are by no means so difficult as when they are taken afterwards as strange and isolated phenomena. The glides between vowels and consonants, which form the subject of Section IX. (pp. 87-102) are of extreme importance to singers, and hence great pains have been bestowed on furnishing examples, especially in the Glossic Index (pp. 151-181) to enable the reader to become thoroughiy familiar with the phenomena, and thus learn to sing the effects of consonants which are themselves unsingable. In Section X. (pp. 103-108) for the sake of readers rather than singers, but also especially for the use of those who set words to music (which should include all singers) a ver.: brief account is given. of the principal means adopted for making one syllable in a word, or one word in a sentence, more prominent than all the rest. For speakers this would develop into a treatise on elocution, for singers (except in recitative) the composer has practically determined the length, pitch, and force, and often the quality of tone and expression to be given to each syllable, and what remains belongs rather to a treatise on voice-training than one on speech-sounds. But it is useful even to a singer to know in what the actions consist, how they are performed, and how they may be written. It is, in fact, indispensable for anyone who wishes to sing as a human being, and not as a machine.

In all the preceding Sections, the exercises and examples giveu as each matter arises, are sufficient to illustrate the subject, but not sufficient to render
it familiar to a student who has to be trained. This is left to Sections XI. (pp. 109-150) and XII. (pp. 151-181) where a sufficient series of exercises is suggested, or written, to enable a teacher to instruct a solitary pupil or a class, without puzzling the learner by a systematic treatise. These exercises are divided into four principal parts, according to the four languages considered, but for the three foreign languages they are of comparatively limited extent, sufficient, however, for anyone who had gone well through the English, to acquire a decent command over the foreign sounds. It is strongly recommended that the learner should, if possible, get a native with a good pronunciation to read to him the foreign words placed against each foreign Glossic letter (which is for that purpose given in the ordinary as well as the Glossic spelling), and to repeat each set, illustrating a single sound, many times over Practically I find six times in succession advisable. The learner should listen without imitating till he has formed a complete notion of the sound, which he should then attempt to reproduce, and not mind failure with respect to the otker sounds with which the one under trial is unavoidably mixed up. The words thus serve as "Key Words," which with the Glossic spelling annexed, perfectly explain the system of writing used in giving the pronunciation of the songs in Section XV. (pp. 212-241).
The great bulk of the exercises is devoted to English, with the intention of creating good habits and facility, and of correcting errors of pronunciation. The use of the Glossic system of writing has enabled me to divide these exercises into two very distinct parts. The first twenty Exercises (pp. 109-127) consist of combinations of vowels and consonants independently of meaning, so that the whole attention of the singer is directed to the accurate production of sound. They are arranged so as to include all the combinations in our language, to be sung at definite but ver: various degrees of rapidity, and particular atten tion is paid to bringing out the glides, and thus distinguishing final consonants. A simpls whart.
with lists of all the initial and final consonants and combinations of consonants in our language, here given, will enable the teacher (as explained in the 21st to the 23rd Exercise, pp. 127-8; to extemporise an infinite variety of ways of practice, without using a book at all. It is suggested that five minutes daily should be devoted in schools to these "Vocal Gymnastics" to make the delicate muscles of the organs of speech familiar with the production of the sounds, and thus enable the pupils to pronounce with brightness, ease, and certainty.

Exercises 24 to 42 (pp. 128-138) are devoted to actual words, contrasting nearly similar sounds, especially vowel sounds, which are apt to be confused, together with the various diphthongs and the extremely complicated use of the letter R, each word being given in both spellings. Some of these Exercises haring been prepared some years ago, were given, but with a different arrangement, by Mr. Curwen in his "Standard Course." The 42nd Exercise (p. 138b) properly consists of the English part of the Glossic Index (pp. 151-181) in which words are given fully illustrating every vowel and diphthong as acted on by every final combination of consonants known in the language, and by a great number of the initial combinations, while every consonant is illustrated by words in which it occurs initially before every vowel and other consonant with which it is found in the language. These lists give the learner an opportunity of feeling and practising the initial and final effect of every possible consonantal combination upon every possible vowel sound, and thus learning to sing initial and final consonants intelligibly.

All the preceding Exercises are upon "strong" syllables, or those which bear the stress. But the three next Exercises ( $43-46$, pp. 138b-142b) deal with " weak" or " unaccented" syllables, whether final or initial, and Exercise 47 (p 142b), which is intended rather for the speaker than the singer, deals with those alternations of "strong" and "weak" syllables which occur in our longer words

By these Exercises, which are far more extensive and systematic than any yet attempted (although I wish particulary to draw attention to those given by Mr. Melville Bell in his "Principles of Speech and Elocution," to which I am much indebted), it is to be hoped that the learner will be able to gain a mastery over the production of the sounds of his own language, and a decent command' over those of German (p. 144). Italian (p. 147), and French (p. 149). But they will not teach him when to use them. The spelling of a word is supposed to do this, and in German and Italian it is tolerably successful in so doing. although in English and French it fails wofully. Hence in Section XIII. (pp. 182-189. I give an account of the systems of indicating sounds in the best or most convenient English pronouncing dictionaries, writing their key words both in their own spelling and in Glossic. This will enable all those who have studied this little book to consult those authorities in case of need. And in Section XIV. (pp. 190-211 I have given Alphabetical Kers to German, Italian (including Ecclesiastical Latin', and French, which will enable the reader who sees a written word in any of those languages, to discover its sound within very small limits of error. But even for these languages, reference to a dictionary is often indispensable as no rules can be laid down which are sufficiently somprehensive, the exceptions are so numerous and irregular.

After this, in Section XV. (pp. 212-241) follow German, Italian (including Ecclesiastical Latin). and French songs, selected by Mr. Curwen, and given in both the ordinary and Glossic orthography, with a verbal English translation, spelled in Glossic
only, by way of an exercise, arranged in a convenient form for reference and practice. Those who have an opportunity should not fail to hear these songs read over to them by natives, and to practice reading them themselves till the natives are satisfied with their pronunciation, and then to commit them to memory, and continually repeat them, with or without the music, to acquire facility and certainty in the utterance of connected words. All pronunciation is muscular, and the organs of speech require the same constant training as the muscles of the hand for playing on any musical instrument.

The book concludes with a list of German, Italian, and French composers (pp. 242-246), selected by Mr. Curwen, with the native pronunciation added, and likewise a conventional pronunciation, harmonising with that now given to Handel, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven, which is thoroughly adapted to English analogies, habits, and organs.

In the summer of the same year, 1875, in which the Tonic Sol-fa College, after a successful period of probation, was tinally incorporated, this little book was put together as the author's contribution towards the good cause of diffusing sound musical knowledge among the masses of the people, including the youngest, for which that College was originally founded by its first president, Mr. John Curwen.

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## PRONUNCIATION FOR SINGERS.

## I. SPEAKING AND SINGING CONTRASTED.

Singers and Speakers.-Speaking and singing are different and in some respect antagonistic actions of the same organs. Quintilian relates that Julius Cæsar, when a young man, criticised a reader in the words: "If you intend to be singing, you are singing badly; if you suppose yourself to be reading, you are really singing' (Sī cantās, male cantūs; sī legis, cantās. Quint. Inst 1, 8, 2). The criticism is perfectly valid to this day. But the singer uses words to which he intends his listeners to attach a meaning, and it is supposed that the music will enhance the mental effect of the words, which, in many cases at least, have suggested the melody and whole composition. While, therefore, it is perfectly well agreed that no speaker or reader should sing, it becomes a necessity for all singers, if not to speak, at least to excite in their hearers the ideas attached to speaking, in addition to the emotions due to music. How is this end to be attained? The reader must first recognise the reality of this antagonism between speaking and singing.

## (1). Singing and Speaking Differ in Compass.

 -ln singing, a good and fine musical quality of tone is sought to be attained at pitches varying by at least a Twelfth (d to sl), and sometimes two Octaves, or even more. In speaking, an audible quality of tone is desired, but one which is not strictly musical, at pitches generally within a Fifth(d to s), and only occasionally extending to an Octave. This great difference of compass is very important, because the singer is called upon to execute spoken sounds at pitches which, as a speaker, he has never been accustomed to use, and with a quality of voice which he has had carefully to avoid.
(2). Singing is at Sustained, Speaking at Gliding Pitch.-In singing, a tone has to be sustained for a considerable time at an invariable pitch. In speaking, not only is the length of time for which any sound is sustained much less, sometimes necessarily very short indeed, but the pitch at which it is delivered is uncertain and variable, and constantly rising or falling, sometimes first rising and then falling, or first falling and then rising, for the same spoken sound. This is such a remarkable difference between singing and speaking, that many writers consider it to be the characteristic difference, which may be expressed thus: "Singing has sustained pitch altering by definite intervals, speaking has variable pitch, altering constantly by insensible intervals or glides." But although an important difference, it is by no means the only one to be considered. Nor is it quite decisive, for in singing the gliding alteration of pitch is acknowledged under the term 'portamento' (poar'taamai•ntoa. See Sec. III, for notation of sound.)
(3). Singing requires a Clear, Speaking an Imp ited Passage for the Breath.-In singing, a good quality of musical tone can only be attained by peculiar adjustments of the cavities between the larynx and the lips, which generally imply that they are unchoked or unimpeded, and by a peculiar arrangement of the larynx itself which implies, on the contrary, that it is so choked and impeded that the wind has to force its way through it from the lungs. In speaking, the upper cavities have to be choked and impeded in many ways more or less injurious to musical qualities of tone, and sometimes entirely destructive of any musical tone whatever, allowing mere noise to pass, or actually preventing any sound at all from passing. And the larynx has occasionally to be so open that no musical sound whatever can be produced, except by a further adjustment of the lips and tongue to produce whistling, an effect not admitted in speech. The windrushes, hisses, buzzes, whispers, and silences thus produced (forming our consonants), although some of the most important and distinctive elements of speech, are entirely unmusical and cannot be sung at all. The difficulty of indicating them is one of the greatest trials to the singer, because their omission occasions total unintelligibility, and their introduction interrupts the flow of music. But even those spoken sounds which are most musical in their character (the vowels) are not equally capable of yielding good qualities of tone on account of the necessity they imply of more or less choking the passage of the sound through the mouth or lips, and the singer has to exercise himself in producing sounds recognisable as intended for certain vowels, which are nevertheless modifications of them found to be more suitable for musical utterance. All languages present these difficulties, but perhaps none more than English.
(4). Singing has to be Rapid and Slurred, where Speaking cannot be so.-In singing, the melody often requires the notes to be sung with great rapidity, and at other times to be slurred
into each other. In any languages, as the English, where the vowels are separated by numerous consonants, this rapidity is impossible, and the slurring becomes equally impossible from the necessity of separating the musical by unmusical sounds. Who could sing: "The strongest priest stands still," with either great rapidity or great smoothness, except by making many of the consonants inaudible? It is, of course, the business of writers of words to music to avoid such difficulties of combination in spoken sounds, and it is the business of composers of music to adjust their notes to the capabilities of the words. But neither writers nor composers observe their duties, and when the words of a song are translated from one language to another, or the same melody is sung to different words (as in successive verses of a ballad, or hymn) this consideration is entirely overlooked.

Vowels must be Arranged in Genera or Kinds. -It is necessary that the reader should render himself practically familiar with these differences. Take the two sentences:-

## Peep through all those glass door panes. His bull rush'd on that fence.

The first contains all the seven long vowels, and the second all the six short vowels in our language, without any repetitions. Speak them with various expressions, first as a simple conversational command and affirmation; then in tones of stern command, exclamation, interrogation, disgust, fear, horror, indignation, expostulation, ridicule, banter, laughter, weeping, pain, joy, satisfaction, oratory, solemnity; with the utmost slowness, with the greatest possible rapidity, and so on. Observe in each case that there is not even an approach to a musical tone or to singing, and that any sing-song in the utterance would be provincial, such as the whines and drants and rising inflections of many of our provinces. Observe, too, that the natural character of speech and the sound ot the vowels is much altered by some of these expressions; that the oratorical and solemn tones really alter all the
sounds in comparison with the conversational or ridiculous and comic tone, although the vowels remain recognisable, so that though appreciably different to those who compare and examine them, they are appreciably the same to those who, accustomed to hear them under all these circumstances, have fused the particular perceptions into a general conception which partakes of all the characters without being confined to any one. This means that even with the same speaker each vowel represents only a group of specifically different sounds, which are grasped by the hearer as a genus; just as we think of a dog, without distinguishing a French poodle from a mastiff, or a pug from a greyhound; we are, so to speak, satisfied to know that a dog is not a cat; though both dogs and cats are quadrupeds. Extend the observation from the same speaker to different speakers: let a deep and thin voiced man and woman and child repeat the same sentences in different manners, imitating the expression each of each, and observe the new differences which arise. We seem to get beyond dogs and cats, into mere quadrupeds. This observation on the specific differences, and generic or family sameness, of vowel sounds recognised in the same language to be identical, is of the utmost importance, both to the singer and the learner of languages. The singer learns from it that he may alter his vowel sounds (which are those on which he sings, and which most materially influence the quality of his tones) within certain limits, to suit the requisitions
of his voice or of the unusual pitches at which he has to deliver them, without becoming unintelligible, and without ceasing to utter them as an Englishman. The learner of foreign languages becomes a ware of the necessity of hearing the new sounds from numerous speakers, and not from one teacher only, and of hearing them unler the most varied circumstances of expression, before he can at all grasp the unity of genus amid variety of species. Indeed, on extending his observations to foreign languages, the student will find that all the variety of expressions alluded to vary from language to language; that not only the genera or kinds of vowel vary, but that the mode of forming the species varies, and that on these two circumstances depends in great measure (by no means alone, the characteristic national habits of speech. Hence the necessity of continual intercourse for some considerable length of time with various speakers of a language which we wish to acquire.

The Relations of Vowels to Pitch.- To return to the Exercise. Having first spoken the two sentences of English vowels, sing them to a very easy chant, as the Tuning Extrcise 85 in "Standard Course," p. 27, given below. Each part should be taken separately, and should be sung at various pitches of one voice only, as high and as low as the singer can reach, as well as in the middle and easy pitches with which he should begin. Divide the words thus-


Two important observations have to be made on this Exercise. First, that the effect of speaking and chanting is entirely different. This should be
further brought out by first chanting and then speaking the passage at about the same pitch. It may also be enhanced in a class by directing
them to speak altogether at the same rate as they chanted, but these Exercises are much better done, at least at first, by single members of a class, while the others listen, because the combination of different voices of different qualities confuses the observer, and when he is himself a performer he does not hear the rest sufficiently well. The second observation (which will be dwelled on more at length presently), is that the different vowel sounds cannot be equally well produced at different pitches, and that the short vowels when prolonged, although in that case nearly the same as the corresponding long vowels (compare peep his, panes fence, glass that, all on, panes fence; the long vowels in those, door, and the short vowel in rush'd, have no correspondence), are yet so different that (with the exception of that) they are much more easily sung at different, especially at the extreme pitches, than the naturally long vowels. This may be verified by singing the long vowel sentence with the short vowels lengthened, and the short vowel sentence with the long vowels substituted for the short vowels lengthened, as indicated by writing-

| i | u | o | a | e |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| peep | through | all those | glass | door |
| his panes |  |  |  |  |
| bull rush'd on | thal | fence |  |  |
| ee | ou | a | a | a |

meaning, sing peep with the $i$ in $h i s$, that is, as pip lengthened; and sing his lengthened, with the ee in peep, that is, as hees, rhyming to fleece; and so on.

Other observations may be readily made, especially as to the effect of the separation of peep and through by the complete cutting off of the note at the sid of peep, and at the commencement of through, first by a completely unmusical hiss, and next by a beating $r$. By hurrying and slackening the time these effects of interruptions can be more clearly brought out. Again the effect of the monotone on the reciting tone, to which all the words have been purposely assigned in each case, should be noted,
and its extreme difference from the constantly though slightly changing pitch of ordinary speech.

Effect of Pitch on the word 'Peep.'-The effect of singing-pitch on vowel-quality must now be studied. First sing the word peep on the scale from the highest note in the voice, taken as d , down to the lowest, whatever it may be. Form a crescendo and diminuendo on each note, and sustain the voice on each as loug as can be conveniently done, taking a fresh breath for each. Observe that on the very highest note the vowel is quite clear, though it generally improves slightly when the voice is not near its extremity. (On the change of register there will be a difficulty felt immediately in producing the vowel with the same distinctness as before. The vowel will assume a somewhat different character whenever this change takes place, and whatever the vowel may be; at present, however, the observation of the effect of change of register may be merged into the effect of change of pitch.) About the middle part of the compass, the vowel, if kept quite clear and not allowed to degenerate into $i$ of pip lengthened, becomes slightly but manifestly clouded, and there is a tendency almost to a beating roughness in the note. But as the voice sinks still lower, and even more when it reaches its lowest tones, this beating character becomes more prominent, producing some gruffness. If another singer of a similar quality of voice (it will not be right to contrast even bass and tenor) takes the Octave above the note then reached, a manifest difference between the vowel qualities will appear. When another singer cannot be had, the same singer should take his note an Octave higher with a sudden jump and observe the difference. As a second trial, when the singer has reached a rough and gruff sound in attempting to keep peep with its proper vowel sound, let him change it suddenly to the $i$ in pip lengthened, by imagining that he is singing pip on a very long note. He will find the whole quality of tone most materially improved; the beating gruffness will have been nearly removed: the
whole musical instrument will have been changed for the better. Having reached this lowest tone on peep altered to pip prolonged, let the singer ascend the scale with this sound instead of peep. He will find that up to about the middle tones in his compass, the effect of pip prolonged is rather better and rounder than that of peep, but that as the voice proceeds higher it is decidedly duller, and in the high tones is considerably wanting in brightness. This effect will be made more evident by changing on each note and in the same breath from peep to pip prolonged and conversely. These exercises and observations should be conducted with great care because they are fundamental.

Effect of Pitch on the word 'Through.'-Next sing the word through, beginning at the lowest note in the voice, calling it $\mathrm{d}_{1}$, and ascending the scale regularly to the highest. Observe first that though the tone may not be very good on the lowest tone of the voice, it is very much better than for peep or even pip prolonged. Contrast the three by singing peep through, pip through, each pair in one breath, at the lowest note. After quite the lowest note, the tone becomes better, but it rapidly thickens, so that through approaches in sound to throw, and much effort is required to keep the words tolerably distinct. But when we get towards the top of the voice it becomes extremely difficult to get out any real sound of through at all. Also observe bow much the quality of tone deteriorates as you ascend the scale. It goes off into a flutiness altogether unlike the best qualities of the human song-tones, and approaches to a pandean pipe. Here again by taking peep through in one breath we perceive the great difference in the quality of the tone. Now take the two words pool pull, which contain the same sounds as through bull, but are more convenient for the next experiment because they nave the same consonants. First sing pool from the lowest note to at least an Octave or a Twelfth higher (from $\mathrm{d}_{1}$ to d or s ), and having reached this higher pitch, change the word from pool to pull prolonged, by an effort of atten-
tion which after a little while the muscles of the throat will obey (the nature of the change is purposely left unconsidered for the present). It will be immediately found that the quality of the upper note is materially improved, that the flutiness disappears, and much more fulness results. Having then reached pull prolonged, descend the scale upon it. It will be found that all the upper notes are improved in quality, and that the lower and even lowest notes are not much injured, although a slight gruffness begins towards the end. Complete the experiment by singing pool pull in one breath to every note in the voice, up and down.

When 'Peep' and 'Pool' should be 'Pip' and 'Pull' Prolonged.-The experiments just made lead to a very important practical result, namely, that peep should be taken as pip prolonged in the lower parts of the scale, and pool as pull prolonged in the upper parts of the scale. Words containing these vowels are the greatest plagues to a singer, and he will find himself relieved of much difficulty by this simple observation.

Effect of Pitch on the word 'Glass.'-These experiments must be continued further. Sing qlass (taking care to make it rhyme with farce with an unpronounced $r$, and not with gas, two sounds which may be distinguished as glaas and glas respectively) to a middle note in the compass, and run up and down as before. Observe that a good tone can be brought out for glaas at nearly every point of the scale, although the quality of the vowel slightly alters. Change the sound to glas (having $a$ in that prolonged), and observe that at every pitch the musical quality of sound is decidedly deteriorated. But it is so disagreeably provincial to interchange these sounds, that the faulty musical quality will cause less annoyance than the faulty vowel quality. A way out of the difficulty will be afterwards indicated.

Effect of Pitch on ' Peep through glass.'-Take the three words peep through glass, and sing the scale up and down, giving all three words in one
breath to each note and observe the great difference of effect, as already pointed out, and now still more clearly shewn by contrast. And then take the following or any other simple air, and sing it in succession to each of the three words, at all pitches which the voice can reach.


Observe that the effect of altering the vowel is similar to that of altering the instrument, that peep gives a very-reedy sound in the lower tones and a whistling sound in the upper tones, that through gives a fluty sound, especially in the upper tones, and that glass gives by far the best and fullest and pleasantest musical quality of tone.

Effect of Pitch on 'All on, Those, Door, Rush'd, Panes, Fence.' - In order to complete these Exercises, begin by taking all on, or rather awn on, in order to preserve the same consonants, and, treating these words in the same way as the others, observe that they both yield a good tone at nearly all pitches, but not so fine as door, which is
the best of these vowe's, for those approaches, rather too closely to through. Rush'd prolonged, though never a bright clear ringing sound, is yet tolerably uniform in quality at all pitches. Finally, compare panes and fence with that, or rather, to keep the same consonants, compare pane, pen, and pan at all parts of the scale in the way pointed out for other vowels. It will be found that pane has a harsh effect at all parts of the compass of the voice, and that great improvement is due to changing it into pen prolonged, but that the change to pan is rather for the worse. The near resemblance of the two sounds pane and pen prolonged, will therefore enable the singer to avoid much harshness by using the latter for the former.

Results of the Preceding Examination.-By these Exercises the singer will have gradually learned for himself the antagonism of speech and song even for the most singable of speech sounds, the vowels, and he will also not have failed to observe the extremely unvocal and sometimes unpleasant action of the consonants, which in such a word as glaas mars the effect considerably, as shewn by leaving off one or the other or both of the extreme consonants as glaas, laas, glaa, laa, of which the last is by far the best sound known for trying the effect of music independently of words. But it is not enough for the singer to know these results as facts. He requires to know on what natural relations they depend. And he also requires to know what are the precise speech sounds with which he has to deal, why he may take liberties with some and not with others, and how he can render those awkward interruptions of voice, the consonants, sufficiently audible without being disagreeably conspicuous, and this not only for his own language, but for those foreign tongues in which he may be called upon to sing, of which German, Italian, and French are the principal, and will therefore be carefully considered in the following pages.

## II. VOWEL QUALITY OF TONE.

Musical Qualities of Tone first Explained by Professor Helmholtz. -We are indebted to the researches of Professor Helmholtz* for our whole knowledge of the real nature of musical qualities of tone. The following is a very brief statement of some of the principal results of his researches so far as they bear upon speaking and singing.

Simple Vibration.-Watch a pendulum, which is easily made by a piece of thread and a weight, as a key. Observe that the motion gradually diminishes till the weight reaches its highest point, at which moment the upward motion ceases, and the downward motion begins, but so instantaneously that no pause is perceptible, and no jerk takes place in the recommencement of motion. On careful examination, this quiet, uniform, steady, unjerked motion proceeds, till the motion ceases altogether. It has been usual in a pendulum to count the swings in each direction separately, and they are so counted by a clock. But the swing and its return or swang, forming a swing-swang, will, for present purposes, be considered as a single vibration. Thus a seconds pendulum makes 30 vibrations in a minute, each vibration consisting of

[^0]a swing lasting a second, and a swang lasting another second. A vibration of this particular kind, following the precise mathematical law of a pendulum, is called a simple vibration.

Compound Vibration.-All kinds of vibration consist of backwards and forwards motion taking place at regular intervals of time, called periods, so that the moving body is always at the same place at the end of a period. But all vibrations are not simple. For instance, a weaver's shuttle is thrown regularly across the loom, but its motion is suddenly arrested at the end, where it remains an appreciable time and then returns. In this case, however, the swings and swangs are of the same kind, though in different directions. But when an enormous hammer is slowly raised by a machine, and then the head allowed to fall suddenly by its own weight, the swing, or slow motion of the head of the hammer up, is very different from the swang, or rapid motion of the hammer down. Similarly if in driving in a pile, a weight is pulled up by several men tugging at a rope passing over a pulley and then let fall, the swing and swang of the vibration are very different. Such vibrations are called compound, because although actually as single as simple vibrations, mathematicians have discovered that the laws of compound vibrations may be deduced from the laws of several simple
vibrations. This is a matter which must here be taken for granted without further explanation.

Simple and Compound Sounds.-Now sound is a sensation due to the motion of air communicated through the drum-skin of the ear, and a complicated internal apparatus, to the extremities of the nerves of hearing, which, in part, may be compared to a microscopic pianoforte with about 16400 strings tuned to different pitches.* The sensation of a musical tone is experienced only when the particles of air make very small periodic vibrations. When those vibrations are simple, the sounds heard qre called simple; when they are compound, the sounds heard are also termed compound, and the internal apparatus of the ear, especially its microscopic pianoforte, enables the mind to separate the compound sound into a number of simple sounds, exactly corresponding to the exceedingly difficult and complex mathematical separation of the compound vibration of the air into simple vibrations. This analysis by the ear amounts to saying that when any musical sound is made by an instrument or the human voice, the ear experiences the same effect as if a certain series of simple tones having definite musical pitches, and very different degrees of loudness were sounded together. Of course, no such tones are really sounded, but as the mental effect is the same as if they were, it becomes convenient to speak of the compound musical tone as consisting of a series of simple partial tones, and to reason upon these partial tones as if they alone existed, instead of the compound tone itself.

## Experiments on Resonance. Resonance Cham-

 bers. Vibrational Number and Pitch.-Before proceeding further, try the following experiments, which are very important for singers. Strike a cornmon tuning-fork, and hold it in the air; its[^1]sound will scarcely be heard. But hold it with the flat of one prong or the edges of both prongs over the mouths of different tumblers, or wide-necked bottles (pickle or prune or preserve bottles or jars) and a certain amount of reinforcement of the tone will be heard. A wide-mouthed bottle about six inches high will reinforce the $\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$ of ordinary tuning-forks very fairly. Now try the effect of pouring a little water into the bottom of the bottle and observe if the reinforcement is greater or less. If the reinforcement is greater, continue to pour more water till the reinforcement reaches its greatest effect and then lessens, and keep in only so much of the water as gives the greatest effect. If pouring water into the empty bottle makes the reinforcement of the tone of the tuning-fork less than before, empty the bottle, and with a piece of tin, wood, glass, or pasteboard (the cover of a book answers very well) forming a hard, flat cover, gradually diminish the opening of the mouth of the glass. The reinforcement will certainly increase up to a certain degree of covering, and then again diminish. Retain the amount of covering giving the greatest reinforcement. At least an octave of difference can be produced in this way, so that forks of very different pitches can be reinforced by the same bottle differently loaded with water at the bottom or covered at the top. The effect of water at the bottom and an open mouth is generally far superior to that of a covered mouth. After the best reinforcement is thus obtained, try the effect of partially obstructing the interior of the bottle by pieces of paper, wood, \&c., which do not alter the height of the water; these may be suspended from a thin stick laid over the mouth of the bottle, so as not to reach as far as the water. In every case the effect will be found to impair the beauty of the tone produced.

The reinforcement of such bottles is due to setting the air within them into vibration by means of the tuning-fork, and is termed resonance, and the bottles are resonance chambers or cavities. The tone to which such a cavity resounds best is said to
be its own tone (or one of its own tones, for most cavities of various shapes will resound to very different tones). The tone heard in these experiments is a simple tone, due to a simple vibration of the air. The number of vibrations which such a tone performs in a second of time is called its vibrational number, or sometimes simply its pitch, because the sensation of pitch depends solely on the vibrational number, and our perception of what particular nervous fibre in the microscopic piano of the internal ear already mentioned corresponds to that number of vibrations.

The Nature of Musical Quality of Tone. Helmholts arranged tuning-forks, kept in constant motion by electricity, and corresponding to the notes-

| $\mathrm{d}_{1}$ | d | s | $\mathrm{~d}^{1}$ | $\mathrm{~m}^{\prime}$ | $\mathrm{s}^{1}$ | $\mathrm{ta}^{\prime}$ | $\mathrm{d}^{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |

(where ta` is a little flattor than the true musical ta) before proper resonance cavities, with covers, which he could partly close by finger keys to any amount he pleased, so as to increase or diminish the degree of the opening of the mouth of any one or more. The vibrational numbers of these notes are in the proportion of the figures written under them, so that if the vibrational number of \(d_{1}\) were 64 , that of \(d\) would be twice 64 or 128 , that of \(s\) would be 3 times 64 or 192, that of \(\mathrm{d}^{\prime} 4\) times 64 or 256 , that of \(\mathrm{ml}^{\mathrm{l}} 5\) times 64 or 320 , that of \(\mathrm{sl}^{6} 6\) times 64 or 384 , that of ta` 7 times 64 or 448 , and that of $\mathrm{d}^{2} 8$ times 64 or 512 , the vibrational number of the simple tone obtained from a common $\mathrm{C}^{1}$ tuningfork. Helmholtz then found that by making all the forks sound at once, but by varying their degrees of loudness, he was able to reproduce a satisfactory imitation of the qualities of tone of most musical instruments and of several German vowel sounds. And (by conducting similar experiments with great care) he established that the quality of a compound tone consists solely in the various degrees of strength of the system of simple partial tones into which it is resolved by the ear. The various partial
tones have always the relative pitches thus found, and are hence called the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, \&c., partials respectively. The 1st is also called the prime, and the others the upper partials. The prime is generally (not always) much stronger than the other notes, and hence being most distinctly heard, determines the feeling of pitch. Hence the vibrational number of a compounid musical tone is taken to be that of its prime. When the prime is not the loudest partial, the ear is frequently deceived as to the real pitch, and, as in that case the 2nd partial or Octave ot the prime is generally the loudest, the usual error is that of an Octave.

Quality of Tone of the Singing Voice.-All musical tones and all sung vowels have qualities of tone depending upon the relative loudness of the simple partial tones of the notes to which they are sung. And this relative loudness is determined partly by the mode in which the air is excited by a vibrating body directly, and partly by the resonance of the air in a cavity through which the vibration of the air excited by the vibrating body is conducted before it reaches the outer air, and partly by other causes which need not be here con sidered. In singing, the vibrating body consists of the two elastic chords which form the edges of the glottis or breathing hole in the larynx, and the mode of action is to allow puffs of air of various descriptions to pass periodically from the lungs into the resonance cavities above. All sounds produced by emitting a series of successive puffs have a very great number of partial tones. Good bass voices have at least 20 . The deep tones of the harmonium have at least 16 very sensible partials. The resonance chambers iu speech are very numerous and very variable in form, and there are various constrictions and valves on the way. The consequence is that there are numerous resonances which reinforce very different partials, producing most of the qualities of the human voice, including the various vowel qualities and their varieties due to pitch and expression.

Vowel Quality of Tone due to Resonance.-The action of the resonance chambers in produeing vowel qualities is rather complicated, but we may state generally that every specific vowel quality has its own special resonanee cavity adapted to reinforce to the greatest extent various simple tones of exactly defined pitch. Now the pitch of the note sung by the voice at any time, (that is, of its prime partial,) is seldom or never the same as any one of the pitches which could be reinforced by the resonance cavities. Some of the higher partial tones will, however, be tolerably near to that pitch. In making the experiments with a tuning-fork and a resonance jar the reader will have felt the difference of effect as the resonance of the jars approached to or receded from the pitch of the fork, and have found that in some cases the tone of the fork was almost quenched by the inability of the air in the jar to resound to it. The same thing happens when the mouth is put into the position corresponding to any vowel. All the partial tones of which the pitch is tolerably near to those which the resonance cavity is adapted to reinforce best, will be more or less reinforced, and the others will be either left untouched or more or less damped. Hence every tone sung will have its quality of tone altered by the nature of the vowel position of the mouth, and this alteration of the original quality of tone is that which we recognise as a vowel. The different vowels in speech differ, as if, for example, we played for peep, a picolo flute; for through, a deep organ flue pipe; for glass, any conical organ reed pipe, and so on. Or as if for the vowels we substituted entirely different instruments. Just as we know a violin A from a flute A, or from a pianoforte A, or from an oboe A, and so on (all of which are compound musical tones having the same pitch), by their different qualities of tone only, so we know the vowels of speech when suag to the same pitch, solely by their difference of quality which we have been taught to recognise from childhood. We thus, too, are able to understand why some vowels always and necessarily give
a bad quality of tone, and why by a slight alteration of the resonance cavities of the mouth, \&c., we can improve the quality of tone without rendering it so different as to be no longer recognisable. We can also understand why it is that by other changes in the pusition of the mouth, \&c., we can entirely change the quality, and make it unfitted for any musical purposes. Sing on any pitch to the vowel in glaas, and while keeping the voice steadily at that pitch, and purposing constantly to pronounce the same vowel, more or less close the teeth, raise or twist the tongue, close or twist the mouth, making the aperture of very various shapes and dimensions, or open the entrance to the nose, leaving the mouth either shat or open. Observe the great variety of qualities of tone, some good, others bad, and all more or less strange, which will thus result. This exercise is very important for making the singer feel the meaning of quality of tone, and the extent to which it is under his command. He will thus gradually learn to understand that for every musical note which can be produced in the larynx, there is an original quality of tone, which, however, it is impossible for us ever to hear, because we cannot remove all that portion of tho head which lies above the larynx, without destroying the power of the larynx to produce any tone at all. We are, therefore, constrained to hear only its modification by the resonance chambers through which the vibrating air must inevitably pass. But we can perfectly well understand that these act just as variously shaped organ pipes fitted to the same reed (which, unlike the larynx, can be made to sound independently of the pipes). We are thus able to define that a vowel is a modification (due to resonance in the cavities above the larynx), of an original quality of tone (produced by the vibrations of the vocal cords in the larynx.)

Experiments on the Nature of Vowel Qualities of Tone.-It may be observed in passing, that all concords, when the notes sung are in just intonation, are really qualities of tone, and that the
roughness arising from discords and from tempered music is due to the introduction of sounds not belonging to the series of partials $1,2,3$, \&c., or else to the beats of the partials of the tones which are sounded together. Procure seven voices which can sing $d_{1} d_{s} d^{\prime} m^{\prime} s^{\prime} d^{2}$ in perfect tune at the same time, and then let them vary the strength greatly, singing, for example, in succession as marked by the letters $p p, p, m f, f, f f$, and 0 for silence, in the following scheme.


If voices cannot be procured, produce the tones in these different degrees of loudness on a quartet of viols, which, however, is not quite so good for the purpose. The two first trials give the full effect of the chord, but not of any usual qualities of toneThe six last give effects not at all like chords or qualities of tone, but differing much in the same way as vowels. As the notes used are all compound tones, and not simple tones, the effect is not precisely the same asin vowels, but it is of the same kind.

Raise the dampers on a piano by the forte-pedal, and sing loudly and suddenly any vowel to the pitch of some note (a bass note is the best), directing the voice against the sound-board or strings, which should be exposed, at least in part, by opening the piano.* After a little pause the vowel will be echoed back from the piano. Damp the strings entirely, and sing a different vowel in the same way to the same note; after a pause, this new

[^2]vowel is re-echoed. The re-echoed vowels are loud enough for a whole roomful of people to hear, and like enough for them to recognise, but they are not perfect, partly on account of the imperfect tuning of the pianoforte, and partly on account fo the sluggish action of the strings. The effect arises from the fact that strings vibrate sympathetically with the human voice, but only those partial tones of the strings will sound sympathetically which are of the same pitch, or very nearly so, as some of the partial tones in the voice, and the pause is due to the circumstance that strings require time to get into audible vibration. This is a highly interesting experiment for singers, because it shews that vowels are really only qualities of tone which can be mechanically reproduced. And it is still more interesting generally as showing the precise way in which qualities of tone are communicated to the ear by the microscopical piano already mentioned, which forms the extremities of the nerves of hearing. These are set in motion by the vibrations of an elastic fluid in which they are immersed, and which has had its own vibrations communicated to it by the elastic external air. In the actual piano the strings are set in motion by the vibrations of the sounding board, which again has had its own vibrations communicated to it by the external air.

Mr. A. Graham Bell, son of Mr. A. Melville Bel' (to whose labours on speech I shall often have to allude), in the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, in 1876, exhibited a means of conveying the complex vibrations which produce the effect of vowels, and musical notes, that is, of vowels spoken and sung, through an electrical telegraph, to an ear placed at the other end of the telegraph wire, simply by making an elastic spring vibrate in sympathy with the vowels. This extraordinary fact, which is of great importance in clearing up our notions of the nature of vowel qualities of tono, was vouched for at the Glasgow Meeting of the British Association in 1876, by the great electrician, Sir William Thompson, who had himself heard the vowels produced.

## III. SHORT KEY T0 GLOSSIC,

## DIAGRAMS, SYSTEMATIC ARRANGEMENT OF THE SPEECH-SOUNDS.

Description of the following Tables.-In the preceding Sections it was sufficient to indicate our 13 strong or accented vowels by 13 words containing them. But before proceeding to explain the nature of particular speech sounds here considered, it is necessary to give some notion of the systematic method of writing them here adopted, and called "Glossic." In the Tables of "English and Foreign Glossic" there is given a column of words in small and large capitals, each followed by a word in small letters. The large or small capitals indicate Glossic, the small letters customary or Nomic spelling, and each word is written in both spellings. The Glossic large capitals shew the combinations of letters which represent the sounds expressed by the Nomic Italic letters. The turned period $(\cdot)$ or accent mark shews that the preceding vowel is strong, and, when the accent mark follows the vowel immediately, the vowel is long, but when a consonant intervenes, the vowel is short. By this means a general idea of the sounds will be obtained, sufficient for understanding the pronunciations occasionally inserted. For numerous examples and exact descriptions see the "Glossic Index" (Section XII) and the pages there referred to. Words in Glossic Spelling are usually dis-
tinguished by being in Italics or else between square brackets [].

The diagrams are sufficiently described on the page which faces them, and will be frequently referred to hereafter. They may be disregarded at first.

The "Systematic Arrangement" includes all the sounds treated in this book For an explanation of such symbols as are not found in the following short key, see the passages referred to in the Glossic Index. They are collected together in this place for future reference, and may be entirely passed over at first, as they will be unintelligible without the following explanation.
Note, that th, dh, kh, gh, sh, zh, ng must be separated by a hyphen when they have not the following meanings, as pot-hous,mad-hous, bai $\cdot k$-hous, bag-hoal, mis-hap, in - -goa-ing, as poth-ous, madhous, baikh-ous, bagh-oal, mish-ap, ing-oa-ing would represent quite different sounds.

Note also that the accent mark (.) is generally sufficient for this purpose, as pot-hous. The accent mark is placed immediately after a long vowel or diphthong, and immediately after the consonants following a short vowel in the same syllable, as shewn in the examples. It is not used in French words.

ENGLISH GLOSSIC.

Strong Long Vowels.
bEE•т beet
BAI• bait
BAA• baa кAU•г саul кОА• с coal к00'L cool

## Strong, Short, and Stopped Vowels.

 nIt Ing knitting nOting knotting $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { NEt'ing } \\ \text { NAET'ING }\end{array}\right\}$ netting mAtring matting fUOTring footing (Note. AE, UU are used by some speakers only.)Weak, Short, and Open Vowels.
troa $\cdot \mathrm{KEE}$ trochee wir-I witty RAI LewAI railway

AUgus't August wis•dOA window in'flOOens influence
Diphthongs.
AAY aye hEIT height

FOIL foil fOUl foul rEUd feud

## Glottid.

Har hay

Consonants.
Yar• $y$ ea
YHeu $h$ ue

Peer pea
Bee bee
Toa toe
DoA. doe
CHes'r chest
Jes'т ${ }^{\text {jest }}$
Keerp keep
Gar'p gape
$\mathrm{War}^{\prime} \cdot$ way
$\mathrm{WH}_{\mathrm{ar}} \cdot$ whey
Fei $f$ ie!
Vei $v$ ie
THin ${ }^{\text {thin }}$
DHen• then
Seere seal
Zeere zeal
meSH - mesh
meZH•er measure

Consonantal L, $M, N, N G$.

Lar lay
Mar may
$\mathrm{Nar}^{2}$ nay
siNG•ING singing
Vocal L, M, N.
ur-L little RITH•M rhyth $m$ $\mathrm{oA} \cdot \mathrm{PN}$ open

Trilled $R^{\prime}$.
$\mathrm{R}^{\prime} \mathrm{Ar}^{\prime}$ ray MER'I merry MAR'I marry

Vocal R. Strong.
HER•s herb
mER• myrrh
huR' ${ }^{\text {r hurry }}$ окUR'ezns occurrence.

кER- cur
oxER- occur

Vocal R. Weak.

DoL-ER dollar PROP-ER proper belik $\cdot \mathrm{sER}$ elixir tar $\cdot$ ER tailor

Vocal R. Diphthongal. pEE•R peer pAI•R pair pAA•R par
-
nAU•Rth north
POA•R pour pOO•R poor
on•ER honour MER'mER mur mur plezh•ER pleasure

Vocal R. Triphthongal.
EIR ire
EUR your

Vocal $R$ (Strong \& Diphthongal) followed by Trilled $R$ '.
oxER $\cdot$ R'ing occurring mAA RR'ing marring pEE RR'ing peering pOA $\cdot$ RR'ing pouring pAI•RR'ing pairing pOO $\cdot$ RR'er poorer

Vocal $R$ (Triphthongal) followed by Trilled $R$.
 кEU•RR'ing curing

Weak indistinct $A, E L, E M, E N$. eidee•A ide $a$ Eid•EL idol Ree•EL real
buoz:EM bosom TEN•ENT tenant

## FOREIGN GLOSSIC.

Foreign and Provincial English Vowels. ${ }_{\text {bAET }}$ bête. F. dUE du. F.
каокАEт coquette. F. UEt hutte. F. laHsh lâche. F. kAHsai casser. F. nAO nò. I.
fEO feu. F.
GEO•ти. Gcothe. G.
vOEf veuf. F.

вОЕк• U böcke. G.

## French Nasal Vowels.

vAEN' vin. F.
OAN' on. If.
AHN' $a n$. F.
OEN' $u n$. F.

German Consonants.

DAAKH dach. G. tas ${ }^{\text {GHU }}$ tage. G. EEKY'H ich. G. keo'neeGY'Hu könige. G. PF' ${ }^{\prime a} \cdot{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{L}$ pfahl. G. $\mathrm{V}^{\prime} \mathrm{AA}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}$ wahl. G.

Italian and French Liquids.
LY'ee gli. I. NY'aok'roa gnocco. I. paa $\cdot$ LY'at paglia. I. beezao NY'aa bisogra. I. brozaonY' besogne. F.

DIAGRAMS OF POSITIONS FOR VOWELS AND CONSONANTS.

|  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Y An |  |
| A.] <br> ae |  |  |  |
| $\begin{array}{ll} \left.a^{\prime}\right] \\ R^{*} & \\ \hline \end{array}$ |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \\ & \hline 10 \end{aligned}$ |
| $\mathbf{w}^{*}+\ln ^{\prime}$ |  |  |  |
| $\left.\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{cc} (\mathrm{B} 0 \\ \mathrm{uu} \end{array}\right.\right] \xrightarrow{\text { ann }}$ |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |

Aorr.-*Voiced Consanants. (Rounded Vowel. ] Wide Vowel. (] Wide Round Vowel.

## DESCRIPTIONS OF THE DIAGRAMS.

These are merely diagrams, not complete drawings of the vocal organs. They are intended to shew roughly the positions of the tongue with regard to the palate, teeth, and uvula, and the position of the lips with respect to each other, and to the teeth, during the utterance of the vowels and consonants described in the following Sections.
Diagrams 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 (occupying the whole first column) are longitudinal sections of the mouth, supposed to be cut from top to bottom, from the back (on the left), to the teeth in the front on the right). The shaded parts are the Uvula [eu•veula] and the Tongue. The top line denotes the Palate [pal-et] or roof of the mouth, and the sharp angles on the right are the upper and lower Teeth. The wavy line at the root of tongue is the Epiglottis [ep-iglot-is] or lid of the larynx. The line against which the uvula rests to prevent the air escaping through the nose is the back of the Pharynx [far'ingks] or fleshy bag behind the mouth.

Diagrams 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21 (occupying the whole of the third column, and also 25,26 , in the fourth column) are similar sections, extending as far as the lips (also shaded, but 15 and 18 omit the tongue as its position for P, B*, F, V* is determined by that due to the following sound.
Diagrams $22,23,24$, in the fourth column, are similar sections, including the lips and one Nostril, and also the Upper Bag of the Pharynx, through which the air escapes into the nose (in the direction shewn by the dotted line and arrow heads), because the uvula is not pressed against the back of the pharynx, as in $1,2,3$, \&c.
Diagrams $8,9,10$, in the second, and 27,28 , in the fourth column, are cross sections of the mouth, in front of a line joining the ears. The upper curve is the Palate or roof of the mouth; the side pendants are the Side Teeth, and the shaded part is the upper portion of the tongue.

Diagram 11, in the second column, shews the open or non-rounded lips, and 12, 13, 14, also in the second column, shew the lips rounded in different degrees, the teeth behind them being always wide apart. Observe the difference of the corners of the mouth in 11 and 14 . In 12, the lips are kigh-round; in 13, mid-round; and in 14, lowround.

The letters to the left of each diagram, are the Glossic characters used for the corresponding sounds in the preceding "Short Key." Sometimes two or three diagrams are required to shew the position for one vowel or consonant.

The CAPITAL LETTERS indicate the vowels heard in received English pronunciation. The small letters shew the vowel sounds heard in German, Italian, and French.

When ] is placed after a letter, as for AA], the larynx must be depressed, and the pharynx widened. When (is placed before a letter, as for (OA, the lips must be rounded, as marked in diagrams $12,13,14$, in the second column, according as the tongue is high, mid, or low for producing the vowel, thus (OO, UUO], (ue, have the highround lips in 12, (OA, UO], (eo, (oe] have the midround lips in 13, and (AU,' (O, have the low-round lips in 14. When no (is prefixed, the lips are as in 11. When (is placed before and ] after a letter, as for ( 0$]$, the lips must be rounded and the larynx depressed and the pharynx widened at the same time.

When * is placed after a consonant the voice has to be set on.
$\mathrm{YH}, \mathrm{Y}^{*}$ differ too slightly in position from EE, and WH, W* from (OO, to be distinguished from them in these rough diagrams.

H, accompanied. or not by unvoiced breath, being produced by a jerk of the diaphragm (dei ufram), or muscular layer separating the lungs from the bowels, has no diagram.

In $\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{Z}^{*}$ the tip of the tongue is tense or stiff. In $\mathrm{R}^{*}$ * it is soft or loose, and vibrates as the breath passes over it, producing interruptions or beats. Observe that for $\mathrm{L}^{*}$, diagram 27, the centre of the tongue, and for $\mathrm{R}^{*}$, diagram 28, the sides of the tongue touch the palate. For T, D*, diagram 16, both the centre and the sides touch the palate, forming a complete stop.
$R^{*}$ is treated as a vowel, diagram 4, being the sound of U, always followed by R ${ }^{\prime *}$ before a vowel, and permissively, not obligatorily, followed by a very gentle R** in other cases.

Diphthongs and changing positions could not be noted, but are analysed in the following Sections.

## SYSTEMATIC ARRANGEMENT OF ENGLISH, GERMAN, ITALIAN AND FRENCH SPEECH-SOUNDS.

Capitals, English. Roman small, additional German, Italian. and French. Italic small, Incidental. $t$, not treated in these pages.
Call the letters by their usual names, except $r$, which call air to prevent confusion with aa, and $m$, which is best called am, as em and en are difficult to distinguish. Call (") before and (') after a letter "hook,", (.) before a letter " curve," ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ) before a letter " circle," ( 1 ) " gradual," ( ( ) " clear," ( + ) " glide," $(\div)$ "slur." Thus : uu "eu eu," w "double eu,", $h$ " "circle aich hook," $h_{7}$ "aich clear," "r "curve air," ' $r$ " hook air," $r$ " " air double-hook."
A. VOWELS. SECTION V.
I. II. III. IV. V.

| Height | Tongue. | Primary. | Wide. | Round. | Wide-round. | Nasal. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | High Front. | EE | I | $\dagger$ | ue | $\dagger$ |
| 2 | Mid Front. | AI | E | eo | Oe | oen' |
| 3 | Low Front. | ae | A | $\dagger$ | + | aen ${ }^{\prime}$ |
| 4 | High Mixed. | + | 8 | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ | $+$ |
| 5 | Mid Mixed. | U | $a^{\prime}$ | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ | + |
| 6 | Low Mixed. | $\dagger$ | $e^{\prime}$ | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ |
| 7 | High Back. | $u{ }^{\prime}$ | ${ }^{*}$ | 00 | UO | $\dagger$ |
| 8 | Mid Back. | uu | AA | OA | AO | oan' |
| 9 | Low Back. | $\dagger$ | ah | AU | 0 | ahn' |

B. GLOTTIDS. SECTION VII.

1. ${ }^{\circ} h$, open glottis, flatus
2. ${ }^{\circ} h$, contracted glottis, whisper.
3. $h$ ', closed glottis, voice.
4. 2, gradual attack or release, glottis moving from open to close, or from close to open, position.
5. 7, clear attack or release, glottis closed for voice from first to last.
6. ; , check, closed glottis, barring expiration by effectually resisting the pressure of the air.
7. $H$, jerk; including $h_{l}$ jerked gradual attack, and $h_{7}$ jerked clear attack, the two forms of aspirate.
C. CONSONANTS. SECTION VIII.

|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 畀 } \\ & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{3} \\ & \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{3} \\ & \text { i } \end{aligned}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ORAL. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Mute. | P |  |  |  | $t$ | T |  | ${ }^{\text {t }}$ | $t y^{\prime}$ | $c h$ | $k y^{\prime}$ | K | $k w^{\prime}$ |
| Imploded. | ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{b}$ |  |  |  | ${ }^{\circ} d^{\prime}$ | ${ }^{\circ} d$ |  |  |  |  |  | ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{g}$ |  |
| Voiced. | B |  |  |  | $d^{\prime}$ | D |  | ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | $d y^{\prime}$ | $j^{\prime}$ | $g y^{\prime}$ | G | $g w^{\prime}$ |
| Central. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Flated. | WH | $\mathrm{f}^{\prime}$ | F | TH | $t ' h$ | ${ }^{\prime}$ | S | SH | $s h$, | YH | ky'h | kh | $k w ' h$ |
| Voiced. | W | v' | V | DH | $d^{\prime} h$ | $z^{\prime}$ | Z | ZH | $z h^{\prime}$ | Y | gy'h | gh | $g w^{\prime} h$ |
| Lateral. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Flated. |  |  |  |  | $r^{\prime} h$ | lh $\quad l \mathrm{~h}$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Voiced. |  |  |  |  | $l$ | L $\downarrow$ |  | ، | ly' |  |  |  |  |
| Trilled. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Flated. | ${ }^{\prime} p r$ |  |  |  | $r " h$ | $r^{\prime} h$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Voiced. |  | ' $w r$ |  |  |  | R' |  | ${ }^{r} \times{ }^{r}$ |  |  |  | 'r'"r'gh |  |
| NASAL. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Shut. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Flated. | $m h$ |  |  |  | $n$ "h | $n h$ |  |  |  |  |  | ngh |  |
| Voiced. | M |  |  |  | $n^{\prime \prime}$ | N |  | ${ }^{n}$ | ny' |  |  | NG |  |

D. GLIDES AND SLURS. SECTIONS VI \& IX.

1. Vowel $\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{I} \div \mathrm{U}$.
2. Mixed, $\mathrm{B}+\mathrm{I}+\mathrm{Z}+\mathrm{I} \div \mathrm{L}+\mathrm{I}$.

Consonant $\mathrm{P} \div \mathrm{L}$.

## IV. MODE OF PRODUCING SPEECH-S0UNDS.

Flatus, or Audible Breath.-Breath driven from the lungs passes, through the "larynx" (lar'ingks) and throat, into the mouth or nose, or both, and so reaches the air. When the larynx is unobstructed, and the force with which breath is ejected is moderate, no sound is noticed. When the breath is driven more sharply through the unobstructed larynx, and the other passages are more or less compressed or obstructed, it is called "flatus" (faittus), and produces various kinds of "hiss." Both breath and flatus are unsuitable for singing, although flatus is very important in speech, and, when the cavity of the mouth is properly adapted, can become musical in "whistling,"

Vocal Chords.-The opening of the larynx is traversed by two highly elastic bands, called the "vocal chords." A good notion of their shape and action is obtained by extending the fore and middle fingers of the left hand (the other fingers and thumb being doubled in), and resting their tips on the lowest joint (that nearest the palm of hand) of the fore and middle fingers of the right hand, the rest of these fingers and all the other fingers being bent down, and the palms of both hands facing the ground. The figure thus formed is lozenge-shaped, with two long sides (the left fingers representing the vocal chords) and two short sides representing the "arytenoid cartilages" (ar'•itee'noid kaa'rtilejez), or ladle-shaped pieces of gristle, by which the chords can be opened or brought together (imitated by the motion of the right fingers). The point or vertex of the angle formed by the chords, which are horizontal, lies in the front of the larynx, just where "Adam's apple" can be felt in the throat. The variable tongue-shaped opening between the vocal chords is ralled the "glottis" (glot is).

Whisper as Distinguished from Flatus..-When the chords and cartilages are both open, there is a perfect passage for the breath, and only inaudible breath or audible flatus is possible. When the edges of the chords are brought near, but not in contact, there is a " fluttering" of the edges of the chords, which, though insufficient to produce voice proper, causes "whisper," which is felt as a mixture of voice and flatus. This is also quite unsuited for singing.

Voice and Original Quality of Tone.-When the edges of the chords absolutely touch, forming a complete barrier to the breath, but are not held tight and rigid, so that the breath is able to open them slightly, after which they close again by their own elasticity, the air passes out in regularly recurrent " puffs." The rapidity of these puffs depends on the "tightness" with which the chords are stretched; and the "cleanness" of the puffs 'that is, their sharp separation from each other) depends upon the exactness and duration of the closure of the chords, the length of time during which they remain closed, and many other circumstances. The "rapidity" of the puffs (that is, the number of them which occur in a second) determines the pitch of the compound musical tone, as defined in Sec. II., p. 8. The "cleanness" of the puffs determines the initial quality of tone, that is, the number of partial tones in any musical tone of the voice (always very large) and their relative degrees of loudness. The natural formation of the chords and the perfect exactness and nature of their elasticity are the main ingredients in a good voice. This quality 18 , however, greatly influenced by a little, but extremely variable, cavity, just above the chords ("the ventricle of Morgagni,"
ven'trikl ov Maor'gaa'ny'ee) by the box of the larynx itself, and especially by its lid, the "epiglottis" (ep-iglot is). But though all this apparatus greatly changes the quality of tone, by which we express the various kinds of emotion mentioned in Sec. I., p. 2, and hence becomes of the greatest importance both to the singer and the orator, they do not make the modifications recognised in speech proper, and they cannot be described with sufficient brevity or clearness for practical purposes. All these modifications of quality have, therefore, to be learned by special training exercises, patterned by a skilful teacher, which it is not our business at present to consider. It is, however, important to know, that the singing and speaking voice issues from the larynx and enters the throat or "pharynx" (far' ${ }^{\prime}$ ing hss) with a determinate quality of tone and a determinate pitch, and that the quality, but not the pitch, has to be subsequently modified by the resonant cavities through which it passes, and that this modification transforms the merely vocal sound into intelligible speech.

The Resonance Cavities -The reader should now refer to the rough diagrams on p. 14, with the explanations there given, which will be rendered more intelligible by what follows. The wavy line at the bottom of diagrams 1 to 7 indicates rudely the top of the epiglottis. The "voice" (or recurrent puffs forming the air within the cavities into waves) passes between it and the line to its left, which forms the back wall of the pharynx. These diagrams shew a little shaded tongue, the "uvula" (ev'veula), lying against this wall, so that the puffs of air have to pass into the mouth, through a narrowing passage (not shewn in the diagrams) called the "arches of the palate." These and the uvula are easily seen in a small looking-glass when the mouth is opened. If, however, the uvula lie free from the back wall of the pharynx, as in diagrams $22,23,24$, the voice or puffs of air can also pass behind it, as sherwn by the dotted line and arrow heads. through the pear-shaped "upper" pharynx and the "back" nostrils (which lie where
the dotted line cuts the front wall of the upper pharynx), into the complicated "nasal cavities" above the "hard" palate, and finally escapes by the "front " nostrils.

Brief Definitions of Breath, Flatus, Whisper, and Voice as Originators, and Throat, Nose, and Mouth as Modifiers of Sound.-The points to be borne in mind by the singer or speaker who wishes to understand the nature of pronunciation are these :-

Breath. Quiet, noiseless emission of air from the lungs through the open glottis, and unobstructed mouth or nose, or both,--unvocal, unmusical.

Flatus. Audible emission of air, through the open glottis, and more or less constricted or obstructed throat, mouth, or nose,-unvocal, unmusical, more or less hissing.

Whisper. Audible emission of air, through a glottis nearly but not quite closed, thrown into imperfect puffs by the fluttering of the edges of the vocal chords, but allowing much flatus to pass without sensible alteration by the puffs,-unmusical, but occasionally used in speaking, more or less vocal.

Voice. Audible emission of air through a completely closed glottis, forcing the chords asunder, and wholly reduced to regular puffs, that is, without allowing any sensible flatus to pass, with a variable, but in each case definite, original quality of tone and pitch, producing sonorous undulations (soanoarr'us undeulai shenz) in the resonance cavities, which modify the quality of tone (but not the pitch) by altering the relative degree of loudness of the upper partials (p. 8), and send out the undulations to the atmosphere, producing the sensation of a more or less musical sound with a definite quality of tone,-rocal, musical.

Resonance Cavities.-Besides the small cavities of the larynx which determine the original quality of tone, there are three principal cavities, under the voluntary control of the speaker or singer, which modify it. These may be called,
Throat. The lower pharynx from the epiglottis to the part where the uvula cuts off the entrance to the nose, and the arches of the palate form the entrance to the mouth-all breath, flatus, or voice must enter this cavity.

Nose. The upper pharynx and the cavities above the hard palate, from which all breath, flatus, or voice can be cut off at pleasure.
Mouth. The cavity between the arches of the palate and the lips,-the most modifiable of all the resonance cavities.

How to Study the Effect of the Modifiers.-The first business of the pupil in learning to pronounce accurately, whether in speaking or in singing, is to study the method of altering the form or action of these three modifying cavities, throat, nose and mouth, and the effect of their various changes in modifying the quality of tone. Numerous exercises will be suggested for bringing these actions home to the consciousness of the learner, as particular cases occur, but it is first advisible to obtain a general notion of the action. As this book is intended especially for singers, the singing voice will be alone considered, and it is fortunately altogether simpler than the speaking voice.

Throat Modifications.-During quiet respiration place a finger gently on the hard lump of the Adam's apple, or gristly box forming the larynx. Close the mouth tightly and swallow. The larynx will be felt to jump upwards, quite above the point of the finger. After practising this once or twice, till the action of the muscles becomes understood, raise the larynx without swallowing. It is evident that when the larynx is raised the whole of the pharynx is shortened, and hence its shape is materially altered.

Next place the thumb and two fingers lightly on the throat above the larynx, close under the jaw, and swallow as before. It will be found that the throat, which was before soft and loose, becomes suddenly hard and tight, and projects considerably. Hence when the larynx is raised there is a great contraction of the muscles in this region, which makes them swell externally, and also internally, constricting the pharynx as well as shortening it.

Sing to the vowel $a a$, a middle note in your compass and call it d, and then take $s$ above and $s_{1}$ below, both as nearly as possible to the same vowelsound $a a$, while holding the throat in the two ways just mentioned, and observe generally that the higher note raises and constricts the pharynx, and the lower note lowers and relaxes the pharynx.

In actual singing and speech very great varieties in the length and degree of constriction of the pharynx take place, but it is found sufficient for the classification of speech-sounds to distinguish two classes of modification:-Throat primary, that is, with the larynx and pharynx in about the ordinary position of quiet respiration; Throat wide, that is, with the larynx lower and the pharynx opener than before. This refers evidently to the ordinary range of pitch in speech. In singing, as has just been seen, these distinctions cannot be satisfactorily carried out, as the pitch naturally alters the position of the larynx. But distinctions more or less equivalent to these can be made, as was intimated in Section I., and will be more particularly alluded to afterwards, and hence we may retain the rough distinction of the terms primary and wide, which were introduced by Mr. Melville Bell in his "Visible Speech," when he for the first time drew attention to the effect of pharyngal action on speech-sounds.

Nose Modifications.-Open the mouth as widely as possible, facing the full light of a window, with the head well thrown back to admit the light, and with a very small piece of looking-glass, which will not cast a shadow in the throat, observe the interior of the mouth. Note especially the arch of the palate, and the uvula hanging from the middle of it like a
little tongue-the real tongue may be kept down by thinking of the vowel au, without making any attempt to utter it. Now breathe quietly through the nose only. It will be seen that the tongue immediately rises, and clings close to the top of the arch of the palate, completely concealing the uvula. This action closes the mouth against the passage of the air from the throat, and forces it through the nose. Then draw breath through the mouth, and the tongue immediately sinks, and observe its alternate rise and fall for a few respirations. Change the mode of respiration, inspiring and expiring by the nose only. The tongue will be seen to remain fixed above. Again change the mode of respiration, and expire by both the nose and the mouth. When the motion is gentle, you will see the uvula gently advance every time you expire, and if you breathe with a jerk, the uvula will be absolutely jerked forward, together with all the loose folds of the "soft palate" forming the top of the arch of the palate, and the point of the uvula will be thrown upwards. This is produced by the rapid passage of the air both behind the uvula and below it.

Stand as before, with open mouth and glass, and breathing quietly for one or two respirations, suddenly say or sing the vowel $a a$ to a short staccato note at an easy pitch, and then proceed with the easy respiration. Do this several times in succession.' Observe (and don't cease experimenting till you have clearly observed) that every time $a a$ is sung there is formed a sudden dimple or saucer-shaped depression in the uvula just below the arch of the palate and some little way from its tip, evidently arising from bringing the back of the uvula against the back wall of the pharynx, as shewn in the diagrams 1 to 7 , having the effect of stopping off the passage of air into the nose, just as the tongue in a former experiment stopped off the passage of air into the mouth.
Next, standing as before, sing aa steadily at an easy pitch, and observe that the uvula is drawn back as already mentioned. Then in the same breath and with the same degree of force (trying
to keep the tongue quite steady, which will be found difficult), endeavour to give aa a "nasal twang,"' which 1 will write as ، $a$, and observe that immediately the quality of tone changes, the uvula again descends freely, as in the quiet respiration through mouth and nose. The effect is not so strong or striking as before, because the roive does not admit of being emitted with so much force as the unobstructed breath, but if carefully observed for several successive alterations of $a a, a a \quad a a \quad a a a a$, it will be quite unmistakable. The greatest diffculty will be felt in keeping the tongue down to its proper position for $a a$, as it involuntarily rises to check the air from entering the mouth, and, if the tongue is not kept down, the uvula cannot be properly seen. This exercise will also shew that nasality cannot be prevented by throwing the head well back, but that a muscular action is still necessary to press the uvula against the back wall of the pharynx and keep it there.
After this has been practised before the glass till you are familiar with the action, practise it wifhout the glass, and get to feel the action of the muscles required to draw the uvula away from the wall of the pharynx. Practice also to feel the difference between a small and a great degree of nasal twang. Practice also the effect of closing the front nostrils with the fingers, while singing aa and while singing $a a$, and observe that this closure leaves $a a$ absolutely unaltered, but changes $a a$, not into $a a$ or any untwanged vowel, but into a different nasal twang, arising from the circumstance that the resonance in the nasal cavities, which still takes place, does not freely communicate with the outer air. The power we have of altering the degree of nasality depends, at least partially, on the degree of opening between the back of the uvula and the wall of the pharynx, and the slightest degree of such opening during the sound of a vowel is unendurable in English, German, or Italian singing, though occasionally necessary in French. As many English, and especially Americans, and even Germans are apt to nasalise their vowels, and most especially this vowel $a a$, the most careful practice
is required to avoid it, and the valvular action of the uvula should be thoroughly understood by much repetition of the experiments here suggested, which may be easily considerably varied.

Mouth Modifications-Action of Teeth and Lips. -The size of the mouth may be greatly changed, without much alteration of its form, by the opening and closing of the jaw. Many speakers are in the habit of keeping their teeth close. In the experiments of Section II. we saw how much the closing of the opening of a resonance cavity alters its pitch, and hence its modifying power. No good clear tone can be produced when the teeth are closed. Sing aa with lips and teeth wide open; endeavour to retain the tone, pitch, and force absolutely unchanged, while the jaw is suddenly closed and the teeth locked, the lips remaining as far open as possible, and observe the difference of effect. As a general rule the singer should always keep his teeth far enough apart for him to insert the first joint of his thumb between them. For high notes a wider opening is required. But the opening should never be less while a vowel is sung. All closure should be made by the soft lips only. Sing the vowel $a a$ with wide teeth and lips, and then, while endeavouring to keep the tone, pitch, and force constant, alter the shape of the lips as suggested by the diagrams 11 to 14 , passing slowly and gradually from 11 to 14,13 , and 12 in this order. Also try the effect of protruding the lips in a funnel shape, and of bringing the inner parts close and projecting the outer margins. Also try the effect of large and small side openings, so that there is left only a small opening at one corner, and make this opening at one time as round, and at another as flat as possible. Also try the effect of drawing the lips tightly in, while closing them, bringing the outer margin as near the inside of the mouth as possible. Try also to pass by insensible degrees from one position to the other. Observe very carefully the great modifications produced in this one clear vowel $a a$ by this alteration of the lips only, while the teeth and tongue are kept
absolutely fixed, and the mind intends to utter the vowel $a a$ all the time.

The open lips, as in diagram 11, are considered by Mr. Melville Bell as ordinary, and not to require noting. Closure of the lips in any way is termed rounding, and three degrees of rounding are recognised, as in diagrams 12,13 , and 14 , as usually accompanying various heights of the tongue. This may still be retained as convenient, though the experiments just made will shew the learner that it is only a rough classification.

Mouth Modifications-Action of Tongue.-The chief source of change in the shape and resonance power of the large cavity of the mouth arises from that extremly movable, flexible, extensible, contractible plug, the tongue. Throughout all the explanations of the next Suction it will be advisable to watch it with two small pieces of lookingglass, one held in front of the mouth, and reflecting the opening and tongue directly to the eye, and the other held at the side, and so turned as to reflect the tongue to the first glass, which reflects it to the eye. There will be found some difficulty at first in managing these glasses, and in keeping the lips and teeth sufficiently open to see the action, but it is a difficulty worth overcoming to those who wish to understand the unruly instrument with which they will have so much to do in speaking and singing.

The upper surface of tongue is roughly divided by Mr. Melville Bell into three parts,-back, front, and tip; the back being that part which is nearest to the throat, the tip that which is nearest to the teeth, and the front the intermediate portion. Mr. Bell also recognises three degrees of height of the tongue, low, mid, and high, and this height may affect either the back only or front only, or both together, producing a mixed position. All these distinctions are very rough, of course, but also very convenient, and sufficient for most purposes. But it must be borne in mind that they do not pretend to be accurate or exhaustive, and a few simple experiments will shew that numerous additions would be required to make them at all complete.

Sing the vowel $a a$, with open teeth and lips, and with the tongue in the freest and easiest position capable of producing a good tone, and keep up the intention of pronouncing this same vowel while the teeth and lips are kept fixed, and only the tongue is moved, the nose being constantly shut off by the uvula. First gradually protrude the tongue out between the teeth as far as possible, keeping it clear of the upper teeth; the quality of tone will be found to alter sensibly for the worse.-Next, bringing the tongue back to its usual position, sound aa clearly, and make the tongue as small and as low as possible; observe the new alteration of tone, which decidedly thickens in quality. Pass rapidly from this to the former position with extended tongue, and the $a a$ sound will seem to become entirely obliterated.- Re-assuming the aa position, bring the tip of the tongue well up, so that the under surface of the tongue is easily seen, but the tip does not touch the palate. Observe that this again roughens and thickens the sound, but in a different way from that resulting from lowering the tongue, and that the vowel would be clearly recognised.-Now carry this further, bend the tongue so round that the under surface of the tip rests firmly on the hard palate, and observe that the last change of quality is also carried further, and the musical character of the tone greatly altered for the worse. This difference of quality is best appreciated always by rapid changes to the extreme positions. - Re-assume the aa position, press the tip of the tongue firmly against the lower gums, and endeavour to pronounce $a a$ while you raise the back of the tongue only. Observe that the intention to pronounce $a a$ in such a position results in complete failure, a mere abortive noise resulting and dying rapidly off.- Re -assume the aa position, and move the tongue about
fantastically, observing the changes, till occasionally either with the back or broad front and tip of the tongue the whole passage of air is stopped, and observe the sudden cessation of sound.

Object of these Experiments and Observations. -Some of the above sounds are more or less used in some languages, but the experiments suggested have been purposely selected so as to avoid known sounds, in order that the learner may feel for himself the meaning of sudden and gradual alteration of the resonance cavity of the mouth by the action of the tongue and lips. Absurd as many of the results may appear, they will all prove useful in familiarising the mind with the notion of the modifications produced in one original quality of tone by voluntary modifications of the forms of the cavities through which voice or flatus has to pass, and will render the following explanations perfectly easy and simple to comprehend. The actions of the tongue, lips, and throat become almost involuntary, and certainly unconscious, through habit, and are performed with so much rapidity, that they are extremely difficult to analyse. But such an analysis must be attempted when any new sounds have to be produced, or familiar sounds corrected. Hence the necessity of first performing such extreme experiments as are here suggested, which, lying altogether out of usual habits, require a couscious action to reproduce. The examination of the throat by touch, and of the uvula, lips and tongue by sight, will aid materially to a right conception of what is required. 'The desired result, however, will not be gained unless the learner finally attains the same unconscious power of producing the desired results as he already does for ordinary speech.

## V. V0WELS.

Definition of a Vowel.-The experiments in Sections II. and IV. lead to the following primary principles:-An original quality of tone is produced by the vocal chords and the cavities of the larynx. This quality of tone is modified by the passage of the undulating air from the larynx through the throat, nose, and mouth, jointly or severally. This modification varies with the shapes given to the cavities of the throat, nose, and mouth, and is, in general, different for every difference of shape, although, exceptionally, different shapes may produce the same, or at least, indistinguishable modifications. The modification may leave the original quality of tone more or less musical, or render it more or less unmusical.
A Vowel is a fully musical modification of an original quality of tone, produced by a definite shape of the cavities of the throat, nose and mouth.
That this modification should be appreciable it must last for a sensible time, which may be very variable. Hence we have short, medial (that is, middle length), and long vowels. But if continued for a very long time the modification ceases to impress the ear, which perceives only the persistent quality of ton?. It is by a tolerably rapid change of quality unly that the difference of modification is felt, and the separation of the symbols as telegraphic marks of thought, is thoroughly appreciated.
"Genera" and "Species" of Vowels.-Slight variations of the definite shapes of the throat, nose, and mouth, produce slight changes in the modifications of quality which produce vowel effects.

Each such is really a separate vowel. But when the difference is small, the ear fails to appreciate it, even when the sounds are uttered very closely after one another, without severe training and practice, such as is never undertaken except by investigators. The listener merely wants to know those broad distinctions which indicate differences of thought. National habits, accurately cultivated, and local habits of small communities, where the speakers cannot even read and write, lead to very fine distinctions, which serve to separate the native from the stranger, who seldom or never attains the precise native sound. It is sufficient for the stranger to be readily understood by the native, and for the native to apprehend without difficulty, what is the vowel modification intended by the stranger; because in that case thought is reciprocally communicated. This is a most important consideration in the pronunciation of foreign languages.
Each vowel, as usually understood, is therefore not one single definite modification of the original quality of tone, that is, one single "species" (spee"shieez), but a whole set or kind or "genus" (jee:nus) of modifications strictly separated by the consciousness of the speaker and the listener from other kinds or "genera" (jen•er'a). The speaker and singer has therefore to study the "generic" ( $j$ ener''ik) character, and learn the permissible amount of "specific" (spisifil) variation from the "type." This is especially important to the singer, as appears by Section I., because he has to produce recognisable vowel modifications under circumstances for which the original type was not
framed, and for which it is sometimes not well adapted, as when singing ee at a very low pitch, or 00 at a very high pitch.
It becomes necessary, therefore, to give the "typical" (tip.ikel) forms of the cavities of the throat, nose, and mouth, for producing a vowel genus, and to learn, so far as is necessary for practical purposes, its admissible and inadmissible variations, of which the first form the vowel species of that vowel genus, and the second form vowel species of some other, often unknown, vowel genus. And these typical forms must be such as will produce the typical vowels recognised in the "received," "refined," "literary," "educated," "cultivated," or rather "central" pronunciation of any language, as distinct from the " vulgar," "rude," "illiterate," " uneducated," "uncultivated,". or rather "local" pronunciations still heard in different parts of different countries. formerly much more prevalent than at present, and apparently destined to expire. In the present work the "central" pronunciations of English, German, Italian, and French, alone, will bo considered. Other languages, and local varieties will be noticed only in passing, for illustration or warning.

How the Forms of the Resonance Cavities for Vowels are to be Described.-In describing the forms of the cavities I shall adopt almost exactly the terms used by Mr. Melville Bell, who has pointed them out more accurately and definitely than preceding writers. See his "Visible Speech."

Throat.-As we have seen in Section IV., all sounds are "guttural" (gut'ur'el) or employ the throat, hence the throat need not be expressly named, but merely its states, distinguished as primary (prei ${ }^{\prime}$ mur'i) or usual for any particular sound, and " wide" or enlarged somewhere. These distinctions are sufficient for our present purposes.

Nose. When the nasal cavity is not cut off by the method shewn in Section IV., the mouth either may or may not be shut off, that is, the voice may pass out through the nose only (in which case it
also generally resounds in part at least of the closed mouth), or through nose and mouth at the same time; these cases will be distinguished as " nasal" (nai sel, nai zeel), and " orinasal" (oa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'inai $\cdot s e l$, oa $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ina $\cdot i z e l$ ).
Mouth.-When the cavity of the nose is entirely cut off, the sounds are " oral" (oarr'el). But as this is the usual case, and the cases where the cavity of the nose is not entirely cut off have been already distinguished, the term " oral " will not be employed except on special occasions, and all sounds must be considered to be "oral" unless they are specially termed "nasal," or " orinasal." The cavity of the mouth is bounded by the arches of the palate, the cheeks, the teeth, and the lips, and is more or less obstructed by the tongue.
Arches.-These may be in the usual or "lax" condition for the sound, which it is therefore not necessary to mention, or may be "constricted," so that the passage from the throat to the mouth is narrowed. Mr. Bell does not find it necessary to mention this at all as a specific variety, but we shall find it convenient.

Cheeks.-These are assumed to be in their usual condition, neither "hollowed" by being drawn in between the separated jaws, nor "puffed" as in blowing the trumpet. In general the state of the cheek need not be noticed. But it produces specific varieties, and in singing the cheeks require to be "tense" or hardened muscularly, to produce good resonance, by sufficiently resisting the vibrations of the air within the mouth. The singer must never forget that he is for the time a musical instrument (and, of course, a good deal more), and is subject, therefore, to all the acoustic (akow stik, $u k o o \cdot s t i k)$ laws which regulate musical instruments.

Teeth.-As already stated, the upper and lower tceth have to be held well apart. These hard boundaries of the mouth at its sides and front are very important to the singer. Any gaps are apt to impair the quality of tone, and produce unpleasant hisses and lisps, and should, therefore, be
filled up immediately. It will not be necessary to mention the teeth in describing the cavity of the mouth.

Lips,-Open, High-round, Mid-round, Low-round. -The closure of the mouth more or less by the lips has a most important effect on the resonance of the mouth, and must be accurately described. In the usual case the lips are " open," as in diagram 11, where it will be observed that the corners of the mouth do not form a sharp angle, but are terminated with a kind of string. Observe this form in the glass. For very high notes the singer will often find it necessary to open his mouth so wide that the vertical exceeds the horizontal opening. Various other forms of the open lips also occur and produce small specific varieties, which need not be noticed Diagram 11 shews the typical form. Three degrees only of closed or " round" lips need be noticed, though, of course, a vast variety really exists.
"Low-round" shews that the corners are slightly brought together, the opening remaining considerable, as in saying $a u$. See diagram 14.
"Mid-round" shews that the edges of the lips touch for a considerable distance from the corners, and the opening is much contracted, as in saying oa. See diagram 13.
"High-round" shews that the lips are still more in contact than in the last case, and that the opening is very small indeed, as in saying oo; the contraction is often much greater than in diagram 12 , and the lips are often protruded slightly, while the whole width of the mouth between the corners of the lips is much diminished.
It is not usual, nor generally necessary, to mention these degrees by the additions "high," " mid," and "low," when these are used with the corresponding heights of the tongue, as is usually the case, and Mr. Melville Bell, considering no other case, does not employ these qualifications. But varieties occur in some parts of England even, in which the different degrees of rounding are not used with the corresnonding height of the tongue,
and in this case, as well as for teaching purposes, it is necessary to distinguish these three principal degrees. It should also be borne in mind by the teacher, in order to enable him to recognise and correct errors of pronunciation, that the typical forms of arranging the lips, as shewn in diagrams 11 to 14 are constantly departed from. As the lips can be always readily seen, the teacher should watch them closely. The "pouting" of either lip separately or of both lips together; the "pursing" in of the lips, giving them the effect of being gathered in by an inner purse string, forming a round and much crumpled orifice; the "flattening" of the opening by bringing the lips closer together in the middle, although no contact or no greater contact is made towards the corners; and above all, "closing" of the aperture during the time of utterance, so as to begin with comparatively open and end with comparatively closed lips, either for vowels which should have throughout their utterance, open, or else definitely zounded lips;-all these are varieties actually observed in different speakers, and all tend to alter and obscure the sound to be produced. They are also all of them habits very difficult to correct, as the speaker is usually quite unconscious of them, and has been accustomed to them all his life.

Tongue,-Back, Front, Point, or Tip.-The upper surface of the tongue is divided into three parts, " back," " front," or middle, and "point" or tip, and when the under surface is exposed, by turning the point upwards, it is said to be "reverted." Other forms of the tongue must be specially described in particular cases. The tongue may be raised at three principal altitudes-"low," as in diagrams 3 and 7 ; "mid," as in diagrams 2 and 6 ; and "high," as in diagrams 1 and 5. And in each of these cases, either the "back" alone may be particularly affected, in which case we have "high-back," diagram 5; " mid-back," diagram 6: "low-back," diagram 7;-or else the "front" alone, producing " high-front," diagram 1; "midfront," diagram 2: or "low-front," diagram 3 ;-
or finally, both front and back may be raised so that the tongue is tolerably flat with a little depression in the middle, and in this case Mr. Bell calls the position "mixed," as the "mid-mixed," diagram 4.
The positions of the tongue having the principal effect on the resonance of the oral cavity, and hence in producing vowel modifications of quality, the vowels are naturally arranged by Mr. Bell according to the positions of the tongue, which produce 9 different forms. Each of the resonances thus produced may be modified by the "primary" or "wide" condition of the throat, giving, therefore, twice nine, or 18 resonances. But each of these resonances again, may be modified by the "open" or "round" condition of the lips, so that if we suppose the three degrees of rounding to correspond to the three degrees of height of the tongue, we shall get twice eighteen, or 36 resonances. These give the 36 vowels of "Visible Speech." They are in reality only typical forms, which are each capable of numerous modifications, but these need not be here considered. And as all the 36 forms do not occur in the 4 languages here treated, they need not be all studied. In order not to confuse the learner, 12 of them will be entirely omitted.

Description of the Systematic Arrangement of the Vowels on p. 16. -The 36 forms of the resonance carities thus indicated, for oral vowels only, are systematically arranged in the columns I. to IV. of division A of the Table on p. 16. The 9 heights of the tongue, numbered from the highest to the lowest, each with its systematic name, occupy the two columns headed "Height" and "Tongue." Then columns I. and II. shew modifications of the throat only, the lips being "open;" column I. gives the "primary," and column II. the "wide" forms. The next two columns contain the modifications produced by 'high, mid, or low rounding' according to the position of the tongue. The symbols contained at
the crossing of the lines and columns are the Glossic symbols of the corresponding oral vowels, the $\dagger$ marking those which will not be considered in this treatise. The systematic name of any vowel is the name to the left of the line containing its Glossic symbol, and at the top of the column in which it lies. Thus A is low-front-wide, OA is mid-back-round; O is low-back-wide-round. The column V. gives four orinasal vowels to be subsequently considered In this table the nature of the type, as Capital, Small Roman, Small Italic, points out certain classes of vowels which will require different degrees of attention.

Capital Letters denote the 13 accented English vowels EE, AI, AA, AU, AO, OA, OO; I, E, A, $0, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{UO}$. These must be well studied in the method to be presently pointed out.
Small Roman Letters denote, first, the two vowels "ae, uu," which are often heard in received English in place of E, U, in accented syllables, the first " ae" being also common in Italian and French, and also four vowels, "ah, eo, oe, ue," which are common in German and French, and are more or less closely imitated in local English, but are unknown in received English and Italian. These must be also well studied.

Small Italic Letters denote four vowels, $i^{\prime} . a^{\prime}, e^{\prime}, u^{\prime}$, which are at least supposed to be heard in unaccented English syllables, and which it will be necessary to consider, but they will not require much study, except in case of $a^{\prime}$; and one $u u^{\prime}$, which occurs provincially in glides, p. $37 a$.

Mode of Observing, Mirror and Probe.-To examine these positions use a "mirror," or small looking-glass not exceeding 2 or 3 inches square, and a " probe," for which a small bone paper knife (generally sold for a penny at stationers), or a large bone knitting needle with a nob at one end, or a long tapering wooden penholder, even a tightly rolled piece of paper, may be conveniently used.

## 1. High-Front Oral Vowels.

| Symbol | I. | II. | III. | IV. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { Primary. } \\ \text { EE } \end{gathered}$ | Wide. I | Round $\dagger$ | ue |
| Diagram | $1,8 \& 11.1,8 \& 11.1,8 \& 12.1,8 \& 12$. |  |  |  |
| 4. High-Mixed Oral Vowel. |  |  |  |  |
| Symbol | $\dagger$ | $i$ | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ |
| Diagram | - | - | - | - |

EE.-The front of the tongue is high, diagram 1, p. 14, very near to the hard palate. The point of the tongue is low, just behind the lower gums, but not touching. A little way from the point on each side, the tongue touches the lower teeth, and proceeding towards the back, it will be found to press firmly against both upper and lower teeth, and each side of the hard palate, leaving a narrow channel in the middle, diagram 8. These particulars should be determined by sight in the looking-glass, and by feel with the probe. The probe being placed below the front teeth and pressed tightly against them, should be pushed gently above the tongue as far as it will go, and then pressing the thumb nail against the probe and the upper teeth to mark the place where they touch it, withdraw the probe and measure how far it had entered the mouth. In my own case the distance is an inch and three quarters. The insertion of the probe will not injure the vowel sound of EE , which will have to be continued in a singing voice throughout the operation to preserve the position. The lips are wide open. The throat is compressed and shortened, the larynx being raised. There is, therefore, an extremely small resonance cavity in the throat and then a very narrow passage over the back of the tongue, ending in a wedge-shaped cavity towards the teeth and lips. The result is EE. See Section XI., Ex. 2, and also the examples in Glossic Index, Section XII. under EEF.
I.-Grasp the throat gently above the larynx, and feel that it is fully hard and swollen. Then
sing the vowel to a note of a tolerably high pitch, till it comes out clearly and ringingly. Descend gradually in pitch, but endeavour to keep the fightening of the throat the same. This wall be found almost impossible, and any attempt to do so will soon render the quality of tone unmusical and unpleasant, and at the same time alter it materially from the original vowel quality. Then allow the larynx to sink, and the tightness to disappear gradually, as the voice descends in pitch. The quality of tone alters decidedly, but not disagreeably, and, although the vowel sound is not EE, it can still be recognised as intended for EE. In performing this experiment, which is very important for singers, the throat should still be grasped, and the probe inserted to feel that the tongue retains its position. It will be found that there is a tendency to depress the tongue very slightly as the pitch descends, and although this does not materially alter the effect, it is necessary to endeavour to keep the tongue in its high position. The altered vowel sound is no longer EE but I, the "high-front-wide" vowel, the tongue remaining fixed and the throat enlarging. Observe that in speaking, EE is generally long, and I short, but that in singing no regard is paid to the length of vowels usually observed in speaking, because the duration of the note, which is fixed by the composer, determines it, and hence EE, I, are for singers precisely the same sound, that is, they may be confused, according to the pitch. This is not the case for speakers. See Ex. 12h, Section XI., to which all references to exercises relate.

EE and I.-Now take I at a middle pitch, and ascend, keeping the larynx down as much as possible. It will be found that as the pitch rises the larynx also rises, and the quality of tone passes naturally into EE, unless certain other changes are made, as by slightly lowering the tongue (so that the probe can enter about oneeighth of an inch further), and by endeavouring to make the lower part of the shortened pharynx less constricted. Try by this means to sing to a high pitch EE, I, EE, I, keeping the pitch steady
(for which purpose it will be found best to check the sound by an instrument with sustained tones), and making the vowels long, but the change from one to another rapid, without any silence. Feel by grasping the throat that the chief change takes place there. It is worth while practising this exercise frequently, and learning to sing I up to any pitch, so that in singing an ascending passage written for EE, but taken as I, the quality of tone may remain recognisably the same. The quality of tone for $I$ is almost always better than for EE, and even Italians and Frenchmen, who do not know I in speaking, will be found to fall naturally into $I$ in singing. Although in singing it becomes necessary to confuse EE, I, in order to obtain good qualities of tone, this must never be done in speaking, Exs. $24 a$ and $b$, must be practised with care for correct speaking. The important modifications by consoñants are exemplified under EE. I, in the Glossic Index.

I'. In unaccented syllables the I is sometimes still more obscured, by altering the position of the part of the tongue between the high back and the low point, so as to make it more straight. This is effected by bringing the point of the tongue up nearly into the position of diagram 2, with the back as high as in diagram 1. This produces the high-mixed-wide vowel I', an important vowel in Welsh, where it oocurs in accented syllables, and is written $u$ or $y$, but for the languages here considered no pains need be taken to separate I' from I. See Ex. 44 under -y, -ly, -ty, and Ex. 45 under e-, bi-, di-, and also Glossic Index under I and I'.

UE.-Having learned to sing EE, I, or rather I, well at all pitches, then attempt to sing them with the lips brought into the high-round position, diagram 12. Observe that it becomes quite impossible to maintain the same quality of tone, and that an exertion is required in the larynx to maintain the same pitch. Take I at, any pitch and bring the lips gradually into the high-round
form; observe the corresponding change of sound, which will somewhat resemble an eu diphthonga] sound, as it begins with $i$ and goes off into a sound not far off oo, but quite distinct from 00 if the I-position of the tongue is well maintained. Then make the change rapidly, keeping the tongue and throat fixed, and maintaining pitch by an effort, while rapidly changing from perfectly open mouth to the high-round form. The new vowel sound thus produced is UE, or the French $u$, which is often considered a great difficulty to Englishmen, but thus produced it is very easy. The speaker and singer should practice this exercise till he can reach the UE-position without the slightest difficulty. For singing French songs intelligioly, this vowel is of great importance, but so large a number of Germans have the bad habit of not distinguishing UE from either EE or I, that the singer would be intelligible, although he might appear vulgar to an educated German, if he used I for UE on all occasions in German songs only. There is a slight difference in the best central German and French pronunciations of this vowel, which may be disregarded, as unimportant. See Exs. 48 and 50. Practise first, however, singing the scale upon I-UE. Observe that UE is not quite so easy to sing on a high pitch as I, and that when I falls naturally into EE, UE falls into a related sound, the high-front-round vowel, which there is no occasion to notice further. At a low pitch UE is softer and easier to sing than I, and has a better quality of tone

EE, I, UE.-Having clearly ascertained the exact positions for FE, I, UE, take any simple air with which you are familiar and sing it, first with every note to EE, as nearly as possible, then with every note to I, and lastly with every note to UE, and note the difference in the quality of tone produced, the sole means of distinguishing the vowels. To make this clearer, sing the measures alternately to I and UE, and observe the instant change of quality.
2. Mid-Front Oral Vowels.
I. II. III.

Primary. Wide. Round. Wide-round. Symbols AI E eo oe
Diagrams 2, 9 \& 11. 2, 9 \& 11. $2,9 \& 13.2,9 \& 13$.
The front of the tongue is "mid," diagram 2, not nearly so much raised as for the high-front vowels, diagram 1. The point of the tongue is more raised, so as to be seen over the top of the lower teeth, and hence there is by no means such a sudden fall from the front to point. Past the point, on each side, the lower surface of the tongue rests on the lower teeth, and proceeding backwards, presses again the side teeth, but the pressure does not extend higher than the upper gums. See diagram 9, and compare with diagram 8. The consequence is that the probe can be made to enter much further than for high-front vowels, in my own case about two inches, or two inches and a sixteenth. The passage leading from the pharynx is not so narrowed, and it becomes much broader in passing over the front of the tongue, and does not widen vertically although it widens horizontally as it approaches the mouth.

AI.-The throat being somewhat constrained, the lips open, diagram 11, and the pitch a little above the middle of the voice, the vowel AI results. In producing this vowel Englishmen have to fight against the tendency to raise the position of the tongue mechanically, not by its own muscles, but rather by raising the lower jaw, which carries the tongue with it more or less towards the high-front position almost unconsciously. This must not be allowed. The singer must practise maintaining the position of the jaw and tongue steadily during the whole continuance of the sound, otherwise he will alter the quality of his tone, while maintaining his pitch, and produce a diphthongal effect, which, however much it may be tolerated in English speaking, is simply exerrable in German, Italian, and French, whether for singing or speaking. The singer, therefore,
should practise this vowel before his mirror, till he can maintain the single vowel quality AI for a full second of time, or more. Some Englishmen, especially Londoners, and inhabitants of the East Coast, have such an inveterate habit of passing from the AI-position to, or at least towards the I-position, that they will hardly dwell an appreciable length of time on the first element, and thus produce to other ears the effect of a diphthong, so that the Eastern "they, bait, pain" sounds to other persons like "thy, bite, pine." They do not so sound to the Eastern speaker, because he pronounces the three latter words with a different diphthong, and never confounds them. This will be considered hereafter. At present, it is perfectly unobjectionable in any English word to avoid this tendency to end AI with I, and utterly objectionable in any foreign word to indulge in such a tendency. See Ex. 3.
E. - Now sing the scale on AI. Observe that AI cannot be sung quite so easily on a high pitch as EE or I , and that when the middle pitch of the voice is passed, the quality of the tone becomes more and more reedy and harsh. To my own ears, although AI can be sung to a lower pitch than I, its quality of tone is much more disagreeable. Its recurrence is always unpleasantly felt in all singing. It is, however, greatly improved by lowering the larynx and widening the pharynx, precisely as in passing from EE to I. As the larynx naturally falls with the pitch, there is also a tendency to improve the AI quality in the low notes by this means. On indulging this tendency we change AI into E. Practise singing AI, E, AI, E, grasping the throat lightly, and observe the tightening for AI and the relaxation for Eevident, though not so strongly marked as for EE, I-and the improvement in the quality of tone when you pass from AI to E. Then sing the scale down on AI till it insensibly changes into E , and having reached E sing up on E , taking care to resist the tendency of falling into AI. Observe that E can be sung to a high tone more easily tha'

AI to a low tone. In Englisb speaking AI is generally long, and E is short, but length of vowel depends on length of note only in singing. hence both must be sung long and both short, and in singing English it is quite intelligible if E is always used for AI. This use of E has also the advantage of preventing the bad tendency to end in I, except among inhabitants of the North East Coast. For English singers it is, therefore, permissible. Long E does occur in English in there, dare, fair, but never except before vocal R. In German the change is of no consequence, nor even in Italian and French, provided the open $e$ of these languages be taken as the low-front vowel $a e$, to be presently considered. See Ex. $12 b$ and 25, and Glossic Index under AI. E.

EO, OE.-Having secured AI, E, endeavour to sing them, kept strictly separate as primary and wide, with the lips in the mid-round position, diagram 13. Observe that the quality of tone immediately changes, and approaches the sound of UE on the one hand and of U on the other. It should, however, be carefully distinguished from both. When AI is thus rounded it becomes EO, the fine French eu in feu, the German long ö in schön. When E is thus rounded it becomes OE, the broad French eu in veuf, and German short ö in böcke, könnte. Here again the distinction between EO and OE is constantly ignored. Some French and German writers do not remark it, and there is certainly no very strong distinction in ordinary speech. Singers seem to take whichever is most easy at the pitch at which they are singing. Hence although the speaker should endeavour to preserve the distinction which is observed by all careful speakers of German and French (the sounds are both unknown in Italian), yet the singer is at liberty to sing EO at the higher and OE at the middle and lower pitches, in singing the same word He will remain perfectly intelligible. Practically then the mid-front position yields only two genera of vowels- $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{OE}$ each with two species carefully observed in speech. Any change
to $U$ or $U U$ is quite inadmissible. But in nearly two-thirds of Germany the middle and lower classes have the habit of using ai, ae for eo, oe so that Englishmen can treat them so, or as ai, e without danger of being misunderstood in Germany. In France such a pronunciation would lead to interminable mistakes.

I, UE; E, OE.-Now baving got I, UE; E, OF, sing a simple air, or even a bar, or merely a chord $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{d}^{1}$, taken at different pitches, first to I and then to E ; to I and UE ; to E and OE ; to UE and OE, and observe the changes of quality of tone. Sing on a single note the whole four vowels $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{UE}, \mathrm{OE}$, in various orders, as $i$ ue e oe; $i$ ue oe e, $i$ e ue oe, $i$ e oe ue, $i$ oe ue e, $i$ oe e ue, ue $i$ e oe, ue $i$ oe e, ue e $i$ oe, ue e oe $i$, and so on; the object being to hit the great differences of quality with ease and certainty, at different pitches. Singing thus without consonants will lead to taking the vowels more clearly and accurately. See Ex. 48 and 50 for $u e$, eo, oe.

## 3. Low-Front Oral Vowels.

| I. II. | III. IV. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Primary. Wide. | Round. Wide-round. |

Symbols ae. A. $\dagger$ $\dagger$
Diags. $3,10 \& 11.3,10 \& 11.3,10 \& 14.3,10 \& 14$.
As the vowel A is better known in English than the vowel AE, except by those speakers who use ae for $e$, it is better to begin this series with the wide vowel A.
A. -The tongue is altogether very low, but its front is perceptibly higher than its point, which still remains just above the lower teeth. The depression of the tongue is produced by removing it altogether from the upper teeth, as shewn in diagram 10, where the upper surface of the tongue has no connection with the palate or teeth, compare diagrams 8 and 9 . The consequence is that there is a low flat passage above the tongue, with two
side passages around it, and a comparatively wide passage from the pharynx. The probe in my own case will enter nearly two inches and a half into the mouth. The round or knob end of the knitting needle used as a probe should now be employed, as there is so little obstruction, that the soft palate will be reached and irritated by the point. Keep the pharynx low and unconstricted, and sing. The result is the received English A, or a in bat lengthened. In the town of Bath, this long sound occurs in speech, for they call it there $B a \cdot t h$ and not Baa'th, as in received speech. In the whole of the South of England, and even as high as Shropshire, and probably right through to Norfolk, the short form of this vowel is heard, varying, however, with $a^{\prime}$. In Caithness, Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmorland a' verging towards $a a$, is more common, in Yorkshire, and Lancashire the older vowel $a a$ is retained, and in South Scotland even $a h$ is used. It is, however, not permissible for a singer to substitute $a a$ for $a$ notwithstanding the extreme pleasantness of $a a$, and the extreme unpleasantness of $a$, because the effect is purely provincial. But as will be seen hereafter ( p .34 ), he may use $a$, which is much more agreeable than $a$. See Exs. $12 e$ and 25.
$\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{A E}$. - The quality of $\mathbf{A}$ when lengthened has a very strong resemblance to the bleat of an old ewe, and when the throat is constricted to produce AE , as may be felt on grasping it lightly, the quality of tone as nearly resembles the answering bleat of the lamb. It is true that the bleat involves another element (namely, a peculiar periodic interruption in the glottis, which occurs in Arabic speech, and need not be further considered), but the vowels heard resemble A, AE nearer than any other that I know, and I have listened to sheep and lambs most attentively with a view to testing this resemblance. The similarity of AE to A is shewn by the frequent pronunciation of " thank, bank, cab" as thaengk, baengk, kaeb, and then as thengk, bengk, keb; by the usual confusion that foreigners make of our A with their AE, and
by the frequent substitution of A for AE (which is just the reverse) in Scotch. Many English speakers, almost all those from the provinces use AE for E in short syllables, and this pronunciation is recommended by so high an authority as Mr. Melville Bell, so that in the Short Key in Section III., p. 12, I have given it as an alternative in net ing, naet ing for "netting." Hence in AE, A we have a primary and wide vowel with the same position which must not be interchanged in singing. The use of $a$ for $E$ is Scotch, and quite inadmissible. The most that can be done to improve quality of tone in singing, is to avoid AE altogether, replacing it uniformly by E , and then to employ $A^{\prime}$ for $A$. But for foreign languages this is not sufficient. AI and AE are sharply distinguished both when long and short in French and Italian, and even ambiguities of meaning arise from confusing them. Hence all singers should carefully learn to distinguish them. But even in German, Italian, and French, the use of E for AE in short syllables would be intelligible, though $\mathbf{E}$ would sound "thin," and the use of A for AE in long syllables would be intelligible, though it would sound broad and coarse, See Ex. 25, where ae may be used for $e$, and should be so used as an exercise. For AE see Exs. 48, 49, 50. The rounded form of these vowels can be easily producéd, by using the low-round form, diagram 14, with slightly protruded lips, but they need not be studied, as they do not occur in the languages here considered.

## 5. Mid-Mixed. 6. Low-Mixea. 8. Mid-Back

 9. Low-Back Oral Vowels.| I. | II. | III. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| IV. |  |  |
| Primary. | Wide. | Round. Wide-round. |

## 5. Mid-Mixed Oral Vowels.

| Symbols | U. | a'. | $\dagger$ | $\dagger$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Diagrams | 4 | $\& 11$. | $4 \& 11$ | - |
|  |  |  |  |  |



The mixed vowel positions are so inadequately represented in the languages here considered, that it seems best to take the mid-mixed form in conjunction with the mid-back series, which is very fully developed, and also with the low-back series, into which the latter is apt to fall.
For the back vowels the tongue never rises so high as for the front vowels. Even the highest back position (diagram 5) is scarcely higher than for the lowest front position (diagram 3), and hence the slope of the tongue for the mid and low back positions (diagrams 6 and 7) is scarcely more than for the mid-mixed positions (diagram 4). The mid-mixed position (diagram 4) is, however, higher than the mid-back position (diagram 6), and hence the quality of tone is much finer. The great change of position of the tongue in passing from the A position (diagram 3) to the AA position (diagram 6) is well seen in the mirror, on singing I, E, A, AA. The tongue seems entirely to disappear for AA, and the arches of the palate and uvula, which were previously quite invisible, come well into sight, though the tongue is still too high for me to see the tip end of my own uvula, which is naturally rather long. If on the other hand the tongue is raised to the mid-mixed (diagram 4) position, only a small portion of the arch on each side of the uvula becomes visible, whereas if it falls to the low-back (diagram 7) position the whole uvula is quite exposed, and the back wall of
the pharynx can be easily seen.* In all three cases the tongue is so low that the probe can reach the uvula, and even be inserted under the arch, but as the probe then tends to produce nausea, and the distance of the tongue from the palate is perfectly visible, this experiment need not be tried.

AA, AH, $A^{\prime}$. - Begin experiments with the midback wide which gives the extremely pleasant and musical quality of AA. The widening of the throat is not felt as anything but an easy position. The vowel can be sung and should be sung at all pitches, and the learner should watch his tongue and jaw in the mirror, and take care that they do not move as the pitch alters. He will observe that for deep tones the tongue at least has a tendency to fall and become completely hidden, assuming the low-back position (diagram 7) and giving the broad vowel AH, frequently used in South Scotch and French, and often replacing AA altogether with some German speakers. In high tones, on the contrary, the tongue has a tendency to rise to tho mid-mixed position (diagram 4), giving the fine thin vowel sound of $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$, much used by delicate English speakers, especially ladies, in such words as "ass, pass, staff, laugh, path, bath, plant, command," in place of AA, and common now in Paris, where the sounds which writers on pronunciation generally assume to be AA, are divided among A' and AH. Even in Italian there is rather a tendency to use $A^{\prime}$ in place of AA, but all approach to AH is held to be odious, as it is in refined English speaking. Singing is, however, another

[^3]affair. It will be found that the attempt to sing pure AA at all pitches results in much worse musical effects than are produced by the use of $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ in the higher, AA in the middle, and AH in the lower notes of the voice, and as these sounds may be all employed in any word without danger of vnintelligibility in any of the four languages here considered, the singer is at perfect liberty to adapt his pronunciation to his musical wants. But he should do it consciously, and know why and how he does it, and be scrupulous to avoid it in speech, where the same causes (great diversities of pitch) do not exist, and where the requirements of pronunciation are more severe.

On singing in succession and to the same middle pitch $a h, a a, a^{\prime}, a$ and $a, a^{\prime}, a a, a h$, it will be felt that they form a progressive series, so closely related one to the other, that it is sometimes difficult to say where one begins and the other ends But if we skip over any one and sing $a a a$, $a^{\prime} a h$, and still more $a a h$, the change is felt to be very great indeed. No singer should be guilty of the fault of using the bad vowel quality $a$ for the good vowel quantity $a^{\prime}$, or aa, saying glas ask staf laf path for gla's a'sk stu'f la'f ba'th or glaas aask staaf laaf baath (the vowel being long or short according to the length of the note), but no singer would offend who said ha'nd pa't ba'd for hand pat bad, although the sounds haand paat baad would be quite intolerable. This allows a way for the singer out of a great difficulty. The vowel $a$, as already remarked ( p .32 , is disagreeable for the singer, but $a^{\prime}$ is very agreeable. Hence he should practise every word given with $A$ in the Glossic Index, first with A and then with $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ and then with AA, watch for the difference of effect, watch the position of his tongue by his mirror, and try to hit upon $A^{\prime}$ without falling into AA. See also Exs. $12 c$ and 25, which contain words that may be pronounced with either A' or AA, contrasted with words containing AI and E .
$\mathrm{U}, \mathrm{UU}$. -Now sing AA to a middle pitch, and grasping the throat lightly, tighten it so as to
narrow the throat as usual, and thus modify its resonance. The effect is quite extraordinary. The beautiful quality of AA disuppears as if by magic, and a dull obscure sound results, which is not bad to sing upon, but is nothing like so musical as AA. This is UU, a sound much used in the provinces and in Scotland, and even recommended for general use by Mr. Melville Bell, for $u$ in cut. But the finer sound which I prefer, and which I hear from most educated Southerners is U, which is obtained from $A^{\prime}$ in the same way as UU from AA (by narrowing the pharynx), and bears to UU the same relation as $A^{\prime}$ to $A A$, so far as the position is concerned, but to my own feeling the difference between $U$ and $U U$ is almost that between $\mathrm{A}^{\prime}$ and AH . There is, however, a sound of this character formed by narrowing the pharynx while saying AH. This (written ua in Glossic) occurs at most as a rare provincial sound, and hence need not be further considered.

U, U', E'.-Speakers who use UU in accented syllables, generally fine off the sound to $U$ in unaccented syllables, as huuzbund, maen shuun maenshun, for "husband, men shun mention." And those who use U also fine it off by raising the back of the tongue to the high-back position, producing U', which will be described presently. Thus it seems to Mr. Melville Bell, that I• myself pronounce the words last written as $h u z \cdot b u ' n d$, men shun men $\cdot$ shu' $n$, which is altogether finer than the other, because the tongue is one stage higher for each rowel. This is, however, entirely a matter of taste. For the singer, however, I am inclined to think that the second set of sounds is preferable. In every case the vowels $\mathrm{U} U, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{U}$ ' are very important to the singer, and require carcful study. As a general rule $U$, $U$ ' need not be distinguished, and the danger of using UU is its confusion with OA when short and stopped by a consonant. Sing all the words in Ex. 12e, and under U in the Glossic Index, both with U and with UU, but at the same pitch, throughout the scale, till the ear becomes familiar with the difference of quality

In doing this it will be, of course, necessary to lengthen the vowels, which are supposed to be always short in speech, although in received English U or UU are always lengthened when before vocal $R$, which usually totally disappears. The mid-mixed vowel also often falls into a lowmixed vowel $E$ ' before this vocal $R$ ' by dropping the tongue very nearly to the low-back position, but keeping it rather more forward in the mouth. See the account of vocal $R$ below.
A0.-Now sing AA to a middle pitch, and suddenly bring the lips into the mid-round position, diagram 13. The result is the round vowel AO, which has a very splendid quality, and is quite as musical as AA, and has in some respects even a better quality of tone for singers. Practice $\mathrm{AA}, \mathrm{AO}, \mathrm{AA}, \mathrm{AO}$, on the same breath till the effect comes clearly. This sound is the common short o in " cot, knot" kaot, naot, in many of our provinces, the regular short $o$ in Germany, as in "holtz" haolts, the open o both long and short in Italian, as "poco, sciocco" pao*koa shyaok-koa, the common short oin French, as in "homme, corps" aom, kaor'. See Exs. 48, 49, 50, and also Ex. $9 e$ should now be sung with ao for ca. In received English it occurs only as long before vocal R, as in "more, sore, oar," which in English Glossic are written moa $\cdot r$, soa $\cdot r$, oa $\cdot r$, with the vocal $r$, which effects the change. See Exs. 20 and 28. The true sound of these syllables is rather complicated, and will be explained in Section VI.
AU, O.-Very closely related to AO is our own peculiar English vowel O, which is not found in the received pronunciation of any continental language, although it may be heard in North Germany. This is formed from AH by bringing the lips into the low-round form (diagram 14, being careful to bring the inner parts of the corners of the lips a little more closely together than could be shewn in the diagram, and to advance the whole lips slightly. This vowel is so common in English that English people have no difficulty in speaking it short, although they often
find much difficulty in lengthening it. Grasp the throat lightly, and sing on the words "on, cot, pod, stock," to long notes of middle pitch, and take care that no tightening is felt by the hand, that is, that there is no constriction of the pharynx. Then sing the same vowels with a constriction of the pharynx, which is easily felt, and the result will be "awn, caught, pawed, stalk" aun, kaut, paud, stauk, that is, the vowel AU is generated. The singer must practice singing these words in succession to the same note, with his hand on his throat, as on aun, kot kaut, pod paud, stok stauk, and feel the difference in the action of the throat as well as the difference of the sound, if he wishes to make the distinction clear. In endeavouring to avoid aun kaut, \&c., he must be careful to avoid falling into either aon, kaot, \&c., or oan, koat, \&c. There is one word in which the distinction is of great importance. No singer of hymns should allow God to sound as either gaud or goad, which have such different meanings. It is much better to use gaod for God than either of the two other sounds, because gaod has no other possible meaning in English. The great real difference between AU, O, which are both utterly strange to German, Italian, and French, is shewn by the attempts of foreigners to pronounce them. They generally make the AU into AA, or at best AH ; and the O almost always into AO. See them contrasted in Ex. 27.

0A, AO. - Sing UU to a long note of middle pitch, and bring the lips into the mid-round position (diagram 14), the result is the common OA in road. Now many English speakers, especially most of those in the South, educated or uneducated, have such a tendency to raise the back of the tongue, or else to contract the lips to the high round position (diagram 12) during the time that they fancy they are saying O.A, that they practically begin with OA and insensibly end in OO. This is similar to the tendency already mentioned to end AI in I. Some speakers, especially the less educated, fly off at once from
the OA into 00 , and say almost ou for oa. This will be again referred to in Section VI. Singers should be extremely careful to guard against both practices. The change of quality from OA to OO is generally for the worse, especially at high pitches, so that the merely musical effect is injured. Practise singing OA up and down the scale, watching carefully in the mirror to see that the jaw does not ascend or the lips close as the sound continues. This is an important exercise. Such words as roam, room, are useful to sing. Observe whether when you finish the word roam, you utter the same sound as when you finish the word room. A list of such words is given in Ex. 30. It is much better to use AO for OA throughout (although this is not permissible in speech) than to sing $O A$ with a rapid falling off into 00 In low pitches AO will always be found preferable to the singer. In some words there is a tendency to confuse OA with UU , and people often say huul for hoal, "whole." In singing there is not so much tendency to do so, but Ex. 27, where words like "sawed, sowed, sod, sud," sau•d, soa $\cdot d$, sod, sud or suud are compared, will be tound useful in this respect.
The distinction between OA, AO is as important in Italian and French, as our distinction between OA, AU. As an Englishman would never confuse " coat" koa't with "caught" kau't, so an Italian would never confuse koa-ltoa "cultivated" with kao•ltoa " gathered," though both are spelled " colto." See Ex. 49, and Section XIV., No. II., Alphabetical Key to Italian. The Italian OA is somewhat nearer 00 than the English sound, but this is a distinction which need not be attended to.

## U UU. A' AA AH. OA AO AU O.—The series

 of vowelsPrimary. Wide. Round. Round-wide.

| Mid-mixed | U | A' | - | - |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mid-back | UU | AA | OA | AO |
| Low-back | - | AH | AU | 0 | are extremely important and should be well distinguished. They can all be sung with tolerable

ease and good effect at any pitch. Generally, however, U will suit high, and UU middle or low pitches; A' suits high, AA middle, and AH low pitches; OA, AO are both better at high and middle pitches, and AU, 0 at low pitches. But care must be taken never to use AU for OA even at low pitches, where at most OA may fall into AO

## 7. High-back Oral Vowels.

Primary. Wide. Round. High-round.

| Symbols $u u^{\prime}$ | $u$ | 00 | UO. |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :---: |
| Diagrams $5 \& 11$. | $5 \& 11$. | $5 \& 12$. | $5 \& 12$. |

0. -The rounded forms being very familiar and the un-rounded forms little known in English, it is best to begin with the rounded forms. The lips are put into the high-round position, diag. 12, which may be much closer than in the diagram. By this means the whole interior of the mouth is concealed, so that the proper high-back position of the tongue (diagram 5) can only be felt by the probe. There is as wide a passage between the back of the tongue and the uvula, as in diag. 2, but the tongue is lower for diag. 5 , and its upper part reaches just as high as the top of the arches of the palate. On inserting the probe and passing it over the upper surface of the tongue, you should feel that the tongue is quite below the upper teeth, even at the side, though in contact with the lower teeth. The probe can be inserted fully two inches and a half in my own case, but there is generally a little difficulty from the resistance of the tongue, which does not allow the probe to be properly directed. In feeling the distance it is better to insert the knob end of the knitting-needle so as not to irritate the soft palate too much. But in some respects the position of the tongue is not of much consequence provided it be not higher than the high-back position. Even a mid-back, or low-back tongue with the proper high round form of the lips, will produce a vowel-quality which all hearers will at first take for 00. But the high-
back 00 is the genuine fine sound of English and Italian speakers, and should be always used. Some Germans use a thicker, deeper, hollower, low-back 00 ; and in Sweden they have a mid back 00, which bears a considerable resemblance to OA, and is not unlike the Italian form of OA ; the lips remain in the high-round position for all of these forms, which, however, need not be further studied here. On the contrary, the high-back 00 must be carefully studied, and its effect must be distinguished from OA on the one hand, and UE on the other.

UE, UU', 00. -The vowel UE differs from the vowel 00 merely by having the high-front instead of high-back position of the tongue, and there is much provincial tendency in England to substitute UE, or some very similar vowels (which will not be here particularised) in place of 00 . This arises from a bad habit of raising the tongue to the I position before closing the lips for 00 , which is not at all uncommon, even when the tongue is subsequently dropped to its proper place. This error must be carefully avoided by singers, as it probably generates the provincial peculiarities of Norfolk, Suffolk, and Devonshire. The important direction to those who have a tendency to say UE is, "Keep the tongue down," and they should be made to feel with the probe that their tongue has come up to the high-front or I position. It is very much better for such singers at first to sink the tongue into the mid-back or OA position, or even the low-back or AU position, than to raise it to the UE position. In many parts of South Lancashire, of Derbyshire, and of Cumberland, speakers have a habit of beginning their 00 with the mouth wide open (producing the very peculiar vowel $u u^{\prime}$ ), but they rapidly close the mouth as they go on. The result (which may be written óo) is here merely mentioned by way of caution, and the bad habit which generates it must be most sedulously avoided. Singers who are in the habit of using óo must be made to bring their lips into the position for oo before uttering the vowel.

UO.-Sing 00 up and down the scale. 00 will be found very difficult indeed to take in the upper notes of the voice. Leaving this difficulty for the moment, grasp the throat lightly as usual, and, singing 00 at an easy pitch, widen the pharynx, which will be felt by a relaxing or falling in of the muscles The result is the vowel UO as heard in " pull" puol', distinct from " pool" poo l. Sing in succession OO, UO, OO, UO, and feel the musclet of the throat tighten as you pass from UO to 00 . This contrast of 00, UO should be well felt, and easily made, for it is especially useful to the singer (see Ex. 32). And it is also very necessary to distinguish UO from UU. There does not seem much resemblance to a Southener between "dull" and "pull," dul or duul and puol, but many provincials reverse the sounds, and say duol, puul, and others are so accustomed to UO that they cannot learn UU. Yet for UO the lips are closely rounded, diag. 12, and for UU they ought to be quite open, diag. 11. The transitional form, which may be written $\grave{u}$, occurs in Lancashire, Derbyshire, and probably Cheshire and Northumberland. It consists in giving the tongue a mid-back position, and rounding the lips as for 00 . It is very difficult for a Southern ear at times to say whether $\grave{u}$ is $u w$ or $u o$, for it sounds like both, and is neither. But as it is really a bad sound of $u$, and much less musical, the singer should always endeavour to obtain a pure $u$. There is also a possibility of imitating the sound of UO with open lips, which may sometimes prove of use to the singer, especially when he wishes to sing OO or UO on a high note, and will therefore be explained presently. But first observe, by singing up the scale, that UO will give a much better quality of tone in the high notes than 00 , just as the vowel I gave better low notes than EE, and that hence as UO would not be distinguished in a singing voice from 00-indeed it is often confounded with it in the speaking voice-the singer will find it as great an advantage to use UO generally (that is, for both $o 0$ and $u_{0}$ ) as he found it to use the sound of 1 generally (that is, for both ee and $i$ ). See p. 28.

U'.-Next, while singing the wide UO at an easy pitch, suddenly open the mouth quite wide, as in diag. 11. The whole character of the tone is changed, and it seems to lose all its previous roundness and become obscure, not unlike $U$, but something finer. This is U', a very useful vowel to the English singer, and which he should therefore cultivate. Where the speaker, for accented syllables, would use U or even UU , this vowel U ' may be sung, especially before $l, m, n$, in those indistinctly spoken unaccented syllables, to which singers have to give a clear full note. More of this when treating of $l, m, n$. But at present the exercise of singing. UO, U', UO, U' must be taken carefully, and the difficulty of bringing out a good ringing tone on U', when the conditions of resonance are so suddenly altered, must be got over by patient trial and practice. By this sudden revelation of the inside of the mouth the true position of the tongue can be made visible, and, if the tongue were too low, we should get out more of an UU sound, while, if it were too high, we should approach an I' sound. When the sound of U' has once been safely hit, the singer should diligently practise it on all parts of the scale, with sustained, forte, crescendo, and diminuendo notes, remembering that he has to make use of it in overcoming future difficulties.

U0'.-While singing U' with the mouth open, endeavour to change to UO without closing the lips. An imitation of UO can be effected thus. The central parts of each lip are kept wide apart, but the corners are brought much nearer, and the insides of the lips are made visible, till the opening of the mouth assumes an oblong shape, longest from top to bottom, so that the front teeth are well seen. At the same time there is a muscular contraction of the arch of the palate, which is felt but cannot be seen, as it is so much concealed by the tongue. This double rounding, external of a peculiar kind (not shewn in any of the above diagrams, because irregular), and internal of the passage leading from the throat to
the mouth, seems in some respect to serve the former purpose of partly closing the mouth by the lips only. The pharynx is narrowed for high notes, and widened for low notes. The vowel is neither precisely OO nor UO, but is sufficiently like both to pass in singing, and may be written UO' or uó, and called "acute UO," for convenience. The advantage of this sound to the singer, indicated by the acute accent, is that he can sing on it at the highest pitches of his voice, and even in falsetto, with a much better quality of tone than he could produce with either the proper OO or UO positions. This imitation is therefore recommended to the attention of the singer, as a means of overcoming a very serious difficulty. It was suggested to me by observing parrots, who can say "Poll," although they have no lips at all. They seem to produce the labial effect by means of a back membrane, which answers the purpose of our soft palate.

The Musical Vowel Scale.-In the Systematic Arrangement, p. 16, A, the vowels just considered were arranged in a systematic table according to the positions of the tongue by which the resonance that produced them was generated. In conclusion it seems best to arrange them in a kind of musical scale, descending from EE to UO and then gradually rising again through the indistinct forms. The meaning of this is that the first vowels on the list are most easily produced at a high pitch, and that this pitch gradually lowers from EE to UO, and then again gradually rises to UE, which approaches nearly to the pitch of EE, and thus completes the circle, EE, AA, UO, UE, EE. If only the positions be assumed, and flatus be driven through the mouth instead of voice, the scalar nature of the arrangement will be still better felt. Each form is here provided with a key word to its left, and on the right is placed the singing substitute, which may be used for those on to which it is bracketed, according to the intimations given in the above discussion, with a reference to the page and column ( $a$ left hand, $b$ right hand) in which the explanations will be found. See also the Glossic Index.

MUSICAL VOWEL SCALE.
23. Spoken Yoprels. 10 Sung Substitutes.

Page $28 a$. beet.
$" 28 a$ bit.
$" 29 a$ witt $y$.
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { EE } \\ \text { I } \\ i\end{array}\right\}$
I. Page $28 a$.

Page $30 a$. hait.
" 30b. bet.
" $32 a$. bête. F.

Page 31b. bat.
A $\quad a^{\prime} \quad$ Page $33 b$.

Page 33b. ask (thin E.F.I.) a'
$\left.\begin{array}{cccc}" 33 b . & \text { lah! } & \text { AA } \\ " & 33 b . & \text { lâche. F. } & \text { ah }\end{array}\right\}$

AA. Page $33 b$.

Page 35a. gnawed. AU

| $"$ | $35 a$. | nod. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $"$ | $35 b$. | nò. I. |

Page 35b. known. OA OA. Page $35 b$.
$\left.\begin{array}{rrr}\text { Page 36b. pool. } & 00 \\ ", 37 b . & \text { pull. } & \text { UO }\end{array}\right\}$ UO. Page $37 b$.

Page 34a. cut (broad E) uu
$\left.\begin{array}{ccc}" 34 b . & \text { herd (occ. E) } & e^{\prime} \\ " 34 a . & \text { cut (thin E) } & 0 \\ " 3 & 38 . & \text { idea } \\ u^{\prime}\end{array}\right\}$
U. Page $34 b$.
$\left.\begin{array}{cccc}\text { Page } 31 a . & \text { veuf. F. } & \text { oe } \\ \text { " } & 31 a . & \text { few. F. } & \text { eо }\end{array}\right\}$ oe. Page $31 a$.

Page 29a. vue. F. ue ue. Page $37 a$.
V. French Orinasal Vowels or Nasals. 1. $\quad 2 . \quad 3$. Symbols AEN' AHN' OAN' OEN'
Diagrams 3, 11, 22. 7, 11, 22. 6, 13, 22. 2, 13, 22.
$\mathbf{N}^{\prime}$.-In the series of vowels just described the nasal passage was supposed to be entirely cut off by the pressure of the uvula against the back wall of the pharynx. Section IV, pp. $20 b$ to $22 a$. In the present series the voice has to pass through both the nose and the mouth, p. 21a. This opening of the nasal passage necessarily modifies the position of the tongue, so that it becomes impossible to refer the orinasal precisely to corresponding oral vowels. But this can be done with sufficient accuracy for the purposes of notation and instruction. The difficulty consists in obtaining the right amount of nasalisation. For French the nasality greatly exceeds that used for English by some Americans, or that given to German by Bavarian peasants. Probably one cause is that the passage behind the uvula (diag. 22) is very much larger for French nasality. The resonance in the nasal cavities, however, varies much, and cannot be defined, so that the following directions require to be supplemented by hearing many examples of the sounds (see Glossic Index) pronounced by different natives, male and female, young and old, as well as men in their prime. The letter N' after the Glossic vowel mark signifies that the nose passage is fully open, as in diagrams $22,23,24$, but that the passage through the mouth is not obstructed, as it is in those diagrams. Observe the apostrophe. N and $\mathrm{N}^{\prime}$ differ in this respect among others, that for N the voice passes through the nose only, and for $\mathrm{N}^{\prime}$ through both nose and mouth. The oral passage is to be made as nearly as possible in the same way as for the vowel preceding $\mathbf{N}^{\prime}$. Hence $\mathbf{N}^{\prime}$ does not indicate any sound, but a mode of modifying another sound, and the whole of each symbol, such as AEN ', must be considered to represent a single orinasal vowel. What the English speaker has especially to guard against is any confusion of the "direction" N' with the consonant NG. The
simple sound AEN' and the combination of sounds AENG, which Germans are apt to use, are, as will be seen, totally different in construction. The oral vowels $a e, a h, o a$, oe to which the four nasals $a e n ', a h n^{\prime}, o a n^{\prime}, o e n '$ are here referred are those to which French writers refer them. To Englishmen they seem to be rather nasalisations of $a, o, o a, u$, so that they might be more simply written $a n^{\prime}$, on', oan', $u n^{\prime}$. But as three of these oral vowels, $a, o, u$, do not exist in French, it is better to follow the feeling of French phonetists.

AEN'.-Sing AE and, while singing, open and close the nasal passage several times in succession, producing alternately the French vowels in "bête, vin," binet, vaehn'. The whole quality of the voice is changed, and an Englishman will find it difficult without much practice to produce anything like a good musical quality of tone out of it, especially to give it a soft effect without a disagreeable twang, and to hit it with ease and certainty when singing. The practice AE, AEN', AE. AEN', \&ic., will be very good for this purpose. The vowel bears a certain resemblance to the syllable ang, which would be understood, but would be quietly thought hideous. That the sound really passes through both the mouth and nose, and that the opening through the mouth is even more important than the passage through the nose, is well shewn by closing the mouth with one hand, and pinching the front nostrils with the fingers of the other hand. When this is done simultaneously the whole sound rapidly ceases; not immediately, for the air in the mouth and nose will resound till the air becomes too condensed. When the mouth only is covered, there is only a dull nasal hum. When the nostrils only are pinched, there still remains a distinct though slightly altered sound of AEN', shewing that resonance in the nose can nearly quite as well effect the result as resonance through the nose.

AHN'.-Sing AH, and, while singing, open and close the nasal passage alternately, producing
alternately the French vowels in lâche, an, lahsh, $a h n$. Practise AH, AHN', AH, AHN' till the sound is reached with certainty. Looking in the mirror, observe the motion of the urula in passing from the oral to the orinasal vowel, which can be well seen in this case. Then sing AEN', AHN' alternately, and observe in the mirror that the tongue changes in position precisely as it does when AE, AH are sung alternately, the little projection of the uvula not being noticeable. Try the experiment of closing the nostrils for AHN', and observe again that it produces but a slight effect. This vowel bears a resemblance to the syllable ong, which is an intelligible but hideous substitute much used by Englishmen.

OAN'.-Sing OA, and, while singing, open and close the nasal passage alternately, producing alternately the French vowels OA, OAN' in "beau, bon" boa, boan'. Practise alternately OA, OAN', OA, OAN', till the sound is hit with certainty. Englishmen generally find a difficulty in distinguishing the two vowels $\mathrm{AHN}^{\prime}, \mathrm{OAN}^{\prime}$, confusing them both in the deformity ong. At least they might become more intelligible by calling the present sound oang. But it should be observed that in oang there is no nasal vowel at all; there is simply an oral vowel followed by an orinasal resonance, the -mouth being entirely obstructed, so that if we prolong oa we have no approach to oan' at all, and if we prolong ng we have much the same effect as would be produced by closing the mouth by the hand when saying oan'. observe that though closing the nostrils while saying aen', ahn' did not very materially affect the sound, closing the nostrils while saying oan' almost totally destroys it. In fact, there is great difficulty in bringing out any nasal sound at all. This very singular effect seems to depend on the insufficient outlet through the rounded mouth for both the oral and nasal resonances. It is useful as a characteristic distinction between alin' and oan'. Practise $a h n^{\prime}$, oan', $a h n^{\prime}$, oan', \&c., where the principal action sonsists in rounding the lips for
$o a n '$. Then $a e n^{\prime}, o a n$ ', and $a e n^{\prime}, a h n ', o a n '$; $a h n$ ', uen', oan'; ahn', oan', aen', \&c. Also introduce the oral vowels among them, so as not to come next their nasalisations, as $a e n^{\prime}, a h$, oan', ae, $a h n^{\prime}, a e n^{\prime}$, $a h$, all to the same pitch, and in one breath without pauses, but varying the pitch at different breaths.

OEN'.-Sing OE, and, while singing, open and close the nasal passage alternately, producing alternately the French vowels OE, OEN' in "œuf, un" oef, oen'. Practise alternately oe, oen,' oe, oen' till the sound is thoroughly familiar. It bears a disagreeable likeness to $u n g$, which most unpractised Englishmen use; but those who can produce a true orinasal vowel are in the habit of saying un' or $u u n^{\prime}$, nasalising $u$ or $u u$ rather than oe. It is a curious fact that the nasal $u n^{\prime}$ or uun' with an open mouth, is scarcely affected by closing the nostrils. But if oen' is sounded with the mouth in the mid-round position (diagram 13) as for oe, the vowel is greatly affected, though not so much as the vowel oan'.

Character of French Nasality.-These four French nasals will require much study and care. See Ex. 50. The singer especially has to guard against making his tone too nasal. He must give
due prominence, as already directed, to the oral, and principal, part of the resonance, and avoid twang. The orinasal vowels are quite free from disagreeable effect in good French singers, though it is possible, eveu for Frenchmen, to give them not merely a clarinet, but a bagpipe character. Those who wish to please when singing French, will take the trouble to avoid such an effect. A comparison of the quality of tone in the two last named instruments, both of which are confessedly nasal, will serve to explain the difference of effect that the singer has to aim at. Nasal quality of tone is due to the absence of the evenly numbered partials (p. 9 a), thus if an instrument gives only the partials-

| $\mathrm{d}_{1}$ | s | $\mathrm{~m}^{1}$ | $\mathrm{ta}^{\text {¹ }}$ | $\mathrm{r}^{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 |

the effect is very nasal. See my translation of Helmholtz, p. 172, where nasal qualities are recognised in narrow stopped organ pipes, pianoforte strings struck in their middle points, and clarinets. The remedy is to produce numerous evenly numbered partials by resonance in the mouth, although of course the other, due to resonance in the nose, must be more distinct than usual, or there will be no orinasality.

# VI. V0WEL GLIDES 

DIPHTHONGS, TRIPHTHONGS, AND VOCAL R.

The Nature of Glides. Pitch Glides.-Place one finger on a violin string, bow it for an instant, and then, without ceasing to bow, slide the finger along the string for some little distance and stop again, still bowing. Then a determinate note will be heard first and last, and between them a series of notes, following one another so rapidly, and differing from each other so slightly that it is impossible to distinguish them, although the effect of a continually altering pitch, and, necessarily, of a continually altering quality of tone, will be heard. This intermediate effect is called a " glide." It is totally different from proceeding from the first determinate tone to the last by a jump of the finger without sliding. The same effect can be produced in singing, where a voice can "glide" from d to s , for example, producing an intermediate series of notes varying in pitch and quality of tone, and the effect is called "portamento" paor'taamai $\cdot$ ntoa.

Vowel Glides.-But in the voice it is possible to make a glide of quality only, retaining the pitch, because a change in the form of the resonance chamber necessarily produces a change of quality. Sing AA, and continuing to sing at the same moderate pitch, raise the tongue quite gradually to the position for EE or I. It will be found that the raising of the tongue is mostly effected by raising
the lower jaw at the same time, though with a little practice this can be avoided. Then between the AA and the EE, and throughout the change of position, a series of changing vowel qualities are heard, which constitute a " glide," distinguished in this case as a "vowel glide" becanse both the extreme sounds are vowels.*

Temporary Symbolisation of Vowel Glides, and Effects of Crescendo and Diminuendo.-Representing a glide for the moment by placing + between the symbols of the first and last sound, we may write the effect of the above glide, thus-

$$
\mathrm{AA}+\mathrm{EE}, \text { or } \mathrm{AA}+\mathrm{I}
$$

Now perform the same operation with a crescendo (kraishai $n d o a$ ) in force, and also with a diminuendo (deemeenooai•ndoa) in force from AA to EE, preserving the pitch. We may for the moment write these operations thus-
Crescendo $<\mathrm{AA}+\mathrm{EE}$, diminuendo $>\mathrm{AA}+\mathrm{EE}$. Increase the rapidity of the change in two ways, first making the AA very long, and EE very short, and lastly making the AA very short and the EE very long. Indicating the long and short vowels for the moment by adding the words long and short

[^4]after the letters representing the vowels, snpposing that in the first case they had equal length, both long or both short. We have the four additional cases-
$<\mathrm{AA}$ long +EE short, $>\mathrm{AA}$ long +EE short. $<\mathrm{AA}$ short +EE long, $>\mathrm{AA}$ short +EE long . in all of which the vowel I may be used for EE. On singing these it will be found that the crescendo $<$ has a bad effect, because the force is thrown on the least agreeable vowel, and that the crescendo with a short vowel at the end is worst of all, because there is no time for the ear to rest after the glide, and this causes a continual strain of attention. For the same reason a short glide is preferable to a long one. The diminuendo or $>$ glides, in which the first or opening vowel is long, produce the best effect in singing, because they are more musical, and, though the voice glides off to a short vowel, the result is not felt to be disagreeable, as it was before, because the diminishing force renders it unattractive, and even difficult to apprehend. But for the glide to be properly heard, it must be "smart." On the other hand, in speaking the diminuendo or $>$ glide with a short first and long second element is best; for the force being put on strongly to the first element, which is held a very short time, the glide comes in for a large share of it, and is made conspicuous, while the second element, continued quietly for any length of time, gives repose and yet sustains the action. Somewhat of the same effect is also produced when the first element is long, provided the second element is also long.

Nature of Diphthongs.-Two terminal vowels connected with a glide in this way form a diphthong (dif thong; this is the recent pronunciation, though formerly dip thong was used, and the pronunciation of the word is so given by Walker, together with trip•thong, nap•tha, opthal-mik, all of which have now $f$ and not $p$ ). The essential character of a diphthong is the "glide," the length and qualities of the two vowels are in-
different. The "clearness" and "smartnuss" of the glide are important, as otherwise the union is not perceived. There must always be a crescendo or diminuendo in a diphthong, so that one of the two extremes has more force than the other. The stress is generally on the vowel nearest to AA or to UU in the Vowel Scale on p. 39. The glide is longest and most intelligible, and hence generally the union is closest and best, when there is a considerable difference between the heights of the tongue at the commencement and close of the glide. Different speakers, provinces, and countries have, however, very different habits in these respects, and we must not be guided by our own feelings alone. All, however, regard diphthongs. as single syllables.

## Permanent Symbolisation of Vowel Glides.-

 Although the full way of writing the glide is that already indicated, a briefer but equally systematicmethod is to write the two extreme vowels together, and place the short sign over the first letter or both letters of the element which is weak or has least force, when it follows, or over its last letter or both letters when it preceeds, quite independently of the length of that element. Thus aaĕe, aaŏo, and еӗaa, оо̆ $a a$ (or aaӗĕ, aaŏŏ ; еॅĕaa, ŏŏ $u a$ ) are diphthongs. having the stress on $a a$, which is the first element in the first two, and the last element in the last two. It is not necessary to mark the length of any but the element which has force, and then wewrite $a a^{\circ} \check{e} e, a a \cdot \check{o} 0$, eе̌a $a \cdot$, оо̆ $a a$, for a long element under force; and, using a consonant for illustration, aaĕe $t$, aaŏo $\cdot t$, eěaat , oŏaat for a short element under force. In speaking, the element without force is generally short when it comes first, and long when it comes last.Unanalysed Glossic Diphthongs.-In ordinary Glossic the diphthongs are not completely analysed, because of the great variety of sounds in common use assigned to each class without any intentional variation and without any change in the meaning attributed to the diphthongs. But the classes
themselves are especially distinguished by "unanalysed" forms, as EI, OI, OU, EU, or by affixing Y, W, or R to certain vowel signs. The difficulty felt by those who have not been accustomed to observe spoken sounds, or to analyse diphthongs, renders this symbolisation of classes very useful and important. But as it is important for the singer to understand how all these effects are produced, and to know how to avoid the numerous unpleasant varieties in common use, the precise meaning of these forms must now be considered, in all the four languages here treated.

## 1. First Class of Diphthongs, with Weak EE

## Final.

This class embraces all the forms in which the last position of the tongue is that for EE, I, or UE, diagram 1. The real final is EE in Italian and French, generally I in English and perhaps German, and in some cases UE in German.

EI. English, Spoken.-The best forms for speakers are Uǐ or A'ǐ, the first element loud and short, the glide conspicuous and diminishing in force to the second element, which may be long or short at pleasure, and is as often one as the other. The whole diphthong is often pronounced very short indeed, as in first personal pronoun, singular yaumber, when in connection with verbs, as "I saw it" a'i sau it, or ǔ sau it, but may be very much lengthened, as in "fie!" $f a$ " ${ }^{\text {. }}$. or $f u{ }^{\prime}$. The sounds AAǐ, UUǐ are just admissible, but not pleasant to my ears, although Mr. Melville Bell gives the preference to AAĭ. But AHǐ, AUǐ, OAǐ, must be carefully avoided. Many Americans and Germans (p. 39b), and even Englishmen, have a bad habit of not sufficiently closing the nasal passage by the uvula for AA, and hence will give a nasal twang to AA, written .AA, which is carried over to the following I, especially when an N follows, thus Erglish "mine" and German "mein" will be called maain. This is a specially disagreeable
fault, which all English singers must sedulously avoid. Even a trace of nasality greatly injures the fine quality of tone in the vowel AA. See Ex. 34.

EI. English, Sung.-The best form for singers is AA'ĭ or A'ĭ with a long first element, and a short sharp glide leading up to the I at the end to make the union evident. The sound AA is rather broad, and hence it is advisable for the singer to get away from it into $A^{\prime}$ as soon as possible, and dwell the greater part of the time on $A^{\prime}$, till he closes up suddenly with the glide and I, thus: $a a$ short $+a^{\prime}$ long + short glide on to $i$ short. He thus gets the best tone to sing on, and the glide from $a a$ to $a$ ' indicates the coming final glide sufficiently to prevent confusion with simple AA or A', and produces the mental effect of prolonging the whole diphthong (which is, of course, impossible) instead of one of its elements. The sung diphthong is, however, very different from the spoken one, except for the word aye, which is usually $a a \cdot \check{\imath}$ in speech. The sounds: $u$ long $+i$, $u$ long $+i$, would be very disagreeable in singing.

EI. German. - The German spoken diphthong written " ei, ey, ai, ay," is AAěe or AAĭ, or AHĕe, AHi. The first element is decidedly longer and more prominent than in English, and never rises to A' or obscures to $\mathcal{U}, \mathrm{UU}$. But as already mentioned, in Germany, as in America, the first element is apt to be nasalised, and this defect must be avoided. The singer, therefore, can take the German EI precisely as the English; but an English speaker who uses a German AAľ for an English Uǐ or Aǐ is apt to become ludicrous. The peculiar German diphthong AAŭĕ is theoretically admitted by all German writers on pronunciation, for the written forms "eu, äu," but I do not remember ever to have heard it in actual use, from ordinary speakers, or even in the pulpit, or on the stage. In middle Germany I generally heard ahĕe, from ordinary speakers of the middle class, with a very long $a h$ and a conspicuous glide, thus distinguishing the sound of "eu, äu" from
that of " $e 1$ " aaĕe, which had a shorter glide. But in North Germanyauĕe, is used, like English OI, and this had better be used by all English singers.

EI. Italian. Vowel Slurs.-The elements in Italian diphthongs are nearly equally conspicuous, and the connecting glide is very short, so that the union appears extremely lax, and the effect is more like two separate syllables than a single syllable, whereas the monosyllabic character is always well marked in English and German. The Italians distiuguish four kinds of diphthongs-(1) "sdruccioli" zdroot choalee or gliding, having the force on the first vowel, of which "aere, laido" aac̆ü•rai, laněĕ•doa (air, ugly) come very near to being EI diphthongs; (2) "piani" pyaa•nee, or "even," having the force on the second element, and being really two syllables, because there is no glide at all between the vowels, as "aita" aa-ee-taa (help); (3) "equilibrati" ai•kweeleebraa'tee (equally balanced), which are merely two unaccented vowels spoken in rapid succession without a glide, as "Borea" bao•rai-aa (Boreas); (4) "raccolti" raakkaol-tee (close), in which the first vowel is a very short $\breve{e}$, ŏŏ, but there is a real glide, as "pianta" pĕĕaan'taa or pyaan taa (plant). Of these the second and third are not properly diphthongs; the first belongs to this series, and the third to the EE initial unaccented or third series below. The Italian gliding " ai " may be sung as English aă, but it is safer with all the Itahan combinations of vowels to pronounce both vowels clearly with scarcely any glide, or rather with such a diminution of force during the glide as would make it almost inaudible, but would not occasion any real silence or total separation. This may be called a "slur," and written at full by an interposed $\div$ (which represents an imperfect + ) thus, au $\div e e$, or by the usual diphthongal form, with a hyphen between, thus $a a-\breve{e}$, indicating a kind of broken glide. The close Italian diphthongs may be indicated, when thought necessary, by putting the short mark on the first element and adding the hyphen. Thus the four Italian cases would be
fully represented by-1) $a a-\breve{a} \check{r} \cdot a i, \quad l a a-e \breve{e} \cdot d o a$, (2) $\breve{a} \breve{a}-e e \cdot t a a$, (3) $b a o^{\circ} r \breve{a} \breve{\imath}-\breve{a} \breve{a}$, (4) pĕĕaan taa. In singing, lay the stress as here marked (in the second and fourth cases on the second element), and take the whole to one or two syllables, ascording as the compuser has assigned one or two unslurred notes to them, but always make both vowels quite distinct.

EI. French.-The French have no original diphthongs of this class; their " aï" being more like an Italian "ai" aa-еॅе.. But they have several recent diphthongs of this class. Thus "aieul" is aaĕe-yoel (ancestor), as well as aa-yoel. And from those final "il, ille," which used to be called ly', and have now become ĕĕ or $y$ or $y h$, several EI diphthongs have been formed, as "gouvernail" goovaer'naaĕĕ (rudder), "émail" aimaă̆ĕ (enamel, "Versailles" Vaer'saaĕĕ ; and with other first vowels, " accueil" aakoeĕĕ (reception), " œil" oeěè (eye), "vieille" vyaeӗӗ (old). All these are true EI diphthongs in the sense just explained.

OI. English.-In speaking, this diphthong, when final, and in some other cases (as before $z$ ), becomes au- $\begin{gathered}\text { with long first element, as in boy }\end{gathered}$ bauri, boys bau $\mathfrak{i z}$, noise nau $\check{i z}$. This is well adapted for singing, and Handel has sometimes many bars on the au. The singer must mind to close with a smart glide on to the $\check{\imath}$, or the effect of the diphthong will be lost. Before $s$, however, the first vowel becomes short, and although it may remain au, a more refined effect is produced by changing it to $o$, as oyster aǔ.ster or ǒ̌-ster, rejoice rijaǔ's or rijoi $\cdot s$. The singer must, however, use $a u \cdot \imath$ as before. Speakers and singers must alike guard against the vicious pronunciation as an ei diphthong, thus rijaa乞ّs; and foreigners have to guard against using oǎ or aǒ, as rijoǎ̆•s rijao'žs. See Ex. 36.

OI. German. -T'he syllable "eu" or "au" is called ǒ in North Germany, as explained above, (p. 44b) may be sung as $a w^{\prime} \imath \imath$ or $a u \check{ }$.

OI, Italian, occurs only in the modified form no-ĕĕ, which presents no difficulty.

OI, French, does not occur, being altered to ooĕĕ, ste OOY, below.

Abbreviated Analytic Forms of EI Diphthongs. -In less systematic writing of Glossic, it is usual to write the EE-final diphthongs with a final Y, as $a a \cdot y$ aay, ahy a'y uy uuy, au•y auy oy for either

 are not distinguished from the other diphthongs. This very convenient symbolisation will be generally employed in the examples of songs given below, and in especial cases the form aay will be used for " aye," which should not be otherwise pronounced, as in the Short Key, p. 12. The systematic form is, however, necessary for full intelligence. This will appear in discussing the following forms.

AI•Y. English.-When AI has to be lengthened there is a tendency in Southern English to say $a i \cdot \bar{\imath}$, see p. $30 a$, although the $\breve{\imath}$ is seldom quite reached, and the glide is not smart. This is usually called the " vanish," and some writers reckon it as a defect, but others as the only correct pronunciation in all cases, while others allow it at some times and not at others. It is no doubt very common, and occurs most frequently at the end of a word, or before $t$. Some speakers even shorten the first element and say $a i \check{ }$, which then rapidly degenerates into $e \breve{\imath}$, $a e \breve{\imath} a \breve{\imath}, a^{\prime} \breve{\imath}$, and even $a a \grave{\imath}$. I have not heard $a^{\prime} \imath, a a \breve{\imath}$ for $a i$, but am familiar with $a e \check{ }$, $a \breve{\imath}$, and possibly within a hundred years hence an EI sound will be usually substituted for long AI in Southern English. The EI sound, where now used, will then probably be altered, and be always aă, as it is in Essex, where the aer sound is most frequently used for $a$, but all these matters, though very important to the speaker, are indifferent to the singer, who must say AI, and never use AI•Y at 2ll, if he wishes to sing agreeably. See Ex. 35.

AIY, German, occurs only provincially in the form aǐ or aě for the usual aă in some particular words, and should be generally ignored.

AIY, AEY, Italian, occur in the forms $a i-\breve{e} e, a e-\breve{e}$, which present no difficulty.

AEY, French, occurs in the form ae-ěĕ, as conseil koan'sae- $\breve{e}$ or koan'saey, the first element somewhat long, the second short, and the glide almost reduced to a slur, for which reason the Italian form is here used, but koan'saiy would be quite sufficient to indicate the sound.

OAY, German, occurs perhaps only in the word boje boay•yu (buoy) and its related words, but these are properly Dutch, and the form buje booy $y u$ is also used.

OAY, AOY, French, occurs (more usually as aoy) in the pronunciation only of some speakers, where "oy" precedes a vowel, as royaume raoyyoam for r'waayyaum (kingdom), but as the latter pronunciation is always admissible, singers and speakers need not trouble themselves about the former.

00Y, German, occurs only in the exclamation pfui $p$ fooy. or more properly $p f^{\prime}$ ooŭ (fie!)

00Y, Italian, occurs as a ver! distinct $00^{\circ}-\breve{e} \breve{e}$, in lui looy, that is, $l 00^{\circ}-\breve{e} \check{e}$ (him).

00Y. French, occurs in the form ooĕĕ, with a very short first element in the word "oui" (yes), which must not be confounded with the English "wee, we," and, although in singing it is generally taken ŏŏes with the second element lengthened, the first element never degrades into the consonant $w$. In conversation and declamation the feeling of the moment much alters the sound of this very common word, which is almost an interjection. Sometimes the second element, and sometimes both elements, and hence the glide between them, are spoken without any voice at all, merely by driving flatus through the required positions. See ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{H}$ in Section VII. Distinguish ooy "oui" (yes) from tha
dissyllable oo-ee ouï (heard), and the Italian lui looy, from the French Louis Loo-ee (Lewis). This diphthong also occurs in such words as dépouiller dai-pooyyai or daipoŏ̆еॅ-ĕĕai, \&c.

OEY, French, occurs in such words as œil oey, that is, ooĕĕ (eye) which Englishmen have a tendency to confuse with their $u \check{\imath}$ or $u и \check{ }$ or $a a \check{ }$, and call eil, that is, uill, wül, or aarl, a pronunciation absolutely unintelligible to Frenchmen. Such words as accueil, cueillir, aakoey, koeyyeer', properly $a^{\prime} k o e-е \breve{e}$, kwĕӗ-еॅӗеer' (reception, gather) must be well studied, and must be carefully distinguished from akeil, akeilyeer on the one hand and akerl, akerlyeer on the other.

UEY, French, occurs mostly as a variety of йёee (p 49b) in lui luey, that is, lue-ĕĕ (him), which is more properly lŭĕee, but I have mentioned it here to draw attention to the great difference between French lui luey and Italian lui looy, which English people constantly confound. The form ŭĕee belongs to the fourth class of diphthongs, see p. 49. There are a few words in which gueĕĕ occurs. See under gui, in Sec. XIV., French.

## 2. Second Class of Diphthongs, with Weak 00 Final.

OU, English, Spoken.-The forms preferred are ийо̆, $a$ 'йо̆, and even aaйй is admissible, but иийŏ has a coarse sound. The first element is always short, hint the second may be prolonged; and ŏŏ may be used in place of $\check{\iota} \check{o}$, but it is not common. The glide is here mainly due to the action of the lips, and is therefore very marked, but there is a tendency in consequence to "round" the first element, that is, to begin closing the lips before the second element is reached, and such forms as $a 0 \cdot u \check{o}$, au•ŭŏ oa ${ }^{\text {ǔŏ }}$ are common in the provinces (even oe $\breve{u} \check{e}$ is said to occur in Devonshire). This orror must be carefully avoided. Possibly as a
revulsion against it, the first element is often taker too thin, rising from $a$ ' to $a$ and even $a e, e, a i$, giving the perfectly hideous forms aйо̆, аейо̆ (common in Norfolk, Lancashire, and elsewhere), with eŭŏ or aiüŏ (some of the commonest London and North Kent forms). These should be most carefully avoided by all speakers and singers. To hear, "round about the house" called raiŭŏnd ubaiŭŏt dhu haiŭŏs (even an unaspirated aiŭŏs occurs!) is most distressing to the ear, yet nothing is more common from speakers born in London, even when well educated.

OU, English, Sung.-The form аайŏ is now preferable, and the first element should be prolonged. Also we may employ the device already recommended for $e i$ when sung, p. 44b, and quit $a a$ rapidly for $a$ ' on which we dwell for the chief sound of the note, and then pass over to uo with a quick short glide, thus $a a$ short $+a$ long + short glide to $\breve{u}$ ŏ short.

OU, German, is now always aaŭo or ahǔo, with the first element more conspicuous and more lengthened than in English, and no other form is admissible, but it may be sung (never spoken) as the English sound. See German EI, p. 44.

OU, Italian, has a loose slurring glide, like the EI, see p. $45 a$, in fraude fraaŏŏ $\cdot d a i$ (fraud).

OU, French, cannot be said to occur ; as the word caoutchouc kaaŏŏchoo is quite foreign.

## Abbreviated Analytic Forms of OU Diphthongs.

 -In less systematic Glossic we write W for either final $\breve{u} o ̆ ~ o r ~ o ̆ o ̆ ~ i n ~ t h e s e ~ d i p h t h o n g s, ~ t h u s ~ A A W ~$ AA•W, AIW, AEW. AW, OAW, AOW, for aaйŏ, an•йŏ, aiŭŏ, aeйо, aйй, oайŏ, aойŏ respectively, which is a great convenience, and is used in the following songs. Hence w $\epsilon$ writeOA•W, English, meaning oa ǔŭ, or long $\theta a$, gliding off into uo, forming the " vanish" of oa, as explained on p. 36a. This form passes readily
into oă̆ॅ̆, uŭॅॅ̆, auŏŏ, so that oa becomes transferred to ou. When the transformation is completed, the effect is extremely disagreeable in speech. I have heard children in Hyde Park talk of lee $\cdot d i z$ in $u$ bout for lai diz in $u$ boa't, or at most lai'ydiz in $u$ boa wt, and the effect was almost ludicrous. Those English speakers who use ei ou for ai oa or ai $1 \cdot y$ $o a \cdot w$, generally use aay or ahy and aew or aiw for ei ou, and thus avoid the ambiguity. As was observed on p. 46a, it is possible that at some time these changes may be sanctioned. At present, although writers are still divided in opinion as to whether oa or $o a \cdot w$ is more correct, there is no doubt that ou is shocking to educated ears in speech, and that no singer should allow himself to use this " vanish" at all.

## 3. Third Class Diphthongs with Weak EE

Initial.
EU, English, when not following another consonant, either stands for simple yoo, as in 'you' or else for yeu, as in 'yew,' and is employed merely for convenience. After a consonant, the actual sound preferred is $\grave{0}$ o, with often a very short $\check{i}$ indeed, as in tune tǐoo $n$, dew droo. Care has to be taken not to omit the, $\imath$ and say $t o o \cdot n$, doo, both of which are very common vulgarisms; or to pass through tyoo $n$, dyoo into choon, joo, or even chǐoo $\cdot n$, jioo, all of which forms may (unfortunately) be heard. When a consonant has been altered by the insertion of $\check{\imath}$ before any vowel, the tendency of English speakers is to omit the $\breve{\imath}$, which appears to be sufficiently indicated by the change in the consonant; but $\check{\imath}$ is sometimes retained. We call motion moa shun, and ocean oa'shun, but fuchsia is
 but Asian $A i \cdot s h i u u$, not $A i \cdot s h u n$, and with the unaltered $s$ the $\check{\imath}$ becomes a distinct syllable $i$ in Asiatic $A i \cdot$ si-at $\cdot i k$, though some prefer $A i \cdot s h i-a t \cdot i k$. After a trilled $r^{\prime}$ the $\breve{\imath}$ is lost, thus true truth $\operatorname{tr}^{\prime}$ oo

which is provincial. After l, however, the $i$ is generally lightly heard, as lute lioot, but may be omitted, as $l o 0^{\circ}$. Be particular not to confuse news $n$ rioo $z$ with noose $n o 0^{\prime} z$. Be particular also not to change ioo into eeŏo, especially in cases where the $\check{\imath}$ is properly lost, as truth tr'eeooth for tr'oo'th, rule r'eeŏ口l for r'ool, Susan Seec̆ŏ'zun for Soo zun, all of which are very disagreeable. Also be particular not to change ioo into the French ue or some sound like it, as in Norfolk and Devonshire, and occasionally in Lancashire. And finally be particular not to change a pure oo sound into $\mathfrak{\imath}$ oo, as too tioo for too, afternoon aaf ternioo $\cdot n$ for aaf'ternoo $\cdot n$, a habit unfortunately gaining ground even among otherwise good speakers. Very few speakers distinguish yew y̌̆oo from you yoo, or hew yhoo or yh̆ัoo from hĭoo or yoo. The word human is usually hioo mun or yhoo mun, but humour often retains the older sound of yoo mer. The action of the $\check{\imath}$ in $\grave{\imath}$ oo has been so little studied that neither educated speakers nor orthoepists have come to an agreement on the subject. This diphthong eu is often very short in English, as in unite eunei't, meaning yioonuit $\cdot$, monument mon eument, meaning mon $\cdot \mathrm{r}_{0} 0 \div$ ment, that is, with a medial $n$, as explained in Section IX, not mon $\div$ yoo $\div$ ment.

EU, German, does not occur in any form, but for foreign words the Germans write " ju," meaning yoo.

EU, Italian, as in più pĕěoo (more), is very common. In these cases the $\breve{e} e$, though very short, is distinctly different from $\breve{\imath}$, giving a peculiar brightness to the combination, which is one of the Italian close diphthongs. See p. 45a. All the other Italian diphthongs with this short $\breve{e} \ddot{e}$ initial are treated in the same way.

EU, French, does not occur.
Abbreviated Analytic Forms for EU Diphthongs -Generally in less systematic Glossic we write a simple Y for this initial $\check{ }$ or $\check{e} \check{e}$, thus pyoo for both

Enclish pew pǐoo, and Italian più pĕěoo, tune tyoo $n$, dew dyoo , dyoo, piano pyaa:noa, Italian mici myaey, meaning mĕёаeйӗ. This is a very convenient nutation, and will be used in the following songs, but it is not strictly accurate.

## 4. Fourth Class of Diphthongas with Weak

## 00 Initial.

In English this weak oo initial is usually considered to be $w$, and when not following a consonant it really becomes $w$, but only in English. When these diphthongs follow a consonant, as in twin, dwell, quell, written, twin, dwel, kwel, the effect is at times tŏŏin, dŏŏll, kŏ̆ 0 l, but perhaps this is not such genuine English as $t w^{\prime} i n$, $d w^{\prime} e l$, $k w ' e l$, where the $w^{\prime}$ indicates that an attempt is made to pronounce the $w$ at the same time as the consonant, by bringing the lips into the $w$ position before the consonant position is changed. For singers, however, the forms tŏŏin, dŏŏel, kŏŏel are important, because they greatly facilitate singing, and do not render the sounds unintelligible.

In German no such diphthongs occur; the German "quelle" being distinctly $k v^{\prime}$ 'ael $u$.

In Italian these are very common close diphthongs, p. $45 a$, and they even occur initially without any prefixed $w$, as in uomo ŏŏao moa (man), uova ŏáa voa (egg). After $k$ they are frequent, as quanto kŏŏaan $\cdot$ toa (how much), questo kŏŏais'toa (this) where the vowel effect is clearly heard. But in the following songs I have followed the custom of writing $w$, as wao moa, wao voa, kwaan toa, kwais'toa, which would be more generally intelligible to English readers. Singers, however, must remember that $\check{o g}$ is both easier for the voice and nearer to the correct sound.

In French these diphthongs are very frequent, since " oi" is almost always called ŏŏaa, as oie ŏŏaa, doit dŏŏaa, croix krŏŏaa. The word "oui"
was given as ooĕč on p. $46 b$, and this is perhaps the commonest sound, but it is also often ŏoee with the ee lengthened, and then it sounds to an Englishman like his "we." Other common French forms are: ŏŏae, as poêle (stove pŏŏael, often called pŏŏaal, and thus confused with poil (hair); fouet (whip) fŏ口aet, often called fŏ口aat, and ŏŏaen', as point pŏŏaen', coin (corner) kŏŏaen', soin (care) sŏŏaen'.
ŭéEE, French, is the common pronunciation of "ui," as lui lŭ̈ee (him), nuit nǚ̆ee (night). Englishmen have to guard against saying ooy on the one hand, and wee on the other. Such pronunciations as looy, nooy, or lwee, nwee are simply unintelligible. It will be found easier to practise $u e \div e e$ at first, and then $u e--\breve{e} \check{e}$, in order to hit the ue firmly, and, after these are secure, to fall gradually into üěe. The final form requires much practice to hit well. It will help the student to remember that the tongue remains fixed for both elements-ue and eeand that the glide, or connection of the elements, is made with the lips only. Hence in saying üĕee, begin by putting the tongue in the position for $e e$ (diagram 1) and lips in the position for oo (diagram 12), and then, dwelling on the resultant $u e$ (p. 29a), just long enough to make it sensible, open the lips suddenly to the position for ee (diagram 11), leaving the tongue steady, so that a smart glide is heard in passing from ue to $e e$, and the full $e e$ sound results. There is of course also a change of throat, which is wide for $u e$ and primary for $e e$, but this will occasion no difficulty when the student can once move his lips without any motion of the tongue. The following words should be practised both in speech and singing, till this diphthong (easy enough in itself, but generally taken very badly because its mechanism has not been understood), becomes perfectly easy : puis (then), puits (a well) pŭёee, puiné (born-after) pййeenai, puiser (to draw, as water) püĕeezai, puisque (since) pŭееееskĕ̆, puissant (powerful) pŭӗeesahn', buis (boxwood) büĕe, buisson bush) bü̆eesoan', bruit (noise) br'üěe (the $r^{\prime}$ occasions great difficulty), bruine:
(drizzle) brŭŭeen, tuile (tile) tüĕeel, tuilerie (tile manufactory) tŭĕeelr'ee, truite (trout) tr'üĕeet, induire (to induce) aen'dŭĕeer', cuiller (spoon) kŭёееуäer', cuirasse küĕеer'aas, cuisinier cook) küĕezzenyai, cuisse (thigh) küĕees, cuivre (copper) küёeevrě̆, cuir (leather) küёeer' (observe, not kw'eer, as Hood makes his Englishman say of the French: "They call thin leather queer, And half their shoes are wooden" ; fuite (flight) fü̆̆eet, fruit fr'ŭёee, suite sü̆̌eet, suivant (following) süёeevahn' juif (jew) zhŭĕeef, juillet July) zhüӗеeyaet, ruisseau (stream, gutter) rüĕeeson, luir (to shine) lüĕeer, muid (hogshead) müӗee, nuisant (hurtful) nŭӗeza/n'.

Abbreviated Glossic Forms for the OO, UE Weak Initial Diphthongs. - The ŏo is usually written $w$, thus the French ŏŏaa, ŏŏaen' become waa, waen' in oie doit croix soin waa dwaa kr'waa swaen'. And on the same principle the $\breve{u}$ e should become $w y^{\prime}$, which bears the same relation to $w$ as ue to oo, thus lui cuit lwy'ee kwy'ee, but to prevent any confusion with wee, wyee, this notation will not be used hereafter.

Triphthongs arise by the union of an EE or 00 initial with an EE or 00 final diphthong. In English and German they do not occur. In Italian they are frequent, as miei mĕёaiĕĕ (my), vuoi vŏŏaŏ̈̆ (wilt thou, suoi sŏŏaoĕĕ (his), for which we write, as an abbreviation, myaiy, vwaoy, swaoy, but the other symbols indicate exactly what must be said. In French occur ouaille oŏaaĕe sheep, doyen doŏaaĕeyaen', \&c., written waay, dwaayaen', \&c. The singer will always use the vowel form.
5. Fifth Class of Diphthong ending in an Obscure U, and hence called Murmur Diphthongs.
These consist in gliding from an original accented vowel to a short obscure $u$, or an indefinite obscure murmur written $h$ as the mere symbol of voice. They are very frequent in

English, both received and provincial, though they are unknown in received German, Italian, and French. In received English they occur in two forms.

Vanish Murmur Diphthongs, AAŭ, AUŭ.-First as a "vanish" of $a a$, $a u$, thus $a a \cdot u$, $a v \cdot u$, which arises from carelessly raising the tongue and greatly diminishing force while finishing off $a a, a u$, and as such are comparable to the other " vanishes " $a i \cdot i$ or $a i \cdot y$ 'pp. 30a, 46a), oa $\cdot \check{u}$ or or $o a \cdot w$ (pp. $36 a, 47 b$ ), and should be as carefully avoided by the singer.

True Murmur Diphthongs, EER, AIR, OAR, OOR.-Secondly they occur after these and other vowels as a substitute for R , which may be alwars added on after them, and must be so added on when a vowel follows. In ordinary Glossic we write EER, AIR, OAR, OOR, in order to convey to English readers, who have never studied speech, the nature of the sounds heard. But these symbols would entirely mislead a foreigner. When no vowel follows, no $R^{\prime}$ is heard in Southern pronunciation, but in place of it simply $u$, to which the voice glides in the true diphthongal fashion. It is also the regular habit of educated English speakers to change the quality of the vowel in each case from primary to round, and in place of $e e \cdot \breve{u}, a i \cdot \breve{u}$, oa $\cdot \breve{u}$, $00 \cdot \breve{u}$, which have become old-fashioned, or vulgar, or provincial, to say $i \cdot \breve{u}, e \cdot \breve{u}, a_{0} \cdot \breve{u}, u_{0} \cdot \breve{u}$, and it is thus only that $a o$ occurs in received English. Thus "peer, pair, pour, poor," written in English Glossic as peer, pair, poar, poor, are really to be pronounced as $p i \cdot \breve{u}$, pe $\cdot \breve{u}$, pao $\breve{u}$, puo $\cdot \breve{u}$. And when a vowel follows, as when the syllable "ing" is added, the trilled $r^{\prime}$ must be annexed, so that we say $p i \cdot{ }^{\prime} r^{\prime} i n g$, pe'ưّ'ing, pao‘ür'ing, puo'ưr'ing. There is indeed no objection to saying pi'u$r^{\prime}, p e^{\prime} u^{\prime} r^{\prime}, p a o^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$, puo ' ${ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$, even when no vowel follows. But the $\breve{u}$ with the glide leading to it must be inserted in each case, as it is this vowel and glide which indicates the presence of $r$ to an English ear. To say pee $r^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ ing, pai $r^{\prime}$ ing, poa r'ing, poo'r'ing, as may be heard from foreigners, and even occasionally from Scotchmen
and Americans, has an extremely strange and even uneducated effect to Southern English ears. The words "glory, glorious," which often occur in sacred music, must never be sung gloa $\cdot r^{\prime} i$, gloa $\cdot r^{\prime} i u s$, but always glao urr $^{\prime}$ ', glao ${ }^{\prime}$ ur'ius. With this particular diphthong, containing the beautiful vowel ao, another error is also committed, as $a 0$ is not familiar to us in other combinations. The whole combination ao $\check{u}$ is changed into $a u$, and thus you may hear glaw'r'i, glaw'r'ius shouted out, and "oars," properly ao $\breve{u} z$, spoken of as $a w z$; and "tore," properly tao. $\check{u}$, reduced to tau". All this should be corrected. The English singer should not only be ahle to sing $i \cdot \breve{u}$, $e^{\circ} \breve{u}$, ao $\breve{u}$, uo $\breve{u}$, but be aware that these sounds are more adapted for singing than the inadmissible sounds eer', air', oar', oor', from which they were derived, and even than the admissible $i \breve{\breve{u}^{\prime}} r^{\prime}, e \cdot e^{\prime} r^{\prime}, a 0 \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime} u 0^{\prime} \breve{u} r$. They form dilliculties for foreigners, but the Englishman finds even greater difficulty with the foreign sounds, where no change of the vowel is allowed, and the $r$ ' is trilled. To a German, dir (to thee', mehr (more), rohr (tube), uhr , elock), are pure deer', mair', roar', oor', and di $\cdot u^{\prime}$, me $\cdot u^{\prime}$, rao $\cdot \breve{u}$, uo $\cdot \breve{u}$, would be almost unintelligible, and would be startlingly strange to his ears, unless indeed he accepts them as forms of the common, but faulty, German uvular ' $r$, as dee'r, mai'r, 'roa'r , oo' $r$. In Italian, where only a true trilled $r$ ' is used, they would be still worse, although the vowels $a i, o a$ sometimes bccome ae, ao 'before $r^{\prime}$; compare dire dir (to say), volere voler (to wish', amore amor (love), pure pur (however, mestiere mestier (business), oro or (gold, which are dee $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ai dee $\cdot r^{\prime}$, voalai $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ai voalai $\cdot r^{\prime}$,, aamoa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ai aamoa' $r^{\prime}$ poo' $r^{\prime}$ ai poo $r^{\prime}$, maisteeae $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ai maisteeae $r^{\prime}$, ao $r^{\prime}$ 'oa ao $0^{\prime} r^{\prime}$. In French also, though the uvular ' $r$ is common, no $\breve{u}$ must be inserted, but we must call dire to say), faire (to do), ignore (is ignorant of), corps (body, four (oven), sure (sure), leur (their, simply deer', faer', eeny'aor', kaor', foor', suer', loer'. The English learner will find much difficulty in keeping these vowels pure (that is, primary and not widened, and at the same time not introducing his favourite $\breve{u}$, as well
as in trilling an $r^{\prime}$ which does not precede a vowel.
Inserted R'.-In case of such words as "par, north" it is of course allowable to use the "vanish" and say paa $\cdot \breve{u}$, naw $\check{u} t h$, but in the South of England it is usual to say simply paa, nau th. The a a ' $\breve{u}$, $a u \cdot \breve{u}$ may, however, be heard at the end of phrases, as: below par, in war, biloa paa $\breve{\sim}$, in waw $\breve{u}$. This leads to a curious misapprehension. The speaker, proceeding by natural analogies, entirely loses sight of spelling. To him "papa, law" have just as much right to this "vanish" $\bar{u}$ as par, war; hence he says $p u p a a \cdot \check{u}$, law $\breve{u}$. Immediately someone learned in spelling laughs at him for adding on an $r^{\prime}$ or $a a^{\prime} \breve{u}$, as the objector calls it. But the speaker has merely made a natural "vanish" and has never thought of an $r^{\prime}$. But worse remains behind. The speaker has always been accustomed to add an $r^{\prime}$ after the murmur diphthongs $i \breve{\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}}, e^{\prime} \breve{u}$, $a 0 \cdot \breve{u}, u \cdot \cdot \breve{u}$, when a vowel follows, and sars chr $\breve{u}$ (cheer) but chi $\check{u} r^{\prime} u p$, (cheer up), te $t^{\prime} \breve{u}$ tear) but te-ü r'up. (tear up), bao $\breve{u}$ (bore) but bao $\breve{u} r^{\prime} i n$ (bore in, muo'ŭ (moor) but muo $\breve{u}$ r'up (moor up, Why then should we not avoid a disagreeable gap between two vowels, and say : pupaa' $\breve{u} r^{\prime} i z$ dhe $\cdot \breve{u}$ (papa is there), dhu' law' $\breve{u} r^{\prime} u^{\prime} v ~ d h u ' ~ l a n d ~(t h e ~ l a w, ~$ or lore, of the land, the true cockney would make no difference, $a^{\prime}$ draw 'u'ring room (a drawing. room). Or rather, as we English generally have a dislike to $a a \cdot \breve{u}$ and $a u \cdot \breve{u}$ before $r^{\prime}$, he leaves out the $\breve{u}$ as soon as he puts in $r^{\prime}$, and says púpaa $r^{\prime} i z$, $l a u \cdot r^{\prime} u^{\prime} v, d r a u \cdot r^{\prime} i n g$. It is usual to say that this is very horrid, and the singer who has any desire to be thought educated must not for one instant fall into it; but it is very natural, in strict accordance with our present habits of speech, and can only be corrected by an entirely extraneous and very difficult study of orthography. When spelling is known we have the following rules.

Rules for the Use and Avoidance of English Murmur Diphthongs -Never make a murmur diphthong in speech when $R$ does not appear in the spelling. Never make a murmur diphthong
by putting a vanish to $a a$, $a u$, or even by adding $\breve{u}$ to $a a$, $a u$, when a following R is not written. Never fail to make a murmur diphthong when $R$ is written after $e e, a i, o a, o o$. Never fail in such a case to make a trilled R' precede the vowel following the murmur diphthong. Never introduce a trilled $R^{\prime}$ when $R$ is written and no vowel follows. These rules are difficult, and the system of English Glossic avoids them with great ease and without notable alteration of the spelling. But the rules must be well mastered by all singers. To prevent any misapprehension, the apostrophised $r$ ' has been used whenever the $r$ is trilled, throughout this treatise.

Murmur Triphthongs are frequent in English. They are formed by gliding from an ordinary $e i$, oi, ou, eu diphthong, in whatever form, it occurs, on to a short $u$.

EIR, OIR.-In the case then of the two first there is a " waving" glide, as it may be called, for the tongue first rises to the high-front or ee-position, and then sinks to the mid-mixed or $u$-position, or at least as far as the high-back or $u$-position. Thus fire fuı̆ŭ or $f a^{\prime} \breve{\imath} \breve{u}$, lyre luĭŭ. This produces a check or constriction in the flow of sound, and readily gives rise to two syllables, as fuı־ $\div u$, lǔ $\div \breve{u}$. Hence great confusion prevails. But in singing, such words form strictly one syllable, and hence the singer should practise the glide carefully. The first glide to the $\check{\imath}$ must be taken sharply and strongly, to bring it well out, the second form $\breve{\imath}$ to $\breve{u}$ should be weak and just indicated, in fact, as our writing shews, it is not more than a slur (p. 45a) and above all the final $\breve{u}$ should not be dwelt on, as otherwise the effect of two syllables will be produced. If the sense seems to require a strong ending, add a slightly trilled $r$, as fuййr', lǔ̆йr'. The oi-diphthong seldom runs on to a glide. The word " moire" is occasionally called mǒ̆й, but it is not an English word, and if it should occur in English singing the word had better be treated as a French word, and called mŏŏaar', or as an anglicised French word, and
called тwauй. Similarly, memoir mem wau, devoirs devwau'z, reservoir rezŭvwaw'й. 'Choir' is now always kwuॅ̆u, and is even spelled "quire" in the Book of Common Prayer.

EIRR', EIERR', EIUR'.-When a vowel follows this combination different usages prevail. In "fiery" the custom of inserting the " $e$ " shews that three syllables were meant to be taken, as fǔ̌-u-r'i, but in singing only two are usually taken, as fǔ̆ŭ. $r$ ' $i$. In "tiring, inspiring, desirous," and such-like common words, the glide must be used, as tuйŭ-r'ing, inspuйŭ-r'ing, dizǔ̆ŭ-rus; indeed, to split the $u \check{u} \check{u}$ into two syllables, $u \check{\imath}-\breve{u}$, has a very slovenly effect. To distinguish these cases easily in common English Glossic we write feir, leir, fei $\cdot r r^{\prime} i$, inspei $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ing, dizei $\cdot r r^{\prime} u s$ for the true triphthong, and fei err'i, inspei•err'ing, or fei $\cdot u r^{\prime} i$, inspei 'ur'ing for its division into two syllables.

OUR, OURR', OUERR', OU•UR'.-The case of ou is nearly the same. We say hour ийŏ̆̆ in one syllable with two glides, from $u$ to $u$ and then back to $u$ again, making the first sharp and cleär, and the second relaxed and faint. But here on account of the rounding of the lips interposing between two unrounded vowels, there is still more difficulty in keeping the monosyllabic effect pure, and persons hesitate much between uйŏй and uйŏ $\div u$, running off into the second on the slightest inducement. In this case, as in the former, the older English writers of verse generally make two syllables. When a vowel follows, this effect is more ready to appear. Using the common English Glossic method of writing our for ийо̆й, and ouer for uйо̆ $\div u$, as more easily understood by the eye than the true systematic writing, we hear flower flour, flou'er, flowery flow'err'i or flou'ur'i, power pour, pou'er, overpowered oa'verpou'erd or pou'rd, shower shour, shou er, showery slou eerr' $i$ or shou'ur'i. But in singing as a general rule the true triphthong has to be taken, and hence it should be much practised.

EUR, EURR'.-The case of eur offers no more difficulty than the ordinary triphthong; it is
simply $\grave{\text { üo }}$. $\check{u}$ with two glides, the first quite distinct, the second more lax. Thus cure $k i \check{u} 0^{\circ} \cdot{ }_{u}$, pure pıиuo $\breve{u}$, or in ordinary Glossic keur, peur. There ought to be no difficulty also in keeping the triphthong pure when a vowel follows, as curing kǐuo $\mathrm{u}^{\prime}$ - $r^{\prime}$ ing (which is written keu'rr'ing), never kioo 'r'ing (which is written keur'ing). Observe then the necessity of writing $r r^{\prime}$ to indicate this.

Vocal R or ER, Equal to U•, UU• Long.-In all these cases of murmur diphthongs and triphthongs we have had the degeneration of an original $\mathrm{R}^{\prime}$ into a pure vowel $u$, on to which a preceding vowel glides. How this could arise will be seen hereafter. (See Glussic Index, under "r.) It is now the only received pronunciation, and must be strictly observed. Short vowels do not occur before this sound, but as this sound is really a vowel, it may be, and often is, lengthened. The singer has already learned to lengthen it like any other vowel. It is quite easy for him to sing $k u \cdot p u \cdot f u$. or kuv' puu. fuu*, and he should even know how to say $k e^{\prime} \cdot p e^{\prime} \cdot f e^{\prime}, k u^{\prime} \cdot p u^{\prime}, f u^{\prime}$. These four vowels $u^{\prime}, u^{\prime}, u u^{\prime}, e^{\prime} \cdot$ are different from each other, and yet very closely related in sound, the two first, $u^{\prime}, u^{\prime}$ - are barely distinguishable, but the two last $u u^{\prime}, e^{\prime}$, although also barely distinguishable from each other, form a contrast with the other, being deeper and thicker and broader. Now in many accented syllables "er, ir, yr" are written, as in "serf, stir, myrrh," and in others "ur, or, our" are employed, as in "surf, cur, attorney, journey." Scotch speakers, who do not use the vocal $R$ at all, here make a great distinction, and say $a e r^{\prime}$, in the first and uur in the second set, although not uniformly. In many provinces, where the " $r$ " is differently pronounced, speakers make a similar distinction. Hence, apparently, writers on English pronunciation have sometimes insisted on the "correctness" of a similar distinction in ordinary speech. and would pronounce the first set of words, say, as $s u \cdot f, s t u \cdot, m u$, and the second as suu $\cdot f$, kuv. atur.ni, juw ni. It is certain that when such a distinction is made, it does not strike the ear as
unpleasant. To call the first set of words suu•f, sture, mur would be unpleasant, because it is an unusual broadening of the vowel. But to refine the vowel in the second case, and say $s u \cdot f, k u$, atu $n i, j u \cdot n i$, although it may sound "thin" to those accustomed to $u u^{\text {}}$, has not at all an ill effect, and, so far as my observations extend, it has become the general custom of educated speakers to renounce a difference of usage, which was very difficult to carry out strictly, and to employ the finer sound $u$ in all cases. As this finer sound is represented by "er" in most cases in older spelling, the symbol er has been used for it in ordinary English Glossic. This er, however, does not simply mean $u$, but it implies the liberty of lightly trilling an $r^{\prime}$ after it, when no vowel follows, and the necessity of trilling an $r^{\prime}$ after it if a vowel follows, thus 1 write serf for both "serf," and "surf," and also ster, mer, ker, ater"ni, jer $n i$, implying $u$ ' in each case certainly, and $u \cdot r^{\prime}$ in each case permissively, but not $u r^{\prime}$, which would have a thoroughly strange effect.

Vocal R or ER in Weak Syllables.-This covers all difficulties in accented syllables. In unaccented syllables the range of vowel writing is much greater. According to Mr. Melville Bell the sound is gencrally $u$, which need not be anxiously distinguished from $u$, as the difference is more felt by the speaker than heard by the listener. Hence I shall hereafter use $u$ only in such cases. Thus, doller dol $u$, observer obzu'vu elixir eelik:su, captor $k a p \cdot t u$, murmur $m u \cdot m u$, honour on $\cdot u$. When the trilled $r^{\prime}$ is added, which is al ways allowable where there was an original " $r$ " in the writing, it is very light, and the glide on to it is so weak, that the effect is not at all like an accented $u r^{\prime}$. Hence here again in ordinary Glossic we write doler, obzerver, eelik•ser, kap•ter, mer-mer, on $\cdot$ er, the mere position of er in an unaccented syllable telling the whole history.
Distinction of Weak Final A and Weak Final ER.-But now a difficulty arises, which is felt as a great difficulty by persons of imperfect education.

The final unaccented $a$ in a large number of words is pronounced precisely as $u$ ' or $u$, that is, precisely as the vocal $r$ in the words just cited. Thus pica pǔ•ku, sciatica sǔ-at $\cdot i k u$, idea ǔdee $u$, sofa soa $\cdot f u$, acacia ukai'shiu, umbrella umbr'el'u (not um$b_{u} u r^{\prime} e l \cdot u$ ), villa vil $\cdot u$, drama $d r^{\prime} a m \cdot u$ or $d r^{\prime} a a^{\prime} \cdot m u$, asthma $a s^{\prime} \cdot m u$, China Chǔ•nu, era $i \cdot u \cdot r^{\prime} u$, hegira hej'ru (not hijū $\operatorname{uhr}^{\prime} u$ ), sonata soanaa'tu (as an English word, soanaa taa in Italian), saliva suluirvu, and so on, which we write in ordinary English Glossic with a, thus pei $\cdot k a$, seiat $\cdot i k a$, eidee $\cdot a$, soa $\cdot f a$, akai $\cdot$ shia, umbr'el $\cdot a$, vil• $a$, dr'am $\cdot a$, dr'aa'ma, as'ma, Chei $\cdot n a$, ee'rr'a, hej'ra, soanaa $\cdot t a$, salei va. Why should these not be written pei $\cdot k u$, \&c., or peiker, \&c.? Why, for example, should not "dear idea" be deer eidee'r? In the last case the sounds are unlike; we really say di $\cdot \breve{u}$, a monosyllable, containing a murmur diphthong, and $\breve{u} i d e e \cdot u$, ending in dee $u$, a dissyllable, with at most a slur between $e e$ and $u$, not $u \breve{u d} d \cdot \breve{u}$ with a glide. Ccmpare such an exclamation as "I, dear! what an idea!" ei, deer! whot un eidee a a For the other words, though " villa" may rhyme perfectly with "distiller," "drama" with "hammer", and "Flora" with " restorer," as vil•u, distil•u, dram•u, ham'u, Flao'ưr'u, restao'ŭ' $u$, there are different permissive pronunciations in the two cases. "Villa, drama, Flora," may be pronounced vil:a', dram $\cdot a^{\prime}$, Flao ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{r}^{\prime}$ ' $a$. They are indeed not unfrequently so pronounced, and the pronunciation is esteemed as eminently elegant and refined. The singer, too, is counselled to sing them always in this way, because the $a^{\prime}$ is a much more pleasant quality of tone than $u$ to sing upon To write Glossic $a$ in an unaccented or weak final or initial syllable points this out perfectly, because $a$ itself would never be sung upon if it could be avoided, and $a^{\prime}$ has been already mentioned as an allowable substitute for a even in closed accented syllables (p. 34a). But to sing $a$ ' in such words as "distiller, hammer, restorer," thus distil-a', ham 'a' restau'ra', is considered very bad indeed, and to show either great ignorance or great affectation. Again, these three words not only may end in a trilled $r^{\prime}$ at all times,
but must do so if a vowel follows, as distilur' uo spir' 'its, sc. But to add on a trilled $r$ ' to "villa, drama, Flora," as dhis vil-ur' iz prit' $\cdot$, this dram'ur', iz hevi, dhis Flao' ${ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ 'ur' iz broa' $k n$, is looked upon as extremely vulgar. Hence, although in ordinary easy speech before consonants there is no difference between the unaccented or weak terminations written -a, -er, in ordinary Glossic, both being called $-u$, they have different tendencies, and are hence never permitted to rhyme, except when a ludicrous effect is intended. Hence they will in future be distinguished as $a$, er.
Dissyllables in ER Distinguished from Murmur Diphthongs and Triphthongs in R.-This vocal syllabic R or er enables us to draw some important distinctions. Thus ower (one who owes), tow-er (one who tows), row-er (one who rows), have each two syllables, oa-u, toa-u, roa-u, with pure vowels before $u$, but oar of a boat), tore (did tear), roar, have each only one syllable, as $a o^{\circ} \breve{u}$. tao $\breve{u}$, rao $\breve{u}$, with a murmur diphthong in which the vowei is changed before $\check{u}$. It should be remarked that in Mr. Smart's Pronouncing Dictionary the distinction here insisted on is not clearly made. See Nos. 33 to 54 of his signs, as given in Section XIII below. Again, people are apt to call a "drawer," and a chest of "drawers," drau", drau"z, in place of draw $\breve{u}$, draw $\breve{u} z$, the murmur diphthong aw $\breve{u}$ being unpleasant; but this "drawers" ought not to rhyme with "claws, paws," because in these the "vanish" awॅü (which has the same sound) would be out of place, and "draw, draws" should never be called drau'ŭ, draw $\breve{u} z$ for the same reason. But drawer (one who draws) is always $d r a u-u$ '. Hence we write in common Glossic draw drau, drawer draur, draw-er drawer, draws draurz, drawers draurz, not only to shew the distinction, but to point out where an added trilled $r^{\prime}$ is or is not permissible. Of course, all these "permissions" and "prohibitions" to add an $r^{\prime}$ depend upon an older state of the language, and at a future period customs may entirely change. But the singer has to learn the educated literary received pronunciation of 1870-80 and no other.

No Vocal R in German, Italian, or French.There is no such thing as a vocal $r$ in received German, Italian, or French; but in German in unaccented syllables, the common "r" often renders the preceding " e " obscure, that is, like $u$ or $u$. Thus German eier (eggs), feuer (fire), bäıder (ribbons), männer (men), are $a a^{2} \cdot u r^{\prime}$, foŭ $\cdot u r^{\prime}$, baen $\cdot d u r^{\prime}$, maen 'ur', with a very faint weak glide on to the $r$ ', which, however, is never lost, so that final " e ", and "er," on which much of the sense depends, are never confused, thus eine gute frau (a good woman), ein guter mann (a good man) are distinctly aǎ•nu' goo'tu' fraaŭ, aaın goo'tu'r maan. Similarly faint trills exist in Cumberland, Derbyshire, and many provinces. The Germans, however, very frequently use the uvular 'r (see p. $51 a$, and also ' $r$ in Glossic Index, Section XII) in place of the trilled $r^{\prime}$, like our own Northumberland speakers.
6. Sixth Class of Diphthongs, arising from Tongue Glides, Lip Glides, Throat Glides, and Nose Guides.
The classes of diphthongs here enumerated are properly speaking not the only ones which can or do occur. In most of these cases there is an alteration of position of the tongue, or of both tongue and lip, or of tongue, lip, and throat. The tongue may move alone, forming "tongue glides," which is the true nature of the "vanish" ai.y (p. 46a). And the lips may also move alone, as in
óo (p. 47a), which is $u$ ' $^{\prime}+o 0$, or uй' $о o$, the glide being formed only by closing the lips from the wide open to the higb-round form. This is a Lancashire and Derbyshire "lip glide." Similarly, uu+oa or $\breve{u}$ йoa is a very common "lip glide" diphthong in the South of England, and may be constantly heard in the exclamation, "Oh!" and in a doubtful "No!" On the analogy of óo it may be written óa. The common "vanish" $o a \cdot w$ is also of the oo class, for it is generally made by bringing the lips closer together, while pronouncing oa, without raising the tongue, and hence is not completely oaŭŏ. Both óo and óa should be avoided, and the full $o o, o a$ should be struck firmly and clearly. A similar "lip glide" would occur in i+ue or iue (compare French ŭӗee, p. 49b), and in ai+eo or ă兀еo and $e+o e$ or $\check{e} o e$; also in $a a+a o$ or $\breve{a} a ̆ a o$. And in the same way we might alter other vowels. Many of these occur as provincialisms, and all have to be sedulously avoided, except as exercises to become acquainted with their effect and learn how to correct it by knowing its nature. There are also "throat glides," where the lip and tongue remain at rest, and the change is effected in the throat. The most marked of these is $i+e e$ or $i e \check{e}$, written ée, where the throat is narrowed during utterance. This is also a Derbyshire and South Lancashire sound, which should be avoided.
There are also nasal diphthongs, in which one or both elements are nasalised. This is particularly the case with ei diphthongs when an $n$ follows (see p. 44a). In this case we have, therefore, "nose glides," which should also be carefully avoided.

# VII. GLOTTIDS, 

attack and release of vowels, aspirates.

Glottids Defined.-The subject of the present Section is of extreme importance to the singer, and it should be well studied. The speaker also will find it useful in correcting many faulty methods of commencing vowels, especially after consonants. The nature of the "glottis" is explained on p. 18a. "Glottids" glot idz are actions of the glottis and the parts connected with it, as the vocal chords, which compose its sides, and the emission of air which passes through it, and is especially regulated by it, on its , way from the lungs to the outer air. Their action is to start and end a vowel or other sound, not to modify it, that is, they deal especially with the "attack" and "release" of vowels, and the emission of unvocalised breath, with its passage to vocalised breath.
${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{H}$, Flatus, Glottis Open.-Keep the glottis wide open, and force the air from the lungs rapidly through it (see p. 18a). When this flatus passes subsequently through any vowel position, as $e e, a a$, oo, it produces a peculiar sound, which is an indistinct musical note, giving the notes of the resonance cavities through which it passes, mixed with more or less unmusical wind-rush. These "flated vowels" may be written by prefixing the sign ${ }^{\circ}$ to the vowel, thus ${ }^{\circ} e e,{ }^{\circ} a a,{ }^{\circ} o o$, are such flatuses (flaitusez) derived from vowel positions. Thus the "voiceless" ooĕĕ of p. 46 b might be written ${ }^{\circ} 00^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$ ĕe. If we thus produce ${ }^{\circ} \circ o,^{\circ} \circ a,{ }^{\circ} a u$, ${ }^{\circ} a a,{ }^{\circ} a i,{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} e$, we shall hear a decidedly ascending scale of notes, reminding us very much of the effect of turning water under tolerable pressure
from a tap into a jug, or decanter, as it fills. This cannot be used by the singer; it is as much a noise and an annoyance as the wind-rush over the mouthpiece of a flute. Hence the singer has to avoid it as much as possible. In other positions, it forms consonantal "hisses," to be considered hereafter.
© H', Whisper, Glottis Contracted.-The edges of the glottis are brought nearly in contact, so that the division of the air into "puffs" (see p. 18b) is very imperfect indeed, and the result lies between the former flatus and the subsequent voice. It is much used in speech, because it is sufficient to make the vowels distinctly intelligible to an ear which is close, and even, with an effort, to a whole theatre, but it is very fatiguing, especially to the lungs, as it consumes a very large quantity of air, even when it is not intended to be heard at a distance, and it is totally unfit for singing. Whispered vowels are writteu thus, ${ }^{\circ}$ 'ee, ${ }^{\circ}$ ' $a$, , ${ }^{\prime} 00$, \&c.

H', Voice, Glottis Closed, the Edges of the Vocal Chords being in Contact.-This is the voice considered independently of its modification by the upper resonance chamber (see p. 19a). The symbol is useful to express an obscure utterance through an indeterminate position or glide. In the case of dialectal murmur diphthongs, not arising from a suppressed "r," which are numerous, and often very short indeed, leading to the feeling of simple vowels, this $h$ may be used as the second elemert, and contrasted with the true murmur diphthongs,
thus $i \breve{u}$, $i \breve{u}$, $i h$, of which the first has the most distinct and the last the most indistinct termination to the glide. Writers of dialectal specimens often use " ea, oa" to express $e e h$ ', oah', among other sounds; some, however, write "eer, ear, air," and so on, where no $r$ ' might be sounded, while the presence of $r$ in writing necessarily implies some permission at least to sound $r^{\prime}$. In such cases eeŭ, aiŭ, \&c., or eeh', aih', \&c., are the proper symbols, as they forbid the use of $r^{\prime}$ in speech. As all vowels require this action of the glottis, the vowel signs $e e, a a, 00, \& c$., are supposed to include it.

I Gradual Glottid.-The glottis is open, or in the state for producing flatus, when air first issues, and is rapidly contracted to the whisper state, and then closed for the voice state. The vowel position of the resonance cavities having been assumed, say for ee, the result is that we hear a "glide" in the quality of tone, of which ${ }^{\circ} e e,^{\circ}$ ' $e e$, ee are parts, the flated vowel ${ }^{\circ} e e$ gradually passing into the whispered vowel ${ }^{\circ}$ 'ee, and this again gradually passing into the full vowel $e e$. This gives an indistinct, blurred kind of commencement of the vowel, called the "gradual attack," and written jee. It is common enough in careless speech, but it is wanting in precision for the singer, because his true singing tone ee is preceded by an unmusical series of sounds, and although they are much shorter than the note themselves, they are always more or less offensive. If, as sometimes happens, the flatus is made more prominent, which may be written 2 hee, a sort of aspiration is produced where none should be uttered, and this has a very bad effect both in speaking and singing. After the vowel is established it may leave off in the same way, the vocal chords gradually separating so that we have a reversed glide or "gradual release," ee, "'ee, ${ }^{\circ} e e$, which may be written $e e$. The whole effect is therefore written $2 e e 2$. This gradual release is still more common than the gradual attack, and produces even a worse effect, because the force of the wind, previously expended
on driving puffs of air through the vocal chords, finding a clear passage, producís a much more audible flatus, and the result could be almost written qeeqh. Singers should never use the gradual glottid, and speakers in England are recommended to discontinue it. In the release eelh, oolh, if the vowel positions are maintained, we obtain effects like ee $y h, 00^{\circ} k h$, which are extremely unpleasant, although in some languages (as Danish) they are received.

7 Clear Glottid.-The glottis is closed to the voice position, before the air is driven from the lungs, but the chords are held only loosely against each other, so that the air can immediately force them asunder, thus zee. The effect is that the voice begins instantaneously, and without any preparatory flatus or whisper. Similarly in releasing, the air should cease to be forced from the lungs before the vocal chords are separated. The result is like a clear or clean "edge" to the vowel at both ends, thus zeeq, as distinguished from the "burred" edge of the gradual glottid qeel. This is the true method of attacking and releasing vowels for the singer, and all speakers who wish to be heard well at a distance should employ it. The effect is extremely neat and pleasant, from the absence of unnecessary noises. It should be most diligently practised, and great care should be taken to avoid not only the gradual glottid but the check and jerk presently to bo described. As every vowel is supposed to begin and end with the clear glottid, unless some other method is indicated, it is not necessary generally to indicate it. It clearly separates syllables between two vowels which do not glide or slur on to each other. This, has been hitherto pointed out by the hyphen, which, however, indicates properly a union and not a separation. Hence in place of chaos kai.os it would be proper to write kai.zos, or if there is the usual slur kai $\div o s$, but for general purposes the hyphen or accent-mark suffices, as kai-os, kai.os. The difference of the slur $k a i \div o s$ and the clear
attack kai $\neq 0$, is something like that between taking two notes to one bow or to two bows on the violin.
; Check Glottid.-Let the vocal chords be so tightly compressed, that it requires more than ordinary force of wind to be sent from the lungs in order to separate them and allow a "puff" to pass. This produces a staccato (staakkaa toa) effect. When a stone is sent from a sling, it leaves the thong with a clear, well-defined initial velocity, very different to the sudden action produced by striking the stone with a very hard hammer. The former case resembles the clear glottid, and the latter the check glottid. There is a kind of explosion about the check which is disagreeablo to English speakers, but it is very characteristic of the German habit of speaking. It is not commonly used in German for every initial vowel, but principally when it is desirable to shew that a consonant does not glide on to a neighbouring vowel, as in "erinnern" (remind) aer';een $\cdot u r^{\prime} n$, not $u$ - $r^{\prime}$ in•en as Englishmen usually pronounce it; "unausstehlich" (unendurable) $o o \cdot n$;aaŏŏ•s-shtai llüĕky'h. This "check" is not considered a beauty in German, and hence need not be imitated by Englishmen, who, however, should put on the clear glottid 7 to indicate the division. It may be interesting to know that the check is used as a means of accentuation in Danish, as "mand" (man) măă;n, and it is one of the Arabic letters, called haam zaa. It is quite unknown in Italian and French. A vowel may be released upon the check, as well as begun upon it; this is accomplished by closing the vocal chords suddenly, and so tightly close that the air, which is still driven from the lungs, is condensed and checked suddenly. The effect is heard in speaking when a vowel is suddenly interrupted, as in saying : "Did you see the ca...?" meaning "cat," supposing that the speaker were suddenly unable to finish the word. It is also not much dissimilar to a hiccup. As a release it forms one of the Chinese tones at Canton, called the shoo;. The double
effect of the chenk attack and check release, as ;ee; is useful in singing extremely staccato notes, as it effectually separates the notes, with more suddeness than the clear glottid, though not so pleasantly.

H or Jerk, $H^{\circ} H, H_{I}, H_{q}$. -The air from the lungs may be laid on gradually, clearly, or suddenly. In singing and speaking the "clear" method is generally pursued, the lungs being well inflated, and only just so much wind being "turned on" by the action of the muscles of the ribs and of the diaphragm (dei ufram, or muscular separation between the lungs and stomach, \&cc.), as will suffice to keep the vocal chords in proper action, and force regular puffs through them. The gradual method is not convenient for speaking, and impracticable in singing. It would imply imperfect vocalisation. The force of air set on by the clear method may vary considerably, producing more or less loudness, as in the crescendo and diminuendo of the singer. The sudden method of setting on the air implies a " jerk," or an action suddenly made very great and rapidly diminishing to something small. This jerk is made by a man with his diapbragm, the action of which may be felt by placing the hand on the pit of the stomach. By a woman the jerk is effected by the muscles between the ribs suddenly contracting the lungs. By a pair of ordinary bellows we may illustrate this action well. After opening the bellows in the usual way, we may compress them very gently, and thus make a faint stream of air come out, scarcely moving a candle flame. This answers to quiet respiration. We may gradually increase the force, producing a strong motion in the flame. This answers to a crescendo. Or we may compress the bellows suddenly, producing a violent jerk, which will certainly blow the candle out. This is a strong H. But we make the jerks slight and successive, which will blow the flame aside and allow it partially to recover, without extinction, This is an ordinary quiet H. These "bellows' actions" of the lungs (or physems fei semz) require
much study by the singer, but belong more to the management of the voice and breath than to pronunciation simply, and must consequently not be further treated here. Now suppose that the glottis were open, the result of a jerk in case of actual speech would be to produce flatus ${ }^{\circ} h$, with considerable initial force, which may for the moment be written $\hbar^{\circ} h$, where the first $h$ represents the jerk only. If then the mouth were placed in the position for any vowel, as $e e$, we should have $h^{\circ} e e$, instead of an $h^{\circ} h$, which does not distinguish the position of the vocal organs above the vocal chords. If then we passed on rapidly to -'ee and $e e$ as in the gradual glottid, we should have an effect which might be written hlee, as distinct from the 2 hee before employed. The difference between hiee and 1 hee consists in this, that hree begins with a sudden large amount of flatus, and hence with a very perceptible noise, whereas 2 hee may begin with merely such an amount us is perceptible, without being very stril-ing. The hque is an "aspirated" (as"pirai•ted) ee in the ordinary meaning of the word. It has the manifest disadvantage of introducing an unmusical amount of flatus quite unsuitable for singing. This $h_{1}$ is, however, regularly used in German, and in Scotch, and is used by so many English speakers, that it is never wrong to employ it, however disagreeable it may be. It is quite unknown in Italian and French, and many other languages. But just as $h_{\eta}$ is a jerked gradual glottid, we may evidently have $h_{f}$, a jerked clear glottid. This would be produced by bringing the glottis into the position for the clear glottid, before setting on the air from the lungs, and then setting on that air with a jerk. The consequence would evidently be a vowel-sound beginning quite clearly but very suddenly and rapidly diminishing in force to the usual amount, thus hzee. It is quite evident that this is the proper method of marking the place of the aspirate by a singer, because it makes the effect perfectly perceptible, and adds nothing unmusical. The singer should carefully practise this "clear jerk" with all the vowels
ending with a simple clear release, as hzeef hzeez $h_{\text {feef, }} h_{7} a_{7} h_{f}$ aaf $h_{\gamma} a_{1}$, to quick and slow notes. The last gives the singing "laugh," which would be thus quite clear and ringing. It is my own practice, I believe, so far as I have watched myself, to use $h_{7}$ rather than $h_{l}$ initially in speaking, and I find it a very common custom in England. It appears also to be the custom in India, as I have been told by educated natives, to use the ciear jerk $h_{z}$ only, and certainly the old Sanscrit writers on speech-sounds, do not justify the assumption of a previous $h_{2}$ in that language. In ordinary Glossic $h_{7}$ and $h_{7}$ are not distinguished, and $h$ simply is used. leaving it undecided which form should be employed. But in almost all English words which begin with " $h$ " in writing, either $h_{i}$ or $h_{l}$ must be pronounced. The exceptions are very few, and have diminished of late years. Even now "hour, honest, honour," and their derivatives, have no "aspirate," but "humble, hospital, herb, hotel," have it almost always (though "hostler" is now written "ostler," the " $h$ " having disappeared even in writing). Attention to the proper insertion of $h$ has become a kind of test of education, persons who "drop their ai-chez" being considered out of the pale of society. Hence the greatest possible attention must be paid to its due insertion. Those who do not usually employ $h$ are apt to substitute a check, and say ;at for hat. This only serves to call the especial attention of hearers to the speaker's defect. Others give a careless gradual glottid pat, as if there never had been au $h$. This must be overcome. The high Germans, like the Scotch, never fail to "aspirate." The Italians own that they have no aspirate at all. The French, who talk of their " h aspiré" (aash aaspeer'ai) generally replace it by a clear glottid 7 , as "lo héros" leo zairoa (the hero), the main test to their ears being that the preceding vowel is not elided, or a preceding consonant run on to it. This test fails for the single word "onze" (eleven), for they say lae zoan'z oer', leo zoan'z due mwaa for "les onze heures, le onze du mois". (eleven o'clock, the
eleventh of the month) although the word was never spelled with $h$. Some French actors try to pronounce the flated jerk $h_{2}$, but they generally fail. In the South of France, however, I am told that $h_{l}$ is common, but that is not the received pronunciation. A curious fault with many Englishmen (and some Low, not High, Germans) is to omit the $h$ where it ought to be sounded, and sound it where it ought not to be heard, and this especially happens when the speakers are nervous', and wish to speak particularly well. This can only be overcome by patient practice on the use of the open and closed glottis without reference to particular words. The first great difficulty is to make such speakers hear the difference, and this is best effected hy means of artificial words, to which no association is attached. See Section XI, Ex. 16, and Section XII, Glossic Index, under H. Contrasts are very useful in case of much difficulty, as:-ee ee ee : hee hee hee | ee hee ee hee: : hee ee hee ee | ee hee ee : hee ee hêe! ee hee hee: : hee ee ee I and so on with all the vowels and
diphthongs, and care should be taken to produce the effect of the clear jerk on weak or unemphatic syllables without producing the slightest effect of stress.

Croak, Bleat, Wheeze.-There are several other important glottids, such as the Danish croak, $r$, or letter "r," the Arabic bleat :, called saayn, and wheeze ' $h$, called ' $h a a$, but as these are very difficult sounds for Englishmen, and do not occur in the languages here treated, they need not be further mentioned.

Why H is the Only Glottid written in Ordinary Glossic.-Of the glottids here treated, the aspirate $h$ is the unly one indicated by a special letter in ordinary Glossic. The clear glottid $z$ is sufficiently indicated by the absence of any letter or symbol of glide. It is only in discussing points of pronunciation that the clear glottid has to be distinguished from the check on one hand and the slur on the other.

## VIII. CONSONANTS.

voiced Consonants -The nature of consonants is in so far the same as that of vowels, that for one whole series of them the vocal chords are set in action in the same way, and the voice resounds in the same cavities, so that the only real difference consists in the modifications of those cavities, which are of a nature to render the emitted voice in most (not all cases, entirely unmusical and unfit for singing. These are called "voiced" consonants.

Flated Consonants.--In another series of consonants, the voice is not set on at all, but the larynx being open, merely flatus is modified by resonant passages, so that the only real difference of the resulting sounds from flated vowels (p. 56a) is that the resonant chambers are more obstructed. These will be called "flated" consonants.

Whispered and Gradual Consonants.-Of course the flated consonant can glide into the voiced consonant, which has the same resonance cavity, precisely in the same way as the flated vowel into the complete or voiced vowel, and in the interval a "whispered" consonant will be generated. The glide may also take place in the reverse order, from the voiced through the whispered, to the flated consonant, and this transition is more common in English, the first case being common in German, and neither occurring in Italian or French. In the case of vowels, as only the voiced vowel was recognised in writing, this "gradual" change was marked by prefixing or affixing the gradual glottid to the vowel sign. The same may
be done with consonants, but as the flated consonant is so common as to have a special symbol, it may be placed before or after that of the voiced conscnant to shew the change; thus in German sie's (she it) $\eta^{2 z e e s}$ or szees; and in English, seas (plural of "sea") seezl or seezs.

Mute Consonants.-Both of these series of consonants have decided sounds of their own, which cau always be prolonged for a sensible time, and in most cases quite as long as any vowel. Hence the ordinary definition of consonants, implying that they can only be sounded with a vowel, is incorrect. But there is a third series of consonants which have absolutely no sound of their own, which are merely positions that entirely obstruct the passage of sound, and which are therefore only effective by forming the initial or final point of a glide of voiced or flated sounds, both of which glides occur, the latter being very common in English finals. These consonants are called "mute." Both the "flated" and "mute" consonants are "voiceless."

Systematic Arrangement of the Consonants. Consonants have been classified in numerous ways. When all the consonants used by different nations whose speech has been investigated, are taken into consideration, or even all the consonants used in the received and provincial pronunciations of the four languages here considered, they are so numerous as to render any classification difficult and complicated. It will be necessary here to consider all the received consonants in English, German, Italian, and French, and some others
whien occur provincially or arise from imperfect atterance, because they must be noticed in any lirections for perfect speêch and studied when they occur, to avoid them. The Systematic Table of Consonants on p. 17 contains only 80 out of much more numerous forms used in varicus languages. The capital letters in the Table indicate the 23 English consonants, the small Roman letters indicate the 8 additional consonants used in German, Italian, and French; and the Italic letters shew those 49 further consonants which occur regularly, occasionally, or only provincially in all four languages, but will have only to be incidentally mentioned.

Oral and Nasal Consonants.-The linear division is first into two great groups of 70 " oral," and 10 "nasal" consonants. In the first the nose is entirely inactive, the uvula being pressed firmly against the back wall of the pharynx. In the secord. the nose is open, but more or less of the oras cavity is allowed to act with it, the peculiarity heing that the waves of sound pass into the outer air through the nose only, by the entire closure of the mouth at different places, as for the muts consonants, but the resonance is partly oral. In both divisions the "voiceless" and corresponding "voiced" consonants are placed under each other, the three great divisions of "voiced," "flated," or "imploded," and "mute," being distinguished by these names. Some voiced consonants have no corresponding flated forms in the Table, because such forms are not in use, although of course they exist.

Oral Consonants.-In the 70 oral consonants four different grades are distinguished-"shut, central, lateral, trilled."

Shut Consonants, Mute, Imploded, Sonant.-The 22 "shut" consonants close the aperture of the mouth aguinst any passage of flatus or voice. The voiceless series contains the 9 "mutes" proper, as $\mathrm{P}, \mathrm{T}, \mathrm{K}$. The voiced series cuntains the 9 " sonants," or voiced shut consonants, as $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{G}$, in which the voice is set on, but the air forced
from the lungs is unable to escape by the mouth or nose, and consequently such a condensation of the air is rapidly produced within the mouth as to prevent the production of any sound audible externally. Hence for B, D, G there is an audible voice sound which cannot be continued beyond a very brief period without altering the position which shuts it off. But there are evidently two other means of producing sound, by driving flatus into the same aperture, or by suddenly raising the larynx, or otherwise condensing the air. The first of these might be distinguished as "flatants" (fai-tents), and the second as "implodents" (imploa dents), which is the name given by Dr. Merkel (Maer'kl), the first person who drew attention to them. The second only are known to exist in Germany, and also (as I analyse the effect of the definite article for $t^{\prime}$ man $=^{\circ} d$ maan ) in Yorkshire, \&c. They may be written as ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{B},{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{D}$, ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{G}$, shewing that the condensation of air, which is the peculiarity of $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{G}$, is effected not by thr entry of voice, but by the contraction of unvoicea air in an enclosing cavity. These then form the 4 imploded shut consonants. These sounds are of considerable importance dialectally, but the singer has simply to avoid them.
Central Oral Consonants, Hisses and Buzzes.In the 26 "central" consonants there is an unobstructed narrow passage left between the tongue and the palate, forming more or less of a central groove, as for the EE-position (diagram 8). This gives to the 13 "voiced" consonants more or less the character of a "buzz," of which Z is the type; and to the 13 "flated" consonants more or less the character of a "hiss," of which $\mathbf{S}$ is the type. The groove, however, may be almost obliterated, as when the soft lip or tongue touches the teeth, and the breath can only get through by the yielding of the soft part, as in the hisses $\mathrm{F}, \mathrm{TH}$, and the buzzes $\mathrm{V}, \mathrm{DH}$. These were placed by Mr. Melville Bell, and after him by me in the "Standard Course," p. 61, in the next division, but l think that they are far more suited to this division.

Lateral Oral Consonants, or L Class.- In the 8 "lateral" (latur'elr consonants there is a central obstacle, the point of the tongue closely pressing against the hard palate, round which there is a tolerably free passage. The type of the 5 "voiced" forms is L , the most vowel-like of all the oral voiced consonants. The type of the 3 flated forms is the Welsh "ll" or "LH, in which one of the lateral passages (the left) is generally blocked.
Trilled Oral Consonants, or $R^{\prime}$ Class.-In the 14 "trilled" consonants, the central passage is obstructed by a flexible valve, which is made to vibrate by the action of the passing air, very much in the same way as the vocal chords themselves, but as the valve acts much more sluggishly and imperfectly, the result is a periodical interruption of the passing flatus or voice, known as a "trill." The type of the 7 voiced forms is R , the 6 flated forms are only incidentally in use. Among these are included two rudimentary forms, "r and " $r$, which are not trills proper.

Contacts and Approximations.-The 13 columns in the Table indicate an arrangement by the parts of the mouth which come etther actually or nearly in contact for the formation of these shut, central, lateral, or trilled, openings or obstructions. The first 12 are arranged from left to right, so that the point of approximation of the organs passes from the lips to the extreme back of the mouth; for the thirteenth both the extremities come into action. The names written over each column shew by what organs the approximation is effected. The words " point, front, back" refer to the tongue. The particular action for each case will be explained afterwards. This Table of 80 consonants may be compared with that in the "Standard Course." p. 61, for the English 23 consonants only. In describing the mode of forming these consonarts and their peculiar powers, it will be most convenient to take them in the order of the columns, which is that of their physiological formation by contacts anả approximations.

1 \& 2. Oral Consonants with Lips (1) Round and (2) Flat.
P. Shut Mute. Lips Round and Flat.-The lips are brought into close contact (diagram 15), as when breathing through the nose, but the teeth are kept apart, and the nasal aperture is closed, unless the following sound is meant to be ori-nasal, as sometimes happens in French only, as in paon pahn' (peacock), hence it is generally closed. The glottis is also closed for the clear attack 7 on the following vowel in received English, Italian, and French, but many English speakers have the glottis open for the gradual attack 1 , the effect of which must be considered in the next Section, and those (chiefly Northern) Germans who distinguish P and B , also generally use the gradual attack 2 . The lungs are ready to emit breath directly the closure of the lips is relaxed, but not an instant before ; this is an important point. With the clear attack, the only one that singers should use, the lips open, the lungs are compressed, and the voice acts at the same moment. This should be carefully studied to avoid "breathiness." Say p7aa, not maa, nor $p$ - hzaa, nor $p$-h $\eta$ aa. In closing with the clear release, the compression of the lungs ceases as the lip position is reached, as aapp. If this is the close of a sentence or phrase, generally the glottis is immediately opened, and a certain amount of flatus is driven out to relieve the speaker, written thus $a a_{7} p^{\circ} h$, or a slight "click" is heard, written thus aazp ${ }^{\circ}$, this is neither always nor most frequently the case. These peculiarities will be examined and explained in Section IX. In the meantime observe that when paa, aap are written, $p_{2} a a, a a_{7 p}$ are meant, the clear attack being the only proper mode of speech for singers, and the final windrush or click being unmusical and permissible only on special occasions, to be hereafter examined.
B. Shut Sonant.-Nose shut off, lips firmly closed, voice set on and forced by the lungs into the carity of the mouth, which is placed in
readiness for the following sound. As long as the lips are tightly closed, the voice produces a dull muffled sound, rather of the nature of a grunt, which can be considerably altered in effect by hollowing or rounding the cheeks and the lips (keeping their edges closed), and can be continued for about a second, or at most two seconds. but will always be finally stopped by the condensation of air in the mouth becoming too great to allow of the proper formation of waves of sound. In actual practice the sound never lasts beyond a very small fraction of a second, but it is always enough to distinguish P from B , that is, a glide on to a following vowel commencing with absolute silence, as for P , from a glide commencing with a continued voice sound, as for B. B is quite clearly produced in English, Italian, and French, and no difficulty is felt with it in these languages. But Germans do not usually distinguish P and B , and when they are anxious to do so, they use $p_{l}$ or $p-h_{l}$ for P , and in case of B continue the voice or "grunt" for some time. Both this gradual or jerked gradual attack and grunt should be avoided as quite unmusical and unnecessary, even by Germans, and should never be acquired by English singers of German. No Germans learn to distinguish P and B when final. They profess to say $P$ but very often say $B$, according to the glides which occur. See Section IX.
${ }^{\circ}$ B. Shut, Implodent.-This is the sound substituted for P and B at the beginning of words in a large part of Germany, and more especially in Saxony. The entrance to the nose and the passage through the lips are closed as for $P$, and even the larynx is completely closed by the epiglottis, so that the air in the mouth is thoroughly inclosed, and has no room to escape. Then by a strong muscular action the larynx is raised, forming a piston, which compresses the air, as in a condensing pump, or a common "pop-gun." The result is a dull "thud," which somewhat resembles the "grunt" of $B$, but is yet too different from it to allow those who know $\mathbf{P}$ and B familarly to
recognise either a P or a B sound. When P is expected a $B$ seems to be said, when $B$ is expected a $P$ seems to strike the ear. But at the end of syllables no implodent is possible except as following a mute, and hence only $P$ is said. On this German peculiarity are founded many bits of fun, the German being always made to say exactly contrary to what an Englishman would say; but the fun is often driven further than actual use allows, as in Leland's "Breitmann Ballads." Attention is drawn to it here for the use of English singers, that they may know that this is a local peculiarity which need not be imitated, and that if they cling to English use, pronouncing P or B according to the spelling, they will be as well understood as Germans themselves, and merely be considered to have a refined pronunciation. Three years residence in Saxony has rendered me thoroughly familiar with a confusion which at first seems incredible to an Englishmen.

W, V' Central Buzzes, and WH, F' Central Hisses - It is in these that the round and flat positions of the lips become of importance. The position of tongue is also different for the W and V'. The voiced forms W, V' are taken first because they are best known, but the action of the lips is shewn best in the flated forms WH, F'. The W is a peculiar English consonant which I have not met with elsewhere in Europe. The WH seems to occur in some pronunciations of Spanish, as Juan Whaan, but whether this is received or local or provincial I do not know. Even in English WH is passing away, and is little heard even in educated Southern pronunciation. But many words are distinguished by its use, as wheel weal whee $l$ wee $l$, which should be no more confused than: feel veal fee $l$ vee $l$. Hence the singer will have to deal with it as he deals with F , and make its flatus sensible, though he must always make it short, because, as long as it lasts, flatus is always a positive interruption of the music. For $W$ and WH the lips are brought together nearly in the high-round position
(diagram 12), but the aperture is closer. The tongue is high-back or in the oo-position (diagram 5). If the aperture of the lips were the same for 00 and $w$ when the voice is set on, an oo vowel would of course result. Germans, Italians, and Frenchmen, not perceiving that the opening of the lips is too small to admit of anything but a buzz, treat our $w$, therefore, as simply the unaccented initial ŏŏ of a diphthong. This is of course understood, though felt as an inexplicable foreignism by an Englishman, who himself hears the Italian uomo oŏao moa as wau•moa, a sound which would be also understood, but also felt as a foreignism by an Italian. The English feels the Italians ŏŏai for his wai much too "thick." The real difference lies in the lips. When oo is pronounced the lips are quite stiff and motionless, their only action is to "round" or diminish the cavity of the mouth to make its resonance deeper. But for $w$ when it is pronounced forcibly (and this is better felt for wh, as flatus has more motive power than voice), the edges of the lips tremble slightly, and the air inserts itself between the teeth and the lips (especially the upper lip, and just beyond the corners of the lips, blowing them out liko a sail, as may be seen in the mirror, and easily felt by placing the tips of the fingers lightly at one time over both the upper and lower lip, and at another just beyond the two corners of the mouth. while uttering wh and $w$ forcibly for as long a time as possible. Of course, when $w$ is pronounced in the usual brief manner this "bagging" of the upper lip is no longer visible, but it can be just felt with the finger. By uttering ŏŏai wai, ŏŏaa waa, \&c., in rapid succession this effect may be better perceived. It was for this reason that the lips were said to be "round" for W, perhaps "inflated" or "bagged" might have been more expressive. On the contrary there is no bagging of the lips for V', F". The lips are by contrast "flat." The tongue is not necessarily raised, as for $w$, to the high-back position, it seems indeed to be rather in the position for the next vowel. The corners of the mouth are rather pinched in than not, and the
air is driven between the lower lip and the upper teeth upwards to the edge of the upper lip. If the hand be held just before the lips when saying $w h$ and $f^{\prime}$ forcibly, the different direction of the flatus is well felt. For $f$, as is well known, the lower lip touches the upper teeth, and the flatus is forced between the lower lip and the upper teeth, so that not only is the lower lip moro contracted than for $f^{\prime}$, but the hiss is much stronger. The blowing for $w h$ is like that of heads of Boreas or other wind gods, with puffed cheeks and lips; the blowing for $f^{\prime}$ is like the blowing with a thin flat stream of wind to cool hot tea or soup. For V' it is only necessary to set on the voice instead of the flatus, but the effect in moving the lips is not so apparent.

The Germans always use $\mathrm{V}^{\prime}$ in place of English W, and of English V, neither of which they are able to pronounce without much practice. The consequence is that they seem to say $w$ in English when $v$ is expected, and $v$ when $w$ is expected. It is possible that the Londoner's and Kentishman's confusion of his " $\mathrm{w}, \mathrm{v}$ " may arise from his saying $v$ ' in both cases. This was asserted by Dr. Beke, but it is so many years since I have. been able to hear the sound from lips to which it was native, that I cannot say positively what they do. At any rate when a German talks of one vulgar woman, saying v'aon v'uol-gar' v'uom'en, the Englishman is apt to hear von wuol-ger vuom.n. I know two or three Germans, long resident in England, excellent linguists, who speak English well and with a good choice of words, who have got over other difficulties, often thought insuperable, and who cannot (or at least do not) pronounce the English W with certainty. In the North of Germany V is said to be used even in speaking High German I have never yet heard V from a German when speaking his own language. The sound of V ' is so much more musical and better suited to the singer than $V$, that singers are recommended to use $V$ ' for $V$ ever in English singing (not speaking), and at any rate to bestow
great care upon its acquisition if they wish to sing German songs.

W and WH occur in English whenever they are so written as the beginning of a word (except words beginning with who, in which the $w$ is not attended to . V' occurs in German wherever $w$ is written at the beginning of a word, and also in the initial combination "qu-", called $k v-$ '. $F^{\prime}$ occurs in German only after $P$, as in pfahl (post) $p f^{\prime} a a \cdot l$, where the combination is much easier than $p f$ as $p f a a \cdot l$, for which the under lip had to be suddenly drawn back and pressed against the upper teeth. But most of the educated Middle and Upper Germans are now learning to use $p f$. Some German theorists wish to use $f^{\prime}$ whenever a German word begins with $v$, as von (of), vater (father), thus $f^{\prime} a o n, f^{\prime} a a^{\cdot} t u r^{\prime}$; but I cannot recollect noticing this in practice; it may exist in some districts. Both $f^{\prime}$ and $v^{\prime}$ occur as the sounds of written " $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{v}$ " in Hungarian. The $v$ " occurs also for written " $b, v$ " in Spanish. But all four consonants $w, w h, v^{\prime}, f^{\prime}$, are absolutely unknown in Italian and French.
'BR, 'WR, Lip-trilled Buzzes, 'PR Lip-trilled Hiss.-For ' $p r$ flatus being driven forcibly through the lightly closed lips, they are made to open and shut with great rapidity, thus interrupting and checking the current of air alternately. Babies delight in the sound of ' $p r$, but the principal reason for calling attention to it here, is that it roughly represents the action of the vocal chords in the larynx, which open and shut in the same manner, only with much greater rapidity and perfection. The lips are sluggish and require much force to move. By controlling the extent of their vibrations by muscular action, or better still by a ring of metal, the vibrations may be confined to the extreme edge. The mouth-piece of a trumpet, French horn, or Trombone, is a contrivance of this kind, and it is this vibration, this series of puffs, which produces the musical tone. This tone, therefore, receives its original pitch from the tension of the lips and force of the wind,
is then reinforced and "qualified" by the resonance of the cavity of the horn itself. In the case of the French horn, the performer's hand inserted at the bell opening, enables him to alter the pitch and quality of the tones. The analogy between this and the motion of the vocal chords, the cavity of the mouth and action of tongue, is complete, and may serve to render the operation more evident.

For ' $b r$ voice takes the place of flatus, and considerable exertion is required. This sound is interesting as the voiced sound of ' $p r$, and also for being used in a very forcible state, with a clear and almost metallic rattle, for stopping horses byr German coachmen. In a very tight state, it is a defective utterance of " $r$ " in England and probably everywhere, written ' $w r$ in Glossic. The lips for ' $w r$ are tight, not loose as for $w$, with which it is usually confused, especially in print, because $w$ is the nearest sound to it, but those who really use this ' $w r$, resent the notion that they say $w$. The tightness of the lip much limits the amount of trill, and hence makes the sound more like $w$, but the sound is generally much more lengthened than $w$. This is the drawler's very rude $v e^{6}$ wr $i$ ' $w r o o \cdot d$, usually written " vewy wude" in Punch. It is needless to say that singers must have nothing to do with ' $p r$, 'br, or 'wr, which are here explained merely to be corrected.

## 1. Nasal Consonants with Oral Resonance Limited by Round Lips.

M Shut Hum, and MH Shut Snort.-For $m$ the lips are as for $b$, but the uvula is advanced (diagram 22, so that the voice passes to the outer air through the nose only, but is permitted to resound in the whole interior cavity of the mouth, just as it does for $b$, but with the advantage of a free outlet, when the nose is in a healthy and unobstructed state. If the nose be obstructed by pinching the nostrils tightly, the same sort of
muffled sound will be heard as for $b$, but decidedly qualified by the resonance of the nose, and it will rapidly cease by condensation. Various other changes of quality can be effected by compressing the nose at different places and with different degrees of force, from the end of the bons part, down to the nostrils. Such experiments shew the meaning of nasal resonance. When there is much mucous (mew'kus) in the nose owing to catarrh (kataa $\cdot r$ ), or cold in the head, the resonance is much injured, and $n$ comes to sound rather as a defective $b$, which may be written $b m$. It may be imitated when there is no cold in the head, and is said to exist as a usual sound in Westmorland. The $m$ itself is so vocal that complete airs can be executed upon it, which are then said to be "hummed." It will be found, however, in running the scale up and down upon $m$, that the tongue is very active. The lower jaw is depressed and the tongue low, in the low-mixed position for the low notes. As the pitch rises, the jaw rises, the teeth lock, and the tongue rises in the midmixed form (diagram 4), the resonance being much injured if the tongue is not kept in the mixed position. The peculiarity of the tone makes it desirable that singers in general should not dwell upon it, although as an oscasional variety, musical parts have even been written for humming; thus Mozart in the Magic Flute has given a few bars to Papageno (Italian Paa-paajai:noa, but in the original German opera, always Paa-paagai-noa), which are entirely sung on $m$, his mouth being supposed to be closed with a padlock. Hence $m$ acts as a true nasal (as distinguished from a French ori-nasal) vowel. The reason why it is usually classed as a consonant depends upon its mode of gliding, hereafter described. It occasionally forms a syllable in English, as in rhythm rith $\cdot m$, chasm kaz $\cdot m$, spasm spaz $\cdot m$, prism priz'm, and our numerous "-isms," as sophism sof izm, where it forms a distinct syllable. But in the termination $-l m$, it ought not to do so, as elm elm. not $\mathrm{el} \cdot \mathrm{m}$, film $\mathrm{flim} \cdot$ not $\mathrm{fl} \cdot \mathrm{m}$, because the $l$ is also vocal, and glides on to it as if it were a vowel.

Some persons even say el $\cdot u m$, fil $\cdot u m$, which sounds must be carefully avoided. But when $m$ forms a syllable by itself, singers will find it convenient to follow this hint, and say kaz $u$ ' $m$, \&c., making the $z$ buzz very short, taking the chief length of the note to the vowel $u$, or $u$ at pleasure, and ending with a sharp glide on to $m$. which will be just faintly touched, so as to have as little of the disagreeable nasal resonauce as possible. In saying $k a z \cdot m$ properly, the buzz of the $z$ is heard till the mouth closes for $m$, and the uvula being immediately opened for the nasal sound, there is merely a nasal glide while the tongue is removed from the $z$ position, so that no vowel at all is possible.

For $m h$, flatus is treated in the same way as voice for $m$. It is not an acknowledged element in any mode of speech. But it is recognised in English by Mr. Melville Bell in "lamp,' which he writes lamhp. The meaning of this will be understood hereafter, when we come to treat of the glides.

## 3. Oral Consonants with Lips and Teeth.

F Central Hiss, and V Central Buzz.-These are the only consonants formed by the joint action of the lips and teeth. The lower lip is somewhat retracted and pressed more or less tightly against the lower edge of the upper teeth (diagram 18) and the flatus or voice being forced between the teeth and the lip, blows the lower lip slightly upwards and outwards. The pressure of the lip on the teeth may have any degree of force, and as it lightens the lower lip is less retracted, till finally the flatus and voice passes the teeth so easily that the ear cannot tell whether $f$ or $f^{\prime}, v$ or $v^{\prime}$ were intended. Hence it is not usual to find both $v^{\prime}$ and $v$ recognized in any language (as they are in Dutch, where, however, $v$ is rather $v v$ or $f v$, sea p. 61b). In German, for example, though $v^{\prime}$ is extremely common, $v$ presents such great difficulties (p. 65b) that even Dr. Merkel in describing
it shews that he did not appreciate it, and hence we may believe that those who assert the presence of $v$ in German are in error. Euglish, Italian, and French have distinct $v$ but no $v^{\prime}$. German has $f$ in general use, and $f^{\prime}$ after $p$, but even this is becoming lost. The six forms $w h w, f^{\prime} v^{\prime}, f, v$, are thus distributed-


In modern Greek where $v$ and not $v^{\prime}$ is recognised, I have heard all forms from $v$ ' to $v$, the dental character increasing with the vehemence of the speaker. Probably the same may occur in Spanish, and possibly the Italian $v$ is thus descended from an older Latin $v^{\prime}$, a change which has also occurred in the Indian languages.

The singer has to use $f$ in all four languages here treated, and $v$ in all but German, where he employs the much pleasanter $v^{\prime}$. Of course if the singer or speaker has no front teeth he must use $f^{\prime}$ and $v^{\prime}$ in all languages. But singers are bound to fill up any gaps in the front teeth at least, to prevent any deterioration in their quality of tone. In singing, the sound of $f$ being entirely unmusical, must be reduced to the smallest possible dimensions, sufficient to make it audible, but real audibility must be secured, even at the expense of musical sound, or distinctness of speech will be altogether lost, because the glide from $f$ would be confused with the glide from $p$. The learner must practise such exercises as faa faa faa, paa paa paa, faa paa faa, paa faa paa, with all vowels and at all pitches, slowly and with great rapidity, taking care not to make the hiss of $f$ too prominent, and should place a friend at a distance to inform him by silent signals, which is heard in each case. Sounds without meaning should be chosen for this purpose, in order that the ear of the listener may not be prepossessed. V and B should be exercised in the same way, the buzz of $V$ not being too
prominent. Then W and V , a very difficult exercise, and, still more difficult, V and $\mathrm{V}^{\prime}$. Much practice is here necessary. The final $f$ and $v$ must also be especially practised to avoid lengthening the $f$, or adding on an $f$ after shortening $v$, and thus saying haa'vl or haa'vf instead of haa'v. Unnecessary flatus must be avoided by the singer on all occasions.

## 4. Oral Consonants with Teeth and Point of

## Tongue.

TH Central Hiss, and DH Central Buzz.-The point of the tongue is brought against the upper teeth so that a small portion of it can be just seen below them, but the thickness of the tongue rests against the back of the front teeth, so that the tip of the tongue is not actually between the teeth (diagram 25, in which the teeth are represented as too far apart); at the same time the top of the tongue rests against the side upper teeth rather tightly, much in the same way as for $t$, so that really the greater part of the flatus for $t h$ and voice for $d h$ passes between the teeth and the tongus. There is therefore not a great deal of difference in the effect of the hisses of $f$ and $t h$, both being produced by forcing the hisses of air between a tolerably stiff obstruction (lip for $f$ and tongue for $t h$ ), and a perfectly unyielding obstacle (the teeth in both cases). Hence $f$ and $t h$ are easily confused The principal difference lies in their effects on a following vowel. Such a phrase as vat fin fin ov vis $f i k f s h$ would be unintelligible in place of dhat thin fin ov dhis thik fish, and foreigners do not confuse th $d h$ with $f, v$, but with their $t^{\prime}$ and $d^{\prime}$, which have nearly the same position and glide. In Orkney, Shetland, Kent, and part of Sussex, the words "the, they, that, those," \&c., are pronounced with d. Under certain circumstances $d h$ becomes $d$, and th becomes $t$ in other dialects. Of course, no educated Englishman is liable to make such confusions.

The sounds of $t h, d h$, are by no means peculiar to English. Icelandic, Modern Greek, and Arabic, have both $t h$ and $d h$, Spanish has two sounds which strike the English ear as the same, and Danish has dh. But it so happens that these sounds are utterly unknown to Germans, Italians, and Frenchmen. For them the simplest rule is, "place the point of the tongue between the teeth and try to say $s, z$." The result, though imperfect, is at least always intelligible.

The singer must treat these as he does $f, v$; make the hiss and buzz very short, but audible, and rely chiefly on the glide. He should exercise himself with $t h, d h$, in precisely the same way as with $f, v$, and should vary the exercise by mixing all four letters together, as faa thaa vaa dhaa, faa dhaa vaa thaa, faa dhaa thaa vaa, and so on. And it is still more necessary for $d h$ than for $v$ final to avoid the gradual release; beware of making bree $d h$ into $b r e e \cdot d h_{\mathcal{L}}$ or bree $d h t h$, because it is very common at the end of a sentence, and because the final whisper would spoil all delicacy of effect in singing.
$5,6,7, \& 8$. Oral Consonants, with (5) Gums and Point of Tongue, (6; Palate and Point of Tongue, (7) the Front of the Tongue Arched or Convex towards the Hard Palate, and (8) the Front of the Tongue Hollowed or Concave towards the Hard Palate.
It is convenient to take these four series together because they are so closely related that one helps to explain the other.

T, T', T Shut Mutes; D, D', © Shut Sonants, ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{D}$, ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{D}$ ', . ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{D}$ Shut Implodents. - For $T$ the lips and teeth are open, the upper surface of the point of the tongue is pressed firmly against the hard palate, just behind the gums, but not touching them (diagram 16), and then the outer margin is spread over the palate and against the teeth, so
as to completely prevent the passage of air through the mouth, but yet to leave a considerable cavity between the top of the tongue and the palate just behind the place where the point of the tongue is made to touch the palate. The glottis is ready for the clear attack, but no air is driven from the lungs till the tongue begins to move from the palate, just as for $P$ (p. 63 and the formation of D and ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{D}$ from T is precisely the same as that of B and ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{B}$ from P (p. 63b), and need not be described again, but ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{D}$ requires especial notice because it is the only implodent constantly used in some English dialects. In Cumberland, Westmorland, Yorkshire, and Durham, the definite article the is regularly pronounced ${ }^{\circ} d$ or ${ }^{\circ} d$, and in Lancashire, Cheshire, Derbyshire, and North Lincolnshire, it has that sound occasionally, its regular form there being the simple hiss $t h$. In such a phrase as "at the door," the "the" sinks into ${ }^{\circ} d$ in all these counties, as $a a t{ }^{\circ} d$ doour $r^{\prime}$, with very gentle $r^{\prime}$, which is sometimes quite inaudible. In singing provincial songs this has to be attended to, as ${ }^{\circ} d$ or $t h$ is not reckoned as a syllable, and hence has no note allowed to it, but in either case there is an interruption to the music, which for general purposes has simply to be diligently avoided.

The position of the tongue for T, D seems to be peculiarly English, in Europe, and perhaps in the world. The Indians recognise it as the same as that of their "cerebral" (ser-ibrel) letters. But these are more properly $\mathbf{T}$, , D , for which the under (instead of the upper) side of the point of the tongue is pressed against the same point of the palate, or one slightly further removed from the gums. This hollows out the front of the tongue behind the point of the tongue, and gives a peculiar shape to the cavity above the tongue, which is also affected by the way in which the tongue has to stretch out sideways to form a firm closure with the side teeth. The effect of this hollowness on the following vowel is rather marked, so that taa daa are really quite distinct from taa daa. These sounds are mentioned here
because of their connection with other important sounds in the same column, and because AngloIndians are so much troubled with them. In fact, our $t$, $d$ positions lie exactly between the "reverted" $t,{ }_{6} d$, and the "advanced" $t$ ', $d$ ', for which the upper surface of the tongue is brought firmly against the gums, with the under part resting against the front teeth, the rest of the closure being formed with the sides of the tongue and the side teeth as before. These are the "dental" $t, d$ ' of almost every nation of Europe except the English, and notably of German, Italian and French; and they also occur in India as well as ${ }_{c}$, , $d$. The intermediate character of our own $t, d$ renders it extremely difficult for an Englishman to hear the difference between the two Indian pairs of letters, $t^{\prime}, d^{\prime}$ and ${ }^{\prime} t$, $d$, although important differences of meaning exist according as one or other is used, and I have been told by Indian Civil Servants who had been many years in India, that they were unable to hear the difference. Yet a native Indian who spoke English well and had been in France, in speaking with me at once identified his " dental" or "advanced" $t$ ', $d$ ' with the French, and his "cerebral" or "reverted" ${ }_{\text {c }} t$, $d$ with the English consonants. The dental $t^{\prime}$, $d$ ' certainly occur in some English dialects before $r$, and especially when $t r^{\prime}$ follow $s$, and listening to a German's st'r'aong for str'ong may assist the learner to a right appreciation of the sound.

After these explanations it will be seen that an Englishman need not trouble himself with acquiring $t^{\prime}$, $d^{\prime}$ for foreign languages. His own $t, d$ closely resemble them, and can occasion no mistake, - because they never occur in other European languages, and are nnt offensive to the ear. The chief difference being in the action on the vowel, and if that is attended to all will go right. It is only when an Englishman goes to India that he has to learn the two other pairs of sounds, and although this is a matter of great practical importance we have nothing to do with it here.

S, SH, S', T'H Central Hisses, and Z, ZH, Z', D'H, Central Buzzes.-Those who whistle are aware what changes they produce in the resonance of their mouth by the motion of the tongue, which in every position must allow the air to pass centrally over it towards the lips. For S the front of the tongue is " arched," that is, it is convex at the upper part (diagram 19), and the sides are held firmly"by the palate and side teeth (diagram 28) so that there is a narrow channel over the upper surface of the tongue, narrowing still more towards the point of the tongue and between it and the hard palate, gums, and teeth. The point of the tongue is kept quite hard and stiff, and is perfectly unruffled by the passing flatus. The lower lip is somewhat retracted. The glottis is wide open. This is the ordinary so-called "dental" s. Very little change is produced in the hiss by bringing the point of the tongue over against the lower gums, and "advancing" the strongly arched front to form the very narrow channel between tongue and teeth. The sharpness of the hiss depends on the narrowness of this channel, and appreciable differences of effect are produced by widening it, among other reasons, because it is then difficult to keep the tongue stiff enough. This "advanced" form of $s$ is useful as a corrective to those who have a tendency to lisp, which arises from bringing the point of the tongue in the first position so near the bottom of the front teeth as almost to strike it. When not quite striking, the effect is that here written $t$ ' $h$, and is said to be the sound of " $z$ " in Tuscan (the best) Italian, when followed by " $i$ " and another vowel in an unaccented syllable,
 vee 't'heĕoa, but this is not the pronunciation recommended for English singers, who should use the recognised graa•tsĕёaa, vee tsěॅéoa, without caring even whether the $t$ should or should not be $t$ '. The true Spanish $z$ is said to have the same lisping sound, but Englishmen are here recommended to use their own th. Say "cats, nets, pots, cuts, puts" kats, nets, pots, kuts, puots, and observe the effect of the $t$ on the following $s$, in
drawing that part of the front of the tongue just behind the tip, closer to the palate, so that there is, at least at first, a continuation backwards of that extreme narrowness, which in the ordinary $s$ lies only between the point of the tongue and gums or teeth. This is written $s^{\prime}$, and is said to be the true Tuscan Italian pronunciation of initial " z " in accented syllables, as in zio (uncle) s'ee:oa. The English speaker is not recommended to attempt this. He should confine himself to tsee $\cdot a$, touching the palate first and so leading on to the $s$, involuntarily. This is also the recognised pronunciation, and is certainly the sound of the German initial " $z$," as in zuzuziehn (to draw to) tsoo'tsoo-tsee'n. This initial combination $t s$, run on to the following, and not affecting the preceding vowel, will require much practice in German and Italian; it does not occur in English and French.
In all these varieties of S , the front of the tongue is well arched, the point is well forward, and there is consequently no hollowness at the back. But for SH the typical form of the tongue is that for T with the under surface of the tongue towards the palate, which it does not touch, allowing the air to pass over between this reverted under surface and the palate, and to eddy, as it were, in the hollow behind this reverted front of the tongue. This is the true Indian $s h$, which is related to $t$ as $s$ is to $t$. In English, German, Italian, and French, for $s h$ occurs in all these languages, the typical form has undergone a little change, arising from the method in which it was historically derived, for it is a recent sound in all these languages, and not primitive, as in the Indian, Arabic, and Hebrew. For true SH the point of the tongue is drawn much further back than for $S$ (as may be readily seen in the mirror and felt by the probe), and is directed towards the hard palate at some distance behind the gums (diagram 26), so that when looked at in the mirror the under surface of the tongue is well seen, shewing that it is not presented to the palate. The front of the tongue behind the narrow passage thus formed is consequently rather straight than
hollowed (it is rather too straight, however, in diagram 26), but it is sufficiently different from the arched front of S to entirely alter the nature of the sound. In Germany, certainly, and sometrmes in England, the lips are also considerably protruded for SH, being curved outwards so as to form a trumpet-bell shaped aperture. This is very marked in the command hush! and is so well known that the mere assumption of this position of the lips, without emitting any breath, is generally understood as an order to be silent. Still this position of the lips is not at all essential to the production of the sound, and gives it rather an inelegant 'thickness.' S is a hiss, SH is a whish, or hush. S or st in English and French, ts in German and Italian, is used to rouse and call attention. SH in all the four languages is used to calm, to indicate moderation of sound, or even to order silence. This arises from the contrast of the sharp hiss S, and the dull whish SH.
In singing, the hiss $S$ is apt to be very prominent, especially when final, much more so than the whish SH. Some singers seem to have a positive fondness for the sound, though it is entirely unvocal, and interrupts the music painfully. It is generally possible to recognise the presence of every $s$ in a hymn, where the other letters escape observation. Tho singer must therefore be very careful to shorten the hiss as much as possible. It must indeed be heard, but it should be very unobtrusive. It is so sharp and cutting that the least touch of it is well perceived. Hisses and buzzes can be made exceedingly short by a rapid separation of the parts of the mouth which generate them. There seems to be a great desire, however, to retain the position at the end of words. Hence the singer should practise saying sees, sais, saas, saus, soas, soos, with an almost immediate removal of the tongue, lowering it, not by the muscular action of the tongue, but of the lower jaw, which will drag the tongue with it, and render the hiss impossible. The sounds of S and SH are common in all the four languages. SH is written sch in German, except before $t, p$ at the
beginning of words, when it is written $s$, as in stehen spielen, now called shtai'n shpee:len almost universally, even in Hanover, where stai•n spee•len used to be heard forty years ago. Occasionally, however, sh'tai $n$, sh'pee'len may be heard (see $s h$ ' below). In Italian sc before $e, i$, and sci otherwise, and in French ch represent this sound.

The letters Z (with $z^{\prime}, d^{\prime} h$ ) and ZH differ only from the corresponding $S$ (with $s^{\prime}, t^{\prime} h$ ) and SH , by having the glottis closed for voice, instead of open for flatus. But the narrowness of the passage is so extremely ill-fitted for voral resonance that the effect is that of a strong buzz, even more marked than for $v, d h$, and more unpleasant to maintain, whereas the hisses $s$, $s h$ are much pleasanter and easier than the hisses $f, t h$, because the air passes treely through a narrow but unobstructed passage, and has not to squeeze through between a sluggish obstacle (lip or tongue) and an immovable barrier (teeth). This leads to some curious results. In none of our four languages are $z, z h$ primitive (they have been in all cases historically derived from other actions, which cannot be here described) ; and there is a constant tendency to open the glottis and let the easier hiss and whish be heard. In the few English words beginning with $z$, of which "zeal, zest, zigzag, zone, zoological" (all foreigners), are most in use, the $z$ is either made extremely short, or refined by a gradual attack, as $z z e e \cdot l$ or $s z e e \cdot l$, with the $s$ scarcely touched, but no singer should allow himself to sing $\imath z$ or $s z$. In German the initial $s$ before a vowel is always pronounced with this gradual attack, except when influenced by a preceding vowel or voiced consonant (which can only be $l, m, n, r^{\prime}$ in German) as sie, sehen (they see) $2 z e e, ~ j z a i \cdot n$, or szee, szai $\cdot n$, with the $s$ just touched, as separate words, but szee zai•n when connected. This pronunciation, though universal, is not acknowledged, and hence singers may confine themselves to simple $z$. In Italian, initial $z$ never occurs except under the influence of a following voiced consonant, as sdegno (indignation) zdai•ny'oa or qzdai•ny'oa, or szdai•ny'oa, with light s. The

Italian initial combinations which produce this effect are " sd, sg, sgh, sm, sn;" I have not noticed it in "sl." These combinations do not occur in French, but I have observed Frenchmen say zmĕĕs for Smith Smith. There are the same words with initial $z$ in French as in English, and the $z$ is kept light but pure, as zael, zaest, zĕĕgzăăg, zoan, zao-aolaozhĕĕk.

Final $z$ (written "s ") occurs frequently in English, and if followed by a pause of perceptible length, has invariably the gradual release, as sins $\sin z /$ or $\operatorname{sinzs}$, scenes see $\cdot n z /$ or see ${ }^{\prime} \ldots z s$. But in this case the $z$ is apt to be made very short, and the $s$ very long and conspicuous. This is usually painfully prominent in children's singing. Singers should practise keeping the $z$ pure to the end. The $z$ itself is certainly qnite unmusical, though not unvocal, and from its bad quality of tone should never be long sustained. But it must not be omitted, and must not run off into $s$.

Final $z$ never occurs in German. It is always a pure sharp $s$, whether written " s , ss," as in das (the) daas, nuss (nut) nuos", or " sz ," as in flusz (river) $f 100^{\circ} s$.

Final $z$ never occurs in Italian.
Final $z$ often occurs in French speaking, and is written "-se," as rose raoz, but in French singing this becomes raozeo, except before a vowel, so that it is only in very recent times that any real $z$ final has been known in this language.

Medial $z$, that is, $z$ between two vowels, is very common, and is indeed the usual way of pronouncing a written " $s$ " in that position in all the four languages.

Many languages have no $z$, as Spanish, Icelandic, Welsh.

Initial $z h$ never occurs in English, but it is extremely common in French, written " $j$," as je jase (I chatter) zheo $z h a ̆ a ̆ z, ~ o r ~ " ~ g " ~ b e f o r e ~ " e, " ~$ as gêne (inconvenience) zhāen, geôle (gaol) zhōal.

Final $z h$ never occurs in English, but is frequent in French speaking, through the omission of final "e," as in âge (age) ahzh, but not in French singing, where this " e " is pronounced, thus ahzheo.

Medial $z h$ occurs in English in a very few words, as division divizhen, confusion ku'nf $\check{\prime} 00 \cdot z h e n$, and similar words, leisure lezh•iuor or lezh•er, treasure trezh ĭuor or trezheer, and similar words. It is an extremely recent introduction. In French it is very common, as outrager (to outrage) ootraa zhai.

ZH never occurs in German or Italian, although SH is common in both languages.

L, L', 'L, $L$, Lateral Murmurs, and LH, L'H, 'LH, Lateral Hisses.-The common English L is the true type of the lateral passage in the mouth. The point of the tongue is pressed firmly against the palate, as for $T$, but the sides of the tongue are free, so that the air can pass between the sides of the tongue and the cheeks or teeth on both sides, and in duing so will generally cause both of the sides of the tongue to flutter slightly (diagrams 20 and 27). The lips are wide open, in a natural inactive position, and the teeth are well apart. The whole under surface of the tongue is seen in the mirror, but none of it touches the palate itself. The glottis is contracted for voice. If it is open, and flatus pass through the same position as for LH , the sides of the tongue are seen to vibrate much more. This sound of $l h$ does not occur in English, but it is not unfrequent in colloquial French, as table taablh, although the entire omission of the "le" is more common still, as taab, in . which case the $b$ is lengthened, or rather, when the $b$ is released the tongue is in the position for $l$, so that there is a glide from $b$ to $l$, but the $l$ is not prolonged to form a syllable, as in the English tai.bl; it is rather absolutely mute, though the fact of bringing the tongue to the $l$ position and the glide up to it, convince a Frenchman that he really pronounces it. Occasionally, when very energetic he may do so, but the recognised form even then is taablh', the $l$ gliding on to $h$ p. $56 b$ ) as a remnant of taableo, and any sound like taab $\cdot l$ is purely foreign, English or German. This taableo is the recognised sound, and is the only form used in singing, except when
there is a vowel on to which the $l$ can glide, so that the hiss $l h$ be always avoided.

If the point of the tongue be advanced fully against the gums and top of the hinderpart of the front teeth, we have the " dental" or "advanced" L', the only acknowledged sound in German, Italian, and French, for which, however, the Englishman may always use his own L , so that he need feel no trouble in making this distinction. It is, of course, $l^{\prime} h$, the flated form of $l^{\prime}$, and not $l h$, which is really heard in French.

If the under surface of the tongue is brought against the palate, so that we have a hollow front, as for $d$ ( $\mathrm{p} .69 b$ ), we obtain the "reverted" $l$, which possibly occurs dialectally in England, but produces such a disagreeable thickening of the sound, that singers must be very careful to keep the front of the tongue well arched for their own thin $l$.

In all these $l$, there is a passage on both sides of the tongue. By pressing one side of the tongue tightly against the teeth and palate (as in preparing to make the click to start horses), that side will be closed, and the result will be a unilateral (eu'nilat:ur'el) or one-sided $l$, written ' $l$. The unilateral effect is heightened by also closing half of the mouth. The flated form of this is ' $l h$, which is the Welsh " 11 ," thus quaintly described by William Salesbury in the oldest English book on Welsh pronunciation, in 1567: "The Welsh $l l$ is spoken the tongue bowed by a lyttle to the roufe of the mouth, and with that somwhat extendying it selfe betwyxt the fore teeth the lyppes not all touching together but leauing open as it were for a wyndow the right wyke of the mouth for to breathe out wyth a thycke aspirated spirite the same $l l$. But and if ye wyll haue the very Welsh sounde of thys letter, geue eare to a Welshmä when he speaketh culltell, whych betokeneth a knyfe in Englysh: or ellyll a ghoste." These words are called $k i^{\prime}\left(l h \cdot t a e^{'} l h^{6} a e^{6} l h i^{\prime} \cdot l h\right.$ in Welsh. Many Welshmen deny the unilateral character, but my Welsh teacher (a clergyman at Beaumaris, in October, 1857) insisted upon it.

This consonant is the only one in Welsh which offers any difficulty, and has often to be imitated by English people, who also sing Welsh songs. The usual English imitation thl, as Llangollen Thlangoth-len for 'Llaangao'lhaen, is very inadequate.
The English L is the most vocal of the English oral consonants, and may itself form a syllable, as in little lit $\cdot$ l, tackle tak $\cdot l$, apple $a p \cdot l$. But the resonance is not agreeable enough for singing upon, and hence it is preferable to say lit $\cdot u^{\prime} l$, tak $\cdot u^{\prime} l$, ap $\cdot u^{\prime} l$, giving the principal part of the note to $u$ ' and closing with a sharp glide on to $l$, which is briefly but audibly sustained, as previously explained for vocal $m$ (p. 67b). In speaking, however, $l$ is purely vocal after $p b, t d$, though a slight vowel, or at least a distinct glide, is perceptible after $k g$. Thus in apple, babble ap $\cdot l, b a b \cdot l$, the lips are closed for $p, b$ and the tongue put into the proper position for $l$, at the same moment, so that when the lips are opened, there is only a short glide and the $l$ alone follows; whereas for ap $u^{\prime} l$, $b a b \cdot u^{\prime} l$, the lips are closed for $p, b$ and the tongue put into the position for $u$ ' (or $u$ at pleasure) at the same time, so that on releasing the lips, there is a glide on to $u$, and then one from $u^{\prime}$ on to $l$, and however short the $u$ ' may be, this is perceptibly different from a glide on to $l$ only. Again for little fiddle $l i t \cdot l f d \cdot l$, the point of the tongue when in the $t, d$ position is also in the $l$ position, and without removing it at all, we simply release the sides of the tongue, and there is the smallest possible glide heard during this motion, after which a pure $l$ remains. But to introduce any vowel, as $u^{\prime}$, between $t, d$ and $l$, the point of the tongue must be removed and replaced. However rapidly this may be done, a totally different effect is produced, and this is written lit $\cdot u^{\prime} l f d d^{\cdot} u^{\prime} l$. In the case of tackle, higgle $\mathrm{tak} \cdot l$, hig $\cdot l$, the contact of the tongue for $k, g$, as we see by diagram 17, renders the placing of the point in the position for $\ell$ impossible without previously releasing the back of the tongue from the $k, g$ position, and there is therefore an exceedingly short time for which
there is a completely unobstructed passage, so that some obscure vowel of an indeterminate character results. In singing we may hold this as $t a k \cdot u^{\prime} l$, hig' $u$ 'l, but in speaking we do not hold it, and hence have only the effect of a glide lasting for a longer time than in the other cases.
This vowel $l$ is common in German, and in Austrian names it is commonly written without a vowel, as Ischl, Gungl ĕĕs $h \cdot l$, guong $\cdot l$, but in common words it is written el , as in bibel bëe $b \cdot l$ (Bible), fackel fäă $k \cdot l$ (torch), wandel $v$ 'aan $\cdot d l$ (walk). But even here the theoretical pronunciation is $\breve{a} l l$, as bĕĕb $b$ ăll, făă $k \cdot a ̆ \breve{l} l$ (which is really never used in actual speech), and bё̆ $b \cdot u^{\prime} l$, fŭă $k \cdot u^{\prime} l$, $v^{\prime} \breve{a} \breve{a} n \cdot d u^{\prime} l$ are quite admissible, in fact preferred in declamation, and necessary in singing. In usual Glossic we write beeb $\cdot e l$, faak $\cdot e l$, $v^{\prime}$ aan $\cdot d e l$.
No vocal $l$ occurs in Italian or French.
R', R", ${ }^{R}$ Point Trilled Buzzes, and "r Point Rise, R'H, R"H Point Trilled Hisses. -The first difference between the English initial $R^{\prime}$ and $L$ is that the passage for air is central in R' (diagram 28 ) and lateral for L (diagram 27). The next difference is that the sides of the tongue vibrate slightly for $L$, and the point of the tongue vibrates more strongly for $\mathrm{R}^{\prime}$. The position of the tongue for $R^{\prime}$ (diagram 21) and $S$ (diagram 19) is very similar. The whole back and part of the front is almost in the same position for T, S, and R' (diagram 16, 19,21) being fixed firmly against the palate and side teeth for T. But in T the point of the tongue stops the passage by being pressed up against the palate; for S it narrows the passage by being held stiffly near the gums and teeth; for R ' it is held loosely in the same passage, acruss which it can "flap," so as at one time, when the point bends down, to admit the air to pass more freely than for S , and at another, when the point turns up, to check it almost as much as T. This "flapping " or vibrating of the tongue is too rapid to be effected by a "voluntary" muscular action, and the incapacity which so many persons feel to "trill their r's" arises from attempting such an
action. The "trill" of the loose point of the tongue seems to be produced just in the same way as in a loose piece of paper held in a crevice through which the wind blows. (I once had this effect provokingly produced by the loose end of a piece of wall-paper which came just over a little chink between the window-frame and wall of my bed-room; the result being horrible groans and moans on a windy night, of which it was difficult to discover the origin). By holding a piece of paper in the crevice of a window slightly open when there is much wind, this fluttering is easily seen. The fluttering of flags on a windy day is another example. The loose point of the tongue is really placed in a crevice through which wind is driven, and if we only take care to leave it sufficiently elastic, by relaxing the muscles of that part while the rest remains stiff, it will be rapidly driven to and fro by the passing air, and produce the required "trill." On one occasion, many years ago, when I was explaining the phonetic method of teaching to read before a class of teachers at the Home and Colonial Schools with a class of very young children to exemplify my teaching on, I found that three of these children could not " trill their $r$ 's." I succeeded after about a minute in making each of them trill an $r^{\prime}$ very intelligibly by these directions. "Say $z$. Buzz it well." The children were delighted with the buzz, and it is important for them to continue it, and make it strong, because it causes the point of the tongue to tingle, and they thus become concious that it is resisting an obstacle. "Now then don't you feul the end of your tongue rather queer? Hadn't you to hold it very tight? Very well, now then buzz again and let the end of your tongue go loose and be comfortable." And the trill came out at once. Another way of acquiring trilled $r^{\prime}$ before any given vowel, as in $r^{\prime} a a$, is to repeat daa daa daa with the greatest possible rapidity, trusting to increase of speed to make the $d$ imperfect, and hence to arrive at something like

This is the method usually recommended, but it appears to me inferior to the other, first because
it is accomplished by a voluntary muscular effort, and we merely wish to render a membrane involuntarily obedient to an external force, without any use of muscle; and next because the tongue in saying $r$ never assumes the completely checking position for $d$; and lastly, because the utterance of any vowel, as $a a$ after $d$, requires the tongue to be entirely removed from the molar teeth and then returned to it, whereas for $r^{\prime}$ the tongue must never leave the molar teeth, so that we are training our muscles falsely throughout.
For R' the glottis is closed for voice, but the sound is constantly interrupted by the trill, which is not fast enough to produce a musical note (as for the wall-paper in my window-frame) but gives the effect of "beats" in music, as when two notes of almost the same pitch are sounded together. This is vocal enough to be sung upon (as in the voix céleste vwaa sailaest stops of an organ or harmonium) but by no means pleasant. Hence in German, Italian, and French, where the trill is naturally much stronger than in English, it should be considerably softened, by decreasing the extent of the swing of the vibrating parts, which diminishes the sharpness of the beat, and also decreasing both the rapidity of the vibrations and the length of time that they last. Still the trill must be heard. In English it occurs only and always before a vowel, and is replaced by the "vocal r ," that is, the vowel $u$ or $u$ ' in other places (p. 53a). For this reason in the most ordinary English Glossic it is sufficient to use $r$ for both the vocal and trilled effect, thus roarring for roarrr'ing, that is, r'ao'ur'ing. ("Teacher's Manual," p. 202). But this double use of $r$ has been purposely avoided in the present treatise where it was important to draw the attention of Englishmen to the distinction. The difficulty which they experience in German, Italian, and French, and more especially Italian, is to pronounce a clear and distinct trill when no vowel follows, with either a long or a short vowel before this trill, as Italian vĕerr'too, French vaer'tue, and if necessary to "double" the sound, as Italian gŏŏaer' $r^{\prime}$ 'aa guerıa
(war). No shade of an introduced vocal $r$, or really vowel $\breve{u}, u$, must be introduced. The vowel must glide on to the $r^{\prime}$ as clearly and sharply as on to a $d$ or $z$. It is by means of $d$ and $z$ that this effect can be best acquired. Practise $\breve{a} \breve{a} d$, $\breve{a} \breve{z} z$, $\breve{a} \breve{a} r^{\prime} \breve{a} \breve{a} d z$, $\check{a} \breve{d} d z r^{\prime}$, and so on with all vowels.
The tongue is sometimes more advanced than in diagram 21, so that in the upper movement of the tongue it approaches the teeth rather than the palate. This gives the "dental" or "advanced" trill $r$ ", which properly occurs after a real $t$ " (thus st'r"ai for st'r'ai stray, the common str'ai), in dialects which use $t$ '. The singer need not trouble himself with it. Whatever his natural trilled $r^{\prime}$ may be, provided it is trilled, and made with the front of the tongue arched he may use it. But there is another trill made with the front of the tongue hollow, as it is for $d(\mathrm{p} .69 b)$ and $z h$ (p. 71a), and this is the West of England ${ }_{r} r$. For this ${ }_{r} r$ the tongue is "reverted," and the trill is made by the under surface of the tongue flapping to and from the palate. The effect is extremely rough and disagreeable, but very characteristic of the locality. Any inhabitants of districts where it is used should correct the habit if possible, especially in singing, where it greatly spoils the effect of all vowels which it follows.

If, however, the reversion is not more complete than for sh (diagram 26), the point of the tongue being only slightly raised, the effect, though decided, is not by any means so bad. But when voice passes over the tip, stiffened to such a degree that it cannot vibrate, the effect is not unlike the vowel $u$ itself. This is Mr. Melville Bell's untrilled . $r$, or "rise," as I prefer to call it, which on this view of its formation is a mere modification of $r$, and hence may be regarded as a "rudimentary" trill. For convenience this ${ }_{c} r$ may be classed among the trills themselves, although it is really an imperfect or "pervious" $d$, bearing the same relation to the "impervious" , $d$ itself as $v$ " to $b$, or $g h$ to $g$. Mr. Bell considers that this is the true form of " $r$ " in English wherever it occurs, initial or final, only in the latter he considers it "a semi-vowelized sound
of "r (" Visible Speech," p. 70), which may be considered as sufficiently distinguished by position. Thus he writes: Agrippa, art, permitted, for, stretched, forth, answered, as Aag "rip ${ }^{r} a a, a h_{\text {" }} r t$,
 which I pronounce Ugr'ip $\cdot u$ or $A^{\prime} g r i p \cdot a^{\prime}$, aa $\cdot t$, pumit $\cdot e d$, , fauŭ, str'echt, fao $\cdot$ ŭth, aan $\cdot s u d$. The real difference here is as to the use of $r$ ' or "r $r$, the vowels are of no consequence, either set being admissible. To me the use of initial "r has the effect of defective utterance, and it occurs to me that Mr. Bell insisted on his form "r to instruct Scotchmen (among whom he had lived so long) to avoid their very strong trill. In English the trilled $r$ ' must be much lighter than in Scotch or Irish or Italian, that is, the distance by which it flaps backwards and forwards must be less, and hence it must never approach the palate so nearly, and also the number of vibrations and duration of vibration must both be less. All this is effected by diminishing the force of the breath which is driven through the mouth, and increasing the muscular looseness of the point of the tongue. In some of our dialects the amount of trill is barely perceptible, but there is a something present different from either any vowel or the rise " $r$, which attentive examination enables us to appreciate as a point trill. A perfectly untrilled rise "r has a singular effect. It is much used in America, and I have found the name of this conntry a perfect of test, a kind of Shibboleth (Judges xii., 6) for distinguishing even those Americans who speak most like Englishmen. They always say ume "r $r$ riku or $a^{\prime} m e_{\text {" }} r^{r} i k a^{\prime}$, not umer' ${ }^{\prime} i k u$ or $a^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} m r^{\prime}$ 'ika'.
All these forms of $R$ ' would have their flated forms, such as $r^{\prime \prime} h, r^{\prime} h, r h,{ }_{c} r h$, of which the two first are introduced into the Table, as, in colloquial French, "-re" often becomes $r$ " $h$, or more properly perhaps $r " h$, as sabre saabr" $h$, or still more colloqually saab, but more properly saabrh', and in singing, saabreo. Compare the French $l h, l h^{\prime}$, p. 73b. The flated ${ }^{r} h$, , $r h, \mathrm{I}$ do not remember to have heard.

5, 6, \& 8. Nasal Consonants, with Oral Resonance, Limited by (5) Gums and Point of Tongue, (6) Palate and Pont of Tongue, (8) the Palate and Reverted Tongue.

N, N', $N$, Shut Hums, and NH, N'H, Shut Snorts.--The tongue is placed precisely in the same position for $n$ as it is for $d$, for $n^{\prime \prime}$ as for $d^{\prime}$, for,$n$ as for $d$, but the nasal passage is opened in the usual way (diagram 23), and the voice escapes through it entirely (shewn by experimenting with the nostrils as for $m, \mathrm{p} .66 b$ ). But there is a resonance in the part of the mouth communicating with the throat, and limited by the tongue. The cavity for $n$ thus formed is much smaller than the cavity for $m$. Hence the resonance is not so full. The difference is easily tried. Hum a few notes on $m$, and then repeat them for $n$ without opening the lips, and finally repeat them for $n$ with the lips open. The first quality of tone differs decidedly from the second, but the second and third are identical, shewing that the part of the mouth beyond the tongue in case of $n$ has no effect on the resonance. The $n$ is decidedly more nasal, and less musical than the $m$. Still it is possible to sing on $n$, which forms a distinct syllable in many English words, as open, on $\cdot p m$, taken tai $\cdot k n$, lessen les'n. In the well-known bass song, "The sea! the sea! the open sea!" (words by Barry Cornwall, that is, Proctor, and music by Chevalier Neukomm Sheovăălyai Naǒ•kaom, in English Noi:kum) there is a long and important note on the last syllable of open.


Philips, who was the original singer, always sang the "en" to $n$, and the dull nasal effect (I have heard him sing it) was very disagreeable, coming as it did immediately after the fine oa. But Philips contended that the word "open" was properly pronounced oa $\cdot p n$, and that it would be erroneous to say either on'pen or oa.pun. The true middle course is to say oa'pu'n. The $u$ ' is to
be prolonged and have the main effect of the note, but just at the end it glides up quickly and briefly to $n$, which is just touched before the voice quits the note. The $n$ is thus made audible, and the effect is totally different from oa $\cdot p u$ ', while the sharp glides to $n$ in oa pen', oa punn are altogether avoided, so that these disagreeable pronunciations are not presented to the mind of the listener, and the horrible change of quality of tone from oa to $n$ is not heard. This is the method in which singers are recommended to sing the syllables which contain a simple $n$. Of course, they will continue to speak them correctly. Compare the remarks on vocal $m, \mathrm{p} .67 a$, and vocal $l$, p. $74 a$. In such a word as oa $\cdot p n$, the syllable on $n$ has no glide leading to it. The mouth closed for $p$ may remain closed or open for $n$, as we have seen, and the tongue assumes the $n$ position so rapidly after the $p$ closure, and before the nasal passage is opened, that no vowel and no $m$ can intervene. To say oarpmn, oa $\cdot b m n$ would be difficult even to English organs. But for oa'pu'n the mouth opens before the nasal passage opens, and hence an oral vowel escapes. In the still more common case of vocal $n$ after $t$ or $d$, as eaten ee tn, Newton Neu'tn, sodden sod $\cdot n$, wooden wuod $n$, there is absolutely no motion of the tongue in passing from the mute or sonant to the $n$, and hence no glide on to the $n$ is possible. The nasal passage is opened, and the nasal resonance is added to the oral ; the utmost that can happen by way of glide is the passage from imperfect to perfect nasalisation as the uvula leaves the back wall of the pharynx. It is, however, always possible to remove the point of the tongue and produce a real oral vowel, and hence as before we may and should sing ee tu'n, Neu'tu'n, sod $\cdot u^{\prime} n$, wuod $\cdot u$ ' $n$. In cases like oaken oa $\cdot k n$, broken broackn, twiggen twig'n, there should also be the shortest possible glide in passing from $k$ to $n$, but exactly as in tak $\cdot l, \mathrm{hig} \cdot l$ (p. 74a) there is more tendency to introduce a vowel, and in some forms, as chicken chick-in, a clear vowel is usually employed. For listen lis $n$, mizen miz $n$, the glide is very short, as the tongue for $s, z$ is already half
arranged for $"$, and the tip has only to be sudaenly thrown up. In kitchen kich in a clear vowel is common, but not so in beechen, birchen bii chn, ber.chn, nor in ashen, freshen ash $\cdot n$, fresh $\cdot n$, where the treatment is quite similar to that in lis'n. And earthen erth $\cdot n$, heathen hee $\cdot d / h n$ are similarly related to cet $\cdot n$, but as the $t h$ is quite dental there will be a tendency to use the dental $n$ " in preference to the real English $n$; in fact, there is a difficulty in retracting the tongue from the th position (diagram 25) to the $n$ position (diagram 23 , and I find that my own practise is, not to retract the tongue, but to leave the point against the teeth, and raise the part just behind it to touch the gums and palate up to the spot where the point is usually placed for $n$. This would not be the case in foreign languages.

Vocal $n^{\prime \prime}$ is very common in ordinary German speech, but it is considered incorrect, and it should always be replaced by an obscure vowel $u^{\prime}$ followed by $n^{\prime \prime}$, as in English singing, thus lieben lee bu'n" or lee.bun', for which lee.bu'n may be used by English speakers, not lee bn. In such words as "meinen" to think) it is common to say mahyn $\div n$, that is, the first $n$ is taken short, and then there is a perceptible diminution of force, without a complete cessation of voice, followed by a new vocal $n$. It is better, however, to say mahyn $u$ ' $n$, and in singing this is necessary. Germans profess to say maayn $\check{a} \tilde{\imath} \kappa$, but this is not the practice even in solemn declamation. There is a combination of syllabic vocal $l$ with the usual non-syllabic $n$ very common in German, which Englishmen often find difficult, as in nudeln $n o o \cdot d l n$ (vermicelli), wandeln $v ’ \breve{a} \breve{a} n \cdot d l n$ (to walk), where the combination is similar to our fallen fau-ln; or as some persons pronounce kiln (for which kil is more usual), and like our elm. In singing and speaking say $n o o^{\circ} \cdot d u^{\prime} l n, v^{\prime} \breve{a} a ̆ n \cdot d u^{\prime} l n$ not noo $d l u$ ' $n$, $v$ 'ăăn $\cdot d l u$ 'n (the usual English error', and still less $n o 0^{\circ} d u^{\prime} l u ' n, v^{\prime} a a n^{\circ} d u^{\prime} l u ' n$. In usual Glossic we write noo ${ }^{2}$ deln, $v^{\prime}$ aan $\cdot$ deln.

There is no vocal $n$ or $n$ " in Italian or French.

The snort $n h$ (or $n^{\prime \prime} h$ as the case may be) is sometimes heard as a kind of snuffle, and as a defective utterance of children, and when we endeavour to clear an obstruction in the nose, by closing the mouth as for $t$, and blowing through the nasal passages. It is no longer recognised as an element of speech, except by Mr. Melville Bell, in such a word as tent, which will be considered in Section IX, but it formerly replaced the " $k$ " in words beginning with " kn," as "know," and the pronunciation nhnoa was laid down by some orthoepists of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, and nhnaa may still be heard in Cumberland. Of course, singers will carefully avoid such a disagreeable interruption to music. The Germans pronounce a pure kn, as in knabe knaa.bu (boy:.

9, 10, \& 11. Oral Consonants, with (9) Front and Point of Tongue and Palate, (10) Front of Tongue and Palate, (11) Front and Back of Tongue and Palate
Y, Central Buzz, and YH, Central Hiss.-This is the only form of this series which is generally recognised. The tongue is nearly in the same position as for ee (diagrams 1 and 8), but it is pressed much closer to the palate at the top, sensibly diminishing the narrow channel left by $e e$ between the tongue and the palate, so that it is difficult to squeeze out any voice at all, and what reaches the ear is very obscure and broken, so that it differs materially from ee. Hence it is quite possible to distinguish ee from yee, although many people find a difficulty in so doing. It is not an uncommon English or German sound, as in yea $y a i$, ja (yes, G.) yaa. In French and Italian it is replaced by an ĕĕ, forming a diphthong of the third class (p. 48), as cavalier (horseman, F.) $k a ̆ a ̆ v a ̆ a ̆ l e ̆ e ̆ a i, ~ d e s ~ y e u x ~(e y e s, ~ F) ~ d a e z e ̆ e ̆ e o,. ~ j e r i ~$ (yesterday, I.) ĕĕaeree. But Englishmen may without hesitation use their common and familiar $y$, and say kăăvăălyai, daezyeo, yaeree, which are the Glossic forms usually employed.

If flatus is used instead of voice YH results. This sound occurs only in English, in such words as hew, hue yhioo, Hughes Yhiooz, human $y$ ȟoo $m u$ 'n, humid $y$ hioo mid, humour yhioo $m u^{\prime}$ 'r (formerly called yoo mu'r). But English orthoepists have generally failed to recognise it, and consider that $h_{l} \check{0} 00, h_{\imath} \check{0} 0^{\circ} z, h_{\imath} \check{0} 0^{\circ} \mathrm{mu}$ 'n are the real sounds, and this was most probably a previous pronunciation. As singers should always avoid the introduction of flatus when admissible, they are quite at liberty to say hzioo, $h_{7} \check{0} 0^{\circ} z$, $h_{7} \check{0} 00 \cdot m u ' n$, with the simple clear jerk, and thus get a perfectly vocal sound, much easier to produce. In usual Glossic, therefore, we write heu, heuz, heu mex, heu•mer.

CH' Shut Mute, and J' Shut Sonant, with the Consonantal Diphthongs CH Hissed, and J Buzzed, and their True First Elements TY' Shut Mute, and DY' Shut Sonant, and Second Elements SH' Central Hiss, and ZH' Central Buzz. - Now suppose that the extremely narrow channel above the tongue which is left in $y$ becomes entirely obliterated by forcing the tongue against the palate so as to make a complete stop. In order to $\mathrm{d} \cap$ this it is best to plant the point of the tongue firmly against the lower gums. The result is a shut sonant consonant J '. In singing $j$ ' $a a$, the front of the tongue should not be allowed to hollow in the slightest degree, or else more or less of an yna effect would be produced. If the reader succeeds in making this contact firmly and releasing it well on to the $a a$, the resulting sound $j^{\prime} a a$ will be almost indistinguishable from jaa, and Mr. Goodwin (in 1852) considered that this true shut consonant was the proper sound of the English $j a a$, which is usually analysed as dzhaa. The voiceless furm would be CH', and Mr. Goodwin also considered this to be the true form of the English chaa, usually analysed as tshaa. I find from viva voce observation that native Sanscrit scholars actually pronounce the two shut con. sonants which are interposed in their series of shut consonants between ${ }^{\prime} t$ and $k$, and between ${ }_{6} d$ and $g$, precisely as $c h, j$, and decidedly not as $t s h, d z h$,
which have evidently no claim to be considered shut consonants at all. The real Sanscrit series are $k, c h^{\prime},{ }^{\prime}, t^{\prime}, p$, and $g, j^{\prime},{ }_{6}, d^{\prime}, b$. Now the object of mentioning this curious sound is to draw the singer's attention to a possibility of avoiding the initial unpleasant hiss and buzz of $c h, j$, in chest, jest, as usually pronounced, by substituting ch'est, $j$ 'est. The final forms in such age such ai•j, if treated as such' ai•j' simply, would be unintelligible. The glide up to $c h^{\prime}, j^{\prime}$ is so nearly the same as that up to $t$, $d$, that they would be heard as a variety of $s u \cdot t$, $a i \cdot d$, unless a vowel followed, or uniess some voice or flatus were emitted after the letters, as is usual with all shut consonants.

Now if we release $c h$ ', not through $y h$ (which would require considerable effort in order to retain the tongue in its place and groove out the central channel), but by withdrawing it bodily, so that the whole upper surface of the tongue ceases to have contact with the palate, though the point of the tongue remains planted against the lower gums, we shall obtain an "arched front" or S-sound, modified by having the narrow channel backward instead of forward, and differing from the " hollowed front" or SH-sound, by having the principal opening in front of the surface of the tongue instead of behind it. On the whole this modification resembles $s h$ more than $s$. and it is hence written $s h$, (Its position in the 9 th column of the Table C, p. 17, though most convenient, for a reason to be given presently, is not quite correct; the natural order is rather $s, s h$ ', $s h$.) 'This sound of $s h$ is said to be the true Tuscan Italian pronunciation of Italian ce in cinque (five) sh'ěĕng-$k o ̈ a r a$, dieci (ten) dĕёae sh'ee, which sound to ar Englishman as shing $k$ wai dyae $\cdot \mathrm{sh}$, and for which he is recommended to use the theoretical sounds chĕĕng $k w a i$, dyae chee. But if a final $c h$ ' be released upon $s h$ ' very lightly, thus such sh no Englishman would find any fault with the pronunciation for such, and if a vowel followed, as in touching tuch'ing, even this release is not necessary. My own impression is that ch in English is not $c h$ nor $c h ' s h$, nor $t s h$ nor even quite $t s h$ '. I find or
carefully watching my own pronunciation of such, that I do not begin exactly with sut, for which the point of the tongue alone should touch the palate, but that in reality both the point and part of the front of the tongue lie on the palate, which is indicated by $t y$ ' in column 9, p. 17. 'This $t y$ ' generally arises from some $\breve{e} \breve{e}$ or $\check{\imath}$ following $t$, as in nature nai tituoŭ. When ty' is released, it is not easy to go to the position sh, for which the tongue is more or less bent in exactly the opposite direction, being concave instead of convex to the palate; but it is very easy to drop to $s h$, as already described, and I find that I really say suty'sh'. Indeed this way of deriving $s h^{\prime}$ is most convenient for Englishmen, and for that reason I took the liberty of putting $t y^{\prime}$ and $s h^{\prime}$ in the same column of Table C, p. 17. Between ch's $h$ ' and $t y^{\prime} s h$ there is no practical difference, and either may be considered the analysis of $c h$, which will always be used in writing. But $t s h$ is no doubt not the analysis, although it has been generally assumed so to be. By merely using the voice instead of flatus, we ohtain $j^{\prime} z h^{\prime}$ or $d y^{\prime} z h^{\prime}$, and not the old $d z h$, as the analysis of $j$, which will be always written. Observe, however, that when $j$ is final and is not followed by a vowel or voiced consonant, it is very usual to substitute $d y^{\prime} s h^{\prime}$ for $d y^{\prime} z h^{\prime}$, probably because $z h$ never occurs finally in our language. Thus 'do you know his age?' would be generally pronounced colloquially dywonoa $\cdot i z a i \cdot d y$ 's $h$ ' ? The singer should avoid this flatus, and endeavour to sing ai $\cdot d y^{\prime} z h$, which is what is meant by writing ai $\cdot \mathrm{j}$. The habit, however of saying $a i \cdot d y^{\prime} s h$ ' and the difficulty of uttering $z h$ final, will render this rather troublesome at first.
These observations explain also the old derivations of $c h, j$, from $t y, d y$, and the English habit in " nature, verdure," \&c., of introducing a $c h$ and $j$ sound as nai chu', vujui (in common Glossic, nai cher, verjer). The change is from nai-tйuoŭ, $v u \cdot d i ̆ u o u ̆$ through nai $\cdot t y^{\prime} u^{\prime}, v w \cdot d y^{\prime} u^{\prime}$ to nai $\cdot t y^{\prime} s h^{\prime} u^{\prime}$,, $v u \cdot d y^{\prime} z h^{\prime} u^{\prime}$, that is nai chu', $v u \cdot j u u^{\prime}$. But on the principle that the singer should avoid hisses and buzzes whenever he can, he should distinctly say
nai'ť̆uой, vw•dŭuoi, or in common Glossic nai•teur, ver-deur. This is also recommended as far the pleasantest and most desirable pronunciation in public speaking.
The sounds represented by $c h, j$, wherever they are written may be considered the same as in English, however they are really pronounced, because the differences are so slight that long practice would be necessary to acquire them with certainty. The $c h$ is found in German, as deutsch (German) doich, Zschokke name of a German author) Chaok $u$. But $j$ is never found in that language. Germans use ch for it when initial, and generally also when final, but sometimes say dch when final, as Chăŏr' $d c h$ for George.

Italians have both $c h$ and $j$ (or the substituted forms $s h^{\prime}, z h^{\prime}$ ), and when these sounds have to be doubled the first is taken either consciously as $t^{\prime}, d^{\prime}$, but possibly in reality as $t y^{\prime}$ and $d y^{\prime}$, or else $c h^{\prime}$ and $j^{\prime}$ respectively. Thus cielo (heaven) chae-loa or chyae loa, ciarla (chattering) chăăr'laa; caccia (chase) kăăt chyaa; gemito (groan) jaemeetoa, giusto (just) joo'stoa, oggi (to-day) audjee.

The French have neither ch nor $j$ except in foreign words, where they are written "tch, dj," meaning tsh, dzh. But there is great reason to believe that $c h, j$ were the sounds of the present French initial $s h, z h$ (written "ch, $j$ ") at the time of the Norman conquest, and even much later.
KY' Shut Mute, and GY' Shut Sonant, with their Derivatives KY'H Central Hiss, and GY'H Central Buzz.-More closely connected with $y h, y$ than all these forms, and absolutely confused with them occasionally by German writers are $k y^{\prime} h$, $g y^{\prime} h$. In the older pronunciation of English, which may still be heard, a kind of $y$ is introduced after $k$ and $g$ before an aa sound, as cart $k y a a \cdot t$, guard gyaa $\cdot d$, sky skyaǎ, which often passes into kyĕёaa $\cdot t$, gyĕёaa $\cdot d$, skyĕĕaă, and is sometimes made much more prominent, as skyee yaă --to be avoided as a nightmare by all singers. On careful examination, however, it appears that there is not a successive action of $k$ and $y$, or $g$ and $y$, but that the back and half the front of the tongue lie on
the palate, producing $k y^{\prime}, g y^{\prime}$, the exact counterparts of $t y^{\prime}, d y^{\prime}$, in which the point and half the front lay on the palate, so that $t y^{\prime}, c h^{\prime}, k y^{\prime}$ form a graduated series of positions. This consonant releases most easily on the vowel ee, and hence introduces that sound. In Italian it is not uncommon in the so-called close diphthongs (p. 45a), as chiacchierone (immense chatterer) $k y^{\prime} a a k k y^{\prime} a i r o a \cdot n a i$. But $k y^{\prime}, g y^{\prime}$ need never be anxiously distinguished from $k y, g y$.

Bring the tongue into the position for $k y^{\prime}, g y^{\prime}$, and then make a little channel in the middle for the air to pass, as for $y h y$, and the result is $k y^{\prime} h$, $g y^{\prime} h$. The position clearly differs from that for $y h, y$, only by having the back part of the tongue high as well as the front part, but this difference is appreciable by a sensation in the soft palate for $k y^{\prime} h$ which is absent in $y h$. The distinction, however, is very slight, and requires much familiarity both with hearing and speaking the language to understand thoroughly. so that Englishmen may certainly use their own $y h$ for $k y^{\prime} h$. Thus mädchen (girl) mae $d k y^{\prime} h e n$ or mae $d$ yhen, ich (I) ĕěky'h or ĕĕyh, nicht (not) nĕĕky'ht or nĕĕyht. But it will not be sufficient to use $y$ for $g y^{\prime} h$ The $g y^{\prime} h$ when strictly pronounced, is very sensibly rougher than $y$, as general $g y^{\prime} h a e n-$ airaa $l$, not yaenairau$\cdot l$; fliegen (to fly) fle $\cdot g y^{\prime} h u^{\circ} n$, not flee $y u^{\prime} n$; berge (mountains) baer' $\cdot g y^{\prime} h u^{\prime}$, not baer'su'. Whenever $y$ is thus used for $g y^{\prime} h$, although intelligible, it has a ludicrous under-bred effect on a German ear. It is far better to use a common $g$, and say gdenairaa•l, flee $\cdot g u^{\prime}$, baer' 'gu', as is done in the North of Germany. It is only in the termination "-ig" that $y$ may be used by preference, as könige (kings) keo nĕĕgy'hu or keo'nĕĕyu or even $k e o^{\circ} n y u$. The consonant $g y^{\prime} h$ is always $k y^{\prime} h$ when final, as könig (king) keo'nĕĕky'h or keo'nĕĕyh.

The consonants $k y^{\prime} h, g y^{\prime} h$ are unknown in English, Italian, and French. To an Englishman they at first sound like $s h$, and many find it difficult even after weeks of residence in the country to believe that Germans do not say ish, velsh, for ĕĕhy'h, v'aelky'h. The consonant ky'h
occurs in Swotč after ee, ae, e sounds, as nicht (night) neky'ht.

The singer has to make the ky' $h$ hiss as short as possible, but the glide must be distinct. The $g y^{\prime} h$ becomes better by being taken as $g$ or $y$, as last suggested.

LY' Lateral Buzz.-Assume the position for $t$ ' $^{\prime}$ already described, and loosen the contact between the tongue and back side teeth, so that there is a small exit for the air on each side of the tongue. Or else assuming the position for $l$ (diagram 20), draw up the front of the tongue (the part immediately behind the point) and bring it in contact with the palate. The position would then be a mixture of diagrams 20 and 1, with 27 instead of 8 ; so that it might be described as an attempt to pronounce $l$ and $y$ at the same time. But it is essential that there should be a passage on each side of the tongue. Close the glottis for voice. On driving voice through forcibly, there is a considerable rush on each side out of the narrow opening, causing very perceptible trembling of the sides of the tongue, and generally a bubbling of saliva, so that the sound is anything but pleasant, and should be retained as short a time as possible. It is very unlike the vocal resonance of $l$. On releasing the tongue on to an $a a$ position, as $l y^{\prime} a a$ somewhat of an ee effect seems to interpose, and in Italian, where the consonant is common, it is always released first on an ee, as gli (the, or to him) ly'ee; paglia (straw) paa-ly'ĕĕaa; orgoglio (pride) aor'gao ly'ĕеॅoa. In Spanish, where it is also common, the ee is not written, but is heard all the same, as llano (plain) ly'ĕéaa noa. The sound used to exist in French, and Littré in his great French Dictionary, insists on its being always pronounced, but it has quite vanished from received French pronunciation, and is replaced by $e e$ or $\breve{e}$, forming a diphthong with the preceding vowel, see pp. $45 b, 46 b, 47 a$.

The sound $l y^{\prime}$ does not occur in English, but in saying such words as million nilyen, brilliant. bril-yent, if the $l$ is dwelt upon, and thus doubled,
ly' may be generated by the way, thus mil-$l-l y^{\prime}$-yen; but this is unusual. In German the sound is unknown, and Germans are apt to replace it by $k y^{\prime} h$ or $y h$ when final, as émail aimaayky' $h$ or aimaayh, for aimaay (enamel).

The singer must not dwell upon the very unpleasant buzz of $l y^{\prime}$, but pass rapidly to the $e e$, and if he finds a difficulty, simply endeavour to say $l y$, as lyee.

## 9. Nasal Consonant, with Front and Point

## of Tongue.

NY' Shut Hum.-The tongue is put into the position for $t y^{\prime}$, but the passage to the nose is open. This leaves a small and rather peculiarly shaped aperture at the back of the mouth, which modifies the nasal resonance, rendering it sensibly worse, and hence not one fit to be sustained. The effect of the initial consonant is almost $n y$, and of the final consonaut almost $y n$; thus Englishmen often call Boulogne boolo $\imath^{\cdot n}$ in place of boolaony ${ }^{\prime}$ and hear Montagne as montei $\cdot n$ instead of moan'taany'. But such errors must be carefully avoided.

NY' does not occur at the beginning of words in French, and in the middle of words it constantly releases on to a vowel, as gagnons (let us gain) gaany'oan', very nearly gaan-nyoan', not gaan-yoan'. In singing $n y^{\prime}$ always releases on to a vowel, as moan'taany' ĕ̆, almost moan'tăăn-nyĕo. And as this is allowable even in speech, the English speaker or singer can alwars use $n y$ if he prefers, and should never use the atrocious $y n$.

In Italian NY' rarely occurs at the beginning of a word as gnomo (a gnome) $n y^{\prime} a 0 \cdot m o a$, but it constantly forms the beginning of a syllable, as bisogna (business) beezao ny'aa. It never occurs finally. Hence the Englishman can still use his ny.

[^5]
## 12 \& 13. Oral Consonants, with (12) Back ok Tongue, and (13) Back of Tongue and Lips.

K, KW' Shut Mutes, and G, GW' Shut Sonants, and ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{G}$ Shat Implodent.-For K the tongue is brought nearly into the position for oo (diagram 5), but makes a firm contact with the soft palate above the tip of the uvula. On looking into the oper. mouth, by means of the mirror, it will be seen t'3at the contact is really so high as to conceal the arches of the palate completely, the whole back of the tongue resting on the soft palate, and completely preventing the passage of air. The K is absolutely mute, and becomes effective merely by its glide on to or off from a neighbouring vowel. The glottis is closed for the clear attack thus kzaa not for the gradual as $k \eta a a$, nor for either a jerked clear attack $k$ - $h z a a$, or a jerked gradual attack $k$ - $h_{l} a a$, and hence not $k$-haa. The formation of G and ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{G}$ from K is precisely the same as that of B and ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{B}$ from $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{p} .64 a)$, and the implodent has no particular interest, for it is not used either in England or Germany. The size of the air-chamber behind K is almost quite confined to the throat, for nearly all the mouth is cut off by the contact of the back of the tongue with the soft palate. Hence $G$ can be sounded for a much shorter time than $B$, for which the air-chamber extends to the lips.

For K, G then only the back part of the mouth is occupied, and the lips are free. To bring out the effect fully the lips should be quite open diagram 11). But it is evident that a great contrast would be effected by making them assume the high-round form (diagram 12). The result is written $\mathrm{KW}^{\prime}, \mathrm{GW}^{\prime}$, as in queen $k w^{\prime}$ 'een, guano $g w^{\prime} a a \cdot n o a$. The effect is different from kween, $n$, gwaa $\cdot n o a$, and also from kŏŏee $n$, gŏŏaa noa. For in the first case ( $k w^{\prime}$ ) there is a glide from $k$ and $w$ at the same time, in the second ( $k w$ ) there is first a glide from $k$ to $w$, and then from $w$, but few persons appreciate this difference, and hence in ordinary Glossic it is enough to write kwee $n$, gwaa noa. In the third case, which is that of the

Italian quanto (how much) kŏăaan $\cdot t o a$, guanti (gloves) gŏŏaan $\cdot t e e$, there is distinctly a vowel (00) following the $k, g$, and not a buzz ( $w$ ), but yet for ordinary purposes we find it enough to write kwaan'toa, gwaan'tee, so that ordinary Glossic $k w, g w$ have really three values, unless specially noted. In Italian then $k w^{\prime}, g w^{\prime}$ are replaced by $k o ̆ 0$-, gŏŏ. In German $k w '$ is replaced by $k v^{\prime}$, as in quast (tassel) $k v^{\prime} a a s t$, quer (transverse) $k v^{\prime}$ 'er', compare English queer $k w w^{\prime} e e r$. In a few French words, however, I am inclined to think that true $k w^{\prime}, g w^{\prime}$ occur, as coiffeur (hair-dresser) $k w^{\prime} a a f e o r^{\prime}$, coin (corner) kw'aen', goître (swollen neck) gw'ahtr'. And in precisely the same way, by closing the lips to the high-round form, while the tongue says $t, d, r^{\prime}, s$, we get $t w^{\prime}, d w^{\prime}, r w^{\prime}, s w^{\prime}$, which seem to occur in French toi (thee) twa ${ }^{\circ} a$, doigt (finger) $d w^{\prime} a a$, roi (king) $r^{\prime} w^{\prime} a a$, soie (silk) $s w^{\circ} a a$, and similar words. In all these cases, however, ŏ or or $w$ is the recognised form, in place of $w^{\prime}$, and may be also said. Compare the fourth class of diphthongs, p. 49a, where the existence of $t w^{\circ}, d w^{\prime}$ in English is indicated.

KH, KW'H Central Hisses, and GH, GW'H Central Buzzes.-Assume the position for K, and then slightly loosen it, so that a very thin stream of air can squeeze itself between the back of the tongue and the palate. Watching the tongue in the mirror as this loosening is effected, the very slight forward motion of the whole tongue by which it is done may be easily seen. When flatus is expelled the result is a peculiar hiss, which is not sharp as for $s$, because the palate is here quite soft, and the hiss is often accompanied by a slight rattle of moisture, which is always more or less to be found in this position. This is the German ch in ach aa kh (ah!) doch daokh (however), and always after sounds of $a a, o a, a 0$. It never occurs at the beginning of a syllable in German. It also occuss in Scotch in similar positions. After the vowel oo, the lips are often left round when the $k h$ is pronounced, and the result is $k w^{\prime} h$, which bears the same relation to
$k h$ as $k w^{\prime}$ bears to $k$ (p. 82b), thus auch aawkw'h (also), buch $b o o^{\circ} k w^{\prime} h$ (book), but as this effect has not been generally acknowledged, a simple $k h$ may be used, as aawkh, $b 00 \cdot \mathrm{kh}$. If voice is driven out instead of flatus we have $g h, g w^{\prime} h$, as in tage (days) taa.ghu, taugen (to be worth) taaugw'hen or taaw.ghen. This voiced sound $g h$ is often found much more difficult by English people than the flated $k h$, but it is used by Germans as much softer and pleasanter than the sonant $g$. As however in the North of Germany $g$ is always used, as taa gu, taaw.gen, English singers may employ it in German songs. Gh never ends a word in German unless the next word begins with a vowel, but it makes the preceding vowel long, and becomes $k h$, as tag (day) taa $\cdot k h$, taugt (is worth) taawkw'ht or taawkht, and if the $g$ sound of $g h$ is used, it may become $k$, as $t a a \cdot k$, taawkt, but this is very harsh. When 'ch' is written in German, $k$ must never b employed. The sounds of $k h, g h$ are unknown in English, Italian, and French. It is necessary to distinguish carefully between these sounds $k h, g h$, or $k w^{\prime} h, g w^{\prime} h$, and the $k y^{\prime} h, g y^{\prime} h$ already explained (p.80b), because there is no difference in spelling, and everything depends upon the preceding sound. The $k y^{\prime} h, g y^{\prime} h$ are heard after the palatal vowels $e e, a i, a e, u e, e o, o e$ and after $r^{\prime}, l, n$; and $k h, g h$ may be taken in all other cases, since $k w^{\prime} h, g w^{\prime} h$ are not recognised. In the diminutive syllable "chen," ky'hen is said, but no other syllable begins with $k y^{\prime} h$ in German, and no syllable begins with $k h$ or $g h$.
'R, 'GH Back Trilled Buzzes, "R Uvula Rise, 'RH, 'KH Back Trilled Hisses. While the nasal passage is well cut off by pressing the upper part of the uvula against the back wall of the pharynx (p. 21a), the lower part of the uvula is free, as shewn in diagram 2. If this part be now advanced so as to lie almost upon the back of the tongue, and be left quite loose, the stream of air passing between it and the tongue causes it to flap or vibrate. Much difference of effect is produced according as there is little or much moisture and
according to the hardness of the uvula or its freedom from the tongue, and according as there is a more distinct sound of $k h, g h$ in union with the flated ' $r h$ and voiced ' $r$. When the tongue is raised to the position of $k h, g h$, the effects, which are written ' $k h,{ }^{\prime} g h$, occur in Swiss German for $k h, k y^{\prime} h$, and $g h, g y^{\prime} h$, and need only be noted to be avoided, though they are recognised sounds in Arabic. When the uvula is made too stiff to flap perceptibly, but lies above the tongue, it slightly interferes with the passage of the vowel and produces an effect analogous to the point rise ${ }^{r} r$ (p. 76a) which may be called the uvula rise, and written " $r$. It is heard in South Northumberland between vowels, so that " very" becomes vai"ri, and at the first moment the sound seems to be $v a a \div i$, but on close attention the little roughness produced by " $r$ will be heard. The full "uvula trills," ' $r$, ' $g h$, are extremely rough, coarse, and unpleasant in English speech, and barely intelligible in some words. They are indeed not recognised in any of our four languages, but are nevertheless in constant use in German and French, and in Northumbrian English (in the last of which the ' $r$ is even labialised as ' $r w$ '), but not in Italian. Their nature has to be known in order to be carefully avoided, if possible, especially at the ends of words, where they are especially dis. agreeable. They may be heard from most Germans and Frenchmen who speak English, and noticed especially in final " $r$," which of course is not trilled at all in received pronunciation, thus 'where' in the mouth of a German is apt to become $v^{\prime} a e^{\cdot} \cdot r^{\prime} r h$, the voice being quickly abandoned in final ' $r$, and the flated ' $r h$ being chiefly heard.

## 12. Nasal Consonants with Back of the

 Tongue.NG Shut Hum, and NGH Shut Snort.-Place the tongue in the position for $k$, but open the nasal passage (diagram 24), the mouth may be open or shut. When voice is allowed to pass, there is a peculiar hum on which it is possible to produce
musical sounds. Experiment with the nostrils as for $m$ (p. $67 a$ ). Try the various nasalities $m, n, n g$, by keeping the mouth shut and humming on them in succession, thus, assuming any easy pitch-

and observe how much more resonant $m$ is than either of the others, and $n$ than $n g$, owing to the difference in the size of the resonant portion of the mouth, and how much more nasal, reedy, and unpleasant $n g$ is than either of the others. The singer should consequently avoid prolonging it, but, when necessary, should prolong the preceding vowel and make the final glide conspicuous, thus not sung with $n g$ lengthened, but su•ng with $u$ lengthened.

The consonant $n g$ never occurs at the beginning of words or after long vowels or diphthongs in English, where ing, ang, ong, ung are the only combinations known, as in 'sing, sang, song, sung.' But in German it is also found after $\breve{e}$, $\breve{a} a$, $\breve{a} e$, ưo, as singen, sang, gesänge, gesungen (to sing, sang, songs. sung) zěeng'en, zăang, gezăeng'u, gezuong'en. Observe that in English when ng comes between two vowels, $g$ is sometimes added and sometimes not, as longer (more long) long.gu, (one who longs) long'u. In German the $g$ is never added, as länger (more long) lăeng'ur', finger fĕeng'ur'. At the end of words it is provincial in English to add on a $g$, as song songg, and quite vulgar to add on a $k$, as nothing nuth ingk. In German the $k$ final is not unfrequently added on, as gesang (song) gezăangk, which some poets even make to rhyme with dank (thank) dăangk, but as the usage is not admired in Germany it need not be imitated. NG never occurs initial in German. In Italian $n g$ occurs Defore a following $k$ or $g$, as franco (free, fr'ăăng'koa, ringhiare to gnash the teeth) reĕnggĕěaa rai. The sound is unknown in French, being superseded by the nasal vowel wherever it might have otherwise occurred, as rang rahn', \&c.

The flated form ngh does not occur, so far as I have observed, although Mr. Melville Bell assumes that it is introduced before a following flated consonant, as in rank ranghk.

Musical Qualities of Consonants.-The 80 consonants which it has been found necessary to enumerate may be classed thus:-
The 9 Mutes, namely, P, $t^{\prime}, \mathrm{T}, ~ t t, t y^{\prime}, c h^{\prime}, k y^{\prime}, \mathrm{K}$, $k w$ ' hare absolutely no sound at all, and become effective only by determining the beginning and end of glides, and these glides may be on to flatus, purposely introduced, as will be explained in the next Section.

The 4 Implodents ${ }^{\circ} b,^{\circ} d{ }^{\prime},{ }^{\circ} d,{ }^{\circ} g$, audible, but unsustainable and unmusical.
The 13 Flated Centrals or Hisses WH, $f^{\prime \prime}$ T, $\mathrm{TH}, t h^{\prime}, s^{\prime}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{SH}, s h^{\prime}, \mathrm{YH}, k y^{\prime} h, k h, k w^{\prime} h$; the 3 Flated Laterals $l$ ' $h$, $l h$, ' $l h$; the 5 Flated Trills ${ }^{\prime} p r, r$ ' $h, r \prime h, ' r h, ' k h$, and the 4 Flated Nasals, have indeed sounds, which in some cases are very marked, but are in no cases musical, and hence are wholly unfitted for singing. They therefore always interrupt music by noises, which must be heard to render the words intelligible, but must be exceedingly short to make the disturbance endurable. The singer must therefore trust mainly to the glide of which they generally form the beginning or end
The other consonants are voiced, and in so far can be sung.
The smothered effect of the 9 Sonants, B, $d^{\text {P }}$, $\mathrm{D}, d, d y^{\prime}, j^{\prime}, g y^{\prime}, \mathrm{G}, g w^{\prime}$, and the extremely short time that they can be sustained render them unfit for singing, even if they cannot be considered actual noises.
The 13 Voiced Centrals or Buzzes, W, $v$ ' V, $\mathrm{DH}, d^{\prime} h, z^{\prime} \mathrm{Z}, \mathrm{ZH}, z h^{\prime} \mathrm{Y}, g y^{\prime} h, g h, g w^{\prime} h$, have at best as much musical effect as the schoolboy's instrument, a piece of paper placed over a comb and voiced. Try to sing the opening bars of "God save the Queen" to V DH. Z ZH thus-

and observe the wonderful effect. After hearing this it will be felt that if these sounds are to be produced at all in singing, they must be barely heard, and that the main reliance must be on the absence of hiss, and the presence of glides.

On the other hand, the 5 Voiced Lateral Consonants or Murmurs, $l$ ', L, ' $l, l, l, l y$ ', except perhaps the last, ly', are more or less musical, but even when they form a syllable, it is better to introduce the vowel $u$ ' to sing on, closing with the glide on to the lateral consonant. The $l y$ ' has a very reedy effect. Try, however, the effect of singing alternate bars of "God save the Queen" on l and $l$.

Of the 9 Voiced Trills, or Vibrants (veibrents), ' $b r$, 'wr, $r$ ", R ', ${ }^{\prime},{ }^{\prime},{ }^{r}$, ${ }^{\prime} r$, " $r$, ' $g h$, untrilled ${ }^{\prime} r$ is scarcely distinguishable from the vowel $u$, and can be sung just as well; it is of course, not a vibrant at all, properly speaking. But with the other vibrants ( $r$ ', $r$, ' $r$ need alone be considered) the interruptions of the voice produce a harsh "tremolo" (trae"moaloa) effect, which is endurable for a short time, and may be sometimes used with advantage. Of these $r$ ' is the best, and must always be very strongly pronounced in Italian, but may be always lightly touched in English. It is so much superior to ' $r$ that the latter should be carefully avoided even in German and French. As $r$ is a mere provincialism it has not to be studied, but its effect is much worse than $r^{\prime}$, though superior to ' $r$.

Of the 6 Voiced Nasals, M, $n$ ", N, $n, n y^{\prime}, \mathrm{NG}$, one, $n y^{\prime}$ combines the disagreeable reediness of both $n g$ and $l y^{\prime}$, and is quite unfit for singing; and although $m, n, n g$ can be used for musical notes, their quality of tone is disagreeable ( $p .84 b$ ) and
should not be sustained, so that when $m, n$ form syllables, they should be sung as $u^{\prime} m, u^{\prime} n$, with the $u^{\prime}$ sustained, and $m, n$ short. See pp. 67b, 74a, $77 a$.

## Gradual Transition from Vowels to Consonants.

-Hence we feel that the real distinction between
vowels and consonants consists in their musieal capabilities, and that $l, r, m, n, n g$, known as liquids or "vocals," are so much superior to the other consonants that they might form a separate class, so that omitting the less important sounds, we might arrange the others in order of musical character, thus, placing the best first :-

VOICE.
Vowels.... AA, AU, OA, UO, E, OE, UE, EE ; AHN', OAN', OEN', AEN'; H' (voice). Vocals .... L, M, N, R', NG.
Glides .... +
Buzzes .... Z, ZH, V, DH, W, Y; 'H' (whisper).
Sonants .. B, D, G.
Slurs .... $\div$
FLATUS.
Hisses .... S, SH, F, TH, WH, YH; 'LH, R’H ; ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{H}$ (flatus), I (gradual', $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{I}}$ (gradual jerk) Implodents ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{B},{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{D},{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{G}$.

ATTACK AND RELEASE
Mutes .... P, T, K ; 子 , (;) $\mathrm{H}_{7}$ (pure jerk).

The speaker has to give full effect to all of these, the singer must rely upon the vowels, vocals, and glides for musical tones. Of the others the mutes are most important as producing no interruptions but merely determining the direction of a glide, or the mode of setting on the voice, and the rest are inflictions which the singer must not omit in any case, but should mitigate as much as possible, and
hence reduce as nearly as may be to the condition of mutes, relying on the glide for making them clear and intelligible. Hence we feel the necessity of studying the action of glides from and to consonants, or the effect of consonants on adjacent vowels, and other consonants, at considerable length and with great care, as in the naxt Section.

## IX. MIXED AND CONSONANT GLIDES. SYLLABLES.

Vowel, Mixed, and Consonant Glides Defined and Distinguished.-The general nature of Glides is explained at the beginning of Section VI (p. 42a) as consisting in a continually variable sound, having a distinct beginning and end, with a connecting path.

Vowel Glides begin and end at vowels, which may be themselves prolonged musically, but form no part of the glide itself, and merely serve as clear marks of its beginning and end, and the path, which in this case consists wholly of voice sound, forms the really appreciable "voice-glide." Such vowel glides have been fully considered in Sec. VI.

Mixed Glides have a vowel at one extremity and a consonant at the other. When the consonant is a vocal ( $p .86$ ), the mixed glide bears a strong resemblance to a vowel glide. When the consonant cannọt be sustained musically, but has a sound of its own, being a buzz, sonant, hiss, or implodent, it still serves to mark the beginning or end of the glide distinctly. But when it is a mute, the beginning or end of the glide is rather uncertain, just as the beginning of motion in a ball suspended by a thread that is set on fire.

Consonant Glides have a consonant at each extremity. If both consonants are mute, a glide is impossible. If one is hissed and the other mute, or if both are hissed, there is a hiss glide only, as distinct from a voice glide. If one is voiced and the other mute or hissed there is an approach to a mixed glide. If both are voiced, there is an approach to a vowel glide.

Murmur Triphthongs Reconsidered.-The great importance of mixed glides to singers will make it necessary to consider them at some length. First recur to the murmur triphthongs (p. $52 a$ ) such as in fire fuйŭ, where the vowel glidếs would be more fully represented $u+i \div \check{u}$; that is, there is the vowel $u$, bearing the stress, gliding sharply ( + ) on to the vowel $\imath$, which does not bear the stress, and this gliding weakly ( $\div$ ) or slurring on to $\breve{u}$, which has also no stress. The real stress is not so much on $u$, which is very short, as on to the earlier part of the glide, in $u+i$. The weakness and want of stress in the slur $i \div \breve{u}$ prevents this from making the whole into two syllables.

Action of a Vowel between two other Vowels. Syllables.-Now take aǎua or $a a+\check{\imath}+a a$, when there is a sharp glide from $\alpha a$ to $\imath$ and from $\imath$ to $a a$, without any proper repetition of $i$. Here the double glide, first diminuendo and then crescendo, is so conspicuous, that the ear naturally separates the sounds into two groups, or "syllables" (from a Greek word meaning "collection" or group). A speaker would therefore be apt to lengthen the middle $\breve{\imath}$, separating it into two parts by decreasing the energy, which may be represented by the sign of $\check{\imath} \div \check{\varphi}$, thus $a a+i \div \check{\imath}+a a$, which makes the two groups more conspicuous.

To feel the effect of the glides more distinctly suppose that one or both are omitted, and represent the result by (.. ), so that $a a \ldots \breve{ }$ means the vowels $a a$ and $i$ with a silence in place of a glide between
them, but with the greater stress on the first vowel. Compare
$a a \ldots \check{\iota} \ldots a a, a a+\check{i} \ldots a a, a a \ldots \check{+}+a a, a a+\check{\imath} \cdot \check{\imath}+a a$, $a a+\check{\imath}+a a$
With these also compare
$a a \div \check{i} \div a a, \quad a a+\check{i} \div a a, \quad a a \div \check{\imath}+a a, \quad a a+\check{i} \div \check{\imath}+a a$, $a a+i+a a$
Where the $\div$ shews that there is no cessation of voice, but merely a diminution of force, so that the glide becomes a slur, and is very inconspicuous, and the $i$ shows that this vowel is both without force and lengthened.
In ordinary Glossic we should write these ten cases thus-
aa $\check{\imath}$ aa, aay aa, a yaa, aay yaa, aayaa
aayaa, aayaa, aayaa, aayyaa, aayyaa
Thus confusing glides and slurs. To the singer, however, it is of considerable importance whether he has suddenly to check the flow of air from his lungs or not, and hence he is always more inclined to slur than to break, that is, to use $(\div)$ than to use (...). Thus $a a \ldots \ldots \ldots a a$ would have to be sung with the clear attack and release to each vowel, as 2aał... $27 \ldots . .2 a a \neq$, but $a a \div \div \div a a$ would require the clear attack at the beginning and end only, as $2 a a \div \check{\div} \div a a z$, the glottis remaining in the position for voice all the time.

Action of a Vocal between two Vowels-Syllables.-In these cases we have simple vowel glides. In the mixed glide between vowel and vocal we can trace the same effects as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a a \ldots l \ldots a a, \quad a a+l \ldots a a, \quad a a \ldots l+a a, \quad a a+l \ldots l+a a, \\
& a a+l+a a \\
& a a \div l \div a a, a a+l \div a a, \quad a a \div l+a a, \quad a a+l \div l+a a, \\
& a a+l+a a
\end{aligned}
$$

In ordinary Glossic writing the necessity of collecting into one written word the symbols of the sounds which compose it, and of avoiding such connecting marks as (,$+ \div$ ), have led to the confusion of slurs and glides, and to represeut either of them by writing the vowels close together. The difference of stress in the beginning and end of glides did not need to be distinguished, because
the consonant, even when vocal, has necessarily much less force than the vowel. Hence as before these ten cases are written

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { aa l a, aal a, aa laa, aal laa, a alaa } \\
& \text { aalaa, aalaa, aalaa, aallaa, aallaa }
\end{aligned}
$$

This is quite enough in practice when the custom of the language is understood, but not enough for the purposes of accurate study. In the present examination, then, (...) will be generally represented by separation, and ( + ) by closeness of the letters, but $(\div)$ will be retained except when the consonant is doubled. Thus the ten cases will be accurately distinguished as
aa l aa, aal aa, aa laa, aal laa, aalaa
$a a \div l \div a a, a a l \div a a, a a \div l a a, a a l \div l a a$, aallaa
Now here, in the first case, we have three distinct and separate emissions of voice, aal aa, without glides. It is convenient to call these syllables or groups, although each consists of only one sound, just as we call " one " thing a " number" of things, although a "number of things" shouid evidently consist of "mure than one" thing. The first case. aa l a a consists, then, of three syllables. The sixth case, $a a \div l \div a a$, also gives the effect of three syllables not well detached, because there is only relative not absolute silence between them. The other eight cases consist of two syllables each.
For aal aa and $a a l \div a a$ it is evident that the first syllable ends with $l$, which is felt to be slightly prolonged in the second form, and the second syllable begins with $a a$, with a clear attack in one, but in the other, with no attack at all, because the glottis has never ceased to act and to produce voice. The two syllables in the firct case are separated by a silence, in the second by a " muffled" roice.
For $a a l a a$ and $a a \div l a a$, the first syllable ends with $a a$, having a clear release $a a_{7}$ in the first case, but merely a reduction of force in the second case. The second syllable begins with $l$ with a clear attack $l l$ in the first case, but merely with renewal of force in the second. The two syllables are separated by a silence in the first case, and by a muffled voice in the second.

For aal laa and aal $\div$ laa there are also distinctly two groups, and the separation is evidently made in the first case by a silence, and in the second by a remission of energy in pronunciation of $l \div l$, so that $\div$ serves again to divide the syllables.

For aalaa the $l$ is short, and for aallaa it is long, but there is no reduction of energy during its continuance. The whole length of the $l$ itself forms, therefore, the sensible separation between the first and second glide. And if we group the beginning of $l$ with the preceding $a a$, we must group the end of $l$ with the following aa. We come then to the conclusion that the syllables divide "in the middle" of $l$ or $l l$.

Action of a Buzz or Sonant between Two Vowels.-Similar considerations apply to the cases where the consonant which separates the syllables is a buzz or a sonant. Thus we can and should distinguish
$a a z a a, a a z a a, a a z a a, a a z z a a$, a $a z a a$
$a a \div z \div a a, a a z \div a a, a a \div z a a, a a z \div z a a, a a z z a a$
$a a b a a, a a b a a, a a b a a, a a b b a a, a a b a a$
$a a \div b \div a a, a a b \div a a, a a \div b a a, a a b \div b a a, a a b b a a$

Action of a Hiss between Two Vowels.-When the dividing consonant is a hiss, as in aasaa, there is a slight distinction. The glide from the vowel to the hiss, aas, begins necessarily with the voice. Should that voice be carried on up to the hiss, that is, while the tongue moves from the $a a$ to the $s$ position, and should the glottis be then suddenly opened, so that flatus only can be heard? This action may be represented by aas. Or should the voice die off into a whisper, and pass into flatus during the glide? This second action may be represented by aqls. Or does the voice continue into the $s$ position, producing $z$, and during that. position change through whisper rapidly to $s$ ? This third action may be written aazz or aazs. And similarly in passing from the $s$ to $a a$, where does the voice begin? In the $s$, thus $s z a a$ ? immediately after the 8 , thus saa? with a gradual
transition after the $s$, thus sqaa? The habits of different nations and individuals here differ considerably. So fan as I have observed, it is common in English to say $\bar{a} a_{2} s$ and $\bar{a} a s$, and it is common in Italy to say $\bar{a} a z s$ and $\check{a} a s$, but the first often falls into simple $\bar{a} a z$. In German $\bar{a} a z$ and $a ̆ a s$, and in French $\bar{a} a z$ and $\bar{a} h s$ are both usual. The English singer is recommended to say $\bar{a} a s$, $\breve{a} a s$, making the change smartly and suddenly in passing from the vowel to the hiss, because the slightest suspicion of $z$ is unpleasant to our ears, having a Zum•erzetzher effect. But the $s$, of course, must never be lengthened in singing; we must use $s \div s$ or $s \ldots s$, with two short $s$, in place of $s s$. The ten spoken forms are then
aa s aa, aas aa, aa saa, aas saa, aasaa $a a_{1} \div s \div 1 a a, a a s \div 1 a a, a a_{2} \div s a a$, a $a s \div s a a$, a $a s s a a$ The slurs require the gradual attack and release, because the glottis is never closed; but the effect is not pleasant. It is important, however, for the right understanding of glides to note the great distinction between aas and $a a s$, or even $a a_{l} \div s$, that the singer may accustom himself, even when the vowel is much prolonged, to bring out the glide smartly and clearly.
Action of a Mute between Two Vowels-Recoil. -When the separating consonant is a mute, the case again changes aspect. The glide is once more a complete voice glide, but there is no resting-place at the mute. The voice is simply cut off at the end of the glide, and this is effected not merely by the closing of the external apertures, but by the closing of the glottis itself. Hence the three separate syllables and slurs become impossible.
If we say aa $p a a$, the effect is the same as $a a a a$, except that perhaps there is rather a longer pause between the two vowels. To make any audible effect possible we must either "implode" the $p$ or introduce flatus or voice either before or after the $p$, as $a a^{\circ} b a a, a a^{\circ} h p a a$, aa $h \quad p a a$, aa $p^{\circ} h a a$, aa $p-h^{\prime} a a$. Of these the after-flatus $p^{\circ} h$, pronounced very rapidly, is most common in England, and is sometimes known as the "recoil." In this
case $a a p^{\circ} h$ a can indeed be made quite audible as three distinct syllables, but then $p^{\circ} h$ really contains a flatus-glide from the $p$ position to some easy indefinite position, say that of flated $u$ or ${ }^{\circ} u$. That this is really the case may be felt by saying rapidly, $p^{\circ} h, t^{\circ} h, k^{\circ} h ; t^{\circ} h, k^{\circ} h, p^{\circ} h ; k^{\circ} h, p^{\circ} h$, $t^{\circ} h$, when it will be found that each of the three sound is easily distinguishable, although, if there were no flatus-glide, there would be nothing heard but a succession of the same flatus sound ${ }^{\circ} h$. If the sensitive back of the hand be held before the mouth while saying $p^{\circ} h, t^{\circ} h, k^{\circ} h$, the force of wind will be found to be very great for the two first, and the character and direction of the blast to differ considerably in each of the three cases.
But even this contrivance fails for the slur. It is, of course, impossible to keep a stream of air passing through the mouth when the passage through the mouth is shut, and if we merely diminished force in passing from aa to $p$, we should simply render any effect of the $p$ inaudible. Hence the five forms $a a p a a, a a \div p \div a a, a a p \div a n$, $a a \div p a a$, aap $\div p a a$ must be excluded, and there remain only the five important forms

## aap aa, aa paa, aap paa, napaa, aappaa

For aap aa, the voice glides precisely as for $a a b a a$, but ceases, by an action of the glottis, as the $p$ position is secured, and the voice does not go on resounding in the closed mouth, as for $b$. The effect of the glide in aap without anything to mark its termination, is very incomplete and mutilated. But when a vowel or other consonant follows, it is the only one admissible. Some persons will say $a a p^{\circ} h$, but the singer should never allow himself to indulge in anything so unmusical. For aa paa the glide on to $p$ is lost, but that from $p$ remains. This is just as mutilated as aap, but it has not the same effect, because the voice dwells as long as it pleases on the final $a a$. But many persons find it not distinctive enough, and introduce an aspiration, as $p$ - $h_{l} a a$ or $p$ - $h z a a$, both of which are highly objectionable; the former is a German, the latter an Irish error. For aap paa both glides occur, and
there is a perceptible silence between them which divides the syllables. But in aapaa this silence disappears. The second glide begins where the first ends, with no more interval than is necessary for reversing the action of the muscles, so as to open instead of closing the lips. But for aappaa that separation is slightly increased by making the contact tighter, giving an "energetic" character to the consonant. The remarks on $p$ apply with proper changes to $t$ and $k$.

Vowels Running on to Consonants, and Conversely, Open and Closed Vowels, Final and Initial Glides, Medial, Double, and Split Consonants. - When a mixed glide takes place from a vowel to a consonant in any of the ways just stated the vowel is said to "run on" to the consonant or to be " closed" by it, and to occur in a " closed" syllable; but when'it is separated by a silence, or only united by a slur, it is said to be an "open" vowel, or to occur in an "open syllable." The consonant is said to act "finally" on the vowel, and to "close" it. The glide is "the final effect" of the consonant on the vowel.

When the mixed glide takes place from a consonant to a vowel, the consonant is said to "run on" to the vowel to "attack" it, to act on it "initially."

When a consonant forms a mixed glide with both a preceding and following vowel, the length of separation of the glides may be long, or short, or absolutely nothing at all. When as short as possible, as in aapaa, aasaa, the consonant is said to be "medial," or to produce its medial effect. When just perceptibly lengthened and strengthened as in aappaa, aassaa, it is said to be "double" or "energetic." When there is an actual perceptible pause or slur between the two glides, as in aap paa, a $a \div-s a a$, the consonant is said to be "split" or "dislocated." The last case occurs properly only in spelling syllables, or when a singer is obliged (by the fault of the composer) to take breath between syllables. The "double" effect is very common in Italian, as hanno (they have) aannoa,
not aan $\div$ noa, and even in English, compare bouquet bookcase buok ai buok-kais, missive missent mis'iv missen $\cdot t$, unowned unknown unoa•nd unnoar $n$, penny penknife pen $\cdot i$ pen $\cdot n e i f$ (not pen $\cdot i f$, as some say. It also occasionally occurs in German and French. The "medial" effect is the most.common in English and German when it closes an accented and begins an unaccented syllable, as messen (measure) maes en, können (to be able), koen $\cdot e n$, männer (men) maen $\cdot u r^{\prime}$, happy hap $\cdot i$, \&c., where in ordinary orthography two consonants are written as if there were a double effect. This double effect may, however, always be used by the singer, and frequently with advantage, as it tends to bring out the effect of the consonant better. In Italian and French the medial effect is not acknowledged theoretically. It seems to me that Italians end the syllable when possible by a slur, as sano (healthy) saa $\cdot \div$ noa, not saa noa, ridere (to laugh) $r e e^{\circ} \div d a i \div r^{\prime} a i$, not ree $d a i r^{\prime} a i$; the rule being that when the consonant or consonants after the vowel can be pronounced, (that is, have their effect made audible, by Italians,) without the assistance of the preceding vowel, they should be so pronounced. But in French it seems to be that the consonant is always medial if possible (that is if it can be made to act upon both vowels) as malheureux (unhappy) maaloer eo, not maa $\div$ loe $\div$ r'eo. In English an unaccented vowel is always "open" when preceding such a consonant as can produce its effect by help of the following vowel, as merrily mer' $i \div l i$, happiness hap $\cdot i \div$ nes, repay $r i \div$ pai , presume pri $\div z e u \cdot m$, laboratory lab$u \div r u \div$ tur' $i$, navigable nav $i \div g u \div b l$. emotional $i \div$ moa $\cdot \operatorname{sh} u \div n u l$.

Tight and Loose Mixed Glides.-The glide is "tight," "close," or "smart," when there is a considerable distance between the positions of the vowel and consonant, and this distance is travelled in a short time. Hence to produce the effect of a consonant clearly, the glide should be made rapidly and smartly. In English when the rowel is long it is usual to make the glide "lax" or
"loose." The voice seems to loose energy, and it glides weakly, and hence not very clearly on to the consonant. This is peculiarly a vice of singers, who have to lengthen even short vowels, and to whom the noise of a consonant is a nuisance. They consequently altogether lose the effect of consonants even in syllables which in speech have short vowels, and therefore, as the voice is in full energy on commencing the glide, have smart glides. But the omission of a final consonant, coupled with the inevitable lengthening of a short vowel, is quite enough to make a word unintelligible. Hence the singer has to practise his glides very carefully till he can make them perfectly smart, with long vowels gliding on to mutes, as in $a a \cdot p$, $a a \cdot t, a a \cdot k$, without any flatus after the consonant. He should sing them in any order to a person at a considerable distance, and not be satisfied unless that person hears every consonant distinctly, which he can easily signal by holding up the right hand for $p$, left hand for $t$, and both for $k$, without interrupting the singer. This is not an easy exercise, but it is one of the most important for a singer who would acquire a clear enunciation. The tightness and consequent audibility of the glide is produced by rather increasing the force of the vowel just as it begins to glide and keeping up the force till the vowel is lost in the consonant, that is during the whole glide, which must be made very short and sudden. In the first exercises, of course, the effects must be exaggerated, and then, when the action is familiar, they will have to be toned down to the requisite delicacy.

Initial Mixed Glides from Voiced Consonants and Hisses.-Initial mixed glides proper are those which occur from a consonant to a vowel, after a "pause," that is, after a very sensible silence, generally enough to draw breath once or twice, or at the beginning of a sentence or speech. In this case the vocals, buzzes, and hisses, should be taken very short, and the vocals, buzzes, and sonants should begin with the clear attack, 7 . There is no
danger in any of the four languages that vocals should be preceded by their flated forms, that is, that we should say lhlaa for laa, with a gradual attack, because they do not possess this flated sound $l h$, and consequently it is difficult for their speakers to utter it. But the buzzes are so rough and disagreeable, that there is a tendency to make them begin with the flated forms, that is, with the gradual attack, and in the same way there is a tendency in case of the hisses to introduce the buzz after the hiss. Thus in English there is a tendency to say whwen for when simply, and even to say wen for when. In the West of England fvaa, thdhaa, szaa, and even shzhaa occur, whioh under different degrees of energy give more or less prominence to the flated or voiced form, so that sometimes fua, thaa, saa, shaa seem to strike the ear, and at others vaa, dhaa, zaa, zhaa. The singer should always avoid this ambiguity. He should take one or the other form clearly. This is managed for the hisses by keeping the glottis open for the whole (very brief) duration of the hiss, and closing it suddenly to the clear attack at the beginning of the glide. The effect is then a hiss, followed by a glide which resembles that from a mute in having no previous duration of voice sound through a fixed position. The singer should practise $s a a$, saa, that is, $s . . .2 a a$ and $s 7+a a$, and note the difference of effect, and also the difference from $s_{1}+a a$ (that is, $s+^{\circ} a a+a a$ ), where the change from flatus to voice takes place during the glide. For buzzes the effect is produced by beginning with the clear attack, as $2 v a a$, that is, putting the organs in the proper position for voice at once, and thus avoiding the gradual attack, as qvaa, giving fvaa. In German all the words beginning with ' s ,' as ' sie' (she) are pronounced with $s z$, as szee, even by singers; indeed it was by observing singers that I first became acquainted with the fact more than thirty years ago. Singers, however, are recommended not to indulge in the habit, but to commence with the clear attack, and make the buzz very short. As the Germans have no $v$, or $\varepsilon h$, and use $f^{\prime}$ only after $p$ when they use it at all,
this $s z$ is the only combination of the kind which occurs in that language. In Italian and French, so far as I have observed, there is no tendency to begin an initial buzz with its flated form.
When the initial consonant is a sonant, $b, d, g$, there is no real difficulty to an Englishman, Italian, or Frenchman, but most of the Germans have a considerable difficulty, because they are used to "implode," and say ${ }^{\circ} b,{ }^{\circ} d,{ }^{\circ} g$, which is on the other hand difficult to Englishmen. The Germans therefore try to prolong the voice sound of $b, d, g$, which is so difficult that they are apt to open the nasal passage, and say mbaa, ndaa, nggaa. This is a common habit among several nations, and is here only mentioned as a fault, into which singers might be easily tempted, but which they must carefully avoid.

Initial Mixed Glides from Mutes.- When the initial consonant is a mute, $p, t, k$, the difficulty of having a perfectly silent commencement of the glide leads very frequently both Englishmen and Germans (not, I think, Italians or French) to begin with the gradual attack. The consequence is that there is an explosive escape of flatus as the check to the voice is released, occupying the position of the glide, and then the vowel follows beginning perhaps in part of the glide, and perhap: at its full position, thus $p+^{\circ} h z a a$ or $p^{\circ} h a a, t^{\circ} h a a$ $k^{\circ} h a a$, which may be written more conveniently $p_{q} a a, t_{2} a a, k_{2} a a$, because the vowel is really begur gradually, and the explosion is simply occasionec by the release of a tight position. This is some times exaggerated by suddenly jerking the lung: so as to force the flatus of the clear attack stil more strongly, as $p-h_{l} a a, t-h_{l} a a, k-h_{l} a a$. This i by no means unfrequent with public speakers ir England (I have even heard a minister, who usec this method consciously and designedly, declar that it was the only method of making thes consonants properly heard), and it is genera among those Germans who distinguish mutes from sonants, that is, who do not "implode." That i was common in older German we see from thi
forms $p f^{\prime} a a \cdot l, t^{\prime} s^{\prime} o o$, the actual pronunciations of 'pfahl ' (pole), ' $z u$ ' (to), which arose from paa•l, $t$ 'oo. Still these sounds are not required for intelligibility, and should be most studiously avoided by the singer, because they introduce an unnecessary and unsingable flatus. They also destroy the real singable voice glide altogether. The singer must carefully practice singing $a a$ aa $a a$, paa paa paa, taa taa taa, liaa kaa kaa, aa paa, aa taa, aa kaa, paa aa taa, paa taa aa, and so on, with different vowels, and feel the great difference occasioned by the glide, when kept strictly voiced, without a trace of flatus. This will add greatly to the beauty of his English and German singing, and it is quite indispensable for Italian and French. See Section XI, Exs. 2 to 8.

Final Mixed Glides on the Voiced Consonants and Hisses.-Final mixed glides proper from a vowel to a consonant, before a "pause," present similar difficulties. When the consonant is vocal, there is a tendency to prolong it unduly, especially if the preceding vowel is short. This is all very well in speaking, but as the vowels may always be lengthened in singing, and the vocal, though singable, is far less musical than the vowel, it must not be thought of in singing. The singer must endeavour to tighten his glide on to the rocal, and make that vocal very brief indeed, so that it comes to a sudden stop, as if broken off. Some length of time is necessary, of course, for the audible utterance of the vocal, and this will suffice to distinguish it from other consonants in the same column of the Table, on p. 17, that is, which are produced by nearly the same position of the organs. Thus aal is kept distinct from $a a d$, $a a r^{\prime}$, aan, with all of which it is liable to be confounded, owing to the great resemblance in the three glides. Similarly aam must be kept clear of anb, and aang of aag. As respects the nasals another point must be attended to; no particle of the glide from the vowel to the consonant must pass through the nose. Hence the glides in $a a+m, a a+n, a a+n g$, are identical with those in $a a+b, a a+d, a a+g$, and
the only differences in the syllables consist in the instantaneous opening of the nasal cavity on the cessation of the glide in the first three cases, and the muffled resonance of the vowel in the mouth only in the last three cases. It is of extreme importance for a pleasing pronunciat!on of English not to allow the least nasality in any vowel sound or vowel glide. And these syllables form great difficulties to foreigners. There is no tendency in any of our four languages to drop the voice and go off to flatus, when the vocal ends, as aal-lh, $a a r^{\prime}-r^{\prime} h$, although Germans often say $a a^{6} r-^{6} r \cdot h$, (p. 84a) which is not to be imitated.

When the final consonant is a buzz, there is a constant tendency in English to drop the voice and pass into the hiss, most with $z$, as aazs, but not unfrequently with $d h$, as aadhth, and more rarely with $v$, as aavf, as in: That's his! I can't breathe! Have you five? dhats •hizs ! ei kaa•nt •breedhth ! hav eu feivf? The singer should avoid the flated form as unsingable. The final $z s$ is particularly disagreeable in singing. In German there is no final buzz in a glide, but only pure hisses. In Italian no word ends with a buzz. In French the final buzz does not pass off into a hiss, as la rose (the rose) laar'oaz; observe here that the $r^{\prime}$ is medial. As regards the glide up to the buzz, it should be treated in the same way as for a vocal, but the buzz afterwards should be very brief.

The final sonant, as in $a a b, a a d$, $a a g$, has glides of precisely the same nature. The singer should continue the muffled resonance of the $b, d, g$, just time enough to be perceived, and especially avoid two methods often adopted to make these sonants more conspicuous. Many speakers, even so great an actor as the late Mr. Macready (Mu'kr'ee di), and very many lower class tragedians, allow the final sonant to become medial, by adding a very brief and indefinite vocal sound, so that the sonant, which is brief and never ceases to be heard, is followed by a glide to some indefinite form, nearly $u$, which is represented by $h^{\prime}$, thus $a a b \cdot h$, aad $\cdot h^{\prime}$, aag $\cdot h$ '. Thus 'stab, add, nag,' become stab $\cdot h$ ', $a d \cdot h '$, nag $\cdot h$ ', that is nearly stab $\cdot u$, ad $\cdot u$, nag $\cdot u$,
sounding like 'stabber, adder, knagger.' Other speakers, wishing to bring out the sonant more strongly, drop the voice, and end with flatus, thus $a a b \cdot p^{\circ} h$, aad $\cdot t^{\circ} h$, aag $\cdot k^{\circ} h$, which is very apt to produce the effect of aap, aat, aak, and should therefore be also avoided. The proper method, especially for the singer, is to prolong the vowel as much as is required for the music, make the glide tight, just prolong the sonant enough to be felt, and end with a clear release. In German no word ends in $b, d, g$ before a pause, but if a vowel or voiced consonant follow, I seem to hear the proper sound of $b, d, g$ or $g h, g y^{\prime} h$, at any rate such sounds are quite admissible. In other places final ' $b, d$, g ' become pure $p, t, k$ or $k h$, $k y^{\prime} h$, however they may be written. In Italian the elision of a vowel will sometimes, but rarely, produce a $b, d, g$ at the end of a word, and similarly in French, and in both cases they are pronounced clearly.

When the final consonant is a hiss, the only point to be remembered is to voice all the glide, and to open the glottis suddenly at the moment the hiss position is assumed, and not to prolong the hiss in singing. The greatest care has to be taken with $s$, which has such a cutting hiss. In German especial care is requisite with the final $k h, k y$ 'h. English singers of German are apt to omit them altogether, which of course is atrocious, and renders the words perfectly unintelligible and difficult to follow even with the text. But there should be a tight glide up to them, and then they should be sustained just long enough to be distinctly separated. They are certainly bad interruptions for the singer, but they are characteristic of the language, and must be well heard. Practise singing such phrases as : Ach ! nicht ich doch (Ah! not I, though) aakh ! něeky'ht ěeky'h daokh, to very long notes, and hence as $a a \cdot k h$, nee $k y^{\prime} h t$, ee $k y^{\prime} h$, dao $k h$, making the glide tight (exaggerated), and the hiss light.

Final Mixed Glides on to Mutes, Recoil with Flatus, Click, or Voice. -The mute final necessarily presents the greatest difficulty. In this case the
glide ought to end in a silence, but, as already noticed (p. 90a) it often ends in the "recoil." Singers should be satisfied to ond with the glide, as aap. But if the check is released, the mute should not glide on the flatus, but make a very faint smack or click by the sudden separation of the two lips for $p$, point of the tongue and palate for $t$, and back of the tongue and soft palate for $k$, all of which parts are moist. Representing this click by $\left({ }^{\circ}\right)$ at the end of a word, as a contraction of ${ }^{\circ} h$, practise first holding the breath so as to be sure that no flatus escapes, and then saying $p^{\circ}, t^{\circ}$, $k^{\circ}$, as loudly as possible, and then gradually reduce them to the lightest sound which is just audible. This is the utmost amount of recoil that a singer should allow himself, thus $a a p^{\circ}$, $a a t^{\circ}$, $a a k^{\circ}$. It is sufficient to relieve the organs, and then the singer can breathe freely and noiselessly. And even the speaker had better limit himself to this faint click. It may be mentioned incidentally that these form the bases of the celebrated South African and North American clicks. In German the same practice may be adopted. In Italian there is scarcely any occasion to use it. In French $p, t, k$, could only occur finally by the elision of a ' mute e,' and French speakers in practice prefer the faintest possible indication of this eo, which may be written ĕŏ to distinguish it from merely short ěo; and they then usnally double the preceding mute, that is, they glide tightly up to it from the vowel, and loosely from it on to $\check{e} \check{ }$, making a barely perceptible pause between the two glides. This is especially done in poetry with all final consonants which arise from the elision of a ' mute e, in order to supply its place, and made the existence of the elided syllable apparent. Thus chape (a cope) shaappĕǒ, chatte (a cat) shattěŏ, moque (laughs at) maokkĕĕ.

Consonant Glide from Vocal to Vocal.-Passing from mixed glides we have to consider purely consonant glides, where each element is a consonant. The consonant glide of vocal to vocal is rare, and in English is only found after a vowel,
us in fallen fau $\cdot \ln$, elm. In fau $\cdot \ln$ and such words, the tongue having come into the $l$ position, the point is not removed from the palate, but the sides close to the teeth to complete the check, and the uvula descends to open the nasal passage. There is thus no room for any vowel to interpose, but there is a rapid glide from $l$ to $n$. If, however, the point of the tongue were allowed to quit the palate for an instant, a voice sound, which we may write $u$ ', would be heard for that instant, the $l$ would glide on to it, and it would glide on to the $n$, and two syllables would arise, thus faullin. In elm, the point of the tongue should be similarly maintained on the roof of the mouth, while the lips close in for the $m$, as and they close, the uvula should descend to open up the nasal passage. Many speakers find this glide so difficult, that they let the point of the tongue drop too soon, and hence introduce a vowel, as el $\cdot u^{\prime} m$. The vowel should always be avoided in this case. The termination $\ln$ is very common in German after $e$ or $u^{\prime}$, as nudeln (vermicelli) $n 00^{\circ} d u^{\prime} l n$, spiegeln (to mirror) shpee $g y^{\prime} h u^{\prime} l n$; and $l m$ occurs in halm (stalk) haal $\cdot m$, helm (helmet) hael $\cdot m$. Neither occur in Italian or French. The final glides $r \prime l$, $r^{\prime} m, r^{\prime} n$, are quite optional in English, in 'snarl, arm, barm, tarn,' generally called snaa $\cdot l$, $a a \cdot m$, baa $\cdot m$, taa $\cdot n$, but allowably $a a \cdot r^{\prime} m$, baa $\cdot r^{\prime} m$, taa $\cdot r^{\prime} n$. But these glides are frequent in German, kerl (fellow) kăer'l, arm ăar'm, herrn (accusative of 'herr,' sir) hăer' $n$, and French perle (bead) paer' $\cdot l$, charme (charm) shăar'm, lucarne (attic window) luekăar' $n$, but not in Italian. For this glide the $r$ ' acts just as a tremulous vowel, and the tremor is continued through the glide. Such initials as $m i a a, n l a a, m r^{\prime} a a, n r^{\prime} a a$, and even mnaa, r'laa, are quite possible, but do not occur in our four languages.

Consonant Glide from Vocal to Buzz.-The final consonantal glide of vocal to buzz is rendered common in English by the mode of forming our plurals, as bells belz, crumbs krumz, hens henz, things thingz, and with permissive $r$ ', fears feeŭr'z.

These present no difficulty. The only care required is not to finish off the $z$ with an $s$, by dropping the voice, as henzs, \&c.

Consonant Glide from Buzz to Buzz.-The consonantal glide between two buzzes is not so common, but it occurs final in English, as halves $h a a \cdot v z$, wolves wuolvz, breathes bree dhz. These present two difficulties, to retain the voice through all the first buzz and also through the second. The latter is rarely done in the pause, in that case the buzz readily falls into the hiss, as haa.vzs, wuolvzs, bree-dhzs, which, however, the singer should avoid. None of these glides occur in the other three languages. One of these words contains an example of a vocal and a buzz, as in shelve shelv, twelve twelv, delves delvz, selves selvz. In French we have also Belge (Belgian) baelzh, charge shăar'zh. The permissive trill would give us starve staar'v, as in French larve (insect larva lăar'v, but the combination is not common.

Consonant Glides from Sonants to Vocals at the end of Words. -In cable kai.bl, addle $a d \cdot l$, giggle gig $\cdot l$, deaden ded $n$, the vocals $l$, $n$ make distinct syllables. Here the distinction between the glide on to the pure vocal and the interposition of a vowel must be perceived. In $k a i \cdot b l$, the tongue is brought into the position for $l$ before the lips are separated from the $b$, so that no vowel can be inserted, but in verbal $v u \cdot b u ' l$, cymbal $\operatorname{sim} \cdot b u$ ' $l$, the tongue is not in contact when the lips are opened. For $a d \cdot l$, idle $e i \cdot d l$ riddle rid $\cdot l$, bidden $b i d \cdot n$, the point of the tongue is already in the position for $l$, and care has to be taken not to remove it, but merely to slacken the contact of the sides of the tongue with the teeth to let out the $l$ sound, or else to retain the side contacts firm, and open the nasal passage for the $n$ sound. If the point of the tongue is removed in either a vowel sound is interposed, as in medal med'u'l, idol $e i \cdot d u ' l$, bridal $b r e i \cdot d u ' l$, abandon $u b a n \cdot d u ' n$. Now the difference of the two pairs of sounds $b l, d l$ and $b u^{\prime} l, d u^{\prime} l$ is
so slight that they are often confused, and as the latter are much more singable, the singer has been already recommended to use them in place of the former (p. 74b). The case of $\mathrm{gig} \cdot \mathrm{l}$ is rather different; but here the glide is only stronger. The tongue has a great leap to make from the position for $g$ (diag. 17) to that for $l$ (diag. 20), and while it is changing, the voice being omitted, there is a very evident glide. But this glide being altogether obscure in sound does not differ so much as in the last cases from the effect of an interposed $u$; ; compare wriggle, regal $r^{\prime} i g \cdot l$, ree $\cdot g u^{\prime} l$, and hence the use of the latter for the former is even more admissible in singing. Only it is necessary to make the glide from the $u$ ' to the $l, n$, loose, not tight, so that there should be no resemblance to an accented $u l$, $u n$, as $f i d^{\circ} u l \cdot$ for $f i d \cdot l$ fiddle, which has always a disagreeable effect. The final $b r^{\prime}, d r^{\prime}, g r^{\prime}$ become $b u^{\prime}, d u^{\prime}, g u^{\prime}$ in English, and $b u r^{\prime}, d u r^{\prime}, g u r^{\prime}$ in German, but may be heard in colloquial French, as sabre (sabre) săabr' or săabr'ĕŏ, ordre (order) aor'dr' or aor'dr'ĕŏ, ogre aogr' or aogr' ${ }^{\prime} \check{c}$, , and even the flatus is sometimes substituted, as săabr'h, $a o r^{\prime} d r^{\prime} h, a o g r^{\prime} h$. The final $b l, d l, g l$ are sometimes treated in the same way in French, as sable (sand) săablh, but properly săablĕǒ, never săabl. In German the tinal $l$ gliding from preceding sonant is written 'el' in general, and may be always called el (not ael), or $u$ 'l, but it often becomes a pure $l$, and is even occasionally so written, as fiedel (fiddle) $f e e \cdot d e l, f e e \cdot d u ' l$, or $f e e \cdot d l$, grübeln (to grub) grue.beln, grue. $b u^{\prime} l n$, or grue $b l n$, in which last case the glides are ue $+b+l \div n$. None of these finals occur in Italian.

Consonant Glides from Sonant to Vocals, and to the Buzzes W, Y at the beginning of Words.The initial $b l$-, $g l$ - require care to keep the $l$ very short, and yet make it sufficiently heard for the previous consonant to glide on to it sensibly. Such sounds as $b l-l o o, g l-l o o$, or $b u^{\prime} l o 0^{\circ}, g u^{\prime} l o 0^{\circ}$ are quite inadmissible, although occasionally heard. As glpresents difficulties in the very rapid motion of the tongue (diagrams 17 to 20 , most children (and a
large number of dialect speakers) convert it into $d l$-, which is very easy, because to pass from $d$ to $l$ we have only to loosen the sides of the tongue, and as dl - does not occur in our language, it occasions no mistakes. But it is nevertheless an error in speech which should be avoided. This error is not known in German and French, or in the very few and recent Italian words in which it occurs. In the greater number of Italian words $g l$ - is replaced by geĕ or gy, as in ghianda (a gland, or acorn) geĕaan $\cdot d a a$ or gyaan $d a a$.

The initials $b r^{\prime}-, d r^{\prime}-, g r^{\prime}$ present no difficulties, but in $b w-, d w-, g w$ - a peculiar effect results. In saying true $b w$ - there is but a very slight gliding sound. The lips are quite close for $b$, the vocal resonance being entirely within the mouth, though if the finger be placed lightly on the lip it will be found to tremble. For $w$ the lip is opened, and the voice escapes as a buzz. The extremely slight motion creates an extremely slight glide, which is, however, perceptible, and hence bwaa is not easy. Care must be taken to avoid bu'waa. This difficulty is practically overcome in two ways. One is to convert $w$ into ŏŏ, producing bŏŏaa, and perhaps this is a common pronunciation of the French bois (wood). But perhaps the commonest, as it is the neatest pronunciation, is to close the lips for $b$, not in the usual way, but as if the lips when rounded for $w$ were drawn up in the middle, just like a bag closed by a running string. Then opening out upon the vowel we have a combined effect of $b$ and $w$ pronounced together, thus $b w^{\prime} a a$, where $b w^{\prime}$ represents this peculiar conformation of the lips by which an attempt is made to pronounce both $b$ and $w$ at once. This effect is easier to produce for $d w^{\prime} a a$ doit (owes), gw'aatr' goître (glandular swelling of the neck), because the lips being perfectly independent of the tongue, they can be brought into position at the same time with the tongue position for $d, g$. This is altogether a better way of producing the effect. In English dwell, dwindle, \&c., I think that dw'el, dw'in'dl is both easier and commoner than $d w e l, d w i n \cdot d l$, and I recommend its use especially to singers. Simi-
larly for $g w^{\prime} a a \cdot n o a$; as for buoy $b w^{\prime} o i$, the word appears to be a mistake. Sailors say boǒ̆ or booy, which agrees with the original Dutch pronunciation.
Consonant Glide of Vocal to Sonant at the End of Words. -The final combination of vocals with sonants offers no difficulty to an Englishman; thus bulb bulb, barb baar'b, bald bauld, hemmed hemd, end end, hanged hangd, jeered jeeür'd. Such combinations do not occur in German, or Italian, nor, so far as I remember, in French. In fact, such forms as end, and, offer great difficulties to a Frenchman, in an endeavour to avoid nasalisation, as he would naturally say aen' $d$, ahn'd, as in 'Inde, bande.'
Consonant Glides between Buzzes and Sonants, and between Sonants and Sonants.-Initial combinations of buzzes and sonants do not occur in English or German. In Italian, however, $z b-, z d-$, $z g$-, occur, as in sbaglio (a mistake) $z b a a \cdot l y^{\prime}$ oa, sdrajarsi to stretch oneself at length) $z d r^{\prime}$ aayaa $r^{\prime} r^{\prime}-$ see, sghigno (sneer) zgee ny'oa. The much more difficult form $d z$-, or rather $d^{\prime} z^{\prime}$-, or perhaps $z^{\prime}$ only, also occurs in Italian, as in zelo (zeal) dzae loa, $d^{\prime} z^{\prime} a e^{\prime} \cdot l o a$, or $z^{\prime} a e^{-}$loa. It is easy enough to say $d z$ or $d^{\prime} z^{\prime}$, the difficulty consists in making the glide short enough to produce the effect of a single consonant on to the following vowel. In French also not only $z b-, z d-, z g-, z r^{\prime}-, z v-$, occur in adopted foreign words, but the more difficult combination $g z$ - is used in a few words taken from the Greek, as: Xénophon gzainoafoan', xérasie (a disease of the hair) gzair'aazee, xiphoïde (sword-shaped) gzeefoa-ěed, a word often used as a test of French pronunciation. The difficulty does not consist in the glide $g z$ in itself, but in making it sufficiently short, and not dwelling on the $z$, but gliding at once on to the next vowel.
In English and Italian the Glossic $j$ is really one of this class, being absolutely $d y^{\prime} z h^{\prime}$, which very complicated form is pronounced by Englishmen and Italians with the greatest ease, while Frenchmen imitate it badly, and Germans flate it into
$t^{\prime} s h$ or $t^{\prime} s l l^{\prime}$. When final, it follows an $l$ easily, as that glides on readily to its $d y^{\prime}$ as in bulge bulj. There should be no more difficulty in chai $n j$ (change) than in chai $n$ d (chained', but many speakers do not glide on to the $d y^{\prime}$ at all, and pronounce $t y^{\prime} s h^{\prime} a i^{\prime} n z h h^{\prime}$, or chai $n z h$, as they hear it. Various reasons lead me to prefer chai $\cdot n j$, which seems most natural to English mouths. In 'changes' it is not so usual to omit the $d y$ ' initial element, because there is then naturally only a slur and not a glide between the $n$ and the $j$, thus chain $\div j e z$. When the permissive trill is used, we have also - $r^{\prime} j$ in barge $b a a \cdot r^{\prime} j$ never baa $r^{\prime} z h$.
The final glide of buzz on to sonant is quite common in English, owing to the mode of forming our past participles, as amazed umai$: z d$, halved haa vd, breathed bree dhd, judged jujd, bulged buljd. There is a tendency in the two last words to remit the voice, and end with $t$, as jujsh't, buljsh't, which singers should avoid. No glide of this kind occurs in the other three languages.

Some cases occur of two sonants at the end of a word, as grubbed, bagged grubd, bagd. The very imperfect resonance of the voice for the sonants renders these glides extremely difficult to perform audibly, so that there is danger of changing the words into grupt ${ }^{\circ}$, bakt $t^{\circ}$, which is quite inadmissible; or into grubdt ${ }^{\circ}$, $b a g d t^{\circ}$, which is more allowed ; or into grub ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} d$, $b a g \cdot u^{\prime} d$, which has an archaic (akkai $\cdot i k$ ) sound, even if the $u$, take the form of the lightest voice $h$; or even into grub, $b a g$, with total omission of $d$. Many, therefore, say grub•d- $h$, bag $\cdot d \cdot h$, and the singer will find this easiest in the pause. The speaker must, however, learn to make the glide easily and audibly, for to say $b a g \cdot d-h ' d h e m$ for $b a g \cdot d$ dhem would have a foreign effect. These combinations do not occur in the other three languages.

The final glide of sonant to buzz is also common in English, owing to the mode of forming our plurals, as cabs kabz, beds bedz, bags bagz. Here again the singer must guard against -zs, must make both the sonant and buzz short, and rely for musical length on the vowel.

Rule for Consonant Glides when one Consonant is Voiced and the other Voiceless.-In the preceding cases of initial and final consonantal glides after and before a pause, both consonants were roiced, and hence no difficulty occurred in the compulsory passage from voice to flatus, or flatus to voice. The effect would be similar if both consonants were flated, or one flated and the other mute. But we have already seen the difficulties which occur when a hiss or mute precedes or follows a vowel, in determining where the voice should be taken off or put on (p. 92a). The upshot of our considerations was, "That in an initial glide voice had tu be put on at the moment that the mute or hiss position was released, and that in a final glide voice had to be shut off at the moment the mute or hiss position was assumed " The same rule should apply to the voice in consonants as well as in vowels, in connection with the glides to and from mute and hiss positions.

Initial Consonant Glides from Mute to Vocal, or to the Buzzes W, Y.-In $p l-, p r^{\prime}-, p w_{-}, t r^{\prime}-, t w-$, $k l$-, $k r^{\prime}$-, $k w$ - initial the previous observations on the sonants in these positions will therefore apply with the above restriction. Observe especially that the glides are the same as when the initials are sonants, as in $b l-, b r^{\prime}-, b w-, l r^{\prime}-, d w w^{-}, g l-, g r^{\prime}-$, $g w-$,and that it is only the absence of any length of voice at first which makes the difference. As in the case dl - for gl -, the tendency to say tl rather than $k l$ - has to be avoided; and, as in $d w^{\circ}$ for $d w$-, the tendency to use $p w^{\prime}-, t w^{\prime}-, k w^{\prime}-$ in place of $p w-, t w-k w$-, has to be cultivated. In final $-p l,-k l$, there is the same syllable formed as for $-b l,-g l$, thus: apple $a p \cdot l$, cackle $k a k \cdot l$, and the singer has to cultivate the use of ap $u^{\prime} l^{\prime}$, $k a k \cdot u^{\prime} l$, in the same manner as before.

Final Consonant Glides of Vocal on to Mate and Hiss.-It is only when a vocal glides on to a mute that a difficulty has been raised. In $-l p,-l t,-l k$, our rule makes the voice glide all the way from the $l$ to the $p$, or $t$, or $k$. but Mr. Melville Bell
thinks that this makes the voice too long and heavy, and writes $-l h p,-l h t,-l h k$, that is, he does not permit the voice to pass through the $l$ at all. This is opposed to my own observation of what actually occurs, and at any rate the rule just given is best in practice. But in the case of $-l t$, the recoil is necessary to audibility, as felt- or felt ${ }^{\circ} h$. I have, however, heard the mistake of saying feldt $t^{\circ}$ for fell $^{\circ}$ (felt), which then became difficult to distinguish from feld (felled). But this is guarded against by the rule just given. Similarly we must say shelf and not shelv$f$, which would sound like 'shelve.' With the nasals some little additional difficulty occurs. In lamp, the nasal $m$ continues as long as the nose is open. When it is shut, no sound whatever is heard, for there is then no exit for the breath ; the flatus which enters the mouth is not sufficient to cause even an implosion. Hence unless there is a "recoil," the $p$ cannot be heard in the pause. There is actually no glide from $m$ to $p$, and we have to say lamp ${ }^{\circ}$. If voice foliows, the $p$ becomes evident, at least by a si.ence, cutting off even a slur. Thus lamplighter lampleiter (using ei and er as in English Glossic) is not at all lam $\div$ pleiter or lam-pleiter, but is really lamp-qleiter. The $p$ seems, therefore, to replace the sign of clear release. It is, however, a little more than that. On saying lam it will be found difficult to shut off the voice sharply and cleanly if the nose passage be not suddenly stopped. If we stop the nose without the voice, we say lamb (which is no longer pronounced, although it is written, in English). If we stop the voice only, we say lamz. If we stop both voice and nose, we say lamp, and by this means we shorten the $m$ considerably, and cut it off with quite a clean edge. Mr. Melville Bell writes lamhp, which I do not hear. But we must not say $l a m b p^{\circ}$. Similar difficulties occur with respect to hint, thingk, where, without the recoil, only hint, thing7 can be heard, so that we have to say hint $^{\circ}$, thingke. Precisely as we had lam, lamz, lamb, iamp, of which the last ends most cleanly and pharply, we have en. ent, end, ent. and ing, ing
ingg, ingk. This sharp, clean ending is very evident in speech, but it is more difficult to make it evident in singing, where under no circumstances would the $m, n, n g$ be sustained. Hence in singing before a pause, the recoil may become a full flatus, as lamp ${ }^{\circ} h$, hint ${ }^{\circ} h$, thing $k^{\circ} h$, sacrificing music to audibility.

In the above cases felt, lamp, hint, thingk, the rocal and the mute had the same form of mouth. But in 'attempt, winked,' and also in ' length, anxious,' the vocal differs in position of the mouth from the following sonant or hiss. Hence by applying the rule we are able to make a glide up to the new position. The nature of this glide is, however, complicated, through the opening of the nose. We might evidently make it nasal, as u'tem $+n t$, wing $+n t$, leng $+n t h$, ang $+n s h u s$. This is not done, and if any persons have a habit of doing so tbey should correct it. We might also shut off the nose, allowing the corresponding sonant to be heard, and then run on to the final mute or hiss, thus $u^{\prime} t e m b+t^{\circ}$, wingg $+t^{\circ}$, lengg $+t h$, angg $\div$ shus. But the practice of English speakers appears to be to end the nasal with a clear release, and then hiss or make the final mute evident by recoil or flatus, without any glide preceding it, as $u^{\prime}$ temp...t $t^{\circ}$, wingд...t ${ }^{\circ}$, lengд...th, angд...shus. This clear release is best made by the clean edge given by the introduction of the corresponding mute, as utemp.. $t^{\circ}$, wingk...t ${ }^{\circ}$, lengk...th, angk...shus, or, as we write in English Glossic, atemp $\cdot t$, wingk $\cdot t$, lengk th, angk shus. Mr. Melville Bell again writes atemht, winght, lenghth, anghshus, which I have not observed, and find difficult to render evident.

The case of $s$ final has to be especially noticed. In $-l s,-m s,-n s,-n g s$, there is, of course, a constant tendency to say -lts, -mpts, -nts, ngks, in order to prevent $-l z,-m z,-n z,-n g z$. It so happens that we have most of the cases in English, and the speaker and singer should learn to distinguish them; thus else, belts, ells els, belts, elz; empts, hems empts, hemz, sense, scents, fens sens, sents, fenz, thinks, things thingks, thingz. The distinction is simply this, that in $-l s,-n s$ the voice glides up to the
$s$ position, without check; in -lts, -nts, the voice is checked by the mute position, forming a very clean edge, and then there is a hiss glide from that position to the $s$, and in $-l z,-n z$, the voice is carried completely through the $s$ position. In many words the distinction -ns, -nts is of importance, as presence, presents prez•ens, prez'ents, accidence, accidents $a k \cdot$ sidens, $a k \cdot$ sidents, \&c., and hence it should be well understood.

Initial Consonant Glides of a Hiss on to a Vocal, or the Buzzes W, Y.-The only cases of a hiss gliding on to a vocal in English are $s w$ - (or $s w^{\prime}$-), $s l-, s m-, s n-, f l-, f r^{\prime}-, t h r^{\prime}-, t h w-$ (or $t h w^{\prime}-$ ), $s h r^{\prime}-$, and in German there also occur shl-, shm-, shn-, as in swim swim (rather than sw'im), slay slai, smooth smoo $d h$, snort snaw $\cdot t$, floor flaoŭ, frisk $f r$ ' isk, throw thr'oa, thwart thwau't (rather than thw'au $\cdot t$ ), shrine shr'ein, and German schleichen (sneak) shlaay•ky'hen, schmolz (melted) shmaolts, schnee (snow) shnai. The combination $s h r^{\prime}$ - initial offers difficulties to many English and American speakers, who are apt to say sr'ein, thus the inhabitants call Shrewsbury, Shropshire Sr'oarzbur'i, Sr'op'shur. The difficulty arises from passing from a hollow front of tongue (diagram 26) to an arched front (diagram 21), and would be avoided by saying either $s h$ rein or $s r^{\prime} e i n$, but neither being admissible in received English, the organs must be practised constantly (for many hours in bad cases) till they learn to make the transition easily. The tongue being arranged for sh, sound that hiss, then convert it into $s h$ ' by arching the front, and then slide the tip along the palate till it requires merely releasing to vibrate for the $r$ ' $h$, using flatus only. The real sound said seems to me to be rather sh'r'ein than shr'ein, and the whole difficulty is surmounted when the $s h^{\prime}$ position is substituted for that of $s h$. Indeed it is possible to trill the tip of the tongue when it is held in the $s h$ ' position as well as when it is held in the $s$ position (and I think that the $s h$ 'trill, or $r s h$ ' as it may be written, is actually used in Polish, as przez (through) prsh'aez). The whole difficulty then resolves
itself into making an sh without hollowing the front of the tongue, that is, converting it into $s h$. The German sh before $v^{\prime}, l, r^{\prime}, m, n$ may be a true $s h$, but in the common pronunciation of stehen (to stand), spielen (to play) and similar words beginning with 'st, sp,' throughout the greater part of Germany, the sound is really $s^{h} t a i \cdot n$, sh'pee-len, and not shtai $\cdot n$, shpee len, which is felt by Germans to be broad and vulgar. (This is a point on which I have made careful observations, and had many discussions with Germans). In the North of Germany, in Hanover (Haan $\cdot n o a \cdot v u r$ '), and Hamburg (Haam.buor'gy'h), it was common to say stai:n, speelen, but I have been informed by a Saxon resident in Hamburg, that such a pronunciation is never used on the stage there. I have, however, beard it in the pulpit. In Silesia (Schlesien Shlai $\cdot z \ddot{\text { ëéen) even } s v^{\prime} \text { ăar'ts, smaa } \cdot l \text {, snaay }-~}$ dur' may be heard for schwartz, schmal, schneider, shv'ăar'ts, shmaa ll, shnaay $\cdot d u r^{\prime}$ (black, narrow, tailor). Observe that the final $-s t,-s p$ should never be pronounced -sht, shp in German, or even $-s h^{\prime} t$, -sh'p (as in August ist aaw.guosht ěesht) because this is a well-known and extremely vulgar German pronunciation.

Consonant Glides between S and Mutes.-The combinations with $s$ before and after mutes are very frequent, as spy spei, splay splai, spread spr'ed, stand stand, stretch str'ech, sky skei (not slay'ei or skyĕĕei), script, skr'ipt ${ }^{\circ}$, squeeze skw'ee'z, «apse laps, helps helps, hats hats, wrists rists (not ristiz or ristisez, both common provincialisms) melts melts, hints hints, axe aks, hulks hulks (not huolks), casks kaasks. In all these cases there may always be a hiss glide made to or from the mute. Thus $s+p \ldots p e i, s+p \ldots p l a i$, and lap $\ldots p+s$, ris $+t \ldots t+s$. Practice of this kind, making a pause between the two glides of the mute, will soon bring out the distinction between this and s...pei, s...plai, lap...s, rist...s. Of course, we really say $-t s^{\prime}$, and not $t s$ when final ( $\mathrm{p} .71 a$ ).
Treatment of Combinations of Two Mutes, and of Initial Mute before M, N, S.-Two mutes
cannot glide on to one another initially or finally, and we have even an objection to make a mute glide on to $m, n$, or $s$ initially, hence in many words taken from the Greek we simply leave out the mute in these cases, and call pneumatic neumat ik, tmesis mee sis, psalm saa m, pterodac. tyle ter'-oadak'til, and so on. But some purists aim at uttering them, by making a recoil atter the mute, thus $p^{\circ}$-neumat $\cdot i k, p^{\circ}$-ter'oadak -til \&c. This is not recommended. But final combinations of two mutes are common in the pause as in apt, act $a p t^{\circ}, a k t^{\circ}$ or $a p t^{\circ} h, a k t^{\circ} h$, as it ther becomes necessary to pronounce them, or else tc implode, and say $a p-{ }^{\circ} d, a k-{ }^{\circ} d$, which is not admissible in received pronounciation. (It appear however, that a slight implosion actually take place in those districts where the definite articl becomes $t$, as in Derbyshire, at $\mathrm{t}^{\prime}$ dur $a^{\prime} t^{\circ} d d u u r^{\prime}$ for at the door at dhi daoŭ). In French unde such circumstances an ĕo is always spoken, as acte (act of a play) ăaktěo. In such an English phras as 'you must act towards me, act dutifully,' the final mute, $t$, is, I think, omitted, and its place supplied by a silence. The tongue indeed take the proper position for the $t$, but there is no recoil because the tongue would have to be brought ul into the same position for the following $t$ or $d$, and this would be inconvenient, compare alkt ${ }^{\circ}$ tao $\cdot u / d z$ $a k t^{\circ}$ deu tifuli. Hence the $t$ is felt by the speaker but is merely telegraphed to the listener by moment of silence. The singer has, therefore, nc occasion to trouble himself with the mute, but wil simply omit it in such rare cases.

Principle of the Division of Syllables.-The whole nature of syllables or separate groups of sound, is contained in the two Sections VI and IX on glides. The nucleus (new.klius) or central core or pith of a syllable is a vowel or vocal. buzz or hiss is not sufficient to produce the effect unless it stands alone. This by itself will have an attack and release, and thus really form a group of a vowel and two glottids, but these glottids not being generally written (except in the case of the
aspirate) in European languages (except Greek), there is an appearance of a single vowel, say aa for raay at full. But in place of the attack and release, another vowel, or some consonant, may glide on to it, and this vowel, if initial, will have an attack, but no release, as it simply passes into the original $a a$, as $\check{\imath} a a \neq$, and will have a release but no attack if final, because it simply continues the central vowel, as zaaŭoz, 孔̆аaaŭoz. Then other rowels and consonants may glide on to this, as laă̆o, pı̆aaŭolp, or laaw pyaawlp, and this can be continued till we come to a mute or sonant. After this only a hiss, or buzz, or sonant can properly be placed, on to which the former mute or sonant would glide. If a mute be added it can only be rendered sensible by the recoil in the pause. If any vowel or vocal followed we should have the core about which a new syllable would be built, and some of the final consonants of the preceding syllable, such at least as could be used as an initial combination, would immediately be attracted away from that syllable, and combine to form part of the next. Thus if after $p y a a w l p$ we added $a i$, the final $p$ would cease to act upon the preceding $l$, which would at once slur up to it, and would form the initial of the glide into ai, thus pyaaw $l \div$ pai. We thus get a conception of the mode in which syllables separate, but the habits of different languages differ greatly as to the preservation or omission of the glide, or its conversion into a slur, and it is not necessary for the present purpose to go into the complicated details of the subject Much depends upon the position of accent. In English a single consonant between two vowels, of which the first is accented, is medial, that is, glides on to both, as valley $v a+l \cdot+i$, polling poa $+l+i n g$, matting $m a+t=$ ting. The syllable divides then in the middle of the consunant, that is, between the glides. But in "syllabising" (sil-abei •zing), which is an entirely artificial process, intended to bring out the separation of the groups distinctly, we separate the glides by a pause, thus 'splitting' the consonants (p. 90b) and say val...li, roa $\cdot \mathrm{l} . . . \mathrm{ling}$, mat $\ldots . . t i n g$, or even $m a t^{\circ} h$..ting and thus do not distinguish
between the three cases of medial, double, and split consonants, val-i, val-li, val $\cdot . . l$, which are really distinguished in natural speech. To this syllabising we may attribute the frequent doubling of consonants in written words, where there is no doubling in actual speech. The speller syllabised and wrote what he heard during this artificial process, and not what he usually pronounced when speaking naturally. This doubling occurs chiefly after short vowels, because the short vowel required a consonant to "stop" or "close" it, and allow it to be pronounced distinctly without lengthening. But the long vowel not requiring it, the speaker syllabised 'rolling, paling;' as roa $\ldots$...ing, pai $\cdot$. ling, and would naturally unite them so with one consonant, although in actua speech there is just as much of a glide from the $l$ to the preceding vowel as in val- .

Special Rules for Dividing Consonants between Two Syllables.-When several consonants come between two vowels, of which the first is accented, some of them certainly glide on to that vowel, and one may glide both ways, provided it can form an easy combination with the preceding consonant, but otherwise it is attracted entirely from the first vowel to the second, and is at most connected by a slur. Thus lapse $l a p+s$, but lapsing lap...s + ing, battle $b a t \cdot+l$, but battling bat $\ldots l$ ling, because $t l$ is not a usual initial combination, and bat $\cdot l \div l$ ling would make three syllables, but ask aas $k$, aas $\cdot+k+i n g$.

Where the singer is forced to divide syllables by awkward phrases which oblige him to take breath, he may follow this rule: "When several consonants come between two vowels which make an easy final or initial combination, they may be separated anywhere, and the consonant of separation may be repeated," thus aas...sking, aask...king.
"But where there is the least difficulty as to final or initial pronunciation, divide where it seems easiest, and do not double the consonant," as startling staa $\cdot t$...ling, not staa $\cdot t l$...ling, which is very bad, introducing a new syllable, or staa $\ldots$...tling,
which gives an unusual initial combination, and omits a glide. Again, struggling strug $\cdot .$. ling rather than strug $\cdot$...gling, because of the difficulty of gl ,
" When there are two mutes or sonants, or a mute and sonant, between two vowels, taken one to one and one to the other," thus acting $a k \cdot \ldots t i n g$, not $a k \cdot t^{\circ} . . i n g$, which is never said, obdurate ob $-\div$ deuret, obtuse ob.. tew's.
When, however, the accent lies on the second vowel, or on neither vowel, the single consonant (or the whole combination if initial) is taken to the following vowel, and the first at most glides up to it. Thus happily hap $i \div l i$, reprove $r i \div$ proo $v$, but restore res $\div$ stao $\cdot \breve{u}$, respond res $\div$ spon $\cdot d$, restrict res $\div$ strik.t. The singer, however, may say ri...stac $\breve{u}$, ri...spon $\cdot d, r i \ldots s t r i k \cdot t$, to avoid lengthening the hisses.
The whole of these directions for dividing syllables may be comprised in the rule: "Divide
where it best suits your convenience, but if possible avoid losing the glides on to the accented vowels, and avoid making them on to preceding unaccented vowels." Similar rules will apply in German. In Italian, however, the interimediate consonants should, when practicable be taken to the following vowel, so as to end all syllables with a vowel as much as possible. Consonants end syllables in Italian only when they also end a word, as amor aamoa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ for amore, or are followed by another consonant in the same word, as onda oan•daa, or are "energetic" (p. 90a), another vowel following, as anno aan•noa. In French, on the contrary, where there is no really accented syllable, the intermediate consonant is always medial in actual speech, though theorists always separate it from the preceding vowel. This happens even between words, and gives a peculiar character to the language; thus in ma femme my wife) maafaam, the $f$ is medial, sa grotte (her grotto) saag $\div$ raot.

# X. LENGTH, PITCH, FORCE, ETC. 

LENGTH (OR QUANTITY), PITCH (OR MUSICAL ACCENT), FORCE (OR ORDINARY ACCENT AND EMPHASIS), QUALITY OF TONE, WEIGHT (OR IMPORTANCE), AND SILENCE (OR PAUSE) AS ELENENTS OF SPEECH.

Introduction.-Besides the vowels and consonants, glottids and glides, by which speech sounds are generated and formed into words, all languages distinguish certain parts of syllables, and certain syllables in a word, and certain words in a sentence, by alterations of duration of utterance, or pitch of the voice, or loudness, or emotional quality of tone, or other characters denoting the importance attached to them by the speaker, including the pauses between words. The full consideration of these belongs to works on elocution, and affects the public speaker more than the singer. But no singer can deliver his words properly without being thoroughly aware of the nature of the plans used for giving prominence to special words and syllables. In the following brief remarks, the result of long study, sufficient is given to make an intelligent pupil understand the principle on which he has to proceed, and convenient terms and notations are furnished, which will enable him to think and write accurately upon a subject hitherto treated with great laxity and indistinctness.

Length of Spoken Sounds, and its Notation.A syllable when formed may require more or less
time to pronounce, arising from the various lengths of its vowels, of its glides, and of its consonants, separately and jointly, and this total duration is called the length of the syllable. This is an extremely important consideration to the speaker, who relies upon the length of his syllables for much important discrimination of meaning. It is important to the versifier, because ancient Greek and Latin and other rhythms used to depend entirely on the comparative lengths of syllables, and all rhythms are more or less affected by this length. It is important to the musical composer, who ought in composing music to given words to suit the lengths of his notes to the lengths of the syilables to which they are given; and conversely it is important to any poet who adapts words to given music. But it is not important to the singer, because the time in which he is to pronounce each syllable is strictly assigned by the notes before him, from which he in general is not allowed to deviate in the least degree. The singer has often to pronounce a naturally very long syllable in an unnaturally short time, or a naturally very short syllable in an unnaturally long time, if the composer has so willed it. If the singer's words
consequently becomes difficult to catch by the listener, it is not the fault of the singer but of the composer. The singer's business is to make the most of the musical character of his vowels, to take the utmost care of his glides, and make them share the time at his disposal with his vowels, and cut the buzzes and hisses down to the shortest intelligible duration. He will therefore have to practise singing long syllables, as slee ps, to rapid notes, and short syllables, as puot it bak, to very long notes, bringing out the glide tightly at the end. That is to say, the singer is to act as if he knew nothing of naturally long and short syllables, but to take the composer's and writer's orders on that point and obey them. It is a great misfortune that both authors and composer's in general treat, and have apparently always treated language as a vehicle of music, with such little regard to its natural laws, as to lay themselves open to the imputation of ignorance.

For the speaker it is convenient to have the power of marking three lengths of vowels, as $\bar{a} a$ long, $\ddot{a} a$ medial, $\breve{a} a$ short. And for English readers whenever short vowels are written by two letters in Glossic, or long vowels by one letter, it is convenient to use marks of long and short, although the medial will not be required. Another way of marking these varieties of length in connection with force of utterance will be given hereafter. But the singer as such has no interest in these distinctions, which are so important to the poet and orator.

Pitch of Spoken Sounds, and its Notation.-In speaking we alter the pitch of the roice continually (although never using strictly musical sounds), gliding up and down on the same vowel, and varying the intonation of our sentences according to their meaning and the association of such melody with such meaning, which is generally very different in different countries and different parts of each country. It is quite different in London and Edinburgh, in Germany and Italy, and especially France. A foreigner is
known at once by his 'tune' or 'accent,' as it is often wrongly called. In none of our four languages, however, is there any obligation for the speaker always to raise or always to lower the pitch of his voice upon certain syllables, as there was in classical Greece and Rome, and as there still is in Norway and Sweden. The composer, therefore, is free to do as he likes, and the singer has merely to do as he is ordered by the composer. Hence it is needless to make any remarks for the use of singers on this very difficult subject. For the use of speakers, however, it is occasionally convenient to use the following notation An unmarked vowel, as $a a$, is to be spoken at a middle pitch, such as is used in ordinary speaking; a detached acute accent mark, as $a a^{\prime}$, indicates a higher, and a detached grave accent mark, as $\alpha a^{\prime}$, indicates a lower pitch than this middle one. This was the meaning of the aucient Greek acute and grave accents. The pitch in each case is supposed to be sustained during the whole duration of the vowel. But $a a^{\prime}$ will mean begin at a high and ylide down to a middle pitch. This was the original meaning of the Greek circumflex or 'down glide.'

Force of Spoken Sounds, and its Notation. On listening to a person speaking at so great a distance that his individual words cannot be distinguished, he will be felt to utter a broken, unconnected series of loud or strong sounds, with half heard soft or weaker ones, and silences between. A street orator or open-air preacher is an excellent example for the purpose. This shews us that the speaker must have made a great difference in the loudness of his utterance, and we feel that the apparent silences do not arise from actual cessation of tone, but only from weaker sound, which is not heard at a distance. We thus learn to distinguish different degrees of force in the utterance of syllables, and to divide syllables generally into "weak" and "strong," between which lie many degrees, called collectively "mean." In English, German, and Italian the whole of
versification depends on the alternation of strong with either weak or mean syllables, and neither on the length nor pitch of those syllables. In French the rhythm (founded on an extinct pronunciation) depends rather upon the number and nature of the artificial (not natural) syllables in a line, and has only a very remote relation to their force. In English, German, and Italian, when several syllables are invariably spoken together, in order to express a "thought," forming a word, one is invariably " strong" in comparison with the rest, and if the rest are more than two in number, one or more will generally be mean and the others weak. When several words of one syllable are put together to form a phrase, the same rule for strong and weak applies to the phrase, with the following difference. In a single word of many syllables, the strong, mean, and weak syllables always retain their relative positions wherever and whenever the word is used ; that is, the position of strength and weakness is "fixed." But in a phrase the strong syllable often varies when the same phrase is used in different places under different circumstances; that is, the position of strength and weakness is "free." The "fixed" syllable, which is always strong in every word of more than one syllable, is said to be "accented," or to have the "accent;" and if there is also a mean syllable, the strong is said to be "primarily accented," or to have the " primary accent," and the mean to be "secondarily accented," or to have the " secondary accent" (prei 'mer'ili, sek'under'ili). The variable syllable in a phrase which becomes strong is said to have "emphasis" (em•fusis), or to be emphatic (emfat ik). The difference between accent and emphasis as applied to syllables, then, may be briefly stated as "accent is fixed, emphasis is free." But on examining larger phrases or "clauses" which contain words of one or more than one syllable mixed together, we always find that at least one whole word is more prominent than the rest, and may be termed a strong word, and that there are also other words of mean force. This strength of the word, however depends on its
meaning and the intention of the speaker. It is therefore, "free," and not "fixed." Hence we term it the "emphatic" word, and say it has "emphasis," while the "mean" words have " secondary" emphasis. When the strong word has several syllables, all of its syllables are stronger than they would have been if the word were weak, or had only mean force; or else the strong syllable of a strong word is made remarkably prominent (See "Teacher's Manual," art. 629). Hence we require a mark for the strong syllable in a word of several syllables, and the strong word in a phrase. In Glossic we write ( $\cdot$ ), a turned period, called the mark of " accent," or more fully of "force accent," and place it after the long vowel, or after the consonant or consonants following a short vowel, in a word of more than one syllable. The mark thus serves to mark lengths as well as force, thus fee-ling, feling. If there is a mean syllable in the word, it is not usually distinguished from the strong in Glossic writing, thus $a \cdot \cdot f t u n o o \cdot n$, circumspection ser•kumspek:shun, insufferability insuf'ur'ubil-iti. If it is thought necessary to distinguish medial length, without using accented letters like $a a$, the (:) is placed before (instead of over) the vowel, as l:aa.ftu laughter, the ( $\cdot$ ) still marking the accent. If it is desired to distinguish the secondary accent or medium syllable, the mark ( ${ }^{\prime}$ ) may be placed after the long vowel, or the consonant following a short vowel, as $a a^{\prime}$ 'ftunoo.n, insuf.'ur'ubil'iti. For the strong and mean words the marks ( $\cdot$ ) and ( $\cdot{ }^{\circ}$ ) are prefixed to the whole word, as: "Shall you ride to town to-day?" shul 'eu 'reid tu town tudai'? But if the word is of many syllables it retains its accent mark as well as its emphasis mark, as: "He is insufferable, but necessary" heez ' 'insuf'ur'ubl, but -nes'eser'i. In unemphatic words the position of the accent mark will shew the length of the vowel, as in hee $z$ in the last sentence. Vowels unmarked are to be taken as short or at most medial in length, and weak or at most mean in force. Else the long, medial, or short marks are used over them, as $d o g \cdot r \bar{o} a z$.

The strong syllables are of the utmost importance in English, German, and Italian. If in a word of many syllables, the wrong syllable be made strong in these languages, the word generally becomes unintelligible. In all three of them the alternation of strong and weak syllables regulates versification, although, of course, rhythm is swayed by other considerations also. In English especially, the vowels in weak syllables are always much obscured (see Section XI., A. III.) although they recover a little in mean syllables. The weak syllable immediately following a strong syllable is most affected. To be intelligible, the singer, although lengthening his vowels, must still continue to give them this obscure character.
In German some syllables only are thus obscured.
In Italian the weak syllables are as bright as the strong ones.

For French all this is different. There is no "fixed" force, either on words of one syllable, or on words of many syllables, either as accent or emphasis. Strong syllables are throughout free with this exception that only a very small set of syllables (those containing so-called "mute e," or " muto-guttural e") are weak, and in speaking such syllables are very weak indeed, while the rest bear to the first the relation of mean to strong. But the actual syllable to which predominance is given in a word varies according to the construction of the sentence, and it appears to me, after long and attentive examination continued for many years, that any positive laws laid down respecting isolated French words are misleading. The foreigner had better endeavour to pronounce each French syllable that is not weak with about equal force and length, and to hurry over the weak syllables as fast and lightly as he can. The pitch of the voice in speaking seems frequently to rise at the end of clauses, and to be monotonous throughout a clause. The whole effect is like a necklace of beads strung together by an invisible thread, and the want of "fixed" force occasions great difficulty to a foreigner in grouping the syllables into words. To appreciate French enunciation and declamation
fully is the work of years. The great mobility and lightness of the syllables, and utter freedom as regards force (and even length in the present pronunciation) gives a great peculiarity to the setting of French words to music. This is increased by the adoption of an older principle whereby what are now very weak syllables in speaking are allowed in singing to have as much strength as any of the others. This peculiarity renders the adaptation of English words to French music generally very difficult, and nothing can generally be worse suited for the intelligibility of the words. The effect is almost that of playing variations written for a flute on a trombone.

In the matter of force, although a composer lays down the law with tolerable strictness, it is not so binding and inevitable as the laws of length and pitch. True, the "barring" of music determines a certain alteruation of strong, mean, and weak; and a liberal use of signs for crescendo and diminuendo, from forte to fortissimo, and piano to pianissimo, with sforzando, staccato, legato, and the like, convey tolerably strict orders to the singer, which he ought to obey. Yet he is frequently left to his own resources to bring out the effect by alterations of force. Is he to do so by the same use of accent and emphasis which he would employ in reading the passage to a public audience, with the best declamation he can command, or learn from books? He cannot do so without sacrificing the musical effect which obliges him to take another view of the words. The only cases in which he has a chance are those of chanting and recitative. In both of these the singing voice, so utterly different from the speaking voice, bars the way. In chanting, the monotone of the reciting note is entirely opposed to the habits of speaking. The recitative has indeed variety, indeed so great a variety of pitch, that no speaking voice would naturally produce $i t$. The singer, therefore, has in every case to sacrifice the effect of accent and emphasis to the need of music, or to learn the difficult art of "musical elocution" as distinct from "spoken" elocution. It would be useless te
enter into such a subject here. Each particular song requires its own study. No rules have yet been laid down, but musical elocutionists exist, whose business it is to teach the singer how to bring out either the feeling of the composer and poet, or at any rate their own views of it. Those who cannot have access to them, and whose own teachers have not the power to teach musical elocution, must trust to their own musical feeling and musical sense. But the ordinary rules for spoken declamation would utterly fail. We may endure and even admire a tragedy when sung as an opera, but a player that imitated the singer would be deservedly hissed off the stage.

Quality of Tone in Spoken Sounds, and why it is not furnished with a Notation.--Force is, however not the ouly free or tolerably free weapon at the command of the singer. There is another and much more powerful weapon-original and emotional quality of tone. The power to give totally different original qualities of tone to the notes of the same pitch, and sung to the same vowel (which as we know merely modifies the quality of tone originally produced) gives the natural human voice its wonderful superiority over every artificial instrument. The violin can do much in this way by the force and place of bowing, by taking the same notes on different strings, or as harmonics, and so on. But all its power is as nothing compared to the human voice. The consideration of this subject, however, belongs, not to a treatise on pronunciation, but to the highest walks of the singer's art. It is enough to mention that the form given to expression by quality of tone varies greatly from nation to nation, and that what speaks to the heart in one style of music, and to one kind of audience, falls dead to another. And finally, that whatever singer makes himself into a mere musical instrument by disguising his words, must utterly fail in touching or delighting anyone. For the soul speaks by words, and if the words are unheard, the soul is dumb.

Weight of Spoken Sounds. - In speaking and in singing, there is something different from length, pitch, force, or quality of tone, by which the speaker or singer conveys the sense of importance, although each of these elements, and combinations of two or more of them, are of course constantly employed for the purpose of giving this expression of importance, varying under different circumstances. This effect may be called weight, and words and syllables may be distinguished in this respect as heavy, moderate, and light. The effect may be described on the whole as mentar, depending upon the conceptions conveyed, rather than the means of conveying them. Sometimes the most important and heaviest word, the utterance of which conveys an electrical shock to an audience, or which seems to give the whole meaning to all that preceded, is uttered in a weak, low, and even short, toneless voice; though at other times again in a voice of thunder. These are, however, extreme cases of rhetorical effect. But generally in English the substantive is heavier than its qualifying adjective, though the latter may be much stronger and even longer, while it is frequently higher. Again the verb is almost always heavier than either its subject or object, although it is very frequently weaker. These differences scarcely affect the singer, except in the rendering of verse, which in English depends much on weight for its actual rhythm.

Silence as an Element of Speech, and its Notation. -The interval between two audible sounds has a most important influence on their mertal effect. We are all familiar with this in instrumental and vocal music, and in all kinds of declamation. Silence may be great, medium, or small, in respect to duration, and it may be absolute or merly apparent in respect to quality. For absolute silence, no vocal effort is made, but the respiration may go on quietly, or even respiration may be suspended, so that the attention of the listener is directed towards the forthcoming sound, which may come with a burst, or the slightest
possible indication of voice. In apparent silence, there is really no suspension of vocal utterance, but merely a great diminution of force-a lengthened slur. The difference to the speaker or singer is of course great, because after absolute silence there must be an entire re-adjustment of the vocal chords, which are kept in action during the apparent silence. As an element of rhythm and singing, silence may be always considered as absolute and in singing should therefore begin with a clear releases, and end with a clear attack. In singing, the composer always sufficiently indicates the silences and their lengths. In speaking,
the writer very inadequately represents them by punctuation. This may be roughly improved by adding (o), a turned mark of degrees, for a small, (00) for a medium, and (000) for a great silence. Mr. Curwen, in the "Teacher's Manual," arts. 637-661, has endeavoured to indicate silences by musical subdivisions. This is very well adapted for simultaneous chanting, where an exact indication of the duration of silences is indispensable, but not for such rhythmical utterance, even in verse, as is usual among public speakers and readers at the present day, when exact rhythmical cadence is carefully avoided.

## XI. EXERCISES

Introductory Remarks. - The object of these Exercises is to suggest rather than to give a complete method of practising the pupil in all the points explained in the previous Sections. The teacher must know all that precedes, in order to zorrect any error, and to direct the process of study. But the pupil will learn the details incidentally. The teacher and the advanced student who make use of this book, should carefully go through the whole exercises themselves, not mentally but actually; for it is only by ascertaining the effect of such practice on their own vocal organs that they can properly direct the pupil and insist upon the necessary repetition.

The Exercises have been separated from the rest of the work, because it would have been almost impossible, and certainly inexpedient, to have made distinct exercises for each point discussed as it arose, avoiding all others. The pupil does not need such an analytical treatment of the subject. He is used to regard sounds as a whole, and he must be led to analyse them for himself. The presentation of the details in a strictly systematic order would confuse him. Such an order is, in fact, of no importance at all to the pupil, who can begin anywhere. Hence a very few examples have been given in the course of the exposition, and even for those it was frequently necessary to anticipate what followed, and in order to make them intelligible a short key to Glossic had to be prefixed; but any key or system of writing necessarily involves a more or less complete analysis of speech sounds.

A pupil is supposed to be already able to speak and read his own language. But he will probably have errors or difficulties of pronunciation to surmount, and he will always have to be led to a knowledge of how to make language intelligible as sung. The first care of every teacher must, therefore, be first to ascertain what are the points in which the pupil needs assistance, and then to exercise him especially in those, leaving the other points, on which he needs little or no assistance, to be treated incidentally. The first exercises are therefore directed to the discovery of these weak places. But the exercises range over all such possibilities. The teacher will therefure have to select those which are necessary in any particular case.

The first exercises are general, and relate to all the sounds occurring in English strong syllables, and especially in the glides, by means of artificial combinations, which have no meaning as words in actual use. Then follow a series of exercises, in which actual words are employed, arranged principally to bring out the differences of vowel and consonant sounds. In the Glossic Index in the next Section real words are given, shewing the actually existing glides of every vowel and diphthongal sound in strong syllables on to any following consonant, and of every consonant on to every other consonant and vowel at the beginning of words. This Index consequently forms a supplement to this part of the exercises. It will also refer the teacher in every case to the page where the sounds on which he is exercising the
pupil are fully described. Hence it has not been thought necessary to add a crowd of such references to every example. The next series relates to weak syllables, which have to be differently treated in singing and in speech, and these also exercise on the slurs, and on the alternation of strong and weak syllables.

After this general treatment of English sounds, those who wish to proceed to a study of German, Italian, and French sounds, will find a few special exercises on their additional or peculiar sounds, especially on those points in which they differ from English.
It is intended that these exercises should all be either "pointed" from certain charts, or " patterned" by the teacher. Such a book as the present is, of course, unfitted for the young pupil. The teacher will himself supply the needful explanations, to the extent required for each Exercise and no more. In this way the apparent difficulties will dwindle to nothing, and attention will be directed solely to surmounting the real difficulties.

## A. ENGLISH EXERCISES.

## I. Artificial Strong Syllables.

General Tables of English Sounds.-The following lines should be boldly printed on a chart, large enough for a whole class to see, and for the teacher to point to any letters, or slide his pointer from one letter to another, to indicate glides, without the chance of confusion by the pupil.

## CHART OF ENGLISH SOUNDS.

peep tait kaak baub doad goog whif ses shash wov zuz zhuozh feif thoith vouv dheudn hei hoi hou yheu hai'y hoa'w cheech chaich chaach jauj joaj jooj ling meng nang lul mom nuon r'eerr' r'airr' r'oarr' r'oorr'
The above chart is arranged so that the artificial words can be sung to the notes of "God save the Queen." It also contains all the initial and final single consonants which occur in our language, but no combinations of consonants. These are supplied by the following table of initial and final combinations, arranged in alphabetical order for ease of reference, the initial combinations being placed in the order of the letters from left to right (that is, in the order of common dictionaries), and the final combinations in the alphabetic order of the letters following the vowel and also from left to right. The groups ch $d h n g$ sh th $z h$ (called chee dhee ing ish ith zhai) are here reckoned as single letters, so that the alphabetic order of the consonants is taken to be $b c h d d h f g h j k l m n$ $n g p r r^{\prime} s \operatorname{sh} t$ th $v w w h y y h z z$. The permissive trill implied in $r$ is supposed to be always made, and hence $r r^{\prime}$ is always written before consonants, and should be used at least as an exercise. This list is especially intended as a guide to the teacher in forming exercises as afterwards explaine

## ENGLISH INITIAL COMBINATIONS OF CONSONANTS.

| bl | blak | black | kr'- | krum | crumb | sp- | ee'k | speak |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| br'- | broun | brown | kw- | kwilt | quilt | spl- | splash | splash |
| bw- | bwoi | casionall | pl- | plai | play | spr'- | springk. | sprinkle |
| dr'- | drau | draw | pr'- | $p r^{\prime}$ ins | prince | st- | stan | stan |
| dw- | dwau | 'f dwarf | sf- | sfeer $r$ | sphere | str'- | str'ai | stray |
| fl- | floo | flew | sk- | skau-ld | scald | W- | swai | swear |
| fr'- | fr'og | frog | skr'- | skrip tea | $r$ script | shr'- | shr'ee'k | shriek |
| gl- | glee'n | glean | skw- | skweez | squeez | tr' | 'out | trout |
| gr' | graas | grass | sl- | sloa | slow | tw- | twein | wine |
| W- | gwaa | a guano | sm- | smaw l | small | thr'- | thr'oo | through |
|  | $k_{\text {kloa }}$ d | $z$ clothes |  | snoa | snow | thw- | hwaw | $t$ thwart |

ENGLISH FINAL CONBINATIONS OF CONSONANTS.

| -bd | rubd | rubbed | -lps | helps | helps | -pts | adep ts adepts |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -bz | rubz | rubs | -ls | els | else | -pth | depth depth |
| -cht | r'ee'cht | reached | -lt | hilt | hilt | -pths | depths depths |
| -dth | bredth | breadth | -lts | hilts | hilts | -rr'b | baa rrr'b (baa ${ }^{\text {r }}$ 'b) barb |
| -dths | bredths | breadths | -lth | helth | health | -rr'bz | $b a a \cdot r r^{\prime} b z$ (baa ${ }^{\cdot} r^{\prime} b z$ ) barbs |
| -dz | padz | pads | -lths | helths | health's | -rr'ch | a $a^{\cdot} \cdot r^{\prime} c h\left(a a^{\prime} r^{\prime} c h\right.$ ) arch |
| -dhd | bree dhd | breathed | -lv | shelv | shelve | -rr'cht | aa'rr'cht ( $a a^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ 'cht) arched |
| -dhz | bree dhz | breathes | -lvz | shelvz | shelves | -rr'd | baa'rr'd (baa'r'd) barred |
| -fs | kufs | cuffs | -lz | elz | ells | -rr'dz | $b e r r^{\prime} d z\left(b u r r^{\prime} d z\right)$ birds |
| -ft | theft | theft | -md | hemd | hemmed | -rr'f | whaw'rr'f (whaw r'f) |
| -fts | thefts | thefts | -mp | lamp | lamp |  | wharf |
| -fth | fifth | fifth | -mps | lamps | lamps | -rr'fs | whau $\cdot$ rr'fs (whau $\cdot r^{\prime} f^{\prime}$ ) |
| -fths | fifths | fifths | -mpt | atemp $\cdot t$ | attempt |  | wharfs |
| -gd | begd | begged | -mpts | atemp $\cdot$ ts | attempts | -rr'j | err'j ( $u \cdot r^{\prime}$ j) urge |
| -gz | begz | begs | -mt aten | $m \cdot t$ occasiona | al for atemp $\cdot$ t | -rr'k | err'k ( $u^{\prime} r^{\prime} k$ ) irk |
| -jd | jujd | judged | -mts | atem•ts | occasional | -rr'ks | sherr'ks (shu'r'ks) shirks |
| -ks | aks | axe |  |  | for atemp ts | -rr'l | erv'l ( $u$ 'r'l) earl |
| -kst | fikst | fixed | -mz | hamz | hams | -rr'lz | wherr'lz (whur 'r'lz) |
| -ksth | siksth | sixth | -nch | finch | flinch |  | whirls |
| -ksths | siksths | sixths | -ncht | fincht | flinched | -rr'm | $a a^{\prime} \cdot r r^{\prime} m\left(a a^{\prime} r^{\prime} m\right.$ ) arm |
| -kt | akt | act | -nd | hand | hand | -rr'md | $a a^{\prime} \cdot r r^{\prime} m d \quad\left(a a \cdot r^{\prime} m d\right)$ |
| -kts | akts | acts | -ndz | handz | hands |  | armed |
| -1b | bulb | bulb | -ndth | thowzendth | thousandth | -rr'mz | $a a \cdot r r^{\prime} m z(a a \cdot r ' m z)$ arms |
| -lbz | bulbz | bulbs | -ndths | thou:zendths | $s$ thousandths | -rr'n | lerr'n (lu'r'n) learn |
| -lch | filch | filch | -nj | chai $\cdot$ nj | change | -rr'nd | lerr'nd (lu'nd) learned |
| -lcht | filcht | filched | -njd | chai•njd | changed | -rr'nt | lerr'nt (lu'nt) learnt |
| -ld | weild | wild | -ns | hens | hence | -rr'nz | lerr'nz (lu'r'nz) learns |
| -ldz | weildz | wilds | -nst | minst | minced | -rr'p | cherr'p (churr'p) chirp |
| -lf | shelf | shelf | - | hint | hint | -rr'ps | cherr'ps (chu'r'ps) chirps |
| -lfs | shelfs | shelf's | -nts | hints | hints | -rr'pt | cherr'pt (chur 'r'pt) chirped |
| -lft | engul.ft | engulfed | -nth | tenth | tenth | -rr's | fee'rr's (fee'ürr's) fierce |
| -lfth | twelfth | twelfth | -nths | tenths | tenths | -rrs't | werr'st ( wurr'st) worst |
| -lfths | twelfths | twelfths | -nz | henz | hens | -rr'th | err'th (u'r'th) earth |
| -lj | bulj | bulge | -ngd | wingd | winged | -rr'ths | berr'ths (bu'r'ths) births |
| -ljd | buljd | bulged | -ngk | thingk | think | -rr'v | staa rrr'v (staa $r^{\prime} v$ ) starve |
| -lk | elk | elk | -ngks | thingks | thinks | -rr'vd | serr'vd (sur'r'vd) served |
| -1ks | elks | elks | -ngkt | blingkt | blinked | -rr'vz | staa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'vz (staa $\cdot r^{\prime} v z$ ) |
| -lkt | sulkt | sulked | -ngkth | lengkth | length |  | starves |
| -lm | film | film | -ngkths | s lengkths | lengths | -rr'z | fee 'rr'z (fee'ŭrr'z) fears |
| $-\operatorname{lm} z$ | filmz | filmz | -ngz | wingz- | wings | -sk | kaask cask |
| -ln | faurln | fallen | -ps | taps | taps | -sks | kausks casks |
| -1p | help | help | -pt | wept | wept | -sp | hasp hasp |


| -sps | hasps | hasps | -ts | wits |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| -spt | luspt | cusped | -tth | ai tth |
| -st | rist | wrist | -tths | ai'tths |
| -sts | rists | wrists | -ths | baa ths |
| -sht | husht | hushed |  |  |
| The Mode of Marking Time in the Exercises.- |  |  |  |  |
| Between l and l one second elapses. | Between |  |  |  | Between | and | one second elapses. Between | and : or : and |, half a second. All groups of letters or words written between these limits divide the interval of time equally, but ( - ) means, continue the last vowel for the space of a group, and if a consonant follows as $-p$, glide on to that consonant at the end of the time thus marked. Also (...) means, be silent for the space of a group. Thus in | pee |, the word lasts a whole second, in |pee ... | it lasts half a second, followed by a pause of the same length. In | pee ... : pee | the first pee lasts a quarter of a second, and is followed by a pause of the same length, and the second pee lasts a half-second. In | pee - -p pee |, the peep lasts three-quarters of a second, finishing with the glide on the third quarter, and the following pee lasts only one quarter of a second. A word of two syllables takes the same time as two single syllables. Thus in | peepee | peeppee | each syllable lasts half a second. The double bars merely mark sections of Exercises, which may be constantly repeated.

Ex. 1. To Discover any Defects in Pronunciation in order to direct future practice-The teacher reads peep, the first word in the Chart, pointing to it, and makes each pupil in the class pronounce it after him. He briefly notes any defects (on paper if possible) for subsequent use, not for present correction. Such a mark as $p_{2}$ would imply erroneous introduction of flatus, $p+$ imperfect initial glide ; $e e=i$, incorrect pronunciation of vowel; $+p$, faulty final glide; $p^{\circ} h$, much final flatus.

Then the teacher takes tait in the same way. Nnte especially if $a i$ has a strong vanish, as $a i \cdot y$, or whether it approaches $e i$ in sound.

$-\operatorname{tht}$
-vd
-vz
-zd


Ultimately the whole list of 38 artificial words in the chart must be gone through in this way, but as a commencement it will be sufficient to go through the first twelve words.

Then the teacher sings the first line-
| peep | tait | kaak | baub | doad | goog |
slowly, one second to each word, making the initial and final glides clearly, and avoiding all final recoils. Each pupil has then to sing them, separately. Notes of his performance should be made as before.

The second line is to be treated in the same way, lengthening the vowels, and shortening the hisses and buzzes, especially when final.
This Exercise gives the complete series of long and short vowels in English, except $a 0^{\circ}$, which occurs only before $r$, and is hence left for the last line. The teacher will have consequently learned all the habitual mispronunciations of vowels and of the most important mixed glides. By proceeding to the third line-feif, thoith, vouv, dheud-he can examine for all the usual diphthongs in the same way. Each pupil has to be examined separately, as each one will have different errors, and when several voices are speaking together, such errors cannot be sufficiently individualised. Having gone through the three first lines, they may be sung in chorus and in unison to the first part of "God save the Queen." These lines will be quite enough for a first lesson.

The next four lines may be taken at the next lesson, as they do not present so many difficulties. The aspiration in hei, hoi, hou, will require attention, as well as the form of the diphthongs. In $y$ heu see whether the initial hiss is sounded; most people are inclined to say yoo. In hai.y hoa'w observe the vanish, and contrast with tait, doai. In ling, meng, nang, lul, mom, nuon, observe whether
the vowel or the final vocal is lengthened. And in the last line $r^{\prime}$ eerr', $r^{\prime}$ airr', $r^{\prime}$ oarr', $r^{\prime}$ oorr', observe whether trilled $r^{\prime}$ and vocal $r$ are both properly brought out and the vowels duly modified.

Then the whole seven lines may be sung to "God save the Queen," for which they are specially adapted. But as the words are all monosyllables, and have no signification, they may be sung to any air, beginning anywhere, and going on as long as is necessary, and there is much advantage in altering the air and at least the order of the lines or words, in order that the different vowels may be sung to different pitches.
This Exercise is entirely for the use of the master, to give him the completest information respecting the vicious habits of the pupil.
The following Exercises can all be worked from this one Chart by judicious pointing, but are better sung from separate copies of the Exercises.
Ex. 2. The Vowel [ee] and Mixed Glides for Mutes.-Objects: to get ee pure (and hence an appropriate pitch must be chosen and set by teacher); to get the clear attack without any throat glide, or tongue glide, and with the release pure; to make and feel the difference between this effect, the initial glide pee, and final glide eep, and between both the latter and peep; to take care that no flatus is heard after any mute. Similar for $t, k$. The pattern must be set by the teacher and at first taken up by the pupils one after the other in a sort of running fire, taking the passage between two double bars (II). The teacher beats time.
$\|$ ee | pee | ee eep | pee eep | peep \|i
$\|$ ee | tee | ee eet | the eet | teet \|
|| ee | kee | ee eek | kee eek | keek ||
|| ee ee | pee pee | tee tee | kee kee ||
$\|$ ee ee | eep eep | eet eet | eek eek ||
|| pee tee kee ; ee ee ee \|| pee kee tce | ee ee ee \|| || kee tee pee|kee pee tee|tee kee pee|tee pee kee || || pee tee kee | peep teet keek | ecp eet eek || || pee tee kee : tee kee pee|kee pee tee: pee tee kee ||
|| peep teet keek | teet keek pcop | keek peep teet|
| peep teet keek ||
|| peet teek : keep peet | teek keet : peek keep ||
|| peeteek : keepeet | teekeet: peekeep | teepeek :
: keeteep ||
|| pee tee : peet ee | peetee : peettee \|| || pee kee : peek ee | peekee : peekkee || || kee pee : keep ee | keepee : keeppee || || tee kee : teek ee | teekee : teekkee || || peet ee keep ee | peetee keepee | peettee keeppee || || peet keep : peek teep | keep teek : keet peek \||

Ex. 3. The Vowel [ai] and Mixed Glides for Mates.-The vowel ai must have no $\mathfrak{\imath}$ vanish. It must continue to be the same sound from beginning to end in these Exercises. It must never approach the sound of ei. Other observations as before.
|| ai | pai | ai aip | pai aip | paip ||
\| a a | tai | ai ait | tai ait | tait \|
|| ai | kai | ai aik | kai aik | kaik ||
|| ai ai | pai pai | tai tai | kai kai ||
|| ai ai | aip aip | ait ait | aik aik \|
|| pai tai kai | ai ai ai || pai kai tai | ai ai ai \|
|| kai tai pai | kai pai tai | tai kai pai | tai pai kai || || pai tai kai | paip tait kaik | aip ait aik ||
|| pai tai kai : tai kai pai | kai pai tai : pai tai kai || || paip tait kaik | tait kaik paip | kaik paip tait |
| paip tait kaik ||
if pait taik: kaip pait | taik kait : paik kaip \|
|| paitaik : kaipait | taikait : paikaip | taipaik :
: kaitaip ||
|| pai tai : pait ai | paitai : paittai ||
|| pai kai : paik ai | paikai paikkai ||
|| kai pai : kaip ai | kaipai : kaippai ||
|| tai kai : taik ai | taikai : taikkai ||
|| pait ai kaip ai | paitai kaipai | paittai kaippai \| || pait kaip : paik taip | kaip taik : kait paik ||

Ex. 4. The Vowel [aa] and Mixed Glides for Mutes.-No after sound of $\breve{u}, r, r$ '. || aa | paa | aa aap | paa aap | paap \| || aa | taa | aa aat | taa aat | taat || | aa | kaa | aa aak | kaa aak | kaak || | aa aa | paa paa | taa taa | kaa kaa \| i aa aa | aap aap | aat aat | aak aak || || paa taa kaa | aa aa aa || paa kaa taa | aa aa aa \|| || kaa taa paa | kaa paa taa | taa kaa paa | | taa paa kaa ||
|| paa taa kaa | paap taat kaak | aap aat aak ||
|| paa taa kaa : taa kaa paa | kaa paa taa: : paa taa kaa \|
|| paap taat kaak | taat kaak paap | kaak paap taat | | paap taat kaak ||
|| paat taak : kaap paat | taak kaat : paak kaap || || paataak : kaapaat | taakaat : paakaap | taapaak: : kaataap ||
|| paa taa: paat aa | paataa : paattaa || \| paa kaa: paak aa | paakaa : paakkaa \| || kaa paa: kaap aa | kaapaa: kaappaa || || taa kaa: taak aa | taakaa : taakkaa || || paat aa kaap aajpaataa kaapaa|paattaa kaappaa || || part kaap : paak taap | kaap taak : kaat paak ||

Ex. 5. The Vowel [au] and Mixed Glides for Mutes.-No after sound of $\breve{u}, r, r$.
|| au | pau | au aup | pau aup | paup ||
|| au | tau | au aut | tau aut | taut \|
|| au | kau | au auk | kau auk | kauk ||
|| au au | pau pau | tau tau | kau kau ||
|| au au | aup aup | aut aut i auk auk ||
|| pau tau kau | au au au ||. pau kau tau | au au au \|| $\|$ kau tau pau | kau pau tau | tau kau pau | | tau pau kau ||
|| pau tau kau | paup taut kauk | aup aut auk \|| If pau tau kau : tau kau pau | kau pau tau : : pau tan kau ||
|| paup taut kauk|taut kauk paup|kauk paup taut|
| paup taut kauk ||
|| paut tauk: kaup paut | tauk kaut: pauk kaup \|
|| pautauk: kaupaut | taukaut: paukaup | taupauk:
: kautaup II
|| pau tau : paut au | pautau : pauttau ||
|| pau kau : pauk au | paukau : paukkau ||
|| kau pau: kaup au | kaupau : kauppau ||
|| tau kau : tauk au | taukau : taukkau ||
|| paut au kaup au | pautau kaupau
| pauttau kauppau ||
|| paut kaup : pauk taup | kaup tauk : kaut pauk ||

Ex. 6. The Vowel [0a] and Mixed Glides for Mutes.-The vowel oa must have no ŏŏ vanish. It must continue to be the same sound from beginning to end. It must never approach the sound of ou. || oa | poa | oa oap | poa oap | poap ||
|| oa | toa | oa oat | toa oat | toat ||
|| oa | koa | oa oak | koa oak | koak ||
|| oa oa | poa poa | toa toa | koa koa \||
|| oa oa | oap oap | oat oat | oak oak ||
|| poa toa koa | oa oa oa \| poa koa toa | oz oa oa \| || koa toa poa|koa poa toa|toa koa poa|toa poa koa \|| || poa toa koa | poap toat koak | oap oat oak ||
$\|$ poa toa koa : toa koa poa | koa poa toa: : poa toa koa \|
|| poap toat koak | toat koak poap | koak poap toat| | poap toat koak ||
|| poat toak : koap poat | toak koat : poak koap ||
$\|$ poatoak : koapoat | toakoat : poakoap | toapoak: : koatoap ||
|| poa toa : poat oa | poatoa : poattoa ||
|| poa koa : poak oa | poakoa : poakkoa ||
|| koa poa : koap oa | koapoa : koappoa ||
|| toa koa : toak oa | toakoa : toakkoa \||
|| poat oa koap oa| poatoa koapoa|poattoa koappoa \|| || poat koap : poak toap | koap toak : koat poak ||

Ex. 7. The Vowel [00] and Mixed Glides for Mutes.- To obtain a pure oo the pitch must not be bigh. Be careful that the mouth is properly arranged from the first, so that there is no lip glide.
|| oo | poo | oo oop | poo oop | poop ||
|| 00 | too | 00 oot | too oot | toot ||
|| 00 | koo | 00 ook | koo ook | kook ||
|| 0000 | poo poo | too too | koo koo ||
|| oo oo | oop oop | oot oot | ook ook ||
|| poo too koo | 00 oo 00 || poo koo too | 00 oo 00 || || koo too poo|koo poo too|too koo poo|too poo koo || || poo too koo | poop toot kaok | oop oot ook ||
\#poo too koo : too koo poo | koo poo too : : poo too koo ||
|| poop toot kook | toot kook poop | kook poop toot| | poop toot kook ||
|| poot took : koop poot | took koot : pook koop ||
|| pootook : koopoot | tookoot : pookoop | toopook : : kootoop ||
|| poo too: poot 00 | poot 00 : poottoo ||
|| poo koo : pook 00 | pookoo : pookkoo ||
|| koo poo : koop oo | konpoo : kooppoo ||
|| too koo : took 00 | tookoo : tookkoo ||
| poot oo koop oo|pootoo koopoo| poottoo kooppoo || || poot koop : pook toop | koop took : koot pook ||

Ex. 8. Miscellaneous Vowels [ee, ai, aa, au, oa 00] and Mixed Glides for Mutes, at different pitches -Sing each division between || and || to one note, but change the note with each division, running up and down a whole octave.
|| pee tai kaa | pau toa koo || peep tait kaak| | paup toat kook ||
|| peo pai paa | pau poa poo | eep aip aap | | aup oap oop ||
| tee tai taa | tau toa too | eet ait aat | aut oat oot \|| | kee ksi kaa | kau koa koo | eek aik aak | | auk cak ook ||

I| pee tee kee | pai tai kai | paa taa kaa | pau tau kau | poa toa koa | poo too koo || || paiteek kaa | ee paitkaa | kaup oattoo | taakkaappaa ||

Ex. 9. The Vowels [ee, ai, aa, au, oa, 00] and Mixed Glides for Sonants.-This Exercise consists of Exercises 2 to 8, with sonants substituted for mutes.

Ex. $9 a$.
|| ee | bee | ee eeb | bee eeb | beeb \|
|| ee | dee | ee eed | dee eed | deed ||
|| ee | gee | ee eeg | gee eeg | geeg ||
|| ee ee | bee bee | dee dee | gee gee ||
|| ee ee | eeb eeb | eed eed | eeg eeg ||
\# bee dee gee | ee ee ee || bee gee dee | ee ce ee\||| || gee dee bee|gree bee dee|dee gee bee|dee bee gee \|I || bee dee gee | beeb deed geeg | eeb eed eeg || $\|$ bee dee gee : dee gee bee | gee bee dee : : bee dee gee ||
$\|$ beeb deed geeg|deed geeg beeb | geeg beeb deed। | beeb deed geeg ||
|| beed deeg : geeb beed | deeg geed : beeg geeb || || beedeeg : geebeed | deegeed : beegeeb | deebeer : : geedeeb ||
|| bee dee : beed ee | beedee : beeddee ||
|| bee gee : beeg ee | beegee : beeggee ||
|| gee bee : geeb ee | geebee : geebbee ||
|| dee gee : deeg ee | deegee : deeggee ||
|| beed ee geeb ee|beedee geebee|beeddee geebbee \|| || beed geeb : beeg deeb | geeb deeg : geed beeg || Ex. $9 b$.
|| ai | bai | ai aib | bai aib | baib || | ai | dai | ai aid | dai aid | daid || || ai | gai | ai aig | gai aig | gaig || || ai ai | bai bai | dai dai | gai gai i| || ai ai | aib aib | aid aid | aig aig ||
|| bai dai gai | ai ai ai || bai gai dai | ai ai ai \|
|| gai dai bai | gai bai dai ! dai gai bai | dai bai gai ||
|| bai dai gai | baib daid gaig | aib aid aig li
|| bai dai gai : dai gai bai | gai bai dai : bai dai gai ||
\# baib daid gaig | daid gaig baib | gaig baib daid |
| baib daid gaig ||
|| baid daig : gaib baid | daig gaid : baig gaib ||
|| baidaig : gaibaid | daigaid : baigaib | daibaig : : gaidaib ||
|| bai dai : baid ai | baidai : baiddai ||
|| bai gai : baig ai | baigai : baiggai ||
|| gai bai : gaib ai | gaibai : gaibbai ||
|| dai gai : daig ai | daigai : daiggai ||
|| baid ai gaib ai | baidai gaibai | baiddai gaibbai ||
|| ba:d gaib : baig daib | gaib daib : gaid baig ||
Ex. 9 c.
|| aa | baa | aa aab | baa aab | baab ||
|| aa | daa | aa aad | daa aad | daad ||
|| a a | gaa | aa aag | gaa aag | gaag ||
|| aa aa | baa baa | daa daa | gaa gaa ||
|| aa aa | aab aab | aad aad | aag aag ||
|| baa daa gaa | aa aa aa || baa gaa daa | aa aa aa ||
|| gaa daa baa | gaa baa daa | daa gaa baa | | daa baa gaa ||
|| baa daa gaa | baab daad gaag | aab aad aag ||
li baa daa gaa : daa gaa baa | gaa baa daa: baa daa gaa ||
|| baab daad gaag|daad gaag baab|gaag baab daad| | baab daad gaag ||
|| baad daag : gaab baad | daag gaad : baag gaab || || baadaag : gaabaad | daagaad : baagaab | daabaag : : gaadaab ||
|| baa daa : baad aa | baadaa : baaddaa ||
|| baa gaa : baag aa | baagaa : baaggaa ||
|| gaa baa : gaab aa | gaabaa: gaabbaa ||
|| daa gaa : daag aa | daagaa : daaggaa ||
$\|$ baad aa gaab aa | baadaa gaabaa | | baaddaa gaabbaa ||
|| baad gaab : baag daab | gaab daag: gaad baag ||

Ex. 9d.
|| au | bau | au aub | bau aub | bano ||
$\|$ au | dau | au aud | dau and | daud \|
|| au gau | au aug | gan aug | gaug ||
|| au au | bau bau | dau dau | gau gau ||
|| au au | aub aub | aud aud | aug aug ||
|| bau dau gau | au au au || bau gau dau | au au au
|| gau dau bau | gau bau dau | dau gau bau | | dau bau gau ||
|| bau dau gau | baub daud gaug | aub aud aug ||
$\|$ bau dau gau : dau gau bau | gau bau dau : bau dan gau ||
|| baub daud gaug|daud gaug baub|gaug baub daud
| baub daud gaug ||
|| baud daug : gaub baud | daug gaud : baug gaud
|| baudaug : gaubaud | daugaud : baugaub|daubaug : gaudaub ||
|| bau dau : baud au | baudau : bauddau ||
|| bau gau : baug au | baugau: bauggau ||
|| gau bau: gaub au | gaubau : gaubbau ||
|| dau gau : daug au | daugau : dauggau ||
$\|$ baud au gaub au | baudau gaubau |
| bauddau gaubbau ||
|| baud gaub : baug daub | gaub daug : gaud baug Ex. 9e.
|| oa | boa | oa oab | boa oab | boab ||
|| oa | doa | oa oad | doa oad | doad ||
|| oa | goa | oa, oag | goa oag | goag ||
|| oa oa | boa boa | doa doa | goa goa ||
|| oa oa | oab oab | oad oad | oag oag ||
|| boa doa goa | oa oa oa || boa goa doa | oz oa oa
|| goa doa boa | goa boa doa | doa goa boa | doa boa goa ||
|| boa doa goa | boab doad goag | oab oad oag ||
|| boa doa goa : doa goa boa | goa boa doa : boa doa goa ||
|| boab doad goag|doad goag boab|goag boab doad
| boab doad goag ||
|| boad doag : goab boad | doag goad : boag goab || || boadoag : goaboad | doagoad : boagoab | | doaboag : goadoab ||
| boa doa : boad oa | boadoa : boaddoa ||
|| boa goa : boag oa | boagoa : boaggoa ||
|| goa boa : goab oa | goaboa : goabboa ||
|| doa goa : doag oa | doagoa : doaggoa ||
|| boad oa goab oa | boadoa goaboa | | boaddoa goabboa ||
| boad goab : boag doab | goab doag : goad baog ||
Ex. $9 f$.
$\| 00$ | boo | oo oob | boo oob | boob ||
|| 00 | doo ! oo ood | doo ood | dood ||
|| oo | goo | 00 oog | goo 00g | goog ||
|| 00 oo | hoo boo | doo doo | goo goo ||
|| 0000 | oob oob | ood ood | oog 00 g ||
|| bon doo goo | 00 00 00 || boo goo doo | 000000 || || goo doo boo । goo boo doo | doo goo boo | | doo boo goo ||
|| boo doo goo | boob dood goog | oob ood oog || || boo doo goo : doo goo boo | goo boo doo : : boo doo goo ||
|| boob dood goog|dood goog boob|goog boob dood|
| boob dood goog ||
|| bood doog : goob bood | doog good : boog goob || $\|$ boodoog : goobood | doogood : boogoob | dooboog : goodoob ||
| boo doo : bood oo | boodoo : booddoo || | boo goo : boog oo | boogoo : booggoo ||
| goo boo : goob oo | gooboo : goobboo ||
| doo goo : doog oo | doogoo : dooggoo ||
|| bood oo goob oo | boodoo gooboo | booddoo goobboo || | bood goob : boog doob | goob doog : good boog ||

Ex. 10.-Mixed Glides for Mates and Sonants ompared.
pee bee : tee dee | kee gee : pee bee || eep eeb : eet eed | eek eeg : eep eeb ||
|| peed teeb : beet deep | teeg keed : keeb peeg \|| || peet deeb : heed teep | teek geed : keep beeg \| || pai bai : tai dai | kai gai : pai bai \||
|| aip aib : ait aid | aik aig : aip aib ||
|| paid taib : bait daip | taig kaid : kaib paig ||
|| pait daib : baid taip | taik gaid : kaip baig \|!
|| paa baa : taa daa | kaa gaa : paa baa ||
|| aap aab : aat aad | aak aag: aap aab \|
|| paad taab : baat daap | taag kaad : kaab paag \|
|| paat daab : baad taap | taak gaad : kaap baag ||
|| pau bau : tau dau | kau gau : pau bau \|| $\|$ aup aub : aut aud | auk aug : aup aub \| || paud taub : baut daup | taug kaud : kanb paug \|
|| paut daub: baud taup | tauk gaud : kaup baug \|
$\|$ poa boa : toa doa | koa goa : poa boa \|
|| oap oab : oat oad | oak oag : oap oab ||
|| poad toab : boat doap | toag koad : koab poag \| || poat doab : boad toap | toak goad : koap boag \||
|| poo boo : too doo | koo goo : poo boo ||
|| oop oob : oot ood | ook oog: oop oob ||
|| pood toob : boot doop | toog kood : koob poog ||
|| poot doob : bood toop | took good : koop boog ||
Great care is required in speaking or singing such combinations as peed teeb, peet deeb.

Ex. 11.-On the Effect of both Pitch and Glide on each Long Vowel.-Sing each of the following lines on each of the different notes of the descending scale, ending on the octave below the first. Sing first at the rate of one word and then at the rate of three words to a second. Vary the d to embrace the extreme tones of the voice.
|| peep teet keek | beeb deed geeg \|| On dl to d. || paip tait kaik | baib daid gaig || || paap taat kaak | baab daad gaag || || paup taut kauk | baub daud gaug || || poap toat koak | boab doad goag || " || poop toot kook | boob dood goog \| "

Ex. 12. On the Short Vowels, lengthened in singing.-Take Exercises 2 to 10 and in them substitute $i, e, a, o, u, u o$, for $e e, a i, a a, a u, o a, o o$ respectively.
Ex. $12 a$.
$\| \mathrm{i}|\mathrm{pi}| \mathrm{i}$ ip $|\mathrm{pi} \mathrm{ip}| \mathrm{pip} \|$
$\| \mathrm{i}|\mathrm{ti}| \mathrm{i}$ it $\mid \mathrm{ti}$ it $\mid \mathrm{tit} \|$
\| i $\mid$ ki| i ik | ki ik | kik \|
$\|i \mathrm{i}|\mathrm{pi} \mathrm{pi}| \mathrm{ti} \mathrm{ti} \mid \mathrm{ki} k i\|$
$\|i \operatorname{i}|\mathrm{ip} \mathrm{ip}| \mathrm{it} \mathrm{it\mid ik} \mathrm{ik}\|$
\|pitiki|i i i\|pi ki ti|iiin
\| ki ti pi|ki pi ti|ti ki pi|ti pi ki\|
|| pi ti ki | pip tit kik | ip it ik \||
\#pi ti ki : ti ki pi | ki pi ti : pi ti ki \|
| pip tit kik | tit kik pip | kik pip tit | pip tit kik ||
|| pit tik : kip pit | tik kit : pik kip ||
| pitik: kipit | tikit: pikip | tipik : kitip ||
$\| \mathrm{pi}$ ti : pit i| piti : pitti\|
$\|$ pi ki : pik i| piki : pikki.\|.
|| ki pi : kip i | kipi : kippi ||
\| ti ki : tik i | tiki : tikki\|
|| pit i kip i | piti kipi | pitti kippi ||
|| pit kip : pik tip | kip tik : kit pik \||
Ex. $12 b$.
$\|\operatorname{l}|\mathrm{pe}| \mathrm{e} \mathrm{ep}|\mathrm{pe} \mathrm{ep}| \mathrm{pep}\|$
$\| \theta \mid$ te $\mid \theta$ et |to et | tet \|
\|e | ke | e ek | ke ek | kek ||
|e elpe pe|te te|ke ke\|
$\mid \mathrm{e} \mathrm{e\mid} \mathrm{ep} \mathrm{ep} \mathrm{\mid} \mathrm{et} \mathrm{et} \mathrm{\mid} \mathrm{ek} \mathrm{ek} \mathrm{||}$
\|ipe te ke le ee\|pe ke te |e e e\|
$\|$ ke te pe|ke pe te | te ke pe|te pe ke \||
$\|$ pe te ke | pep tet kek | ep et ek \||
$\|$ pe te ke: te ke pe| ke pe te: pe te ke\|
\| pep tet kek \| tet kek pep | kek pep tet | | pep tet kek ||
| pet tek : kep pet | tek ket : pek kep |,
\| petek : kepet | teket : pekep | tepek : ketep ||
pe te : pet e | pete : pette \|
|| pe ke : pek e | peke pekke \|
|| ke pe: kep e | kepe: keppe \||
|| te ke: tek e| teke : tekke |
$\|$ pet e kep e | pete kepe | pette keppe |
\| pet kep : pek tep | kep tek : ket pek \|
Ex. 12 c.
\| a | pa | a ap | pa ap | pap \|
$\| \mathrm{a}|\mathrm{ta}| \mathrm{a}$ at | ta at | tat \|
\| a | ka | a ak | ka ak | kak \|
\|a a | pa pa|ta ta|ka ka \|
\| a a | ap ap | at at |ak ak \|
|| pa ta ka|a a a || pa ka ta|a a a \|
|| ka ta pa|ka pa ta|ta ka pa|ta pa ka ||
\|pa ta ka | pap tat kak | ap at ak \||
|| pa ta ka : ta ka ka|ka pa ta: pa ta ka ||
|| pap tat kak | tat kak pap | kak pap tat pap tat kak ||
i| pat tak : kap pat | tak kat : pak kap ||
|| patak : kapat | takat : pakap | tapak : katap ||
|| pa ta : pat a | pata : patta \|
î pa ka : pak a | paka : pakka ||
|| ka pa : kap a | kapa : kappa il
|| ta ka : tak a | taka : takka ||
|| pat a kap a | pata kapa | patta kappa ||
|| pat kap : pak tap | kap tak: kat pak \|
Ex. 12d.
$\| \circ$ | po|o op | po op | pop \|
$\|$ o| to $\mid 0$ ot | to ot | tot \|
\| \| \| ko | o ok | ko ok ! kok \|
$\| \mathrm{o}$ o| po po|to to | ko ko \|
$\| \circ \circ$ | op op | ot ot | ok ok \|
$\|$ po to ko| 000 || po ko toloool|
|| ko to po|ko po to | to ko po|to po ko il
|| po to ko | pop tot kok | op ot ok \||
|| po to ko: to ko po | ko po to : po to ko \|
$\|$ pop tot kok | tot kok pop | kok pop tot |
| pop tot kok ||
\| pot tok: kop pot | tok kot: pok kop \|
|| potok : kopot | tokot : pokop | topok : kotop ||
|| po to : pot o| poto : potto :
|| po ko : pok o | poko : pokko ||
|| ko po: kop o| kopo : koppo ||
|| to ko : tok o| toko : tokko ||
|| pot o kop o | poto kopo | potto koppo ||
|| pot kop : pok tok | kop tok : kot pok ||
Ex. $12 e$.
$\|\mathrm{u}|\mathrm{pu}| \mathrm{u} u p|\mathrm{pu} u p| \mathrm{pup}\|$
|| u | tu | u ut | tu ut | tut \|
$\|\mathrm{u}|\mathrm{ku}| \mathrm{u} \mathrm{uk}|\mathrm{ku} \mathrm{uk}| \mathrm{kuk}\|$
\| u u | pu pu|tu tu | ku ku \|
\| u u | up up | ut ut | uk uk \|
\|pu tu ku|u u u \| pu ku tu|u u u \|
$\|$ ku tu pu|ku pu tu | tu ku pu | tu pu ku \|
\| pu tu ku | pup tut kuk | up ut uk \|
\| pu tu ku: tu ku pu | ku pu tu | pu tu ku \|| \| pup tut kuk \| tut kuk pup \| kuk pup tut |
| pup tut kuk ||
|| put tuk : kup put | tuk kut : puk kup \|
|| putuk : kuput | tukut: pukup | tupuk : kutup ||
|| pu tu : put u | putu puttu \||
|| pu ku : puk u | puku pukku |'
\| ku pu : kup u | kupu kuppu \|
|| tu ku : tuk u | tuku : tukku \|
|| put u kup u | putu kupu | puttu kuppu ||
\|p put kup : puk tup | kup tuk : kut puk ||
Ex. $12 f$.
|| uo | puo | uo uop | puo uop | puop || || uo | tuo | uo uot | tuo uot | tuot || || uo | kuo | no uok | kuo uok | kuok || || uo uo | puo puo | tuo tuo | kuo kuo || || uo uo | uop uop | uot uot | uok uok || || puo tuo kuo | no no uo || puo kuo tuo | wo no no \|| || kuo tuo puo | kuo puo tuo | tuo kuo puo | | tuo puo kuo ||
|| puo tuo kuo | puop tuot kuok | uop uot uok || $\|$ puo tuo kuo : tuo kuo puo | kuo puo tuo: : puo tuo kuo ||
|| puop tuot kuok|troot kuok puop| kuop puop tuot| | puop tuot kuok ||
|| puot tuok : kuop puot | tuok kuot : puok kuop || || puotuok : kuopuot | tuokuot : puokuop | | tuopuok: kuotuop ||
|| puo tuo : puot uo | puotuo : puottuo ||
|| puo kuo : puok uo | puokuo puokkuo ||
|| kuo puo: kuop uo | kuopuo: kuoppuo ||
|| tuo kuo : tuok uo | tuokuo : tuokkuo ||
|| puot uo kuop uo | puotuo kuopuo : | puottuo kuoppuo ||
|| puot kuop : puok tuop | kuop tuok : kuot puok ||
Ex. $12 g$.
|| pi te ka | po tu kuo || pip tet kak | pop tut kuok \|| \| pi pe pa|po pu puo|ip ep ap | op up uop \|
$\|$ ti te ta | to tu tuo | it et at | ot ut uot \|
|| ki ke ka | ko ku kuo | ik ek ak | ok uk uok \||
|| pi ti ki | pe te ke | pa ta ka | pu tu ku | | puo tuo kuo ||
| petik ka | e petka | kop utuo | takkappa ||
Ex. $12 h$.
$\|\mathrm{i}|\mathrm{bi}| \mathrm{i} \mathrm{ib}|\mathrm{bi} \mathrm{ib}| \mathrm{bib}\|$
\|i| di|i id | di id | did \|
\|ilgili ig |gi ig | gig \|
$\|i \operatorname{i}|\mathrm{bi} \mathrm{bi}| \mathrm{di} \mathrm{di} \mid \mathrm{gi} \mathrm{gi}\|$

$\|$ bi di gi|i i i $\|$ bi gi di|iiin $\|$
\# gi di bi ${ }^{\text {gi bi di }}$ di gi bi | di bi gi \|
|| bi di gi | bib did gig | ib id ig ||
|| bi di gi : di gi bi | gi bi di : bi di gi\|
|| bib did gig | did gig bib | gig bib did | | bib did gig ||
|| bid dig : gib bid | dig gid : big gib ||
|| bidig : gibid | digid : bigib | dibig : gidib \|
|| bi di : bid i | bidi : biddi ||
|| bi gi : big i | bigi : biggi ||
$\|$ gi bi : gib i | gibi : gibbi \|
|| di gi • dig i | digi : diggi ||
|| bid i gib i | bidi gibi | biddi gibbi ||
|| bid gib : big dib | gib dig : gid big ||

Ex. $12 i$.
$\| \mathrm{e}$ | be | e eb | be eb | beb \|
$\|$ e| de |e ed | de ed | ded $\|$
|| e| ge|e eg | ge eg | geg ||
$\| \mathrm{e}$ e | be be $\mid$ de de | ge ge \|
$\|\mathrm{e} \mathrm{e}|\mathrm{eb} \mathrm{eb}| \mathrm{ed} \mathrm{ed} \mid \mathrm{eg} \mathrm{eg}\|$
$\|$ ge de ge|e e e\|be ge de|e e e\|
$\|$ ge de be | ge be de | de ge be | de be ge \|
$\|$ be de ge | beb ded geg | eb ed eg \|
|| be de ge: de ge be | ge be de : be de ge \|
$\|$ beb ded geg | ded geg beb $\mid$ geg beb ded |
| beb ded geg ||
|| bed deg : keb bed | deg ged : beg geb ||
|| bedeg : gebed | deged : begeb | debeg : gedeb \|
|| be de : bed e | bede : bedde \|
|| be ge: beg e | bege begge ||
|| ge be : geb e | gebe : gebhe \||
|| de ge : deg e | dege : degge ||
|| bed e geb e | bede gebe | bedde gebbe ||
$\|$ bed geb: beg deb | geb deb : ged beg \||
Ex. 12j.
$\|\mathrm{a}|\mathrm{ba}| \mathrm{a} \mathrm{ab}|\mathrm{ba} \mathrm{ab}| \mathrm{bab}\|$
\| a $\mid$ da $\mid \mathrm{a}$ ad | da ad | dad \|
\|| a | ga | a ag |ga ag | gag \|
|| a a | ba ba|da da|ga ga \||
$\|\mathrm{a} a|\mathrm{ab} \mathrm{ab}| \mathrm{ad} \mathrm{ad} \mid \mathrm{ag} \mathrm{ag}\|$
|| ba da ga|a a a || ba ga da|a a a ||
|| ga da ba|ga ba da|da ga ba|da ba ga \|
|| ba da ga | bab dad gag | ab ad ag ||
V ba da ga: da ga ba|ga ba da : ba da ga ||
|| bab dad gag | dad gag bab|gag bab dad | bab dad gag ${ }^{\|}$
|| bad dag : gab bad | dag gad : bag gab \|
|| badag : gabad | dagad : bagab | dabag : gadab \|
|| ba da : bad a | bada : badda ||
|| ba ga : bag a | baga : bagga ||
|| ga ba : gab a | gaba : gabba \||
|| da ga : dag a | daga : dagga ||
|| bad a gab a | bada gaba | badda gabba ||
\| bad gab : bay dab|gab dag : gad bag \||
Ex. 12k.
$\| \mathrm{o}|\mathrm{bo}| \mathrm{o}$ ob| bo ob|bob \|
|| o | do |o od | do od | dod \|
\| o \| go \| o og | go og | gog \|
$\| \mathrm{o}$ o| bo bo|do do|go go \|
$\|$ o o | ob ob | od od | of og \|
|| bo do go|o oo || bo go do| 0 ool|
|| go do bo | go bo do | do go bo | do bo go \||
|| bo do go | bob dod gog | ob od og ||
\| bo do go : do go bo | go bo do : bo do go \| || bob dod gog | dod gog bob | gog bob dod | bob dod gog ||
\|| bod dog : gob bod | dog. god : bog gob \|i
|| bodog : gobod | dogod : bogob | dobog : godob
|| bo do : bod o| bodo : boddo ||
|| bo go : bog o | bogo : boggo ||
|| go bo : gob o | gobo : gobbo ||
|| do go : dog o | dogo : doggo ||
|| bod o gob o | bodo gobo | boddo gobbo ||
|| bod gob : bog dob | gob dog : god bog ||
Ex. $12 l$.
|| $\mathrm{u}|\mathrm{bu}| \mathrm{u} u \mathrm{u}|\mathrm{bu} \mathrm{ub}| \mathrm{bub} \|$
\| u | du | u ud | du ud | dud \|
|| ugu | u ug | gu ug | gug \|
\| $\mathrm{u} u$ | $\mathrm{bu} \mathrm{bu}|\mathrm{du} \mathrm{du}| \mathrm{gugu} \mathrm{g} \|$
\| u u | ub ub | ud ud | ug ug \|
\| bu du gu | u u u \| bu gudu | u u u \|
$\| g u$ du bu | gu bu du | du gu bu | du bu gu *
|| bu du gu | bub dud gug | ub ud ug ||
$\|$ bu du gu: du gu bu | gu bu du: bu du gu \|
\| bub dud gug | dud gug bub \| gug bub dud |
| bub dud gug ||
|| bud dug : gub bud | dug gud : bug gub \|
|| budug : gubud| dugud : bugub | dubug : gudub ||
|| bu du : bud u | budu : buddu ||
|| bu gu : bug u | bugu : buggu ||
\| gu bu: gub u | gubu: gubbu \|
| du gu: dug u | dugu : duggu ||
|| bud u gub u | budu gubu | buddu gubbu ||
|| bud gub : bug dub | gub dug : gud bug ||

Ex. $12 m$.
|| no | buo | uo uob | buo uob | buob ||
|| uo | duo | uo uod | duo uod | duod ||
|| uo | guo | uo uog | guo uog | guog ||
|| uo uo | buo buo | duo duo | guo guo ||
|| uo uo | uob uob | uod uod | uog uog ||
|| buo duo guo| wo no no || buo guo duo | wo no no \||
|| guo duo buo | guo buo duo | duo guo buo |
| duo buo guo ||
|| buo duo guo | buob duod guog | uob uod uog ||.
|| buo duo guo : duo guo buo | guo buo duo:
: buo duo guo ||
|| buob duod guog|duod guog buob|guog buob duod| | buob duod guog ||
|| buod duog : guob buod | duog guod : buog guob || || buoduog : guobuod | duoguod : buoguob | | duobung : guoduob ||
|| buo duo : buod uo | buoduo : buodduo ||
|| buo guo : buog uo | buoguo : buogguo ||
|| guo buo: guob uo | guobuo : guobbuo ||
|| duo guo : duog uo | duoguo : duogguo ||
$\|$ briod uo guob uo | buoduo guobuo | | buodduo guobbuo ||
\| buod guob : buog duob | guob duog : guod buog \|

Ex. $12 n$.
$\|$ pi bi : ti di|ki gi : pi bi \|
$\| \mathrm{ip}$ ib : it id | ik ig : ip ib\| \| pid tib : bit dip | tig kid : kib pig \|
|| pit dib : bid tip | tik gid : kip big \||
$\|$ pe be : te de| ke ge : pe be \|
$\|$ ep eb : et ed | ek eg : ep eb \|
$\|$ ped teb : bet dep | teg ked : keb peg \|
$\|$ pet deb: bed tep | tek ged : kep beg \|
\|pa ba : ta da|ka ga : pa ba \|
$\| \mathrm{ap} \mathrm{ab}:$ at ad |ak ag : ap ab \|
|| pad tab : bat dap | tag kad : kab pag \|
|| pat dab: dad tap | tak gad : kap bag ||
|| po bo : to do | ko go : po bo \||
\| op ob : ot od | ok og : op ob \|
|| pod tob : bot dop | tog kod : kob pog \||
|| pot dob : bod top | tok god : kop bog \||
§ pu bu : tu du | ku gu: pu bu \||
\| up ub: ut ud | uk ug: up ub \|
|| pud tub : but dup | tug kud : kub pug \|
\| put dub : bud tup | tuk gud : kup bug \| \| puo buo : tuo duo | kuo guo : puo buo \| || uop uob : not uod | uok uog : uop uob \|| || puod tuob : buot duop | tuog kuod : kuob puog \| $\|$ puot duob: buod tuop | tuok guod : kuop buog \|
Ex. 13. On the Hisses.-Care has to be taken to make the Hisses short and distinct, and the Glides tight. The following are mere specimens of what can be formed from the Chart.
\|fee fai faa | fau foa foo | eef aif aaf | auf oaf oof \| \|fi fe fa | fo fu fuo | if ef af | of uf uof \| || thee thai thaa | thau thoa thoo | eeth aith aath | | auth oath ooth ||
|| see sai saa | sau soa soo | ees ais aas | aus oas oos \|
|| si se sa | so su suo | is es as | os us uos ||
|| shee shai shaa | shau shoa shoo | eesh aish aash | | aush oash oosh ||
$\|$ whee whai whaa I whau whoa whoo I | whi whe wha | who whu whuo ||
|| peep whif | tait ses | kaak shash | paup whof | | toat sus | kook shuof ||
il wheefai pauth | whaifi poth | whot eep aath | | paisee shaa ||
|| shees seesh sis | thauf thoath sooth | | faash saash shaas ||

Ex. 14. On the Buzzes as contrasted with Hisses, Mutes, and Sonants.-Care must be taken to make the Buzzes distinct, not to begin with flatus, as szee, and especially not to end with flatus, as eezs. Great difficulty will be felt in this respect when Buzzes follow Hisses, as in iz shee, or when Hisses precede Buzzes, as ees zee. When any Buzzes end one group and begin the next, as in $z u z z h u o z h$, rapid utterance becomes even more difficult than for Hisses as sus shuosh, or Sonants as bub guog, or Mutes as pup kuok. Hence the necessity for constant repetition. The Exercise which follows, long as it may appear, gives no more than a hint of what is required.
$\|$ wee wai waa | vee vai vaa \| wau woa woo | | vau voa voo ||
\| whee wee : fee vee | whai wai : fai vai | | whau wau : fau vau ||
|| see sai saa : sau soa soo|zee zai zaa : zau zoa zoo || || see zee zee see : zai sai sai zai | see zau zee sau : : soa soa zoa zoa | zoo see zee soo : : zaa zaa saa zaa ||
|| is zi dhoa : dhiz is aaz | whee fee thee : : wai vai dhai ||
\| iz ez az : oz uz uoz | izh ezh azh : ozh uzh uozh \|| $\|$ ith ef adh ov : idh ev ath of | ith idh if iv: : ish is izh iz \|I
|| thith theth thath | thauth thoath thooth | Idhidh dhedh dhadh | dhaudh dhoadh dhoodh || || thith dheedh : theth dhaidh | thath dhaadh : : thauth dhaudh|thoath dhoadh: thooth dhoodh \| sheesh zhizh : shaish zhezh \| shaash zhazh : : shaush zhozh | shoash zhuzh : shoosh zhuozh ||
|| wishi woshi : whithi whothi | vifi vofi : fidhi fodhi \|
|| dhizi dhoa ... : thasi thau ... | sathi safi: zadhi zavi $\|$
|| dhaazhai thaishaa : shaizhaa dharzai \|
|| shithi shiththi : zidhi zidhdhi | sozaa sozzaa : : shozhaa shozhzhaa |favoa favvoa : vafoa vaffoal| \|| pee bee whee wee fee vee|pai bai whai wai fai vai| paa baa whaa waa faa vaa | pau bau whau wau fau vau | poa boa whoa woa foa roa | | poo boo whoo woo foo voo ||
|| tee see thee: dee zee dhee|tai sai thai : dai zai dhai| | taa saa thaa : daa zaa dhaa | tau sau thau : : dau zau dhau | toa soa thoa : doa zoa dhoa I | too soo thoo : doo zoo dhoo ||
|| kee gee shee zhee : kai gai shai zhai । | kaa gaa shaa zhaa : kau gau shau zhau | | koa goa shoa zhoa: koo goo shoo zhoo ||
$\|$ pip bib fif viv $\mid$ pep beb fef vev | pap bab faf vav pop bob fof vov | pup bub fuf vuv | ! puop buob fuof ruov \|
|| tit sis thith : did ziz dhidh | tet ses theth : : ded zez dhedh | tat sas thath : dad zaz dhadh | |tot sos thoth : dod zoz dhodh | tut sus thuth: : dud zuz dhudh ${ }^{-} \mid$tuot suos thuoth: : duod zuoz dhuodh ||
$\|$ kik gig shish zhizh : kek geg shesh zhezh |kak gag shash zhazh : kok gog shosh zhozh |kukgugshushzhuzh:kuok guog shuoshzhuozh|| Endless examples of this kind can be constructed from the first three lines of the Chart, by taking the same vowel throughout the lines, omitting first final and then initial consonant, and transposing the order. The object is to contrast Glides, Hissez, Buzzes, Mutes, and Sonants, and to bring any one next to any other, that all may be taken easily at all pitches, and that no more flatus, hiss or buzz, be allowed to escape than is necessary for understanding the differences of the sounds.

Ex. 15. On the Diphthongs [ei, oi, ou eu].The object is to see that these diphthongs are pronounced and sung correctly. Take care that, in speaking, ei never becomes broader than aay, and try to keep it to $a^{\prime} y$ or $u y$, with the first element very short, and the glide distinct and tight, and the last element prolonged if necessary. But in singing, the first element must be lengthened and the dipathongal effect shewn by the tight glide at the end, the last element being $i$ and always short. The singer may use $a h$, $a a$, or $a$ for his first element, and even vary them during singing, as may be convenient for the pitch. The last element may also be $i$ or $e e$, as may be convenient for the pitch.
The diphthong ou in speaking should never be broader than aaw: endeavour to keep it to $a^{\prime} w$ or $u w$. The first element should be short, glide tight, and the last element uo, and long if required. In singing, use $a h, a a, a^{\prime}$ for first and $u s$ or oo for last element, as convenience of pitch may require. But never use oa, $a 0, a u$, or even $u u$, and still less $a i, e, a e, a$, for the first element. The tirst element is to be treated as that of $e i$.
The diphthong oi may always be sung as auy. The first element is often inordinately lengthened in music. But care must be taken to make the glide tight at the end, so as to avoid any appearance of two syllables; that is, sing rijau'rss (rejoice) with the au as long as you please, but not rijau-is without the glide, which will assuredly be said if breath is taken just at is.

The diphthong $e u$ has to be spoken and sung as a real diphthong $\check{0} 00$ or iuo after consonants, and is better so sung at the beginning of words, but it is then spoken as yoo, yuo, and sometimes yı̆oo, y̌u $u$.

Atteud to all these points.
Sing the three first lines of the Chart with ei, oi, $o u, e u$, in place of the vowels written, and practise very slow and very fast. Thus-
$\|$ pei $|-\mathrm{p}|$ tei $|-\mathrm{t}|$ kei $\mid-\mathrm{t} \| \& \mathrm{c}$.
sung as $\mid$ paa $\mid$-rp $\mid$ or $\left|p a^{\prime}\right|-\mathrm{rp} \mid \& c$. ., or with pitch rising from very low to high $\mid$ pah-: aa -1 $|a,-:-\mathrm{Ip}| \& c$. , and similarly for the rest. Then sing very quickly as |pei tei kei : bei dei gei|
\&c., | eip eit eik : eib eid eig |, and lastly try | peip teit keik : beib deid geig| and so on. Thus|| pei $\mid$ - p | tei $\mid$ - $\mathrm{t} \mid$ kei $\mid$ - $\mathrm{t} \mid$ bei $\mid$ - $\mathrm{b} \mid$ |deid | - d | gei | -g ||
$\|$ whei $|-f|$ sei $|-s|$ shei $\mid$-sh $\mid$ wei $|-v|$ $|z e i-|z|$ zhei $|-z h| |$
|| fei $|-\mathrm{f}|$ thei $\mid$ - th $\mid$ vei $|-\mathrm{v}|$ dhei $|-\mathrm{dh}| \mid$ \| pei tei kei : bei dei gei | whei sei shei : : wei zei zhei | fei fei thei : vei vei dhei ||
$\|$ eip eit eik : eib eid eig | eif eis eish :. eiv eiz eizh | | eif eith eith : eiv eidh eidh ||
\| peip teit keik: beib deid geig | wheif seis sheish : : weiv zeiz zheizh | feif theith theith : : veiv dheidh dheidh ||
$\|$ poi $|-\mathrm{p}|$ toi $|-\mathrm{t}|$ koi $|-\mathrm{t}|$ boi $|-\mathrm{b}|$ $\mid$ doi $|-\mathrm{d}|$ goi $\mid-\mathrm{g} \|$
$\|$ whoi $|-f|$ soi $|-s|$ shoi $\mid-$ sh $\mid$ woi $|-\mathrm{v}|$ $|\mathrm{zoi}|-\mathrm{z}|\mathrm{zhoi}|-\mathrm{zh} \|$
$\|$ foi $\mid$ - $\mathrm{f} \mid$ thoi $\mid$ - th $\mid$ voi $|-\mathrm{v}|$ dhoi $\mid$-dh $\|$ || poi toi koi: boi doi goi|whoi soi shoi: woi zoi zhoi| |foi foi thoi : voi voi dhoi ||
|| oip oit oik : oib oid oig | oif ois oish : oiv oiz oizh | | oif oith oith : oiv oidh oidh .|
|| poip toit koik: boib doid goig| whoif sois shoish : : woiv zoiz zhoizh | foif thoith thoith : : voiv dhoidh dhoidh \|I
$\|$ pou $|-\mathrm{p}|$ tou $|-\mathrm{t}|$ kou $|-\mathrm{t}|$ bou $|-\mathrm{b}|$ | dou | - d | gou | g ||
$\|$ whou $|-f|$ sou $|-s|$ shou $\mid-$ sh $\mid$ wou $|-v|$ |zou |-z| zhou | - zh ||
$\|$ fou $|-\mathrm{f}|$ thou $\mid-$ th $\mid$ vou $|-\mathrm{v}|$ dhou $\mid-\mathrm{dh} \|$ $\|$ pou tou kou : bou dou gou | whou sou shou: : wou zou zhou ! fou fou thou : vou vou dhou \| $\|$ oup out ouk : oub oud oug | ouf ous oush : : ouv ouz ouzh | ouf outh outh : ouv oudh oudh || || poup tout kouk : boub doud goug | whouf sous shoush : wouv zouz zhouzh | fouf thouth thouth : vouv dhoudh dhoudh \|
$\|$ peu $|-\mathrm{p}|$ teu $|-\mathrm{t}|$ keu $|-\mathrm{t}|$ beu $|-\mathrm{b}|$ $\mid$ deu $|-\mathrm{d}|$ geu $\mid-\mathrm{g} \|$
$\|$ wheu $|-f|$ seu $|-s|$ sheu $\mid-$ sh $\mid$ weu $|-v|$ |zeu | - z | zheu | - zh ||
$\|$ feu $|-\mathrm{f}|$ theu $\mid$ - th $\mid$ veu $|-\mathrm{v}|$ dheu-dh $\|$ || peu teu keu : beu deu geu | wheu seu sheu :
: weu zeu zheu ! feu feu theu: veu veu dheu \||
$\|$ eup eut euk : eub eud eug $\mid$ euf eus eush :
: euv euz euzh | euf euth euth : euv eudh eudh || $\|$ peup teut keuk : beub deud geug | wheuf seus sheush : weuv zeuz zheuzh | feuf theuth theuth : : veuv dheudh dheudh ||

Ex. 16. On the Aspirate.-Use the jerked clear attack only in singing; in speaking either the jerked clear or jerked gradual attack may be used.
Speak and sing the first three lines of the Chart (except the last word) with the aspirate substituted for the initial consonant, and first with the final consonant omitted, and secondly with it added. The rate may be always rapid, as the effect of the jerk is almost instantaneous. Thus-
|| hee hai haa: hau hoa hoo | hi he ha : ho hu huol |hei hoi hou : hei hoi hou ||
|| heep hait haak : haub hoad hood | hif hes hash:
: huv huz huozh | heif hoith houth : : heiv hoidh houdh ||
The aspirate before $e u$ is easy when $e u$ is taken as ${ }^{2} 00$, thus $h \check{o} o o$; but if $e u$ is taken as yoo, y̌uo, then the aspiration generates the hiss $y h$. And this yheu, meaning yhoo or yhǐoo, must be practised with all the consonants following, as
|| yheup yheut yheuk | yheub yheud yheug |
|yheuf yheus yheush | yheuv yheuz yheuzh ||
Ex. 17. On the Vanishes [ai'y, oa•w].-The object is to contrast these with the pure vowels $a i$, oa. In taking the pure vowels $a i$, oa, there should be no tendency to end with $\check{\imath}$ or $\check{u} 0$, and in taking the vanishes $a i \cdot y, o a \cdot w$, there should be no tendency to fall into diphthongs like ei, ou, either in speaking or singing. This exercise is intended to guard the singer against taking the vanishes.

They shonld never be used in singing actual words. The singer may take $e, a o$ for $a i$, oa, not only for convenience of pitch but as a safeguard against the vanishes. Take the three first lines of the Chart, and substitute alternately $a i, a i \cdot y$, and then alternately $o a^{\circ}, o a^{*} w$ for the vowels, first omitting and then retaining the final or initial consonants, and then taking both, as -
|| pai• pai'y | tai• tai'y | kai• kai•y | bai• bai•y | |dai dai $\cdot$ |gai gair $y$ |whai $\cdot$ whai $\cdot y \mid$ shai $\cdot$ shai $\cdot y$ | |wai $\cdot$ wai'y | zai zai $\cdot \mathrm{y} \mid$ zhai $\cdot$ zhai $\cdot \mathrm{y}$ | fai fai y | |thai• thai'y | vai• vai'y | dhai• dhai'y ||
|| ai p ai $\cdot \mathrm{yp} \mid$ ai $\cdot \mathrm{t}$ ai $\cdot \mathrm{yt} \mid$ ai $\cdot \mathrm{k}$ ai $\cdot \mathrm{yk} \mid \mathrm{ai} \cdot \mathrm{b}$ ai $\cdot \mathrm{yb}$ | |ai•d ai $\cdot \mathrm{yd} \mid \mathrm{ai} \cdot \mathrm{g}$ ai•yg|ai•f ai•yf|ai's ai•ys |ai $\cdot$ sh ai $\cdot \mathrm{ysh} \mid a i \cdot v$ ai $\cdot \mathrm{yv}$ |ai'z ai $\cdot \mathrm{yz} \mid$ ai'zh ai $\cdot \mathrm{yzh}$ | |ai'th ai $\cdot \mathrm{yth} \mid \mathrm{ai} \cdot d \mathrm{dh}$ ai $\cdot \mathrm{ydh}$.
|| pai'p pai'yp | tai't tai'yt | kai'k kai'yk |bai•b bai•yb | dai•d dai•yd | gai•g gai'yg | |whai'f whai'yf | sai•s sai•ys | shai'sh shai'ysh | |whai'v whai'yv|zai'z zai'yz| zhai'zh zhai'yzh i |fai•f fai yf | thai th thai $\cdot \mathrm{yth}$ | vai•v vai•yv | dhai dh dhai $\cdot \mathrm{ydh}$ ||
|| poa' poa $\cdot$ w | toa $\cdot$ toa $\cdot \mathrm{w}|\mathrm{koa} \cdot \mathrm{koa} \cdot \mathrm{w}|$ boa $\cdot$ boa $\cdot \mathrm{w}$ |doa• doa'w | goa goa'w | whoa• whoa'w |shoa shoa'w | woa woa'w | zoa zoa'w |zhoa zhoa•w | foa foa $\cdot$ | thoa thoa w |voa• voa'w | dhoa• dhoa'w ||
|| oa'p oa•wp | oa't oa•wt | oa•k oa•wk | oa•b oa•wb | $\mathrm{oa} \cdot \mathrm{d}$ oa $\cdot \mathrm{wd} \mid \mathrm{oa} \cdot \mathrm{g}$ oa• $\mathrm{wg} \mid \mathrm{oa} \cdot \mathrm{f}$ oa•wf | oa•s oa•ws loa'sh oa•wsh | oa•v oa•wv | oa:z oa•wz |oa'zh oa'wzh |oa'th oa•wth | oa•dh oa•wdh || poa•p poa•wp | toa't toa•wt ! koa'k koa•wk |boa•b boa•wb | doa•d doa'wd | goa•g goa•wg |whoa•f whoa'wf|soa's soa'ws $;$ shoa sh shoa $\cdot \mathrm{wsh}$ |whoa'v whoa'wv|zoa'zzoa'wz|zhoa'zh zhoa'wzh| |foa'f foa•wf | thoa'th thoa'wth | voa'v voa'wv |dhoa•dh dhoa'wdh ||
Conclude by singing over the first four lines of the Chart many times to various airs.

Ex. 18. On the Compound Hisses and Buzzes [ch, j.]-These are generally pronounced easily. The only difficulties arise from rapidity, and the necessity of shortening the final hiss or buzz in singing. In the first three lines of the Chart use first $c h$ and then $j$ in place of the initial, and then in place of the final consonant, first omitting and then inserting the other consonant. Thus-
$\|$ chee chai chaa : chau choa choo $\mid$ chi che cha: : cho chu chuo | chei choi chou : cheu cheu cheu || $\|$ eech aich aach : auch oach ooch | ich ech ach: och uch uoch |eich oich ouch : euch euch euch || $\|$ cheep chait chaak : chaub choad choog | |chif shes chash : chov chuz chuozh | cheif choith chouv : cheudh cheudh cheudh ||
$\|$ peech taich kaach : bauch doach gooch | |which sech shach : woch zuch zhuoch | |feich thoich vouch : dheuch dheuch dheuch || || jee jai jaa: jau joa joo | ji je ja: jo ju juo | | jei joi jou : jeu jeu jeu ||
|| eej aij aaj : auj oaj ooj | ij ej aj : oj uj uoj | |eij oij ouj : euj euj euj ||
|| jeep jait jaak : jaub joad joog | jif jes jash : : jov juz juozh | jeif joith jouv : jeudh jeudh jeudh ||
|| peej taij kaaj : bauj doaj gooj| whij sej shaj : : woj zuj zhuoj | feij thoij vouj : dheuj dheuj dheuj ||
Sing over the first five lines of the Chart to various airs.

Ex. 19. On the Vocals [1, m, n, ng.]-As ng is only used final, and only after short vowels (in English and German), it may be taken separately and first. Take care that no $g$ or $k$ creeps in after $n g$, and that the nasal sound itself is never prolonged.
|| ing eng ang : ong ung uong || ping peng pang :
: pong pung puong | bing beng bang:
: bong bung buong || ting teng tang :
: tong tung tuong $~ \| ~ d i n g ~ d e n g ~ d a n g ~: ~$ : dong dung duong || king keng kang :
: kong kung kuong | ging geng gang :
: gong gung guong || fing feng fang :
: fong fung fuong | ving veng vang :
: vong vung vuong || sing seng sang :
: song sung suong | zing zeng zang : : zong zung zuong \| shing sheng shang : : shong shung shuong | zhing zheng zhang:
: zhong zhung zhuong \| thing theng thang :
: thong thung thuong / dhing dheng dhang :
: dhong dhung dhuong || ping | tang|kong |sung ||
The same Exercise may then be taken with $l, m$ or $n$ in place of $n g$; and then with the substitution of $e e, a i, a a, a u, o a, o o$, for $i, e, a, o, u, u o$; and then with the substitution of $l, m$ or $n$ for the initial consonants. This gives the following series of Exercises : -
|| il el al : ol ul uol || pil pel pal : pol pul puol | |bil bel bal: bol bul buol || til tel tal: tol tul tuol| |dil del dal : dol dul duol || kil kel kal : : kol kul kuol | gil gel gal : gol gul guol \|f $\|$ fil fel fal : fol ful fuol | vil vel val: : vol vul vuol || sil sel sal : sol sul suol | | zil zel zal : zol zul zuol || shil shel shal : : shol shul shuol | zhil zhel zhal : zhol zhul zhuol || $\|$ thil thel thal : thol thul thuol | dhil dhel dhal: : dhol dhul dhuol || pil | tal | kol | sul ||
$\|$ eel ail aal : aul oal ool || peel pail paal: : paul poal pool ; beel bail baal : baul boal bool II: $\|$ teel tail taal : taul toal tool $\mid$ deel dail daal : : daul doal dool || keel kail kaal : kaul koal kool | | geel gail gaal : gaul goal gool || feel fail faal : : faul foal fool | veel vail vaal : vaul voal vool || $\|$ seel sail saal : saul soal sool | zeel zail zaal : :zaul zoal zool || sheel shail shaal: shaul shoal shool| | zheel zhail zhaal : zhaul zhoal zhool ||
$\|$ theel thail thaal : thaul thoal thool | | dheel dhail dhaal : dhaul dhoal dhool || || peel | taal | kaul | soal ||
\|im em am : om um uom | pim pem pam: : pom pum puom|bim bem bam: bom bum buom\||| $\|$ tim tem tam : tom tum tuom | dim dem dam : : dom dum duom ||kim kem kam: kom kum kuom| | gim gem gam : gom gum guom || fim fem fam : : fom fum fuom | vim vem vam: vom vum vuom || $\|$ sim sem sam : som sum suom | zim zem zam : : zom zum zuom || shim shem sham : shom shum shuom | zhim zhem zham : zhom zhum zhuom || || thim them tham : thom thum thuom | $\|$ dhim dhem dham : dhom dhum dhuom \| || pim | tam | kom | sum ||
|| eem aim aam : aum oam oom \| peem paim paam : : paum poam poom | beem baim baam :
: baum boam boom || teem taim taam : : taum toam toom | deem daim daam : : daum doam doom || keem kaim kaam : : kaum koam koom | geem gaim gaam :
: gaum goam goom || feem faim faam : : faum foam foom | veem vaim vaam : : vaum voam voom || seem saim saam : : saum soam soom | zeem zaim zaam : : zaum zoam zoom || sheem shaim shaana : : shaum shoam shoom | zheem zhaim zhaam :
: zhaum zhoam zhoom || theem thaim thaam : : thaum thoam thoom | dheem dhaim dhaam : : dhaum dhoam dhoom || peem | taam | kaum | | soam ||
\# in en an : on un uon $\|$ pin pen pan: pon pun puon $\mid$ | bin ben ban: bon bun buon $\|$ tin ten tan: : ton tun tuon | din den dan: don dun duon || || kin ken kan : kon kun kuon | gin gen gan: : gon gun guon $\|$ fin fen fan: fon fun fuon | i vin ven van : von vun vuon \| sin sen san :
: son sun suon | zin zen zair : zon zun zuon || || shin shen shan : shon shun shuon | zhin zhen zhan : zhon zhun zhuor $\|$ thin then than : thon thun thuon | dhin dhen dhan : dhon dhun dhuon || || pin | tan | kon | sun ||
$\|$ een ain aan : aun oan oon $\|$ peen pain paan : : paun poan poon | been bain baan : : baun boan boon $\|$ teen tain taan: taun toan toon | | deen dain daan : daun doan doon || || keen kain kaan : kaun koan koon | | geen gain gaan : gaun goan goon || || feen fain faan: faun foan foon | veen vain vaan: : vaun voan voon $\|$ seen sain saan : saun soan soon | zeen zain zaan : zaun zoan zoon || $\|$ sheen shain shaan : shaun shoan shoon | | zheen zhain zhaan : zhaun zhoan zhoon || $\|$ theen thain thaan : thaun thoan thoon | | dheen dhain dhaan : dhaun dhoan dhoon || || peen | taan | kaun | soan ||
|| lil lel lal : lol lul luol || leel lail laal: laul loal lool|| $\|$ mil mel mal : mol mul muol || meel mail maal : : maul moal mool || nil nel nal : nol nul nuol id || neel nail naal : naul noal nool || lin len lan: : lon lun luon || leen lain laan : laun loan loon || $\|$ min men man : mon mun muon \| $\|$ meen main maan : maun moan moon \| If nin nen nan : non nun nuon $\|$ neen nain naan : : naun noan noon ||
|| ling leng lang : long lung luong ||
|| ming meng mang : mong mung muong ||
|| ning neng nang : nong nung nuong ||
Sing the first six lines of the Chart many times over to various airs.

Ex. 20. On the 1 rill [ $\left.\mathrm{r}^{\prime}\right]$ and Vocal [r].-The trilled $r^{\prime}$ at the beginning of words is easy to most speakers. It must be kept very light. The tip of the tongue must not move far up and down. The
vibrations must not be very fast, and must not last a long time. The effect is to be a ripple rather than a beat. The trilled $r^{\prime}$ at the end of words or before consonants is almost an impossibility to many speakers in the South of England, especially when following a short vowel. It need not be practised after a short vowel, when no other vowel follows, for English, but it is absolutely necessary to do so for German, Italian, and French. The final trill after a vocal $r$ is always allowable. It must be practised, and then the singer can afterwards take it or not at pleasure. First as an initial, take the three first lines of the Chart with initial $r^{\prime}$, and first without and then with the consonant, thus-
|| r'ee r'ai r'aa : r'au r'oa r'oo | r'i r'e r'a : : r'o r'u r'uo | r'ei r'oi : r'ou r'eu ||
\| r'eep r'ait r'aak : r'aub r'oad r'ood |r'if r'es r'ash: : r'ov r'uz r'uozh | r'eif r'oith : r'ouv r'eudh ||

Then sing the last line of the Chart carefully, first singing eer, air, oar, oor as $i \cdot \breve{u}, e^{\cdot} \cdot \breve{u}$, $a o^{\circ} \breve{u}, u 0^{\circ} \breve{u}$ without the trilled $r^{\prime}$, and then adding $r^{\prime}$ first before only, then after only, and then before and after:-
|| eer air | oar oor || r'eer r'air | r'oar r'oor ||
|| eerr' airr' | oarr' oorr' ||
|| r'eerr' r'airr' | r'oarr' r'oorr' \||
Then increase the rapidity.
Finally sing over the whole Chart many times to various airs and at very different rates.

Ex. 21. On Initial Combinations of Consonants. -From the Table of Initial Combinations select any seven, one for each line of the Chart, and substitute one for the initial consonant in that line, and thus sing the whole Chart. Thus taking the first seven, $b l-, b r^{\prime}-, b w-, d r^{\prime}-, d w-, f l-, f r^{\prime}$, sing to "God save the Queen" or any air. The initial combinations to be used should be written on a blarkboard.
bleep blait blaak blaub bload bloog
br'if br'es br'ash br'ov br'uz br'uozh bweif bwoith bwouv bweudh
dr'ei dr'oi dr'ou dr'eu dr'ai $\cdot y$ dr'oa•w dweech dwaich dwaach dwauj dwoaj dwooj fling fleng flang flul flom fluon fr'eerr' fr'airr' fr'oarr' fr'oorr'
Then begin each line with the second of these initial combinations, and end with the last combination, making the new order, $b r^{\prime}-, b w-, d r^{\prime}, d w$, $f l-, f r^{\prime}-$, bl-, thus-br'eep br'ait, \&c., bwif bwait, \&c., $d r^{\prime}$ 'eif dr'oith, \&c., dwei dwoi, \&c., fleech flaich, \&c., fr'ing fr'eng, \&c., bleerr' blairr', \&e.

Then begin with the third and end with the second, and so on, making seven different modes of singing.
Then take another set of seven initial combinations in the same way, till all are exhausted. This Exercise may, of course, be materially abridged if no difficulty is felt. Some of the combinations, however, create difficulties, as when $w, l$ or $r^{\prime}$ precedes eu, as in bweudh, bleudh, br'eudh. In received pronunciation no such combinations occur. Hence they need not be dwelled on.

Ex. 22. On Final Combinations of Consonants. -From the Table of Final Combinations, select any seven, and use them in place of the final consonants of the Chart. Thus selecting the first seven, -bd, -bz, -cht, -dth, -dths, -dz, -dhd, and writing them on the blackboard, sing-
peebd taibd kaabd baubd doabd goobd whibz sebz shabz wobz zubz zhuobz feicht thoicht voucht dheucht heidth hoidth houdth yheudth hai ydth hoa•wdth cheedths chaidths chaadths jaudths joadths joodths lidz medz nadz ludz modz nuodz r'eedhd r'aidhd r'oadhd r'oodhd
Then take another set of seven in the same way, till the list is exhausted. Where difficulties are felt, repeat the combination frequently.

Ex. 23. On both Initial and Final Combinations of Consonants at once.-Select any seven compound initials and any seven compound finals, and write them on the blackboard thus-
$g l-l b, \quad k w-l f, \quad s k r r^{\prime}-m d, \quad s p-n d, \quad t h r^{\prime}-n j$,

$$
s n-t s, \quad k l-s k
$$

Then fill up the blank space by the vowels and diphthongs in the three first lines of the Chart for each, and sing them. There will be no occasion to write the vowels. The result is-
gleelb glailb glaalb glaulb gloalb gloolb glilb glelb glalb glolb glulb gluolb gleilb gloilb gloulb gleulb
kweelf kwailf kwaalf kwaulf kwoalf kwoolf kwilf kwelf kwalf kwolf kwulf kwuolf kweilf kwoilf kwoulf kweulf
skr'eemd skr'aimd skr'aamd skr'aumd skr'oamd skr'oomd
skr'imd skr'emd skr'amd skr'omd skr'umd skr'uomd
skr'eimd skr'aimd skr'oumd skr'eumd speend spaind spaand spaund spoand spoond spind spend spand spond spund spuond speind spoind spourd speund thr'eenj thr'ainj thr'aanj thr'aunj thr'oanj thr'oonj thr'inj thr'enj thr'anj thr'onj thr'unj thr'uonj thr'einj thr'oinj thr'ounj thr'eunj sneets snaits snaats snauts snoats snoots snits snets snats snots snuts snuots sneits snoits snouts sneuts kleesk klaisk klaask klausk kloask kloosk klisk klesk klask klosk klusk kluosk kleisk kloisk klousk kleusk and so on for another set of seven. The rate of singing siould be varied, and the airs should also
be greatly varied. Some of these combination will be found excessively difficult to produce wit] accuracy, lightness, and rapidity, at which practic should aim.

## II. Actual Words.

Ex. 24. Contrast of [ee and i].-To be sai with the hand feeling the action of the throat. T be sung at different pitches to contrast the singin effect of the two, and shew the advantage of no distinguishing them in singing. In the first word the final syllable in $i$ is naturally very short an weak, it must be here uttered as if it were lon and strong. The words are in both spellings, th Glossic being in italics. The consonants glidin on to and off from the vowels are the same in th contrasted cases.
a. On open ee and $i$.

A shabby bee
Let baby be
A palfry free
With ugly glee
A tiny knee
The glassy sea
Thy mercy see
Make worthy thee
A wintry tree
Thy enemy me
An ashy she
Best city tea
Of a verity 'tis very tea $O v$ a ver' iti tiz ver' i tee
Cried gruffly flee
A bulky key
A trusty trustee
A shab-i bee
Let bai bi bee A pau'lfr'i fr'ee Widh ug•li glee A tei'ni nee Dhi glaarsi see
Dhei mer-si see Mai $\cdot k$ wer-dhi dhee

- A win'tr'i tr'ee

Dhei en'emi mee
An ash $\cdot i$ shee
Best sit-i tee
Kr'eid gruf-li flee
A bul-ki kee
A tr'us'ti tr'ustee.

## b. On closed $e e$ and $i$.

Although $e e$ is always long and $i$ always short i speech, the singer must practise making both lon and both short. Hence the length is not markel But part of the length and shortness of the vow must be marked by the looseness and tightness ; the glides.

| eel, ill | eel, il |
| :---: | :---: |
| eat, it | eet, it |
| peat, pit | peet, pit |
| peach, pitch | peeeh, pich |
| peak, pick | peek, pik |
| peel, pill | peel, pil |
| beat, bit | beet, bit |
| bead, bid | beed, bid |
| beach, bitch | beech, bich |
| breaches, breeches | $b r^{\prime}$ eechez, br' ${ }^{\text {chehez }}$ |
| beaker, bicker | beeker, biker |
| bean, bin | been, bin |
| teat, tit | teet, tit |
| teach, stitch | teech, stich |
| teak, tick | teek, tik |
| teal, till | teel, til |
| team, Tim | teem, tim |
| between, twin | bitween, twin |
| deep, dip | deep, dip |
| deed, did | deed, did |
| deal, dill | deel, dil |
| deem, dim | deem, dim |
| dean, din | deen, din |
| keel, kill | keel, kill |
| keen, kin | keen, kin |
| feet, fit | feet, fit |
| fief, fifty | feef, fifti |
| feel, fill | feel, fil |
| these, this | dheez, dhis |
| seat, sit | seet, sit |
| seek, sick | seek, sik |
| seen, sin | seen, sin |
| sheep, ship | sheep, ship |
| gleam, limb | gleem, lim |
| wheat, whit | wheet, whit |


e. On short weak $i$ to be distinguished from $u$ ' or $\breve{e g}$


Ex. 25. Contrast of [ai, e, a].-The $a i$ is always long. It may be sung as $e$, but may not be sung as $a i \cdot y$ with the vanish, still less must it approach the diphthong ei. The e, a are always short in speech, but must be lengthened in singing. The $e$ may be taken as ae. The a may, and in singing should be taken as $a^{\prime}$; it should never be spoken or sung as ae or $e$. Thus $a i, e, a$ may be sung as e, ae, a'. In the Exercises the proper spoken sounds are written. The contrasted vowels are between the same consourants, in order that they may have the same mixed glides before and after them, which so much modify their effect. As real words had to be selected the contrast is not always complete.

| ai | $e$ | $a$ | ai | $e$ | $a$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pate | pet | pat | pai't | pet | pat |
| paid |  | pad | pai $\cdot d$ |  | pad |
|  | peck | pack |  | pek | pak |
| bate | bet | bat | bai't | bet | bat |
| obeyed | bed | bad | oabai•d | bea' | bad |
| bake | beck | back | bai.k | bek | bak |
|  | beg | bag |  | beg | bag |
| bale | bell | ballot | bai $\cdot 1$ | bel | bai ${ }^{\text {a }}$ t |
| bane | Ben | ban | bai'n | Ben | ban |
| tape |  | tap | tai•p |  | tap |
| take |  | tack | $t a i \cdot k$ |  | tak |
| tale | tell | tallow | tai $\cdot 1$ | tell | $t a l \cdot o a$ |
| tame | temper | tamper | tai'm | tem.per | tam•per |
|  | ten | $\tan$ |  | ten | tan |
| date | debt |  | $d a i \cdot t$ | det |  |
|  | dead | dad |  | ded | dad |
|  | deck | dactyle |  | dek | dak ${ }^{\text {ctil }}$ |
|  | deaf | daft |  | def | daft |
| dale | dell | dally | dai $\cdot 1$ | del | dal ${ }^{-}$ |
| dame |  | dam | dai'm |  | dam |
| deign | den | Dan | dai $\cdot n$ | den | Dan |
| cape |  | cap | $k a i \cdot p$ | - | kap |


| $\begin{gathered} a i \\ \text { Kate } \end{gathered}$ | ${ }^{e}$ | cat | $a i$ <br> Kai•t | e | $\begin{aligned} & a \\ & k a t \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ketchup catch |  | Kai•t | kech $\cdot$ up | kach |
| case | kestrel | cassock | kai•s | kes'trel kas'uk |  |
| cane | kennel | can | kai'n | ken'el | kan |
| gape |  | gap | gai $\cdot p$ |  | gap |
| gate | get | gat | gai't | get | gat |
| game |  | gambit | gai•m |  | gam•bit |
| fate | fetter | fat | fai't | fet-er | fat |
| face | fester | fascinate | fai-s | fester | fas-inait |
| fail | fell | fallow | fai $\cdot \mathrm{l}$ | fel | fal-oa |
| fain | fen | fan | fai $n$ | fen | fan |
| sate | set | sat | $s a i \cdot t$ | set | $a t$ |
| said | said | sad | sai $\cdot d$ | sed | sad |
| sale | sell | Sall | $s a i \cdot l$ | sel | Sal |
| same | seamstress Sam |  | sai'm | sem•stres Sam |  |
| ade | shed | shadow | shai $\cdot d$ | shed | shad'oa |
| shale | shell | shall | shai $\cdot \mathrm{l}$ | shel | shal |
| shame |  | sham | shai $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ |  | sham |
| late | let | lattice | lai't | let | lat-is |
|  | leg | lag |  | leg | lag |
| laoe | less | lacerate | lai's | les | las'ur'ait |
| ke |  | lack | $l a i \cdot k$ |  | lak |
| lame | lemon | lamb | lai $\cdot m$ | lem'en | lam |
| lane | lend | land | lai'n | lend | land |
| mate | met | mat | mai't | met | mat |
| made | meadow | mad | mai'd | med'oa | mad |
| make |  | Macclesfiel | mai $\cdot k$ | I | Mak-lzfeeld |
| mace | mess | macerat | mai's | mes | mas'ur'ait |
| male | mellow | mallet | mai $\cdot \mathrm{l}$ | mel.oa | mal-et |
| maim | member | mam | mai'm | mem•ber | mann $e l$ |
| nape | Neptune | nap | nai $\cdot \mathrm{p}$ | Nep-teun | nap |
|  | neb | nab |  | neb | nab |
|  | net | gnat |  | net | nat |
| snake | neck | knack | snai•k | nek | nak |
| navy | nephew | navry | nai. | neveu | nav*i |
| nail | knell | - |  |  |  |

Remembering that air means $e \cdot \check{u}$, and ai•er means ai $u$ in two syllables, compare also
lair, layer-lai $\cdot$, lai $\cdot$ er
player-plai $\cdot$ er; slayer-slai•er
prayer, pray-er-prai•r, prai•er
o bear, obey-er-oa bai $\cdot r$, oabai $\cdot e r$
wear, we -er-wai , wai•er

Ex. 26. Contrast of $[\mathrm{au}, 0]-A u$ is alway long, and $o$ is always short in received pronunciation, but both will have to be sung long and both also short. The speaker should be especially exercised in uttering $a u$ short and o long, to makt him feel the difference of quality, which is simila to that of $e e, i$. The singer may take either $a u$ or $o$ as suits his pitch.

| $a u$ | 0 | au | 0 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| awed | odd | au*d | od |
| pawed | pod | pau-d | pod |
| pawned | pond | pau•nd | pond |
| sawed | sod | sau•d | sod |
| hawed | hod | hau•d | hod |
| haul | holiday | haw $\cdot$ l | hol-idai |
| maul | Moll | mau-l | Mol |
| stalk | stock | stau $\cdot k$ | stok |
| awful | office | aufuol | of $\cdot$ is |
| wall | wallow | wau-l | wol-oa |
| auricle | oracle | au'r'ikl | or' $u k l$ |
| awn | on | au'n | on |
| yawn | yon | yau'n | yon |
| gnawed | nod | naw $d$. | nod |
| fawned | fond | fau'nd | fond |
| gaud | God | gau•d | God |
| pall | pollard | pau-l | pol-erd |
| wrought | rot | $r \cdot a u \cdot t$ | $r$ 'ot |
| hawk | hocky | - hau $k$ | hok-i |
| taught | totter | tau*t | tot $\cdot$ er |
| salt | solid | sau-lt | sol-id. |

Weak au.
audacious audai'shus authority author' $\cdot$ iti austere austee'r august (ad.) augus't

August (s.) aurgust augment (v.) augmen't augment (s.) aurgment.

Ex. 27. Contrast of [au, oa, o, u].-The oa must be quite pure, with no after-sound of oo, and never approaching to ou. The singer may take oa or $a 0$ as suits convenience of pitch; but he must then keep his ao quite distinct from au. The au and $o$ should be distinguished, as in Ex. 26. When
on is taken short, there is a risk of confusing it with $u u$; thus bŏat short, is apt to sound like büut. This must be guarded against. The $u$ may be pronounced as uu according to convenience of pitch.
bought boat bott butt bau't boa't bot but caught coat cot cut kau't koa't kot cut groat Grote grot - gr'au't Gr'oa't gr'ot _ abroad road rod rudder abr'au'd r'oa'd r'od r'udder Hlawed flowed Flodden flood flau $\cdot d$ foa $\cdot d$ Flod $\cdot n$ flud sawed sowed sod sud sau•d soa•d sod sud gnawed node nod - naw•d noa•d nod nought note not nut naw't noa't not nut sought creosote sot sutler sau't kr'ceoasoa't sot sut-ler

Ex. 28. Contrast of [oa-er, oar, au.]-When oar is written, aoŭ or aoŭr is pronounced. This forms one syllable. But Londoners are apt to say auй or simply au. Guard carefully against au; but allow auč when convenient. An older sound still heard from elderly people, is oaŭ or even oa-u, in two syllables, which is written oa-er or oa-er.

| oa-er | oar | au | oa-er | oa'r | au |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| blow-er | Blore | law | bloa er | bloa.r | lau |
| ow-er | ore | awe | oa.er | oa'r | au |
| tow-er | tore | taw | toa'er | toa $r$ | tau |
| gri-er | gore |  | goa'er | goarr |  |
| row-er | roar | raw | r'oa'er | r'oa'r | rau |
| ho-er | hoar ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | haw | hoa'er | hoa'r | hau |
| shew-er | shore | shaw | shoarer | shoa'r | shau |
| low-er | lore | law | loa'er | loar $\cdot$ | lau |
| sow-er | sore | saw | soa'er | soar $\cdot$ | saw |
| mow-er | more | maw | moa'er | moar | mau |
| eiow-er | store | - | stoa.er | stoar $r$ | stau |

And comparedraw, drawer-dr'au, dr'aucer (one who draws), or dr'aw'r (box which is drawn) ; saw, sawer-sau, sau•er (one who saws); taw, tawer-tau, taw er (one who taws leather).

Ex. 29. Contrast of weak [oa] and [er.]-There is a havit of pronouncing words having a weak oa
final, as an $u$ or $u$, and treating it before a vowel as if it were er ; that is, as if there werc a permissive trill after it. This has to be particularly avoided.

|  | Pronounce. | Not. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| window | win $\cdot$ dŏa | $w i n \cdot d \breve{u}$ | win $\cdot$ der |
| tallow | $t a l-\frac{a}{a}$ | tal-ŭ | tal'er |
| yellow | yel-ŏa | yal-ŭ | yaler |
| fellow | felŏ̈a | $\mathrm{fel}_{6} \mathrm{l}$ ¢ H | feler |
| mellow | mel:ŏa | mel- $\breve{\sim}$ | mel-er |
| tobacco | tŏabak:ŏa | $t \breve{u} b a k{ }^{\text {che }}$ | terbak'er |
| potatoe | pŏatai'tŏa | pŭtai'tŭ | pertai•ter |
| tornado | taunai-dŏa | taunai dŭ | taunai'des |
| lumbago | lumbai.gŏa | lumbai.gŭ | lumbai.ger |
| virago | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { veirai.gŏa } \\ \text { virai-goa } \end{array}\right\}$ | veirai'gŭ | veirai-ger |
| sago | sai'gŏa | sai.gŭ | a ai.ger |
| cargo | kaa'gŏa | $k a a \cdot g u ̆$ | kaugger |
| echo | $e k \cdot \breve{\circ} a$ | $e k$ ¢й | ek'er |
| halo | hai-lŏa | hai lŭ | hai-ler |
| buffalo | buf ŭlŏa | buf ${ }^{\text {ülŭ }}$ | buferler |
| volcano | volkai•nŏa | volkai.nu | volkai-ner |
| hero | hee rr'ŏa | heerrŭ | heerror |

Ex. 30. Contrast of [0a] and [00].-

| oa | 00 | Oa | 00 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| grove | groove | $g r^{\prime} a^{\prime} \cdot v$ | gr'oo.v |
| coat | coot | koa't | koo't |
| dome | dome | doa'm | $200 \cdot m$ |
| roam | room | r'oa'm | $\mathrm{r}^{\prime} 00^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$ |
| toll | tool | toa-i | too.l |
| gloaming | gloomy | gloa ming | gloo.mi |
| bone | boon | $b o a \cdot n$ | $b 00 \cdot n$ |
| nose | noose | noa'z | noo'z |
| stole | stool | stoa. 6 | stoo. $l$ |
| home | whom | hoa'm | hoo.m |
| hope | hoop | hoap | hoo.p |
| loaf | aloof | loa $f$ | aloo'f |
| pope | poop | poa'p | poo'p |

Ex. 31. On [00].-There is a danger of not beginning to say oo with the mouth sufficiently closed. This leads to oo having a sound at one time approaching ou and at another approaching
$e u$. In all the provinces there is a habit of using a sound approaching eu, where the sound is written ' $u$ ' after $r$ These errors should be carefully avoided

| boot | $b 00^{\circ} t$ | cruel | kr'oo'el |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| booth | boo.dh | brute | $b r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} t$ |
| coop | $k 00^{\circ} \mathrm{p}$ | drupe | $d r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} p$ |
| droop | $d r^{\prime} 00 \cdot p$ | ruin | rooin |
| goose | goo's | true | tr'oo |
| hoof | hoo'f | fruit | $f r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} t$ |
| hoot | hoo't | recruit | rikr'oo't |
| hoop | hoo.p | rule | $r{ }^{\prime} 00 \cdot l$ |
| poop | poo'p | scruple | - skr'00.pl |
| roof | $r \cdot 0 \cdot f$ | truth | tr'00'th |
| shoot | shoo.t | truce | $t r^{\prime} 00 \cdot 8$ |
| sooth | soo.th | shrewd | d $s h r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} d$ |
| soothe | $s 00 \cdot d h$ | rheum | $r$ '00.m |
|  |  | rue | $r$ 'oo |
| soup | soo 0 | rude | $r ' 00 \cdot d$ |
| youth | yoo'th (euth) |  | Generally. Occasionally. |
| do | doo | fluke | - $A 100 \cdot k$ fleu.k |
| two | too | flute | floo't fleu't |
| move | moo.v | lute | $l o 0^{\prime} t$ lew't |
| lose | $100 \cdot z$ | lieu | loo leu |
| loose | loo's | illumine | - illoo min illeu $\cdot \mathrm{mm}$ |

After $t, d, n$, and $s$ keep eu, when indicated, as-
tulip
tunic tewrik
multitude
durable
dew deu
neutral newt nuisance
supreme
suit
sue
Susan
teu•lip
teu•nik
mul-titeud
deu'rr'ubl
new'tr'el
new't
neu'sens
seupr'ee'm (not sŏo, nor shŏo)
seu't (not soo $t$, nor shoo ${ }^{\circ} t$ )
seu (not soc, nor shoo)
Seu'zen (that is, Šoo zu'n, not See'ŏozu'n, nor Soo'zu'n)

Ex. 32. Contrast of [00, u0, u].
pool, $p o 0 \cdot$-pull, pŭo $\cdot l$ (not pŏol, which is Fr. poule) fool, $f 00 \cdot l$-full, $f u o^{\circ} l$ (not fŏol, which is Fr. foule) room, $r^{\prime} 00 \cdot m$ (not $r^{\prime}$ 'uom, as often incorrectly said)
teu•n
Teuton•ik deu•p dew's neu•ter neu (not noo) new•klius

| kerb | curb | kerb | ku•b |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| firs | furze | ferz | fu'z |
| earn | urn | ern | $u \cdot n$ |
| serf | surf | serf | su•f |

Ex. 34. On the Diphthong [ei.]-Except in the word aye, which must have aay or $a \cdot \cdot y$, all English ei diphthongs have the sound of $u y$ or $a^{\prime} y$, but may have aay. In the provinces, two forms are distinguished, the first or ey class, varying as $u y$, $u \cdot y, u w \cdot y, e y, a e y$, and the second or any class, varying as aay, aa:y, ahy. Be careful that only one sound is used. See Ex. 15.

## Ei diphthongs of the ey class in Mid Lothian, Scotland.

pipe peip, type teip, tripe tr'eip, wipe weip
bribe $b r^{\prime}$ eib, gibe jeib, kibe keib, tribe tr'eib
bite beit, kite keit, sight seit, right r'eit wide weid, bide beid, bride br'eid, chide cheid, guide geid, hide heid, ride reiu, side seid
dike deik, like leik, pike peik, tike teik fife feif, life leif, knife neif, wife weif to wive tŏo weiv, two lives too leivz blithe bleidh, lithe leidh, scythe seidh dice deis, lice leis, mice meis, nice neis, price preis, rice r'eis, trice tr'eis, twice tweis, thrice thr'eis, spice speis, vice veis, wise weiz (but in Mid Lothian Scotch, weys)
pile peil, tile ieil, guile geil, file feil, mile meil, Nile Neil, vile veil, while wheil, mild meild, wild weild, piled peild, filed feild, tiled teild, beguiled bigeilld

Ei diphthongs of the aay class in Scotland.

> (ay in Edinburgh.)
cried kreid, died deid, fried fr'eid, lied leid, sighed seid (saayd, when not seky'ht), spied speid, tied teid, pied peid, denied dineid
size seiz, prize pr'eiz, guise geiz, otherwise udh•erweiz, rise reiz
pies peiz, ties teiz, fries freiz, dries dreiz, dies deiz, spies speiz, lies leiz, denies dinei $\cdot$, sighs seiz,
(saayz, when not seky'hz), Guys Geiz, buys beiz, shies sheiz
trial trei $\cdot e l$, dial dei $\cdot e l$, vial vei $\cdot e l$, denial dinei $\cdot e l$ buyer bei $\cdot e$, dyer dei er, fire feir, tire teir, sire seir, desire dizei $r$, shire sheir, lyre leir, liar leier And generally when $e i$ is final, or when ei precedes a vowel. This rule does not hold for English dialects. In all these cases the received English sound is $u y$ or $a^{\prime} y$, and no distinction whatever is made. Avoid especially any approach to oi.

Ex. 35. On the Contrast of [ai] and [ei.]-In the East and South East of England and in London, the habit of pronouncing ai long, as ai $\cdot y$, that is, ai־亢 with the vanish, has led to forming it into a diphthong of the ey class, as aiy, ey, aey, ay up to aay occasionally, and hence to a confusion of the $a i$ and $e i$ words. Generally those who make $a i$ a diphthong of the ey class, put a diphthong of the aay class in all the words in Ex. 34, and hence prevent the confusion, which, however, is very conspicuous and unpleasant to the ears of those who do not use the vanish at all, or use it very slightly, keeping the ai perceptibly longer and slurring with a loose glide on to $i$. Hence the following distinctions must be clearly made and carefuly practised by inhabitants of the East and South East of England and of London. At first, use e long for $a i$ long for greater security against the vanish. The vanish ai.y is most generally used (1) at the end of a word, when no consonant follows, or the word does not join on closely to the next consonant; thus: Will you pay? -Wil eu pairy? Will you pay me? -Wil eu pai:mi? The inflexional $z, d$ does not take off the vanish-he pays, he pays me, hee pai yz, hee pai zme; is it weighed, he weighed it-iz it wai $\cdot \mathrm{yd}$, hee wai•d it. (2) Before the consonants $t, d, l, n$, as in fate fai $\cdot y t$, made mai $\cdot \mathrm{yd}$, rain rai $\cdot \mathrm{yn}$.

The vanish is generally absent when a weak syllable follows, as mated mai-ted, rated rai-ted, railed in with rails rai.ld in widh rai.ylz.

The singer should never use the vanish.

| $a i$ | $e i$ | $a i$ | ei |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tape | type | tai•p | teip |
| gaby | gibe | gai ${ }^{\text {bi }}$ | jeib |
| rate | write | $r$ 'ai't | r'eit |
| played | plied | plai•d | pleid |
| lake | like | $l a i \cdot k$ | leik |
| waif | wife | wai•f | weif |
| wave | wive | wai•v | weiv |
| lathe | lithe | $l a i \cdot d h$ | leidh |
| mace | mice | mai's | meis |
| raise | rise | rai'z | reiz |
| tail | tile | tai $\cdot \mathrm{l}$ | teil |
| male | mile | mai $\cdot \mathrm{l}$ | meil |
| tame | time | tai $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ | teim |
| lame | lime | lai $\cdot m$ | leim |
| pain | pine | pai $\cdot n$ | pein |
| Dane | dine | Dai $n$ | dein |
| pay | pie | pai | pei |
| bay | buy | $b a i$ | $b e i$ |
| day | die | $d a i$ | dei |
| gay | Guy | gai | gei |
| whey | why | whai | whei |
| way | Wye | wai | Wei |
| fay | fie | fai | fei |
| they | thy | dhai | dhei |
| say | sigh | $s a i$ | sei |
| lay | lie | lai | lei |
| may | my | mai | mei |
| nay | nigh | $n a i$ | nei |
| ray | rye | r'ai | r'ei |
| eh! | I | $a i!$ | $e i$ |

Ex. 36. On the Diphthong [0i].-Generally this is more like $a v \cdot y$ when final, or before a vowel, or voiced consonant, and more like oy before a mute or hiss. The singer always uses $a v \cdot y$ when it is more convenient.
sepoy see pax'y
boy baw'y, buoy baw'y, bwau'y (or boo'i), buoyed bau•yd, bwau•yd (or boo id)
toy taw $y$, toyed tau'yd, quoit koyt
coin koyn, cawing kawing
In the following words $e i$ was used universally in place of oi from one to two hundred years ago,
but now $e i$ has become extremely vulgar, and must therefore be studiously avoided.
anoint pronounce as anoi $\cdot n t$, not anei $\cdot n t$
ointment
oil
boil
broil
coil
foil
foist
froise
groin
hoise
hoist
join
joint
joist
loin
moil
point
poise
poison
soil
spoil
oi.ntment, not ei.ntment
oil, not eil
boil, not beil
broil, not breil
koil, not keil
foil, not feil
foist, not feist
froiz, not freiz
groin, not grein
hoiz, not heiz
hoist, not heist
join, not jein
joint, not jeint
joist, not jeist (and not jeis)
loin, not lein
moil, not meil
point, not peint poiz, not peiz poi $\cdot z n$, not pei $\cdot z n$
soil, not seil
spoil, not speil

The following are often vulgarly mispronounced. destroy destroi, not destrei.
decoy dikoi, nat dikei-
loyal loi•el, not lei el
royal roi el, not reiel
voyage voi $\cdot j$, not vei ej (nor voi ij, vei.j)
The word " oilet" is now spelled " eyelet" from mistaken etymology, and is still called ei let. Th word "tortoise " is generally taur tŭs, but may b tau'tus, taw'tis, taw'tiz.

Ex. 37. On the Diphthong [ou] - The provin cial habits must be avoided. The literary sound are $u w, a^{\prime} w$, but $u u w$, aaw are accepted, and ahn may be used in singing deep notes. Avoid the class of $e w$ (London and North Kent), aow ur a (both in Norfolk and Suffolk, and in South Lanca shire). Avoid the oaw class of ouw, aow, auu
unw (more or less general in the provincess). Of course. avoid the provincialisms of long $a n$, long $a$, long oo in place of ou. Avoid using the ou diphthong in place of the simple vowels $a u, 0 a$.

Provincial oo is frequent in-
down doun, town toun, crown kroun, tower tour, now nou, trowsers trou'zerz, how hou, flower flour, power pour, drown drown, cow koo, a sow a sou, to bow too bou.
plough plou, round round, sound sound, mound mound, hound hound, doubt dout, thou dhou, about abow't, count kount, out out, a house a hous, to house too houz, sour sour, flour flour, our our, found found, bound bound, ground gr'ound.

Provincial ou is frequent in-
brought braw $\cdot t$, sought sau $\cdot t$, fought faw $t$, bought baw $\cdot t$, ought au't. nought naw $\cdot t$, soul soa $\cdot l$, four foa $\cdot$, pour poa $\cdot$ r.
old oa $\cdot \mathrm{ld}$, cold koa ld, sold soa ld, told toa $\cdot l d$, fold foa $\cdot l d$, stroll stroa $\cdot l$, toll toa $\cdot l$, roll roa $\cdot l$.

Ex. 33. Contrast of [oa] and [ou].-Londoners constantly pervert the vanish $o a \cdot w$ into a diphthong of the oaw class, as oaw, uww. This occasions no confusion to the speakers as they also use ew for ou. Hence the necessity of correcting both errors at once. The vowel in the oa column below is to be called $o a$ without any vanish, and even ao rather than oa $w$. The ou column is to be pure $u w, a^{\prime} w$, or $u \approx w$, aaw, without a shadow of rounding of the first element, and without a trace of the ew, aew sounds.

| oa | ou | oa | ou |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bow (s.) | bough | boa | bou |
| sow (v.) | sow (s.) | soa | sou |
| mow (v.) | mow (s.) | moa | mou |
| no | now | noa | nou |
| roe | row (noise) | $r^{\prime} o a$ | $r^{\prime}$ ou |
| poach | pouch | poa ch | pouch |
| boat | bout | boa $t$ | bout |
| bode | bowed | boa d | boud |
| boar | bower | boarr | bour |
| toze | towse | toa $\cdot z$ | touz |


| oa | ou | oa | ou |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tore | tower | toa $\cdot r$ | tour |
| dote | doubt | doa $\cdot t$ | dout |
| dose | douse | doa $\cdot$ s | dous |
| condone | down | kondoa $\cdot$ n | doun |
| coach | couch | koa $\cdot$ ch | kouch |
| coal | cowl | koa $\cdot l$ | koul |
| goal | goul | goa $\cdot l$ | goul |
| foal | fowl | foa $\cdot l$ | foul |
| load | loud | loa $\cdot$ d | loud |

The vanish is most generally used when oa is strong and final, not followed by a weak syllable, and before $p, b, f, v, m$, and $l$, but is not otherwise very common. Thus-low loa $w$, know, no noa $w$, shew shoa w, bowl boa•wl; pope poa•wp, robe r'oa wb, loaf loa $w f$, loaves loa $w v z$, roam roa wm, foam foa $w o m$, old oa $w l d$, soul soa $w l$.

Ex. 39. On the Diphthong [eu].-Eu may always be sung ioo, see Ex. 15.
$e u$ is $y o o \mathrm{in}$ -
you eu (yoo), youth eu'th (yoo'th,
eut is y̌̌oo in-
yew eu (yioo), ewe eu, use eus euz, unite eunei•t, union eu•nien.
$e u$ is $\mathrm{c}_{0} 0^{\circ}$ in-
pew per (pı̌oo), imbue imbeu, tune teun, dew deu, cue queue keu, gewgaw geu•gau, few feu, view, veu, thew theu, sue seu (not soo, shoo), news meruz, nuisance new sens, newt new $t$, and occasionally in lieu leu or $l o o$, lute $l 00^{\circ} t$ or lew $t$, illumine illoo mir or illew min.
eu is 乞̆ŏŏ or yŏŏ according as the preceding consonant is medial, or final, but never $i$, inmonument mon eument (mon•ĭŏŏment or mon yŏŏment, never mon•iment), document dok•eument, regular reg•euler, popular pop•euler, \&c.

Ex. 40. On Murmur Diphthongs and Triphthongs, or Vocal $R$ and Trilled $R^{\prime}$.-The words and the classes are chiefly selected from Mr. Melville Bell's "Visible Speech," pp. 113-116, but the present arrangement and treatment are in
accordance with the previous explanations. Throughout the examples strong er is meant for $u$, with permission to insert $r^{\prime}$ after it, and weak $e r$ is $\breve{u}$ or $u$, with the same permission to insert $r$. The combinations eer, air, oar, oor stand as usual for $i \cdot \breve{u}$, $e \cdot \breve{u}$, ao $\cdot \breve{u}$, uo $\cdot \breve{u}$, with permission to add $r^{\prime}$. In the case of aar, aur, the $r$ indicates either $\breve{u}$ or $\breve{u} r^{\prime}$, but may be, and frequently is, entirely omitted, that is, $a a r$, $a u r$, is $a a \cdot \breve{u}, a a \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$; $a u \cdot \breve{u}$, $a u^{\prime} \breve{u} r^{\prime}$, or even $a a^{\circ}$, au* simply This orthography, therefore, is designedly as ambiguous as the received customs of pronunciation, which is still in a transitional state. The only important point to remember is that $r$ ' is not usually inserted except before a vowel, and, when pronounced, is very light in the extent, duration, and rapidity of vibration.

## Strong Syllables.

1. $E r$, which may be $u u r$; that is, $u$, which may be $u x$.
word werd, journey jerni, furnish fernish, spurn spern.
There is a tendency to pronounce these words with $a a$, as spaa$\cdot n$ or spaa'un for spern. This should be avoided.
2. Er which may be $e^{\prime} r$ but not uur ; that is, $u$. which may be $e^{\text {e }}$. but not $u w$.
myrrh mer, guerdon ger-dn.
The tendency to use $a a$ or $a a \cdot \breve{u}$ for $e r$ in these words is not so strong as for No. 1, but should be avoided except in a few words, where it is received, as clerk $k l a a \cdot k$, Derby Daa $b i$.

## 3. Err', with er as in No. 1.

recurring rikerr'ing, spurring sper $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ing, purring per r'ing, blurring bler $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ing, slurring sler $\cdot r^{\prime} i n g$, demurring dimer-r'ing.
These words have occasionally only $u r^{\prime}$, as rikur'ing, spur' ing, pur' ing, blur'ing, slur' ing, dimur'ing. This pronunciation is general in current kur'ent, recurrent rikur'ent, occurrent okur'ent.
4. Err', with er as in No. 2.
preferring prifer $r^{\prime}$ ing, conferring konferrring, referring rifer $-r^{\prime} i n g$, erring er $r$ 'ing, deterring diter $r^{\prime}$ 'ing.
These words have occasionally only $e r^{\prime}$ as prifer' ${ }^{\prime}$ ing, $k o n f e r^{\prime} \cdot i n g$, rifer' $\cdot i n g$, er' ${ }^{\prime}$ ing. This pronunciation is general in errant er'ent, errand er $r^{\prime} \cdot e n d$, deterrent diter'ent.
5. Ee $\cdot r$, that is, $i \cdot \breve{u}$, or $i \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$ with light $r$. No Englishman says ee ' $r$ ', no foreigner says eer.
near nee $r$, beer beer, here hee $r$, we're wee $\cdot$, pier peer.
6. Ee $\cdot$ rr', that is, $i \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$. No Englishman says $e e^{\bullet} \cdot r^{\prime}$, which is a Scotch and American and foreign usage; no foreigner says ee $r r^{\prime}$.
eyry $e e^{\circ} r r^{\prime} i$, era $e e^{\bullet} r r^{\prime} u$, weary wee $r r^{\prime} i$, peeress pee'rr'es. Never $e e^{\prime} r^{\prime} i$, ee' $r^{\prime} u$, wee $r^{\prime} i$, pee'r'es.
7. Ai $\cdot r$, that is, $e \cdot u$ or $e \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$ with light $r^{\prime}$ the pronunciation $a i \cdot \breve{u}$ is provincial or vulgar, foreigners use $e^{\prime} \cdot r^{\prime}$ not $e \cdot{ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$.
care kai $\cdot$, pair pai $\cdot$, air ai $\cdot r$, prayer prai $\cdot$, there their dhai $\cdot$, bear bai $\cdot r$, mare mayor, mai $\cdot r$ (not mai $\cdot r^{\prime}$, mai $\cdot e r$ ).
8. Ai $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ that is, $e \cdot u \cdot r$; never $a i \cdot r^{\prime}$, which is provincial or vulgar in England, but is heard in Scotland and America ; foreigners say both ai $\cdot r^{\prime}$ and $e \cdot r^{\prime}$, never $e \cdot u \not r^{\prime}$.
canary kunai $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ', fairy $f a i \cdot r r^{\prime} i$, therein dhai $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ in, bearing bai $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ing.
9. Oa $\cdot$ r, that is, $a 0^{\circ} \breve{u}$ or $a 0^{\circ} \breve{u r} r^{\prime}$ with light $r^{\prime}$; to say $o a \cdot \breve{u}$ is provincial or antiquated ; to say $o a \cdot e r$ is a mistake (Ex. 28) ; to say $a u$ is bad, but $a u \breve{u}$ is sometimes used ; oar', aor' is foreign.
boar boa $\cdot r$, o'er oa $\cdot r$, door doa $\cdot r$, floor floa $\cdot r$, borne boarrn (but born is baw rn or baw n), torn toarn, sore soa $\cdot r$, corps koa $\cdot r$, pour poa $\cdot r$, towards toa $\cdot r d z$ (also ton-wau $\cdot d z$ ).
10. Oa $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ that is, ao $u r^{\prime}$; never say oa $\cdot r^{\prime}$, ao $0^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ which is Scotch, American, or foreign; no foreigner uses $0 a^{\prime} r r^{\prime}$; avoid $a u^{\prime} r^{\prime}$.
glory gloa $\cdot r^{\prime} i$ (not gloa $r^{\prime}$ ' , much used by older clergymen and ministers), soaring soa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ing, pouring poa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'ing.
11. Oo $\cdot r$, that is, $u 0^{\circ} \cdot{ }^{\prime}$ or $u 0^{\prime} \not r^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ with light $r^{\prime}$; never $00 \cdot \breve{u}$ or $00 \cdot u r^{\prime}$, which is provincial, antiquated, or vulgar ; no foreigner says $u 0^{\circ} \breve{u r}^{\prime}$, but only $o 0^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ '.
poor poo $\cdot r$, moor moo $\cdot r$, tour too $\cdot r$, sure shoo $\cdot r$ (or shew $\cdot r$ ), lure $l o 0^{\circ} r$ (or lew'r), allure aloo'r (or aleev $\cdot r$ ).
12. Oo $\cdot r r^{\prime}$, that is, $u 0^{\circ}$ urr $^{\prime}$; never $00^{\circ} r^{\prime}$, which is Scotch or American.
poorer poo'rr'er, surer shoo $\cdot r$ 'er (or shew $\cdot$ rr'er), assuring ashoo $\cdot r$ r'ing (or ashev'rr'ing), tourist too'rr'ist.
13. Eu $\cdot r$, that is, when following consonants $\check{\breve{v}} \cdot \circ \cdot \breve{u}$ or $\check{\imath} u 0^{\circ} \breve{u} r^{\prime}$, with faint $r^{\prime}$; and when initial yuo $\breve{u}$,
 foreign.
cure kew $\cdot$, pure peur $r$, endure endew $\cdot r$, immure immeurr, your ev $\cdot r$ (yuo $\breve{u}$ ), ewer $e w \cdot r$ (y̌̆uo $\breve{u}$ in one syllable).

> 14. Eu'rr', that is, after consonants ïuo $\breve{u} r^{\prime}$, never eu'r'.
> fury feur rr'i, purer peu'rr'er, enduring endew $\cdot r r^{\prime} i n g$, immuring immew'rr'ing.
15. Aa $\cdot$, that is, permissively $a a \cdot \breve{u}$ or $a a \cdot u r^{\prime}$ with light $r^{\prime}$, but more generally $a a^{\prime}$, and very rarely aa'r'; never $\breve{a} a r^{\prime}$, which is Scotch, provincial, or foreign.
hard haa•d (or haa $\cdot r d$ ), clerk klaa $\cdot k$ (or klaa $\cdot r k$ ), some say klerk (especially in America), heart haa:t (or haa $\cdot r t$ ), guard gaa $\cdot d$ (or gaa $\cdot r d$ ).
16. $A a^{\cdot} r r^{\prime}$, that is, permissively $a a^{\cdot} \check{u} r^{\prime}$ with light $r^{\prime}$, but more generally $a a^{\cdot} r^{\prime}$, never $a{ }^{\prime} a r^{\prime}$, which is foreign or provincial.
starry staa $r^{\prime} i$ (or staarrr'i), tarry (covered with tar) $\tan \cdot r^{\prime} i$ (or taa'rr' $i$, the verb tarry is $t a r^{\prime} \cdot i$ ).
17. Au'r, that is, permissively $a w \cdot u$ or $a u \cdot{ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$, but more generally $a u$, and very rarely $a w \cdot r^{\prime}$; never $\breve{a} u r^{\prime}$, ŏr, ăor'; before a vowel, $r$ ' is compulsory.
war wau (or waur $r$; but " the War Office"-dhi Wau‘r' Of is), ward waw•d (or wau'rd), swarm swaw $m$ (or swaw $\cdot r m$ ), dwarf dwaw f (or dwau rf), extraordinary ekstraw diner'i (or ekstraw radiner'i), George Jau'j (or Jau'rj), order au•der (or aw'rder), born bau•n (or baw'rn, not boa'rn. See No. 9.)
18. $A w \cdot r r^{\prime}$, that is, permissively $a u^{\prime} \cdot{ }_{u} r^{\prime}$, but generally $a u^{\prime} r$ '.
warring waw'r'ing (or waw'rr'ing, some say wor'ing), abhorring ab-haw'r'ing'or ab-haw'rr'ing, many say $a b$-hor'ing, all say $a b$-hor'ent).
19. Eir, that is, eiŭ or eiür' with light $r$ '; never eir', which is foreign; avoid eier.
fire feir (in one syllable, not fei er in two syllables), lyre leir (not lei er, which is "liar"), quire, choir kweir (not kwei er, the pronunciations kaw.yer, koa'er, koi•er, are modern and orthographical; chorister kor'ister used to be quirister kwir' 'ister), hire heir (but higher hei er).
20. $E i \cdot r r^{\prime}$, that is, $e i \cdot u r^{\prime}$, or $e i \cdot u r^{\prime}$; never $e i \cdot r^{\prime}$, which is Scotch or American.
wiry, wiery wei $\cdot r^{\prime} i$, or wei $\cdot u r^{\prime} i$ (not wei $\cdot r^{\prime} i$ ), fiery $f e i \cdot r r^{\prime} i$, or $f e i \cdot u r^{\prime} i\left(\operatorname{not} f e i \cdot r^{\prime} i\right)$.
21. Ou'r, that is, ou' $\check{u}$ or ow $\cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$ with light $r^{\prime}$; never our', which is foreign; avoid ou'er.
hour our (not ower), power pour or power), ourselves oursel'vz, ours ourz, flour flour, flower fow er.
22. Ou'rr' that is, ou'ŭr', or ou'u; never ou'r'. dowry dourrr'i (not dow ${ }^{\prime} r^{\prime} i$ nor dow' $r^{\prime}$ '), flowery flow 'rr'i (or flow $\cdot u r^{\prime}$ i, not flow'r'i), showery shou'rr'i (or show' $u r^{\prime} i$, not show $r^{\prime}$ 'i).

## Weak Syllables.

23. Er, that is, $\breve{u}$ or $\breve{u}$, with an $r^{\prime}$ only when a vowel follows; to use an $r$ ' in other cases has a pedantic or foreign effect; even in the provinces when $r$ ' is used it is very light indeed; but in place of $\breve{u}$ or $\breve{u}$ some speakers use $\breve{a} a$, especially when the writing is 'ar.' When this is not orthographical (and therefore pedantic) it is very vulgar ; any attempt to discriminate the vowels according to the orthography is contrary to the present stage of development of the language, those who do so, ought to trill their $r^{\prime}$ final and make a new pronunciation altogether.
paper pai per, circuitous serkew $\cdot i t u s$, answer $a a \cdot n s e r$, martyr maa'ter, altar, alter au-lter, grammar gram•er, particular păatik•euler (pertik•euler, pertik-ler are both vulgar), peculiar pikeu-lier; spectator spektai'ter, tailor tai•ler, razor rai'zer, orator or'-ŭter; azure azh•er (or ai'zher, azh•eur, ai:zheur), fissure fish•er (or fish•eur, fis•eur), measure mez'her, nature nai teur (or nai cher, nai cheur, but not nai•ter, which, formerly correct, is now vulgar), feature feeteur (or fee cher, fee'cheur, not fee•ter), stature stat-eur (or stach•er, stach•eur, not stat•er), figure fig•er (or fig•eur).
24. eur, that is, iйой or iuoŭr', rarely used. See last Examples to No. 23.
25. $\breve{a} a$, written " ar," has entirely lost the $r$ ' in weak syllables, but has not sunk to er when preceding the strong syllable.
barbarian baabai•rrien, particular paatikeuler partake paatai $\cdot k$, marquee maakee .
26. $\breve{a} u$, written " or," has entirely lost the $r$ ' in weak syllables, but has not sunk to er when preceding the strong syllable.
ornate aunai•t, ordain audai•n, organic augan $\cdot i k$ orthography authog $\cdot r u \check{f}$, orthoepy authoa-ipi.

Ex. 41. On words of Two Syllables apt to be Pronounced as words of One Syllable. When a long vowel or diphthong is followed by a short weak $\breve{u}$ or
$\vec{u}$ and a consonant, there is a tendency first to speak it with the long vowel or diphthong as a murmur diphthong or triphthong, and then to omit it altogether, thus-quiet kwei et becomes kwei•ŭt and then kweit, and real ree el becomes ree $\breve{u l}$ and then ree.l. The following contrasts should be studied.
dyad dei.ed
dryad dr'ei $e d$
triad tr'ei ed
Dyak Dei•ek
Troad Tr'oa•ed
dial dei el
vial vei•el
denial dinei•el
trial tr'ei el
real r'ee el
really $r^{\prime}$ ee eli
diet deiet
quiet kwei•et
riot r'eiet bias bei•es (bei•us) diamond dei•umend (not dei•men) dime deim

Ex. 42. On the Mixed and Consonant Glides.This Exercise is to be formed from the Glossic Index, Section XII. Every English vowel is there found in connection with every English consonant which glides to or from it. Examples of all the consonant glides are also given in the preceding lists of Initial and Final Combinations.

## III. Weak Syllables.

The following Exercises-43 to 46-are taken from the examples on pp. 1161-1167 of my "Early English Pronunciation," where I have entered on the subject at greater length than is here necessary.

Ex. 43. On Terminations involving $R, L, M$, N.-What is the precise vowel really uttered is the indistinct weak syllables $\mathrm{el}, \mathrm{em}, \mathrm{en}, \mathrm{er}$, has not been satisfactorily determined. But $u, u^{\prime}, e^{\prime}$ may be used, and as $u$ is now the strong sound of $e r$, it is most convenient for the singer to take $\psi$, which
must only slur, that is glide loosely, not tightly, on to the following consonant. This is expressed in English Glossic by writing the sound with e. If a real $e$ sound is distinctly heard, there will be a slight strengthening, which will be written by putting (•) after the following consonant. When any other vowel is written (as $u$ ) it is supposed to glide on tightly to the following consonant. Hence if men $\cdot \mathrm{sh} u n$ (mention) were written, the shun would be as distinct as in men shun (men shun), but men $\cdot$ shen would have the indistinct sound.
-and. Husband huz•bend, brigand brig•end, head-
land hed•lend, midland mid•lend.
-end. Dividend dividend (or dividi'nd), legend lejend (or lee jend).
-ond. Diamond dei umend, almond aa mend.
-und. Rubicund roobikund, jocund jok und.
-ard. Haggard hag•erd, niggard nig•erd, sluggard sing'erd, renard ren erd, leopard leperd, or more nearly hag $\cdot \mathrm{ed}$ (not hag $\cdot \mathrm{ed} \cdot$ ), \&c., never hag•ard, \&c. -erd. Halberd hal-berd, shepherd shep-erd (not shep-herd), or more nearly hal-bed, shep eed.
-ance. Guidance gei dens, dependance dipen $\cdot$ dens, abundance abur dens, clearance kleerr'ens, temperance tem•pur'ens, ignorance ig'nur'ens (we might write tem'perr'ens, ig'nerr'ens, meaning the same), resistance rizis'tens; never use ans.
-ence. Licence lei sens, confidence kon fidens, dependence dipen•dens, patience pai shens ; never use ins.
-some. Méddlesome med•lsem, irksome er•ksem, quarrelsome kwor' ${ }^{\prime}$ elsem; sum is sometimes used.
-sure. Pleasure plezh•er, measure mezh•er, leisure lezh•er, (or leezher), closure kloa:zher, fissure fish•er (or fish•eur, fis•eur). See p. 138, No. 23.
-ture. Creature kree'teur (or kree'cher), vulture vul-teur (or vul-cher), venture ven'teur (or ven'cher, not ven'ter), furniture fer-niteur (or fer"nicher, not fer"niter), verdure ver-deur and verger verjer are usually both verjer.
-al. Cymbal sim•bel, radical radi•kel, logical loj $\cdot \mathrm{ikel}$, cynical sin $\cdot i k e l$, metrical met $\cdot$ rikel, poetical poaet $\cdot \mathrm{ikel}$, medial mee diel, lineal lin $\cdot \mathrm{iel}$, victuals vit elz (or vit $\cdot l z$ ) ; the distinction between el and $l$
in these words may be pedantic, but the singer chooses $u^{\prime} l$ in all cases.
-el. Camel kam•el, pannel pan $\cdot \mathrm{el}$ (or pan $\cdot \mathrm{el} \cdot$ •, apparel apar' $\cdot$ el (or apar' $\cdot e l \cdot$ ).
-am. Madam nadem (mad•an is coming into use among shop assistants), quondam kwon•dem, Clapham Klap•em.
-om. Freedom freedem (enpuatically free dum or free•dome), seldom sel-dem, fathom fadh $\cdot \mathrm{em}$, venom ven $\cdot \mathrm{em}$.
-an. Suburban suber-ben, logician loajish en, historian histoarr'ien, Christian Kris'tyen (or Kris'chen), metropolitan met roapoliten, woman wuom'en (never wuom $\cdot a n$, see -en), watchman woch•men (or wooch-man, watchmen is often, not always, wotch•men $\cdot$ ), countryman kun trimen (sometimes -man, and sometimes plural kun trimen.).
-en. Garden $g a a \cdot d n$, children chil-drin, linen lin $\cdot \mathrm{in}$, woollen wuol $\cdot \mathrm{in}$, women wim $\cdot \mathrm{in}$ or wim $\cdot \mathrm{en}$; great variety of usage in this termination, speakers who are not readers use $n$ only ; singers should use u'n except when in is imperative.
-on. Deacon dee $\cdot k n$, pardon paa $\cdot d n$, fashion fash $h \cdot e n$, minion min•yen, occasion okai:zhen, passion pash en, vocation voakai shen, question kwest'yen (kwes $\cdot \mathrm{chen}$, not kwes $\cdot \mathrm{sh} h \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{kwesh} \cdot \mathrm{en}$ ), felon $\mathrm{fel} \cdot \mathrm{un}$.
-ern. Eastern ee-stern, cavern kavern; no $r^{\prime}$, not different from ee sten, kav•en.
-ar. Vicar vik•er, cedar see•der, vinegar vin•iger, scholar skol-er, secular sek euter.
-er. Robber rober, chamber chai-mber, member mem-ber, render ren $\cdot d e r$.
-or. Splendor splen $\cdot d e r$, superior seupee $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ier, tenor ten $\cdot \mathrm{er}$, error er'er, actor ak'ter, victor vik-ter.
-our. Labour lai:ber, neighbour nai•ber, colour kul-er, favour fai ver.
-ant. Pendant pen $\cdot d e n t$, infant in $\cdot$ fent, quadrant kwod•rent, truant troo ent.
-ent. Innocent in oasent (not in $\cdot$ ersent, in $\cdot$ usent, quiescent kweies $\cdot$ ent, president prez $\cdot$ ident.
-ancy. Infancy in $\cdot f$ fensi, tenancy ten $\cdot e n s i$, constancy kon•stensi.
-ency. Decency dee'sensi, currency kur'ensi, tendency ten $\cdot$ densi.
-ary. Beggary beg'ur'i, summary sum $\cdot u r^{\prime} i$, granary gran $\cdot u r^{\prime} i$, notary noa'tur'i, literary lit $\cdot u r^{\prime} e r^{\prime} i$ (or lit $\cdot u r^{\prime} u r^{\prime} i$ ); we might write beg'err'i, \&c., meaning the same.
-ery. Robbery rob•ur'i, bribery brei bur'i, gunnery gun $\cdot u r^{\prime} i$; we might as before write rob•err'i, meaning the same.
-ory. Priory prei ur'i (prei.oar'i and preior' $i$ are pedantic, especially the last), cursory ker $\cdot$ sur' $i$, victory vik'tur'i (vik•toar'i is very pedantic), history his'tu'ri (his'toar'i and his'tori are inventions), oratory or'utur'i (or or' utor' $^{\prime}$ ), preparatory pripar' $u t u r^{\prime} i$ (or -tor'i).
-ury. Usury eu'zhur'i, luxury luk'shur'i (luk•seur'i is more heard than eurzeur'i).
-ual. Usual eurzheuel, manual man euel (sometimes eu:zhel, man•yel).

## Ex. 44. On other Weak Endings.

-a. Sofa soa'fa, idea eidee $a$, sirrah sir' $a$. Here $-a$ is written in English Glossic, although -er is commonly said, because no subsequent $r^{\prime}$ is at all permissible. and because the pronunciation $a^{\prime}$ is not only permissible, but not unfrequent, as soa• $f a^{\prime}$, eidee $\cdot a^{\prime}$, sir' $\cdot a^{\prime}$, and esteemed elegant, but not pedantic. See p. $54 a$.
-0, -0w, -ough. Hero hee $\cdot$ r'oa, stucco stuk.oa, potatue poatai toa, tobacco tubak.oa, widow wid oa, yellow yel.oa, fellow fel.oa, sorrow sor.oa, sparrow spar'oa, borough bur'oa, (or most commonly bur' $u$ ) ; in the other words er or $-u$ is inadmissible, and -err' before vowels is extremely vulgar.
-ue, -ew. Value val•eu (not val-i), nephew nev•eu not (nev-i).
-iff, -ock. Sheriff sher'• if, bannock ban $\cdot u k$, haddock $h a d \cdot u k$, paddock pad•uk; never -u, as in Scotland.
-ach, -ac. Stomach stum $\cdot u k$, lilach lei•luk (lai•luk is old), maniac mai niak.
-acy, icy. Prelacy prel-usi, policy pol-isi (not pol-usi), obstinacy ob-stinesi.
-ate. (1) In nouns. Laureate laur'iet, frigate frig•et (often frig•it), figurate fig•euret (2) In
verbs, when the principal accent is not on the next preceding syllable, as demonstrate dem:enstrait, illustrate ilustrait; those who place the principal accent on the next preceding syllable say dimon'stret, ilus'tret; custom is unfixed; the latter is beginning to prevail.
-age. Village vil•ej (or vil.ij), image im•ej (or $i m \cdot i j$ ), manage man $\cdot \mathrm{ej}$ (or man $\cdot i j$ ), cabbage kab.ej (or $k a b \cdot i j$ ), marriage $m a r ' \cdot i j$, carriage $k a r^{\prime} \cdot i j$.
-ege. Privilege privilij (not priv•ulij), college kol $i j$.
-ain, -in. Certain ser tin (some say ser tn), Latin Lat $\cdot$ in (some say Lat $\cdot n$ ), captain kap•tin, (kap ten, not kap•n, kap•ting).
-ing. Singing sing-ing (not sing.gingg), being bee ing (not bee-ingg) ; any use of -ir, or -ing!, or -ingk, is provincial or vulgar now.
-ful. Mouthful mou'thfuol, sorrowful sor'oafuol (not-fel), cheerful cheerrfuol (often cher•fel).
-fy. -ize. Terrify ter'•ifei, signify sig•nifei civilize siv•ileiz, baptize baptei $\cdot z$; the ei is quite clear.
-it, -id, -ive, -ish. Pulpit puol pit, rabbit rab-it, rabid rab-id, restive res*tiv, parish par'ish; the $i$ is quite clear.
-il. Evil ee•vl, devil dev•l; the pronunciation $e e \cdot v i l$, dev $\cdot i l$ is orthographical, and contrary to general modern and ancient usage.

- y, -ly, -ty. Mercy mer. $\bar{s} i$, truly tr'oo $l i$, pity pit $\cdot i$; the $i$ is unobscured, and not $i$ ' in general speech; tr'oo lei should be avoided.
-mony. Harmony haa muni, matrimony mat rimuni (or -moani, -moni), testimony tes'timuni (or -moani, -moni).
-most. Hindmost hei ndmust, utmost ut must, bettermost bet umust, foremost foa rmust ; in conscious utterance -moast is often used.
-ness. Sweetness swee tnes, rather than swee'tnis, the $s$ generally saves the vowel.
-teous. Righteons, piteous, plenteous, are pronounced by me rei•tyus, pit•yus, plen tyus, but perhaps this is pedantic, and I hear generally rei chus, pich $\cdot u s$ or pich $\cdot i u s$, plen $\cdot$ chus or plen $\cdot$ chius.
-ious. Precious presh•us, prodigious proadij'us.
-ial, -ialty, -iality. Official ofish $\cdot e l$, partial pra'shel, partiality paa•shial-iti, special spesh $\cdot$ el (not spee $\cdot$ shel), specialty spesh $\cdot$ elti, speciality spesh-ial-iti. All the -ial- are orthograpical.
-ward. Forward fau'werd (not for' $u d$ ), backward bak werd (not bak $u d$ ), awkward au-kwerd not au•kud), upward up werd, downward dou nwerd, froward froa erd, toward toa•erd, towards toa•rdz (or toowau $d z$ ).
-wise. Likewise lei•kweiz, sidewise sei•dweiz.
-wife. Midwife mid $\cdot i f$, housewife $h u z \cdot i f$, goodwife guod $\cdot i$; mid•weif, hou sweif, guod weif are orthographical ; huz $i$ is also used for a needlecase or slattern.
-wich. Greenwich Grin $i j$, Woolwich Wuoli $i j$, Norwich Nor' $\cdot i j$, Ipswich $I p \cdot s i j$ (locally, $I p \cdot s w i c h$ orthographically).
-eth. Speaketh spii•keth; this termination being obsolete, the pronunciation is orthographical.
-ed, -ied. Pitted pit $\cdot e d$, pitied pit $\cdot i d$, added $a d \cdot e d$; $-e d$, -id, $-i{ }^{\prime} d$ are all heard.
-es, -'s, -s. Princes, prince's prin•sez (or -iz, -i'z), churches, church's cher chez (or $-i z,-i{ }^{\prime} z$ ), paths paa•dhz, path's paa dhhs, cloth's, cloths kloths, clothes $k l o a \cdot d h z$ (as a verb), $k l o a \cdot z$ (generally, as a substantive)


## Ex. 45. On Weak Beginnings.

a-. (1) When two pronounced consonants follow, accept $a k s e p \cdot t$, advance $a d v a a \cdot n s$, admire $a d m e i \cdot r$, alcove alkoa $v$; a clear $a$. (2) When only one pronounced consonant follows, generally very indistinct $\breve{u}$ or $u$-, as among $\breve{u}$-mung ${ }^{\circ}$, alas $\breve{u}$-laa $\cdot s$, adapt $\breve{u}$-dap $\cdot t$; but great variety of pronunciation prevails, $a, ~ a$, being also used as amung , alaa $\cdot s$, adap $\cdot t$, the following consonant being often taken as medial ; hence in English Glossic $a$ is used ; ai must never be said.
$\mathrm{e}-$, be-, de-, re-. when only one pronounced consonant follows, is generally $i$, rarely ee; decent dee $\operatorname{sent}$, descent disen't or deesen $\cdot t$, dissent disen't or dissen't; emerge imer $\cdot j$ or cemer $\cdot j$, immerge imer $j$ or immer $\cdot j$; elope iloa $\cdot p$ or eeloa $\cdot p$, event iven $\cdot t$ or eeven $\cdot t$; the initial $e, d e, r e, b e$ is either $i$ or $e c$, not $e$, except before $s$ and another
consonant, as despair despai $\cdot r$, respond respon $\cdot d$, eclipse eklip $\cdot \mathrm{s}$, or $i$-klip $\cdot s$.
bi-. bei- or $b i$-, usage varies in the same word, all such words being classical, bicycle bei seikl, bis ikl.
di-. dei- or di-, usage varies in the same word, as direct deirek $\cdot t$, direk $\cdot t$, divide dive $\cdot d$ always, diversity deiver-siti, diver-siti. The dei is always orthographical.
0-. pro-, \&c. Oblige, obliged oablei•j, oablei $\cdot j d$ (oableej;, oableecht are old), occasion okai zhen, oppose opoa $\cdot z$, promote proamoa $\cdot t$ produce (v.) proadeu's, propose proapoa $z$, but use varies in construction.
to-. To-morrow toomor'.oa (or tu-mor'.oa, not termor' $\cdot$ er), together toogedh $\cdot$ er.
for-, fore-. Forbid faubid , forgive faugiv ', forego foar goa, foretell foartel., but the two last have also frequently fau-.
Ex. 46. On Weak Words.-The order is that of the frequency of the commonest English words given in Mr. D. Nasmith's "Practical Linguist, English," 1871. 'The clear sound is given first and the obscure ones afterwards, $u$ being used for the obscure vowel; a dash ( - ) separates the two. The indistinctness of our weak monosyllables is not confined to colloquial pronunciations. It pervades the most solemn declamations of the pulpit, and is as a rule most conspicuous where the strong syllables are most forcible. But for the mere singer this is of no consequence. He has to sing the words in their clear pronunciation, or the usual singing substitutes for it. In ordinary Glossic only the clear pronunciation is written. The Examples under 'to' and 'that' will shew the effect of writing indistinct monosyllables, as is always necessary where it is wished to convey a conception of the actual treatment of sentences by a speaker, as for example, in writing dialects. The clear pronunciation is a literary artificiality, which the reader has to learn how to overcome, but which conveys the sense better when the words are taken separately (as in a baby's lesson book), and hence
is better suited to the wants of the singer, who cannot possibly join his words together as a speaker does.
and. And-und, un, $n, n h$, scarcely heard at all. the. Dhee-dhi, dhi', dhy-, dh-, dhe, dhu. In singing, use $d h i$ before a vowel, and either $d h i$ or diu before a consonant.
I. $E i$-does not change, but becomes extremely short.
you. Yoo-yŏo, yŭo, yu; following $t, d$ it often changes them more or less completely into $c h, j$.
he. Hee-hĕe, $h i$, ěe, $i$; the aspirate is constantly lost when ' he' is enclitic.
she. Shee-shĕe, shi, sh.
it. It-dues not vary.
we. Wee-wěe, $w i$, the $w$ is never lost.
they. Dhai $y$-dhai, dhe, but not $d h u$.
have. Hav-huv, uv, v.
will. Wil-wul, wl, l.
shall. Shal-shl, shlh.
one. Wun-wun obscure, the form un is common, but not received.
to. Too-tŏo, tŭo, tu; never toa (as often in America) ; Ex., I gave two things to two men; and he gave two, too, to two, too, $\cdot$ Ei gai $v \cdot$ too thingz tu-too men, un 'hee gai'v too too'tu-too. too', where ( ${ }^{\prime}$ ') represents a secondary accent.
be. Bee-bĕe, bi, bu.
there. Dhai r-dhu, and before vowels dhai $\cdot r r^{\prime}$, dherr', dher', dhur'.
a. Ai $\cdot y$-ăi, $a^{\prime}, u$, generally $u$. Before a vowel an-un. Before $h$ beginning a weak syllable an, as a history, an historical account, an harangue, $u$ his*tur'i, an $\cdot$ hustor' $\cdot i k e l$ akou $\cdot n t$, an•hur'ang, in which case be very careful not to omit the $h$.
my. Nei-mi.
his. Hizs, hiz-hiz, iz. I
our. $O u^{\cdot} r$-this is unchanged.
your. Yoo'r-yu, yer, yerr'.
her. Her-u, er.
their. Dhair-dhu, before vowels dhai $\cdot r r^{\prime}$, dherr', dher', dhur'.
of. $O v-u v, u$, some old speakers use of.
would. Wuod-wd, d.
should. Shuod-shd.
or. $A u$, aur, or'-ău, aur', $u$, ur', the $r^{\prime}$ only before a vowel, the ău most frequent Similarly for ' nor.'
for. Fau, faur', for' $-f a ̆ u, f a u r ', f u, f u r$, the $r$ ' only before a vowel.
that. Dhat-dhut, dht ; the demontrative pronoun is always distinct, the conjunction and relative almost always obscure, as: I know that, that that that that man said is not that that that one told me, Ei-noa• that, dht-that dht-dhat man.' sed iz•nt •dhat dht-dhat wun toa ld-mi.
on. On-always clear.
do. Doo-d̆̆o, dйo, uo.
which. Which, wich-whch, woch; in London, wich-wch are most common, but which-whch are considered more 'correct.'
who. Hoo--hŏo, hŭo, ŭo.
by. Bei-generally kept pure, but becomes very short.
them. Dhem-dhm; also $m$ or em from the old 'hem,' but thought 'inelegant' by those who are unacquainted with 'hem.'
me. Mee-mĕe, $m i, m \check{u}$, but $m \breve{u}$ is perhaps an Irishism, as in, to me, from me, with me, too $m u$, from $m u$, widh'mu.
were. Wai $\cdot r$, wai $\cdot r r^{\prime}$, wer-wer, wŭ.
with. Widh, with-wi, generally kept pure, with is heard from older speakers.
into. In $\cdot$ too, intoo-in $\cdot t o o$, in $\cdot t u$.
can. Kan-kn.
cannot. Kan•ot, kaa•nt-not changed.
from. From-frum.
as. Azs, az-uz,z.
us. Us-us.
sir. Ser-su.
madam. Mad•am-mam, mem, mim, mum, $m \div m$, $m$. Here $m \div m$ is a slur, $m$ being continued with a slight reduction of force, as noa $m \div m$, yes $m \div m$.

Ex. 47. On Alternations of Strong and Weals Syllables.-This is properly rather for the speaker than the singer, who is at the mercy of the composer. This Exercise is confined to the 28 typical
words of more than one syllable in Mr. Melville Bell's "New Elucidation of the Principles of Speech," 1849, p. 227, a work full of most useful Exercises, but they are treated in a somewhat different way. The laws of force accent, the change of position of the strong syllable in course of time, the differences between the English and foreign systems of accentuation are not considered. The words are written in common English Glossic, the lengths of the vowels (not of the syllables) are distinguished by the long, medial, and short marks. The slurs are written, but the accent-marks are omitted. After the word is placed a series of numbers, giving the relative force of the syllables according to a scale of nine grades, of which, however, only five are retained, which may be named and compared with musical terms thus:-

| 1 | 3 | 5 | 7 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| faint | weak | mean | strong | violent |
| $p p$ | $p$ | $m f$ | $f$ | $f f$ |

In several cases different varieties of force are given, showing different modes of reading.
2 syllables in a word.

| wayward | wāivërd | 73 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| away | $\breve{u} \div w a \bar{a} i$ | 37 |

3 syllables in a word.

| temperate | těmpǔ~ $-r^{\prime}$ čt | 715 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| remember |  | 171 |
| recommend | r'ěkŭ - mënd | 517 |
|  | r'ĕkŏmmënd | 757 |

4 syllables in a word.

| temporary | tĕтрй~-r'er'ı | 7151 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 7111 |
| contemporal | kŏntèmpü $\div$ r'el | 371 |
|  | or, küntëmpü〒r'ĕl | 171 |
|  | or, kŏntěmpŏa $\div$ - r'ĕl | 373 |

contemplation kŏntěmpläishĕn 3171 or 3371 misunderstand mĭsündưّ-stănd 3317 or with mĭs emphatic 7315 or 7317 superintend sēupü $\div r$ rintënd 5137 or 7135 5 syllables in a word.
necessariness nĕsĕsĕr'i $i \div n e ̆ s$
73313
inveterately invětü~r'ětlí 17131 sometimes 37131 anatomical ănŭ $\div$ tŏm̌ $\div$ lĕel $\quad 31711$ subordination sübau $u$ đ̌ $\div n \bar{i} i s h e ̆ n ~ 15171$, or 17150 or 33171 , or 31171 , or 71151 never $s u \check{\square} \div \bar{a} u$, better $s \breve{u} b \div \bar{a} u$.
epigrammatic $\breve{e} p \check{\succ} \div$ grŭ $\div$ mătǔl 51173 , or 71153 or, ĕp $\check{\div} \div g r a ̆ m \div a ̆ t u ̌ k$

71353
6 syllables in a word.

or 753311
disingenuously dǐsĭn $\div$-jĕnĕu $\div$ ŭs̆̆ $\quad 537331$ or 735311
 extemporaneous ĕkstěmpŏa $\div r^{\prime}$ àniŭŭs 353713 or 733513 personification $p \check{u} \div$ - $o \check{ }$ n$\check{\div} \div f \check{\circ} \div k$ äishĕn 151171 or, $p \bar{u} \div s u \check{-} \div n \div f \check{\div} \div$ kaishĕn 511171 antipestilential ănt $\check{\div} \div p \bar{s} t \check{\imath} \div l e \check{ }$ nshĕl 515171
7 syllables in a word.
inconsiderableness inkŭn $\div$ sidu゙־ $-r^{3} \check{u} \div b l \div n e ̆ s$
5371113
or, ĭnkŏn $\div \quad 5571113$
 or 35171111 , or 5117111
 or 5511711



5115171
8 syllables in a word.


51511711
or, ǐnkŏmmē̃ $\quad 53511711$

55151711
9 syllables in a word. intercommunicability intër:kŭ:mēūnǐ:kǔ:b̆̌ǔ̌ť̆

## 511511711

It is thus seen that long words are practically divided into several short words by subordinate degrees of force, and that it is very rare to have more than two faint or $p p$ syllables together.

## B. GERMAN EXERCISES.

Ex. 48. On the Elementary German Speech-sounds.-The following words contain all the German sounds, excluding the implodents, which are considered a provincialism, and the post-aspirated forms of the mutes, which are not acknowledged. The learner should hear the following words pronounced frequently by Germans, and then endeavour to imitate their pronunciation with the assistance of the explanations already given.

## Long Vowbls.

$\bar{e} e$. Lieb lee $\cdot p$, ihn $e e^{\cdot} \cdot$, mir mee $\cdot r^{\prime}$ (not mee $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ), lilie lee-lee- $u$, hin hee $n$.
$\bar{a} i$. Ewig ai.v'éeky'h, gegen gai'gy'hen (or gai.gen), dem dai.m. No trace of any vanish ai.y.
$\bar{a} e$. Seele $z a e \cdot l u$, wer $v^{\prime} a e^{\prime} \cdot r^{\prime}$, thräne trae $n u$, leben lae ben. In the middle of Germany all these words are pronounced with $a i^{\text {., and the English }}$ speaker is advised not to attempt to use ac. long in any word, but before $r$ ' he may use his usual $e$.
$\bar{a} a$. Wahr $v^{\prime} a a^{\prime} \cdot r^{\prime}$, sah $z a a \cdot$, schaf shaa $\cdot f$, hahn haa $\cdot n$, name naa $\cdot m u$. This vowel is rery commonly pronounced $a k \cdot$, but as $a a^{\circ}$ is theoretically assumed and always admissible, it may be exclusively used by Englishmen.
$\bar{o} a$. Schoos shoa $\cdot$, ohne oa $\cdot n u$, sog zoa gh, rose roa:zu. No trace of any vanish oa wost be heard, and even $a 0^{\circ}$ may be used for $o a$.
öo. Schuh shoo', fuss foo 's, nur noo $r^{\prime}$ (not noo $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ), ruthe roo ${ }^{\circ}$ tu, muth moo $t$, thun $t o 0^{\circ} n$, gut goo $\cdot$.
$\bar{u} e$. Mühe mue $u$, lüge lue'gy'hu (or lue'gu), sühne zue'nu, güte gue'tu, trübe tr'ue'bu. Often vulgarly pronounced as $e e$.
ëo. Goethe Geo $t u$, öhl eo $l$, höfe leo $\cdot f u$, höhe heo'u, höhnen heo'nen, hötlich heo-flĕeky'h. Often vulgarly pronounced as $a i$.

## Short Vowels.

ěe. Ich ĕeky'h, mit mĕet, bitte bĕet' $u$, sitz zĕets. This is often pronounced $i$ in the North of Germany, and hence Englishmen may use $i$, as more convenient to their organs.
e. Halten hăal-ten, schaufel shaaw $\cdot f e l$. Occurs only in such syllables, and even there is frequently lost, or spoken as $u^{\prime}$, as which it should be sung.
ăe. Netz năets, senf zăenf, bellen băel-en, wäsche vฟॅ̌esh $\cdot u$, hemd hăemt, strenge sh'trăeng'u. This may, however, always be pronounced $e$ without danger of ambigrity and without offence. No sueh distinction as $\breve{a} i$, $\breve{a} e$ is now made.
ăa. Kalt kăalt, flachs flăaks, mann măan, fass făas, anfall ăa $a n f \breve{a} a l$ or $a a \cdot n f a ̆ a l$. This is often pronounced $\breve{a} h$, but $\breve{a} a$ is the theoretical pronunciation, and easiest for Englishmen.
ăo. Holtz, hăolts, voll făol, von făon, kopf kăopf", schloss shlăos. In the North of Germany the vowel is o, which may be always used by Englishmen.
$\breve{u}$. Hüte $h u e^{\prime} t u$, alles $\breve{a} a l l^{\prime} \breve{s} s$, wasser $v^{\prime} \breve{a} a s^{\prime} \cdot u r^{\prime}$, and all similar unaccented-final syllables, but some Germans use pure $\breve{a} i$ or $\check{e}$.
ŭo. Und ŭont, hund hưont, jung yŭong, nuss nŭos, busch büosh. Some Germans say ŏo.
$\check{u}$. Fülle $f u ̆ e l \cdot u$, küsse $k u ̆ e s \cdot u$, hütte huet $\cdot u$, rücken ruek en, münz müents. In many parts of Germany this sound is confused with ĕe or $i$.
ŏe. Böcke bŏek $\cdot u$, hölle hŏel $\cdot u$, röckchen rŏek $k$ ky'hen, köpfe kŏepf' $u$, In many parts of Germany this sound is confused with ăe or $e$.

## Diphthongs.

aay. Eile aay'lu, eis aays, weise $v^{\prime} a a y \cdot z u$, hain haay n, klein klaayn. In some parts of Germany a distinction is made, and "ei" is pronounced aey, or ey, but "ai" is pronounced aay;
but this is not usual. The theoretical pronunciation is always aay, which should be used, but ahy is very common; the English uy, $a$ ' $y$ may be used.
oy. Eule oy•lu, freund froynd, leute loy $t u$. This is the pronunciation of many parts of Germany, and the one generally used on the stage, but one theoretical sound is aaŭe, which I cannot recollect to have heard, and another aoŭĕ, which has equally escaped my notice. The greater number of German speakers, however (all thuse who use ai, ee for oe, ue), say ahy, which is not recommended.
aaw. Aue aaw $u$, grausam graaw $\quad$ ăam, haus haaws, for which sound the English $w w$, a'w (but not ŏaw, ǔuw, and never ew, aew) may be used; many Germans say $a h w$.

## Aspirate.

h. Hand hăant, is always the jerked gradual glottid or $h l$, and is never omitted even by the commonest speakers.

## Consonants.

p. Pack păak, pacht păakht, papst paa pst. Almost all German words beginning with $p$ are of foreign origin, the proper initial is $p f^{\prime}$ (a descendant of $p-h_{2}$, still said, as $\left.p-h_{2} a ̆ a k\right)$, or $b$.
b. Band băant, bald băalt, bild bĕelt. For this and for $p$ in middle Germany the implodent ${ }^{\circ} b$ is used; no Englishman should imitate this error.
$t$ (or rather $t$ ', but Englishmen need not trouble themselves to make the difference, as no ambiguity can arise from using $t$ ), tadel taa $\cdot d e l$, tand tăant, taugen taaw'ghen (or taaw•gen), thier tee $\cdot r^{\prime}$ (not tee $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ), theil taayl, theuer toyr' (not toy $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ), thor toa ${ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ (not toa ${ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ '), trotz trăots; the custom of using $t-h$, which should not be imitated, has generated $t s$ (or rather $t$ 's', but the difference is unimportant) which is a very frequent initial, as zu tsoo, ziel tsee $\cdot l$, zaun tsaawn, zorn $t s a ̆ o r ' n$.
$d$ (or rather $d$ ', see $t$ ), du doo, die dee, ding dĕeng, durch dǔor'ky'h, durst düor'st; the implodent ${ }^{\circ} d$,
common in middle Germany for both $t$ and $d$, should not be imitated.
ch. Deutsch doych, puntzsch pŭonch, patzsche păach• $\breve{u}$, klatschen kltuach•en; uncommon, and seldom used except at the end of words ; $j$ does not occur.
k. Kamm kăam, käse kai'zu (or kue'zu), kehren $k a i \cdot r$ 'en (not kai•rr'en), klappen klăap ${ }^{\prime}$ en, knabe knaa.bu, knopf knăopf', knie linee (a difficult initial combination for Englishmen, to be carefully studied); the common post-aspirated form $k-h_{l}$ before vowels should be avoided.
g. Gönnen gǒen'en, geben gai•ben (or gae•ben), gnaden gnaa den (a common word, in which the difficult initial combination requires careful study) ; the implodent ${ }^{\circ} g$ is not used.
$f^{\prime}$ ' (This only occurs in the combination $p f^{\prime}$ ' which is now often pronounced $p f$; the letter " $v$ " is sometimes pronounced $f^{\prime}$ but the general custom is to call it $f$ ), pfropf $p f^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ ăopf $f^{\prime}$, tapfer tăapf ${ }^{\prime} \cdot u r^{\prime}$. $v^{\prime}$. Wie $v^{\prime} e e$, weh $v^{\prime} a i$, was $v^{\prime} a ̆ a s$, wollen $v^{\prime} a o l \cdot e n$, wulst $v^{\prime}$ uolst; in the North of Germany it is said to become $v$, but I have never heard it. Englishmen may, however, use $v$, and must never use $w$ or $v w$.
f. Feind faaynt, faul fawwl, fest făest; very common, but $v$ is unknown.
s. Nichts nĕeky'hts, reissen raay'sen, flüsse flŭes'u schmutz shmŭots; fluss or flusz fluos; only used at the end of words, or in the middle (when written $s s$ or $s z$, never at the beginning.
z. Sie zee, sass $z a a \cdot s$, sieben zee ben, weise $v^{\prime} a a y$ 'ze; only used at the beginning of words, where it is frequently changed to $s z$, and in the middle of words, where it remains pure.
sh. Schiessen shee sen, scherzen shăer'tsen, schale shaa.lu, schwimm shv'ĕem, schluss shlŭos, schmauson shmaaw'zen, schnee shnai, schroff shr'aof; the voiced form $z h$ is unknown.
$s h$ ' (which need not be anxiously separated from $s h$ ), stab $s h^{\prime} t a a \cdot b$, stoss $s h ' t o a \cdot s$, spiel $s{ }^{\prime} ' p e e \cdot l$, spass $s h^{\prime} p a a^{\circ} s$, spur $s h^{\prime} p o o^{\circ} r$; in the North of Germany $s t$-, $s p$ - used to be said, but not on the stage ; and now full sht-, shp- are used in con-
versation even in Hanover ; the final -sh't or -sht is considered very vulgar, as in ist ĕesh't, fürst füer'sh' $t$, and must be carefully avoided.
$y$. Ja yaa, jagd yăakht, je yai, just yǔost, jüngst yǔengst ; in ja yaa, the $y$ often changed unconsciously to $y h$, as $y h a a$ or $y h y a a$.
$k y$ ' $h$. Mich mĕeky' $h$, fechten făeky' $h$ 'ten, mächte măeky' $h \cdot t u$, möchte moeky' $h \cdot t u$, kirche $k e ̆ e r ' \cdot k y^{\prime} h u$, milch měelky'h, manch măanky'h. Only used after $e e, a e, o e, a a y, o y, r^{\prime} l, m, n$, and in the final -chen -ky'hen, as mädchen mai dky'hen, mai'tky'hen.
$g y^{\prime} h$. Tilge tĕel-gy'hu, folge făol•gy'hu, betrügen betrue gy' hen ; and according to some writers, in the prefix 'ge,' as gerecht gy'he-răeky'ht', ge-ehrt $g y^{\prime} h e-a i \cdot r$ 't, but I generally heard $g$ used in that position; in general gyh'aĕner'aa $\cdot l$, regierung r'egy' hee 'r'üong, \&c., it is used or not at pleasure; $g$ may always be said, as it is still in North Germany, at the beginning and in the middle of words.
$k h$. Ach $a a \cdot k h$, macht măakht, focht făokht; and generally after $a a, \breve{a} o$, $o a$; also according to most writers, after $o o$, uo, aaw, where I hear $k w ' h$, as buch $b o o^{\circ} k w^{\prime} h$, bucht bŭokw' $h t$, auch aawkw'h, but this need not be attended to, so that the simple $b 00 \cdot k h$, bruokht, aawkh may be used.
gh. Tage taa.ghu, gezogen ge-tsoa.ghen; only used between vowels, replaced by $k h$ when final, as
betrog betroakh, betrogen betroaghen. In North Germany $g$ is used initially and medially, and $k$ finally.
l. Lamm lăam, lässt lăest, elle ael $\cdot$.
m. März măer'ts, menge măeng' $u$, kämme kăem' $u$.
n. Nun noo n, niemand nee măant, henne hăen $u$.
$n g$. Singer zĕeng'ur', finger fěeng $\cdot u r^{\prime}$; some Germans say $n g g$ and others $n g k$ at the end of words from which $u$ has not been elided, as lang lăangg or lăangk, but lang' (for lange) lăang; the Englishman is recommended to use his easy ng always.
$r^{\prime}$. Reise $r^{\prime} a a y \cdot z u$, schier shee $r^{\prime}$ (not shee $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ), schaar shaa ${ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$ (not shaa $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ); commonly $r^{\prime} r h$ when final, and very commonly ' $r$ initial and medial, and ' $r$ 'rh final, none of which usages need be imitated. The vocal English $r$ does not occur, or, at least, is not acknowledged.

The Examples in the Alphabetical Key to German Pronunciation in Section XIV, and the German songs, of which the pronunciation is given in Glossic, in Section XV, will form sufficient additional exercises for the purpose of learning to sing German well enough to be intelligible, and not to be annoying to educated ears. To speak or read German properly requires much time and attention, many teachers, and, if possible, residence in the country.

## C. ITALIAN EXERCISES.

Ex. 49. On the Elementary Italian Speech-sounds.-The following words contain all the Italian sounds, and the learner should hear them often pronounced by Italians, if possible, from from Tuscany or Rome. The Alphabetical Key to Italian Pronunciation in Section XIV, and the Italian songs written in Glossic in Section XV will suffice for additional exercises to acquire the power of pronouncing Italian with sufficient correctness not to be offensive in singing. For accurate pronunciation much study is required.

## Vowels.

The Italian vowels when long are not so long as the English, and when short not so short; they are properly always medial. But Englishmen may treat them as long when ending a strong syllable, and as short otherwise. The accent marks in the Examples are placed in accordance with this convention.
ee. I ee, lirico lee'r'eekoa, spiri spee•ree; fisso fees soa, ninfa neen'faa, dimmi deem mee.
ai. E ai, fede fai•dai, sete sai•tai, avere aavai•r'ai; alimento anleemain'toa, burlesco boor'lais•koa, capretto kaapr'ait•toa; this sound is quite pure, and without the least vestige of a following ee or vanish.
$a e$. E ae, regola r'ae-goalaa, predica prae deekaa, straniere str'aanee-ae rai ; bella bael-laa, dente daen'tai; Englishmen may use $\bar{e}, \check{e}$, but the sound in Italian is very much broader and more marked.
$a a$. Fato faa•toa, raro r'aa'r'oa, bavaro baa•vaar'oa; fatto faat $\cdot t o a$, cassa kaas $\cdot s a a$, tanto taan $\cdot t o a$, fiamma fyaam maa.
a. Oro $a 0^{\circ} r^{\prime}$ oa, poco pao koa, cosa $k a 0^{\circ} z a a$, dopo dao'poa; sciolto shaol-toa gloria glao ${ }^{\circ}$ 'ee-aa, biscotto beeskaot'toa, torto taor'toa; Englishmen may use $\bar{a} u, o ̆$ for this sound without danger of ambiguity.
0:. Amore aamoa 'r'ai (this oa $r^{\prime}$, not oa'rr', nor $a u \cdot r \cdot$ must be especially noticed by Englishmen);
geloso jailoa $\cdot$ soa, filatojo feelaatoa yoa; the real Italian sound is somewhat more like oo, having probably the same position of tongue as oa, but the lips in the position of 00 ; but Englishmen may be quite satisfied with $o a$.
00. Cura $k o o^{\circ} r^{\prime} a a$, scudo skoo doa, ignudo eeny'oo doa; tutto too toa, giunchi joong kee; the 00 does not become uo when shortened, but no ambiguity will arise from using $u$.

## Diphthongs.

There are no diphthongs with tight glides as in English and German, but only properly speaking with slurs; whenever two vowels come together the Italians are apt to reckon and feel them as one syllable when the second vowel has not the stress. Examples of all cases in which the first vowel is strong are here given according to Valentini. Short marks will be used to indicate the weak vowel in the slurred combination.
aă̆̌. Traere traa‘ăir'ai, aere $a \cdot \cdot a \breve{a} r^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} a i$, sufficiently written traa•air'aa, aa•air'ai.
 sufficiently written daay•noa, moozaa•eekoa. aaŏă. Paolo Paa•ŏăloa, sufficiently written Paa•oaloa. aaŏŏ. Laura Laa'ŏŏr'aa, fraude fr'aa'ŏŏdai, pausa paa•ŏŏzaa, sufficiently written Laaw ${ }^{\prime}$ 'aa, fr , uw•dai, paaw'zaa.
aeă̆̆. Beano bae ăănoa, oceano oachae•ăănoa, sufficiently written bae aanoa, oachae aanoa.
aeŏă. Eolo Ae:ŏăloa, laureola laaŏŏr'ae:ŏăloa, sufficiently written Ae oaloa, laawr'ae oaloa.
aeӗӗ. Teseide Taisae-ӗӗdai, Eneide Ainae-ĕĕdai, sufficiently written Taisae eedai, Ainae eedar.
aeŏŏ. Neutro nae:ŏŏtr'oa, feudo fae•ŏŏdoa, sufficiently written naew ${ }^{\prime}$ troa, faew $\cdot d o a$.
aoăă. Oasi ao'ăăsee, Roano Rao $\begin{aligned} & \text { ăănoa, sufficiently }\end{aligned}$ written ao aasee, Roa•aanoa.
 written air'oo eekoa, lao eekoa.
aoăă. Induano eendoo ăănoa, sufficiently written eendoo'aanoa.
ooŭt. Influere eenfloo $\breve{a r} \cdot r a i$, puero poo $\breve{a}$ ĭroa, sufficiently written eenfloo air' ai, poo ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{air}^{\prime}$ 'oa.
ooĕ̌. Fluido floo'ěĕdoa, Druido Dr'oo`ĕĕdoa, sufficiently written floo eedoa, Dr'oo eedoa.
ooŏc̆. Influono eenfloo ŏănoa, suo soo ŏă, sufficiently written eenfloo aanoa, soo oa.
eeăă. Maniaco maanee $\breve{a}$ ăk̆koa, diaci dee $\begin{aligned} & \text { ăăchee, suffi- }\end{aligned}$ ciently written maanee aakoa, dee aachee.
eсăй. Dieno dee ă̆nnoa, sieno, see ăı̆noa, sufficiently written dee ainoa, see ainoa.
eeŏă. Periodo pair'ee:ŏădoa, sufficiently written pair'ee oadoa.
The second method of writing best conveys the effect of the sounds to English ears, with perhaps the exception of naew $t r^{\prime} \circ a$, faew $\cdot d o a$, for which nae ootr'oa, fae.oodoa might be better, because of the looseness of the connecting glide.

## Consonants.

p. Parto paar' toa, palla paal-laa, lampo laam•poa.
b. Bardo baar' $d o a$, ballo baal-loa, bruno br'oo noa. $t$ (or rather $t$ ', but the distinction may be neglected). Tirato teer'aa•toa, tanto taan'toa, tutore tootoa rai (not tootao $r r^{\prime}$ ai or tootau'r'ai).
$d$ (or rather $d^{\prime}$, but the distinction may be neglected). Detto dait•toa, debito dai•beetoa, addicere aaddee-chairai.
ch (this is the English sound, which may always be used, but $s h$ ', not $s h$, is also used in Italian, as in face faa sh'ai, facce faty' $\cdot h^{\prime} a i$, which may be pronounced as:) Face faa chai, facce faat chai; duce doo chai, bucce boot chai; bracia braa•chaa, braccia braat-chaa.
$j$ (this is the English sound, which is perhaps always used, although $z h$ may occur). Gesto jaes•toa, giudice joo deechai, già jaa, Giacomo Jaa-koamoa.
k. Caro kaa•roo, cheto kai toa, chiave kyaa•vai. (In Tuscany there is a habit of using $h$ in in place of $k$, before the letter $a$, as haa roa, haa mairaa, hao:za for kaaroa, kaa meraa, kao zaa, caro, camera, cosa; this fault must be carefully avoided; Tuscans are also apt to introduce $h$ before every $o$, as confronto
k-hoanfr'-hoan $t$-hoa, Livorno Leev-haor'noa, whence possibly the sailor's name Leghorn Leg-haw n ; in other respects, even the Tuscan peasant speaks pure Tuscan, which is the literary dialect of Italian!.
g. Gara gaa $\cdot r^{\prime} a a$, angusto anggoo stoa, piaghe pyaa.gai.
$w$ (as a real consonant this does not exist in the language, but Englishmen may use it for ŏŏ, as uovo ǒŏao voa or wao voa), hence uomo wao•moa, quale kwaa•lai, quindi kween•dee, guida gwee daa.
f. Fasti faas'tee, differire deef•fair'ee 'r'ai.
$v$. Vasti vaas'tee, vece vai chai, avvi aav•vee.
s. Sano saa•no, scala skaa•laa, verso vaer'soa, curioso $k o o^{\cdot} r^{\prime} e e-o a \cdot s o a$ (not $k o o^{\circ} r r^{\prime} e e-o a \cdot s o a$ ).
z. Sbaglio $z b a a \cdot l y$ 'oa, smorto zmaor' $t o a$, esatto aizaat'toa, esito ae zeetoa.
$t s$ (or $t$ 's' or even $s^{\prime}$, but ts suffices). Zio tsee $o a$, balza baal-tsaa, Venezia Vainae-tsee-aa, bellezza baillaet tsaa, pozzo poat tsoa.
$d z$ (or $d^{\prime} z^{\prime}$ or even $z^{\prime}$, but $d z$ suffices). Zero $d z a e^{\prime} r^{\prime}, o a$, zona dzoa•naa, zanzara dzaan=dzaa'r'aa, mezzo maed•dzoa, gazza gaad•dzaa.
sh. Scemo shai•moa, fasci faash•ee, pesci paish•ee, cresciuto kraishoo'toa, sciolto shaol-toa.
$y$ (as a real consonant is not in the language, but Englishmen may use it for $\check{e}$ ĕ, as jeri ĕĕai ree or yai•ree, hence) ajo aa-ĕĕyoa, sufficiently written $a a \cdot y y o a$, piano pyaa noa, fioce fyao $k o a$, più pyoo.
l. La laa, augelli aaŏŏjael-lee, altro aal-tr'oa.
ly'. Gli ly'ee, figlie fee ly'ai, scogli skoa ly'ee.
$n$. Niuno nyoo'noa, nò nao, non noan, mensa maen•saa, anno aan noa.
$n y^{\prime} \cdot$ Ognuno oany'oo'noa, segni sainy'ee, ghigno gee $n y$ 'oa, bisogno beezao'ny'oa.
$n g$. Lungo loong•goa, vengo vaing•goa, anco aang•koa. $r^{\prime}$. Raro $r^{\prime} a a^{\prime} r^{\prime} o a$, terra taer' $r^{\prime} a a$, carne $k a a r^{\prime} \cdot n a i$; the trill of the tip of the tongue is always very strong, the extent of vibration being considerable, and the rapidity and duration of vibration being also much more than in English ; it is never omitted, and never made by the uvula.

## D. FRENCH EXERCISES.

Ex. 50. On the Elementary French Speech-sounds.-The following words, chiefly from Thériat, who is responsible for the marks of length over the vowels, contain all the elementary sounds in the French language. They must be heard very often, and practised much, to be well understood. Afterwards the examples in the Alphabetical Key, Section XIV, and the French songs which are given below, will serve as exercises. But it will be always difficult for any Englishman to sing a French song in a way which would be even tolerable to French ears. There is no force accent in French.

Vowels, Long and Short.
ee. titre teetrĕŏ, partie paartēee, il prie eel prēe, épître aipeetrĕŏ, synonyme seenaoneem.
ai. été aitai, pays pai-ee, aiguille aigŭŭee, je sais zheo sai, osprit aispree.
ae. procès praosūe, complète koon'plaet, rêvé rāevai, ils aimaient eelzaimāe, même māem, pêche pāesh, reine räen.
aa. papa paapaa, fat faat, femme faam; this sound is now more generally called $a^{\prime}$ in Paris.
ah. gras gräh, pas pāh, casser kīhsai; some ortheopists, as Thériat, consider that there is only one $a a$ sound, and that the difference is merely one of length, so that they would write grāa, pāa, kāasai.
ao. motif maoteef, hotte aot ; some ortheopists, as Thériat, do not distinguish ao and oa except in length.
oa. mots maux mōa, beau bōa, agneau aany'ōa, hôte öat.
oo. fou foo, tonte toot, bou boo, voûte vōot.
ue. muse mūez, vous eûtes voozūet, hutte uet.
eo. je zheo, deux deo, feu feo, neveu neoveo.
oe. peur pōer, seul soel, neuf noef, peuple poeplĕŏ, buf oef, boeuf boef. Some orthoepists do not distinguish eo oe, and many assign oe to $j e, m e, l e$, \&c.

Nasal Vowbla, Long.
aen'. pin, pain paen', témoin taimwaen', faim, fin faen', timbre taen'brĕŏ, dessein daisaen', bientôt byaen'toa; Englishmen may use an'.
$a h n '$. dans dahn', tampon tahn'poan', Jean Zhahn', trembleur trahn'bloer', encre ahn'kr'ĕ"; Englishmen may use on'.
oan'. non noan', long loan', nom noan', compte koan't, umble oan'blĕŏ (Féline gives oen'blĕ̈̆) lumbago loan'baagao ; the English reader must be very careful not to confuse oan' with $a h n^{\prime}$, as it is a common English fault to make them both on'. oen'. brun br'oen', à jeun aazhoen', parfum paar'foen', humble oen'blĕ̆o (also pronounced with oan', see above) ; Englishmen may use un'. ,

## Diphthongs.

auĕĕ (these diphthongs arise only from the conversion of $l y$ ' into $\breve{e} \breve{e}$ or $\breve{e} e \mathrm{e} y$, or from medial ee), gouvernail goovaer'naă̈é, faillir faaĕĕyeer' (or faayyeer', $y$ being doubled), médaille maidaaĕe, Versailles Vaer'saaĕĕ.
aeĕĕ. réveil r'aivaeĕe, réveiller raivaeĕĕyai (or raivaeyyai, taking $y$ as double), Marseilles Maar'saeĕĕ.
ooĕĕ. oeil oeĕe, recueil reokoeĕé, accueillir aakoeĕĕyeer' (or akoeyyeer' with double $y$ ).
 pluie plŭĕee, appuyer aарйёееуai, tuyau tüĕееyoa. See p. 496.
uĕaen'. Juin Zhüŭaen', quinquagésime küŭaen'kwaazhaizěem.

## Consonants.

p. papa păapăa, cap kăap, nappe năap, appareil ăapăar'aeĕĕ ; English $p$; instead of the recoil $p-{ }^{\circ} h$, the French often use pĕ̌.
b. bâton bähtoan', lobe lăob, bombe boan'b; English $b$, the recoil is bĕc.
$t^{\prime}$ (always dental, but the English may use their usual $t$ without hesitation), titre tĕetrĕŏ, thé tai, un grand home oen' g'ahn't ăom.
d' (always dental, but Englishmen may use their $d$ without hesitation), donner daonai, raide raed, reddition raeddĕĕsěeoan' (or raedĕesyoan').
$k y^{\prime}$ (some French writers, but not all, recognise this sound before the sounds of ii, ai,eo, oe, ue; as qui $k y^{\prime} e e$. queue $k y^{\prime} e o$, but Englishmen are not recommended to try it).
$g y^{\prime}$ (those who admit $k y^{\prime}$ also admit $g y^{\prime}$ in similar situations, as gueux $g y^{\prime} e o$, but Englishmen are not recommended to try it.)
k. carte kaar't, crainte kr'aen't, un rang éminent oen' rahn'k aimeenahn', quatre kaatr'ĕŏ, coq kaok, étiquette aiteekaet, quoique kwoaak.
a. garçon gaar'soan', gueule goel, second seogoan', - óclogue aiglaog, exister aigzĕestai.
$w$ (properly ŏŏ forming an initial oo diphthong with the following vowel), joaillier zhwaayyai, moclle mwăal, poêlier pwăalyai, coëffer kwăafai, soie swaa, bois bwaa, voir vwāar'; ouais wāe, fouet fwăe, foène fwăen, il temoigne ĕel taimwăeny'; oui wee, embabouiner an'băabweenai; employer ıhn'plwaayyai, royaume rwaayyoam, Bédouin Baidwaen', soin swaen', point pwaen'.
\%. carafe kăar'ăaf, bœuf bŏef, phrase frāaz.

- vivre veevrĕĕ, veure voev, neuf écus noev aikue.

1. son soan', abcès ăabsāe, façon făasoan', ambition chn'bĕesyoan', soixante swaasahn't.
2. zèle $z a ̆ e l$, rose $r^{\prime} \hat{a} o z$, il vous aime ěel vooz äem, sixième seezyāem, deux enfants deoz ahn'fahn'.
sh. cheval sheovăal, chercher shaer'shai, achat ăashaa, schisme shěezmĕŏ.
zh. je zheo, jardin zhăar'daen', jujube zhuezhueb, âge $a h z h$.
$y$ (properly $\check{e}$ forming an initial ee diphthong with the following vowel), diable dyăablĕŏ, ciel syăel, pitié pěetyai, reliure r'eolyüer', nous agréions nooz aagr'aiyyoan', vous aidier vooz aidyai, nous priions noo pree eeyoan', que vous priiez keo voo pree-eeyai; aïeux aayyēo (or aă̆ĕyēo), païen paayyaen' (or paaĕěyaen'); les yeux lāez yēo, rayon raiyyoan', payer paiyyai, nous payons noa paiyyoan', nous payions noo paiyyĕĕoan' nous appuyons nooz appŭĕeeyyoan', nous appuyions nooz appйеॅееуӗеॅоan'.
l. le leo, élève ailaev, fil fĕel, syllabe sěellăab.
m. me meo, même māem, ame ăam, pomme păom.
$n$. ne neo, navet naavae, annoté ăannaotai, inné ěennai, ennemi aenmee.
$n y$ '. agneau ăany'oa, ignoble ěenyaoblĕŏ, vigne věeny', Boulogne Boolaony'.
$r^{\prime}$. or aor', notre naotrĕŏ, le nôtre leo nōatrĕŏ, amer aamäer', art $\bar{a} a r '$, arranger aar'ahn'zhai. The greater number of Frenchmen in the North "grasseyent" (gr'äsaeĕe), that is, use the uvular ' $r$ in place of the trilled $r$ '. This is not allowed on the stage, and should be carefully avoided.

## XII. GLOSSIC INDEX.

Explanation of the Arrangement.-The intention of this index is to refer to every sound explained and described in the preceding pages, to shew in which of the four languages it occurs, and to give specimens of all the glides with which it is found in English. For German, Italian, and French, examples are given in Exs. 48, 49, and 50 of Section XI. (pp. 144-150), and the incidental sounds were illustrated when first described.

For the vowels and diphthongs the examples are arranged in the alphabetical order of the Glossic spelling from the vowel or diphthong forwards, so that all the final combinations are found in the order of the table on p . 111, with the introduction of the single consonants. Only one or two examples are given of each final combination. This list of words will form a complete series of key words for English, and also a complete series of exercises on the glides from vowels to consonants. The singer should practise them as such, singing them at first to long and then to very short notes, repeating the same word many times in succession, and making the glides quite distinct. If any difficulty is felt, the word must be dissected and practised in part, thus chainjd, ai, ain, ainj, ainjd, chainjd; ai, chai, ain, chain, ainj, chainj, ainjd, shainjd.

For the consonants, they are first given as initials, and as parts of initial combinations, in the order of the Table on p. 110, before all the vowels and diphthongs with which they are found, and then some (not all) cases of the medial and double, and one or two final combinations are given. Final combinations proper are found in abundance with the vowels.

The Glossic spelling of the English words agrees with that in the Short Key, Section III., pp. 12 and 13.

The letters e. g. i. f. after an initial Glossic letter or combination, shew that it occurs in the English, German, Italian, and French languages respectively, and the absence of any of these letters shews that it does not occur in the corresponding language.

The initial combination is in thick capital letters, when it is one of the sounds recognised in the Short Key, when it is incidental it is printed in Italic capitals, but any letters with marks of length over them are printed small.

After the number of a page a means first, and $b$ second column.

## LETTERS AND COMBINATIONS IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER.

A, e, pp. $31 b, 32 a$; its rounded form, p. $32 b$; may be sling as $a$, p. $34 a$. Strong and short: abb $a b$, scab skab, slab slab; scabbed skabd, blabbed blabd, stabbed stabd; dabs $d a b z$, crabs $k r ' a b z$; hatch hach, match mach; snatched snacht, scratched skr'acht; add ad, plaid plad, shad shad; lads $l a d z$, dad's dadz; baffle baf•l, snaffle snaf•l; bag bag, fag; wagged wagd, lagged lagd; brags $b r^{\prime} a g z$, swags swagz; badge baj, Madge Maj; badged bajd; crack krak, whack whak; axe aks, wax waks, whacks whaks, thwacks thwaks, waxed wakst, act akt, fact fakt, whacked whakt, cracked krakt; shall shal; acts akts, facts fakts, pacts pakts; Alp Alp; Alps Alps; am am, jam jam, cram $k r^{\prime}$ am; shammed shamd, rammed ramd; lamp lamp, cramp kr'amp; cramps kr'amps; cramped kr'ampt; shams shamz, flams flamz; an an, plan plan, $\tan$ tan; hand hand, planned pland, tanned tand; lands landz, strands str'andz; manse mans; banter banter, cant kant; cants kants, recants rikan'ts; man's manz, fans fanz; hang hang, sprang spr'ang, sang sang; hanged hangd; sank sangk, hank hangk; hanks hangks; thanked thangkt; pangs pangz; map map, taps taps, arrow $a r^{\prime} \cdot o a$, carry $k a r ' i$, narrow nar'•oa; gas gas, wassail was'el ; asp asp; ash ash, crash kr'ash, clash klash, smashed smasht, thrashed thr'asht; pat pat, that dhat, sprat spr'at; rats rats, cats kats; hath hath; have hav, has haz. Weak and short in open syllables, so written in Glossic to shew either $u$ or $a^{\prime}$ final may be used at pleasure, p. $53 b$ and $54 a$, pica pei $\cdot k a$, idea eidee $\cdot a$, area $a i \cdot r r^{\prime} i a$, sofa soa $\cdot f a$, acacia akai shia, drama draa ma. Long and strong, provincial, p. $32 a$. Ex. pp. 118a, 119b, $129 b$.
$A^{\prime}$, e. i.f. Pp. $32 a, 33 b, 34 a, 36 a$; may be used for $a$, p. 31a. Often used long or short in the following and similar words, where also aa long or short may be used, and where a long and short should not be used, p. $34 a$; may be always used in singing for $a$. Chaff cha'f chaaf, half ha'f haaf, calf ' $\% a^{\prime} f$ kaaf, laugh la'f laaf, laughed la'ft laaft, craft $k r^{\prime} a^{\prime} f t$ kr'aaft, shaft sha'ft, shaaft quaffed
kwa'ft kwaaft ; aft a'ft aaft ; shafts sha'fts shaafts, crafts $k r^{\prime} a^{\prime} f t s k r$ 'afts ; ass $a$ 's ans, pass pa's paas, grass gr'a's gr'aas, mass ma's maas; ask a'sk aash, bask ba'sk baask, casks ka'sks kaasks, masks ma'sks maasks ; rasp r'a'sp raasp, grasps gr'a'sps gr'aasps ; passed pa'st paast, mast ma'st maast; path pa'th paath, bath $b a^{\prime} t h$ baath, wrath r'a'th raath; path's pa'ths paaths, paths pa'dhz paadhz; halve ka'v haav, calve ka'v kaav; halved ha'vd haavd; calves $k a ' v z ~ k a a v z ; ~ c o m m a n d ~ k o m a ' n \cdot d ~ k o m a a n \cdot d$, plant pla'nt plaant (sometimes plant), haunt ha'nt haant (and haunt).
$A^{\prime}$ ', spoken e. form of $e i$, p. $44 a, a^{\prime} \cdot \breve{\imath}$ is a good singing form, p. $44 b$.

A'ŭŏ, a good form of ou, p. $47 a$.
$A^{\prime} y$, a form of $a^{\prime} \imath$, p. $46 a$.
AA, e. g.f.i., p. 33b, 36a. May be used for a, or $a h$, p. $39 a$. Strong and long : ah! aa! paths paa•dhz, half haa•f, langh laa•f, calm kaa $m$, palm paa.m, balm baa.m; calmed kaa.md; jaunts jaa•nts, haunts haa•nts; haunch haa•nch; command komaa $n d$, demand dimaa $n d$; demands dimaa $n d z$; chance chaa $n s$, prance $p r^{\prime} a \cdot \cdot n s$, plant plaa $\cdot n t$, can't kaa•nt, sha'nt shaa nt; plants plaa'nts, ass aa $\cdot s$, class $k l a a \cdot s$, grass $g r ' a a \cdot s$; cask kaa $\cdot s k$, bask $b a a \cdot s k$; casks kaa $\cdot \mathrm{sks}$, hasp haa $\operatorname{sp}$ (often hasp), clasps $k l a a \cdot s p s$; mast maa•st, cast kaa•st ; masts maa'sts ; path paa-th, bath baa-th, wrath raa-th; path's paa ths; halve haa v, halved haa vd, calves kaa vz. In all these cases the vowel is scarcely more than medial, and may be taken short, or $a^{\prime}$ (which see) may be used long or short, and some speakers use a long and short. If we include those cases in which aar (which see) is pronounced as aa simply, the list would be much increased. Strong and short aa does not occur except as a variety in the above words. Weak and medial rather than short $a a$, occurs only before these letters, or as a reduction of aar in weak syllables, as steadfast sted•faast, partake paatai $\cdot k$, particular paatike euler, Carthusian Kaathewzhien. Ex. pp. 114a, 116a.

- $A A$, flatus driven through the position for $a a$, p. $56 a$.

AA, slightly nasalised $a a$, as in America and South Germany, p. $44 a$.
$A A \breve{a} \imath$ or $A A \cdot \breve{a}$, i. slurred diphthong. pp. $45 a$, 1476.
$\breve{a} \breve{a} A O$, a lip glide, p. $55 b$.
$A$ Aёĕ, g. i. f., a form of $e i, \mathrm{p} .44 b, 45 a$ and $b$, or $a \alpha-\check{e} e$, slurred in Italian, p. $45 a$; $a a-e e^{*}$ i. even diphthong, p. $45 a$.
.AAĕe, g. nasalised form of ei, p. $44 a$.
$A A \check{i}$, g. and also an e. form of $e i$, just admissible in speech, p. $44 a, a a \cdot \check{z}$ is the proper form for singers, p. 44b. Not to be tolerated for oi, p. $45 b$.
${ }^{\text {. }} A A \breve{\imath}$, e. nasal form of $e i$. Not to be tolerated, p. $44 a$.

AAŏă, i. slurred diphthong, pp. 45a, $147 b$.
$A$ Aŏ口, i. slurred diphthong, pp. $47 b, 147 b$.
AA $\check{\text { üŏ, general g., admissible e. form of ou, }}$ p. $47 a, b$.
$\mathbf{A A} \cdot \mathbf{R}$, e. murmur diphthong $a a \cdot \breve{u}$, with a permissive trill $r^{\prime}$; the $\breve{u}$ and trill $r^{\prime}$ are generally omitted, and the simple vowel $a a$ used, so that $a a r$ signifies the permission to say $a a, ~ a a \cdot \breve{u}$, or $a a \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$, the first being most common, p. $50 b$. Always long and strong. Are $a a \cdot r$, garb gaa $\cdot r b$, barbs $b a a \cdot r b z$, arch $a a \cdot r c h$, starch staa $\cdot r c h$, starched staa rcht, bard, barred baa rd, guards gaa rdz, scarf skaa•rf, scarf's skaa rfs, large laa $\cdot r j$, enlarged enlaa•rjd, stark staa $r k$, arks $a a \cdot r k s$, marl maa $\cdot r l$, snarls snaa $r l z$, barm baa'rm (when the $\breve{u} r^{\prime}$ are not pronounced, barm, balm are both baa.m), charms chaa'rmz, barn baa'rn, tarns taa'rnz, sharp shaa rp, carps kaarps, sparse spaa•rs, swarth swaa•rth, (some say swau'rth), starve staa rv, scarves skaa rvz, bars baarr. When a word beginning with a vowel follows, $a a^{\prime} r r^{\prime}$ ar $a a^{\prime} \cdot r^{\prime}$ is always used. See $a a^{\cdot} r r^{\prime}$.

AA•RR', e, p. 137a. This may be either $a a \cdot r^{\prime}$ or $a a^{\cdot} \breve{u} r^{\prime}$, and is most usually $a a^{\cdot} \cdot r^{\prime}$; it occurs only in strong syllables and before a vowel. Barring baarrr'ing, starry staa $\cdot r r^{\prime} i$, sparring spaa $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ing. When a word beginning with a vowel follows aar, $r$ ' is always inserted ; don't jar it doa•nt jaa $\cdot r r^{\prime}-i t$, far off $f a a^{\prime} \cdot r r^{\prime}$-of. Hence numerous errors p. $51 b$.
$A A \cdot \breve{u}$, e. murmur diphthong, p. 50b, used for aar (which see) ; sometimes $a a$ with a vanish, to be avoided as it is mistaken for aar'.
A.A豹, g., theoretical pronunciation of g . ' eu' in eule aaŭĕ• $/ u$ (generally oi $\cdot l u$ ), pp. $44 b$ and $45 b$.

A A üŏ, e. form of $\mathrm{ou}, \mathrm{p} .47 a$. $^{\text {. }}$
$A A W$, e. g. f. i. common representative for either aaŏŏ, aaŭŏ, as forms of ou, p. 476 .
$A \cdot A \cdot W$, representative of $a \alpha \cdot \check{o ̆ o ̆ ~ o r ~} a a \cdot \breve{u} \check{o}$ as forms of ou, p. $47 b$.
$A A Y$, e. g. f. i. common representative for either aaĕĕ or $a a \check{\imath}$ as forms of $e i$, p. $46 a$, as $a a \cdot y$ is

, $A A Y$, nasalised form of $A A Y,=$ aaĕe or . $a a \check{\imath}, \mathrm{p} .44 a, b$.
$A A \cdot Y$, representative of $a a \cdot \breve{e}$ or $a a \cdot \check{\imath}$ as forms of $e i, \mathrm{p} .46 a$.

AE, e. g. f. i., p. $32 a$; its rounded form, p. $32 b$. In e. only in strong syllables, where $e$ is more general in the South of England. See e for examples in English. May be sung as e, pp. 39a, $147 a$.

$A E_{\check{\prime} \check{\prime}, ~ e . ~ f a u l t y ~ f o r m ~ o f ~ e i ; ~ i . ~ s l u r r e d ~ d i p h-~}^{\text {- }}$ thong, pp. 46b, $147 b$; f. generated by loss of $l y$ ', p. $46 b$.
$A E \check{\imath}$, e. faulty form of $a i \cdot y$, meaning $a i^{\cdot}, \mathrm{p} .46 a$.
AEN', f. nasal, not eng or ang, but the last is intelligible, pp. $40 a, 149 b$.
$A E$ ŏo, e. faulty form of ou, p. $47 b$; i. slurred diphthong, p. $147 b$.

$A E \cdot u \check{o}$, e. faulty form of ou, p. $47 b$.
$A E W$, e. representative of either aeŏo or aейо, p. $47 b$.
$A E Y$, i. and f., p. $46 b$.
AH, g. f. and Scotch, used for $a a, \mathrm{pp} .33 b, 36 a$; may be sung as $a a$ in f .
$A H$ ӗӗ, g. common form of $e i, \mathrm{p} .44 b$; $a \hbar \cdot \breve{e} e$, with long $a h$ and conspicuous glide, a common German form of $o i, p .44 b$.
$A H \check{ }$, e. faulty form of $e i, \mathrm{p} .44 a$, also a g. form, p. $44 b$.

AHN', f. nasal, resembles ong, which is intelligible, pp. 40a, b, $149 b$.
$A$ Но̆̆, g. form of ou, p. $47 b$.
AHйо̆, e. faulty form of ou, p. 47b.
$A H \cdot \breve{u} \check{o}$, e. faulty form of ou, p. $47 b$.
$A H W$, representative of either ahŏŏ or ahŭŏ, p. 476 .
$A H \cdot W$, representative of either $a h \cdot o \check{o}$ or $a h \cdot u \check{\prime}$, p. $47 b$.
$A H Y$, representative of either $a h e \breve{e}$ or $a h \check{\imath}$, p. $46 a$ and $48 a$.
$A H \cdot Y$, representative of either $a h \cdot \breve{e}$ ĕ or $a h \cdot \check{\imath}$, p. $46 a$.

AI, e. g. f. i., p. $30 a$, without vanish, see $a i \cdot y$, p. $46 a$, for vanish. Not to be confounded with ey, ay, aay, \&c., p. 30b. Used for eo by many Germans, p. 31b. May be sung as e, p. 39a. Strong and long: eh, ai, bay bai, obey oabai', day $d a i \cdot$, they dhai, hay hai, may mai., say sai., way wai., whey whai ; babe bai•b, babes bai•bz; aitch ai$\cdot c h$; aid $a i \cdot d$, aids $a i \cdot d z$; swathe swai $d h$, swathed swai•dhd, bathes bai•dhz; safe sai•f; waifs wai•fs, chafed chai $\cdot f t$, vouchsafes vouchsai $\cdot f s$; plague plai $\cdot$, plagued plai•gd, plagues plai•gz; age ai $\cdot j$, engage engaij; enraged enrai.jd; ache $a i \cdot k$, sake sai$\cdot k$, rakes $r a i \cdot k s$, baked bai $\cdot k t$; ale $a i \cdot l$, pale, pail pai $l$, railed $r^{\prime} a i \cdot l d$, failed $f a i \cdot l d$, ails $a i \cdot l z$; aim $a i \cdot m$, game gai m, lamed lai $\cdot m d$, games gai $\cdot m z$; sane sai $n$, plane, plain plai $n$, planed plai $n d$, strange str'ai $n j$, change chai $\cdot n j$; ranged rai•njd; paint pai•nt, quaint kwai•nt, saints sai•nts, pains, panes pai $n z$, tape $t a^{\cdot} i p$, grape $g r^{\prime} a i \cdot p$, shapes shai $\cdot \mathrm{ps}$; ace $a i \cdot s$, race rai $\cdot \mathrm{s}$; rate rai•t, gates gai $\cdot t$, eighth $a i \cdot t t h$, eighths $a i \cdot t t h s$; wraith rai $\cdot t h$, wraiths rai'ths; rave rai•v, saved sai•vd, graves grai•vz, graze grai $\cdot z$, gazed gai zd. Some speakers use $a i \cdot y$ in all these words, some even make the ai short, and change it into $e, a e$, as $e y, a e y$; to be avoided, pp. 46a. 133b. Weak, and medial or short, e. i., shamefaced shai mfaist, aorta aiau•rta. Exercises, pp. 113b, 115b, 129b, $133 b$.
${ }^{\circ} A I$, flatus through the position for ai p, $56 a$.
$A I-a a$, i., evenly balanced, unaccented diphthong, p. $45 a$.
$A \check{\imath}$, e. faulty form of $a i \cdot y$, meaning $a i$, p. $46 a$.
$A^{\prime}$ r, e., a common form of ei, p. 44a.
$A I \cdot \check{e \check{e}}$, e. form of the vanish ai $\cdot y$, p. $46 a$.
$\breve{a} \succeq E O$, lip glide, p. $55 b$.
$A I \imath$, e. faulty form of $a i \cdot y$, p. $46 a$.
$A I \cdot \imath$, e. form of the vanish $a i \cdot y$, p. $46 a$.
AI $\cdot$ R, e. murmur diphthong, with or without $r^{\prime}$, p. $50 b$; a form representing $e \cdot \breve{u}$ or $e^{\prime} \breve{u} r^{\prime}$ at pleasure; generally $e \cdot \breve{u}$, in the mouths of some speakers aevu or even $a^{\cdot} u$; the $r^{\prime}$ is generally omitted. Strong and long: air, ere, e'er, heir ai $\cdot r$, bare, bear bai $\cdot$, chair chai $\cdot r$, there dhai $\cdot r$, fare, fair fai $\cdot r$, hare, hair hai $\cdot r$, ne'er nai $\cdot r$, share shai $\cdot r$; pared pai $\cdot r d$, scarce skai rrs, scares skairrz. When a word beginning with a vowel follows air, $r^{\prime}$ is always inserted, see $a i \cdot r r$ '.

AI $\cdot$ RR', e., representing e $\cdot$ ưr $^{\prime}$, and only used before a vowel, pp. 130a, 136b. Strong and long: wary wai $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ' , sharing shai $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ing, fairy fai $\cdot r r^{\prime} i$, we'll share it wee-l shairrr'-it, to pare an apple too pai'rr' un ap $\cdot l$, a pair of shoes $u$ pai$\cdot r r^{\prime}$ uv shoo ${ }^{\circ}$ z.

AI $\breve{u}$, e. faulty murmur diphthong, for $e \cdot \breve{u}$, see air, p. $50 b$.
$A^{\prime} \hat{u} \breve{\text {, }}$, e. murmur triphthong, form of $e i \cdot \breve{\mu}$, see eir, p. $52 a$.
AIüŏ, e. very faulty form of ou, p. $47 b$.
$A I W$ for $a i \cdot \breve{u}$, e. faulty form of $o u$, p. 47.
$A I Y, \mathrm{~g}$. provincial $e i$ for $a i-$ ěe, p. $46 b$.
$A I \cdot Y$, e., or $a i$ with a vanish, pp. $46 a$ and $55 b$. Some speakers use $a i \cdot y$ for $a i^{\text {- }}$ on all occasions, except before $r$ or in weak syllables; this is most frequent when ai ends a word or phrase, when ai comes before $t$, great varieties are found, from pure $e \cdot$ long, through pure ai long, to ai $\cdot y$, aiy, aey, ay, and almost $u y, a^{\prime} y$. The examples to $a i$ should be read in both ways, with ai and ai.y, but never with the aey, ay forms, pp. 129b, $133 b$.
$A n^{\prime}$, e. substitute for aen', p. $40 a$.
A0, e. g. f. i., p. $35 a, b, 36 a$, may be sung as $a u$, p. $39 a$. As the vowel never occurs in received English except before $r$, it will be treated under oar, which see
${ }^{\circ} A 0$, flatus through the position for $a 0$, p. $56 a$. $A O$ ĕe, a faulty form of $o i, \mathrm{p} .45 b$; ao-ĕĕ, the only i. form, p. $46 a$.
$A 0 \check{\imath}$, a faulty form of oi, p. $45 b$.
AOŏŏ, a faulty form of ou, p. $47 a$.
$A O \cdot \breve{u}$, e. murmur diphthong, real form of oar, p. 50 b.

AOйе, a theoretical form of g . 'eu,' as eule аойе. $\cdot l u, p .44 b$.
AOйŏ, a faulty form of ou, p. $47 a$.
$A O \cdot \breve{u} R^{\prime}$, the real form of oarr', which see.
$A O W$, a representative of a.ŏ̆ or аойй, p. 476.
AOY, f., p. $46 b$.
AU, e., p. $35 \bar{a}, 36 a$. May be used for $o$ and $a 0$, p. 39. Strong and long: awe au, daw dau, jaw jauc, caw kau*, law lau, maw maw, gnaw nau', paw pau', raw r'au', saw sau', shaw shau', taw tau', thaw thau'; daub dau•b, awed aw d, laud law $\cdot d$, lauds law dz; cough kau•f, hawk haw•k, hawks hau'ks; hall, haul haw $\cdot l$, bald, balled, bawled bau'ld, fallen fau•ln, halt haw•lt, salt saw•lt, malt maw lt, halts haw $\cdot l t s$, all, awl $a u \cdot l$, crawls $k r^{\prime} a u \cdot l z$, awn $a u \cdot n$, awns $a u \cdot n z$, haunt hau'nt (or haa nt, ha'nt) haunts haw'nts, ought, aught aw $\cdot t$, caught kaw't, drought draw't, broth braw th (or broth). Some persons use au in off au'f, coffee kau' $f$, office $a u \cdot f i s$, often $a u \cdot f n, \operatorname{dog}$ daw $\cdot g$, cross kraw's, and in America, even long lau•ng, but these and even cough, broth, are perhaps oftener pronounced with 0 , as of, kof $i$, of $\cdot i s$, of $n$, dog, kros, long, kof, broth. When $r$ is not pronounced, all examples under aur belong to this case, see aur.Weak and long, august (adj.) augus $t$, austere austee'r, augment (v.) augmen't. Exs., pp. 114a, 116b, 130b, $131 a$.
${ }^{\circ} A U$, flatus through the position for $a u$, p. $56 a$.
$A U_{\text {е̌e }}, \mathrm{g}$. form of oi, p. $45 b$.
$A U_{\imath}$, e., a common form of oi, especially before $z$, p. 45b, not to be tolerated as a form of $e i, p .44 a$. $A$ Uйо̆, ө. very faulty form of ou, p. $47 a$.
$A^{\prime}$ 'ü̆, e, a $^{\text {, a good form of ou, p. } 47 \text { a. }}$
$\mathrm{AU} \cdot \mathrm{R}$, e. representing $a u{ }^{\prime}, a u^{\prime} \cdot{ }_{u}, a u r^{\prime}$, or $a u^{\prime} \cdot{ }_{u} r^{\prime}$, at pleasure, but most generally $a w$, and most rarely wucur', p. 50b. Strong and long: abhor abhaw r,
or $a u^{\prime} r$ (when strong, before a vowel, $a u \cdot r^{\prime}$; before a consonant, the same as awe $a v \cdot$ ), nor nau'r (when strong, before a vowel, naw $\cdot r^{\prime}$; before a consonant, the same as gnaw naw.), drawer drau'r (a sliding box, distinct from drawer, one who draws), orb $a w \cdot r b$ (generally rhymes to daub dau $\cdot b$ ), orbs $a w \cdot r b z$, orchard $a w \cdot r c h e r d$, torch taw $\cdot r c h$ (or toa $\cdot r c h$ ), scorch skau•rch (or skoa $\cdot r c h$ ), scorched skaw $\cdot r c h t$ (or skoa $\cdot r$ cht), lord law $\cdot r d$ (generally not distinguished from laud laurd), lords laurrdz, wharf whaw rff, dwarf dwawrf, dwarfs dwaw rfs, scorn skaw rn, born baw'rn, horns haw rnz, horse haw'rs, north naw rth, nowths naw rths. Some persons pronounce all the words in or in this way, as tore taw $\cdot r$, more maw'r, pork paw $k$, important impaw $\cdot r$ tent, but oarr is considered better. See oar for examples.-Weak and long, ornate aurnai $t$, ordain aurdai•n, orchestral aurkes trel, organic aurgan $\cdot i k$, orthography aurthogrufi, orthoepy aurthoa epi. In such cases aur is seldom anything but au, Ex., p. $137 b$.
$A U \check{u}$, the murmur diphthong in aur, which see, p. $50 b$.
$A$ Uŭŏ, faulty form of ou, p. $47 a$.
$A U W$, representative of either aио̆ŏ or auйб, faulty forms of ou, p. 476.
$A U \cdot W$, representative of either $a w \cdot o ̆ o ̆ ~ o r ~ a w ' \check{u}$, faulty forms of ou, p. 476.
AUY, representative of either auĕĕ or aui, forms of oi, p. $46 a$.
 forms of oi, p. $46 a$.
$A W$, representative of either aŏo or aŭŏ, faulty e. forms of ou, p. 47b.
$A Y$, representative of either $a \check{e} \check{e}$ or $a \breve{\imath}$, faulty forms of ei, p. $46 a$.
$A^{\prime} Y$, representative of the $a^{\prime}$ 色 or $a^{\prime}$ 亿̆ forms of $e i$, p. $46 a$.
B., e. g. f. i., p. 63b. Initial before vowels: bat bat, back bak, baa baa, bard baa'rd, bate, bait bai't, bought bau't, bet bet, beet, beat bee't, bite bei $\cdot t$, Bute Bew $\cdot t$, bit bit, botch boch, boat boa $\cdot t$, boy boi, boot boo t, bout bout, but but, bull buol. Initial before consonants: black blak, blame blai $m$, bleat
blee t, blight bleit, bliss blis, blown bloa:n, blur bler, bran $b r^{\prime} a n$, braid $b r^{\prime} a i \cdot d$, broad $b r^{\prime} a u \cdot d$, breadth $b r e^{\prime} d t h$, breed $b r^{\prime} e e \cdot d$, bright $b r^{\prime} e i \cdot t$, Briton $B r^{\prime} i t \cdot n$, broach $b r^{\prime}$ oa ch, brood $b r^{\prime} o o^{\cdot d}$, brow $b r^{\prime} o u$, buoy bwoi (or boo th, booy, sometimes boi). Medial between vowels: dubbing dub-ing, blabber blaber, webbing web•ing, fibber fiber, sobbing sob ing, robber rob•er, snubbing snub•ing, baby bai•bi, gaby $g a i \cdot b i$, booby $b o o \cdot b i$, imbibing imbei $\cdot b i n g$, bribery brei $\cdot b \mathrm{r}^{\prime} \mathrm{i}$. Final, ending words, after vowels: cab kab, babe bai b, daub daw b, dab dab, glebe glee b, bribe brei $\cdot$, tube tew $\cdot b$, bib bib, Bob Bob, robe roa $b$, tub $t u b$. In practising final $b$, guard against a very marked voice recoil $b-h$, or a marked flated recoil, as $b-p^{\circ} h$; and if a recoil is necessary, 'use the click $b p^{\circ}$. Double, between vowels: tub-bottom tub-bot $m$, slob-bib slob•bib, Bob beat him Bob bee thim, a robe bought $u$ roa:b baw t, where is the cab bound? whai $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ iz dhi kab bound? Between the two $b$ 's of a double $b$, no recoil of any kind is admissible.
${ }^{\circ} B, \mathrm{~g}$. implodent form of $p$ or $b, \mathrm{p} .64 a$.
$B M^{\prime}$, e. form of $m$ and $b$, with a cold in the head, p. $67 a$.
' $B R$, g. voiced lip trill, with loose lips, p. $66 a$.
CH, e. g. i., p. 79a, not tsh, but probably a consonantal diphthong, $t y^{\prime} s h^{\prime}$, p. $80 a$. Initial, before vowels: chat chat, charge chaa $\cdot r j$, change chai $\cdot n j$, chess ches, cheese cheez, chine chei $n$, chin chin, chop chop, choke choa $\cdot k$, choice chois, choose choo $z$, chouse chous, chump chump. Ch does not occur initial before consonants. Medial between vowels (it is rather $t y^{\prime}$, which is medial, glided on from the preceding vowel, and gliding on to the following $s h^{\prime}$ ): patching paching, fetching fech-ing, teacher tee cher, richer rich-er, botching boch-ing, broaching $b r^{\prime}$ oa'ching, slouching slow ching, crouching krow ching, clutching kluch $\cdot \mathrm{ing}$. Final, after vowels: batch bach, fetch fech, stitch stich, botch boch, roach r'oach, wouch vouch, touch tuch. Double, between vowels (ch does not occur in the true double form $t y^{\prime} t y^{\prime}$ ' $h$ ', because $t y$ ' does not so occur, we have, therefore to take tch, which will
experimentally shew that the initial of $c h$ is not $t$ ), that cheese dhat chee'z, that choice dhat chois, flat cheese fat chee $z$, what charge whot chaarrj, he hit Charles hi hit Chaa $\cdot r l z$, a spoiled chop $u$ spoilt chop. Compare also abbotship, grab a chip aboutship, grab uchip, hat shop, that chop hat shop, that chop, it shews, it chose, it shoa $\cdot z$, it choarz. Ex. p. 125a.
$C H^{\prime}$, a mute form of $c h, \mathrm{p} .79 a$.
CH'SH', a possible form of ch, p. 79b, 80a.
D, e. (the g. i. f. form is $d^{\prime}$ ), p. 69b. Initial before vowels: dash dash, dart daa $\cdot \mathrm{rt}$, dame dai $\cdot m$, daughter daw•ter, debt det, deed dee $d$, dight deit, duke dew $\cdot k$, ditch dich, dot dot, dote doa $\cdot t$, doit doit, doom doo'm, douse dous, Dutch Duch. Initial, before consonants : dram $d r^{\prime} a m$, drain $d r^{\prime} a i \cdot n$, dredge $d r e j$, dream dr'ee m, drive dr'ei $\cdot$, drip $d r^{\prime} i p$, drop $d r^{\prime} o p$, drone $d r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot n$, droop $d r^{\prime} o o^{\cdot} p$, dwell dwel, dwarf dwau‘rf, dwindle dwin•dl. Medial, between vowels: radical radi ikel, madder madier, sadder sad•er, aider ai•der, solder saw•der (or soa•der), broader braw $\cdot d e r$, wedding wed ing, breeder bree der, idol ei•del, bidding bid•ing, nodding nod $\cdot \mathrm{ing}$, boding boa $\cdot d i n g$, crowding krou $\cdot d i n g$, rudder rud•er. Final, after vowels : mad mad, made, maid mai $\cdot d$, Maude Maud, bed bed, bead bee d, bide bei $\cdot d$, bid bid, rod r'od, road r'oa•d, rude r'oo $d$, vowed voud, mud mud. In practising final $d$, guard against a very marked voiced recoil, $d-h$, or a marked flated recoil, as $d-t^{\circ} h$; if a recoil is necessary, use the click $d t^{\circ}$. Double, between vowels, mad-doctor mad•dok•ter, head-dress hed•dres, a loud drone $u$ loud droa.n, he made drums $h i$ mai $\cdot$ d drumz, rammed down ramd doun. Between the two $d$ 's of a double $d$ no recoil is admissible.
${ }^{\circ} D$, e. provincial implodent for $t$, p. $69 b$.
${ }^{\text {d }} D, \mathrm{a} . d$ made with the under part of the point of the tongue against the palate, p. 696.
$D^{\prime}, \mathrm{g} . \mathrm{f} . \mathrm{i}$. form of $d$, with tongue against the teeth (sonant of $c h$ ) for which Englishmen may use $d$, used provincially before $r^{\prime}$, p. 70a.
${ }^{-} D^{\prime}$, g. implodent for $t$ ' or $d^{\prime}$, p. $69 b$.
DH, e. voiced form of $t h$, p. 68b. Initial before vowels: that dhat, they dhai, there dhai $\cdot r$, them
dhem, these $d h e e \cdot z$, those $d h o a \cdot z$. Initial $d h$ does not occur before consonants. Medial $d h$ between vowels: bather bai dher, bathing bai dhing, weather, wether wedh $\cdot$ er, together toogedh $\cdot e r$, gather gadh $\cdot \mathrm{er}$, seething seedh $h$ ing, writhing reidh $\cdot \mathrm{ing}$, whither whidh•er, thither dhidh•er, bothered bodh•erd, loathing loa dhing, soothing soo dhing, mouthing mou $\cdot d h i n g$. Final, after vowels: swathe swai $\cdot d h$, breathe bree $\cdot d h$, loathe loa $\cdot d h$, clothe $k l o a \cdot d h$, soothe soo $d h$, blithe bleidh. In these finals it is customary at the end of clauses, to shorten the length of $d h$, and glide into a final $t h$, as $s w a i \cdot d h t h$, bree $\cdot d h t h$, $k l o a \cdot d h t h$, soo $\cdot d h t h$, p. $93 b$. Double, between vowels: clothe them $k l o a \cdot d r k d h e m$, soothe them $80 \cdot \cdot d h d h e m$, I loathe those ei loa dh dhoa $z$. In this doubling the insertion of th is inadmissible. Ex., p. 122a.
$D$ 'H, a lisped form of $z$, p. 70a.
$D H T H$, e. final, as breathe $b r^{\prime} e e^{\circ} \cdot d h t h$, see p. $93 b$.
$D W^{\prime}$, e. labialised form of $d$, perhaps generally used for $d w$, p. $83 a$, as $d w^{\prime} e l$, $d w w^{\prime} a w^{\circ} r f$ for $d w e l$, dwaurrf.
$D Y^{\prime}$, e. palatalised form of $d$, used as the initial of the combination expressed by $j$, which see, p. $80 a$.
$D Y^{\prime} S H^{\prime}$, e. final form of $j$ in the pause, p. $80 a$.
$D Z$, as an initial, the form used by Englishmen in place of the Italian $d^{\prime} z^{\prime}$, p. $96 a$.
$D^{\prime} Z^{\prime}$, i., for which Englishmen use dz, pp. 97a, 1486.

E, e. g. (in f. i. and strong g. syllables $a e$ is used, and also frequently in e. strong syllables; all the following strong $e$ 's may be read as ae), p. 30b, used for oe by many Germans, p. $31 b$; used for ai in singing, p. 39a. Never long in strong syllables, except in murmur diphthongs written as air, which see. Short and strong: ebb eb, web web, ebbed ebd, webbed webd, ebbs $e b z$, webs webz, fetch fech, wretch rech, fetched fecht, head hed, wed wed, said sed, tread tred, breadth bredth, breadths bredths, weds wedz, left left, bereft biref $\cdot t$, egg eg, beg beg, keg keg, leg leg, peg peg, begged begd, begs begz, wedgo wej, pledge plej, wedged wejd, neck nek, wreck r'ek, necks neks, wrecked r'ekt, scets sekts, ell el, bell bel, fell fel, knell nel,
shell shel, yell yel, Elbe Elb, Welsh Welch, weld weld, held held, shelf shelf, pelf pelf, twelfth twelfth, twelfths twelfths, elk elk, elks elks, elm elm, whelm whelm, help help, helps helps, else els, molt melt, felt felt, health helth, wealth welth, healths helths, shelve shelve, elves elvz, sells selz, hem hem, hemmed hemd, hemp hemp, hemp's hemps, tempt tempt, tempts tempts, hems hemz, pen pen, den den, hen hen, men men, then dhen, blench blen ch, quenched kwencht, wrenched r'encht, end end, friend frend, mends mendz, thousandth thow'zendth, thousandths thourzendths, revenge riven'j, avenged avenijd, hence hens, pence pens, offence ofen $\cdot s$, expense ekspen $\cdot s$, went went, lent lent, rents $r^{\prime}$ ents, presents ( $\mathbf{v}$.) pr'izen $\cdot t s$, tenth ten $\cdot t h$,tenths ten $\cdot$ ths, hens henz, pens penz, step step, steps steps, wept wept, crept kr'ept, leaped lept, adepts udep•ts, dep̈th depth, depths depths, chess ches, cress kr'es, guess ges, less les, yes yes, chest chest, jest jes't, guessed ges't, jests jes'ts, mesh mesh, enmeshed enmesh $h \cdot t$, wet wet, get get, pet pet, met met, nets nets, jets jets, breath breth, breaths breth $\cdot \mathrm{s}$. The vowel $e$ does not occur weak and short, except in the forms ed, el, em, en, ez, which see; it occurs short and distinct in some weak syllables, but rarely, as ek and es:-shipwreck shiprek, fulness fuol'nes, deafness def.nes, ceaseless see sles, mattress mat'res, egress ee'gr'es. Ex., pp. 118a, 120a, 120a, $129 b$.
$E^{\prime}$, e., as in $e^{\prime} r$, a form of $e r$, p. $34 b$, p. $39 a$.
ED, e. final, weak, varies between ed and $i d$, may be $i ' d$, p. 141a, as wicked wik•ed, wik•id, wik $\cdot i ' d$, dotted dot $e d$, dot $\cdot i d$, dot $\cdot i ' d$, compare pitted pit ed, pit $\cdot i d$, and pitied pit $\cdot i d$ only.

EE, e. g. i. f., pp. $28 a$ and $b, 29 b$. Used for ue by many Germans, p. 31b. Sung as $i$, p. 39a. Strong and long: glebe glee $b$, glebes glee $b z$, bleach blee $\cdot c h$, reach $r^{\prime} e e \cdot c h$, bleached blee $\cdot h t$; weed wee $d$, knead, need nee $\cdot d$, needs nee $\cdot d z$, breathe $b r^{\prime} e e \cdot d h$, breathed $b r^{\prime} e e \cdot d h d$, breathes, $b r^{\prime} e e \cdot d h z$, thief thee $f$, brief $b r^{\prime} \cdot e \cdot f$, leaf $b e e^{\prime} f$, beef bee $f$, briefs $b r^{\prime} \cdot e \cdot f s$, league lee $g$, leagued leeg•d, leagues lee gz, siege see $\cdot$ j, liege lee j, besieged bisee $\cdot j d$, leak, leek lee $\cdot k$,
meek mee $\cdot k$, seek see $\cdot k$, teak tee $\cdot k$, week wee $\cdot k$, speak spee $\cdot k$, reek, wreak $r$ 'ee $k$, weeks wee $\cdot k s$, reeked ree $k t$, eel ee l, heal, heel hee $l$, steal, steel stee $l$, meal mee $l$, peal, peel pee $l$, teal tee $l$, veal vee $i$, weal wee $l$, wheel whee $l$, wield wee $l$ ld, wheeled whee $l d$, field $f e e \cdot l d$, fields $f e e \cdot l d z$, eels $e e \cdot l z$, seals see $\cdot l z$, seamed, seemed see $\cdot m d$, creams $k r e e \cdot m z$, ween, wean wee $n$, lean lee $n$, keen kee $n$, dean dee $n$, weaned wee nd, deans deenz, deep dee $p$, weep wee $\cdot p$, leap lee $\cdot p$, leaps lee $\cdot p s$, fleece flee $\cdot s$, Greece Gree's, east ee st, ceased see st, eat ee $\cdot t$, wheat whee $t$, wreath $r$ 'ee $t h$, sheath shee th, sheath's shee ths, leave lee v, reeve ree v, grieve gree v, grieved gree vd; greaves, grieves gree $v z$, grease gree $z$, greased gree $\cdot z d$. Ee never occurs strong and short in English, being replaced by i. Weak and long it occurs rarely, in closed syllables, as: thirteen ther teen, fourteen foa $\cdot r$ teen, fifteen $f f \cdot$ teen, diocese dei-oasees. Weak and short, seldom occurs in actual use, although many attempts are made to enforce it, but is generally replaced by $i$, see p. $28 a$; elicit eelis $\cdot i t$, illicit ilis $\cdot i t$, illis $\cdot i t$, elude eelew $\cdot d$, eeloo $\cdot d$, illude ileu•d iloo $d$, illeu $\cdot d$ illoo $d$, allegation al-eegai shen, alligation al'igai'shen, element el-eement el-iment el-ement (the last is most common, el-umunt is heard, but generally reprobated). On the difficulty of singing ee at a high pitch, or keeping long ee and long $i$ distinct, see p. 4b. Ex., pp. 113a, 115b, $128 b$.
$E^{\prime} E$, e. provincial throat glide, same as $\check{\imath} e$, p. $55 b$.
${ }^{\circ} E E$, flatus through the position for $e e$, p. $56 a$.
${ }^{\circ}$ ' $E E$, whispered ee, p. $56 b$.
$\breve{e} \mathrm{e} A A$, i. close diphthong, usually taken as $y a a$, pp. $45 a, 148 b$.
$\breve{e} \check{e} A I \cdot \breve{e} \check{e}$, i. triphthong, usually taken as yai$y$, p. $50 a$.
$E E \circ$ ŏ, i. diphthong, and faulty e. form of $e u$, after consonants, p. $48 b$.
$\breve{e} \mathrm{e} O 0$, e. form of eu after consonants, p. $48 a$, generali. form of eu, p. $48 b$.

EE $\cdot$ R, e., pp. 50b, 136b, murmur diphthong with or without $r^{\prime}$; a form representing $i \cdot \breve{u}$ or $i \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$ at
pleasure, generally $i \cdot \breve{u}$, never $e e r^{\prime}$, and $e e^{\cdot} \breve{u}$, $e e^{\prime} \breve{u} r^{\prime}$ are archaic or provincial. Always long and strong. Ear ee $r$, beer, bier bee'r, cheer chee $r$, dear, deer dee. $r$, fear $f e e^{\cdot} r$, sphere sfee $r$, gear gee $\cdot r$, here, hear $h e e \cdot r$, leer lee'r, blear blee'r, mere mee $\cdot r$, near nee $\cdot r$, pier, peer pee'r, rear $r^{\prime} e e^{\prime} r$, seer, sere, sear, cere see'r, sheer shee'r, tear (s.) tee'r, veer vee'r, weir, we're weer, year yee•r, cleared klee'rd, beards bee $\cdot r d z$, fierce fee $r$, pierce pee $\cdot r s$, tierce $t e e \cdot r s$, fears $f e e^{\prime} r z$, spheres sfee'rz, clears klee'rz. When a word beginning with a vowel follows eerr, $r^{\prime}$ is always inserted, see ee'rr'.

EE $\cdot \mathbf{R R}$ ', e., see p. $136 b$, representing $i \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$, as distinct from eer', which is Scotch, American, and foreign; used only before vowels. Always long and strong. Earring ee'rr'ing, hearing hee'rr'ing, cheery cheerr'i, endearing endee $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ing, fearing fee'rr'ing, gearing gee'rr'ing, leering lee'rr'ing, peering peerr'ing; do you fear it doo eu fee 'rr'-it, peer into it pee $\cdot \mathrm{rr}$ ' in'too it, sheer ignorance shee $\cdot \mathrm{rr}$ ' ig-nurens.
$E E \cdot \breve{u}$, e. murmur diphthong, p. $50 b$, a faulty form of eer, which stands for $i \cdot u$.
$E E \cdot \breve{u} R^{\prime}$, e., a faulty form of eerr', which stands for $i \cdot \breve{u} r^{\prime}$.

EI, e. g.i.f., an unanalysed form of diphthong, having varieties in e., and other varieties in g. i. f. For e., see p. $44 a$; for g., see p. $44 b$; for i., see p. $45 a$; for f., see p. 45b. The singer may take $u y$, a'y, aay, aay, as suits him best; the speaker should avoid aay, and whether he chooses $u y$, or $a$ ' $y$, always use it. Strong: I, eye ei (but aye aay), buy, by, bye, b'ye bci, die dei, fie fei, Guy Gei, high hei, sky skei, lie, lye lei, fly flei, sly slei, my mei, nigh nei, pie pei, rye, wry rei, dry $d r^{\prime} e i$, fry $f r^{\prime} e i$, cry $k r^{\prime} e i$, pry $p r^{\prime} e i$, sigh sei, shy shei, sty, stye stei, thigh thei, thy dhei, vie vei, Wye Wei, why whei; ide eid, bide beid, chide cheid, died, dyed deid, guide geid, hide heid, skied skeid, lied leid, glide gleid, plied pleid, slide sleid, ride r'eid, bride breid, dried dr'eid, fried fr'eid, pride pr'eid, stride str'eid, sighed, side seid, shied sheid, tide,
tied teid, vied veid, bides beidz, chides cheidz, guides geidz, hides heidz, glides gleidz, slides sleidz, rides r'eidz, brides br'eidz, sides seidz, tides teidz, blithe bleidh, life leif, knife neif, rife r'eif, strife str'eif, wife weif, life's leifs, knife's neifs, wife's weifs, dyke deik, like leik, pike peik, tyke teik, dykes deiks, likes leiks, pikes peiks, liked leikt, file feil, mile meil, Nilo Neil, pile peil, rile r'eil, tile teil, vile veil, wile weil, while wheil, child cheild, filed feild, mild meild, piled peild, riled r'eild, tiled teild, wild, wiled weild, wilds weildz, files feilz, miles meilz, piles peilz, wiles weilz, chime cheim, disme deim, lime leim, climb, clime kleim, slime sleim, mime meim, rhyme, rime $r^{\prime}$ eim, grime gr'eim, crime kr 'eim, prime pr'eim, cyme seim, time, thyme teim, chimed cheimd, grimed gr'eimd, climbs, climes kleimz, chimes cheimz, rhymes r'eimz, crimes kr'eimz, times teimz, bine bein, chine chein, dine dein, thine dhein, fine fein, line lein, mine mein, nine ncin, pine pein, brine br'ein, shrine shr'ein, sign, sine sein, shine shein, Tyne Tein, vine vein, wine wein, whine whein, bind beind, find feind, hind heind, kind keind, lined leind, blind bleind, mind, mined mind, pined pined, rind r'eind, enshrined enshr'ei.nd, signed seind, wined weind, whined wheind, binds beindz, finds feindz, hinds heindz, blinds bleindz, minds meindz, ninth neinth, ninths neinths, chimes cheimz, dines deinz, nines neins, pines peinz, shrines shr'einz, signs seinz, shines sheinz, vines veinz, wines weinz, whines wheinz, pipe peip, ripe r’eip, gripe gr'eip, stripe str'eip, type teip, wipe weip, pipes peips, gripes gr'eips, stripes str'eips, types teips, piped peipt, striped str'eipt, wiped weipt, ice eis, bice beis, dice deis, lice leis, mice meis, nice neis, rice r'eis, price pr'eis, entice entei $\cdot s$, vice veis, iced eist, priced pr'eist, enticed entei•st, bite beit, fight feit, height heit, kite keit, light leit, blight bleit, flight fleit, plight pleit, slight, sleight sleit, might meit, night neit, rite, right, write, wright $r^{\prime}$ eit, bright br'eit, fright fr'eit, sprite spr'eit, sight, site seit, tight teit, wight weit, white wheit, I've eiv, chive cheiv, five feiv, hive heiv, alive ulei $v$, rive r'eiv, drive $d r^{\prime} e i v$, strive str'eiv, shrive shr'ei $\cdot v$, thrive thr'eiv,
wive weiv, hived heivd, shrived shr'eivd, wived weivd, fives feivz, hives heivz, rives r'eivz, drives dr'eivz, strives str'eivz, thrives thr'eivz, wives weivz, eyes eiz, buys beiz, thighs theiz, skies skeiz, flies fleiz, pies peiz, dries $d r^{\prime}$ eiz, fries fr'eiz, pries pr'eiz, shies sheiz. Weak: idea eidee $u$, civilise sivileiz, civilisation siv-ileizai•shen (or sivंilizai•shen), ironical eir'on'ikel, isochronous eisok'r'unus, direct deirek't or direk $\cdot$ t), divert deivert (or diver•t). Ex., pp. $123 a, 133 a, 133 b$.
$E \breve{\imath}$, e. faulty form of $a i \cdot y$, meaning $a i^{\cdot}$, p. $46 a$.
EI•ER, e., a dissyllable to be distinguished from $e i \cdot r$, which see, p. $54 b$; buyer bei er, dyer dei er, higher hei er; liar lei•er, plier plei•er, slier slei er, nigher nei•er, briar brei•er, drier drei•er, frier, friar fr'ei.er, prier pr'ei.er, sigher sei.er, shier sheier, tier tei er. When a word beginning with a vowel follows, $r^{\prime}$ is always added.

EIERR', form of eiur', p. $52 b$.
EI•R, e., a murmur triphthong, eiŭ, with or without $r$ ', generally without, to be distinguished from eier, p. 52a. Long and strong: byre beir, dire deir, hire heir, lyre leir, mire meir, sire seir, shire sheir, tire teir, hired heird, tired teird, wired weird, lyres leirz, sires seirz, shires sheirz, tires teirz. When a word beginning with a vowel follows, $r^{\prime}$ is always added, see $e i \cdot r r^{\prime}$. Ex., p. $137 b$.

EI•RR', e. see p. $52 a$, representing $e i \breve{\iota} r^{\prime}$, in one syllable: direr dei'rr'er, hirer heirr'er hiring hei $\cdot r$ 'ing, tiring tei $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ 'ing, wiring wei rr'ing. Ex., p. $137 b$.

EI•UR, e. dissyllable, p. $52 b$.
EJ, e. weak final, p. 140b, representing - $\check{a} \check{\imath} j$, - $\check{j}$, or $-\imath j$, or perhaps $-i$ ' $j$, the usual '-age,' which is differently pronounced according to frequency of use, Cabbage kab•ej (often $k a b \cdot i j$ ), herbage her$b e j$, bondage bon $\cdot d i j$, baggage $b a g \cdot e j$ (often $b a g \cdot i j$ ), luggage lug'ej (often lug•ij), foliage foa•liej (but carriage $k a r^{\prime} \cdot i j$, marriage mar' ${ }^{\prime} j$ always), cartilage kaa rtilej (when quite new to the speaker, kaa*tilai $\cdot j)$, pillage pil•ej, tillage til•ej, village vil•ej, damage dam $e j$, image $i m \cdot e j$, pilgrimage pil•grimej, manage man $\cdot j$ (these last words are usually pil $i j$,
${ }_{\text {til }} \cdot i j$, vil $\cdot i j$, dam $\cdot i j$, im $\cdot i j$, pil $\cdot$ grimij, man $\cdot i j$, spinage spin $\cdot e j$ (most commonly spin $\cdot i j$, and sometimes spin $\cdot i c h$ ), courage kur'ej (usually kur' $\cdot i j$ ), usage eu'zej (not eurzich), sausage sos $\cdot j$ (or sos $\cdot i j$ ), savage sav•ej (or sav•ij), language lang'wej (lang'gwej, lang'waij, lang'gwaij, lang'wij, lang'gwij, lang'wich, lang gwich are all to be heard), voyage voi $\cdot e j$ (often voij), knowledge nol $\cdot j$, college kol $\cdot e j$.

EL, e. g., see p. 139a. Weak syllable, obscurely pronounced, approaching $u l$ or $u ' l$ rather than $a e l$, $a l$, seldom clear $e l$, never clear $a l$, or ol ; to be sung as $u l$ or $u^{\prime} l$, with a slur from $u$ or $u^{\prime}$ to $l$; corresponding to e. final unaccented $-a l,-e l,-o l$, but not usually $-i l$, and not heard in $-f u l$. Cymbal, symbol sim $\cdot \mathrm{bel}$, radical raddikel, pedal ped $\cdot e l$, medal med $\cdot e l$, lineal lin• $\cdot \mathrm{iel}$, real ree $\cdot \mathrm{el}$, regal ree gel , frugal fr'oo.gel, prodigal pr'od•igel, 'labial lai biel, genial jee:niel, trial tr'ei $\cdot e l$, essential esen $\cdot s h e l$, celestial siles'tiel, vial vei $\cdot e l$, decimal des-imel, animal an'imel, dismal diz*mel, ordinal au rdinel, cardinal kaa $\cdot r d i n e l$, final fei'nel, opal oa'pel, liberal lib'ur'el, temporal tem:r$^{2} u r^{\prime} e l$, rural $r^{\prime}$ oo ${ }^{\circ} r r^{\prime} e l$, nasal nai'zel, capital kap $\cdot i t e l$, vestal ves'tel, usual ew'zheuel, oval oa'vel; pareel paa $\cdot r s e l$, infidel $i n \cdot f i d e l$, angel $a i \cdot n j e l$, satchel sach $\cdot \mathrm{el}$, camel kam•el, trammel tr'am $\cdot e l$, pommel pum $\cdot e l$, flannel flan $\cdot e l$, channel chan $\cdot e l$, kennel ken $\cdot e l$, funnel fun $\cdot e l$, tunnel tun $\cdot e l$, colonel, kernel ker•nel, chapel chap•el, gospel gos'pel, quarrel $k w o r ' e l$, squirrel skwir'el, weasel wee'zel, chisel chiz $\cdot \mathrm{el}$, morsel mau'rsel, tassel tas $\cdot \mathrm{el}$ (or taa'sel, tau' $\cdot e l$ ), gravel $g r^{\prime} a v \cdot e l$, travel $t r \cdot a v \cdot e l$, duel dew $\cdot e$, level lev•el, fuel feu'el, shrivel shr'ivel, hovel $h u v \cdot e l$, shovel shwv $\cdot e l$, novel nov $\cdot e l$, cruel $k r^{\prime} \circ o \cdot e l$, vowel vou $\cdot e l$, hazel hai $\cdot z e l$, pencil pen $\cdot$ sel (or pen $\cdot s i l$ ), council koun•sel (or kou'nsil, to distinguish from counsel $k o u \cdot n s e l$ ), idol ei $\cdot d e l$, carol $k a r ' \cdot e l$, pistol pis'tel. This final eel is not very distinct from final $-l$, forming a syllable, except after a vowel, and after $t, d$; compare idle, idol $e i \cdot d l$, ei $\cdot d e l$, for the first the point of the tongue remains on the palate from $d$ to $l$, in the second it is removed for a very short period. The effect in each case is more of a glide up to $l$ than a fixed vowel, p. $74 a$.

Whenever el is distinctly pronounced a certain effort is necessary, indicated by $e l$, as nov.el for nov el, the speaker emphasing the fact of his clear pronunciation. This would be the case in g. also, not in i. or f. In English, however, the change to $i l$ is then common, as jewel jeu*il, cruel kroo $i l$, novel nov il.

EM, e. g., see p. 139b. Weak syllable, rather um or u'm than aen or am, never distinctly am or em ; an indistinct glide on to $m$ followed by an $m$. When em is distinct, a kind of emphasis is necessary in e. and g., shewn by an accent (see el at end), thus poem poa em ; in which case the change to $i m$ is sometimes heard, as poa-im. Weak: madam mad•em (but mad•am is heard in shops), quondam kwon $\cdot$ dem, buckram buk $\cdot r e m$, balsam baw lisem (some say bal'sem), stratagem strat $\cdot$ ujem (some say strat $\cdot$ ujem $\cdot$ ), anthem an'them, emblem em•blem, problem prob•lem, poem poa-em, item ei•tem (some say ei•tem•), freedom free dem, dukedom deu $\cdot k$ dem, kingdom king $\cdot d e m$, thraldom thrau-ldem, seldom sel•dem, random r'an $\cdot$ dem, Christendom Kris $\cdot$ endem, wisdom wiz $\cdot d e m$, fathom fadh $\cdot \mathrm{em}$, axiom aks $\cdot i e m$ (or ak $\cdot \mathrm{shiem}$, ak'shem), venom ven $\cdot e m$, modicum mod $\cdot i k e m$, petroleum pitroa•liem, memorandum mem'ur'an $\cdot$ dem, museum meuzee em (in America mew ziem is at least sometimes heard), medium mee $\cdot$ diem, odium oa•diem, opium oa piem, delirium dilir':iem, Elysium Ilishiem, oakum $o a \cdot k e m$, alum $a l \cdot e m$, pendulum pentdeulem (or pen $\cdot d$ eulum $\cdot$ ), asylum asei $\cdot l$ lem, laudanum lod•nem, tympanum tim•punem, conundrum kunun'$d r^{\prime} e m$, decorum dikoa rr'em, quorum kwoa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'em, spectrum spek•tr'em, forum foa rr'em (as a Latin word foa $\cdot r^{\prime} u m \cdot$ ), ultimatum ul'timai'tem, pomatum poamai $\cdot$ tem, stratum strai 'tem (some say straa $\cdot$ tum $\cdot$ ), quantum kwon'tem, factotum fak•toa tem, vacuum vak-euem Most of these words occur also with $z$ after them, as kingdoms king•demz. The am is often indistinct in diagram dei ugr'am, anagram an $\cdot u g r^{\prime} a m$, epigram ep $\cdot$ igr'am, parallelogram par:- $^{\prime}$. alel•oogram (often par* $w \div$ lel $w \div$ grem among mathematicians), monogram mon $\cdot 0 a g r^{\prime}$ am, tele-
gram tel-igr'am (the last word, though so new, is so common that it is fast becomming tel-igr'em). The em is also often distinct in diadem dei udem, requiem rek'wiem (some say ree kwiem.), apothegm ap oathem. The clearness of the final syllable depends greatly on the unusualness of the word, and upon the position of the previous accent. The servant's pronunciation of mem is always indistinct, yes'mem, noa•mem, not yes'm, noa $\cdot m$, when the lips are separated for an instant, but sometimes the mouth is not opened, and the $m$ having produced its final effect, is quickly reduced in force so as to become nearly inaudible, and then very rapidly touched again, thus yes $m \div m$, $n o a \cdot m \div m$, see slur, pp. $45 a, 187 b$.

EN, e. g., see p. 139b. Weak and final, more like a glide on to $n$ than any vowel ; difficult to distinguish from vocal $n$, except after a vowel $p, b$, $t, d, k, g$, where the vowel causes an opening of the lips, or withdrawal of the tongue for an instant. The singer always takes $u$ ' $n$, see p. 77a. A very common pronunciation in final -an, en, -tion, -sion, -ance, -ence, \&c., only a few instances are given. Turban ter.ben, publican publi•ken, ocean oarshen, European Eurrroapee'en (not $E u \div r^{\prime} o a \cdot p i e n$, as sometimes in America), magician mujish en, musician meuzish•en, physician fizish•en, guardian gaa rdien, ruffian rufien, seaman see men (seamen see.men'), foreman foa'rmen (foremen foa'rmen'), horseman haw'rsmen (horsemen hau'rsmen''), churchman cher chmen, yeoman yoa'men, woman wuom $\cdot$ en (women wim•in), German Jer•men, footman fuot'men (footmen fuot men') human yheu'men, layman lai men (often lai'man''), clergyman kler-jimen, countryman kun'trimen, gentleman jen'tlmen (gentlemen jen'tlmen'), Satan Sai'ten (Sat $\cdot$ en, Sai tn, Sat $n$, satin sat•in), veteran vet'uren, puritan pew'rr'iten, deafen def'en (or def $\cdot n$ ), stiffen stif•en (or stif $\cdot n$ ), roughen ruf $\cdot$ en (or ruf•n), heathen hee•dhen, lengthen lengk•then (or lengk $\cdot t h n$ ), alien ai lien, sullen sul.en (or sul.n, or sul'en''), specimen spes'imen, chosen choarzen (or choa'zn), often of en (or of $n$, some say $a u \cdot f n$ ),
soften sofen (or sof $n$, some say sau•fn), raven rai'ven, even ceven, eleven ilev•en (or ol-ev.en, or with final $v n$ ), riven riv•en (or riv•n), heaven hev•en (or hev $n$ ), beacon bee ken (or beek $n$ ), deacon dee $k e n$, pardon paa•rden (or more often paa dn), pigeon pijen, luncheon lun chen, flagon flag'en legion leejen, religion rilijen, lion lei•en, battalion batal-yen, dandelion dan•dilei en, bullion buolyen, onion un yen, union ew nyen, occasion okai zhen, adhesion ad-hee zhen, decision disizheen, division divizh•en, convulsion konvul-shen, mansion manshen, pension pen shen, explosion eksploa zhen, version ver shen, session sesheen, mission mishen, education ed-eukai•shen (some say ej•ookai•shen), creation kriai shen, action ak shen, eleation ilekshen, junction jungk•shen, auction au•kshen, ambition ambisheen, petition pitishen, motion moashen, inscription inskrip shen, portion poarshen (some say pau shen, rhyming with) caution kau'shen, revolution rev:oaleu'shen, connexion kunek $\cdot$ shen, oblivion oabliv'yen, felon $\mathrm{fel} \cdot \mathrm{en}$, colon koa $\cdot l e n$, chaldron chaa $\cdot l d r^{\prime} e n$ (or chau $\cdot d r^{\prime} e n$ ), environ envei rr'en (iron ei•ern is often merely ei•en, compare Ion), venison ven zen, (ven•izen is orthographical only), unison ew'nisen, poison poizen (or poi zn), prison prizen (or priz'n), lesson, lessen les en (or les $n$ ), amazon am uzen, horizon hoar'eizen (not hor'izen). Most of these words add on $z$, as missions mish•enz. Elegance el-igens, vengeance ven jens, semblancc sem•blens, nuisance nou'sens, substance sub-stens, circumstance ser-kemstens (some say ser•kumstans' or ser'*kumstans'), distance dis'tens, license lei•sens, innocence in•oasens, cadence kai•dens, impudence im•peudens, science sei•ens, obedience oabee-dyens, experience ekspee*r'iens, patience pai•shens, silence sei•lens, violence vei oalens, vehemence vee umens (some try to say vee-imens', vee'emens'), influence in'flooens (often in flooĕns, in two syllables), sequence see $k$ kwens (often see $k w e n s^{\prime}$ '), consequence kon sikwens.

EO. g. f. see p. $31 a$, in g. always long and strong; in f. often peculiarly short and indistinct ěo, p. 94b; may be sung as oe, p. 39a. Ex. pp. $144 a, 149 a$.
$\check{e} O E$, possible labial glide, beginning with lips wide open, and then gradually closing, p. $55 b$.

ER, e., see p. 53. Strong and long by the prolongation of the vowel sound, either simply as $u^{\prime}, e^{\prime}$, or modified by a more or less raised point of the tongue, as $w{ }^{\prime}{ }^{r} r$, but always with permission to add $r^{\prime}$. To pronounce clear $e r^{\prime}, a e r^{\prime}, u r^{\prime}, u u r^{\prime}$, is quite un-English, but is heard in Scotch; and a very light form of $r^{\prime}$ is heard in the provinces, as also $a e_{t} r, u u_{r} r$. All these sounds are disagreeable in received speech. Sometimes an attempt is made to distinguish "er, wr" as $u$, $u u^{\prime}$, or $u$, $e^{\prime}$, written $e r$, $u r$; this is not recommended, see p. $53 a$. It must be remembered that er represents a real long vowel, with a permissive trill $r^{\prime}$ after it, and that this trill is quite inadmissible where no $r^{\prime}$ originally existed. Err er , burr ber, fir, fur fer, her her', cur ker', blur bler., slur sler', purr per., sir ser, were wer, herb her.b (erb is old), curb $k e r \cdot b$, disturb dister•b, verb ver•b, herbs her $\cdot b z$, curbs ker $b z$, birch ber ch, kerchief ker chif, lurch ler ch, perch perch, search ser ch, searched ser cht, burred ber $\cdot d$ furred fer $d$, heard her $\cdot d$, occurred oker $d$, blurred bler $\cdot d$, slurred sler $d$, purred per• $d$, absurd abser $\cdot d$, preferred prifer $\cdot d$, word wer $\cdot d$, sherd sher $\cdot d$, words werdz, serf, surf ser•f, turf ter $\cdot f$, serfs ser $\cdot f s$, urge er $j$, dirge derj, merge mer.j, surge ser $j$, turgid terjid, verge ver•j, irk er $\cdot k$, birk, Burke ber $\cdot k$, jerk $j e r \cdot k$, lurk ler $k$, clerk kler $\cdot k$ (as some say, but klaa $\cdot k$ is more common), smirk smer $\cdot k$, perk per $\cdot k$, shirk sher $\cdot k$, Turk Ter $k$, work wer $\cdot k$, quirk $k$ wer $\cdot k$, Turks Ter $k k$, works wer $k s$, dirks der-ks, kirks ker-ks, earl er-l, churl cher-l, furl fer l l, girl gy'er-l (or ger $\cdot l$, but $g y^{\prime}$ is more common, gal is very common indeed, and some say gačl, but guw $\cdot l$, $g u u \cdot{ }^{\prime} r l,{ }^{r l}, g u x \cdot{ }^{\prime} l$ are very disagreeable), hurl her'l, pearl, purl per $\cdot l$, whirl wher $\cdot l$, earls er $\cdot l z$, hurls her $\cdot l z$, germ jer $\cdot m$, worm wer $\cdot m$, germed jer $\cdot m d$, wormed wer $\cdot m d$, germs ger $\cdot m z$, worms wer $\cdot m z$, earn er $\cdot n$, burn ber $\cdot n$, churn cher $\cdot n$, fern fer $\cdot n$, learn ler $\cdot n$, turn ter $\cdot n$, yearn yer $\cdot n$, earned er $\cdot n d$, er $\cdot n t$, burned ber $\cdot n d$, ber $\cdot n t$, churned cher $\cdot n d$ (never cher $\cdot n t$ ), learned ler•nd, ler•nt, turned ter $\cdot n d$
(never ter $\cdot n t$ ), yearned yer.nd (never yer.nt), learns ler $\cdot n z$, churns cher $\cdot n z$, chirp cher $\cdot p$, chirps cher $\cdot p s$, hearse her $\cdot s$, curse ker $\cdot s$, nurse ner $\cdot s$, terse ter $\cdot s$, verse ver $\cdot s$, worse wer $\cdot \mathrm{s}$, cursed ker $\cdot s t$, nursed ner $\cdot s t$, worst wer $\cdot$ st, earth er $\cdot t h$, birth ber $\cdot t h$, dearth der $\cdot t h$, girth ger th, hearth her th (much more generally haa th), mirth mer $\cdot$ th, Perth Per'th, worth wer $\cdot$ th, births berths, girths ger ths, serve ser $\cdot v$, served $\operatorname{ser} \cdot v d$, serves $\operatorname{ser} \cdot v z$.-Weak, final, commonly - $u$ or $-u$ ', without any trace of $r^{\prime}$, which, however, is always inserted before a following vowel, but should never be inserted when there was no original ' $r$,' as is commonly done for ease of speech, pp. $53-4$. When $u \div$ occurs in speaking, weak er should not be written in Glossie, because when $e r$ is written it implies that $u \div r$ may be said. Hence 'again' must not be written ergai $\cdot n$, although if $r$ ' were not sounded simply $u \div$ gai $n$ would be heard. This termination is so common that only a few examples are given. Cedar see $\cdot d e r$, calendar kal-ender, vinegar vin-iger, familiar fumilyer, friar frei er, robber rob er, member mem•ber, number num•ber, cider sei•der, preacher pree cher, feather fedh er, whether whedh $\cdot \mathrm{cr}$, weather, wether wedh $\cdot$ er, soldier soa•ljer, rapier rai $\cdot$ pyer, furries fur'ier, courtier koa'rtyer, prisoner priz'ner partner paa $\cdot$ rtner (not paa•rdner, a common mistake), skewer skew er (ofter skeur), employer emploi'yer (sometimes emploi $\cdot e r$ ), elixir ilik'ser, meteor mee'tyer, anchor angk•er, author aw'ther, warrior wor'ier, honour on er, favour faiver,labour lai ber, liquor lik•er, grandeur, grander $g r^{\prime} a n \cdot d e r$ (some say $g r^{\prime} a n \cdot d y e r, g r^{\prime} a n \cdot j e r, g r^{\prime} a n \cdot d e u r$, for the first), sulphur sul.fer, murmur mer-mer. Most of these words add on a $z$, as furriers fur' ${ }^{\prime}$ ierz. When a vowel follows pure $u \div r^{\prime}$ or $u^{\prime} \div r^{\prime}$ is heard, as ever, every $e v \cdot e r$, $e v \cdot u r^{\prime} i$, a soldier of fortune $u \div$ sooa $\cdot l j u \div r^{\prime} w v$ faur rteun. Ex. pp. 132b, $136 a, 138 a$.
ERR', e., see p. 53a, 136a. Strong, before vowels only: erring errr'ing (often er'ing), burring ber'r'ing (not bur'ing), incurring inkerr'ing (or irkur'ing), slurring sler $\cdot r^{\prime} i n g$, preferring prifer:$r^{\prime}$ ing (or prifer'ing).

EU, e. i., see p. $48 a, b$. An unanalysed form, having several permissible pronunciations, as yoo strong and weak, yioo strong, both at the beginning of words, and yoo strong and weak in middle of words, and ${ }^{2} 00$ strong and weak after consonants which glide on to it, Ex., p. 135b. These forms are not usually distinguished in the mind of the speaker, and are written by the same sign. Strong and long: you, yew eu, chew cheu, dew deu, few feu, gewgaws geu gauz, hue, hew heu (more correctly $y$ hioo, written $y$ heu, but few speakers are conscious of $y h$ ), Jew Jeu, cue, queue keu, lieu leu (not loo, but blue bloo, not bleu, flew floo, not fleu, glue gloo, not gleu, clue, clew kloo, not kleu, slew sloo, not sleu), mew meu, new neu (not noo), snew sneu (not snoo), pew peu (not peeŏo, rue r'oo, not $r$ 'eu, brew $b r^{\prime} \circ o$, not $b r^{\prime} e u$, drew $d r$ 'oo, not $d r^{\prime} e u$, grew $g r^{\prime} o o$, not $g r^{\prime} e u$, crew $k r^{\prime} o o$, not $k r^{\prime} e u$, strew str'oo, not str'eu, shrew shr'oo, not shreu and not shr'oa, sr'oa), sue seu (not soo nor shoo), thew theu, view veu, whew wheu (really a whistle), Bude Bew $\cdot d$, nude neu $\cdot d$, pewed peu $\cdot d$, sued sew $\cdot d$, tewed tew $\cdot d$, viewed veu•d, febrifuge $f e b \cdot r i f e u \cdot j$, huge heuj properly $y h e u j$ or $y h i o o j)$, duke $d e u \cdot k$, puke pew $\cdot k$, dukes $d e u \cdot k s$, pukes pew $k s$, puked pew $\cdot k t$, yule, you'll eu•l, exhume ekseu•m (or eks-hew•m, meaning eksyhew'm, rather pedantic), fume few'm, Hume Heum (meaning Yhew m), luminary lewminer' $i$ (or loo ${ }^{\prime}$ miner' $i$ ), fumed feu $\cdot m d$, fumes feu $\cdot \mathrm{mz}$, dune dew n, June Jewn, lune lew n (not loo n), impugn impeu'n, tune tew $n$ (not too n nor chew $n$ ), impugned impeu'nd, impugns impeu'nz, use ew•s, abuse $u b e u \cdot s$, deuce deu $\cdot s$, juice jeu•s, used eu•st (was accustomed) eu $\cdot z d$ (employed), Bute Beu $\cdot t$, lute lew't (or loo $t$ ), mute meu $t$, newt neu $\cdot t$, repute ripew $t$, suit sew't (not $s 00^{\circ} t$ nor shoo $t$ ), mutes mew'ts, newts neu•ts, suits seu•ts, you've ew'v.Weak, long or short: unite eunei $t$, unique eunee $\cdot k$, usurp euzer $p$, ubiquitous eubik witus, uranium eur'ai'niem, utility eutil•iti, monument mon eument, document dokeument, vacuum vakeuem, residuary rizid•euer'i, mortuary maw'rteuer'i, usual eu'zheuel, annual an'euel, virtual ver'teuel, tribulation trib•eulai'shen, virtue ver'teu, value val'eu, continue
kuntin $e u$, issue ish•eu (or ish•oo, not is $\cdot \mathrm{eu}$ ), tissue tish•eu, statue stat•eu. Ex., pp. 124a, 132a, $135 b$.
$E \cdot u \check{u}$, e., the real form of air, p. $50 b$.
EUR, e., representing the murmur triphthong $e u \cdot \breve{u}$, followed at pleasure by a trilled $r^{\prime}, \mathrm{p} .52 b$. Strong and long: ure eurr (compare ewer eweer) endure endeu•r, cure kew $\cdot r$, lure lew'r (or loo $r$ ), immure immew r, inure ineur, obscure obskeu'r (compare skewer skew•er) pure pew r, sewer sew r (recently, formerly shoa $r$, compare sure shoo $r$, sewer, a waiter, is sewer, pursuer persew er, not persoo er, nor pershoo er), mature mutew r, your eur, inured ineu•rd.-Weak: verdure ver deur (often verjer), figure fig•eur (generally fig•er), injure in•jeur (usuaily in•jer), perjure per:jeur (usually perjer), pleasure plezh•eur (usually plezh•er), measure mezh•eur (usually mezh•er), treasure trezh•eur usually trezh•er), pressure presh•eur (usually presh•er), fissure fish•eur (sometimes fis'eur, usually fisher, the same as 'fisher,') feature fee-teur (usually fee cher), nature nai•teur (usually nai•cher), temperature tem'pur'uteur (not tem'pr'ucher), literature lit'ur'uteur (not lit'r'ucher), stature stat eur (not stach $\cdot$ er), manufacture man $\cdot$ eufak $\cdot$ teur (not man•ifak•cher), fracture frak•teur (often frakcher), conjecture kunjek•teur (often kunjek•cher), lecture lek-teur (usually lek•cher), picture pik•teur (usually pikecher), stricture str'ik'teur (not strikcher), tincture tingk•teur (often tingk•cher), puncture pungk'teur (often pungk•cher), structure str'uk•teur (usually str'uk cher), forfeiture faw rfiteur (often fau•ficher), furniture fer niteur (usually fer nicher), culture kul-teur (usually kul-cher), vulture vul-teur (usually vul'cher), venture ven'teur (usually vencher), capture kap•teur (usually kap cher), rapture r'ap'teur (usually r'ap cher), scripture skr'ip'teur (usually skr'ip•cher), torture taur'teur (usually taw'cher), moisture mois'teur (often mois'cher, future few'teur (usually feu'cher), fixture fik steur (usually fik scher), seizure see'zheur (usually seezher). The change of -teur, zheur into -cher, -zher, depends mainly on the frequency with which the word is used, the latter forms are those which
prevail in common words. Before vowels eeur' or -ur' is used, as figuring fig'eur'ing, fig'ur'ing. Ex., p. $137 a$.
$E \cdot \breve{u} R^{\prime}$, e., a form of $a i r r^{\prime}$, which see.
EU•RR', e., a representative of eu‘ŭr', before vowels only, p. 137a. Long and strong: enduring endew'rr'ing, immuring immew rr'ing, curing kew'rr'ing, purer pew•rr'er, purity pew•rr'iti, puritanic pew •rr'itan $\cdot i k$.
$E u \breve{o}$, e. faulty form of ou, p. $47 b$, usually written $e w$, and then to be distinguished from eu, which see. $E W$, see last entry.
EZ, e., weak and final, with indistinct vowel, sometimes $e$, sometimes $i$, sometimes perhaps $i^{\prime}$, forming plurals and third persons of verbs, p. 141a. Princes prin $\cdot$ sez, princesses prinses•ez, seizes see $\cdot z e z$, inches in chez, flinches fin chez, judges jujez.

F, e. g. i. f., see p. 67b. Initial before vowels: fat fat, farm faa'rm, fate fai $\cdot t$, fought faw't, fell $f e l$, feel $f e e \cdot l$, file feil, feud $f e u \cdot d$, fit $f i$, fodder fod $\cdot e r$, foal foa $\cdot l$, four foa $r$, foist foist, fool $f o{ }^{\circ} l$, foul foul, fuss fus, foot fuot. Initial before consonants: flat flat, flaunt flaa nt, flame flai•m, fled fled, fleet flee•t, flight fleit, flit fit, flog flog, float floa't, flour flour, flutter flut $\cdot e r$, fragil $f r^{\prime} a j \cdot i l$, fray frai., phrase fr'ai $\cdot$, fraught fr'au $\cdot t$, fret fr'et, free $\mathrm{fr}^{\prime} e e^{\cdot}$, fright $f r^{\prime}$ eit, fritter fr'it er, frog $\mathrm{fr}^{\prime} \mathrm{og}$, froth fr'oth (often $f r^{\prime} a u^{\prime} t h$ ), froward fr'oa'erd, fruit $f r^{\prime}$ 'oo $t$, frown fr'oun, fructify fr'uk ${ }^{\prime}$ tifei. Medial between vowels: Baffin Bafin, wafer wai•fer, heifer hef•er, stiffer stif•er, offer of $\cdot e r$, loafer loa•fer, roofing roofing, rougher ruf•er. Final: staff staa•f, waif wai $f$, safe sai $f$, deaf def, beef bee $f$, life lei $\cdot f$, stiff stif, cliff klif, scoff skof (also skau•f), oaf oa• $f$, coif, quoif koif, hoof hoo $f$, stuff stuf. Double: a stiff frost $u$ stif frost, a half foot $u$ haa.f fuot, a gruff foe $u$ gr'uf foa;, a laugh forced $u$ laa'f foa'rst, a stiff fog $u$ stif fog, a half friend $u$ haa $f$ fr'end, a gruff foreigner u gr'uf for'ener. Ex., p. 121 .
$F^{\prime}, \mathrm{g}$, only in the combination $p f^{\prime}$, see $\mathrm{pp} .35 \pi$, $66 a$.

FV, perhaps occasionally initial in W. Somerset, hiss of $f$ passing into buzz of $v$, p. $92 a$.

G, e. g. i. f., sonant of $k$, p. $82 b$. Initial before vowels : gad gad, ghastly gaa stli (often gaa sli), game gai $\cdot m$, gall gau $\cdot l$, get get, geese gee $\cdot s$, guile geil, gimblet gim•blet, got got, goat goa $\cdot t$, goose $g o 0^{\circ}$, gout gou $\cdot t$, gum gum, good guod. Initial before consonants: glad glad, glass glaa's, glaze glai $\cdot z$, glean glee $\cdot n$, glitter glit•er, glossary gles'ur'i. gloat gloa $\cdot t$, glut glut, grand gr'and, grass $g r^{\prime} a a \cdot$ 's great $g r^{\prime} a i^{\circ} t$, grit $g r^{\prime} i t$, grotto $g r^{\prime} o t \cdot o a$, groin $g r^{\prime}$ oin.
 haggard hag'erd, plaguy plaigi, beggar beg'er. eager ee.ger, tiger tei-ger, trigger tr'ig'er, flogging flog-ing, disemboguing dis'emboa.ging, drugget dr'ug'et, sugar shuog•er. Final: nag nag, stag stag, plague plai.g, egg eg, league lee $\cdot g$, big big, bog bog, rogue roa $g$, rug rug. Double: a big gun $u$ big gur (compare a big'un $u$ big'un).
${ }^{\circ} G$, theoretical implodent of $k$, see p. $82 b$.
GH, g., voiced form of $k h, \mathrm{pp} .83 a, 146 a$.
' $G H, \mathrm{~g}$. faulty form of $g h$, allowing uvula to trill, p. $84 a$.
$G W$, rare e. combination, used for $g w^{\prime}$, which see. $G W^{\prime}$, e. usual form of $g w$, as here always written. See p. $82 b$.
$G W^{\prime} H$, g. labialised form of $g h, p .83 b$.
$G Y$, e., usually written for $g y^{\prime}$, which see.
$G Y$ ', e. a (now) faulty pronunciation of $g$, especially before $a a, e i$, written $g y$, pp. $80 b, 150 a$.
$G Y^{\prime} H, \mathrm{~g}$. voiced form of $k y^{\prime} h, \mathrm{pp} .81 a, 146 a$.
H, e. g., aspirate, in speaking either $h_{l}$ or $h_{l}$, in singing always $h \neq$ p. $58 b$. Initial only : ham ham; hat hat, heart, hart haa rt, hate hai $\cdot t$, haze $h a i \cdot z$, haws hau $z$, hem hem, heel, heal hee $l$, height heit, huge heuj (or properly yheuj), hit hit, hot hot, home hoa.m, hoist hoist, hoot hoo $t$, who hoo', howl houl, hull hul, hook huok.
' $H$, the Arabic wheeze, p. 60 .
$H^{\prime}$, e. g. f., the symbol for simple voice, p. $56 b$.
${ }^{\circ} H$, e. g. f., the symbol of simple flatus, p. $56 a$.
${ }^{\circ} H^{\prime}$, e., the symbol of whisper, p. $56 b$.
$H^{\circ} H$, e., the symbol of jerked flatus, p. $58 b$.
${ }_{\ell} H$, e., a very perceptible gradual attack, p. $57 a$.
$H_{2}$, e., jerked gradual attack, common form of aspirate, p. $59 a$.
$H_{1}$, e., jerked clear attack, the singer's aspirate, p. $59 a$.

I, e., replaced by $\check{e} e$, in g. i. f., pp. $28 a$ and $b$, $29 b, 31 b, 39 a$. Strong and short: itch ich, if if, ill $i l$, in in, it $i t$, is $i z$, bib $b i b$, fib $j i b$, jib $j i b$, nib nib, rib r'ib, fibbed fibd, jibbed jibd, nibbed nibd, bibs $b i b z$, fibs $f i b z$, ribs $r$ 'ibz, bitch bich, ditch dich, hitch hich, nitch nich, pitch pich, rich r'ich, stitch stich, witch wich, which which, hitched hicht, pitched picht, bid bid, chid chid, did did, hid hid, kid kid, lid lid, rid r'id, quid kwid, width wid-th, widths wid•ths, lids lidz, quids kwidz, tiff tif, stiff stif, whiff whif, tiffs tifs, whiffs whifs, whiffed whift, lift lift, fifth fifth, fifths fifths, big big, dig dig, fig fig, gig gig, jig jig, pig pig, rig r'ig, wig wig, swig swig, whig whig, jigged jigd, rigged $r^{\prime} i g d$, wigs wigz, gigs gigz, midge mij, ridge $r^{\prime} i j$, ridged $r$ ' $i j d$, Dick Dik, kick kik, lick lik, flick $f i k$, click $k l i k$, nick nik, pick pik, rick $r^{\prime} i k$, brick $b r^{\prime} i k$, crick $k r^{\prime} i k$, prick $p r^{\prime} i k$, sick sik, tick tik, thick thik, wick wik, quick kwik, nicks niks, fix fiks, six siks, fixed fikst, sixth siksth, sixths siksths, licked likt, pricked $p r$ 'ikt, ill il, bill bil, chill chil, fill fil, gill gil, hill hil, jill jil, kill kill, skill skil, mill mil, pill pil, rill ril, brill $b r^{\prime} i l$, drill $d r^{\prime} i l$, frill $f r^{\prime} i l$, grill $g r^{\prime} i l$, shrill shr'il, thrill thr'il, sill sil, till til, will wil, quill kwil, swill swil, filch filch, filched filcht, killed kild, drilled dr'ild, thrilled thr'ild, builds bildz, bilge bilj, bilk bilk, milk milk, silk silk, silks silks, film film, films filmz, kiln kiln (usually kil), built bilt, guilt, gilt gilt, hilt hilt, jilt jilt, kilt kilt, lilt lilt, milt milt, silt silt, tilt tilt, wilt wilt, hilts hilts, jilts jilts, ills ilz, bills bilz, mills milz, frills fr'ilz, dim dim, him him, Jem Jim, limb lim, rim r'im, brim br'im, grim gr'im, prim pr'im, Tim Tim, whim whim, limbed limd, shrimp shrimp, guimp gimp, $\operatorname{limp} \operatorname{limp}$, shrimps shrimps, limped limpt, in, inn in, bin bin, chin chin, din din, fin fin, begin bigin, gin jin, kin kin, pin pin, grin gr'in, sin sin, shin shin, tin tin, thin thin, win win, whin whin, inch inch, finch finch, lynch linch, pinch pinch, winch winch, pinched pincht, lynched lincht, Ind Ind, double-chinned dub•l-
chin $d$, dinned dind, finned find, piuned pind, sinned sind, shinned shind, tinned tind, thinned thind, hinge hinj, impinge impinj, fringe fr'inj, cringe $k r^{\prime} i n j$, springe spr'inj, singe sinj, tinge tinj, fringed fr'injd, singed sinjd, mince mins, rince $r^{\prime}$ ins, prince $p r^{\prime}$ ins, since sins, wince wins, minced minst, winced winst, dint dint, hint hint, lint lint, flint fint, glint glint, splint splint, mint mint, print pr'int, tint tint, splints splints, plinth plinth, plinths plinths, king king, ling ling, sling sling, ring r'ing, sing sing, string str'ing, thing thing, wing wing, winged wingd, chink chingk, link lingk, blink blingk, pink pingk, rink r'ingk, drink $d r$ 'ingk, sink singk, stink stingk, think thingk, wink wingk, drinks dr'ingks, thinks thingks, blinked blingkt, winked wingkt, stings stingz, wings wingz, chip chip, dip dip, hip hip, gyp jip, skip skip, lip lip, flip fip, clip klip, slip slip, nip nip, pip pip, rip r'ip, drip dr'ip, grip gr'ip, scrip skr'ip, strip str'ip, sip sip, ship ship, tip tip, equip ikwip , whip whip, ships ships, whips whips, shipped shipt, whipped whipt, this dhis, hiss his, kiss kis, bliss blis, miss mis, frisk fr'isk, frisks fr'isks, lisp lisp, crisp kr'isp, wisp wisp, whisp whisp, lisps lisps, fist . fist, hist hist, gist jist, mist, missed mist, wrist $r$ 'ist, grist gr'ist, whist whist, wrists r'ists, dish dish, fish fish, wish wish, whish whish, fished fisht, whisht whisht, it it, bit bit, chit chit, fit fit, hit hit, kit kit, lit lit, flit fit, split split, slit slit, smit smit, nit, knit nit, pit pit, writ r'it, grit gr'it, sit sit, tit tit, wit wit, whit whit, Fitz Fits, writs r'its, kith kith, myth mith, pith pith, frith fr'ith, myths miths, live ( v. ) liv, sieve siv, lived livd, lives (v.) livz, sieves sivz, is $i z$, his hiz, Liz Liz, 'tis tiz, whizz whiz, whizzed whizd. Weak, short, and open, by some considered as $-i$ : lobby lob $\cdot i$, piracy pei'rr'esi, ready r'ed-i, clayey klai-i, leafy lee $f$, craggy $k r^{\prime} a g \cdot i$, stingy stin $j i$, valley $v a l \cdot i$, chimney chim $n i$, bushy buosh $\cdot i$, stithy stidh $\cdot i$, healthy hel'thi, leaky lee ki, bravely brai vli, poppy pop $\cdot i$, beggary beg'ur'i, aviary ai'viur' $i$, salary sal•ur'i, laundry laa•ndr'i, nunnery nun'ur'i, glory gloa'rr'i, defamatory difam'utur'i, parry par'i, cherry cher' $i$, sorry sor' $\cdot i$, hurry hur' $i$, sultry
sul'tri, vestry ves'tri, fury feu'rr' $i$, usury eu'zhur' $i$, courtesy koa $\cdot r$ tesi, ker tsi, pansy pan $z i$, daisy $d a i \cdot z i$, busy $b i z \cdot i$, haughty $h a u \cdot t i$, unity eu•niti, envy en vi, colloquy kol.oakwi, dizzy diz $\cdot i$. Ex. pp. $118 a, 119 b, 128 b$.
$\breve{i}$, mark of an $i$ forming a diphthong with the preceding vowel, p. $43 b$, or of short $i$.
$I^{\prime}$, e., p. 29a, the Welsh $u$, p. 29a, supposed indistinct sound of weak short open $i$, which see, p. $39 a$.
$\mathfrak{i} E E$, e., a throat glide, and dialectal form of $e e$, written ée, p. $55 b$.
$\grave{\imath O}$, e., a form of eu, p. 48a.
$I \cdot \breve{u}$, e., the murmur diphthong in eer, p. $50 b$.
$\mathfrak{\imath} U E$, a theoretical lip glide, faulty form of $u e$, p. $55 b$.
$\grave{\imath U O} \breve{u}$, e., a form of eur, which see.
$I \cdot \breve{u}^{\prime} r^{\prime}$, e., a form of eerr', which see.
J, e. i., not $d z h$, but $d y^{\prime} z h^{\prime}$, see p. $80 a$. Initial before vowels: jack jak, jaundice jaan•dis, jade $j a i \cdot d$, jaw jau', jet jet, genius jee nius, giant, jei ent, June Jeu n, jig jig, jot jot, jolt joa•lt, joy joi, jowl joul, just just. $J$ does not occur initially before consonants. Medial between vowels: badger baj•er, paging paijing, raging raijiing, pledging plej:ing, lieges leejez, obliging oableijiing, fidget fj'et, Hodge's Hojez, gouging goojoing, budget buj•et. Final after vowels: age aijj, engage engai $\cdot j$, edge $e j$, dredge $d r^{\prime} e j$, ridge $r ' i j$, podge $p o j$, judge juj, liege lee.j, oblige oablei $i j$, doge $d o a \cdot j$, gouge goo j. Double: a huge giant $u$ yhew $j$ jei ent, a stage jest $u$ stai $j$ jest, a strange joke $u$ str'ai ${ }^{n} j$ $j 0 a \cdot k$. Ex. p. $125 a$.
$J^{\prime}$, a sonant form of $j$, p. 79a.
$J^{\prime} Z H^{\prime}$, a possible form of $j$, p. $80 a$.
K, e. g. i. f., see p. 82b. Initial before vowels : cat kat, cart kaa•rt, cate kai•t, call kau $\cdot l$, kept kept, keep kee $\cdot p$, kite keit, cue keu, kit kit, cot kot, coat koa $\cdot t$, coil koil, cool koo l, cowl koul, cut kut, cook kuok. Initial before consonants: clad klad, class $k l a a \cdot s$, clay klai, claws klau $z$, cleft kleft, cleave $k l e e \cdot v$, clime kleim, cliff klif, clot klot, clove kloa $\cdot v$, cloy kloi, cloud kloud, club klub, cram kram, crane
krai $\cdot n$, crawl krau $\cdot$, crept krept, cream $k r^{\prime}$ ee $m$, crime $k r^{\prime}$ eim, criminal $k r^{\prime}$ im inel, croft $k r^{\prime}$ oft, croak $k r^{\prime} o a \cdot k$, crude $k r^{\prime} o o^{\circ} \cdot d$, crowd $k r^{\prime} o u d$, qualm $k w a a \cdot m$, quail $k w a i \cdot l$, quell $k w e l$, queen, quean $k w e e \cdot n$, quite kweit, quit kwit, quantity kwon $\operatorname{titi}$, quote kwoa $t$ (sometimes koa $t$ ). quoit kwoit (often koit); all these $k w$ are really $k w$ ', which sce. Medial between vowels: sacking sak ing, taking tai $\cdot k i n g$, walking wau-king, pecker peker, meeker mee $k e r$, striking str'ei•king, puking pew-king, picking pik•ing, knocking nok•ing, poking poa $\cdot k i n g$, ducking duk-ing, cooking kuok ing, looking luoking. Final after vowels: back $b a k$, bake $b a i \cdot k$, balk $b a w \cdot k$ : neck $n e k$, meek mee $\cdot k$, spike spei $k$, Suke $S e w \cdot k$. sick sik, lock lok, poke poa $k$, suck suk, look luok Double: bookcase buok-kais (compare bouquets buok aiz); a black cat $u$ blak kat, a black cock $u$ blak kok, a quick camel ukwik kam•el, a quick canter u kwik kan•ter.
$K^{\circ}$, e., the sound produced by gently separating the back of the tongue from the roof of the mouth as black blak ${ }^{\circ}$, see p. $94 b$.

KH, g., see pp. 83a, 146a, the guttural hiss.
' $K H$, g. faulty form of $k h$, with a trill of thf uvula, p. 84a.
$K-H, \mathrm{~g}$. post-aspirated $k$, the following vowe being jerked, or preceded by jerked flatus, p. $90 a$.
$K^{\circ} H$, e. final $k$ followed by an ejection of flatus stronger than $k^{\circ}$, see p. $94 b$.
$K V$ ', the real g. ' $q u$ ' in quelle $k v^{\prime} a e l \cdot u$, see. p. $83 a$.
$K W^{\prime}$, e., p. 82b, an attempt to pronounce $k$ and $w$ at the same time, the true e. 'qu' in quell $k w^{\prime} e l$, usually written $k w$, see $k$.
$K W ' H$, g., the guttural hiss $k h$, pronounced while the lips are rounded for 00, p. $83 b$.
$K Y^{\prime}$, e., p. $80 b$, old-fashioned attempt to pronounce $k$ and $y$ together, pp. 80b, 150a.
$K Y^{\prime} H$. g., pp. 81a, 146a, the palatal hiss in ich ĕeky'h.
$\mathbf{L}$, e. (the g. i. f. form is $l$, which see), see p. 73a. Initial before vowels: lad lad, last laarst, late lai•t, law lau, let let, least lee'st, light leit, lute leu't (or loot), lit lit, lot lot, loam loa m,

Lloyd Loid, loom loo'm, loud loud, luck luk, look luok. $L$ does not occur initial before consonants. Medial between vowels: alley al $\cdot i$, railing $r r^{\prime} a i \cdot l i n g$, calling kaw-lung, selling sel-ing, ceiling, sealing see-ling, filing fei ling, duly dew $\cdot l$, killing kil-ing, Dolly Dol-i, coaling koarling, coiling koi ling, cooling 'koo ling, growling grou-ling, culling kul-ing, pulling puol-ing. Final after vowels: Sal Sal, sail sai $\cdot$ l, Saul Sau-l, sell sel, seal see $l$ l, pile peil, mule mew $\cdot l$, pill $p i l$, doll $d o l$, droll $d r ' o a \cdot l$, toil toil, tool tool, fowl foul, dull dul, full fuol. Final after consonants, vocal, forming a syllable and capable of being followed by $d$ or $z$ : dabble $d a b \cdot l$, dabbled $d a b \cdot l d$, dabbles $d a b \cdot l z$, addle $a d \cdot l$, snaffle snaf $\cdot l$, higgle $\mathrm{hig} \cdot l$, haggle $\mathrm{hag} \cdot l$, struggle $\operatorname{str} \cdot \mathrm{ug} \cdot l$, cackle $k a k \cdot l$, sickle $s i k \cdot l$, apple $a p \cdot l$, nipple $n i p \cdot l$, ripple rip $\cdot l$, jostle $j o s \cdot l$, epistle ipis $\cdot l$, little lit $\cdot l$, kettle ket $\cdot l$, cattle $k a t \cdot l$, mizzle miz $\cdot l$, drizzle $d r^{\prime} i z \cdot l$. If a vowel follows as an inflection, the $l$ ceases to form a syllable, as stable, stabling stai $b l$, stai $\cdot b l i n g$, not stai.bl-ing or stai•bl-ling. Double between two vowels : a full league $u$ fuol lee $g$, a dull lad $u$ dul lad (compare dullard dul•erd), Mill Lane Mil Lai•n, not till late not til lai't (compare not till eight not til ai$\cdot t$ ), a tall lady $u$ taw $\cdot l$ lai $\cdot d i$, a wall lamp $u$ wau $\cdot l$ lamp, vile labour veil lai ber, illicit illis-it (compare elicit ilis $\cdot i t$ ), ill luck il $l u k$, soulless soa-lles (compare solace soa-les). Double between a consonant and a vowel: Apple Lane Ap $\cdot l$ Lai $\cdot$, the battle lasted long dhi bat $\cdot$ laa lated long, a little lass $u$ lit•l laa's, to haggle long too hag'l long. Ex. p. $125 b$.
$L^{\prime}, \mathrm{g}$. i. f., with the point of the tongue against the gums or teeth, but Englishmen need not distinguish it from $l$, p. $73 b$.
' $L$, theoretical unilateral $l$, one side of the tongue being close to the palate, and the other (generally the right side) depressed to allow a passage of air, as in clicking to make a horse go on, p. $73 b$.
.$L$, possible western e. $l$, with the under part of the point of the tongue brought against the palate, see p. $73 b$.
$L H$, the hiss of $l$, p. $73 b$.
$L^{\prime}$ ' $H$, the hiss of $l$ ', p. $73 b$
' $L H$, the hiss of ' $l$, the Welsh ' 1 ' as llall ' lha' $l h$ p. $73 b$.

LY', i., attempt to pronounce $l$ and $y$ at the same time, pp. 81b, $148 b$.

M, e. g. i. f., see p. 66b. Initial before vowels : mat mat, Mars Maarz, mail, male mai $\cdot l$, maul max ll, mellow mel $\cdot 0 a$, Molly $M o l \cdot i$, mole moa $\cdot$, moist moist, move moo $v$, mouth mouth, muff muf. $M$ does not occur initially before consonants. Medial between vowels: clammy klam $\cdot i$, maiming mai'ming, hemmer hem $\cdot e r$, teeming tee ming, climbing klei ming, fumitory feu $\cdot$ mitur' $i$, dimming dim. ing, Tommy Tom $\cdot i$, gloaming gloa ming, grooming groooming, humming huming. Final after a vowel: ham ham, aim ai m, shalm shau'm, stem stem, team, teem tee $m$, time teim, $\operatorname{dim}$ dim, Tom Tom, loam loa $m$, tomb too ${ }^{\circ}$, room roo ${ }^{\prime} m$ (not $r^{\prime}$ uom). hum hum. Final after a consonant, not forming a syllable : realm r'elm , elm elm , whelm whelm ;, film film: Words like worm werm, term term, form faurm, do not belong to this class unless the $r^{\prime}$ is heard, and then speakers are apt to make the $m$ form a syllable, as wur'em, ter'em, for'em, and similarly they are apt to say el-em; neither fault should be imitated. Final after a consonant, forming a syllable: logarithm $\log \cdot u r^{\prime} i t h \cdot ' m$, chasm $k a z \cdot m$, enthusiasm enthewziaz' $m$, spasm $s p a z \cdot m$, criticism krit ${ }^{\prime}$ isiz' $m$, schism siz'm, sophism sof $i z-m$, organism aw'rguniz' $m$, prism $p r^{\prime} i z \cdot m$, egotism eg'oatiz' $m$, abysm abis'm, paroxysm par'oksiz'm. Double between two vowels: a calm manner $u$ kaa'm man'er, to thrum music too thrum meu'zik, a grim man ugrim man, immure immeur, some magpies sum mag peiz. Double between a consonant and a vowel: the schism mentioned $d h i s i z \cdot m$ men'shend, a prism made by me $u$ priz'm mai•d bei mee, a spasm might ensue $u$ spaz'm meit enser, heroism modernism mechanism her oaiz''n moderniz''m mek'uniz'm. Ex. p. 126a.

MH, theoretical flated form of $m, \mathrm{p} .67 b$.
$M P$, e. final, extremely short sound of $m$, checked by clusing the glottis, p. $98 b$.
$\mathbf{N}$, e. the g. i. f. form is $n^{\prime \prime}$, which see), p. 77a. Initial before vowels: gnat nat, gnarled naa rld, nail nai $l$, gnaw nau, knell nel, kneel nee $l$, knife nerf, newt new $t$, knit nit, knot, not not, note noa $\cdot t$, noodle noo dl, now nou, nut nut. $N$ does not occur initial before consonants. Medial between vowels: Fanny Fan $\cdot$, staining stai $\cdot n i n g$, awning au ning, penning pen $\cdot i n g$, weaning wee ning, pining pei ning, tuning teu•ning, pinning pin•ing, bonnet bon et, owning oa ning, joining joi ning, crooning kroo.ning, frowning frowning, punish pun•ish. Final after vowels: pan pan, pain, pane pai $n$, pawn paw $n$, pen pen, seem, seam see $m$, sign sein, tune tew $n$, pin pin, gone gon, groan gr'oa'n, groin groin, soon soon (not suon), brown br'oun, fun fun. Final after consonants, all the following may also be pronounced with indistinct en, which see : ashen ash $n$, freshen $f r^{\prime} e s h \cdot n$, heathen hee $\cdot d \cdot h n$, oaken oa $\cdot k n$, taken $t a i \cdot k n$, silken $s i l \cdot k e n$, spoken $s p o a \cdot k n$, happen hap $n$, chosen choarzn, lessen, lesson les $n$, beaten bee tn, often of $n$, hasten hai $\cdot s n$, flatten fat $n$, rotten rot $n$, seven sev $n$, waxen waks' $n$, frozen froa:zn, basin bai:zn (some call Latin Lat $\cdot n$, satin sat $\cdot n$, but it is an antiquated pronunciation), rosin, resin roz'n (or roz'in or rez in), pardon paa•rdn, wagon wag $\cdot n$, syphon sei $\cdot f n$, reason ree $\cdot z n$, treason tr'ee $\cdot z n$, season see $z n$, poison poi $\cdot z n$, cotton kot $\cdot n$, mutton mut $\cdot n$, button but $\cdot n$ (these three last are perhaps never kot en, mut en, but en). Double between two vowels: unknown unnoa•n (compare unowned unoa•nd), one known to me woun noa.n too mee, soon known soo n noa'n, sign now sein nou, sign none sein none, a nun known now $u$ nun noa'n nou. Double between a consonant and a vowel: Newton knew well Neu'tn neu wel, it's frozen now its froa'zn nou, chosen knolls choarzn nolz, beaten never bee'tn nev'er, often now of $n$ nou, he saw treason nigh hee sau tr'ee'zn nei. Ex. p. $126 b$.
$N^{\prime}$, symbol for French nasalisation, see aen', $a h n ', o a n ', ~ \theta e n ', ~ p . ~ 39 b . ~$
$N^{\prime \prime}, \mathrm{g} . \mathrm{i} . \mathrm{f}$. , dental $n$, p. $77 a$, with the point of the tongue against the gums or teeth, for which an Englishman may always use his own $n$, which see.
${ }^{4} N$, an $n$ made with the tongue in the position of d, which see, p. $77 a$.

NG, e. g. i., see p. 84a. Never initial in English either before a vowel or a consonant. Medial between two vowels: hanger hanger, ganger gang'er, singer sing'er, longer long'er (one who longs, but long•ger more long), hanging hang-ing, singing sing•ing, longing long-ing. Final: bang bang, fang fang, gang gang, hang hang, clang klang, slang slang, pang pang, rang r'ang, sang sang, stang stang, king king, ling ling, fling fing, cling kling, sling sling, ring ring, bring $b r$ 'ing, string str'ing, thing thing, wing wing, swing swing, gong gong, long long, strong str'ong, thr'ong throng, song song, thong thong. Never double. Ex. p. 125a.

NGG, e., see p. 84b. Never initial, final, or double, only medial: finger fing.ger, linger ling.ger, stronger str'ong•ger, hunger hung•ger. Avoid final ngg.
$N G H$, theoretical flated form of $n g$, see p. $85 a$.
NGK, e. g., p. 98b. Very short $n g$ terminated by closing the glottis, never initial, common final: bank bangk, think thingk, wink wingk, hunk hungk, monk mungk. When medial proper the ng is equally short, as thinking thingk ing, winking wingk-ing, but sometimes advantage is taken of the following vowel to lengthen the $n g$, and this is always the case in Italian: monkey mung $k i$, not generally mungk $\cdot i$, but flunkey flungk $\cdot i$ always; Italian ancora aang-koaraa.
$N H$, e. flated form of $n$, still heard in Cumberland for $k n$ initial, p. 78b.
$N^{\prime \prime} H$, flated form of $n^{\prime \prime}$, which see, p. $78 b$.
NY', i. f., p. $82 a$, an attempt to pronounce $n$ and $y$ at the same time. Ex. pp. 148b, $150 b$.

NT, e., p. 98b, very short $n$ terminated by closing the glottis, when $n t$ is final, as pant pant, paint pai•nt, haunt haw nt (or haa•nt), went went, pint peint, hint kint, font font, won't woarnt, aroynt uroi'nt, fount fount, punt punt. When medial
advantage is taken of the following vowel to lengthen the $n$, as painting pain-ting, hinting hin $\bullet$-ting, hunting hun - -ting.
0, e. (the foreign form is $a 0$ ), p. $35 a, 36 a$. Strong and short : bob bob, fob fob, hob hob, job job, cob kob, blob blob, mob mob, knob rob, rob r'ob, throb thr'ob, sob sob, swab swob, jobbed jobd, cobs kobz, botch boch, notch noch, watch woch, watched wooht, god god, hod hod, cod kod, plod plod, nod nod, pod pod, rod r'od, sod sod, wad wod, hods hodz, rods r'odz, off of, doff dof, cough kof (or kaw f), doffs dofs, coughed koft (or kau ft), crofts krofts, lofts lofts, bog bog, dog dog, fog fog, Gog Gog, hog $h o g$, jog jog, $\operatorname{cog} k \circ g$, $\log \log$, flog fog, frog fr'og, jogged jogd, flogs flogz, dodge doj, Hodge Hoj, lodge loj, lodged lojd, dock dok, cock kok, lock lok, block blok, flock flok, clock klok, mock mok, knock nok, pock pok, rock $r^{\prime}$ ok, frock fr'ok, crock $k r^{\prime} o k$, sock sok, shock shok, thou mock'st dhou mokst, mocked mokt, shocked shokt, doll dol, loll lol, Moll Mol, knoll nol, Poll Pol (but poll poa•l), golf golf, dolls dolz, lolls lolz, romp r'omp, prompt pr'ompt, prompts pr'ompts, on on, don don, gone gon (or gaw $n$ ), John Jon, con kon, shone shon (shun or shoa $\cdot n$ ), bond bond, donned dend, fond fond, conned kond, blond blond, pond pond, froud fr'ond, wand wond, ponds pondz, wands wondz, sconce skons, font font (see -nt), fonts fonts, cons konz, gong yong, long long, prong pr'ong, strong str'ong, throng thr'ong, song song, thong thong, longed longd, thronged thr'ongd, songs songz, thongs thongz, chop chop, fop fop, hop hop, lop lop, flop flop, slop slop, mop mop, pop pop, drop dr'op, crop $k r^{\prime} o p$, prop $p r^{\prime}$ op, sop sop, shop shop, top top, stop stop, whap whop, swap swop, slops slops, stops stops, cropped $k r^{\prime}$ opt, propped $p r^{\prime} \circ p p t$, adopts $u d o p \cdot t s$, loss los (or laurs), floss flos, gloss glos, Joss Jos, moss mos, Ross Ros, dross dr'os (these 5 words never have -aw's), cross kr'os (or kr'au's), toss tos (or taw's), cost kost (or kaw'st), lost lost (or law'st), mossed most, frost fr'ost (or fr'aurst), crossed kr'ost (or $k r^{\prime} \cdot a w \cdot s t$ ), tossed tost (or tau'st), wast wost, frosts frosts (or fr'aw'sts), bosh bosh, wash wosh, quash kwosh, washed wosht, quashed kwosht, dot dot, got
got, hot hot, jot jot, cot kot, scot skot, lot lot, blot blot, clot klot, plot plot, slot slot, not not, pot pot, rot r'ot, grot gr'ot, sot sot, shot shot, wot wot, squat skwot, what whot, blots blots, clots klots, cloth kloth (or klaw 'th), moth moth, wroth r'oth (or $r^{\prime} a w^{\prime} t h$ ), broth $b r^{\prime}$ oth (or $b r^{\prime} a w \cdot t h$ ), froth $f r^{\prime}$ oth (or fr'au'th), Thoth Thoth (or Tau't), cloths kloths (or klaw'ths), frothed fr'otht (or $\mathrm{fr}^{\prime}$ aw'tht), was woz. Weak and short, rare, as o becomes $u$, or indistinct: chaos kai•os, tripos trei pos, bloodshot blud•shot, upshot up shot, earshot ee'rshot, polyglot pol-iglot, underplot un $\cdot$ derplot, counterplot kou'nterplot, grass-plot or plat graa $\cdot \mathrm{splot}$, cannot kan $\cdot$ ot, slipslop slip•slop, milksop milk•sop, snowdrop snoa $\cdot d r o p$, padlock pad•lok, shuttlecock shut-lkok, thingumbob thing $\cdot e m b o b$, lapdog lap•dog, slipshod slip $\cdot$ shod, dryshod drei shod. Ex. pp. 118b, 120b, $130 b$.
0A, e. g. i. f., see p. 35b, $36 a, 39 a$. There is a tendency in London to say $o a^{\cdot} \cdot$, and even oaw ${ }^{\circ}$, p. $36 a$; the latter should be avoided always; the $o a \cdot w$ (which is rather a lip glide, p. $55 a$, the lips closing from the mid-round position for $o a$, to the high-round position for 00 ) is used in open syllables when final, but only at the end of a phrase and word, when there is a pause, and in closed strong syllables before vocals and lip letters chiefly, its general use should be avoided. Strong and long: bow boar, (or boa $w$ ), doe, dough doa* (or doa $\cdot w$ ), though dhoa (seldom dhoa $w$, avoid the Scotch thoa.), foe foa. (or foa w), go goa. (or goa $w$, avoid goo), hoe hoa. (or hoa.w), Joe Joar, low loa. (or loa'w), blow bloa. (or bloa w), flow floa. (or floa.w, glow gloa. (or gloa.w), slow sloa. (or sloa.w), mow (v.) moa (or moa'w, mow (s.) mow ), no, know noar, noa $w$, snow snoa. (or snoa $w$ ), row ( v .) $r^{\prime} o a^{\cdot}$ (or r'oa'w; in the sense of tumult, rou), grow $g r^{\prime} o a^{\prime}$ (or $g r^{\prime} o a^{\circ} w$ ), crow $k r^{\circ} \circ a^{\cdot}$ (or $k r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot{ }^{\circ} w$ ), throw thr'oar (or thr'oa'w), sow, sew soar (or soa'w), show, shew shoa (or shoa $\cdot w$ ), toe, tow toa. (or toa w), stow stoa. (or stoa w, woe woa. (not woa $\cdot w$ ), Job Joa:b (or Joa wb), lobe loa b (not loa $\cdot w b$, because the word is unusual), globe gloa $\cdot b$, robe $r^{\prime} o a \cdot b$ (or roa $\cdot w b$ ), probe proa $\cdot b$, robed roab $\cdot d$, probed $p r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot b d$, robes roa $\cdot b z$ (or $r^{\prime} o a \cdot w b z$ ), coach
koa $\cdot c h$, poach poa $\cdot c h$, roach $r^{\prime}$ oa $\cdot c h$, brooch, broach $b r^{\prime} o a^{\circ} \cdot c h$, encroach enkr'oa ch, poached poa'cht, bode boa $\cdot d$, goad goa $\cdot d$, hoed hoa $\cdot d$ (or hoa $\cdot w d$, but not common in any such case), load, lode loa $\cdot d$, flowed floa $\cdot d$, glowed gloa $\cdot d$, mode moa $\cdot d$, node noa $\cdot d$, rode road $r$ 'oa $\cdot d$, crowed kroa $\cdot d$, sowed, sewed soa $\cdot d$, shewed, showed shoa $\cdot d$, towed, toad toa $\cdot d$, stowed stoa $\cdot d$, woad woa $\cdot d$, modes moa $\cdot d z$, toads toa $\cdot d z$, loathe loa $\cdot d h$, clothe $k l o a \cdot d h$, loathed loa $\cdot d h d$, loathes loa $\cdot d h z$, clothes $k l o a \cdot d h z$ (or kloca $z$ ), oaf oa $\cdot f$, loaf loa $\cdot f$, loat's loa $\cdot f s$, loafed loa $\cdot f t$, rogue roa $\cdot g$, brogue $b r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot g$, vogue voa $\cdot g$, brogues $b r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot g z$, doge $d o a \cdot j$, oak oa $\cdot k$, choke choa $\cdot k$, joke joa $\cdot k$, smoke smoa $\cdot k$, poke poa $\cdot k$, spcke spoa $\cdot k$, broke $b r^{\circ} \circ a \cdot k$, croak $k r^{\prime} o a \cdot k$, stroke $s t r^{\prime} o a \cdot k$, soak $s o a \cdot k$, woke woa $k$, yoke, yolk, yelk $y o a \cdot k$, oaks oa $\cdot k s$, croaks kroa kks, hoax hoarks, Nokes Noa $k s$, stroked str'oa $\cdot k t$, bowl boa $\cdot l$ (or boa $\cdot w l$; when a ball, sometimes boul), dole doa l (or doa $\cdot w l$ ), foal foa $\cdot l$ (or foa $\cdot w l$ ), goal goa $\cdot l$ (or goa $\cdot w l$ ), hole, whole hoa $\cdot l$ (or hoa wl l), coal koarl (or koa wl), ${ }^{\circ}$ mole moall (or moa $\cdot w l$ ), pole poarl (or poa'wl), roll r.oall (or r'oaw $\cdot l$ ), droll $d r^{\prime} o a \cdot l$ (or $d r o a \cdot w l$ ), scroll skr'oa $\cdot l$ (or skr'oa $\cdot w l$ ), sole, soul, soal soa l (or soa $\cdot w l$ ), shoal shoa.l (or shoa $\cdot w l$ ), toll toa.l (or toa wl; I find that I do not say oa wl in any case, but that I do close the lips a little more at the end of the oa than at the beginning, not, however, to the complete oo position, and that the tongue remains still, so that the sound begins with pure oa and ends with an $o a$ slightly inclined towards 00 ; to say $o a \cdot w l$ is unnatural to me), holp hoa $\cdot l p$, bolt boa $\cdot l t$, dolt doa $\cdot l t$, jolt joa $\cdot l t$, moult moa $\cdot l$, bolts boal-ts, dolts doa.lts, holes hoa $l z$, dome doa.m (or doa.wm, but in all the following words I find that my lips come only slightly nearer for oa, and fall suddenly on $m$ without passing through the form for oo, compare $d 00 \cdot m, d o a \cdot m$ in the mirror and see that they do not end alike), foam foa $\cdot m$ (or foa wm ), home hoa.m (or hoa $\cdot w m$ ), comb koa'm (or koa $\cdot w m$ ), loam loa:m (or loa $\cdot w n$ ), clomb kloa $\cdot m$ (or kloa $\cdot w m$, gnome noa.m, roam $r^{\prime} 0 \pi \cdot m$, tome toa $\cdot m$, foamed foa $\cdot m d$, combed koam $\cdot d$, roamed $r^{\prime} o a \cdot m d$, combs koa $\cdot m z$, roams $r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot m z$, tomes toa $\cdot m z$, own $o a \cdot n$ (or
oa.wn, the oa $\cdot w$ more common), bone box $n$ (or boa $\cdot w n$ ), hone hor $\cdot n$ (or koa $\cdot w n$ ), loan, lone loa $\cdot n$, blown bloa'n (or bloa'wn), flown floa'n (or floa'wn), moan moann (not often moa $\cdot$ wn), known noa $\cdot n$ (or noa'wn), roan $r^{\prime} o a \cdot n$, drone $d r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot n$ (or droa $\cdot w n$ ), grown $\mathrm{gr}^{\prime} o a \cdot n$ (or groa $\cdot w n$ ), prone pr'oa $^{\prime} \cdot n$, strewn, strown str'oa:n, thrown, throne thr'oan (or $t h r^{\prime} o a \cdot w n$ ), sown soa $\cdot n$ (or soa'wn), shewn, shown shoa.n (or shoa $\cdot w n$ ), tone toa.n, stone stoa $n$ (or stoa $\cdot w n$ ), don't doa $n t$ (often doa'wnt), won't woa'nt (seldom woa $\cdot w n t$ ), bones boa nz , stones stoa $\cdot n z$ (or stoa wnz), ope oa.p (I find oa $\cdot w p$ rather difficult, yet I think I hear it occasionally), hope hoa $\cdot p$, cope koa $\cdot p$, slope sloa $\cdot p$, mope $m o a \cdot p$, pope poa $\cdot p$, rope $r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot p$, grope $g r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot p$, soap soa $\cdot p$, hopes $h o a^{\circ} \cdot p s$, ropes roa $\cdot$ ps, groped groa $\cdot p t$, dose doa's (some say doa $\cdot z$ ), close (adj.) kloa $\cdot s$, boast boa $\cdot \mathrm{st}$, ghost goa $\cdot \mathrm{st}$, host hoa $\cdot s t$, coast koa'st, most moa'st, post poa $\cdot$ st, roast r'oa:st, toast toa'st, ghosts goas'ts, hosts hoa $\cdot$ sts, oat oa $\cdot t$, boat boa $\cdot t$ (I have heard boa wt, and even boaw $\cdot t$, but thought them very strange), dote doa $\cdot t$, goat goa $\cdot t$, coat koa $\cdot t$, bloat bloa $\cdot t$, float floa $\cdot t$, gloat gloa $\cdot t$, moat moa $\cdot t$, note noa $\cdot t$, rote r'oa $t$, throat thr'oa't, oats oa'ts, boats boa'ts, throats thr'oa'ts, oath oa $\cdot t h$, both boa th (not boa $\cdot w t h$, nor boa $\cdot d h$ ), loth loa'th, sloth sloa th, oath's oa-ths (but oaths oaddhz), hove hoa.v (or hoa wev), Jove Joa.v (or $J o a \cdot w v$ ), cove $k o a \cdot v$ (or koa $\cdot w v$ ), rove $r^{\prime} o a \cdot v$, drove $d r^{\prime} o a \cdot v$, grove $g r^{\prime}$ oav, strove str'oa $\cdot v$, shrove $s h r^{\prime} o a \cdot v$, throve thr'oa $\cdot v$, wove woarv (never woa $\cdot w v$ ), coved koa'vd, coves koa'vz, groves gr'oa $\cdot v z$, doze doa'z, those dhoa'z (or dhoa $\cdot w s$ ), focs foa'z (or foa $\cdot w z$ ), goes goa z (or goa $\cdot w z$ ), hose hoa $\cdot z$, blows bloa $\cdot z$ (or bloa $\cdot w z$ ), flows $f l o a \cdot z$ (or $f l o a \cdot w z$ ), glows, gloze gloa $\cdot z$, (and, as glows gloa wz), close (v.) kloa'z (or kloa $w z$ ), nose noarz (or uoa wz perhaps, but not often), pose $p o a \cdot z$, rose $r^{\prime} \circ a^{\prime} z$ (or $r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot w z$ perhaps), froze froa $\cdot z$, grows groa'z (or groa'wz), crows kroa'z (or $k r^{\prime} o a \cdot w z$ ), prose pr'oa'z $^{\prime}$, strews, strows stroa's (or str'oa'wz), throws thr'oa'z (or thr'oa'wz), sows (v.) soa:z (or soa $\cdot 0 \mathrm{v}$, but sows (s.) souz), shews shows shoa $\cdot z$ (or shoa $\cdot w z$, toes, toze toa $\cdot z$, woes woa $\cdot z$. Weak and strong, in open syllables, and then often $-u$, which when final, is confounded with eer by many
speakers, that is, they consider themselves at liberty to add an $r^{\prime}$ when a vowel follows, or to rhyme with words in er, as 'window, cinder;' this should be carefully avoided. There is never any tendency to change oa into oaw under such circumstances. Felloe fel.oa (very often pronounced fel'i, and even written 'felly,') mistletoe miz'ltoa, tiptoe tip•toa, hero hee'rr'oa, negro nee'groa, tyro tei $\cdot r r^{\prime} o a$, also aw lsoa, potato potai'toa (often pu $\div$ tai $\cdot$ tu), mulatto meulat oa, motto mot $\cdot 0 a$, grotto gr'ot:oa, bravo br'aa'voa (not brai voa, still less brai $\cdot \div \div 0 a$ ), salvo sal.voa, embryo em $\cdot b r^{\prime}$ ioa, elbow el•boa, rainbow rai $n b o a$, meadow med $\cdot o a$, shadow shad•oa, widow wid•oa window win $\cdot d o a$, furbelow fer:biloa, callow kal.oa, fallow fal:oa, hallow hal:oa, shallow shal $\cdot 0 a$, sallow sal $\cdot 0 a$, tallow tal $\cdot o a$, wallow wol'oa, swallow swol:oa, fellow fel.oa, bellow bel.on, mellow mel.oa, yellow yel:oa (not yel $u$, or yal.er), billow bil.oa, pillow pil:oa (distinguish from pillar pil $\cdot \mathrm{er}$ ), willow wil•oa, callow kal:oa, follow fol:oa, hollow hol:oa, minnow min $0 a$, winnow win $0 a$, arrow ar'.oa, barrow bar'.oa, farrow far'.oa, harrow har'.oa, marrow mar' $o a$, narrow nar'.oa, sparrow spar ${ }^{\circ} \cdot 0$, morrow mor'.oa, sorrow sor ${ }^{\circ} \cdot 0 a$, burrow bur':oa, furrow fur':oa, tornado taurnai•doa, lumbago lumbai'goa, virago vir'ai'goa, sago sai'goa, indigo in•digoa, vertigo ver•tigoa, cargo kaa•rgon, echo ek:oa, folio foa-lioa, ratio rai shioa, buffalo bufsuloa solo soa-loa, volcano volkai noa (or volkaa noa), insolent in soalent, innocence in oasens (compare, in no sense in noa sen $\cdot \mathrm{s}$ ), trilogy tril.oaji (or tril $w \div j i$, and so for all endings in '-logy,' as) zoology zoa.ol $\cdot 0 a j i$, zoa-ol'uji, zoological zoa',oalojikel, zoophyte zoa:oafeit, Laocoon Laiok oa-on, innovation in'oavai'shen, impotence im.poatens, omnipotence omnip-oatens, geographical jee'oagrafikel, geometrical jee'oamet $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ikel. Ex. pp. $114 b, 116 b, 124 a, 131 b, 135 a$.
$O^{\prime} A$, e. provincial lip glide, same as $\check{u}$ ŭoa, p. $55 b$.
$0 A \breve{\imath}$, e., a faulty form of oi, which see.
$0 A \cdot i$, e. faulty form of $o i$, p. $45 b$, not to be tolerated for $e i$, p. $44 a$.

OAN', f. nasalised oa, more like oang than ong, p 406.
$\mathbf{O A} \cdot \mathbf{R}$, e., representing the murmur diphthong ao $\cdot \breve{u}$, with the permission to add on a trill; not to pronounced $a u \cdot u$ or $a u$, p. 50b. Always strong and long. Oar, ore oa $\cdot r$, door doa $\cdot r$, fore foa $\cdot r$, gore goa $\cdot r$, hoar hoa $\cdot r$, core koa $\cdot r$, score skoa $\cdot r$, lore loa $\cdot r$, floor floa $\cdot r$, deplore diploa $\cdot r$, more moa $\cdot r$, Nore Noa $\cdot r$, snore snoa $\cdot r$, pore, pour poa $\cdot r$, roar $r^{\prime} o a \cdot r$, crore $k r^{\prime} \circ a \cdot r$, sore, soar soa $\cdot r$, shore shoa $\cdot r$, tore toa $\cdot r$, store stoa $\cdot r$, wore woa $\cdot r$, yore yoa $\cdot r$, porch poarrch, torch toa $\cdot \cdot \cdot \mathrm{ch}$, board boa $\cdot r d$, ford foa $\cdot r d$, gored goa $\cdot r$ d, hoard hoa $\cdot r$ d, floored floa $\cdot r$ d, pored, poured poa $\cdot r d$, roared $r^{\prime} \cdot a \cdot r d$, soared soa $\cdot r d$, stored ${ }_{\text {stoa }} \cdot r d$, hoards hoa $\cdot r d z$, fords foa $\cdot r d z$, borne boa $\cdot r n$ (distinguish born baw rn), mourn moarn (also moo'rn, distinguish from morn mav•rn), shorn shoa $\cdot r n$, torn toa $\cdot r n$, worn woa $\cdot r n$, mourns moa $\cdot \mathrm{rnz}$, hoarse hoarrs (distinguish horse haurrs), force foars, coarse, course koarrs, source soarrs. The distinction between oa $\cdot r t$, aw $\cdot r t$ (or $a w \cdot t$, oa $\cdot r n$, au•rn (or $a u \cdot n$ ), oa $\cdot r s$, au•rs (or $a u \cdot s$ ) should be kept very clear. If any difficulty is felt, begin in two syllables with $o a-e r$, alter to $a 0-e r$, $a 0 \cdot e r, ~ a 0^{\circ} \cdot r$, and see pp. 131a, $136 b$.
OA $\cdot$ RR', e., standing for $a 0 \cdot{ }^{\prime} r^{\prime}$, p. 50 b. Long and strong, before a vowel only: goring goarr'ing, scoring skoa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'ing, flooring floarr'ina, Flora Floarrr'u, snoring snoa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'ing, roaring r'oa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'ing, storing stoa $\cdot r r^{\prime}$ ing, sorer soarr'er. See p. $137 a$.
$0 A \cdot \breve{u}$, e. murmur diphthong, faulty form of oar, which see.
0 Aйо, e. faulty form of ou, p. $47 a$.
$0 A \cdot{ }^{\circ} \stackrel{\circ}{0}$, e. vanish of $0 a$, p. $47 b$.
$0 A W$, e. faulty form of $0 u, \mathrm{p} .47 b$.
$\mathbf{O A} \cdot \mathrm{W}, \mathrm{e}$. vanish of $0 a, \mathrm{pp} .47 b, 55 b, 124 a$.
$0 A Y$, g. f., p. $46 b$.
0E, g. f., see pp. $30 a, 31 b, 39 a, 144 b, 149 b$.
OEĕ̈, f. diphthong, see p. $47 a$.
OEN', f. nasal vowel something like ung, see p. $41 a$.

OEY, f. diphthong, see p. 47a.
OI, e. g. diphthong, p. $45 b$, i. and f. form, p. $46 a$. Generally aur $\check{ }$ when final and strong, as boy boi,
(when this is weak, as footboy fuot boi, the diphthong becomes õí), coy koi, hoy hoi, joy joi, cloy $k l o i$, alloy alloi (or uloi.), employ emploi, annoy unoi troy troi, destroy destroi, toy toi, buoy boi (or $b 00 \cdot i$ ), and this remains before inflexional $d, z$, as destroys destroi $z$, destroyed destroi $\cdot d$, and even poise poi $\cdot z$, poised poizd, but before $s$ it is more frequently ǒ, and may be always so pronounced, as oyster oi ster, boisterous boi'stur'us, hoist hoist, joist joist (not jois, nor jeis), foist foist; before $n$ it is variable, as join join (not jein), coin koin, loin loin (not lein), point point (not peint). Ex. pp. 123b, 134a.
$O$, e., proper form of $o i$, especially before $s$, p. $45 b$.

OIR, e., commonly called waur, p. $52 a$.
Oı̆u, e. attempt to pronounce 'choir, moire,' with oi, see p. $52 a$.
$O N^{\prime}$, e. substitute for f. $a h n^{\prime}$, p. $40 a$.
00, e. g. i. f., see p. 36b, peculiar g. and Swedish, p. $37 a$, may be sung as uo, p. ${ }^{*} 39 a$. Long and strong: do doo', who hoo , coo koo , loo loo , blue bloo', flew floo', glue gloo', clue, clew kloo', slew sloo (or sleu), pooh p00, rue roo , brew br'o0, drew dr'00, grew gr'00', crew $k r^{\prime} 00^{\circ}$, strew str' $00^{\circ}$, shrew shr'00' (formerly shroa.), true tr'00', threw, through thr'oo', shoe shoo', too, two (and sometimes 'to') $t 00^{\circ}$, woo $w 00^{\circ}$, the $Z 00 \mathrm{dhi} Z 00^{\circ}$, food foo ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{d}$, cooed $k 0 o^{\circ} d$, glued gloo $\cdot d$, slewed sloo $\cdot d$, mood moo $\cdot d$, snood snoo $\cdot d$, rude $r^{\prime} 0 o^{\circ} d$, brood $b r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} d$, crude $k r^{\circ} 00^{\circ} d$, strewed str'oo $d$, shrewd $s h r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} d$, shoed shoo $\cdot d$, wooed $2000^{\circ} d$, foods foo $\cdot d z$, broods $b r^{\prime} 0 o^{\circ} d z$, moods moo ${ }^{\circ} d z$, booth $b 00^{\circ} d h$, soothe $s 00^{\circ} t h$, soothed $s 00^{\circ} \mathrm{dh}$ d, soothes soo:dhs, aloof $u l o 0^{\circ} f$, roof $r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} f$, woof $w o 0^{\circ} f$, roofs r'00.fs, roofed $r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} f t$, gouge goo $j$, fool foo $l$, ghoul $g 00 \cdot l$, cool $k o o^{\prime} l$, school s $k 0 o^{\circ} l$, pool $p 00 \cdot l$, spool spoo $\%$, rule $r^{\prime} o o \cdot l$, tool too $\cdot l$, cooled $k o o \cdot l d$, ruled r'oo.ld, schools skoo.lz, tools too.lz, boom $b 00^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$, doom $d 00^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$, whom $h 00^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$, Combe $K 00^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$, loom $l 00^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$, bloom $b l o 0^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$, gloom gloo $m$, plume ploo.m, (or pleu'm), room $r^{\prime} 00^{\prime} m$ (not $r^{\prime} u o m$ ), broom, Brougham br'oo'm (the latter not Br'oa•em), tomb $t 00^{\circ} \mathrm{m}$, bloomed $b l 00^{\circ} \mathrm{md}$, doomed $d 00^{\circ} \mathrm{md}$, boon $b 00^{\circ} \mathrm{n}$, loon $600^{\circ} n$, moon moo ${ }^{\circ} n$, noon noo $n$, soon soo $n$ (not
suon), moons moo.nz, hoop hoo $p$, coop koo*p, loop loo $p$, poop poo $p$, roop r'oo' $p$, droop $d r^{\prime} \circ o^{\prime} p$, group $g r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} p$, croup $k r^{\prime} \circ o p$, scruple $s k r^{\prime} \circ o^{\circ} p l$, soup $s 0^{\circ} p$, whoop whoo $\cdot \mathrm{p}$, hoops $h o o^{\circ} \mathrm{ps}$, groups $g r^{\prime} o o^{\prime} p s$, hooped hoo pt, drooped droo.pt, goose goo s, loose $l o 0^{\circ} \mathrm{s}$, loosed loo st, moot moo ${ }^{\circ} t$, root $r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} t$, brute $b r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} t$ (not $b r^{\prime}$ eu't), fruit fr'oot (not fr'eu't), soot $800^{\circ} t$ (or suot or sut), shoot shoo ${ }^{\circ}$, moots moo ts, fruits fr'oo'ts, shoots shoo ts, uncouth unkoo th, forsooth faursoo ${ }^{\circ}$ th, tooth to $0^{\circ} t h$, tooth's to $0^{\circ}$ ths, move $m 0^{\circ} \cdot \mathrm{v}$, prove $p r^{\prime} 00^{\circ} v$, moved moo vd, proved pr'oo vd, moves moo $v z$, proves $p r^{\prime} o o^{\circ} v z$. Long and weak, in closed syllables: forenoon foa rnōon, Blackpool Blak pōol, storeroom stoa $\cdot r$ 'ōom. Short and weak, in open syllables: into in $n \cdot t o o$, unto un too, influence $i n \cdot$ flooens, rheumatic $r$ 'oomat $i k$, rugose roogoa $\cdot s$, rubescent r'oobes $\cdot$ ent. Ex. pp. 115a, 117a, 131b, $132 a$.
$O^{\prime} O$, e. prov., an oo begun with the mouth open, same as $\breve{u} \breve{u}^{\prime} o o$, p. $37 a$ and p. $55 b$.

00ăă, i. slurred diphthong, p. $148 a$.
ŏŏ $A$ Ăॅĕ, i. close triphthong, pp. 45a, 49a.
ŏŏ $A I$, i. close diphthong, p. 49a.
ŏŏ $A 0$, i. close diphthong, p. 49a.
ŏ $A 0$ ӗӗ, i. close triphthong, p. 49a.
ŏŏ $E$, e. form of we, as dwell dǒŏel, p. 49a.
ŏo $E E$, f. form of oui, usually written wee, pp. $46 a, 49 b$.
ŏŏI, e. form of wi, as twin tǒŏin, p. 49a.
$00 \cdot \mathbf{R}$, e., p. $50 b$, the murmur diphthong uo $\breve{u}$, with permission to append a trilled $r^{\prime}$. Strong and long: boor boo $r$, lure loo $\cdot$ (or leu $\cdot r$ ), moor moo $r$, poor poo $r$, sure shoo $r$ (or sheur $r$ ). Weak and long: Dartmoor Daa•rtmōor. See p. $137 a$.
$00 \cdot \mathbf{R R}$ ', e., meaning $\omega^{\circ} \cdot \breve{u r}^{\prime}$, p. 50b. Long and strong before vowels only, boorish boo 'rr'ish, mooring moorr'ing, poorer poo rr'er.
$00 \cdot \breve{u}$, e., p. $50 b$, the murmur diphthong in oor, which see.
$0 O Y$, g. i. f., p. $46 b$.
OU, unanalysed diphthong with different species in e. and others in g. i. f., see p. 47. Strong :
bough, bow (v.) bou, thou dhou, how hou, cow kou, plough plou, slough slou, mow (s.) mou, now nou, row (noise) r'ou, brow br'ou, prow prou, sow (s.) sou, vow vou, wow wou, couch, cowitch kouch, slouch slouch, pouch pouch, crouch kr'ouch, vouch vouch, crouched $k r^{\prime}$ oucht, vouched voucht, bowed boud, cowed koud, loud loud, proud pr'oud, vowed voud, bow-wowed bouwou•d, mouthe moudh, south (v.) soudh, mouthed moudhd, southed soudhd, owl oul, foul, fowl foul, howl houl, jowl joul, coul koul, growl gr'oul, prowl pr'oul, growled gr'ould, prowled pr'ould, howled hould, owls oulz, fowls foulz, down doun, gown goun, brown br'oun, drown droun, frown fr'oun, crown kr'oun, town toun, bound bound, found found, hound hound, mound mound, pound pound, round r'ound, browned br'ound, drowned $d r^{\prime}$ ound, frowned $f r^{\prime}$ ound, ground $g r^{\prime}$ ound, crowned $k$ r'ound, sound sound, wound (p.p.) wound, mounds moundz, pounds poundz, flounce flouns, pounce pouns, trounce tr'ouns, flounced flounst, trounced tr'ounst, fount fount, count kount, mount mount, founts founts, mounts mounts, gowns gounz, crowns krounz, hounds houndz, chouse chous, douse dous, house hous, louse lous, mouse (s.) mous, grouse gr'ous, souse sous, soused soust, out out, bont bout, doubt dout, gout gout, lout lout, flout flout, pout rout r'out, drought dr'out, sprout spr'out, trout tr'out, shout shout, tout tout, doubts douts, trouts tr'outs, shouts shouts, mouth mouth, south south, cows kouz, ploughs plouz, brows br'ouz, prows pr'ouz. Ex. pp. 123b, 134b, 135a.
$\mathbf{O U} \cdot \mathbf{E R}$, e., p. $52 b$, two syllables, as distinct from our, which see.

OU•ERR', e. form of ou'ur', p. $52 b$.
OU•R, e., p. $52 b$, murmur triphthong ou $\breve{u}$, with a permissive trill $r^{\prime}$ after it. Long and strong: bower bour, dower dour, cower kour, lour lour, flower, flour flour, glower glour, power pour (but pour poa'r, poo $\cdot r$ ), sour sour, shower shour, tower tour (but tour too $r$ ). See p. $137 b$.
$\mathbf{O U} \cdot \mathbf{R R}$ ', e., p. $52 b$, meaning ou 'ŭr'. Long and strong : sourer sou'rr'er, sourish sou'rr'ish, cower-
ing kou'rr'ing, louring low'rr'ing, glowering glow'rr'ing, towering tou'rr'ing. See p. $137 b$.

OU•UR', e. dissyllable, as flowery flou $\cdot u r^{\prime} i$, p. $52 b$.
$O Y$, e. abbreviated form of oeĕ or oř, p. $46 a$.
P, e. g. i. f., p. 63b. Initial before vowels : pat pat, part paart, pate pai•t, pall, Paul paul, pet pet, peat pee t, pike peik, puisne, puny per $\cdot n i$, pit pit, pot pot, pole poa $l l$, poison poi $\cdot z n$, pool poo $l$, pout pout, pun pun, pull puol. Initial before $l$ and $r^{\prime}$ : plait plat, plaister, plaster plaa $\cdot$ ster, play plai (or plai•y), plandits plaw dids, plenty plen $\cdot t$, plea plee, plight pleit, plinth plinth, plot plot, plume ploo $m$, plough plou, pluck pluk, prattle pr'at'l, prance pr'aans, praise, prays pr'ai'z, present pr'ezent, preach pr'ee ech, pride pr'cid, pretty prit $\cdot i$, promise pr'om $\cdot i s$, prone $p r^{\prime} o a \cdot n$, prude $p r^{\prime} \circ o^{\circ} \cdot d$, proud $p r^{\prime} o u d$, Prussian Pr'ush•en (not Pr'oo'shen). Medial between vowels: clapper klap er, apish aipish, pepper pep•er, creeper kr'ee per, poppy pop $\cdot i$, popery poa'pur'i, looping loo piny, supper sup $\cdot$ er Double between vowels: the top pinnacle dhi top pin $\cdot u k l$, soup plate soo $\cdot p$ plai•t, pump-power pumppour, to chop poles too chop poa $l z$, slop-pail slop. pail, to gallop post haste too gal'up poa'st hai st.
$P^{\circ}$, e. click after $p$ final, p. 63b, $94 b$.
$P F^{\prime}, \mathrm{g}$., sometimes $p f, \mathrm{p} .66 a$.
$P-H, \mathrm{~g}$. post-aspirated, p $63 b$.
$P^{\circ} H$, e., flatus after final $p, \mathrm{p} .63 b, 94 b$.
' $P R$, theoretical flated lip trill, p. $66 a$.
R, e., p. $53 a$ (not g. i. f., p. $55 a$ ), a direction to make a murmur diphthong or triphthong with preceding long vowel or diphthong and add a trill $r$ ' at pleasure, see aar uir aur eer eir eur oar, oir, oor, our ; also a direction to pronounce preceding $e$. in strong syllables as $u$. long with a permissive trill $r^{\prime}$ after, and in weak syllables to pronounce $u$ short with or without a loose glide on to a following $r^{\prime}, \mathrm{pp} .53 a, b, 126 b$, see er.

R', e. g. i. f., p. 74b, much weaker in English than in Italian. Initial before vowels: rat $r^{\prime} a t$,
rascal $r^{\prime} a a \cdot s k c l$, rail $r^{\prime} a i \cdot l$, rare $r^{\prime} a i \cdot r$, wrought $r^{\prime} a u \cdot t$, wretch $r^{\prime} e c h$, reach $r^{\prime} e e \cdot c h$, writer r'eiter, writ $r^{\prime}$ it, rot $r^{\prime}$ ot, roam $r^{\prime} o a \cdot m$, roysterer roi stur'er, room $r^{\prime}$ oom, rout $r^{\prime}$ out, rut $r^{\prime} u t$. Initial $r^{\prime}$ does not occur before consonants. Medial between vowels: Harry Har' $\cdot i$, starry staa ${ }^{\prime} r^{\prime} i$ (or staa $r r^{\prime} i$ ), merry mer' $\cdot i$, spirit spir' $i t$, sorrow sor'.oa, hurry hur' $i$. See also aarr', airr', eerr', eirr', eurr', oarr', oorr', ourr' and err'. Final $r$ ' never occurs in English except as a permissive trill, see $r$. Inserted $r$ ', p. 51b. Ex. pp. 136-138.
$R$ ', e. provincial, e. 'dental r ' after $t$ ', $d$ ', in which case it possibly also occurs in g. i. f., p. $74 b$.
' $R$, f., Parisian ' uvular r,' p. $83 b$.
" $R$, Northumberland uvula rise, p. 84a.
${ }^{\text {}} R$, e. provincial ' reverted r,' p. 76a.
${ }^{\prime} R$, e. 'untrilled r,' or 'point rise,' p. 76a, for which in London is always substituted $r$, which see.
, $R$, Danish 'glottal r,' or croak, p. $60 b$.
$R H$, flated form of $r$, p. $74 b$.
$R^{\prime \prime} H$, flated form of $r^{\prime \prime}$, p. $74 b$.
${ }^{\prime} R H$, flated form of ' $r, \mathrm{p} .83 b$.
' $R W$ ', Northumberland labialised uvular ' $r$, p. $84 a$.

S, e. g. i. f., p. 70b. Initial before vowels: sat sat, serjeant, sergeant saa•rjent (not serjent), same sai $\cdot m$, sought saw $\cdot t$, set set, seal see $\cdot l$, sight seit, suit seu•t (not $s o 0^{\circ} t$ or shoo $t$ ), sit sit, sop sop, soap soa $\cdot p$, soy soi, soup soo p, sow (s.) sou, sun, son sun, soot suot (or soo $t$ or sut). Initial before consonants: sphere sfee'r, scatter skat er, skate skai th, scare skai $r$, scald skau $\cdot l d$, sketch skech, scheme skee $m$, sky skei (not sky'ei or sky'iei•), skewer skeu•er, skip skip, scot skot, scold skoa $\cdot l d$, school skoo $l$, scowl skoul, scull skul, scrap skr'ap, scratch skr'ach, scrape skr'ai $\cdot p$, scrawl skr'au $\cdot l$, scroll $s k r^{\prime} o a \cdot l$, scrutinise skr'oo'tineiz, scrub skr'ub, squall skwau-l, squeeze shwee:z, squat skwot, slam slam, slate slai $\cdot t$, slaughter slaw ter, sledge slej, sleet slee't, slight, sleight sleit, slew sleu (or sloo), slit slit, slop slop, slope sloa•p, slouch slouch, sludge sluj, smatter mat'er, smart smaa'rt, smite smei't, smit smit,
smock smok, smoke smoa $k$, smooth smoo $\cdot d h$, smudge smuj, snap snap, snarl snaa $\cdot r l$, snake snai $\cdot k$, snort snau $\cdot r t$, sneak snee $\cdot k$, snipe snei $\cdot p$, snivelled sniv $\cdot l d$, snob snob, snore snoa $\cdot r$, snooze snoo $z$, snout snou $\cdot t$, snub snub, span span, spark spaa $\cdot \cdot k$, spake spai $\cdot k$, spectacle spek $\cdot t u k i$, speak spee $\cdot k$, spiks spei $\cdot k$, spume speu $m$, spin spin, spot spot, spoke spoa $\cdot k$, spoil spoil, spool spoo $l$, spouse spouz, sponge spunj, splash splash, splay splai, splenetic splen etik (not splenet $\cdot i k$ ), spleen splee $\cdot n$, splice spleis, split split, splutter splut $\cdot e r$, sprat spr'at, spray spr'ai, sprawl $s p r^{\prime} a u \cdot l$, spread $s p r^{\prime} e d$, spree $s p r^{\prime} e e$, sprite spr'eit, sprinkle spr'ingk $\cdot l$, spruce spr'oo ${ }^{\circ} s$, sprout $s p r^{2}$ out, sprung spr'ung, stand stand, starling staa rling, state stai't, stair stai $\cdot \gamma$, stem stem, steam stee $m$, stile, style steil, still stil, stolid stol $i d$, stole stoa $\cdot l$, stool stoo $\cdot l$, stout stout, stuff stuf, straggle str'ag $\cdot l$, straight str'ai $\cdot t$, straw str'au', stretch str'ech, stream str'ee $m$, stripe str'eip, strip str'ip, strop str'op, stroke str'oa $\cdot k$, strut str'ut, swagger swag $\cdot \mathrm{er}$, swarthy swaa'rthi (or swaw rethi), swelter swel'ter, sweet swee $t$, swine swein, switch swich, swab swob, swollen swoa.ln, swoop swoo $p$, swum swum. Medial between vowels: hassock has uk, asses aarsez, tracing trai•sing, sauces sau•sez, messes mes'ez, piecing pee'sing, spicy spei si, missing mis ing, tossing tos $\cdot i n g$, (or tau $\cdot \operatorname{sing}$ ), mossy mos $\cdot i$, doses (s.) doa $\cdot s e z$, choices choi sez, spruces sproo $\cdot s e z$, douses dou'sez, fussing fus'ing. Final after vowels: gas gas, ass $a a \cdot s$, case $k a i \cdot s$, sauce sau $\cdot s$, chess ches, piece pee $\cdot s$, spice speis, use eu $\cdot s$, miss mis, moss mos, close $k$ kloa $\cdot s$, rejoice rijoi $\cdot s$, loose $l o 0^{\circ} s$, mouse mous, fuss fus. Double between vowels or a vowel and consonant: missent missen $t$, Miss Smith Mis Smith, Mrs. Stiles Mis*is Stei•lz, Miss Strange, Mis Strai $n j$, this stretcher dhis stretcher, this story dhis stoa $r$ r' $i$, this stew dhis steu. See p. $121 b$.
$S^{\prime}$, e. modification of $s$ after $t, \mathrm{pp} .70 b$ to $71 a$.

SH, e. g. i. f., p. 7la. Initial before vowels: sham sham, sharp shaa rp, shale shai $l$, shawl shau $\cdot l$, shed shed, sheet shee $t$, shine shein, shin shin, shot shot, shoal show $\cdot$, shoe shoo', shout shout, shun shun, shook shuok. Initial before the con-
sonant $r^{\prime}$ : shrapnel $s h r^{\prime} a p \cdot n e l$, shred $s h r^{\prime} e d$, shrike $s h r^{\prime} e i \cdot k$, shrill shr'il, shrewd shr'oo $\cdot d$, shroud shrooud, shrub shr'ub. Medial between vowels: hashing hash-ing, meshing mesh•ing, leashing lee $\cdot \mathrm{shing}$, wishing wish•ing, galoshes gulosh•ez, flushes flush•ez. Final after vowels: splash splash, mesh mesh, leash lee sh, wish wish, bosh bosh, gush gush, bush buosh, push puosh. Double: I wish she'd do it ei wish shee -d doo it, do you wish shells to day? doo eu wish shelz toodai.? the bulrush shakes dhi buol-rush shai $k$ s, boyish shame boi $\cdot$ ish shai $m$, vanquish shams vangk'wish shamz, icebergs crush ships ei sbergz krush ships. See p. $121 b$.
$S H^{\prime}$, e. variety of $s h$ after $t y^{\prime}$ in $c h$, which is really ty'sh', see pp. $49 a$ and $145 b$.
$S Z, \mathrm{~g}$. initial, for $z$, see p. $72 a$.
T, e. (the g. i. f. form is $t^{\prime}$ ), p. 69a. Initial before vowels: tap tap, tart taa'rt, tata ! taa $\cdot t a a^{\cdot}$ ! tail tai $\cdot l$ (not tai•yl), taught tau $t$, text tekst, teach tee ch, tile teil, tune teun, tick tik, top top, toad toa $\cdot d$ (not toa $\cdot w d$ ), toil toil, tool too $l$, town toun, tub tub, took tuok. Initial before consonants: $t l$ is often said for $k l$, but it is not acknowledged: track $t r^{\prime} a k$, trash $t r^{\prime} a s h$, trail $t r^{\prime} a i \cdot l$, trawl $t r^{\prime} a u \cdot l$, tread tr'ed, treat tr'ee $t$, trite tr'eit, trip $t r^{\prime} i p$, trot tr'ot, trope tr'oa $p$, troy tr'oi, truth tr'oo th (not tr'uoth), trout tr'aut, truck tr'uk. Medial between vowels: patting pat'ing, prating pr'ai•ting, tighter tau'ter (sailor's pronunciation, tei'ter received), tutor teu $\cdot$ ter', titter tit er, boating boa ting, adroiter adr'oi ter, mooted moo ted, pouting pou ting, shutting shut ing, putting puot ing. Doable: boot-tree $b 00^{\circ} \mathrm{tt} \cdot{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{ce}$, to hit two too hit to $0^{\circ}$, that time dhat. tei $m$, wet turf wet $\cdot$ ter $\cdot f$, most terrible moa $\cdot$ st ter' ${ }^{\prime}$ ibl (the first $t$ is commonly omitted), Mat told me Mat. toa ld mee, bat-trap-and-ball bat trap $n$ nau-l.
$T^{\prime}, \mathrm{g}$. i. f. form of $t$, for which Englishmen may use $t$ without hesitation, see $d^{\prime}$ and pp. 69b, 76a, 145a, 148a, 149b.
${ }_{\text {, }} T$ e. provincial reverted $t$, most probably used before ${ }_{c} r$ in the West of England, p. $69 b$.
$T^{\circ}$, e. click after $t$ final, p. $94 b$.
$T^{\circ} H$, e. flatus driven out after $t$ final, p. $90 a$.
T'- $H$, e. faulty post-aspirated $t$, p. $92 b$.

TH, e., see p. 68b. Initial before vowels: thatch thach, thaw thau, theft theft, theme thee m, thigh thei, thermic ther"mik, thews thew z, thick thik, thong thong, thole-pin thoalpin. thousand thouzend, thumb thum. Initial before consonants: thrash thr'ash, thrave thr'ai $\cdot v$, threat thr'et, three thr'ce, thrive thr'ei $\cdot v$, thrift thr'ift, throng thr'ong, throat thr'oa't, through thr' $00^{\circ}$, thrust thr'ust, thwack thwak, thwart thwawrt (or thwaarrt). Medial between two vowels, not found, but between a vocal and vowel sometimes, as wealthy wel-thi, filthy fil-thi. Final after a vowel: hath hath, faith fai•th, breath br'eth, wreath r'eeth, earth erth, youth eu•th, pith pith, wroth r'oth (or r'au'th), broth br'oth (or brau•th), both boa th (not boa.d $k$ ), tooth too th, mouth (s.) mouth (v. moudh), doth duth. Double: both thank you boa th thangk eu, both thieves boa th thee vz, uncouth thought unkoo th thau t.
$T H D H$, e. provincial beginning with flatus and proceeding to voice, sEO $d h t h$ and p. $92 a$.
$T{ }^{\prime \prime} H$, advanced $s$, the Spanish $z$, see p. $70 b$.
$T S^{\prime}$, e. final in cats kats, may be used for the $g$. and i. initial $t$ 's', which see, and p. $70 b$.

T'S', g. i. initial z, see p. 70a.
TW', e., probably the proper form of the sound written tw in twine twein, pp. 49a, 83a.
$T Y^{\prime}$ e. attempt to say $t$ and $y$ at once, p. $80 a$.
$T Y^{\prime} S H$ ', the real analysis of $c h$, p. $80 a$.
Ј, e., pp. $34 a$ and $b, 36 a, 39 b$, for which $u u$ is very frequently used in strong syllables, p. 34b, and may be practised in the following examples. Strong and short: chub chub, dub dub, hub hub, cub kub, blub blub, club klub, snub snub, rub r'ub, grub gr'ub, scrub skr ub, shrub shr'ub, trouble $t r^{\prime} u b \cdot l$, sub sub, tub tub, rubbed rubd, snubbed snubd, clubbed klubd, hutch huch, cluch kluch, much much, such such, touch tuch, clutched kilucht, touched tucht, bud bud, cud kud, scud skud, blood blud, flood flud, mud mud, puddle pud•l, sud sud, thud thud, buds budz, suds sudz, buff buf, chough chuf, duffer duf•er, huff huf, cuff kuf, scuffle $s k u f \cdot l$, luff luf. bluff bluf, fluff $A u f$, muff muf, snuff snuf, puff puf, rough, ruff r'uf, gruff gruf, scruff
skr'uf, tough tuf, puffs pufs, roughs r'ufs, puffed puft, cuffed kuft, tuft tuft, tufts tufts, bug bug, dug dug, hug hug, jug jug, lug lug, slug slug, mug $m u g$, pug pug, rug r'ug, drug dr'ug, shrug shr'ug, struggle str'ug $\cdot l$, tug tug, thug thug, hugged hugd, shrugged shr'ugd, mugs mugz, hugs hugz, tugs tugz, budge buj, fudge $f u j$, judge $j u j$, sludge sluj, smudge $s m u j$, nudge $n u j$, drudge $d r^{\prime} u j$, grudge $g r^{\prime} u j$, trudge tr'uj, nudged nujd, drudged dr'ujd, buck buk, chuck chuk, duck $d u k$, luck $l u k$, cluck kluk, pluck pluk, muck $m u k$, puck $p u k$, ruck r'uk, struck str'uk, truck tr'uk, tuck tuk, stuck stuk, ducks duks, trucks tr'uks, plucked plukt, tucked tukt, dul dul, gull $g u l$, hull hul, cull kul, lull lul, mull mul, trull tr'ul, bulb bulb, bulbs bulbz, dulled duld, lulled luld, gulf gulf, gulfs gulfs, bulge bulj, bulged buljd, bulk bulk, hulk hulk, sulk sulk, hulks hulks, sulks sulks, sulked sulkt, Hulme Hulm (generally Hoom), culm kulm. (in one syllable), gulp gulp, pulp pulp, gulps gulps, gulped gulpt, hulls hulz, culls kulz, chum chum, dumb dum, gum gum, hum hum, come kum, scum skum, glum glum, slum slum, mum mum, numb num, rum r'um, drum dr'um, crumb $k r^{\prime} u m$, strum str'um; thrum thr'um, sum, some sum, thumb thum, drummed dr'umd, thumbed thumd, bump bump, chump chump, dump dump, hump hump, jump jump, lump lump, clump klump, plump plump, pump pump, rump r'ump, frump fr'ump, grump gr'ump, trump tr'ump, thump thump, jumps jumps, mumps mumps, thumps thumps, bumped bumpt, humped humpt, thumped thumpt, comes kumz, drums $d$ 'umz, sums sumz, thumbs thumz, bun bun, dun dun, fun fun, gun gun, nun, none nui, pun pun, run r'un, sun, son sun, shun shun, tun, ton tun, one, won wun, bunch bunch, hunch hunch, lunch lunch, munch munch, punch punch, crunch $k r$ 'unch, munched muncht, crunched $k r$ 'uncht, dunned dund, shunned shund, lunge lunj, plunge plunj, plunged plungd, once wuns, hunt hunt, blunt blunt, punt punt, runt r'unt, front fr'unt, grunt gr'unt, shunt shunt, stunt stunt, wont wunt (often, but occasionally woant, which is properly won't), hunts hunts, grunts gr'unts, shunts shunts, buns bunz, guns gunz, bung bung, dung dung, hung hung,
fiung flung, clung klung, slung slung, wrung, rung r'ung, sprung spr'ung, strung str'ung, sung sung, tongue tung, bunged bungd, bunk bungk, funk fungk, hunk hungk, junk jungk, slunk slungk, monk mungk, drunk $d r^{\prime} u n g k$, shrunk shr'ungk, trunk tr'ungk, sunk sungk, bunks bungks, hunks hungks, monks mungks, funked fungkt, bungs bungz, tongues tungz, cup kup, pup pup, sup sup, cups kups, pups pups, buss bus, thus dhus, fuss fus, Russ R'us, busk busk, dusk clusk, husk husk, musk musk, rusk r'usk, tusk tusk, husks husks, tusks tusks, cusp kusp, cusps kusps, cusped kuspt, bust bust, dust dust, fussed fust, disgust disgus't, just just, lust lust, must must, rust r'ust, crust $k r$ 'ust, trust tr'ust, thrust thr'ust, busts busts, trusts tr'usts, gush gush, hush hush, lush lush, blush blush, flush fush, plush plush, slush slush, rush r'ush, brush br'ush, crush $k r^{\prime} u s h$, thrush thr'ush, tush tush (the tushes of a boar are sometimes tuosh•ez). gushed gusht, hushed husht, butt but, gut gut, hut hut, jut jut, cut kut, glut glut, slut slut, nut nut, put (s.) put, rut r'ut, strut strut, soot sut (or suot or $s 00^{\circ} t$ ), shut shut, tut iut, huts huts, nuts nuts, struts str'uts, doth duth, above $u b u v$, dove $d u v$, love $l u v$, glove gluv, shove shuv, loved luvd, shoved shuvd, doves duvz, gloves gluvz, does (v.) duz, fuzz fuz, buzz buz. Weak and short, in open syllables, never $u u$, but often $u$; final and initial, when written $a$ may be $a$, and may be always so sung, generally written $a$, which see; before $r$ ' always $u$, being the remnant of weak er, in which the permissible trilled $r^{\prime}$ in given entirely to the following vowels. Initial: abandon uban.den (or $a^{\prime} b a n \cdot d e n$ ), abase ubai's (or $a^{\prime} b a i \cdot s$ ), ablaze ublai $\cdot z$ (or $a^{\prime} b l a i \cdot z$ ), abolish ubol ish (or a'bol-ish), account $u$-kount (or $a^{*}$ kou*nt), adapt $u$-dap $t$ (or $a^{\prime}$ dap $\cdot t$ ), affair u-fai'r (or $a^{\prime} f a i \cdot r$ ), afront, affront $u$-fr'un't (or $a^{\prime} f r^{\prime} u n^{\circ} t$ ), alone $u-l o a^{\circ} n$ (or $a^{\prime}-\ln a^{\cdot} n$ ), amass $u$-maa's (or $a^{\prime}$-ma's'), approve $u-p r^{\prime} o o \cdot v$ (or $a p p r^{\prime} o o^{\circ} v, a^{\prime} p r^{\prime} \circ o^{\circ} v$ ), award uwau $r d$ (or $a^{\prime} w a u \cdot r d$ ). Final, see $a$. In the middle of words, weak $u$ is not more than slurred on to the following letter: appanage $a p \cdot u \div n e j$, ratable rait $u \div b l$, heritable $h e r \cdot i \div t u \div b l$, notable not $\cdot u \div b l$, comfortable kum.
fertu $\div b l$, mutable meu' $\quad u \div b l$, primary prei $m u \div r^{\prime} i$, finery fei $n u \div r^{\prime} i$, every $e v \cdot u \div r^{\prime} i$. See also $u$. Note that in possible, positive, and such words $u \div$ must not be used, say pos ${ }^{i b l}$, pozitiv, not pos $\cdot u b l$, pnz'utiv, nor yet pos eebl, poz'eetiv. Ex. pp. 119a, $120 b, 131 a, 132 a$.
$U$, e. provincial form of $u o$, p. $37 b$.
$U^{\prime}$ ', e., the possible form assumed by weak ' $a$,' see $a$ weak, and $u$ weak, and pp. 34b, 38a; may be sung as $u, p$. $39 a$.
$U A$, provincial e, p. $34 b$.
UE, g. f., described p. 29a, confused with ee $i$ in German, but not in French, p. 39b; how it differs from oo, p. 37a. See also pp. 144a, b, 149a.
ǔĕEE, f. diphthong $u i$, see p. 49b, and ueĕe, p. 149b.
TEEY, variety of $\breve{\text { üee }}, \mathrm{p} .47 a$.
$U_{\imath}$, e., one of the best spoken forms of the diphthong ei, $a^{\prime} \imath$ being another; the singer's form is aă, p. $44 a$.

Ǔư, e. form of the murmur triphthong eiŭ, involved in eir, see p. $52 a$.

Un', e. substitute for f. oen', p. 40a.
U0, e. g., used in place of short oo in closed syllables, much used in the provinces in place of $u$, p. 37b. Short and strong : good guod, hood huod, could kuod, should shoud, would, wood wuod, book buok, hook huok, cook kuok, look luok, nook nuok, rook r'uok, brook br'uok, crook kr'uok, shook shuok, took tuok, bull buol, bullion buol'yen, full fuol, pull puol, pulpit puol-pit, bush buosh, cushion kuosh $h$ en, push puosh, tush tuosh (or tush), foot fuot, soot suot (or soo't or sut). Ex. pp. 119a, 121a, 132a.

UO', acute uo, or uo pronounced for high notes with open mouth and contracted arches, p. $38 b$.

UO $\breve{u}$, e., the real form of the murmur diphthong in $00^{\circ} r$, p. $50 b$.

UOür', e., the real form of $n o \cdot r r^{\prime}$, which see.
$U U$, e, a very common pronunciation of $u$, in trong syllables, see $u$, and pp. 34a, 36a, 39a.
$U U^{\prime}$, e., the sound of oo when the lips are pened, see óo, p. $37 a$.
$U U_{i}$, e., a form of ei, just admissible in speech, 1. $44 a$.

Uŭo, e., one of the best forms of the diphthong $o u$, of which $a^{\prime} \breve{u} o ̆$ is another; the singer's form is aaйй, see p. $47 a$.

Uй̆, e., an admissible form of ou, p. $47 a$.
$\breve{u} \check{u} 0 A$, e. provincial lip glide, a faulty form of oa, p. $55 b$.
$\breve{u} \breve{u}$ OO, e. provincial lip glide, a faulty form of on, written óo, pp. 37a, $55 b$.

Uйо̆й, e., the murmur triphthong оий involved in our, p. $52 b$.

UUйŏ, e., a faulty form of ou, p. $47 a$.
UU:ŭॅ, e., a very faulty form of ou, p. $47 a$.
UUY, abbreviated form of uй, or uиӗе , p. $46 a$.
$U Y$, abbreviated form of $u \check{\imath}$ or $u$ ĕe, p. $46 a$.
V, e. i. f., p. 67b. Initial before a vowel : vat vat, vast vaa $\cdot \mathrm{st}$, veil, vail, vale vai l, vaunt vau $\cdot n t$ (or vaa $n t$ ), vault vau•lt, vegetable vej•itubl, velvet vel vet, veal vee $\cdot l$, vile veil, virtue ver $\cdot t e u$, view veu, victuals $v i t \cdot l$, villain vil en, volley vol $\cdot i$, void void, vouch vouch, vulgar vul.ger. $\quad V$ is not found initial before a consonant. Medial between vowels: navvy nav i, lava laa vaa, navy nai vi, bevy bev $\cdot$, levy lev $i$, leaving lee ving, Levi Lee vei, striving str'ei•ving, serving serving, living livंing, sovereign sov'ur'in (or sov'r'in, some say suv.rin, but this is archaic), coving koa ving, moving moo.ving, shoving shuv ing. Final after a vowel: have $h a v$, stave stai $\cdot v$, reeve $r^{\prime}$ 'e $\cdot v$, alive ulei $\cdot v$, serve serv, sieve siv, grove groa $v$, groove gr'oo $v$, love $l w v$. Double: love virtue luv ver teu, sportive vice spoa.rtiv veis, a festive voice $u$ fes'tiv vois, a live Vandal u leiv Van•del, five vowels feiv vou $\cdot e l z$, above vaults ubuv vau•lts, five villains feiv vil-enz, twelve vines twelv veinz. Ex. p. 122a.
V ', g., the sound of g. ' w,' see p. $65 a, b$.
$V F$, e. final $v$ at end of a phrase, as: I see five, all alive? ei see feivf, au•l ulei•vf? see p. $93 b$.
W, e. p. 64, used in Glossic of i. f. for oŏ, forming a diphthong, as wee for oŏee, see p. $82 b$. Initial before vowels: wag wag, waft waa'ft, waif wai.f, water wau'ter, wet wet, weal wee•l, wile wei $\cdot$ l, work werk, wit wit, wot wot, woke, woark, woo woo
wound (part.) wound (in to wound, a wound, usually woond, but soldiers all ay wound), wood wuod. W is not found initial before consonants, medial, or double. Ex. p. 122a.

WAA, abbreviated form of i. and f. ŏŏaa, p. 49a and p. $50 a$.

WAAY, abbreviated form of i. and f . ц̆ŏaaĕĕ, p. $50 a$.

WAE, abbreviated form of f. ŏŏae, p. $49 b$.
W $A E N^{\prime}$, abbreviated form of f. b̆ŏaen', p. 49b, and p. $50 a$.

WAI, abbreviated form of i. ŏŏai, p. $49 b$.
WAO, abbreviated form of i. ŏŏao, p. 49a.
WAOY, abbreviated form of ŏŏaoйӗ, p. $50 a$.
WE, e. abbreviated form of ŏŏe, p. $49 a$.
WEE, abbreviated form of f. ŏŏee, p. 49a.
WI, e. abbreviated form of ŏŏi, p. $49 b$.
$W Y^{\prime} E E$, form of ${ }^{\text {üěee, not used, p. } 50 a \text {. }}$
WH, e. p. 64b. Initial before vowels: whack whak, whale whai ll, wharf whaurf, whet $u$ het, wheel whee l, while wheil, whirl wherl, whit whit, what whot. Wh is never found initial before a consonant, medial, final or double. As the sound of $w h$ is dying out very generally in the South of England, and it is advisable to retain it, the following contrasts should be observed, and sedulously practised: whale, wail whai l, wai l, what, wot whot, wot, wheal, whecl, weal whee l, wee l, when, wen when, wen, where, wear whai $r$, wair , whet, wet whet, wet, whether, weather, wether whedh•er, wedh•er, whey, way whai , wai., (or whai $y$, wai $\cdot y$ ), which, witch which, wich, whig, wig whig, wig, while, wile wheil, weil, whiled, wild wheild, weild, whin, win whin, win, whine, wine whein, wein, whirld, world wherld, werld, whist, wist whist, wist, whit, wit whit, wit, white, wight wheit, weit (Isle of Wight Eil ov Weit), whither whidher, whort, wort whert, wert, why, W ye whei, wei. Ex. $121 b$.
' $W R$, e. faulty tight lip trill for $r$ ', see p. $66 b$.
$W Y^{\prime}$, f. abbreviated form for $\check{u}$ ĕ diphthongs, p. $50 a$.

Y, e g., p. 78b, in i. f. it is used in Glossic for eĕ or $i$, forming a diphthong with the following vowel,
p. 48a, b. Initial before vowels : yam yam, yak yak yankee yangk $\cdot i$ (sometimes yang $\vec{k} \cdot k \bar{e} e$ ), yard yaa $\cdot r d$ yea yai (not yai•y), Yale Yai•l, yawl yau•l, yawn yau'n, yet yet (not yit), yes yes (not yis, or is) ye yee (not ee), year yeerr (not ee•r), yield yee.ld (not $e e \cdot l d$ ), yean yee•n (not $e e \cdot n$ ), yeast yee $s t$ (not $e e^{\prime} \cdot s t$ sometimes yest), yearn yern, yew yeu (that is, y̌̌oo), yule yeul (that is, yioo $l$ ), yacht yot, yolk, yelk yoa $/ k$ ("yelk" is sometimes yelk), yoicks! yoiks! you eu (that is, yoo), your eurr that is $y o 0^{\circ} r$; when weak, often yer), you'll eu'l that is, $y o o \cdot l$ ), youth eu th (that is, yoo th), young yung. $Y$ is not found initial before consonants, medial, final, or double in received English. Some o. speakers say eey for ee final, some $g$. faulty speakers say $y r^{\prime}$ - and $y l-$ for $g r^{\prime},-g l$ - initial.

YAEY, form of i. 厄ॅĕaaĕӗ, p. 49a.
$Y E U$ for yioo, a form of e. eu, p. 48a, b.
$Y \check{ } \mathrm{OO}$, a form of e. $e u$, p. $48 b$.
YH, e., p. 79a, initial in yheu hue, hew, Hugh, yheew'men human, Yheum Hume, Yheuz Hughes. These words are often pronounced hioo, hioo men, $H_{\imath 00} \cdot m, H_{\imath o} \cdot z$, which are written heu, hew•men, Heu•m, Heurz. The singer uses the form hı̌oo.

YOO, form of i. ěĕoo and e. $\grave{0}$, pp. $48 b, 49 a$.
Z, e. g. i. f, p. 72a. Initial before vowels: Zantiote Zan'tiot, zany zai•ni, zealous zel'us, zeal zee $\cdot l$, zero zee'rr'oa, zinc zingk, zocle zok.l (also socle sok $\cdot l$ ), zodiac zoa $\cdot d i a k$, zone zoa $n$, the Zoo dhi Zoo', zooks! zoo.ks! (or zuoks, gone out of use), zounds zoundz $Z$ is not found initial before consonants. Medial between vowels : hazard hazerd, mazard maz'erd, lazy lai $z i$, mazy mai$z i$, pleasing plee*zing, wiser wei'zer, Mersey Mer $\quad$ zi, kerseymere ker $\cdot z i m e ̄ e r, ~ P u s e y ~ P e u r z i, ~ g i z z a r d ~ g i z ' e r d, ~ w i z a r d ~$ wiz•erd, positive poz'itiv, posy poarzi, rosy r'oa $z i$, losing loo zing, oozy $00 \cdot z i$, drowsy drow $z i$, carousing kur'ou'zing, buzzing buz'ing. Final after vowels: has $h a z$, baas baaz, baize, bays bai $z$, gauze gau $z$, gnaws naw $z$, fez fez, fees fee $z$, freeze free $z$, wise weiz, prize preiz, pies peiz, firs, furs ferz, ewes, use (v.) eu'z, his $h i z$, pose poarz, knows, nose noarz,
boys boi z, lose $l 00 \cdot z$, shoes $s h o 0^{\circ} z$, brows, browse brouz, buzz buz. Final after consonants: cubs $k u b z$, adds $a d z$, breathes br'ee'dhz, eggs egz, bells belz, jams jamz, nuns nunz, songs songz, loves luvz, saves sai•vz, waves wai'vz. Double: his zeal hiz zee•l, wise zeal weiz zee•l, it flies zigzag it fleiz zig zag, he shews zest hee shoa $z$ z zest, prize zinc pr'eiz zingk, his zone hiz zoa•n. Ex. p. 122a.
$Z$ ', advanced $z$, heard in i . initial $d^{\prime} z^{\prime}$, see p. 72a.
ZH, e. f., see p. 72a. $Z h$ does not occur initial, final, or double in e., but is frequently initial and final in f Medial between vowels: division divizh•en, occasion okai zhen, invasion invai zhen,
persuasion perswai zhen, adhesion adhee zhen, decision disizh•en, vision vizh•en. revision rivizh•en fusion feurzhen, conclusion kunkloo zhen, delusion dilew'zhen (or diloo zhen, intrusion intr' $00^{\prime}$ zhen, contusion kunteu:zhen, pleasure plezh•er (or plezh eur) measure mezh•er (or mezh•eur), treasure trezh•er (or trezh•eur), erasure eerai•zheur, leisure lezh•er (or lezh•eur, sometimes lee zher or lee zheur), closure kloa'zher or kloa zheur), exposure ekspoa zher (or ekspoa:zheur). Ex. p. 122a.
$Z H^{\prime}$, e., the ge in judge $j u j$, which, when fully analysed, is $d y^{\prime} z h^{\prime} u d y^{\prime} z h^{\prime}, \mathrm{p} .80 a$.
$Z S$, e., final $z$ at the end of a phrase, as 'tis his tiz hizs, p. $93 b$.

## SIGNS.

2 'gradual,' a turned $l$, signifying the gradual attack and release of voiced sounds, pp. $57 a, 92 a$.
$2 h$, the same made very perceptible, p. $57 a$.
$7^{\text {' clear,' a turned } t \text {, signifying the clear attack }}$ and release of voice sounds, p. 576 .
(;) ' check,' a semicolon, signifying the check of the voice, p 58 .
(.) 'bleat' or 'aayn. turned semicolon, signifying the Arabis, bleat, p. $60 b$
-) 'imploded ' or 'flated' or ' clicked,' small circle used for degrees, placed before a sonant, makes it signify an implodent, p. 54', placed before a rowel indicates flatus through the vowel position, as ${ }^{\circ} e e$, p. $56 a$; placed before $h$ as ${ }^{\circ} h$ makes it signify simple flatus, p. $56 \pi$; placed before $h$, as ${ }^{\circ} h$ ' makes it signify simple whisper, p. $56 b$; placed after a final mute, as $t^{\circ}$, indicates the gentle English final click, pp 63:, $94 b$
entirely, see the letters with these marks affixed in the preceding index.
$(\cdot)$ ' accent,' turned period, placed after a vowel, shews that it is strong and long, as mee $t$ meat, p. $105 b$; placed after a consonant shews that the next preceding vowel is short and strong, as fam•ili family, p. 105b; placed before a word shews that it is emphatic, p. 105a; placed after a systematic diphthong, it shews that the strong element is short, as $u \check{c} \cdot l i d u y \cdot l i d$ eyelid, p. $43 b$. It does not separate syllables.
(') 'sub-accent,' turned period, followed by an apostrophe, placed after a vowel shews that it is long and has a secondary accent, as ven'tilai'ted ventilated. p. 105a, placed after a consonant, shews that the next preceding vowel is short and has a secondary accent, as dem'oakr'at-ikel, p. 105a. The secondary accent is seldom distinguished from
$(\div)$ 'slur,' between two letters, shews that there is a ' lonse glide' or 'slur' between them, as $a a \div e e$ in Italian diphthongs, pp. $45 a, 87 b$. This is omitted except in theoretical writing.
(...) 'break,' between two letters, shew that there is a 'silence' and no glide or slur between them, p. $87 b$. When words are written separately it by no means follows that there is no glide between them, hence for theoretical writing, although the close glide may be still omitted, the slur $(\div)$ and the (...) should be used, and there should be no separation between the words unless there is a sensible pause. Thus: 'Command yourself, if you would command others, which in ordinary Glossic would be kumaa•nd eursel-f if eu wuod kumaa•nd udh•erz, would be theoretically written $k u \div$ maa'nnd $\div$ yuoŭsell.f..., if'yoo $\div$ wuod $\div k u \div m a a \cdot n n d \div u d h \cdot u \div z$, where the $n n, l l$ shew long vocals.
(-) 'hyphen,' between groups of letters, is used merely to guide the eje in the separation of the groups, as lue-ee, pot-hous, it does not indicate gliding or slurring, except in such combinations as $a a-a \breve{\imath}$ used to mark Italian slur, p. $45 a$. It may always be omitted when other means mark the separation of the groups, as the accent mark in pot-hous, or the gliding mark in lŭĕee.
(̌) 'gliding mark' in diphthongs, placed over the letter or letters which represent a single vowel sound, when it is weak and the preceding strong vowel glides on to it and forms a diphthong, as uॅ $u и ̆ \check{o}$, p. $43 b$; when these weak vowels are $\check{\imath}$ or $\check{e} e$, it is usual to write $y$ only, as $u y$, for either $u \check{\imath}$ or $u \breve{e}$, p. $46 a$, and when the vowel is $\breve{u} \check{o}$ or $\check{o} \breve{o}$, it is usual to write $w$ only, as $u w$, for either uйo or oŏo, p. $47 b$; when the accent $(\cdot)$ is used, it is placed after
 and after the second element when the first element is short, as aai. or aay., p. $43 b$, and in weak syllables , $t$ is omitted altogether. The gliding mark is also used over the letter which represents a single - owel sound when it is weak and glides on to the following strong vowel, as $\check{\imath} a \alpha$, ŏŏaa; when these weak vowels are $\breve{\imath}$ or $\breve{e} \breve{e}$, it is usual to write $y$ for
either, as yaa for $\check{i} a a$ or $\check{e} \check{e} a a$, and when they are ŏŏ or $\breve{u} \breve{o}$, as ŏŏaa, ŏŏao, it is usual to write $w$, as waa, wao. The length and strength of the second element is then treated in the usual way. When great phonetic exactness is required (as in discussions) it is necessary to distinguish $\check{\imath} a a$, ĕĕaa, yaa accurately, and similarly for ŏŏaa, йŏaa, waa. When $u e$ is one of the elements, the sign ought to be nsed, as lüĕee, but lue-ee is often quite enough. When it is necessary to mark the length of the weak element, the long mark is used, as aae $\bar{e}$, but this is scarcely ever necessary. The aaĕĕ or aay leaves the length of the second element generally undetermined.
( ) 'short,' over a vowel letter, or first of two letters representing a rowel, when it is not followed by a vowel, shews that it is short. Thus the vowels $e e, a i, a a, a 0, o a, o o$, being generally long in English closed syllables, it is much easier to the reader to see the short mark applied when they are short in foreign languages, as měelky'h milch, g., skyăit•tŏa schietto, i., măan mann, g., ăom homme, f., sŏat tŏa sotto, i., pŏol poule, f. This is unnecessary in g. i. f., because the rule should be that the vowel is always short unless marked long. In other cases the (') is a 'gliding mark.'
( ${ }^{-}$' 'long,' over a vowel letter or first of two letters representing a vowel when it is preceded by a consonant and not followed by a vowel. This is sometimes convenient in weak syllables, as prim. rōaz primrose, and is necessary in French where no accent can be marked, as pāhsyoan' passion, but the long syllables are not carefully distinguished in French speaking. In other cases ( ${ }^{-}$) is a gliding mark. See end of (') 'gliding.'
(") 'medial,' over a letter, or the first of two letters representing a vowel, shews that it has medial length, p. $104 a$, as fäast; this is also represented by (:) before the vowel, as f:aast, p. $105 b$.
(') acute, after a vowel, spoken above the usual pitch of the voice, p. $104 b$.
(') detached, 'acute,' spoken above the usual pitch of the voice, p. 104b; attached, as in óo, óa, $\dot{e} e$, indicates certain provincial glides, p. $55 b$.
(') detached, 'grave,' spoken below the usual pitch of the voice, p. $104 b$; attached, used to distinguish provincial ù from $u 0$, p. $37 b$.
( ${ }^{`}$ ) pitch glide from high to middle, $\mathrm{p} 104 b$.
Note that when the marks $+\div \cdots \cdots$ are omitted (and they are unnecessary except for extremely refined phonetic work), Glossic can be
printed by any printer in any fount of types, and has rather the appearance of a reformed system of spelling with the old alphabet than of a totally different and perfectly systematic orthography, precisely indicating pronunciation, using the old letters, indeed, but on an entirely novel system, namely, the absolute restriction of one combination of letters to mean one combination of sounds, so that given the one the other can be immediately determined with absolute certainty.

## XIII. ENGLISH PRONOUNCING DICTIONARIES

English Pronouncing Dictionaries Necessary.-Our language rejoices in such a remarkable orthography, that no one who merely sees a word can be quite sure how it should be pronounced, and no one who hears a word can be at all sure how it should be spelled. Both pronunciation and spelling have indeed varied materially during the last six centuries, and even during the last two centuries, without any definite connection having been established between the two. Hence arose during lhe last hundred years a feeling for the necessity of Pronouncing Dictionaries, which purpose by additional marks, or by re-spelling the words, according to some systematic phonetic principle, to supply the necessary information. But here another difficulty occurs, no one is empowered to declare what is or should be the pronunciation of English. In point of fact, English is spoken very differently indeed in different parts of the country, and material differences affect even men of the highest education. We seldom fail to detect a Scot, an Irishman, or an American after hearing him speak a few words. Now our first English pronouncing vocabulary was written by a Scot (James Buchanan, in 1757) our first English pronouncing dictionary was written by an Irishman (Thomas Sheridan, in 1780), and one of our most widely-used pronouncing dictionaries at the present day is by an American (Joseph E. Worcester, 1847.) There is no doubt in my own mind (and I have devoted much time to the study of this subject; that all three would have pronounced their key words in different ways, so that
we can only approximate to the result by following them. Moreover, I probably pronounce those key words in a different way from any one of the three. At the same time, if those who have studied the value of the Glossic symbols from the detailed account of them here given, pronounce the key words as my symbols declare, and thence deduce the value of symbols in pronouncing dictionaries, he will arrive at results which will be quite good enough for any practical purpose. Different orthoepists (aurthoa-epists), or persons who take upon themselves to declare what is the correct pronunciation, differ in opinion from one another. "Who's to decide when doctors disagree?" The only means is to listen to numerous persons of education with whom the listener has cóme into direct communication during a long period of years. Even then very much more than half the words of the language will never have been heard, and can be pronounced only by the analogy of those known. In giving the pronunciation of numerous words in the preceding Glossic Index I have often added an alternative pronunciation. which I have frequently heard from educated speakers, and I have also directed others to be avoided, because I have found them to be generally avoided among those who are thought to speak decently. But whatever pronunciation is there mentioned has been heard, and heard often. My opportunities have been, education for four years at a large private classical school, for three and a half years at Shrewsbury school, for three years at Eton College, for four years at Cambridge,
constant communication since then with highlyeducated people, more than thirty years study of speech sounds, with especial examination of all the varieties of English speech, and nine years research into the history of the changes of English pronunciation, tracing them from century to century. Yet with all this I do not presume to decide. I have my own preferences, and I am led to believe from the general approval of my pronunciation when reading in public, that those who follow it, will not be held to make default, although on many little points they might be called in question by others, whose pronunciation I might also perhaps call in question on the same, or numerous other points. This is a matter for personal choice. But beyond such limits there are varieties in which no speaker can indulge without being condemned as ignorant. $H$ must never be omitted, except on very rare occasions, and none must ever be inserted where not written. Trilled $r$ ' must never be added when no $r$ appears in the spelling. These three are heinous offences, which some people never forgive. Ai must never approach to the sound of ei, nor oa to the sound of ou; neither must ei approach aey or oi, or ou approach aew, oaw. No $a$ must sound as $a a$, no $u$ as $u$, or $u o$ as $u$. No $w$ must become a $v$, and no $v$ a $w$. No er must be sounded as $e r^{\prime}$ or $u r^{\prime}$, with a short vowel and trilled $r$ '. All these usages mark provincialisms or vulgarisms. Many others have been already incidentally pointed out. While, therefore, the boundary which separates received from inadmissible pronunciation is by no means a mathematical line, but is a sensibly broad band, there are distinctly inadmissible pronunciations, which all who wish to cultivate refined and careful pronunciation must diligently avoid. No better plan can be followed than learning accurately the nature of sounds, and acquiring a facility in prorouncing both one way and the other, because when this is done, the ear and judgment cannot be deceived, and the speaker consciously adopts a particular pronunciation as the most desirable. The difficulty always consists in making the
speaker conscious of differences, and capable of understanding wherein they consist. In Shakspeare's tragedy of "King John," Mrs. Charles Kean had to use the word 'calf' with great energy, and Mr. Alfred Wigan had to repeat it after her with equal force. The lady said $k a \cdot f$, the gentleman said kaa $f$, which had the effect of correcting her pronunciation. Yet probably no one present, except myself, perceived the difference. We are so accustomed to listen to sense, and not observe the sound by which it is conveyed, that when the difference of sounds is within the limits of usage it is not remarked, except by special observers. 'Calf' is a word which is heard as $k a \cdot f, k a \cdot f$, kaa $\cdot f$, kaaf, hence there was nothing strange. But if the lady had said kaf. (as some do, in ladies' refined Yorkshire speech), and the gentleman had said $k a \cdot \circ f$ (as in Cumberland peasant speech), the effect would have been ludicrous, and Mr. Wigan at least would have been greeted with a shout of laughter.
For the ordinary words of songs, a pronouncing dictionary ought never to be necessary, but as speakers have no opportunity of hearing half the words of any language in actual speech, they have often to refer to such a book for assistance. Hence I add the titles and key words and modes of symbolisation adopted in some of the most accessible of these works.

Walker.-"A Critical Pronouncing Dictionary and Expositor of the English Language, in which not only the meaning of every word is clearly explained, and the sound of every syllable correctly shewn, but, where words are subject to different pronuuciations, the authorities of our best pronouncing dictionaries are fully exhibited, and reasons for each at large displayed, and the preferable pronunciation pointed out. To which are prefixed, Principles of English Pronúnciation, in which the sounds of letters, syllables, and words are critically investigated, and systematically arranged, the influence of the Greek and Latin accent and quantity, on the accent and
quantity of the English, thoroughly examined and olearly defined, and the analogies of the language so fully shown as to lay the foundation of a consistent and rational pronunciation. Likewise, Rules to be observed by the Natives of Scotland, Ireland, and London, for avoiding their respective peculiarities; and Directions to Foreigners for acquiring a knowledge of the use of this dictionary. The whole interspersed with observations etymological, critical and grammatical. By John Walker, author of Elements of Elocution, Rhyming Dictionary, \&c, \&c. Quārē, sī fierī potest, et verba omnia, et vōx, hūjus alumnum urbis oleant; ut ōrātiō Rōmāna plānē videātur, nōn cīvitāte donāta.-Quint. [Wherefore, if possible, let every word and sound savour of a native of this city; that your speech may be unmistakably Roman, and not Romanised.] The fourteenth edition, London, 1814." 8vo, double columns. Prelim. inary matter 92 pages, Dictionary 602 pages, stereotyped. The first edition published in 1791. The previous authorities referred to are-Johnson, 1755; Buchanan, 1757; Entick, 1764; Kenrick, 1773 ; Ash, 1775 ; Perry, 1775; Sheridan, 1780 ; Scott (new edition), 1797 ; Nares, 1784.

This is a most painstaking work, by a man who devoted his whole time, thought, and energy to teaching pronunciation. But he had not had the advantage of a high education, or of associating on equal terms from childhood with the children of persons of high education. He was born at Colney Hatch, Middlesex, 18th March, 1732, was brought up to trade, became an unsuccessful actor, quitted the stage in 1767 , became a school master, and in 1769 began to teach elocution. He died 1st August, 1807. His pronunciation, therefore, belongs entirely to the last century, and it is perceptibly antiquated. It is full of instruction to those who wish to study the history of our pronunciation, and romember the circumstances under which the author acquired his knowledge. But it is not a model to be followed at the present day. Modern editions, and so-called "pocket |Valkers," are simply worthless.

## Walker's Key Words,

As completely spelled by himself in the body of the dictionary, not as imperfectly given in his list. These have superior numbers ${ }^{1}$, ${ }^{2}$, \&c., placed actually over the letters, special types having been cast, and this arrangement makes them rather difficult to read. Here these numbers are placed above and to the right for convenience of printing. The French examples are given by himself. My own pronunciation of these English and French words is added in Glossic (in italics).
$\mathrm{a}^{1}$. fal ${ }^{1}$ te, $\mathrm{pa}^{1{ }^{1}-\mathrm{pu}^{2} \check{ }{ }^{2} \text { fai } t \text {, pai per; é in fée épée, }}$ fai aipai.
$\mathrm{a}^{2}$. $\quad \mathrm{fa}^{2} \mathrm{r}, \quad \mathrm{fa}^{2}-\mathrm{TH}^{2} \mathrm{r}, \quad \mathrm{pa}^{4}$ - $\mathrm{pa}^{2 \prime}, \mathrm{ma}^{4} \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{ma}^{2 \prime}$ faa$\cdot r$, fan•dher, pupaa , mumaa (or paapaa, maamaa ${ }^{\cdot}$ ); a in fable, râble, fahblĕŏ, rahblĕŏ.
$\mathrm{a}^{3}$. fa ${ }^{3} l l$, wa ${ }^{3} l l$, wa ${ }^{3}-\mathrm{tu}^{2} \mathrm{r}$ fau•l, wau•l, wau•ter;
â in âge, Châlons ahzh, Shahloan'.
$\mathrm{a}^{4}$. $\mathrm{fa}^{4} \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{ma}^{4} \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{ma}^{4} \mathrm{r}^{\prime}-\mathrm{re}^{1}$ fat, mat, mar $\cdot i$; a in fat
matin făat, măataen' or fa't, ma'taen').
 $\mathrm{je}^{1}-\mathrm{u}^{2} \mathrm{~m}$ mee, heer, meeter, mee dyem; i in
mitre, épître mĕetrĕŏ, aipēetrěŏ.
$e^{2}$. $\mathrm{me}^{2} \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{le}^{2} \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{ge}^{2} \mathrm{t}$ met, let, get; e in mette, nette maet, naet.
$\mathrm{i}^{1}$. pil${ }^{1}$ ne, til${ }^{1}$-tl pein, tei•tl; aï in laïque, naïf laa-eek, naa-eef.
$\mathrm{i}^{2}$. $\mathrm{pi}^{2} \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{ti}^{2} \mathrm{t}^{\prime}-\mathrm{tl}$ pin, tit•l; in inné, titré ĕennăi, tĕetrăi [quite different from tea-tray tee 'trai ${ }^{\prime}$ ].
$\mathrm{o}^{1}$. $\mathrm{no}^{1}$, no ${ }^{1}$ te, $\mathrm{no}^{1}-\mathrm{ti}^{2} \mathrm{~s}$ noa, noa $t$, noa $\cdot$ tis ; o in globe, lobe glăob, lăob.
$\mathrm{o}^{2}$. $\mathrm{mo}^{2} \mathrm{o}^{2} \mathrm{v}, \mathrm{pro}^{2} \mathrm{o}^{2} \mathrm{v} m o o^{\circ} v$, proo $v$; ou in mouvoir, pouvoir nŏぃvwaar', pŏovwaar'.
$\mathrm{o}^{3}$. no ${ }^{3} \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{fo}^{3} \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{o}^{3} \mathrm{r}$, "like the broad $\mathrm{a}^{3}$," nau $r$, faurr, aur ; o in or, for, encor ăor, făor, ahn'kăor'.
$\mathrm{o}^{4}$. $\mathrm{no}^{4} \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{ho}{ }^{4} \mathrm{t}$, go ${ }^{4} \mathrm{t}$ not, hot, got; o in hotte, cotte ăot, kăot.
$\mathrm{u}^{1}$. $\mathrm{tu}{ }^{1} \mathrm{be}, \mathrm{k} u^{1}-\mathrm{pi}^{2} \mathrm{~d}$ [not in the body of the work, spelling taken from $\mathrm{ku}^{1}-\mathrm{pi}^{2} \mathrm{~d}^{\prime}-\mathrm{e}^{1}-\mathrm{te}^{1}$ keupid•iti] teu•b, keu-pid; iou in Cioutat, chiourme Syŏotaa, shyŏor'm.
$\mathrm{u}^{2}$. $\operatorname{tu}^{2} \mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{ku}^{2} \mathrm{p}, \operatorname{su}^{2} \mathrm{p} t u b, k u p, s u p$; eu in neuf, veuf nŏef, vŏef.
$\mathrm{nl}^{3}$. $\mathrm{bu}^{3} \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{fu}^{3} \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{pu}^{3} \mathrm{l}$ buol, fuol, puol; ou in boule, foule, poule bŏol, fŏol, pŏol.
$0^{3} \mathrm{j}^{2}$. $\mathrm{o}^{3} \mathrm{i}^{2} 1$ oil; oï in cycloïde, héroïque sěeklŏa-ĕed, ăir'ŏa-ĕek.
$0^{3} \mathrm{u}^{3}$. тно $^{3} \mathrm{u}^{3}, \mathrm{po}^{3} \mathrm{u}^{3} \mathrm{nd}$ dhou, pound; aoû in Août 00 (could it have been aaŏŏ in Walker's time ?)
th. thi² ${ }^{2} g k, t h \mathrm{i}^{2} \mathrm{n}$ thingk, thin.
тн. тнi ${ }^{2}$ s, тна $^{4} t ~ d h i s, d h a t$.
g. ge ${ }^{2} t, g^{4} n, g^{1}$, gi $^{2} \mathrm{v}$, ge $^{1} \mathrm{e}^{1}$ se get, gon (or gau $\cdot n$ ), goa, giv, gee's.
j. ji ${ }^{1} \cdot-a^{4} n t, j^{2} n^{\prime}-j u^{2} r$ jei $\cdot e n t$, jin $\cdot j e r$.
s. $s i^{2} n, s u^{2} n, s o^{1}, s i^{2} t, s e^{2} n s e ~ s i n, ~ s u n, ~ s o a, ~ s i t$, sens.
z. $\mathrm{ro}^{1} \mathrm{ze}, \mathrm{ra}^{1} \mathrm{ze}$ roa'z, rai'z.

Smart.-"Walker Remodelled. A new critical Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language, adapted to the present state of literature and science, embodying the original stores of Johnson, the additions of Todd and Webster, and many words in modern use not included in former dictionaries, exhibiting the pronunciation of words in unison with more accurate schemes of sounds than any yet furnished, according to principles carcfully and laboriously investigated : explaining their meaning by classification and mutual reference, as well as by improved definitions; and accompanied by-i. Hints for surmounting defents of utterance, foreign, provincial, vulgar, and impedimental; ii. An etymological index of common terminations; iii $A$ key to the pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and Scripture proper names; iv. A brief appendix on the pronunciation of modern foreign names. By $B$. $H$. Smart, author of an Outline of Sematology ; a Practical Grammar of English Pronunciation; Theory and Practice of Elocution, \&c. London, 1836." 8vo., double columns. Preliminary matter 64 pages, Dictionary and Appendices 738 pages.

This is still a valuable work of reference. Although the author (who died a few years ago), like all others of his time, had not quite an adequate knowledge of phonetic relations, the work shews much independent study, and is a
great advance on Walker. There are some pronunciations which are rather archaic and "thin," and many which shew the elocution-master rather than one in the habit of hearing and conversing with people of high education. But certainly no one could be blamed for adopting his pronunciations. He takes the " well-educated Londoner" for his model, and does not allow quite sufficient latitude of pronunciation. For study, the work is indispensable.

In his spelling he adopts letters with numbers over them in a few cases, here given by superiors. He has a peculiar "script" character occasionally, which is here represented by italics, and his italics are distinguished by being placed between parentheses, as $\left(a^{3}\right) h$, the $a$ being in italics and the $h$ in script, for $t h, d h$ he uses peculiar letters which are here written $t h$, тн, as in Walker. The mode of indicating pronunciation is so singularly laborious and intricate, that he avoids it whenever he can, so that not half the words in his dictionary are spelled at full according to this scheme, but the sounds are mercly indicated to belong to some preceding word, by italics, \&c., and even in his scheme he has spelled only the syllable of the example containing the peculiar sound at full. This occasions considerable difficulty at times. The mode also in which he has grouped his words according to etymology often occasions delay in finding the word required. The key words are here spelled as in the body of the dictionary when they occur there. The Glossic (in italics) gives my own pronunciation.

## Smart's Key Words.

"Note that $a, e, i, o, u, y, w, h$, so printed, are mute, though in general significant: Note further that the mark ( ${ }^{-}$) changed to ( ${ }^{1}$ ), as $\bar{a}$ to $a^{1}$, signifies a change in the quantity of the corresponding accented vowel; that an italic letter [in a parenthesis] implies a change or corruption in the quality; and that no change of indication implies that there is no change of quantity or quality, the difference in such case being merely
that of remitted accent. Note likewise that two or more ways of marking a sound s , or c , or ss , for instance) imply no difference in the sound itself."

1. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \bar{a} i$, $\overline{\mathrm{a}} y$, gāte, gāit, pāy, gai $\cdot t, g a i \cdot t$, pai.
2. $\mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{a}^{1} i, \mathrm{a}^{1} y, \mathrm{a}^{1}-\mathrm{e}^{\prime}-\mathrm{re}^{1}-(\breve{a}) l, \mathrm{re}^{-1}-\mathrm{ta}^{1} i l$, gāte-wal${ }^{1} y$, aier''iel, ree tail, gai'twai.
3. $\overline{\mathrm{e}}, \overline{\mathrm{e}} e, \overline{\mathrm{e}} a$, mè, mēte, mēet [in the dictionary ; in the scheme, mēet, mēat], mee, mee $t$, mee $\cdot t$.
4. $e^{1}, \mathrm{e}^{1} e, \mathrm{e}^{1} y$, de $\mathrm{e}^{1}-f \overline{\mathrm{y}}^{\prime}$. pĕd' $\mathrm{e}^{1}-\mathrm{gre}^{1} e$, găl' $\mathrm{le}^{1} y$, difei $\cdot$, ped-igree, gal-i.
5. $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$, $\mathrm{i} e, \overline{\mathrm{y}}$, wīde, de ${ }^{1}-\mathrm{fi} e d^{\prime}$, de ${ }^{1}-\mathrm{f} \overline{\mathrm{y}}$, weid, difei•d, difei.
6. $\overline{\mathrm{i}}, \mathrm{i} e, \quad \overline{\mathrm{y}}, \quad \overline{\mathrm{i}}-\mathrm{de}^{-}-\left(a^{3}\right)$, for'-te ${ }^{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{fi} e \mathrm{e}, \quad \mathrm{for}^{\prime}-\mathrm{te}^{1}-\mathrm{f} \overline{\mathrm{y}}$, eidee $u$, fau•rtifeiz, fau rtifei.
7. $\overline{\mathrm{o}}, \overline{\mathrm{o}} a, \overline{\mathrm{o}} e$, $\overline{\mathrm{o}} u$, $\overline{\mathrm{o}} w$, nō, bōat, fōe, sō $u \mathrm{l}$, blō $w, n o a$, bou $\cdot t$, foa, soa $\cdot l$, bloa.
8. $\mathrm{o}^{1}, o^{1} w, o^{1}-\mathrm{ba} y^{\prime}$, fŏl $\mathrm{l}^{1}-0^{1}$ [in the dictionary; in the scheme, fol'-lol$\left.{ }^{1} w\right]$, oabai , fol oa .
9. $\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \overline{\mathrm{u}} e, \overline{\mathrm{u}} i$, cūbe, d $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ [in the dictionary; in the scheme, dūe], sūit, kew $b$, deu, seu $\cdot t$.
10. $\mathbf{u}^{1}, \mathbf{u}^{1} e, \mathbf{u}^{1}$-zurp${ }^{\prime}, \vec{a}^{\prime}-g \mathbf{u}^{1}$ [ $a^{\prime}-g u^{1} e$ in scheme], euzer $p$, ai geu.
11. ̆̆, măn, chăp'-m(a)n .[in scheme here chăpman], man, chap men.
12. $\breve{a},(\breve{a})$, ăck-sěpt' [ăc-cept' in scheme], chap'$\mathrm{m}(a) \mathrm{n}$ [chap' $-\mathrm{m}\left({ }^{(a)}\right) \mathrm{n}$ in scheme], ak sept, chap.men.
13. ě, lĕnt, lent.
14. ě, sī-lĕnt, sei $\cdot l$ ent.
15. $\check{1}$, pit, pit.
16. $\mathfrak{i}, \mathrm{saw}$-pit [saw'-pit in scheme], sau'pit.
17. ǒ, nŏt, cŏm'-m(ŏ)n [cómmon in scheme], not, kom en.
18. 厄̆, (ŏ), pŏl-1'ōōt', c(ŏ)m-mănd', cŏm'm(ŏ)n, puleu•t, kumaa•nd, kom•en.
19. ŭ, nŭt, cŭs'-t a)rd, nut, kus'terd.
20. $\breve{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{wa}^{4}$ wl'-nŭt, cer'-kŭs wau•lnut (or wau•nut), ser.kus.
21. ŏŏ [the ${ }^{\sim}$ is single but large, 'covering both letters], gǒŏd, hǒŏd, guod, huod.
22 ŏŏ, $\operatorname{ch}(i) l^{\prime}-\mathrm{h}(00) \mathrm{d}$ [in scheme, child'-hǒŏd, in the dictionary child, as a principal word, is given as chiled, and the ( $i$ ) refers to this] chei 1 ldhuod.
22. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}^{3}, \overline{\mathrm{a}}^{-3} h, \mathrm{p}\left(a^{3}\right)-\mathrm{pa}^{-{ }^{3}}, \overline{\mathrm{a}}^{3} h$, pupaar, na.
23. $\left(a^{3}\right),\left(a^{3}\right) h, \mathrm{p}\left(a^{3}\right)-\mathrm{pa}^{-3}$, măn'-n $\left(a^{3}\right)$, měs-sil $-\left(a^{3}, h\right.$, pupaa., man'u, mesei $u$ (or man $\cdot a a$, mesei $\cdot a a$ ).
24. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}^{4} w, \overline{\mathrm{a}}^{4} w e, \mathrm{a}^{4} w, \overline{\mathrm{a}}^{4} w, \overline{\mathrm{a}}^{4} w$ [ $\overline{\mathrm{a}}^{4} w e$ in scheme], lau, au.
25. $\mathbf{a}^{4} w$, jack'daw [jack' $-\mathrm{da}^{4} w$ in scheme], jak. dau.
26. $\bar{o} \bar{o}$ [the ${ }^{-}$is single but large and covering both letters], pōol poo l.
27. oo, wherl'-pool [where wh means hw ; whirl'pool in scheme] wher-lpool.
28. oi, oy, toil, boy, toil, boi.
29. oi, oy, tur'moil, fŏŏt'-boy, ter moil, fuot boi.
30. ou, ow, noun, now, brown, noun, nou, br'oun.
31. ou, ow, pro ${ }^{1 \prime}$-nown [apparently a mistake for prō'-nown], nŭt'-brown, proa noun, nut $\cdot b r^{\prime}$ oun.
32. $\operatorname{ar}=\bar{a}^{3} \mathrm{r}$, ar'-děnt, $a a \cdot r d e n t$.
33. ar, (a)r=a ${ }^{3} \mathrm{r},\left(a^{3}, \mathrm{r}\right.$, ar-cādé, dǒl $l^{\prime}-\mathrm{l}^{\prime}(a) \mathrm{r}$, aarkai$\cdot d$ (or aakai•d), dol'er.
34. er, ir, er'-minn, ver'-tue, er•min, ver $\cdot$ teu.
35. er, (e)r, (i)r, cŏm'-merce, lět'-t(e)r, nā'-d e)r,
kom•ers, let•er, wai $\cdot \mathrm{der}$.
36. or $=\bar{a}^{-7} w \mathbf{r}, \mathrm{or}^{\prime}-\mathrm{d}(e) \mathbf{r}$, au$\cdot \mathrm{rder}$.
37. or, (o)r, stū-por, sāil'-(o)r, steu•per, sai•ler.
38. ur, ur'gent, er.jent.
39. ur, sŭl'-fur, sul-fer.
40. āre= ${ }^{-1}$ 'ur, māre, mai'r [he writes mayor= $\left.\left.\mathrm{ma} y-{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}\right) \mathbf{r}=\mathrm{ma}^{\prime}-\mathrm{ur}=\mathrm{mär} e\right]$.
41. $a^{1} r e=a^{1} u r$, wěl'-fa ${ }^{1} r e$, wel-fair.
42. ēre=èur, mēre, mee $r$.
43. $e^{1} r e=e^{1} u r$, ăt'-mŏs-fe $e^{1} r$, at $\cdot$ musfeer.
44. ir $e=i^{\prime} u r$, mire, mei $\cdot r$.
45. ir $e=i \bar{u}$, ěm'-pīre, em $\cdot p e i r$.
46. ōre=ó'ur, mōre moa r.

47. ūre $=\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ 'ur, mūre, meu $\cdot r$.
48. $\mathrm{u}^{1} \mathrm{r} e=\mathrm{u}^{1} \mathrm{ur}$, fig' $\mathrm{u}^{1} \mathrm{r} e$ fig'eur (or fig'yer os figer.
49. ōōr $=\overline{0} \bar{o}^{\prime} u r$, pōōr poo ${ }^{\circ}$.
50. oor $=00 u r$, blăck'-(a)-moor, blak'umoor.
51. ower =ow'ur, power, pour $r$.
52. ower=owur, c(au)l-e ${ }^{1}$-flower, kol-iflour.
53. ('), "A slight semi-consonant sound between $e^{1}$ and $y$ consonant, heard in the transition from certain consonant to certain vowel sounds, as in
lute (l'ōōt), jew (j'ō̄), nature (nä'-ch'oor) [in the dictionary this is called "colloquial," and $n^{-1}{ }^{\prime}-t^{1} r e$ is given as the first form], g'arment [in the dictionary gar'-měnt], k'ind [in the dictionary kined], leut (or loot), jeu (or joo, nai•teur (or nai•cher), gaa'rment (not gyaa•rment), keind (not kyeind).
54. h , hănd, per-haps' [meaning $\mathrm{p}(e, r$-hăps' ?] vè'-he ${ }^{1}$-mĕnt hand, per-hap $s$, vee'himent (or vee iment, vee ument, the last is commonest).
55. w, wē, be ${ }^{1}-w a ̄ r e^{\prime}, f r o ̄^{-1}-w(o) r d, h w e ̄ a t=h w e ̄ e t$, wee, biwai'r, froa'erd, whee't.
56. y, yōō, yoo, eu; "And this sound is always to be understood as present in $\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{u}^{1}, \mathrm{u}^{1} \mathrm{re}$, which are equivalent to yōō and yoor."
57. s, ss, also c or sc before e or i; sěll, cěll, sǐt, citt, măss, sēne $=$ sēen [scene], si'-ěnce [science], sel, sel, sit, sit, maa's (or maas ${ }^{\circ}$, see $n$, sei ens.
58. $\mathrm{z}, \mathrm{zz}, \mathrm{ze}, \mathrm{zē} a l$, bŭz, māze, zee $l$, buz, mai'z.
59. sh, mĭsh'-ŭn, mish'en.
60. zh, vizh'-ŭn, vizhen.
61. ch, tch, [chair] chäre, ēetch, mătch, chai $\cdot{ }^{r}$, ee•ch, mach.
62. $j$, and also $g$ before e or i , jŏg, jĕm, äge, jĭn, $j o g, j e m, ~ a i \cdot j, j i n$.
63. f, ff, fe, fŏg, cŭff, līfe, fog, kuf, leif.
64. v, ve, [vain] vāne, lŭv [love], vai•n, luv.
65. th, thĭn, pĭth, thin, pith.
66. тн, тнe, тнĕn, wiтн, brēeтнe, dhen, widh, bree d.h.
67. $1,11, l e$, lět, mill, sāle, let, mil, sai•l.
68. $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{mm}$, me, mãy, hăm' $-\mathrm{m}(e) \mathrm{r}$, blāme, mai, ham er, blai'm.
69. $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{nn}, \mathrm{n} e, \mathrm{nō}$, băn'-n(e)r, tūne, noa, ban'er, tew $n$.
70. ng, ring, ring.
71. r, rr, "as audibly beginning a syllable; or being one of a combination of consonants that begin a syllable," rāy, ${ }^{l}$-rěct', florid=florrid [in the dictionary only FLOR'-ID, meant for flŏr-rǐd ?], torrid [meaning tŏr'-rid, in dictionary TOR'-RID, under tơr'-rel$-\mathrm{f} y$ ], präy, sprĕd, r'ai, eer'ek $\cdot t$, flor' $\cdot i d$, tor' $i d, p r$ 'ai, spr'ed, " Under other circumstances the letter is a sign of mere guttural vibration."
72. $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{pp}, \mathrm{p} e$, pŏp, sŭp' $\mathrm{p}(e) \mathrm{r}$, hōpe, pop, sup $\cdot$ er, hoa $p$.
73. $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{bb}, \mathrm{b} e$, bŏb, rŏb${ }^{\prime}-\mathrm{b}(e) \mathrm{r}$, rōbe, bob, rob•er, roa.b.
74. $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{ck}, \mathrm{k} e$, also c final, and c before $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{o}$, or u , or a consonant, kĭng, hăck, bāke; ăn'-tǐck, căt, cŏt, cŭt, clāim, king, hak, bai $\cdot k$, an $n \cdot t i k$, kat, kot, kut, klai'm.
75. $g$, before a, o, or u, or a consonant, găp, gŏt, gŭn, guĕss, plāgue, grĭm, gap, got, gun, ges, plai $\cdot y$, gr'im.
76. t , tt , te, tĕn, măt'-t(e) r , māte, ten, mat er, mai't.
77. d, dd, de, dĕn, măd'- $\mathrm{d}(e) \mathrm{r}$, māde, den, mad'er, $m a i \cdot d$.
An Epitome of "Smart" is published.
Worcester.-"A Critical and Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language, including. Scientific Terms. To which are added Walker's Key to the Pronunciation of Classieal and Seripture Proper Names, much enlarged, and a Pronouncing Vocabulary of Modern Geographical Names. By Joseph E. Woreester. London, 1847." Large 8vo., double columns. Preliminary matter 75 pages, dictionary and vocabulary 956.

Worcester is an American, so that possibly the sounds he attributes to his key words may differ in many points from those here given. But taken as those, this dictionary is the most complete and serviceable one I know. Wherever there is a noticeable disagreement among Sheridan, 1780; Walker, 1791 ; Perry, 1795 ; Jones, 1798 ; Fulton and Knight, 1802 ; Enfield, 1807; Jameson, 1827; Webster, 1828 ; Knowles, 1835 ; Smart, 1840 ; and Reid, 1846, it is here given, and assigned to the proper authority. Every word is respelled or marked in a manner equivalent to respelling. The preliminary account of pronunciation does not enter at all into the principles of speech, but there is a good deal of other interesting matter. The vocabulary is altogether more complete and more handy than Smart's. The principal defects are the treatment of the unaccented vowels, and the vocal $r$. The letter $r$ is certainly differently pro-
nounced in America and in England. Ask any American to pronounce the word America, and listen. If, however, we read by English rules the whole book becomes clear and useful. Worcester's marks for indicating pronunciation often require new signs, and in that case they are here put in italics or small capitals, and described. If not otherwise mentioned, italics indicate under-dotted letters. The spelling is that in the body of the work, with the respelling if there given. The unmarked vowels in a combination are mute. The Glossic (in italics) gives my own pronunciation.

## Worcester's Key Words.

1. ā. fāte, lāce, āid, pāin, plāy'er, plā'er, fai t, lai $\cdot$, , ai $\cdot d, p a i \cdot n$, plai $\cdot e r$.
2. ǎ. făt, măn, lăd, cär'ry, fat, man, lad, kar' $\cdot i$.
3. a. [a with ' over it]. färe, räre, pair parr, beär bar, fai $\cdot r, r^{\prime} a i \cdot r, p a i \cdot r, b a i \cdot r$.
4. ä. fär, fä'тнer, pärt, ärm, هälm käm, faa•r, faa dher, paa'rt, aa $\cdot r m$, kaa $\cdot m$.
5. A. (a with $a+$ above it), fast, branch, grasp, grass [this is meant for $a$, stated to be "intermediate between its short sound, as in fat, man, and its Italian sound, as in far, father," but whether long, or short, or medial is not stated], faa'st, br'aa•nch, gr'aa'sp, gr'aa's.
6. â. fâll, hâll, hâul, wâwk, wârm, fau•l, haw $\cdot$ l, haw l, waw $k$, waw $\cdot \mathrm{rm}$.
7. a. lī'ar, păl'ace, ri'val, ăb'ba-cy, lei•er, pal•es, $r^{\prime} e^{i} \cdot v e l, a b \cdot u s i$.
8. è. mēte, sēal, fēar, kēēp, mee tt, see l, fee r, kee $p$.
9. ě. mět, měn, sĕll, fĕr'r$y$, met, men, sel, fer' $i$.
10. ê. like á, hêir àr, тнêre tнar, whêre hwȧr, ai $\cdot r$, dhai $\cdot r$, whai $\cdot r$.
11. ë. hër, hërd, fërn, fër'vid, her, herd, fern, fervid.
12. e. bri'er, fü'el, cĕl'ery, brei er, feu'el, sel 'ur'i.
13. i. pine, file, fïnd, mild, fire, pein, feil, feind, meild, feir.
14. i. pin, fill, mǐss, mǐr'ror, pin, fil, mis, mirr'er.
15. î. like è, ma-çhine', po-lîce' po-lēs', mîen mēn, $\mathrm{m} \alpha$-rîne' $\mathrm{m} \alpha$-rēn', mushee' $n$, poalee $\cdot s$, mee' $n$, mur'een.
16. ï. fïr, sïr, bïrd, vïrt'ue, vïrt'y $u$, fer, ser, berd ver'teu.
17. $\quad i$. $e$-lĭx'ir $e-$ lỉk'sur rutin, lŏg'ik lơd'jik, $a$-bĭl'-$i-t y$, $i l i k \cdot s e r, r^{\prime} \circ o \cdot i n$, loj $\cdot i k$, ubil-iti.
18. ō. nōte, fōal, tōw tō, sōre, noa t, foa l, toa . soar.
19. ŏ. nŏt, cŏn, ŏdd, bŏr'rō, not, kon, od, bor' oan.
20. ô. môve, prôve, fôôd, sôôn, moo v, proov, $f o o^{\circ} d, s o 0^{\prime} n$.
21. ö. like â, nör, förm, sört, öught âwt, naw $\cdot r$, fau'rm, sau'rt, au't.
22. ŏ. (an o with $\perp$ over it), sŏn, dŏne, cŏme, mŏn'ey, sun, dun, kum, mun'i.
23. o. ăc'tor, con-fěss', fël'o-ni, ak•ter, kunfes', fel-uni.
24. ù. tūbe, tūne, sūit sūt, püre, tew $\cdot b$, tew $n$, sew $\cdot t$, peu•r.
25. ̆̆. tŭb, tŭn, hŭt, hŭr'ry, tub, tun, hut, hur'i.
26. û. bûll, fûll, pûll, pûsh, buol, fuol, puol, puosh.
27. ü. für, türn, mür'mur, hürt, fer, tern, mermer, hert.
28. u. (u with + over it , like ô, rule, rude, true. $r^{\prime} 0 o^{\circ} l, r^{\prime} \circ o^{\prime} d, t r^{\prime} 00$.
29. $u$. sŭl'phur sŭl'fur, mür'mur, dĕp' $u$-ty, sul-fer. mer-mer, dep euti.
30. $\overline{\mathrm{y}}$. tȳpe, stȳle, lȳre, teip, steil, leir.
31. y̆. sy̆l'van, sy̆m'bol, cry̆s'tal, sil'ven, sim•bel, $k r^{\prime} s^{\prime} \cdot t e l$.
32. $\ddot{\text { y. }}$ mÿrrh mïr, mÿrtle mïr'tl, mer, mer'tl.
33. $y$. tru'ly trule, ěn'v $y$, mär'tyr, tr'oo $l i$, en'rı, maarter.
öı̆, öy̆, böll, tö11, böy̆, töy̆, boil, toil, boi, toi. öû and öw, böûnd, töŵn, nöw, bound, toun, nou.
ēw, like $\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{fe} \overline{\mathrm{w}}, \mathrm{ne} \overline{\mathrm{w}} \mathrm{dew}, f e u, n e u$, deu.
ç, like s, ăḉid ăs'id, plăç-id, as $\stackrel{i d}{ }$, plas ${ }^{\bullet} i d$.
$c$ ( $c$ with $\perp$ under it, or $C$ with an oblique line through it), like k, flăc'çid. scep'tie, flak $\cdot$ sid, skep $\cdot t i k$.
ch (c as before), like k, chăr'ac-ter kăr'ak-ter, chăsm kăzm, kar' akter, kaz'm.
çh, like sh, çhāise shāz çhēv- $a$-liēr ${ }^{\prime}$ shēv- $a$-iēr, shai $\cdot$, shevulee $r$ [Fr. sheovaalyai.]
ch, like tsh, chärm, chürch, chaa:rm, cheroh.
G ( $g$ with + over it, Gēt, Gǐve, Gĭft, get, giv, gift.
$g$ ( $g$ with a half moon over it; capital, with reverted half moon under it), gěn'der, $g^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} a n t$, jen $\cdot d e r$, jei ent.
$s$ (s with a half moon under it), like $z$, mūse, chôôse, meu'z, choo'z.
$x$ ( x with a straight line under it) ex-Am'ple egzam'pl, ex-ǐst' eg-zist', egzaa $\quad m p l$, egzis $\cdot t$.
тн (in capitals the t has a cross line through its stem, in small letters the $h$ has a cross line through its stem), тнĭs, тне̄e, тнӗn, dhis, dhee, dhen.
tion, sion, like shun, nä'tion nä'shun, no 'tion $\mathrm{no}^{-1} \mathrm{sh} u \mathrm{n}$, pĕn'sion pĕn'shun, mĭs'sion mĭsh'un, nai-shen, noa'shen, pen'shen, mish'en.
cean, cian, like shan, ö'cean óshan, op-tí"cian op-tĭsh'an, oa•shen, optish•en.
cial, sial, tial, like shal, com-mër'cial kom-mër'shal, cŏn-tro-vër'sial kŏn-tro-vër'shal, kumer'shel, kon-troaver-shel.
ceous, cious, tious, like shus, făr- $i$-nā'ceous făr- $e$ nä'shus, ca-pä’cious ka-pā'shus, sen'těn'tious sen-tĕn'shus, far'inai'shus, kupai'shus, sentenshus.
$g e o u s, g i o u s$, like jus, cou-rā'geous kur-rä’jus, re-ľg'iouș re-lĭd'jus, kur*ai•jus, rilij’us.
qu, like kw, quēēn kwēn, quĕs'tion kwĕst'yun [but the first spelling ought to have given kwĕs'shun, see tion above], kween, kwes'tyen.
wh, like hw, whĕn hwěn, whīle hwill, when, wheil.
ph , like f , phăn'tom, sěr'aph sěr'af, far'tem, ser'•af (or ser'uf).

Ogilvie and Cull.-A smaller English Dictionary, etymological, pronouncing, and explanatory, by John Ogilvie, LL.D. The pronunciation adapted to the best modern usage, by Richard Cull. F.S.A., 1875, London, Blackie, pp. 464.

A compact, useful, and very cheap litule book (3s. 6d.) beautifully printed and got up. Mr. Cull
is a well-known orthoepist. His usages and recommendations will, however, be found to differ in many respects from those here given. For example, he uses the vanishes $a i \cdot y$, oa $w$ always; he does not distinguish $r, r^{\prime}, r r^{\prime}$, and does not recoznise murmur diphthongs, and he treats weak syllables as if they were strong. The following key words run along the foot of each page. They are here given in Mr. Cull's orthography, using $\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{u}$ for a, u with two dots under them. To these are added a few other words to shew Mr. Cull's treatment of R and weak syllables. The Glossic in italics gives the pronunciation indicated, and where it differs from my own pronunciation the latter is subjoined in a parenthesis.

## Ogilvie and Cull's Key Words.

Fāte fai•yt (fai`t), fär faar' (faarr), fat fat, fäll fau•l; mē mee, met met, hèr hur' (her); pine pein, pin pin; nōte noa wt (noa•t), not not, möve moo v; tube teu•b, tub tub, büll buol; oil oil, pound pound. Chān chai.yn (chai $n$ ) ; job job; gō goa'w (goa); sing sing; тнen [the stem of the r is crossed] dhen; thin thin; wig wig; ä'zhūr ai'yzheur cai•zheur, $a i \cdot z h e r, a z h \cdot e u r, a z h \cdot e r)$.

Other Words-mēr'li mee'r'li (mee rli); sē'rēz see $r^{\prime} e e z$ (see $\cdot r^{\prime} i e e z$ ), rār $r^{\prime} a i \cdot y r^{\prime}\left(r^{\prime} a i \cdot r\right)$, rà'rē-fī r'ai•yr'eefei (r'ai'rr'ifei), o'ral oa•wr'al (oa•rr'el), pör poo $r^{\prime}$ ( $p 00^{\circ} r$ ), lä'bèr-èr lai-ybur'ur' (lai.bur'er), dē-pend'ant deepend•ant (dipen•dent), dē-pend'ert deepend•ent (dipen dent) [these two last words are usually identical], rē•jon reejon (ree.jen), or'gan or'gan (au'rgen, au'gen), for'tū-nāt for'teunai'gt fau•rteunet, fau•chunet), hor'rid hor' $\cdot r^{\circ}$ id (hor'id), flo'rid flor'id [these two last words rhyme perfectly], flo'rist flor' ist (floa'rr'ist).

As I am personally acquainted with Mr. Cull, I know that the pronunciation he uses in conversation and public speaking does not differ from my own so much as these words would imply, and hence I recommend those who use this dictionary to read the pronunciation there given in accordance with the above indications.

# XIV. aLPHABETICAL KEYS T0 GERMAN, ITALIAN, AND FRENCH. 

Introduction -Although it is not possible to lay down rules which will enable a reader to ascertain the sounds from the ordinary spelling of English words, this is much more nearly the case with German, Italian, and French.
I. German.-For German it is not usual to give any assistance to the reader, and most Germans are under the delusion that they spell as they pronounce. This is not the case. High German is a literary language which owes its predominance to the fact that Martin Luther (Luot ur') was born at Eisleben (Aay•slae•ben) in Saxony, and used his own dialect for his translation of the Bible. In different parts of Germany different systems of pronouncing this literary language prevail, distinguished by their treatment (1) of German e, (2) of the diphthongs, (3) of the correspondence of short vowels in closed syilables to long vowels, (4) of German g , (5) of German s, and (6) of German ng. The three principal systems are thus defined and described by Dr. H. M. Rapp, in his "Physiologie der Sprache," vol. 4, 1841, p. 85.
A. The Orthographical or Low Saxon System of Pronunciation, used in the North West of Germany, between the Weser ( $V^{\prime} a e^{\cdot} z u r$ ) and the Elb, and mostly in the Hanse Towns (Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen), Holstein, Hannover, East Friesland
(Haam•buorkh, Lue•baek, Brae'men, Haol-staayn, Haan oa'vur', Free slăand). Through Hamburg and Hannover (which we write Hanover, and call Han uver), this system chiefly reaches England, but the point to which the English cling is the fifth, concerning $s t, s p$.
(1) Short i, u, ü become $\check{e}$, ŏ $a$, ŏe. Short e, o, ö become $\check{a} e, ~ \check{~}, \breve{e}$.
(2) When ' $e$ ' long is derived from ' $a$ ' long, or ' i ' long, it becomes $a e$ long, and is otherwise $a i^{\text {. }}$ long. This custom requires a knowledge of the language, or marked vowels. [Mr. Henry Sweet, in a paper on "The Characteristics of North German," read before the Philological Society, 17th March, 1876, immediately on returning from a six months' residence in Hanover, stated that this distinction in now entirely given up, and that long ' $e$ ' is invariably $a i$ ', no matter whence it is derived.]
(3) The diphthongs ' ai, ei ' are both aay, ' au' is aaw. and 'äu, eu' are both oy.
(4) Initial ' $g$ ' is $g$ at the beginning of syllables, and $g h$ or $g y^{\prime} h$ at the end of syllables. [Mr. Henry Sweet says it is always $g$ except at the end of words, and even then it is generally $k$; the $g y^{\prime} h$ or $k y^{\circ} h$ occurs only in the termination -ig.]
(5) The combinations ' $s t$, $s p$ ' are always $s t, s p$. [Mr. Sweet says that st, $s p$ are not considered correct at present in Hanover, that sht-, shp-, with
the full labial $s / h$ (p. 71b) are always heard on the stage and in public speaking, and $s t$-, $s p$ - may be considered to have practically disappeared.]
6) Final 'ng' adds on a $g$, as $n g g$, but between vowels no such $g$ is heard. [Mr. Sweet knows only ngk final, but even this is now discountenanced, and $n g$ alone is used.]
B. The Historical System of Pronunciation, used in the North West of Germany, Berlin, Brandenburg, the shores of the Baltic from Mecklenburg, through Pomerania to the Russian borders; also in isolated districts in the middle provinces, on the lower Rhine about Aix-la-Chapelle and Cologne, near the river Fulda in Franconia, \&c. ; and likewise in South West Germany, in Swabia, Alsatia, Switzerland. (Baer'lee•n, Br'ăan denbuor'ky'h, Maek•lenbuor'ky'h, Paon•ur'n, French Aez laaShăapael, Kaolaony, German Aa•khen, Koeln, Fuol-daa).
(1) The short vowels have the same quality as the long vowels.
(2) The use of ae, ai long, as in the Orthographical System.
(3) A very complicated diphthongal system, first, the 'ei, au, eu' corresponding to the old simple vowels $\bar{e} e, \bar{o} o, \bar{u} e$, are $u y, u w, u \breve{u} \breve{e}$; secondly, those corresponding to the old diphthongs are perhaps aey, ow, éŭе ; thirdly, when either of these precede nasals, they become aay, aaw, оейӗ.
(4) The ' $g$ ' is always $g$, except in the termination 'ig.'
(5) 'The initial 'st, sp' become sht, shp (or perhaps $s h ' t, s h$ ' $p$ ).
(6) 'The 'ng' treated as in the Orthographical System.
C. The Practical System of Pronunciation, used throughout Middle Germany, from the Polish to the French frontier, in Silesia, Upper Saxony, Franconia, the Palatinate of the Rhine, and Upper Palatinate, and also in Bavaria and Austria.
(1) Short and long vowels the same in quality.
(2) All long ' e ' are $\bar{a} i$ [but $\bar{a} e$ is often heard in Saxony.]
(3) The diphthongs 'ei, au, eu' are aay, aaw, aay [but oy or aoy.is used for 'eu' on the stage, the aay being thought vulgar; Rapp supposes a theoretical $\check{\text { ŭe, other theoreticians give a theoreti- }}$ cal aaŭe, I have never heard either.]
(4) Initial ' $g$ ' is $g$, final ' $g$ ' is $k h$ or $k y$ ' $h$, and ' $g$ ' between vowels, and after a liquid and before a vowel, is $g h$ or $g y^{\prime} h$.
(5) Initial 'st, sp' always sht, shp [or, in Saxony, in the most refined speaking, more exactly $s h ' t, s h^{\prime} p$.]
(6) The ' $n g$ ' is always $n g$ without any final $g$ [or $k$.]

It is this system of pronunciation to which I have become accustomed by three years' residence in Dresden. But I always took the liberty of using those pronunciations known in other parts of Germany, which were easiest for my own organs, and I recommend other Englishmen to do the same. Thus the short German vowels ' $a, e, i, o, u$, ö, ü,' I recommend pronouncing as $\breve{a} a, \breve{e}, \breve{\imath}, \check{o}, \breve{u} 0$, $\breve{o} e, \breve{u} e$, and the long as $\bar{a} a, \bar{a} i, \bar{e} e, \bar{o} a, \bar{o} o, \bar{e} o, \bar{u} e$. The diphthongs 'ei, au, eu' may be taken exactly as English ei, ou, oi, in the form most usual to the speaker. The ' $g$ ' may even be always $g$, except in '-ig,' but it sounds very harsh, and when the learner has once mastered $k y$ ' $h, k h$, which are quite indispensable, he will find no difficulty in using $g y^{\prime} h, g h$. The $s h ' t, s h ' p$ or $s h t, s h p$ initial are indispensable; the $s t, s p$ have a strange, shorttongued effect, and, as seen above, were confined to a very limited district, whence they are disappearing. The ' w' may even be pronounced as $v$, if the lip press the teeth very lightly, but $v$ ' is so much softer and pleasanter that it should be adopted if possible. The place of the accent offers no difficulties to an Englishman.

With these liberties it does not become very difficult to assign rules for pronuncing German from ordinary spelling, and these I have tried to give in the following Alphabetical Key. The pronunciations are given on my own responsibility. I have paid great attention to German speech for more than thirty years; at one time I used to
speak well enough to be mistaken for a German by Germans; I have had much conference with Germans respecting pronunciation, and have studied many German orthoepical works. My directions may, I think, therefore, be followed with considerable confidence.
II. Italian.-For Italian, the spelling shews the pronunciation almost exactly, except in four important points, the double use of the three letters ' $e, o, z$,' and the position of the accent. It is quite impossible to give complete rules for overcoming these four difficulties. All elementary Italian books and dictionaries should have the broad sounds $\bar{a} e \breve{a} e, \bar{a} o \breve{a} o, d z$ distinguished in some way from the fine $\bar{a} i a \breve{a} i, \bar{o} a \check{o} a, t s$; learners otherwise fall into difficulties which they can never correct. Although I resided eighteen months in Italy, and was at one time able to speak the language fluently, I have not attempted to grapple with these difficulties on my own responsibility, but have always consulted the excellent work of Valentini. In Petronj's (Paitrao'nyee'z) Pocket Italian Dictionary, Rosteri's (Roastae $r$ ree'z) Pocket Italian Interpreter, and New Italian Grammar (all in English), these distinctions are always carefully marked. Based upon these helps and my own familiarity with the language, the following Alphabetical Key will most probably always lead the student correctly.
III. French.-There is this peculiarity about French spelling, that though it is quite impossible to guess the spelling of a word from its sound, the reverse process of telling the sound from the spelling is tolerably certain, and admits of reduction to rule, which will generally, not always, suffice. Although I have been familiar with French from childhood, have resided many months at various times in France, during which I diligently studied the pronunciation, and have industriously worked through many French treatises on the subject, I have been very glad to rely for the following Alphabetical Key on an admirable
little work by Thériat, cited below, and now apparently out of print. With this help, I hope that my Key will prove useful even to those who have considerable acquaintance with the language. But a pronouncing dictionary or vocabulary is still necessary, and for those who can read French, I recommend Adrien Feline's "Dictionnaire de la Prononciation de la langue Française, indiquée au moyen de caractères phonétiques, précédé d'un memoire sur la Réforme de l'Alphabet, Paris, 1851," 8 vo, double columns, 383 pages, a work I find constantly useful. The following is a comparison of his symbols with the Glossic.


These Alphabetical Keys were originally written and stereetyped for separate use, and hence they have been constructed independently of the preceding pages, with a separate key to the especially foreign sounds, which was continually referred to. This Key is therefore retained, and although the full explanations already given may have rendered it not so necessary as before, yet the reader may find it convenient to have a statement of all the new sounds he has to learn put before him at once, with à reference to the other fuller accounts.

## EXPLANATIONS OF FOREIGN SOUNDS.

## Six Vowels, heard in Provincial English.

[1.] $a e$ is $a$ with a higher larynx and narrower throat, a somewhat broader sound of ai in air, p. $32 a$. It has no resemblance to $a a$. It is very common in German, Italian, and French. Those who have a difficulty in pronouncing it may use $a i$ long and $e$ short.
[2.] $a h$ is $a a$ with the back of the tongue depressed, a thicker, broader sound of $a a$, producible from $a u$ by opening the corners of the lips (p. 33b). Common in French, common (but not acknowledged) in German, quite unknown in Italian. Those who have a difficulty in pronouncing it may use $a$.
[3.] ao, confined to the diphthong 'oar" $=$ ao-u- $\left(r^{\prime}\right)$ in received English, but used provincially before all consonants, p. 35 a. Common in German, Italian, and French before all consonants. Those who have a difficulty in sounding it may use oa long and o short in German and French, and au long and $o$ short in Italian.
[4.] ue may be immediately sounded by trying to say ee or $i$ when the lips are placed for 00, p. 29a. Common in French (where it must be rightly pronounced to be intelligible), and German (where it may be called ee or $i$, that being a vulgar native pronunciation), but unknown in Italian. In French, it forms a diphthong with the following vowel, generating a sound much like an attempt to pronounce $w$ and $y$ at the same time, giving the greater predominance to the $w$, see p. 49b, and UI in the French Key, p. 2106.
[5.] eo may be immediately sounded by trying to say $a i$ when the lips are placed for $o a$, p. 31a. Common in French (where it must be rightly pronounced to be intelligible), and in German parts of Germany (where it is always long, and may be called ai, that being a vulgar native pronunciation), but unknown in Italian. At the end of words $-l e,-r e,-m e$ after consonants are pronounced in French with the faintest possible indication of
this sound, which is written ĕŏ in Glossic. See p. $94 b$.
[6.] oe is produced by trying to say ae (instead of $a i$, as in the last case; when the lips are placed for oa, p. 31a. Common in French (where it is distinguished from eo by careful speakers, but must not be confounded with any other sounds), and in German (where it is always short, and may be called $e$ or $a e$, the latter being a vulgar native pronunciation), but unknown in Italian. Very like English er with untrilled $r$, but the lips are not rounded for $e r$ as they are for $o e$.

## Four Nasal Vowels, peculiar to the French.

[7.] aen', produced by keeping the uvula away from the pharynx, as in diagrams 22, 23, 24, all the time that the speaker tries to say ae or $a$. Not to be confounded with ang, which consists of $a$, a glide, and $n g$, whereas aen' is one simple vowel on which a note of any length can be sung. But this aen' is sometimes heard during the glide, in passing from $a$ to $n g$, when the vowel is continued, even while the uvula is relaxed, as in diagram 24 for the $n g$. Practice saying ae-aen'-ae-aen', \&c., in one continuous emission of breath, feeling the motion of the uvula. Examine the effect of closing the mouth and nostrils alternately, by the hand only, while saying aen'. See p. 40a.
[8.] ahn', produced by keeping the uvula away from the pharynx, as in diagrams $22,{ }^{\prime} 23,24$, all the time that the speaker tries to say $a h$ (or $a u$, but try not to round the lips). Differs from aang as ang from aen'. Exercise ah-ahn'-ah, \&c. as in [7]. Never call this ong or ang. See p. 40a.
[9] oan', uvula as in diagrams 22, 23,24, all the time that the speaker tries to say oa. Exercise oa-oan'-oa-oan' \&c., see [7]. Never say ong. Distinguish clearly hetween ahn' and oan'. Enylish speakers are apt to call both ong. See p. $40 b$.
[10.] oen', uvula as in diagrams $22,23,24$, all the time that the speaker tries to say oo (or $u$.)

Exercise oe-oen'-oe-oen' \&c., see [7]. Never say rong. See p. 41 a.

Six German Consonants, of which two are provincial English, and the other four may be pronounced with received English sounds.
[11.] kh, lips open, tongue almost as for oo, diaggram 5 , but even a little closer to the uvula, so that the breath escapes as a hawking, rasping hiss. The Scotch ch in 'Loch' $=l o k h$. Never say $k$. See p. 83a.
[12.] $g h$, the same as $k h$ (see [11]) with the voice laid on, producing a harsh guttural buzz. This may be always called $g$ in German, that being the pronunciation of one district. See p. $83 b$.
[13.] $k y^{\prime} h$, an attempt to say both $y$ and $k h$ at once, tongue very nearly in the position for ee (diagram 1 and 8), or ai (diagram 2 and 9 ). The sound is almost $y h$, as in English Hugh Yheu, and this sound may always be used for ky'h. The Scotch ch in 'nicht' $=n e k y$ 'ht. Never say $s h$ or $c h$, which are common English errors. See p. $81 a$.
[14.] $g y^{\prime} h$, the same as $k y^{\prime} h$, [13], with the voice laid on, so that it is very nearly $y$, but a little harsher ; and $y$ is a vulgar German pronunciation. This may be always called $g$ in German, that being the pronunciation of many persons in North Germany. See p. 81a.
[15.] $f^{\prime}$ is an $f$-made with the lips in the position for $w$, as in diagram 12, but closer, taking care that the lower lip does not touch the upper teeth. $F^{\prime}$ is an attempt to say $f$ without using the teeth. But $f$ may always be used, that being a very general pronunciation. See p. 65.
[16.] $v$ ' is a $v$ made with the lips in the position for $w$, as in diagram 12, but closer, taking care that the lower lip does not touch the upper teeth. It is $f^{\prime \prime}$, [15], with the voice laid on ; that is, it is an attempt to say $v$ without using the teeth. But $v$ may be always used. Englishmen are cautioned against saying $w$. See p. 65.

Two Liquid Consonants, peculiar to Italian and French.
[17.] $l y$ ' is an attempt to pronounce $l$ and $y$ at the same time, so that the front of the tongue is as in diagram 20, and the back as in diagram 1. If in saying ' billion' $=b i l \cdot y$ un we prolong the $l$ till we begin to say $y$, we produce $l y$ ' as an intermediate glide, thus bil-ly'-yun. It is not ly. Common in Italian and in the pronunciation of elderly Frenchmen, but within the last 50 years it has been replaced by $y$ in France. Never use $y$ for $l y$ ' in Italian. This is called " 1 mouillé" aec mŏoyai (formerly mŏoly' ai) in French. See p. $81 b$.
[18.] $n y$ ' is an attempt to pronounce $n$ and $y$ at the same time, so that the uvula and front of the tongue are as in diagram 23, and the back as in diagram 1. If in saying 'onion' =un'yun, we prolong the $n$ till we begin to say $y$, we produce $n y^{\prime}$ as an intermediate glide, thus un-ny'-yun. It is not $n y$. Common in both Italian and French. Beware of calling 'Boulogne' Booloin, or Boolong, or Booloan, it is properly Boolaony'. This is called " $n$ mouillé" aen mŏoyai (formerly mŏoly'ai) in French. See p. $82 a$.

Two Consonantal Diphthongs, used finally, bul not initially in English.
[19.] ts; if in saying pats we pause at the $t$, keeping the tongue as in diagram 16, and then explode from $t$ to $s$, thus pat-ts, we produce the initial ts. Common in German and Italian, but unknown in French. See pp. $70 b$ and $71 a$.
[20.] $d z$; if in saying 'pads'= padz, we pause at the $d$ as long as we can sound the voice in that position, and then, while the voice is still sounding, come suddeuly down on $z$, thus pad-dz (taking care not to drop from $z$ into $s$, as Englishmen are apt to do), we produce the initial $d z$. Not uncommon, but not very common, in Italian; unknown in German and French. See p. 97a.

## Notes.

[21.] In using the English sounds ai, oa in foreign languages be extremely careful never to
add after-sounds of short $e e$ and 00 . This trick is quite unknown abroad, and is extremely unpleasant, often unintelligible, to foreigners.

Cautions for English Speakers of German, Italian, and French.
[22.] The letters $t, d, n, s, l, r$, are pronounced in German, Italian, and French, with the tip of the tongue rather more forward than in English, so as to lie quite on the roots of the teeth, almost as much as for English $t h$. See $t^{\prime}, d^{\prime}, \mathrm{p} 70 a ; n^{\prime \prime}$, p. $77 a ; s, s^{\prime}$, p. $70 b ; l^{\prime}$, p. $73 b ; r^{\prime \prime}$, p. $74 b$.
[23.] Vocal $r$ is unknown in German, Italian, and French, and Englishmen are therefore cautioned against using it, as they will be considered to have omitted $r$ altogether, and would hence become unintelligitle. A strongly-trilled $r^{\prime}$ must always be used. Germans and French (not Italians) often use the Northumbrian burr or
uvular trill ' $r$ (p. 83b), but this is always considered erroneous, even by those who use it. Be careful never to introduce a trilled $r^{\prime}$ between the final $a a, u$, of one word, and the initial vowel of the next. This is quite unknown abroad.
[24.] The aspirate $h$ is unknown in French and Italian, but is never dropped in German. The French so-called " h aspiré" aash aaspeer'ai is a mere hiatus.
[25.] Diphthongs in German are very close, but the first element being longer than in English, sound very broad. In French and Italian the vowels are rather slurred together than united into a glide to form a proper diphthong p. 45a). When in Italian several vowels come together on one note in singing they are all to be distinctly heard, and are to be slurred together in this way. See Section XV, p. 213. No written vowel must be left out in speaking or singing Italian.

## I. ALPHABETICAL KEY TO GERMAN PRONUNCIATION.

Only one un-English somid is absolutely necessary for speaking German intelligibly, namely, $k h$, the Scotch ch in loch [11]. The bracketed numbers refer to the explanations on p. 193, where it will be seen that 11 other new sounds, or combinations of sound, are also in use. Of these ts [19], and $d z$ [20], are only un-English by being used at the beginning, instead of only at the end of syllables. For ae [1] we may use ai long, and $e$ short;-for ao [3], o short;-for ue [4], ee long, and $i$ short;-for eo [5], ai long;-for oe [6], e short;-for $\mathrm{ky}^{\prime} \mathrm{h}$ [13], $v^{h} h$ as $h$ in $h u e$;-for either $g h$ [12] or $g y^{\prime} h$ (14], simple $g$;-and for $f^{\prime}$ [15] and $v^{\prime}$ [16], simple $f, v$. Persons so speaking will be always well and easily understood by Germans, although the sounds are frequently incorrect, or, more properly, vulgar.

In the following alphabetical list, Italics mark the pronunciation in Glossic characters.
A is long or short $a a$, never English ai, a, as Strasze shtr' $\bar{a} a \cdot s u$, Mann măan.
$\ddot{\mathbf{A}}$ is long or short ae [1], as sprächen $s h p r^{\prime} \bar{a} e \cdot k y^{\prime} h e n$, Männer măen $e r^{\prime}$; but may be miscalled ai, $c$, as shpr'ä $i^{\prime} \cdot y h e n$, men'er'.
AA is always long aa, as Aal aal.
AE is precisely the same as $\ddot{A}$, and is often used instead of it in capitals.
AEU is precisely the same as $\ddot{A} U$.
AH is always long $a a$, chiefly used before $\mathrm{L}, \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{N}$ R , as Pfahl $p f^{\prime} \bar{a} a l$, Rahm $r^{\prime} \bar{a} a m$, Ahnen $\bar{a} a \cdot n e n$ Bahre, baa'r'u.
AI is precisely the same as EI, and may be pronounced as ei.
AU is ou, taken as $a a-\breve{o} 0$, and the $a a$ may be made long; as Laut lout (scarcely to be distinguished from English 'lout.')
$\dot{A} U$ may be always called oi as in North Germany ; it is professedly $a a-\breve{u} e$ [4], and is often confused with AI, as Häuser hoi 'zer', or haaŭe *zer often hei zer'. See [25].
$B$ is $b$ at the beginning of words or between the two vowels (lengthening the preceding vowel), but $p$ at the end of words, as bat $b \bar{a} a t$, graben $g r \bar{a} a \cdot b e n$, Grab $g r a \bar{a} a p$.
BB is $b$, and shortens the preceding vowel, as Ebbe ăeb $u$.

C before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}$, is $k$, in which case it is often replaced by K ; but before AE, E, I, UE, EI, it is $t s$, in which case it is often replaced by $Z$. Before any other letters but H and $\mathrm{K}, \mathrm{C}$ is only used in foreign words, as Capital kaapeet $\bar{a} a \cdot l$, Ceder tsai $\cdot d e r^{\prime}$.
$\mathbf{C H}$ after $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{AU}$, is $k h$ [11], and generally (not always) shortens the preceding $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}$, as machen măakh•en, pochen păokh en, pŏkh $\cdot e \|$, but Buch bōokh. CH after AE, E, I, EI, EU, AEU, $\mathrm{R}, \mathrm{L}, \mathrm{N}$; that is generally, is $k y^{\prime} h$ [13] (nearly $y()$, and also often shortens the preceding E, I, as Pech paeky' $h$ or peyh, ich ěeky' $h$ or $i y h$, Dolch dăolky'h or dŏlyh, manch măanky'h or măctryh, durch $d o \check{o} r^{\prime} k y^{\prime} h$ or dŏor' $y h$. In the final syllable chen it is also ky'h, as Mädchen mäe $d k y^{\prime} y^{\prime} h e n$ or mai dyhen, the only German syllable in which CH is initial. In foreign words from Greek it is $k h, k y$ ' $h$, according to the following vowel, sometimes $k$, and from French it is $s h$, as Chaussee shoasä $i^{\circ}$. CHS is always $k s$, as sechs zăeks or zeks.
CK used for KK, which is oiten written, is $k$, and shortens preceding vowel, as Mücke mŭek $\cdot u$ or mik u.
D is $d$ at the beginning of words or between two vowels (lengthening the preceding vowel), but $t$ at the end of words. as das $d \breve{a} a s$, Ader $\bar{a} a \cdot d e r$, stand shtăant. The Germans advance the tip of the tongue nearer the teeth than the English [22].
$\mathbf{E}$ is generally ai [21] when long, and may be always so called, but is sometimes ae [1] long, and before a consonant is ae short, but may be called $e$ short. When final and unaccented it is practically $u$, as English final A in 'idea.' When in a final syllable with $L, M, N, R$, it is indistinct, and may be called $e$, very lightly pronounced, and in case of -el, -en, the vowel is sometimes entirely omitted. Some German writers on pronunciation allow - ER, -ES, final to be -ur', -us. Examples, heben, hāi $\cdot b e n$, Eber $\bar{a} e \cdot h a r '$ ol $\bar{a} i \cdot b e r '$, eine $e i \cdot n u$, Adel $\bar{a} a \cdot d e l$ nearly $\bar{a} a \cdot d l$, offenen ănf:enen or of nen, Nudeln noo deln (not noo ${ }^{\text {del-n, or no }}$ no dlen, as Englishmen often say).
EE always long ai [21], as Beet bāit.
EH always long $a i$ [21], or long ae [1], the latter rare; generally used before L, M, N, R, as Ehre $\bar{a} i \cdot r^{\prime} u$, compare Aehre $\bar{a} e \cdot r^{\prime} u$ or $\bar{a} i^{\prime} \cdot r^{\prime} u$.

EI is $e i$ taken as any that is $a n-\breve{e} e$, and the first element may be long; as rein r'aayn or r'ein. See [25].
EU is precisely the same as AEU, and may be always called oi as in North German, but is professedly $a a-\breve{u} e$ [4], and is often confused with AI or EI, as Eule oi-lu, or aaม̆e $\cdot l u$, often e $e \cdot l u$. See [25.]
$\mathbf{F}$ always $f$, but in some districts $f^{\prime}$ [15] after $p$.
FF always $f$ shortening preceding vowel, as Staffelei shtaaf elei.
G may be always called $g$ when at the beginning of syllables, or between two vowels, and $k$ when at the end of words. except in the syllable-ig, which may be called -ĕeky' $h$ [13] or - ĭyh. In the middle and South of Germany (that is, more generally) $G$ at the beginning of words is called $g$, and in the middle of words $g h$ [12] after $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{AU}$, and $g y^{\prime} h[14]$ after AE, E, I, EI, EU, AEU, R. $/$, but at the end of words $k h$, $k y^{\prime} h$ after these letters respectively, and lengthens the preceding vowel; as tag $t \vec{a} a k h$, or $t \bar{a} a k$, woge $v^{\prime} \bar{\partial} \cdot \imath g h u$, or $v \bar{a} a \cdot g u$, Zug $t s o ̄ o k h$, or tsöok; Säge $z \bar{a} e \cdot g y^{\prime} h u$, or $z \bar{a} i \cdot g u$; Siege $z \bar{e} e \cdot g y^{\prime} h u$, or $z \bar{e} \cdot \cdot g u$, feige $f e i \cdot g y^{\prime} h u$, or $f e i \cdot g u$, äugeln $o i \cdot g y^{\prime} h e l n$ or oi.geln.
GG is simple $g$, but shortens the preceding vowel, as Roggen $r^{\prime} a^{\prime} o g \cdot{ }^{\prime}$,
H before a vowel $h$ [24], as heiser hei zer', except in TH, which see; after a vowel, mute, lengthening the vowel. See AH, EH, IH, OH, UH.
I is long and short ee (and short $i$ in North of Germany, so that short $i$ may always be used in place of the more difficult short ee), as Ver-giss-mein-nicht fer'gĕes'-mein-nĕeky'ht, or fer'$g$ ı̆ $\cdot$ - mein -nı̆yht.
IE is long ee, except when final in a few foreign words where it is $\check{e} e-u$, or $y u$, as Liebe $l \bar{e} e \cdot b u$, Lilio lēe lĕèe-ü, or lēel $y u$.
IH is long ee, as in ihnen ēe nen.
J is y; in German Gothic print the capitals I J are not distinguished.
$K$ is $k$; avoid middle German pronunciation of K , as $k$ - $h$. when beginning a syllable, as komm $k$-hăom, and say $k a ̆ a m$ or kŏm.
L is $l$, as Lüge luevegy'hu or, intelligibly, lee $g u$.
LL is $l$, but shortens preceding vowel as lallen ăal
if is $m$, as Mutter mŏot er '.

MM is $m$, but shortens preceding vowel as kämmen $k a ̆ e m \cdot e n ~ o r ~ k e ̆ m ' e n . ~$
$\mathbf{N}$ is $n$ except before K, when it sounds $n g$, as drinnen drěen•en or drïn'en, drinken drĕengk•en or dringle en.
NG is always $n g$, as in English 'long,' and never $n g-g$ as English ' longer': thus, lang länger, lăang lăeng'er', or lëng'er', not lăeng'ger', o1 lĕng•ger.' Final NG is sometimes erroneously called $n g k$, as lang, lăangk.
0 is long oa and short ao [3], or short o (heard in North Germany), which may therefore always be used in place of the more difficult short ao, as grosze grōa $\cdot$ see, Ochs $\breve{a}$ oks, or ǒks.
$\ddot{0}$ when long is eo [5], and when short oe [6], but may be called $a i$ when long and $\breve{a} e$ (or $\breve{e}$ ) when short, as these are common vulgar pronunciations; thus, 'gröszer' properly grēo ser', vulgarly
 $k a ̆ e n \cdot t u$ or kĕn $\operatorname{tu}$.
$\mathbf{O E}$, $\boldsymbol{E}$ the same as O, usually employed in names as Goethe Gēo ${ }^{\prime} t u$ (vulgarly Gāi$\cdot t u$ like English 'gaiter').
$\mathbf{O H}$ is long oa as ohne oa nu.
00 is long oa as Boot boa•t (never 00).
$\mathbf{P}$ is $p$ as Pass păas. Confused with $\mathbf{B}$ in Saxony, PF properly $p f^{\prime}$ [15], may be called $p f$ (never simple $f$ ), as Pfaffe $p f^{\prime}$ ăaf $u$ or $p f^{\prime a} a f \cdot u$, never făaf $u$.
PP is $p$, but shortens preceding vowel as Pappe păap' $u$.
QU is $k v$ ' [16], and may be called $k v$, but must never be called $k w$, Quelle $k v^{\prime}$ ăel $\cdot u$ or $k v e ̌ l \cdot u$ (never kwĕl'u as in English 'queller').
$\mathbf{R}$ is properly $r^{\prime},[23]$ with the tip of the tongue trilled, but is frequently made by trilling the uvula, a practice condemned by those who follow it. This $r$ ' never forms a diphthong with the preceding vowel, as in English eer, air, oar, oor, and $u i$, oa often occur before it, as Lehre lāi$\cdot{ }^{\prime} r^{\prime} u$, as well as short vowels, as sterben shtăer'ben or

$\mathbf{R R}$ is $r^{\prime}$, shortening the preceding vowel, as Pfarrer $p f^{\prime} \breve{a} a r^{\prime} \cdot e r^{\prime}$.
S at the beginning of a syllable, before a vowel or between two vowels is always $z$ (never $s$ ); at the ond of a syllable it is always $s$. In

German Gothic types, and sometimes in Roman types, a long f is used in the first two cases, and a short $s$ in the second: Ex. faufelu zoi zeln, genas genäa•s. See $s p, s s, s t, s z$.
SCH is always $s h$, and often shortens the preceding vowel, as rasch răash, schütteln shüet eln or shĭt eln.
SP at the beginning of a syllable is most generally called $s h p$, as spiel shpēe $\cdot l$, but in Hanover it is called $s p$, as spēel. See p. $190 b$ (5).
SS is $s$, and shortens the preceding vowel, as küssen kües'en or kǐs $\cdot n$, unless in German Roman types it is used for SZ, which see. In German Gothic types SZ is often used for SS at the end of words and before consonants (never before vowels) as 'nusz' for 'nuss' nŏos.
ST at the beginning of a syllable is most generally called sht as stehen shtāien or shtāin, but in Hanover it is called st. At the end of a syllable it is always st as ist ĕest, or ist, and never sht. See p. 1906 (5).
SZ is always s. and lengthens the preceding vowel, except when in German Gothic types it is used for SS, as is common at the end of words or before consonants. In German Roman types SS is often used for SZ , and when this is done, SZ is not used at all. Compare 'Flusz Flüsze' with 'Nuss Nüsse' that is $f \overline{\text { öos }}$ flüe's ee or fiè'see, with nơos nŭes'u or ň̌s'u.
$\mathbf{T}$ is $t$ with the tongue nearer the upper gums than for English $t$ [22]. In Saxony it is confused with D.
TH is $t$ lengthening the following vowel as That $t \bar{a} a t$ (never $t h$ or $d h$ ). See H.
TSCH is $c h$, that is $t s h$, used at the end of words, as Deutsch doich or doitsh.
TZ is $t s$, used at the end of a syllable after a short vowel (but the T is frequently omitted), as nutz nŏots.
TZSCH is ch, and is sometimes used at the end of words, as Retzsch Răech or Rětsh (like "wretch").
U is long and short oo, but short uo may be said, as Putz păots or pŭots.
$\ddot{\mathrm{U}}$ is long and short ue [4], but may be called long and short ee, or ee long and $i$ short, as this is a vulgar pronunciation known all over

Germany ; thus, 'Müller' properly Mŭel 'er', very often Mĕel•er' or Miller' never Mul'u, Möo $\cdot l u$, Meu•lu, as English people barbarously pronounce Prof. Max Müller's name.
UE is often used as the capital form of Ü.
UH is long oo, as Uhlan Oöläa n.
UJ is sometimes used as a capital form of $\ddot{U}$ in Austria.
$\mathbf{V}$ is by some German theorists called $f^{\prime}$ [15], but is most usually $f$ (never $v$ ), as von făon or fŏn (never vŏn). Those Germans who call W $v$, [16], have the greatest difficulty in pronouncing a true $v$.
W is $v^{\prime}$ [16] throughout the middle and South of Germany. German theorists declare that $v$ is always used in the North (though the present writer has never found a German who knew the sound of $v$ ), and hence Englishmen may always use this easier $v$ (but never $w$ ), as wer weisz $v^{\prime} \bar{a} e r^{\prime}, v^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} i s$ or $v \bar{a} e r^{\prime}$ veis (väer', may be called vairr', as in English 'vary' vai $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ' ).
$\mathbf{X}$ is $k s$, but only occurs in non-German words.
$\mathbf{Y}$ is always considered as a vowel, and to be, in the older German dipthhongs AY, EY, another form of I. In later spelling AI, EI are used, and Y is confincd to non-German words, being called long and short ee.
$\mathbf{Z}$ is always $t s$ [19], never $d z$ [20] or simple $z$, very common at the beginning of syllables as

ZSCH is ch, often used at the beginning of words, as Zschokke Chăok $\cdot u$, or Chŏk $\cdot u$, Tshŏk $k \cdot u$.
German words generally receive the accent on the root syllable of native words, and on the last syllable of those taken from French and Latin.

Example of difficulties : Ach! eine einzige üble feurige Mücke könnte wohl auch mich böse machen, was mir unendlich leid thäte. Aakh! ei'nŭ ei'n-tsĕegy'hŭ ū̀ blŭ foi'r'ĕegy'hu mŭek ŭ köen'tŭ v'ŏal oukh mĕeky'h bōe'zu măakh en, v'ăas
 be intelligible if mispronounced; Aakh ! ei nu ei'ntsigu èe 'blu foi'r'ign mik'u ken'tu voal ouhk miyh bai:zu măalkhnn, văas mëer' oon-en dliyh leit $t \bar{a} i \cdot t u$. (Ah!a single evil fiery gnat might indeed even me angry make, which to me infinite sorrow would do). See German Songs, pp. 217-224.

## II. ALPHABETICAL KEY TO ITALIAN PRONUNCIATION.

Italian (or properly, Tuscan), may be pronounced intelligibly without introducing a single unusual English sound by simply using e for ae, o or au for $a 0, l y$ for $l y^{\prime}$, and $n y$ for $n y^{\prime}$. For more correct speaking, study the vowels ae [1], on p. 193;a0, [3]; the consonants $l y^{\prime}[17], n y^{\prime}$ [18], and the consonantal diphthongs $t s, d z[19,20]$. Observe also the cautions [21, 23, 25].
Italian vowels are generally shorter than English long, and longer than English short vowels. They have precisely the same sound whether long or short, and any one may be made long in singing. Observe also that double consonants in Italian should be pronounced twice, to imitate the peculiar energy which they receive and which always distinguishes them from single consonants.
In the following Alphabet, Italics mark the pronunciation in Glossic.
A is aa middle length, as raro $r^{\prime} a a r^{\prime} r^{\prime} e a$, fatto faat toa, cassa kaas'saa. It is never indistinct, as final ' $a$ ' in English. Never allow an $r$ or $r$ ' to be heard after it. The preposition " $a$ " when before a consonant always runs on to it, and doubles it; thus, a lui aal-loo ee. Whenever a word ends in à, with the accent on it, the following consonant is also doubled in correct Tuscan.
B is $b$, never confused with $p$, as bardo baa $r^{\prime} \mathrm{r}^{\prime}$ oa.
BB is $b-b$, as if occurring in two words, as in English, Bab Ballads; as gabbia gaab•beeaa.
C before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}$, is $k$; and before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$ is $c h$, but when CE, CI, CIA, CIO immediately follow a vowel, the $t$ of ch -tsh is not so distinctly heard, so that to English cars the sound is nearly $s h$, but is really that modification of sh heard in prolonging the hiss of English hatch, fetch, as long as possible, but pure ch is better than pure sh. Ex., acerbo aach $\cdot a e r^{\prime} \cdot b o a$, face faa char.
CC before A, $0, \mathrm{U}$ is $k-k$, as if in two words, as English book-case; and before E, I is $t$-ch as English fat-cheese, as accendere aatchnen $\quad$ dair'ai, facce faat chai.

CCH, used only before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$, is $k-k$, like CO befcre $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}$.
CCI before A, O, U is $t-c h$, like CC before E, I, as braccia braat chaa, caccio kaut choa; etherwise it is $t$-chee, as abbracci aab-braat chee.
$\mathbf{C H}$, used only before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$, is $k$, as chiave kyaa vai, cheto kai'toa.
CHI before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}$, is nearly chy, chiodo kyao doa.
CI before A, O, U, is ch, simply (see C), as ciancia chaan $n \cdot \mathrm{chaa}$; before E it is always chy, as cielo chyae: loa, as cieco chyai $\cdot k o a$, ciechesco chyaikaeskoa, ciera chyai'r'a.
D is $d$ with the tip of the tongue against the roots of the teeth [22], is never confused with $t$, as date daa-toa.
DD is $d-d$, as in two English words, as made- $d$ ishes ; Ex., freddo fraid•doa.
$\mathbf{E}$ is sometimes ai [22] and sometimes ae [1], the former is called 'chiuso' kyoo zoa close, and the latter 'aperto' aapaer'toa open. The meaning of a word often depends on making this distinction of sound, which is not marked in spelling, and can be fully learned from a dictionary alone. The following rules (derived from Valentini) apply to numerous, very common cases, and should be studied by those who wish to pronounce Italian well.

Use ai (close e) in words ending like the following passEGGIO paas-said-joa, dEGNO dai ny'oa, civilMENTE cheeveelmain•tai (only when adverbs), aliMENTO aaleemain toa, burIESCO boor'lais'koa, caprETTO kaapr'ait-toa (only when diminutives), colpEVOLE koalpai voalai, bellEZZA bail-lait-tsaa, avERE avai'r'ai (only when verbs in ere long), and cedEI, cedEs, tEnne, prEse, crEbbe, \&c.; ; credEVA, cedESSI, credESSERO, \&c., chaidai ee, chaidai $\cdot$ tain $\cdot k a i$, pr'ai'zai, kr'aib•bai, \&c.; kr'aidai•vaa, chaidais•see, kraidais'sair'oa, \&c., in the past tenses of all verbs, in the monosyllables "me, te, se, ne, ce, ve, le, rè, tre, fe," \&c.; "che," and its compounds "porchè, benchè," called mai, tai, sai, nai, chai, vai, lai, r'ai, tr'ai, fai, kai, pair'kai',
bainkai in all unaccented syllables; and when E replaces a Latin I, as cetera chai tairaa, neve nai vai, pesce pai'shai, \&c. The adverb "e" meaning 'and' is also ai, but when occurring before a consonant doubles it, as e lui ail-loo ee; this is also the case for all words ending in -è in proper Tuscan.

Use ae (open $e$ ) in other words ending as bELLO bael:loa (with its inflections " bella, belli, belle"), dENTE daen'tai, semENZA saimaen $\cdot$ tsan, mestiERE maisteeae $\cdot r$ 'ai (not verbs', desidERIO daiseedae'r'eeoa, eccESSO ait-chaes'soa; generally when accented in the last syllable but Two and in the monosyllable è ae, meaning 'is';
 ©, as bene bae'nai, mesto maes'toa.
F is $f$, as ferro faer 'r'oa.
FF is $f-f$, the hiss of $f$ prolonged, and somewhat relaxed in the middle, as in English sti.ff-foot. Ex., affatto aaf-faat toa.
G before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}$ is $g$; before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$ is $j$, as gara gaa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'aa, gorgo goa'r'goa, guscio goo shoa; gesto jaes'toa, gigante jeegaan'tai.
GG before A, O, U is $g-g$, as in English big-goat; before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$ is $d-j$, as in English bad jest; as distraggo deestr'aag'goa, fuggono foog'goanoa.
GGH, only used before E, I, is $g-g$, as in English big geese, as sogghigno soag-gee'ny'oa [18].
GGI not before a vowel is $d$-jee, as oggi aod'jee [3]; before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}, d-j$ as scheggia skaid $j a a_{\text {. }}$
GH, only used before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$, is simple $g$, as piaghe pyaa gai, laghi laa'gee.
GHI before A, E, O is almost $g y$, but the vowel $e e$ is more distinctly heard, as it were gěe, as ghiaccio gyaat choa, ghiozzo gyaot tsoa [3].
GI not before a vowel is jee; before A, O, U, is $j$, as giacere jaachair'ai, Giacomo Jaa koamoa, giugno joo ny'oa.
GL before A, O, U is always $g l$; before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$, it is $g l$ in the following words only : gleba glae baa [1], Egle Ai'glai, glenoide glainao•eedai [3], negligere naiglee'jair'ai, negletto naiglaet'toa, glifo glee'foa, gliconico gleekao $n$ neekoa, glittografia gleet'toagr'aafee'aa, gleet'toagraa'feekoa, anglico aang'gleekoa; before I in aLL other words it is $l y$ ' [17], or nearly $l y$, as gli $l y^{\prime} e e$, quegli kwai'ly'ee, scogli skao ly'se, cespugli chaispoo ly'ee.
GLI before A, E, O, U is always $l y^{\prime}$ [17], or nearly
ly, as paglia paa•ly'aa, aglio aa•ly'oa, figliuecio fee-ly'oot choa, dagliene dan $\cdot l y$ 'ainai.
GN is always $n y^{\prime}$ [18], or nearly $n y$, never $g n$; as gnocco my'aok•koa, bisogno beezao 'ny'oa, pugni poo'ny'ee.
GU not before a vowel is goo, but before A, $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$, O, is almost $g w$, the vowel being rather more distinctly heard, as it were gŏn, as guai gwaa ee, sangue saang'gwai, tregua trae gwaa.
$H$ is never pronounced as $h$; it is now used only in the combinations CH, GH, which see. When formerly written before vowels as 'ho hai, ha, havere,' it was entirely mute ; these words are now written ' $\grave{o}$, ai, à, avere', and read ao, aa'ee aa, aavai'rai.
I is always ee, except in the combinations CI, GI, CHI, GHI, which see, and generally before vowels, where it is $y$, or nearly ěe. Final -i makes the following consonant to be pronounced double in correct 'Tuscan.
J final stands for II, and is called ee-ee, as studj stoo-dee-ee. At the beginning of words it is written for I , and pronounced nearly as $y$, but the vowel is more distinct, as if ěe, as jeri yae'ree.
$\mathbf{L}$ is always $l$, as lui loo $e e$, except in GL which see.
LL is always $l-l$, as in English soul-less, as ballo baal-loa.
$\mathbf{M}$ is always $m$, as mano maa noa.
MM is always $m-m$. as in English sham moans, as fiamma fyaam $\cdot m a$.
N is always $n$, except before C, G, followed by A , O , U, or before CH, GH, followed by E, I, in which cases it is $n g$, as vincere veen chair'ai, fingere feer:jair'ai, but bianchi byaang-kee, see NG, NGH.
NG before A, O, U is always $n g-g$, as in English "finger," as lungo loong'goa, but before E, I is always $n-j$, as piange pyaan $\cdot j a i$,
NGH only used before E, I is always $n g-g$ as in English "stronger," as lunghi loong'gee.
0 when close is oa (if anything rather more inclined to $u_{0}$ ), and when open is ao (or very nearly o or au, which may be used for it). As in case of E , (which see), the meaning often depends on the distinction, although it is not marked in spelling and can be fully learned from a dictionary alone. The following rules (also derived from Valentini) apply to numerous very common cases, and should be studied by those who wish to pronounce Italian well.

Use oa in words ending like the following:filatOJO fee-laatoa'yoa, biONDO byoan doa, buffONE bnof-foa $n a i$, cONTE koan ${ }^{\text {tai, amORE }}$ aamoar'r'ai (English people should especially note this case, as they are apt to say $u$-mau' $r^{\prime} i$, gelOSO jailon $\cdot s o n$, with their inflections; in all words where 0 replaces Latin U, and in all unaccented syllables.
Use $a o$ in words ending like the following :sciolto shaol-toa (unless they correspond to Latin -ULTUS, as volto voalitoa 'countenance'), glORIA glao'r'eean, oratORIO oar'aatao'r'eeoa; allORO aal-lao 'r'oa, confORTO koanfaor'toa, appOSTO axp-paos'toa, galeOTTO gaaiai-aot'toa, cagnOLO kaany'a $\dot{c}^{\cdot}$ loa; in all words where it follows $U$ in an accented syllable, as uomo wao moa (nearly); in all words ending in-ò (causing the following consonant to be doubled in pronunciation in correct Tuscan), as amò aamao ${ }^{\circ}$; in all words where it replaces Latin AU , as poco pao koa; and generally (by no means always), where it replaces Latin O, as moto mao toa, but voce voa chai.
$\mathbf{P}$ is always $p$, as pianta pyaan $\cdot$ taa.
PP is $p-p$ as in English slop-pail, as troppo traop ${ }^{\prime} p o a$.
QU is nearly $k w$, but the vowel is more distinct, almost koo, as quale kwaa lai, or more nearly kŏoaa-lai.
R is always $r^{\prime}$, very strongly trilled, even before a consonant, even more strongly than in Scotland, and always with the tip of the tongue, never with the uvula Carefully distinguish carne kaar' $n a i$ ' meat,' from cane kaa'nai 'dog.'
S has two sounds $s$ and $z$, the $s$ is a very sharp pure hiss, but the $z$ has the voice held only for a short time, and either rapidly falls into a gentle $s$, as in English 'that's his!' dhats hizs, or at the beginning of words begins with a gentle $s$.

Use $s$ at the beginning of a word before vowels, and the sounds $k, f, t$, and in the middle of words after the sounds of $l, m, n, r^{\prime}$, sano $s a a \cdot-$ noa; scala skaa•laa, schermo skair'moa sfinge sfeen $\cdot \mathrm{jai}$, spillo speel loa, squama skwaarmaa, stelo stai-loa; polso poal•soa, censura chainsoo'r'aa, verso vaer'soa; also in words ending like amorOSO aamoar'oa'soa, bramoSIA braamoasee $a a$, animosità an neemoa seetaa ; in the past tenses in -esi, -ese, -esero, and after the prefixes di-, ri-, corresponding to Latin de-, re--

Use $z$ (very short or nearly $s z$ ) at the begin-
ning of a word before the sounds $b, d, g, v$, or ?, $m, n, r^{\prime}$, as sbaglio $s z b a a \cdot l y^{\prime} o n$, sdegno $s z d a i^{\prime} \cdot n y^{\prime} o a$, sgarbo szganr'boa, svanire szvaanee 'r'ai, smorto szmaor'toa, snello sznael-loa, sradicare szraa-deekaarai ; and $z$ (nearly $z s$ ) between two vowels (except as before), as rosa raoz $\cdot s a$, esatto aizaat•toa, spasimo spaaz'seemoa, esito aez'seetoa; and simple $z$ short, in the prefixes 'dis-, mis-, before a vowel, or the sounds of $l, d, g, v$, or $l, m$, $n, r^{\prime}$, as disonore deez-oanoa $\cdot$ rai, dis-detta deezdait'taa, disgrazia deez-graa'tsiaa.
SS is $s-s$ as in English mis-sent, as assenza aassaen'tsaa.
SC before A, O, U, is simply $s k$, but before E, I, it is a very strongly pronounced sh, as scena shacnaa, pesci pai shee.
SCI before A, O, U, a very strongly pronounced sh, as sciocco shoak: $k a$, cresciuto kraishoo toa.
$\mathbf{T}$ is $t$ with the tip of the tongue against the roots of the teeth, see D, as tasto taa stoa.
TT is $t$ - $t$ as in English boot-tree, as fatto faat toa, quite different from fato faa-toa.
U before a consonant, simple oo, as uno Unno oo noa Oon•noa; before a vowel nearly $w$, but the vowel sound it is more distinct, nearly ŏo; after a vowel it is short and slurred on to it, so as to be counted as a diphthong, but sometimes forms a distinct syllable as : uovo wao voa, Laura Laaŏo'-r'aa, paura paa-oor'aa. See pp. 47a, 49a.
V is $v$, never $f$, as in vico vee koa.
VV is $v-v$, as in English I've vowed, as avvi aav'vee.
$\mathbf{Z}$ is either $t s$ [19] or $d z$ [20], and ZZ is either $t$ - $t s$ or $d-d z$. The $t s$ sounds are far the most frequent. About 100 words, which must be learned from a dictionary, take $d z$; of these the most frequent are:-manzo maan $\cdot d z o a$, garzone gaar'dzoa'nai, amazzone anmaad-dzoa'nai, azzurro $a a d-d z o o r ' r r^{\prime} o a$, brezza braed•dzaa, bizzarro beeddzaar' $r$ 'oa, bozzo baod dzoa, caprezzo knapraid'dzoa, dozzina doad-dzee-naa, gazza gaad dzaa, gazzetta gaad-dzait taa, lazzarone laad-dzaaroa nai, mezzo maed dzoa, pozzo paod'dzoa 'a hill,' poat'tsoa ' a well,' razzo raad'dzoa, rozzo road'dzoa.
No rules can be given for the place of the accent (when not written by a grave accent on the last syllable). In singing the musical accent marks it sufficiently.
Most of the preceding rules and examples have been adapted from F. Valentini's Gruencliche Lehre der italienischen Aussprache, Berlin, 1884.

## Ecclesiastical Latin,

Or that used in Masses and Mediæval Hymns, must be treated precisely like Italian. The classical pronunciation of Latin, from one century before to one century after Christ, differed materially from Italian, but much more materially from the pronunciation which till very recently was prevalent in all, and is still prevalent in most, English classical schools. The classical pronunciation of the vowels and consonants was probably the same as the pronunciation of Italian, except as regards the letters H, C, G, and occasionally Y, Z. The $H$ was probably always pronounced as $h$ in classical Latin, except in the combinations $\mathrm{CH}, \mathrm{GH}$, PH, RH, TH, where it was usnally omitted, so that these combinations sounded as $k, g, p, r, t$. Occasionally, however, purists may have pronounced them as $k-h, g-h, p-h, r-h, t-h$. The $\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{G}$ were always $k, g$. The principal distinction between classical and mediæval Italian pronunciation lay in the strict observance of long and short vowels, and long and short syllables (p. 103a), by the ancients, and in their use of a musical pitch accent (p. 104a). Those who wish to enter upon a consideration of these points are referred to my practical "Hints on the Quantitative Pronunciation of Latin, for the use of Classical Teachers and Linguists" (132 pp., Macmillan, 1874). But the singer has no concern with them. From the end of the third century A.D. the distinction of long and short vowels was lost in Latin, and the pitch accent had sunk to the ordinary English and Italian force accent (p. 104b), the only remnants of the old pronunciation being the sounds of the letters and the position of the stress. This position requires even now a knowledge of the laws of quantity to fix, but it occasions no trouble to the singer, because it has been already fixed for him by the music. In the following examples of words, and in the Stābat Mäter, hereafter given at length, the long vowels, which are not usually marked in our present Latin orthography (itself modern) will be marked by doubling the initial capital, or by $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{i}, \bar{o}, \bar{u}$. They probably sounded as $\bar{a} a, \bar{a} e, \bar{e} e$, $\bar{a} o$, $\bar{o} o$, and always formed long syllables. Other vowels are short, but if they are followed by two consonauts in the same word, or one in one and the next in the following word, they formed long syllables. The old versification depended entirely upon these long syllables. The modern ecclesiastical verse depends entirely on strong and weak syllables like English. In old verse there were
confluent vowels, as in Italian (see introduction to Section XV) and this confluent character also referred to words ending in $m$, which was never pronvunced before a vowel beginning the next word. In ecclesiastical Latin there were no confluent vowels, and final $m$ was regularly pronounced. Double consonants must be distinctly pronounced twice, as in Italian.

In the following Alphabetical Key, italics mark the pronunciation to be adopted, in Glossic characters. The old length of the vowels is marked in all Latin words, and the length of $\bar{a} a \breve{a} a, \bar{a} e ~ \breve{a} e$, $\bar{e} e, \breve{e} e, \bar{a} o \breve{a} o, \bar{o} o, \check{o} \circ$, which may be used in singing ecclesiastical Latin, is also marked for convenience. No use is made of the substitute vowels $\bar{a} i \stackrel{e}{e}, \bar{e} e \breve{r}$, $\bar{o} a \check{o}, \bar{o} o$ й $o$, which are more convenient for English organs. The pronunciation usually adopted in English schools for the examples, is subjoined for contrast and avoidance.
A long or short, $\overline{\tilde{c}} a, \vec{a} a$, never $a i, a$, never indistinct;
 (not rair $\cdot r^{\prime} u s$, fak $\quad$ tum, fai tu, as in English schools).
AE, $\mathbb{E}$, long, $\bar{a} e$, aetās $\bar{a} e \cdot t \bar{a} a s$, aestīvus $\bar{a} e s t e \bar{e} e \cdot v o ̆ o s, ~$ mūsae mōo'sāe (not ee tas, estei vus, meu $\cdot z i$, as in English schools). If $\vec{a} e$ is found difficult, $a i$ may be used, but there must be no suspicion of the vanish $a i \cdot y$.
AU as aaw, that is, as aaŏŏ, audīvī aawdèe vèe (not audeivei, as in English schools).
B, always $b$, bacca $b a ̆ a k \cdot k a ̆ a$, abiēs $a a \cdot b$ ěe-āes (the original short $a$ - becoming long under the accent), abjectus ăabyăek tobos (not bak $\cdot u$, $a b \cdot i e e z$, abjek tus, as in English schools). There is ar old custom of pronouncing the prefix ob- as aop- before $t$ and $s$, which may or may not be followed, as obtinuit ăoptēe $\cdot$ noั̃o-eet or ăobtēe. nŏo-ĕet (not obtin $\cdot$ euit as in English schools).
BB always $b b$, subbibō sŏob bĕebāo (not sub $\quad$ iboa as in English schools).
C, before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{L}$ (not before $\mathrm{AE}, \mathrm{OE}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{Y}$, as $k$, canō, cānō $k \bar{a} a \cdot n \bar{a} o$ (ecclesiastical pronunciation does not distinguish these words), collum $k a ̆ o l \cdot l o ̆ o m, ~ c u r s u s ~ k o ̆ o r ' s o ̆ o s, ~ c r i ̄ n i s ~ k r ' e e \cdot n e ̆ e s, ~$ clāmō klāa $\cdot$ mao (not kai noa, kol $\cdot$ um, ker•sus, kr'ei•nis, klai•moa, as in English schools).
C before ae of, e, i, y, but not in the final syllables -cio, cius, always ch, as Cæsar Chäe 'sŭar', coena chñe $\cdot n a ̆ a$, cedo chāe $\cdot d \bar{a} o$, circumcisus chĕer'.-
kŏomchē' sŏos, cynicus chēe'nĕekŏos (not See'zer, see $\cdot n u$, see $\cdot d o a$, ser" $k$ kumsei $\cdot$ sus, sin $\curvearrowleft i k u s$, as in English schools).
C before-10, -ivs, \&c., see also $\mathbf{T}$ before these combinations, ts, jaciō yāa $t s e \check{e} e-a o$, conciō, contiō $k a ̆ o n \cdot t s i \bar{a} o$ (not jai $\cdot s h i o a, k o n \cdot s h i o a$ as in English schools).
CC before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{v}, \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{x}$, as $k-k$, before $\mathrm{AE} \cap \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{Y}$ as $t$-ch, before -ro, \&c., as $t-t s$, sacculus säak.-
 ăak-kr'äe'vēe, acclā̀mō ăak-klāa $\quad$ māo, accendo ăat-chăen $\cdot d \bar{d} o$, occisōs $a ̆ o t-c h \bar{e} e \cdot s \bar{a} o s$, Accius, Attius Aăt $\cdot$ tsěe-ŏos (not sak• $\cdot u l u s$, ok•oa, okul'tee, akr'eevei, aklai moa, aksen $\cdot d o a$, oksei $\cdot$ soas, $A k \cdot s i u s$ or At ${ }^{\text {inus, as }}$ in English schools).
CH as simple $k$ (never ch), as chorus kāo rŏos, Bacchus Băak•kŏos (not kau•rus, Bak ws, as in English schools).
D as d, dō dāo, ad ăad (not doa, ad, as in English schools).
תD as $d$-d, addō $\check{a} a d \cdot d \bar{a} o$ (not $a d \cdot o a$, as in English schools).
E long and short, as $\bar{a} e$, $\breve{e}$; but if these sounds are found difficult, ai, e may be used, provided there is no suspicion of the vanish aiy, et ${ }_{a} e t$,
 $k \bar{a} a \cdot r \breve{a} e$ (not ee'shiam, ee jaa, ev'oakair ri, as in English schools).
EI, if found, must be treated as I; but it is only an ancient form.
EU, as aew, that is, aeŏŏ; Eurōpa Aewrāo pă (not Euroa pu, as in English schools).
F as $f$, ferō fā̃'rāo, lūcifer lōo 'chëefăer' (not feerroa, leu'sifer, as in English schools).
 of $u$, of isei $n u$, as in English schools).
G before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{L}$ (not before $\mathrm{AB}, \mathrm{OE}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{y}$ ) as g; gaudium gaaw•dĕe-ŏom, gāvisus găavēe'sŏos,

 bioa, geu $\cdot l u$, gr'ai $\cdot$ 'shiu, glau' $r^{\prime} i u$, as in English schools).
G before $\mathrm{AE}, \mathrm{ox}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{x}$, as $j$, gerō $j \bar{j} e^{\cdot} r \bar{a} o$, gibbus jëeb 'bŏos, gỳrus jëer $r$ 'ŏos (not jeer $\cdot r^{\prime} o a$, jib'us, jeir'r'us, as in English schools).
GG before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{L}$, as $g-g$; before $\mathrm{AE}, \mathrm{OE}, \mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{Y}$ as $d-j$, as aggregāvi ăag cgr'ăegāa $\cdot v \bar{e} e$, agger ăad'jäer' (not ag'r'igai'vei, aj•er, as in English schools).

GH, if found, is simple $g$.
H before vowels, $h$; after consonants in the same syllable, omitted; habeō haa $b \breve{a} e-\bar{a} o$, mihi mēe $h e ̆ e$ hūjus hōo yŏos (not hai bioa, mei'ei or mei hei, heu jus, as in English schools).
I, long and short, $\bar{e} e$, $\breve{e}$, but if $\breve{e} e$ is found too difflcult, $i$ may be used: ire $\bar{e} e \cdot r ' a ̆ e$, exitus
 klei vei, as in English schools).
J, a mediæval letter, introduced to replace I when it acted as a consonant, always $y$, as Jānus
 jūcunditās yŏokŏon•dĕetāas, jüdicium yŏodēe $e$ -tsĕe-ŏom (not Jai•nus, jїjeu•nus, joa $\cdot k u s$, jeukunditas, jeudish $\cdot \mathrm{ium}$, as in English schools .
K, always $k$, but not used except in one or two
 in English schools).
L, always $l$, laetüs lāe 'tơos (not lee'tus, as in English schools).
LL, always $l-l$, as illaudātus ĕel-laawdāa $\cdot$ tŏos (not ilaudai•tus, as in English schools).
$\mathbf{M}$, always $m$, even when final, as mēcum māe $\cdot k$ ŏom (not mee kum, as in English schools).
MM, always $m m$, as immūnis ĕem-mōo•nĕes, gemma jäem•măa (not imew nis, jem $u$, as in English schools).
$\mathbf{N}$, always $n$ except before $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{G}$, when these have the sound of $k, g$, in which case it becomes $n g$ : nam năam, nānìs nāa'nēes, junctus yŏongk'tơos, jungo y̆̆ong'gao, but jungere yŏon'jăer'ae (not nam, nai $\cdot n i s$, jungk'tus, jung'goa, jun'jur'i, as in English schools).
NN, always $n-n$, as Cannae Kăan $n \cdot n \bar{e} e$ ( $n$ ot $K a n \cdot i$, like "canny," as in English schools).
$\mathbf{0}$, long and short, always $\bar{a} o, \breve{a} 0$, but those who find these sounds too difficult may say $\bar{o} a, \check{o}$, without, however, any suspicion of the vanish
 (these, of course, are medirval mispronunciations), obolum $\bar{a} \cdot \cdot b a o l o ̆ o m ~(n o t ~ o a \cdot v u m, ~ o a \cdot v i s, ~$ ob•oalum, as in English schools).
$\mathbf{O E}, \boldsymbol{E}$, often interchanges with $\mathrm{AE}, \mathbb{F}$, and has the same sound: Camoenae, Camaenae; or Camenae Kăamāe $\cdot n \bar{e} e$ (not Kumèe $n i$, as in English schools).
P, always $p$, pater $p \bar{a} a \cdot t a ̆ e r r^{\prime}$, Appius $A \breve{a} p-p \check{e} e=0$ öos (not pai ter, $A p$ pius, as in English schools).

PH , əither simply $p$, or $p-h$; but $f$, which came in later, may be also used in words from the Greek, thus Philippus Pĕelĕep• pŏos or Fॅॅelĕep•pŏos, but triumphätự̂ं trēe ocompāa tŏos or $-p-h \bar{a} a \cdot$ - (not Filip $\cdot u s$, trei umfai tus, as in English schools).
PP, always $p-p$, as mappa măap păa (not map $\cdot u$, as in English schools).
QU, always kŏo- or $k w$ - as in Italian: quantum kwăan'tŏom (not kwon'tum, as in English schools).
$\mathbf{R}$, always $r^{\prime}$ very strongly trilled, as in Italian, as mare $m \bar{a} a \cdot r^{\prime} \breve{a} e$, marceo măar' $\cdot \mathrm{chă} e-\bar{o} a$, servo $s \bar{a} e r^{\prime} \cdot$ vōa (not mair $r^{\prime}$ ', maa $\operatorname{shioa,~ser'voa,~as~in~English~}$ schools).
RH, simply $r^{\prime}$, as Rhēnus $R^{\prime} \bar{u} e^{\cdot}$ nŏos (not $R \bar{e} e^{\prime} n u s$, as in English schools).
RR, very distinctly doubled as in Italian $r^{\prime}-r^{\prime}$ : terris tăer'• $r^{\prime} \bar{e} e s$ (not ter'-is, as in English schools).
S, always $s$, never $z$, or $s h$, or $z h$ : avēs $\bar{a} a \cdot v \bar{e} e s$, mūsās mōo $\cdot s \bar{a} a s$, vōs väos, nostrōs năos'tr'āos, opposuit ăop-pao'sŏo-ĕet, repositōrium rěepäo ${ }^{\circ}$ sĕe$t \bar{a} o \cdot r ' e ̆ e-o ̆ o m, ~ o c c a ̄ s i o ~ \breve{a} o k-k \bar{a} a \cdot s e ̆ e-\bar{a} o$, mentior măen'tĕe-ăor' (not ai vēez, mew'zas, voa $\cdot s$, nos $\cdot t r^{\prime} o a s$, opozh•euit, ripoz'itau•rium, okai•zhioa, men•shiaur, as in English schools).
SC, before A, O, U, R, L, simply sk; before AE, OE, E, I, Y, a strong sh: scapulae skāa pŏolāe, scēna shäe $\cdot n a ̆ a ~(n o t ~ s k a p \cdot e u l i, ~ s e e \cdot n u, ~ a s ~ i n ~ E n g l i s h ~$ schools). The old pronunciation was always sk.
SCH, always sk: schola sk $\bar{a} o \cdot l a ̆ a$, schema skāe $\cdot m a ̆ a$ (not skoa• lu, skee $m u$, as in English schools).
SS, distinctly $s-s$, as missus mĕes'sŏos (not mis'us as in English schools).
$\mathbf{T}$, always $t$, except in the terminations -tius, $-t i \overline{0}$, \&c., where it becomes ts: tōtālitās toātäa•lěetāas, nuntiāre nŏon-tsĕe-āa $\cdot r a ̆ e$, ambitio $\breve{a} a m b \bar{e} e \cdot t s e ॅ e-\bar{a} o$ (not toatal itas, nunshiair $r^{\prime} i$, ambish $\cdot i o a$, as in English schools).

TH, always $t$, the Italians cannot pronounce th: theătrō tăe- $\bar{a} a \cdot t r \bar{a} o$, thēsaurus tăesaaw $r^{\prime}$ ŏos (not thiai'troa, thisau•rus, as in English schools).

TT, a distinct $t$ - $t$, attulit $\breve{a} a t \cdot t$ ŏolĕet (not at eulit or ach•eulit, as I have heard occasionally in English schools.

U, long or short, 00 , ŏo, or if this is too difficult, $\bar{o} o$, ưo, as mūtus mōo tŏos (not meu tus, as in English schools). This is a mediæval letter, introduced as the consonant of which $V$ was the vowel. In mediæval print and manuscript we generally find U for the consonant and V for the vowel, but in modern books the converse usage prevails.

V, always as English v, as vīvō vèe vāo (not vei voa, as in English schools). This was the original Latin letter, used for the vowel $\bar{o} o$ or ŏo (see U) and for the related consonant, which some consider to have had the sound of $w$, and others (with whom I agree) of $v^{\prime}$ (p. 64b).

W, not used in Latin, not a Latin letter ; if found in mediæval Latin, to be treated as V .

X, always $k s$, never $g z$ or $k s h$ : examen eksāa măen,
 many English schools.

Y, long and short, to be treated precisely like I, that is, as $\bar{e} e, \breve{e} e$, originally introduced to represent the sound of a Greek vowel, probably ue: Cy̆rus Chēe rŏos, Cybele Chēe băalae (not Seir r'us, Sib-ilee, as in English Schools).

Z, always $d z$ [20] as in the less usual Italian form, originally introduced to represent the sound of a Greek letter, the pronunciation of which is disputed.

## III. ALPHABETICAL KEY TO FRENCH PRONUNCIATION.

The French language offers great difficulties to an English speaker. It has six new non-nasal vowels, ae [1] of the explanations on p. 193, ah [2], ao [3], ue [4], eo [5], oe [6], and although a speaker would remain intelligible who confused ae with $e, a h$ with $a a, a o$ with $o$, and $o e$ with eo, he becomes very difficult to understand if he confuses $u e$ with either $e u$ or oo (the first is better than the last), or eo and oe with er (untrilled $r$ ). It is therefore absolutely necessary to acquire the sounds of ue and either eo or oe. French has four nasal vowels, utterly unlike any English sounds aen' [7], ahn' [8], oan' [9], and oen' [101. If these are called ang, ong, oang, ung, respectively, the result is supremely barbarous, but since the sound $n g$ does not occur in French, these sounds could not be mistaken for any others, and hence would bo more intelligible than an, on, oan, un. Observe the apostrophe after the $n^{\prime}$, which entirely alters its meaning in Glossic. Besides this, the frequent use of the sound of $z h$ (which we certainly know in English division, measure divizh $\cdot$ un mezh $\cdot u r$, but not at the beginning of words), occasions a difficulty. The consonant $n y^{\prime}$ [18] and the occasional initial $g z$, complete the list, so far as the mere analysis of sounds is concerned. But the method in which these sounds are connected into syllables, and the syllables into words, and words are run on to each other, is so different from anything we have in English, that no attempt can be made to describe it in the limited space which can here be allowed. Learners are recommended to study the meaning of some easy piece of French, so as to be familiar with the appearance of the words, and then to listen with the greatest attention while $\mathrm{i} \hat{u}$ is read out to them very many tomes by natives,
without thenselves attempting to imitate the sounds, till their ears are thoroughly familiar with them. By attempting to imitate too early and not listening sufficiently, pupils scarcely hear anything but their own failures, and generally pronounce wretchedly. No language is so badly pronounced by English school girls as the French they are made to talk to one another.
The orthography of the French language bears very little relation to its sound. It is best therefore to consult a French pronouncing dictionary. Tardy's Explanatory Pronouncing Dictionary of the French Language, edited by J. C. Tarver, London, with the pronunciation in French letters is out of print. The new and cheap edition of Nugent s Pocket French Dictionary, and Meadows's dearer French Dictionary, mark the pronunciation of French words in English letters, which may be interpreted by referring in them to words contained in the following key.

Many of the following rules and examples have been adapted from Le Phonngraphe ou la Prononciation Française rendue facile à tous les étrangers, par M. et Mlle. Thériat, Paris, 1857,-a valuable work ${ }^{\circ}$ of which the present writer has vainly endeavoured to procure a second copy. The following rules will therefore be found useful even to persons well accustomed to read French.
There is no strong accent in any French word thus, 'complete complète,' kŏmplèe't koan'plăet, have a totally different effect to English ears as regards accent. In the following examples no place of the accent will be marked, and the reader should try to make the syllables as even in force as possible, never exceeding the amount of difference heard in such English words as-White-
hall, turnpike, primrose, Redhill, breasthigh, retail, wholesale. See p. $106 a$.

When no quantity is marked the vowel may be of medium length, and made longer or shorter at the fancy of the speaker. When long and short marks are printed, long and short vowels must be spoken. These marks are generally put over the first letter of any combination as $\breve{a} e, \bar{u} e, \bar{a} e n '$, but in case of ĕo both letters have the short mark, to shew that extreme brevity has to be observed.
A generally $a a$, long or short, but frequently $a h$ before $S$ even when the $S$ is mute, as il parla ĕel păar'-laa, agenda aazhaen'daa, pasur pahsai, cassette kahsaet, pas pah. See the following coribinations.

A has the same value as A.
$\widehat{\mathbf{A}}$ is generally $a h$ [2], as lâche lahsh, but many Frenchmen always use aa.
AEN, not before a vowel, is ahn' [8,] as Caen Kahn' but before a vowel is aa or aan, as Caennais or Caenais Kaanāe.
AI is ae [1], as aise $\bar{a} e z$, semaine seomaen, irai-je eerāezh; EXCEPT 1) in gai gai, geai zhai, lait lai, mai mai, malaisé malaisément maalaizai maalaizäimahn, papegai paapzhai, quai kai, raisiné raizeenai, je, tu sais, il sait sāi , Toquai taokai, vaisselle vaisael, 2) in the beginning of words, but at the end of a syllable, when the next syllable does not begin with R, LL, as aisé aizai, 3) in verbs, as j'ai zhai, j'allai zhăallai.

AI is generally ae [1] long, as fraîche frāesh, gaîne $g \bar{a} e n$; except before N followed by any vowel but an unpronounced E , and even in that case if $L$ or $R$ follow the $E$, as chaîne chaînette shäen shäinaet, il enchaînera ahn'shäinr'ua.
$\dot{\mathrm{AI}}$ not before a vowel is $a n$-ee, as caïque $k a a-\check{e} e k$; before a vowel is almost $a a-y$ or $e i-y$, as aïeul $a a-y o e l$ [6], faïence $f a a-y a h n ' s$ or fei-yahn's.
AIE is 1) ae [1], when final as vraie vr' $\bar{a} e$, (Excert gaie gäi, la paie pae-ĕe, taie tae-če, and in the middle of words not being parts of verbs, as gaieté gāetai, 2) ae-ĕe final in verbs as je paie pae- $\breve{e} e$, que j'aie zhae-ĕe 3), ai- $\breve{e}$ e as a diphthong in the middle of substantives, as paiement pāiěemahn' 4), ai-ee as two syllables in the middle of verbs as je paierai pai-eer'ai.
AIENT 1) as the termination of the third person plural of the imperfect indicative and conditional
is $\bar{a} e$ [1], even in singing and in verse, as parlaient paar'lāe, 2), as the termination of the third person plural of the present indicative or subjunctive it is $a e-\breve{e} e$, as a diphthong in speaking, and ae-yeo in singing, as qu ils aient kĕelz$a e-e e$ or -ae-yeo.
AIL final or before $H, a a-e \breve{e}$ as a diphthong, or nearly ei, as travail traavaa-ĕe nearly traavei, but older speakers say aaly' [17]; in other cases it is AI-L.
AILL 1) before an unpronounced final E, ES, ENT is aa-ĕe as a diphthong, as medaille maidaa-ěe, Versailles Vaer'saa-ĕe, qu'ils travaillent kĕel traavaa-ĕe, in singing traa-vaa-yeo, \&c., 2), before any other vowel $a a-y$ or nearly $e i-y$ as vaillant vaa-yahn' nearly vei-yahn', faillir faayěer', nearly fei-yěer'. Older speakers say vaaly'ahn' faaly'ēer'.
AIM 1) before vowels AI-M, 2), otherwise aen' [7], as faim faen'.
AIN 1) before vowels AI-N, 2), otherwise aen' [7], as ainsi äen'see, les saints lae-süen'.
AM 1) before a vowel or $M$ is A-M, 2) otherwise $a h n^{\prime}$ [8], as Adam Aadahn', dam dahn', quidam keedahn', Samson Sahn'soan', EXCEPT damner $d \bar{a} a n a i$ and its derivatives.
AN 1) before a vowel or N is A-N, 2) otherwise $a h n '$ [8], as sans sahn'.
AON is 1) aa-nan' [9] in le fort de Laon Laa-oan', Pharaon faa-raa-oan', 2) oan' [9] in Saint-Laon Sāen-Loan', taon toan' or tahn', 3) ahn' [8] in Craon Krahn', faon $f a h n^{\prime}$, paon pahn', la ville de Laon Lahn', Saint-Haon Sāen'tahn', 4) aa before another $\mathbf{N}$, as Craonne Krăan, paonne păan, Laonnaise Laanāez.
AU is almost always $\bar{o} a$ [21], as autant $\overline{0} a t \bar{a} h n^{\prime}$, but sometimes ao [3], as Aurore Aor'aor'.
AW only found in found in foreign words is treated as AU.
AY is 1) aa-ee as a diphthong not before vowels in baye baa-厄̌e, Biscaye biskaa-ĕe, and na-y before vowels as Bayard Baayāar', Mayenne Maayaen, Cayenne Kaayaen, Lafayette Lafaayaet, payen paayaen', tayaut taayōa; 2) ae [1] in Douay Dwae, E'pernay Aipaer'nae, La Haye La Aē, \&c., 3) ae-ĕe as a diphthong, or ae-y before vowels, in je paye zheo pae-ĕe, layette laeyaet, and many words, 4) ai-ee in two syllables in pays pai-ee, paysanne pai-eezaan, abbaye aabai- $\bar{\varepsilon} e$

B, BB are generally $b$, as babil baabee, abbé, ăabai, Abbeville Aăbrěel; but B is not pronounced in plomb, aplomb. surplomb, ploan' [9], aaploan' suer'ploan', and Colomb koaloan', Lefebvre Leofaevrĕŏ.
C is 1) $k$ before consonants. and before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}$, except in cicogne seenaony' [18], prune de reine-claude glöad, czar gzāar' and its derivatives, second sengoan' and its derivatives; 2) and also $k$ when final, as bec baek, except in accroc nakroa, almanach aalmaanaa, banc bahn' [8], bec-jaune bai-zhōan, broc broa, clerc klaer', cric kree, échecs aishae, escroc aiskroa, estomac aistoamaa, franc fr'ahn' [8], instinct aen'staen' [7], jonc zhoan' [9], lacs lāh [2] 'nets,' Saint Marc Saen' Mäar' [7], pore pōar', tronc $t r{ }^{\prime} o \bar{o} n^{\prime}$; 3) s before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{Y}$, $\mathbb{A}, ~(E$, as ceux seo [5] , cieux sěe-ēo; 4) $s h$ in words taken from the Italian where they are pronounced ch, as vermicelle vaer'meeshael, violoncelle veeoaloan'shael [9].
$G$ only used before $\Lambda, O, \mathrm{U}$, is always $s$, as façon farsoan' [9).
CC is $k$ in places where the second C would be $k$, and $k s$ where the second C would be $s$, and $t$-sh in words from the Italian where they would be $t-c h$, as accord aakāor', accès anksāe [1], Piccini peet-sheenee.
CH is 1) $s h$ in all old French words, as chercher shaer'shai [1], 2) $k$ in most words taken recently from Latin, Greek, or modern languages, excrpt Reichstadt R'aish-stăad, punch pōan'sh [9], Chiron Sheer'oan' [9], chirurgie sheer'uer'zhee [4], and its derivatives, catéchisme kaataishĕezıneŏ [5]; drachme draagmĕŏ.
D is 1) a generally, as donner daonai, 2) unpronounced when final in the nasal terminations AND, END, OND, or when preceded by several vowels or by R, as grand grahn' [8], froid fr'waa, sourd soor', and in Madrid Maadree ; 3) $t$ when one of the words in (2) is run on to the following vowel, as grand homme grahn'-t-ăom [3], froid accueil frwaa-t-aak-oe-ĕe [6], but grande âme grahn'd-ahm [8, 2].
DD is 1) $d-d$ (as in bad ducks) after E , and in most foreign words, as reddition raed-dee-syoan' [9], Adda Aad-daa.
E 1) is very froquently not pronounced at all, and when pronounced may be eo or oe, for authorities differ ; Ex. Je vous aime mieux que lui, zheo [5] vooz-āem [1] myēo-k lǔue-ee [4], or zhvooz-
ūem; ce que je lui demande seo keo-zh lŭe-ee-n mahn'd; je ne le retrouve pas zheo-n leo-r' troov $p \bar{a} h$ [2], que je me répente keo zheo-m raipāhn't [8]. In all these cases it is fully pronounced as eo in singing, where it is never mute, and may be lengthened or have as much force on it as we please even in cases where it must be mute in speaking, with the sole exceptions of the termination AIENT, and of E ending a word which is run on to the following beginning with a vowel, as frère ainé fraer' [1] ainai. In poetry it counts for a syllable where it is pronounced in singing. The general rule in speaking is, " omit E when its omission will not bring three consonantal sounds together; otherwise sound it as eo." The complete study of all the cases is extremely embarrassing. Final-ble, -bre, -sme, \&c., must have ĕŏ [5] as aimable nimaablĕŏ, Septembre Saeptahn'brěó, rhumatisme ruemaatěesméŏ, and NEvFR as in English 'amiable, Septetnber, rheumatism.' 2) E is ae [1] before final consonant, followed or not by an unpronounced E , as belle bael, duel due-ăel, Joseph Zhoazăef, il est čel àe; except avec aavaik, clef klai; 3) E is ae also in the middle of a word before several consonants, ExCEPT ennui ahn'nŭe-ee $[8,4]$ solennel saolaanăel, indemnité aen'daamneetai [7].; 4) E is ai [21] in the verbal terminations ez, er, and many other cases, which cannot be here enumerated. (The rules for E occupy six royal octavo pages, in double column, with small print, in Thériat's book, of which the above is a very meagre abstract).
$\dot{\mathbf{E}}$ is 1) properly $a i$ [21], as bonté boan'tai, 2) $a \epsilon$ before a consonant, followed by unpronounced E or ěŏ, as collége kăolaezh, orfévre nor'faevrěŏ, 3 ) before the sound of $r$, in the middle of a word, as miséricorde mĕczăer'ĕekaor'd $[1,3], 4)$ ae $[1]$ in j'étais, étant zhaetāe aetahn', préteur praetōer', préture praetūer'.
$\mathbf{E}$ is 1) properly ae [1] as décès daisāe, brève brāev, 2) $a i$ before two consonantal sounds which can begin a syllable, as règlement raiglĕŏmahn' $[5,8]$, il lèchera ĕel laishraa.
$\hat{\mathbf{E}}$ is 1) properly $\bar{a} e$ [1] as guêpe $g \bar{a} e p$, prêt prāe, 2) ai [21] before MI, TI, TU, as blêmir blaimēer'. vêtir vaitēer', vêtu vaitue, and in the verbs fêler, gêner, mêler, fälai, zhāinai, māilai; when the next syllable has not an unpronounced $E$, and in some other cases.
EI is 1) ae [1] at the end of words, before a consonant and mute E , before any consonant but GN, M, N, in the middle of words, as neige
näezh, pleinement plāenmahn' [8], Abeilard Aabaelaar' $[1] ; 2$ ) ai [21] in other cases, as eider aidäer', peineux painōe [6], j'enseignersi zhahn'sainy'rai [8, 18.]
EIL final is $\bar{a}$-ě̌z forming a diphthong, as consèil koan'sue-ĕe [9], soleil saolae-ĕe, vieil vyae-ĕe.
EILL before E mute final, is ae-ĕe [1] forming a diphthong, but before any other vowel ai-y, as abeille aabae-ĕe, merveilleux maer'vaiyōe.
EIM not before a vowel is aen' [7] as Rheims Raen's.
EIN not before a vowel is aen' [7], as dessein daisaen'.
EM not before a vowel is 1) ahn' [8], as empire ahri'pēer', emménager ahn'mainaazhai, remmener rahn'mnai, except in sempiterne saen'peetaer'nael [7], and most foreign names, as Würtemberg Vuer'taen'bāer' $[4 \mid, 2$ ) aem [1] at the end of names as Jerusalem Zhairuezaalaem, and before $n$, as bélemnite bailaemneet, except indemnité aen'daamneetai, solemnel saolaanael, and its derivatives.
EN 1) generally $a h n^{\prime}$ [8], and when a vowel or $N$ follows $a h n^{\prime}-n$ as enflé $a h n ' f a i$, enivre ahn'neevr'ai, ennui $a h n '$ 'nue-ĕe, 2) occasionally aen' [7], especially in the syllables IEN, YEN, not before a vowel or N. as bien byaen', chrétien kr'aityaen', in the syllable PENTA, as pentateuch paen'taateok, pentagone paen'taagoan, appendice aapaen'dëes, précenteur praisaen'tōer [6]. Marengo Maaraen'goa, examen aigzaamaen', Mentor Maen'tāor, and many proper names, 4) it is aen [1] before NE, NENT mute, as chienne shyaen; 5) it is also often aen in foreign names and words, as amen aamaen, Beethoven Baitoavaen [German Bai•t-hoa•fen]; 6) sometimes aan, before $n$, as couenne kwaan, hennir aanēer, nenni naanee.
ENT in the third person plural of verbs is left unpronounced in reading, but sounds eo [5] is singing. See AIENT.
EU, 1) has two sounds eo [5] oe [6], but different orthoepists differ in their discrimination of the words possessing them; and Tarver does not distinguish them at all. It is safest for an Englishman to use oe short and eo long as in German; 2) EU is ue [4] in j'eus eu, ils eurent $z h u e$, ue, èelz-ūer, and in final GEURE, as gageure goazhūer'.
EUIL final, oe-ĕe as a diphthong, as fauteuil foatoe-ĕe [6].

F 1) almost always $f$, as un œuf sen' $n$ - $n$-ob $f[10,6$, un beuf oen' bŏef; 2) $v$ in NEUF (the numeral, not the adjective) before a vowel or mute, as neuf hommes noev-aom; 3) is mute in NEUF (the numeral) before a consonant, as neuf femmes noe fäam, also in le boeuf gras leo buegräa [5, 6], une clef uen klai [2], des clès dae klāai [1]; un chef.d'œuvre shai-doevrěŏ [5], un cerf, des cerfs säer', un nerf de boouf oen'nuer'deo bŏef, des nerfs due naer'; un œuf frais oen'-n-eo fräe, des ceufs frais $\bar{a} \bar{e} z-\bar{e} o-f r a ̄ e . ~$
FF is always $f$ simple, as difficile dॅॅef
G 1) before $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{O}, \mathrm{U}$, and before any consonant but $\mathrm{N}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{T}$, is $g$, as gage gaazh, fatigue faateeg, globe gluob [1], Eughien Ahn'gaen' [8,1]; 2) it is $g$ before $N$ at the beginning of a word, as gnomonique gnaomaoněek [3]; and in a few new, and chiefly technical words, the most usual being agnat aagnaa, stagnant staagnahn' ; 3) it is $g$ in foreign words ending in $g$, as whig wĕeg, bang bahn'g [8], pouding poodaen'g [7], and also in joug zhoog (but not in conversation unless a vowel follows) ; 4) it is $k$ in brig br'eĕk, bourg boor'k, except as a termination, as faubourg foaboor' ; 5) it is $z h$ before E, I, Y, as gêne zhāen; 6) it is unpronounced before $S$ and $T$, as sangsue sahn'sūe [8,4]; vingt väen't [7] (observe only quatre vingt $\mathfrak{k}$ ăatrěŏ vaen' without $t$ ); when final after a nasal vowel, as long loan' [9], poing pwaen' [7], and in the following words Clugny Khuenee, Compiègne Koan'pyaen, signet seenae, and a few other names
GG is $g$ before A, O, U, and $g z h$ before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}$, as aggraver aagr'navai, suggérer sŭegzhaer'ai.
GN is always $n y$ ' [18], except in the cases under $G$, Nos. 2 and 9, as signe sěeny'.
GUE final is $g$, as ligue lĕeg; but observe briguer breegai, droguer drogai, and arguer aar'gŭe ai [4].
GUI is generally gee ; but gue-ĕe [4] forming a diphthong in a few words as aiguille aigue-ěe, Guise Gue-ĕez, linguiste laen'que-ëest, ambiguité ahn'beegue-ěetai, aiguiser aigue-ěezai, inextinguible eenaekstaen'gue-ĕeblĕŏ.
$H$ is never pronounced in French, but, when the preceding vowel is not cut off before it, it is said to be aspiré aaspeer $i$, as la hauteur laa oatōer' [6] des haricots dūe aar'eekiōa, les homards lāe aomāar.
I is generally ee, but tetween two vorwels, or aftel a consonint in the same syllable it may be con sidered $y$. as chanteriez shahn'teor'yai [5].

IL after A, E, EU, CE, O, OU, has the same effect as simple I. See those combinations.
ILL in the middle of words, following A, E, EU, ©, OU , or any consonant, or CU, GU, QU, has the same effect as simple I ; that is. is ee or ěey, except in a few words. See those combinations.
ILLE final following any consonant except $V$, acts us simple I. and is called ee or ěey, as famille faamee, except in Achille, codicille, distille, instille, mille, tranquille, and a few other words where it is eel.

IM before B or P is aen' [7], as impossible aeri paosěebiĕŏ [5]; otherwise generally ĕem as immense ĕem-mahis [8].
I. not before a vowels. or ", is regularly aen' [7]. as bassin baasse \%', instinct nen'staen' ; otherwise generally ĕen colline krouĕe :. iunocent ĕenaosahn' [8].
$J$ is always $z h$, as in juste $z h \check{u} \rho s t$, and never unpronounced.
K is always $k$, but is only used in foreign words.
$L$ is generally $l$, but is unpronounced in the terminations -anld. -ault, -aulx. ${ }^{\circ}$ eulx, -ould, -oult, as Arnauld Aar'nōa, faulx fōa, and in chenil sheonee, baril bar'ee, courtil koor'tee, coutil kuotee, fusil fuezee [4], gentil zhuhn'tee [8], sourcil soor'see, and a fow others.
LL is generally ', but in an increasing number of words l-l. as illégal ěel-laıgaal. See also ILL
II is $m$ except when it helps to form a nasal vowel -see AIM, AM, ELM, EM, IM, OM, UM. YMand is sometimes mute. Observe the words automne ōataon [3], condamner koan'dāauai [9], Reims Rāer's [1], Abraham Aabraa-aain, Adam A"duthn' [8].
MM generally $m$, but $m-m$ in initial IMM as immodéré ěem-mnodiaira, and in AMMA, in Grammont Griam-moan' [9], and a few other words, and never helps to form a nasal vowel.
N is $n$, except when it helps to form a nasal vowel see AN. AIN. EIN EN. IN, ON, UN, IN. It is unpronounced in final ENT, which see.
NN is generally $n$, sometimes $n-n$, and does not help to form a nasal vowel except in ennoblir ahn'naoblēer: [8,3], ennoie ahn'"wāa, ennui ahn'murpee (with a diphthong), and their derivatives.

0 is generally ao short [3], and $\bar{o} a$ [21] long as homme anm. chose shō口z. See combinations of O with other letters below.
$\hat{0}$ is always $\bar{o} a$ [21]. as apôtre aapōatr'ĕŏ [5], fantôme fahn'tōam [8].
OA is generally O-A, but is waa in foarre fwar', joailler zhwua-ěeyai, and its derivatives.
OE is wae [1] in moello mwael, and its derivatives.
$0 \ddot{\mathrm{E}}$ is wae [1] in Noël Nwael, and waa in coëffe kwaaf, goëlette gwaalaet, and their derivations.
$0 \hat{\mathrm{E}}$ is waa in poêlo pwaal, and its derivatives.
E is $a e$ [1] or $a i$ [21] in foreign words only.
EIL is oe-ĕe [6], as a diphthong in this one word.
GIILL is oe-ĕey [6, as cillade oe-ĕeyaad.
EEU is oe [6] or eo [5], precisely, as EU which see.
OI is regularly waa, as roi r'waà, but in a few words it is occasionally pronounced wai [21]. It was often ae [1], but in these words AI is now generally written, as foible (or faible) fāeblĕŏ [5].
OIN 1) not before a vowel is waen' [7], as loin lwaen': 2) before a vowel is waan, as avoine aavwuan, moineau mwaanōa.
OM 1) not before a vowel is omi' [9], as nom noan', comte koan't, except before N as automnale ontaomnaal, omnibus noinneebues; 2) before a vowel aom, as Rome Ruom.
ON 1) not before a vowel is onn' [9], as non noun' ; 2) before a vowel aon [3]. as colonie kaolnonēe.

00 generally oa-ao as cuopérer koa-aopair'ai, but in foreign words $\bar{o} a$ as Waterloo Vantaer'lōa.
OU always oo, long or short, as fou foo, poule pool. or $w$ before a vowe!, as douane dwaan, but is never uo, and never ou.
OÛ always ōo long, as goût gōo.
OUI, OUIL tinal. OUILL hefore a vowel, wee or we $y$ (properly ŏo-ĕe as a diphthong), as oui wĕe. fouiller fweeyai.
OY, not before a vowel, the same as OI, waa; but before a vowel some speakers say aniy [3], or wain, as royaume rwaol-yōain; but others prefer waay as rwan-yöam.
$\mathbf{P}$ is $p$ when pronounced; it is not pronounced in a final syllable after $M$, is champ s/a ahu' [8], prompt proan' [9], temps tahn', conipte knan't.
and also in baptême baatāem [1], corps küor' [3], coup koo, drap draa, galop gaaloa, loup loo, sculpteur skueltōer [4,6], trop troa, and some others.
PH is always $f$, as phrase fraaz.
PP is always $p$, except in appétence appéter, where it is $p-p$, as ap-paitahn's [8], ap-paitai.
Q always $k$, never mute, but is always followed by U , except when final as coq kaok [3], cinq saen'k [10].
QU generally $k$, as qualité kaaleetai, qui kee; but occasionally $k w$, as in quadr- $k w a a d r$ ' - (except quadrat kaadraa, quadrille kaadree), adéquat aadaikwaat, aquàrelle aakwaar ael, équateur aikwaatōer [6], quoi kuan, quartz kwaar'ts, loquace laokwaus, and some other not very common words.
$\mathbf{R}$ always $r$ when pronounced, with a smart trill of the tip of the tongue; the pronunciation with the uvular trill is very common, but is considered a fault, and not allowed at the Théâtre Français. It never forms a diphthong with the preceding vowel as in English dear. $R$ final is not pronounced in the terminations -GER, -CHER, -IER, -ILLER, -LER, -YER, -ER (in the infinitives of vertus, -IEP, IERS, except cher shäer' [1], fier fyäer' adjective, hier $e e-\bar{a} e r$, Thiers Tyaer'. At the Théâtre Français the final $-R$ in the termination of verbs is run on to the following vowel, as aimer une fille aemaer'-uen [4] feely' [17], but the usual pronunciation leaves it mute, as aemai uen fee.
$\mathbf{R H}$ is always $r^{\prime}$, as rhubarbe ruebanr' $b$.
$\boldsymbol{R R}$ is generally $r^{\prime}$, but in a few words $r^{\prime}-r^{\prime}$ as il courrait ĕel kŏor' $-r^{\prime} \bar{a} e ~[1]$, arrogant aar' $-r^{\prime}$ oagahn' [8]; the habit of saying $r^{\prime}-r^{\prime}$ is increasing.
$\mathbf{S}$ is $s$ at the beginning of words, and, when pronounced at all, at the end of words. as aloès aaloa-āes [1], as āas, bis bees, cens sāhn's [8], gens $z h a ̄ h n ' s$, hélas ailāas, lis lees (but lee in fleur de lis), mars maar's, ours oor's, vis vees, except obus aobuez [4]. In plus, sens, tous, $S$ is sometimes heard and is sometimes mute. $S$ is generally $z$ between two vowels, as rose $r \bar{a} o z$ [3], besoin beozwäen' [7], and before $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{V}$, as sbire zbēer', Sganarelle Zgaanaar'ael, Tsrael Eezr'aa-ael, svelte zvaelt; and in trans, followed by a vowel, as transaction tr'ahn'zaaksyoan' [8, 9], (except transir tr'ahn'sēer', \&c.) S is
generally not proncunced at the end of words or before another consonant. but it runs on to a following vowel as z, as trois hommes tr'wāa-z-aom.
SC initial before $\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{Y}$, is simple $s$, as scène saen, sceptique saepteek [1], unless a vowel precedes, and then it is often $s-s$, as ascendant aras-sahn'dah $\dot{n}^{\prime}$ [8]
SCH, used in non-French words only, is sh.
SH, used in non-French words only, is sh.
SS almost always simple $\delta$, but $s-s$ in sessile saesseel [1], and a few unusual words.
T initial is always $t$. In those words where it becomes $s h$ in English it is $s$ in French, as essential aisahu syael [ $8 \cdot 1$ ]. patience paasyahn's, condition koan'deesyoan' [9]. T final is most frequently not pronounced, but observe brut br'uet [4], but buet, un fait oen' [10] faet [1] fat faat, huit ưe-eet [4] (diphtkong), vingt vaen't [7.]. (but vingt sous vaen' soo).
TH is always $t$, as thé $t a i$.
TT is almost always $t$, but is $t-t$ in littéral leettaeraal [1], and a few uncommon, chiefly nonFrench, words
U is always long or short ue [4], as connu kaonue [3,] except occasionally in GU, QU, and always in UM, UN ; see those groups.
$\hat{U}$ is always $\bar{u} e$ long [4].
UEIL, UEILL are oe-ĕe [6,] or oe-ĕey. as accueil aakoe-ĕe, cercueil sā̈er, koe-ĕe, écueil aikoe-ĕe, orgueil aor'goe-ĕe, recueil reokoe-厄̌e, nous cueillous noo koe-ěeyoan'.
UI is $\breve{u}$ e-ee [4], forming a diphthong, so that ${ }_{u} e$ becomes nearly a consonant. resembling $w$ and $y$ pronounced at the same time. It is better to pronounce $\breve{u}$ e distinctly as a separate vowel than to substitute $w$, which is the usual very bad English mispronunciation. Thus lui lŭe-ee (not lŏo-ee or lwee), puis pŭe-ee (not pŏo-ee or pwee).

UM is 1) oen' [10] in humble oen'blĕŏ, parfum paar'foen' ; 2) oan [9! in rumb roan'b, Humboldt Oan'baold (in Germany Huom•baolt), lumbago loan'baagōa ; 3) aom [3] in factotum faaktaotaom, album anlhaom. te Deum tai Dainom. and other Latin words; 4) uem [4] before vowels, as allumette aaluemaet, fumeron fuemr' oan'.
UN not before vowels, generally oen' [10], as brun
br'oen', Lundi Loen'dee; in a few words oan' [9]. as Dunkerque Doankaer'k, Undine Oan'deen, \&c. ; before vowels uen [4] as unité ueneetai.
UY now only used before vowels, $\breve{u} \breve{e}-e e y$ [4], the "ॅe-ee forming a diphthong, see UI, as appuyer "прйй-ееуai, La Bruyère Laa Br'ŭй-eeyāer'.
V is always $v$, and always pronounced, as vive veev.
W is only used in foreign words, and is generally $v$, as Weber Vaibāer [1], waggon vaagoan' [9], but sometimes $w$, as whig weeg, whist weest, Windsor Waen'dzōar [7]. It is not pronounced in Newton Noetoan' [6], New York Noe Yaor' $k$.
$\mathbf{X}$ is generally $k s$, as sextuple saekstueplĕŏ $[1,4,5]$, boxeur baoksöer' [6], onyx aoneeks [3]; but XC, XS , are also $k s$, as excès aiksae $[1], \mathrm{X}$ is $g z$ in Xénophon Gzainoafoan' [9], aigzahn'plĕŏ [8, 5], examen aigzaamaen' [1], hexaunètre aigzaamaetr'ĕo $[1,5]$, coexister koa-aigzeestai. $\mathbf{X}$ is $s$ in final six sees, dix dees, and in soixante swaasahn't [8]. X is $z$ in six, dix, when run on to a vowel, as six ans seezahn', dix oeufs deezēo [5], and dixhuit deezŭӗ-eet [4] (diphthong), deux apôtres dèozaapoatr' $\check{0}$, , deuxième, dixième, \&c. X final is not pronounced in faix fäe [1], paix pāe (but Aix

Aeks), faulx fōa [21], taux tōa, chevaux sheovōt, \&c., Bordeaux Baor'dōa, \&c.; cheveux sheovōe [6], heureux eor'ōe, \&c., voix vwaa, croix kr'waa. epoux aipoo, doux doo, perdrix paer'dr'ee, prix pr'ee, reflux r'eoflue $[5,4]$, and a few others.
$\mathbf{Y}$ is $e e$, and is treated precisely like $\mathbf{Y}$.
Z is always $z$, as gaz $g \bar{a} a z$, except in German final TZ, and Spanish final Z, when it becomes $s$, as seltz saclz [1], Cruz Kr'ues [4]. Z final in the -EZ of verbs is not pronounced, as soyez swaoyai or swaayai, and in assez aasäil, chez $s h \bar{a} i$, nez $n \bar{a} i$, rez $r^{\prime} \bar{a} i$, riz $r^{\prime} e e$.
ZZ is $d z$ in almost all Italian words used in French, as mezzo maedzoa.

Example of difficulties.- Et puis une vieille carogne et un enfant borgne out vendu de mauvais vin au peuple bête devant la foule; y êtes-vous, mon ami? Ai pŭĕ-ee (diphthong) uen vyai-ĕ kaar'aony' ai oen'-n-ahn'fahn' baor'ny' oan' vahn'-due-d moavae vuen' oa pöeplĕŏ bāet deovahn' lua fǒol, ee aet-vou, maon-aamee? And then an old har and a child, one-eyed, have sold of (some) bad wine to the people stupid before the crowd; there are you (do rou understand), my friend?

## NOTE ON "LIAISONS."

The final consonant. though it may be mute at the end of a word which closes a sentence, or precedes a word beginning with a consonant, is very frequently effective when a vowel follows; thus chez lui on chez elle shai lŭĕee oo shaiz ael. This is called a " liaison" lee-aizoan', or " connection," and is. of course, most important in all French speaking and singing, and for French versification (p. 214a, at bottom). But unfortunately no general rules can be given to distinguish those words which will form a liaison. The diversity of usage may be seen by such examples as: pas un pahz oen', pas un ami pahz oen'n aamee, cent amis sahn't aamee, cent pas et un sahn' pah ai oen', mon père moan' paer', mon ami maon aamee, de son sang deo soan' salh', sang et eau sahn'k ai oa, and so on. Generally C runs on as $k$, avec elle aavaek ael; D as $t$, grand homme gr'ahn't oam; G as $k$, rang élevé $r^{\prime} a h n^{\prime} k$ ailvai ; S' as $z$, les orgues laez aor'g; X as $z$, six hommes seez aom.

In the above Alphabetical Key the case of nute
and connected final consonants is merely indicated. But to know what words are to be treated in this way and what are not, reference must be made to a dictionary which pars particular attention to the subject. John Bellows in his beautiful little "Dictionary for the Pocket, French and English, English and French, both divisions on the same page," second edition, 1877 (London, Truebner), indicates every case where the final consonant is pronounced by adding no mark; where the final consonant is pronounced before a vowel. but not otherwise, by one turned period, as chez'; and where the final consonant is never pronounced at all, by two turned periods, as coup $\cdots$. But space did not allow him to distinguish the cases where the consonant is occasionally connected and occasionally unconnected with the following vowel. More information on this difficult point will be found in Féline's Pronouncing Vocabulary (p. 192b), and in Littrés great French Dictionary. But in some cases usage is not entirely fixed.

## XV. EXAMPLES OF SONGS IN GERMAN, ITALIAN, \& FRENCH.

Arrangement.-In order to exemplify the preceding Alphabetical Keys, a few songs have been selected by Mr. Curwen in German, Italian, and French, to which I have added the pronunciation in Glossic, and also a verbal translation into English, which, at Mr. Curwen's request, has also been put intn Glossic. The single system of spelling thus used serves to make the difference between English and foreign pronunciation distinct to the eye. The arrangement is as fol-lows:-
I. Left hand column, Original Orthography. The words of the songs are arranged according to the plan of their versification, without any of the repetitions which occur in the music, and, for ease of reference, the alternate lines are numbered. No particular order or classification has been attempted, but the German songs are placed first, then the Italian, and lastly the French. The name of the composer, and, when known, that that of the writer is added to the title, both in the native orthography.
II. Right hand column, Pronunciation in Glossic. The indications of the preceding Alphabetical Keys are carried out without making any of those English substitutions, which are indicated at the beginning of each of those tables. These substitutions may of course be made by the singer, but they necessarily disfigure the pronunciation. They may be made with the least bad effect in German,
and then in Italian. French with false nasal vowels, sounds very bad indeed. It will be observed that the position of the accent is indicated in German and Italian, where it is strongly marked by the speaker, but not in French, where it is less strongly marked, and is variable. The length of vowels is indicated by the positions of the accent mark ( $\cdot$ ) after a long vowel, or after the first consonant following a short vowel, and is strictly observed in German The same position of the accent mark in Italian marks the long and short vowel as usually felt by English speakers, but as already observed (p. 147a) the Italian vowels are naturally of medial length, and their actual length varies with the expression. When, however, they alter their length they preserve their quality. Thus $a a, e e, o a$, when short never become the English $a, i$, o.

1. In German, $\breve{a} a$, ĕe, are used in closed syllables to guide the reader, as it would be quite wrong to say häand ēeky'h for hăand ěeky'h; indeed, decidedly worse than to say hand iyh.

In German also it will be found that many words seem to vary their final consonants at pleasure. The theory of German pronunciation is that $b, d, g, g y^{\prime} h, z$, never occur at the end of words, but are always changed into $p, t, k$, $k y^{\prime} h, s$, respectively, however they may be written. But in practice, when the words ending with any of the former consonants run on to woras be.
ginning with any of them, or with a vowel, tho former consonants are retained, but in other cases they are altered. Englishmen, however, may follow their own customs of pronunciation in this sase without offending a German ear, which would be scarcely conscious of the alteration. Throughout a large section of Germany speakers and writers seem unable to distinguish $p$ from $b, t$ from $d, k y^{\prime} h$ from $g y^{\prime} h$, and occasionally $k$ from $g$, but they usually distinguish $s$ from $z$.
The German versification resembles the English so closely as to oceasion no difficulty to the reader who observes the place of the accent.
2. In Italian it is always possible for an Englishman to use $i, e, o, u o$, for $\breve{e} e$, $\breve{a}$, $\breve{a} o$, ŏo, in closed syllables, but it adds much to the beauty of the pronunciation not to do so. In open syllables he may use $\bar{a} u$ for $\bar{a} o$, but $\bar{a} e$ must have a sound quite distinct from $\bar{a} i$, and $\bar{o} a$ (not $\bar{a} u$ or $\bar{a} o$ ) must be pronounced, where marked, before $r^{\prime}$.
A difficulty arises from the confluent vowels which take the place of English diphthongs, but are in Italian pronounced much more distinctly separate. When these occur within the same word as in "rio," ree:ŏă, "ei," ai.ĕĕ, the short mark indicates that the ŏă or $\check{\text { ĕe forms only one }}$ asknowledged syllable with the previous ee, and that the two are sung to one note of music without "attacking" the ŏă or ĕĕ separately, so that there is no cessation of voice between the $e e$ and the $\begin{array}{r} \\ a\end{array}$. In the frequent cases where e $\breve{e}$, $\check{0}$ ŏ, come first, $y$ and $w$ are written, as the sounds are almost the same, but they are by no means quite the same in Italian, as in English. Thus gwaer'r'aa poassyai dai would be more properly and fully written gŏo-aer'•r'aa, poas-sе̌еॅ-ai•dai. This Italian slur has been already considered when the elements both occur in the same word, on p. $45 a$.

When these confluent vowels are in different words, ending one and beginning the other, the mark - is used to indicate the union, thus destino in, daisteenoa_een, speme un spae'mai_oon. In this case the two vowels although usually pronounced quite distinctly, are sung to a single
musical note (unless there is a pause in the sense) and are reckoned as a single syllable in the verse (even when there is a break in the sense, so that there is an absolute silence between them in reading), but they very rarely form anything approaching to a real English diphthong like el, oi, ou. Thus in Diserto sulla Terra, v. 2, Col rio destino in guerra, Koal ree:ŏă daistee noa ceen gwaer' $r$ 'aa, there are only seven syllables, which ought to be pointed out by slurs in music. (The English edition of the music gives, by mistake, two notes to ...noa ceen.) Again (ibid. v. 3', é sola speme un cor Ae soa:laa spae mai_oon cao ${ }^{\circ} r^{\prime}$ has only six syllables. (In the music the ...mai_oon fall to one semiquaver.) Thus, for these two cases, the music is properly divided:-


In other respects Italian versification offers no difficulty to English speakers.
3. French versification is founded upon an older system of pronunciation which prevailed when its laws were established, and which is carried out in music. In modern French speaking the final ee, -ent, of so many French words, is not pronounced at all, although it may count as a syllable in the verse. Even on the stage, in declaiming tragic verse, these "mute $e$ 's" are still really mute, in most cases, though their presence is occasionally indicated, and are always present to the mind of the speaker. In singing on the other hand, these - $e$, -ent (except in the termination -aient), are always pronounced, and may have a very long and forte note assigned to them. They must therefore be attacked by singers just as if they were written "eu" in French letters. Whether they should be called eo or oe (the two sounds of French "eu,") is a matter of dispute
among Frenchmen; I seem generally to hear eo, which I have therefore written, and many Frenchmen agree with me. Others do not distinguish consciously between eo and oe. Both sounds, when final bear so close a resemblance to our final $u$ or -er (when no trill $r$ ' is added to the vocal $r$ ), that either sound (carefully avoiding to trill the $r$ ) may be used for it by Englishmen. Thus in "Où vou ez-vous aller ?" " dites, ma jeune belle," which in prose would be deĕt, mŭa zhŏen băel, is sung to

dee - teo maa zhoe - neo bael - en.
(In the English edition one note only is wrongly assigned to "belle," clearly on account of the English translation.) As Englishmen in singing French songs try to avoid pronouncing the " mute $e$ " as much as possible, and thus produce a very strange effect on ears accustomed to French singing, they should be very careful to observe this characteristic usage.

To this pronunciation of final -e (not of -ent) there is one remarkable exception. If a vowel follows, the $e$ is perfectly mute, being entirely elided. This is the only case in French poetry in which a word is allowed to end with a written vowel when the next word begins with one. Hence, there are no "confluent" vowels between words in French singing or versification as there are in Italian. Open vowels do occur, however, occasionally, but then there is generally some written, but unpronounced consonant interposed, or the word changes its sound. Thus, " la voile ouvre son aile," elides the " $e$ " of "voile," before the "ou" of "ouvre;" the "son," which would end with a pure vowel as soan' changes its pronunciation and becomes saon, so that the line is sung to the notes above written as $\mid$ laa : vwaal | oo-vreo saon : ae-leo i. The word "un" before a vowel becomes oen' $n$ in the same way. Many consonants not usually pronounced at the end of words are brought to life again by a following vowel. There are very few cases of an open
vowel in the examples, which are generally far from classical, and in most of those cases the consonant is written: (La Manola, v. 28, raipoan'dee: wee; v. 12, Zhootaa Aaraagounaizaa; v. 18, Maadree(d) ae. Partant pour la Syrie, v. 21; fee Eezaabaeleo.)

In colloquial French the finul -e, mute, is almost always (not always) omitted, but an emphatic utterance calls it faintly to life. In reading poetry (as distinguished from singing) this vowel is also omitted, but as the line would then be too short by one or more syllables, many French readers seek to supply the missing syllable by lengthening the consonant preceding the omitted $-e$. In the pronunciation marked below, the Italic eo points out these cases. In reading the poetry, then, omit the eo and dwell somewhat on the preceding consonant, or make a little pause after it, as dit- laazhoenn baell, for " dites la jeune belle.

In the alphabetic table the length of the vowels is marked as assigned by M. Thériat. In M. Tarver's edition of Tardy's dictionary the length of the vowels is also much dwelled upon. In M. Féline's dictionary almost every vowel is indicated as short, and the tendency of modern French pronunciation is to shorten all vowels. In these examples I have left the length of the vowels unmarked, because in listening carefully when they were read over to me by two French gentlemen, I found no certainty in the use of long and short. In singing, of course, the length of the vowel is determined by that of the musical note assigned to the syllable, and the extreme variability of French usage in this respect has been taken so much advantage of by musical composers, that when a French song is sung to English words, it is often extremely difficult to get out our syllables, hampered with numerous consonants, with sufficient rapidity, and when we do so, thealteration of rhythm, quantity, and accent, makes the result much more unintelligible than usual. Even in Italian translations of French operas (as Gounod's Faust) the same evil is greatly felt.

The French syllable is supposed theoretically to terminate in a rowel whenever the next consonant or consonants can be pronounced without the preceding vowel. This plan may therefore be always followed in singing. But the actual usage of Frenchmen (as laid down by the late M. Jobert, in his "Colloquial French,") is to run the vowel on to the following consonant wherever it is practicable, and, of course, also to unite that consonant with the following vowel ; thus: belle bael-eo, not bae-leo. French singers also seem to me to follow this practice where convenient for them. English singers are therefore at full liberty to use either plan, in any word as it may best suit them. In speaking, however, and reading, they should follow the latter plan, and call pacifique păas-ĕef-ĕek, and not $p \bar{\pi} a-s \bar{e} e-f \bar{e} e k$.

As already indicated no proper diphthongs occur in French (pp. 45b, 49b), but oo, ee, occasionally run on to the following vowel, and are then written $w, y$, in these examples, as: soit swaa, oui wee, yeux yeo, for which sŏŏaa, ŏŏee, ӗĕeo, would be more correct. In the case of $u e$ this notation had to remain as lui lüӗee, suis sйӗеe, nuit nŭӗee, Juanetta zhŭĕaanaetaa; and similarly for $\breve{e}$ ĕ final, as: gouvernail goovaer'naaĕĕ, cueillir koe-ĕĕyeer'.

French singing has altogether a different style from English. The pronunciation given is not intended to do more than enable a Frenchman to recognise his' own language in an Englishman's mouth. To acquire the true French delivery in talking or singing, is a labour of many years to an Englishman, and complete success is very rare indeed. Frenchmen find the same difficulty with our language.
III. Bottom of page, Translation. This translation is arranged to serve as a glossary for those quite unacquainted with German, Italian, and French. It follows the original, line for line, and word for word, in the same order, which is, of course, often not the English order. When, nowever, the foreign order of the words threatens to render the passage unintelligible, a little prefixed figure points to the English order, thus:
"Maigloeckchen," $\nabla$ 11, luoks ${ }^{2}$ dhem ${ }^{3}$ fren $\cdot$ dlili ${ }^{1}$ at, means luoks at dhem fren-dlili.

Sometimes the literal translation of a word would be unintelligible or misleading, and in that case another interpretation is added in parenthesis preceded by a hyphen, as (ib. v. 1.): Mai-bel (lili ov dhi val-i), which shows that what is translated " May-bell" (a translation necessary for the whole thought of the little poem), is the name of a flower which in England is called " lily of the valley."

Sometimes it is necessary to use more than one word to translate what is either one word, or is written as one word in the original, such words are then connected by a hyphen, as (ib. v. 3): zum tsoom is rendered too-dhi, and allzumal $\mathfrak{a} a l$ l-tsoomaa $b$ is rendered aul-at-wuns.

Sometimes it is necessary to insert a word in English for which there is no foreign equivalent in the text, although it is implied by the usage of the language. Such a word is inserted in parentheses which are not hyphened to another word, as in "Wie kann ich froh," v. 3, dhat too-mee soa deer (iz), and ibid v. 8, hoo (iz) faar hens! where there is no German word corresponding to $i z$.

Sometimes, on the contrary, a word, such as the definite article, is found in the original where no equivalent word would be used in English, and in this case it is duly trunslated and placed in squaro brackets, as in "In diesen heiligen Hallen" v. 2, [dhi] ven•jens, in German, die Rache dee Răakh•u.

Finally, sometimes it might prove difficult to make sense of several words, or of a whole phrase, and in this case an equivalent is added in hy. phened parentheses placed after the last word, while a hyphen is also placed before the first word of the phrase. Thus: "Maigloeckchen," v. 21, -Nou hoaldz-it au-lsoa mee -not moar-(noa long.ger) -too hous-(at hoa.m) -(Nou ei, too, kan stai noa longger at hoa $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ ), shews that the whole long phrase from -Nou to -(Nou is reconstructed in the last parenthesis, and also that within the long phrase, two short ones have required re-writing, for not moar means noa long.ger, and tro hous means at hoa:m

By these simple means the real meaning of the passage is so fully indicated that it has not ap. peared necessary to add a free translation.

In the mode of rendering the English into Glossic, I have been more exact than would be necessary for ordinary purposes. The place of the accent is marked in every word, and the position of the accent mark shows whether the vowel is long or short. The trilled $r^{\prime}$ is everywhere distinguished from the vocal $r$ which forms a diphthong with the preceding long vowel, and with er forms a peculiar indistinct sound already spoken of. But vocal $r$ is never written except where it may be followed in speech by a trilled $r$. The diphthongs ei, oi, ou, eu, are left unanalysed. The final $a$, and often the initial $a$, is generally pronounced obscurely like $u$ or er (without any permission to trill) but it has been preserved as in ordinary glossic. The final el, em, en, when not acknowledged to be simply the vocal consonants $l$, $m, n$, are written in this manner, whatever the oxiginal vowel may have been, as "-al, -ol; -om, -um, -em; -an, -en;" and er replaces all "ur, er, ir." and unaccented "-ar, -er, -ir, -or, -our,
or." The final unaccented "-age" of "pillage," is written -ej, as pilej, \&c. The unaccanted " $e$," when not before " $r$," or in the same syllable with a consonant, is written $i$, as beloved biluv $\cdot d$, rejoiced rijoi $\cdot s t$. See Glossic Index.

The names of foreign composers are given with the proper native pronunciation in the column of pronunciation, but in the translation they are titted with thoroughly English sounds. The French take the liberty of pronouncing all names which occur in French speaking according to tho rules of French orthography. There is no fixed rule in English. Thus we say Han•dl, Moazau'rt, for the German Hen $\cdot \mathrm{del}$, Moa $\boldsymbol{t s a ̆ a r ' t , ~ s o m e t i m e s ~}$ even Wag•ner for $V^{\prime} a a \cdot g h n e r '$, and so on. While other names, as Goethe Geotu, Müller Muel'er', often entirely puzzle the speaker, although such thoroughly English sounds as Gai tu, Mil•er, would be perfectly intelligible to every German. It does not appear that Men•dlsen is more objectionable than Jon sen, although, of course, there is no objection to using Men•dels-zoa'n at full length. This conception of anglicising the pronunciation of foreign names is carried out in Section SV'

## I. GERMAN SONGS.

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

## 1 Maiglöckchen und die Blümelein. <br> Musik von Mendelssohn.

Maiglöckchen läutet in $\mathrm{d} \in \mathrm{m}$ Thal,
2 Das klingt so hell und fein:
"So kommt zum Reigen allzumal,
4 Ihr lieben Blümelein!"'
Die Blümchen blau und gelb und weiss,
6 Die kommen all herbei,
Vergissmeinnicht, und Ehrenpreis,
8 Und Veilchen sind dabei.
Mairlöckehen spielt zum Tanz im Nu,
10 Und alle tanzen dann.
Der Mond sieht ihnen freundlich iseu,
12 Hat seine Freude d ran.
Den Junker Reif verdross das sehr,
14 Er kommt in's 'TKal hinein.
Maiglöckehen spielt zum 'Tanz nieht mehr-
16 Fort sind die Blümelein.
Doch kaum der Reif das 'Whal verlässt,
18 Da rufet weider schnell
Maiglöckchen zu dem Frühlingsfest,
20 Und lautet doppelt hell.
Nun hält's auch mich nicht mehr zu Haus, 22 Maiglöckchen ruft auch mich.

Die Blümchen gehn zum Tanz hinaus, 24 Zum 'Tanze geh' auch ich.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIA'IION.

## 1 Maay gloek•ky' hen uond dee Blue•mulaayn.

Moozee•k faon Men•dels-zoan.
Maay $\cdot \mathrm{gloek} \cdot \mathrm{ky}$ 'hen loi tet in dai $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ ' ''aa $\cdot \mathrm{l}$,
2 Dăas klěengkt zoa hel uont faayn :
" Zoa kaomt tsoom R'aay"gy'hen ăal'tsoomaa•l,
4 Ee'r' lee•ben Blue'mulaay`n!"
Dee Blue $\cdot \mathrm{mky}$ 'hen blaaw uond gelb uond v'aays,
6 Dee kaom•en aal- her'baay',
Fer'gěes maaynnĕeky 'ht', uond Ai'r'enpraay 's,
8 Uont Faay'lky'hen zĕe'nd daabaay'.
Maay•gloek•ky'hen shpee•lt tsnom 'răants ěem 10 Uond ăal•u tăan'tsen dăan', [Noo,

Der Moa'nd zee't ee'nen froi $\cdot$ ndliky'h tsoo,
12 Hăat zaay nu Froi du drăan.
Dai•n Juong•ker Raayf ferdraos• dăas zai•r',
14 Er' kaomt ěens Taa•l hěenaay'n.
Maay'gloek $\cdot k y$ 'hen shpee $1 t$ tsoom Tăants něeky'ht
16 Faor't zĕend dee Blue mulaay 'n.
[mai'r'-
Daokh kaawn der Raayf dăas 'Taa•l ferles $\cdot t$,
18 Daa roo fet v'ee'der' shnel
Maay'gloek•ky'hen tsoo dai•m Frue lěengksfes't, 20 Uond loi tet daop elt hel.
[Haaws,
Noo'n hel'ts aawkh měeky'h něeky'ht mai'r' tsoo
22 Maay'gloek ky'hen roo'ft aawkh měeky'h.
Dee Blue'mky'hen gai $n$ tsoom Tăants hěenaaw $\cdot \mathrm{s}$,
24 Tsoom Tăan'tsu gai aawkh ěeky'h.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

## . 1 Mai-bel and dhi Flourrets.

Meu'zik bei Men•dlsen. Mai bel-(lil-i of dhi val-i cheimz in the val-i,
2 Dhat soundz soa br'eit and fein-(el-igent):
"Soa kum too-dhi daan sing aul-at-wuns

- Yee deer flou rr'ets."

Dhi flourrr'ets bloo and yel oa and wheit,
6 Dhai kum aul hidh er-bei,
Faurget - mee-not and spee $d$ wel,
8 And vei oalet aar dhair-bei.
Mai-bel plaiz faur-dhi daans in-a twingkling,
10 And aul daans dhen,
Dhi Moon luoks ${ }^{2}$ dhem ${ }^{3}$ fren ${ }^{2}$ dlili ${ }^{1}$ at,
12 (It) haz its joi dhairr'at.
${ }^{3}$ Dhi ${ }^{4}$ skweir ${ }^{5}$ Hoar fraust ${ }^{2}$ anoi•d ${ }^{1}$ dhat ${ }^{6}$ soar -(much),

14 He kums in too-dhi val-i hens-in,
Mai-bel plai•z faur-dhi daans -not moar-(noa long'ger, -
16 -Foa'rth aar- (gon awai aar) dhi flou'rr'ets.
-Hauev'er skai'rsli dhi Hoa'rfr'aust dhi val•i leevz
-(Yetaz soon azdhi hoa rfraust haz left dhi val-i),
$18{ }^{1}$ Dhen ${ }^{3}$ kauls-(invei ts) ${ }^{4}$ again ${ }^{5} \mathrm{kwik} \cdot \mathrm{li}$
${ }^{2}$ Mai-bel too dhi spr'ing-feest
20 And cheimz dub•li br'ei•tli-(klee rli),
-Nou hoaldz-it au•lsoa mee-not moar-(noa long-, -ger -too hous- at hoa m )-(Nou ei, too, kan stai no long.ger at hoa $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ ).
22 Mai-bel kaulz au lsoa mee,
Dhi flou'rr'ets goa too-dhi daans hens-out,
24 Too-dhi daans goa au-lsoa ei.

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.
2.-Ich wollt' meine Lieb'.

Musik von Mendelssohn.
Ich wollt' meine Lieb ergösse sich
All in ein einzig Wort,
Das gäb' ich den lust'gen Winden,
Die trügen es lustig fort.
Sie tragen zu Dir, Geliebte,
Du hörst es zu jeder Stunde,
Du hörst es an jedem Ort.
Und hast du zum nächtlichen Schlummer
0 Geschlossen die Augen kaum,
So wird mein Bild dich verfolgen,
12 Bis in den tiefsten Traum.

## 3.-Wie kaun ich froh.

Musik von Mendelssohn.
Wie kann ich froh und lustig sein?
Wie kaun ich gehn mit Band und Strauss?
Wenn der herz'ge Junge, der mir so lieb,
Ist über die Berge weit hinaus !
'S ist nicht der frost'ge Winter wind,
'S ist nicht der Schnee und Sturm und Grauss, Doch immer kommen mir Thränen in 's Aug',

Der lange Winter ist vorbei,
10 Der Frühling putzt die Birken aus,
Es grünt und blüht und lacht der Mai,
12 Dann kehrt er heim, der weit hinaus!

## GLOSSIC PRONUNOIATION.

2.-Eěky'l v'ciolt maay'nu Lee'b. Moozee k faon Men $\mathrm{delszoa} \cdot \mathrm{n}$.
Eěky'h v'oalt' maay'nu Leeb ergoes'u zĕeky'h
2 Aăl ěen aayn aay $\quad$ ntseegy $h V^{\prime}$ aor't,
Dăas gae $\cdot b$ ěeky'h dain luos těegy'hen V'ěen den,
4 Dee tr'ue'gy'hen es luos'teegy'h faor't.
Zee tr'aa'ghen tsoo Deer', Gelee ptu,
Daas lee berfuel tu V'aor't,
Doo heorst es tsoo yai der Shtuon du,
Doo heo rst es ăan yai'dem Aor't.
Uont hăast doo tsoom naeky'h tlĕeky'hen 10 Geshlaos'en děe Aaw'ghen kaawm, [Shluom'er Zoa v'ěert maayn Bĕeld děeky'h ferfaol 'gy'hen, 12 Běes ěen dain tee fsten 'Tr'aawm.

> 3.-V'ee kăan ĕeky'h froa.
> Moozee'k faon Men dels-zoa'n.

V'ee kăan ěeky'h froa uond luos těegy'h zaayn ? 2 V'ee kăan ěeky'h gain mět Băand uont Shtraaws?
[leep,
V'en der' her'tsgy'hu yuong $u$, dair' meer' zoa
4 Eěst ue ber děe Ber'gy'hu v'aayt heen-aaws.
S-ěestněeky'htder' fr'aos'tgy'hu V'ěen terv ěent,
6 S- ěest něeky 'ht der' Shnai uont Shtuor'm uond Graaws,
Daokh ěem•er kaom•en meer' Trai nen ěen -s Aawgh,
8 Dengk ĕeky'h ăan ee'n, dair' v'aayt heen-aaws !
Der' laang•u V'ěen'ter ěest faor'baay',
10 Der' Frue lĕeng puotst dee Bĕer'ken aaws,
Es grue nt uond blue't uond laakh't der Maay,
12 Dăan kai'r't er haaym, dair' vaayt heen-aaws !

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

2.-Ei wuod mei lw.

Meurzik bei Men•dlsen.
Ei wuod mei luv wuod-poarr itsel'f
Dhat ${ }^{1}$ wuod-3 ${ }^{3}$ giv ${ }^{2}$ ei too-dhi mer'i windz,
Dhai kar'i too dhee, biluv $\cdot d$,
Dhi luv-fil•d werd,
Dhou hee-rr'est it at evrio our,
Dhou heerrest it at evri plai•s.
And hast dhou faur-dhi nei tli slum ber 10 Shut dhi -(eur) eiz skai rsli -(only lately),

Soa - in dhat kai $\cdot \mathrm{s}$ ) wil mei im $\cdot$ ej dhee perseu•
12 Until' in'too -(soa faaraz) dhi dee pest dr'ee'm.
3.-Hou kan ei cheerfuol?

Meu zik bei Men dlsen.
Hou kan ei chee rfuol and mer'i bee?
2 How kan ei goa widh r'iben and noa'zgai ?
When dhi chaa rming euth, dhat too mee soa deex
4 Iz oa ver dhi mou'ntenz faar hens !
It iz not dhi fr'os ti win'ter-wind,
6 It iz not dhi snoa and staurm and hor' er,
Yet ever kum too-mee tee rz in too-dhi ei,
8 Thingk ei on him, hoo (iz) faar hens :
Dhi long win'ter iz paast,
10 Dhi spr'ing deks dhi berches out, [ [dhi] ${ }^{1}$ Mai,
[Dhair] ${ }^{2}$ groa $z-$ gr'ee $\cdot n{ }^{3}$ and ${ }^{4}$ bloumz ${ }^{5}$ and ${ }^{6}$ laafs
12 Dhen ${ }^{2}$ riter $\cdot{ }^{\prime}{ }^{1}$ hee hoa $m$, hoo (iz) faar hens:

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.
4.-O Isis und Osiris.

Musik von Mozart.
O Isis und Osiris, schenket
Der Weisheit Geist dem neuen Paar!
Die ihr der Wand'rer Schritte lenket
Stärkt mit Geduld sie in Gefahr !
Lasst sie der Prüfung Früchte sehen'
6 Doch sollen sie zu Grabe gehen,
So lohnt der Tugend kühnen Lauf,
8 Nehmt sie in eurem Wohnsitz auf!
5.-In diesen heiligen Hallen!

Musik von Mozart.
In diesen heil'gen Hallen,
Kennt man die Rache nicht,
Und ist ein Merisch gefallen,
Führt Liebe ihn zur Pflicht.
Dann wandelt er an Freundes Hand
6 Vergnügt und froh ins bess're Land!
In diesen heil'gen Mauern,
Wo Mensch den Menschen liebt,
Kann kein Verräther lauern,
Weil man dem Feind vergiebt.
Wen solche Lehren nicht erfreun.
12 Verdienet nicht ein Mensch zu seyn.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

## 4.-Oa Ee'sĕes uond Oasee'r'ĕes.

Moozee k faon Moa tsaar 't.
Oa Ee'sěes uond Oasee r'ěes, sheng'ket
2 Der V'aayz'haayt Gaayst daim noi en Paa'r'.
Dee ee'r' der' V'ăan •dr'er' Shr'ěet'u leng 'ket,
4 shter'kt měet Geduol $\cdot d$ zee ěen Gefaar r
Lăast zee der Prue•fuong Frueky'h•tu zai•en!
6 Daokh zaol en zee tsoo Graa bu gai en,
Zoa loant der Tuo ghent kue nen Laawf
8 Nai'mt zee ěen oi r'em V'oa'nzěets aawf.
5.- Eĕn dee'zen haay-lĕegy'hen Haal-en.

Moozee $k$ faon Moa tsaar't
Eěn dee'zen haay'lgy'hen Hăal•en,
2 Kent măan dee Răakh $u$ nĕeky'ht,
Uond ěest aayn Mensh gefăal $\cdot$ en,
4 Fue'r't Lee'bu ee'n tsoor' Pflěeky'ht.
Dăan v'ăan•delt ai $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ăan Froi $\cdot n d e s$ Hăant
6 Fer'gnue ky'ht uont fr'oa ěens bes'r'u laant !
Eĕn dee'zen haay lgy'hen Maaw•er'n
8 V'oa Mensh dain Mensh•en lee•pt,
Kăan kaayn Fer'r'ai'ter laaw'er'n,
10 V'aayl măan daim Faaynt fergee pt.
Wai'n zaol'ky'hu Lai 'r'en něeky'ht erfroi'n,
12 Ferdee'net něeky'ht aayn Mensh tsoo zaayn.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION

4. -Oa Ei•sis and Oasei $\cdot r$ r'is.

Meu'zeik bei Moazaart.
$\mathrm{Oa} \mathrm{Ei} \cdot \mathrm{sis}$ and Oasei $\cdot \mathrm{rr}^{\prime}$ is giv,
$2{ }^{3} \mathrm{Ov}$-[dhi] ${ }^{4}$ wiz•dum ${ }^{1}$ (the) ${ }^{2}$ Spir $\cdot$ it too-dhi neu pair!
${ }^{2} \mathrm{Hoo}^{1}$ yee ${ }^{6} \mathrm{OV}$-dhi ${ }^{7}$ won der'erz ${ }^{4}$ (dhi) ${ }^{5}$ steps ${ }^{3}$ geid,
4 Str'eng $k$ kthen with pai shens dhem in dai $\cdot n j e r$ !
${ }^{1}$ Let ${ }^{2}$ dhem ${ }^{6}$ ov-dhi ${ }^{7}$ tr'ei el ${ }^{4}$ (dhi) ${ }^{5}$ fr'oots ${ }^{3}$ see!
6 Yet, -shal dhai too gr'ai'v goa-(if dhai must dei),
Soa-(in dhat kai si riwau rd ${ }^{4}$ ov-[dhi] ${ }^{5}$ ver'teu ${ }^{1}$ (dhi) ${ }^{2}$ boald ${ }^{3}$ koa rs,
8 Tai $k$ dhem in eur dwel-ing-plai's up! (tai k up $=r$ isee $v$ ).
5.-In dhee z hoa li haulz.

Meu'zik bei Moazaar $r^{\dagger}$.
In dheez hoali haulz,
${ }^{2}$ Noa $z^{1}{ }^{1}$ wun [dhi] ${ }^{4}$ ven $\cdot$ jens ${ }^{3}$ not, And if (dhair) iz a man fau $\ln$,
${ }^{2}$ Lee ds ${ }^{1}$ luv ${ }^{3} \mathrm{him}$ in too-[dhi] deu'ti. Dhen ${ }^{2}$ wau•ks ${ }^{\text {lhee }}$ at (a)-frendz hand,
6 R'ijoi st and glad in too-dhi bet-er land.

In dheez hoa li wau $\cdot \mathrm{lz}$,
Whair man [dhi] man luvz, Kan noa tr'ai'ter lour,

Bikau ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{1}$ wun ${ }^{3}$ dhi ${ }^{4}$ en $\cdot$ imi ${ }^{2}$ faurgiv'z. Hoom such dok'tr'inz not r'ijoi•s,
12 Dizer $\cdot \mathrm{vz}$ not a man too bee.

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

## 6.-Der Erlkönig.

Gedicht von Goethe, Musik von Schubert.
Wer reitet so spät durch Nacht und Wind?
2 Es ist der Vater mit seinem kind.
Er hat den Knaben wohl in dem Arm,
4 Er fasst ihn sicher, er hält ihn warm.
"Mein Sohn, wasbirgst duso bang dein Gesicht?" 6 " Siehst, Vater, du den Erlkönig nicht?
" Den Erlenkönig mit Kron' und Schweif?"-8 " Mein Sohn, es ist nur ein Nebelstreif." -
"Du liebes Kind komm, geh mit mir! 10 " Gar schöne Spiele spiel" ich mit dir !
" Manch' bunte Blumen sind an dern Strand. 12 " Meine Mutter hat manch' gülden Gewand."-
" Mein Vater, mein Vater, und hörest du nicht, 14 "Was Erlenkönig mir leise verspricht?" -
"Sey ruhig, bleibe ruhig, mein Kind; 16 "In dürren Blättern säuselt der Wind!"-

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

## 6.-Der Er'l-keo'něeky'h.

Geděeky'h't faon Geo tu , Moozee k faon Shoo ber't
V'ai'r' r'aay'tet zoa shpae't duor'ky'h Năakht uond V'ěent?
2 Es ěest der' Faa'ter' měet zaay $\quad$ nem Kĕent.
Er' hăat dai'n Knaa'ben v'oa $\cdot 1$ l̆en dai $\cdot m$ Aăr'm,
4 Er' făast een zěeky'h•er', er' helt een v'ăar'm.
" Maayn Zoa•n, v ăas běer ky'hst doo zoa băang daayn Gezěeky'ht?"
6 "Zee'st, Faa'ter', doo dai•n Er'l-keo'něegy'h nĕeky'ht?
"Dai•n Er'len-keo'něegy'h měet Kr'oa'n uont Shv'aayf?"
8 "Maayu Zoa'n, est ěest noo'r" aayn Nai belshtraay f."
"Doo lee bes Kěent, kaom, gai měet mee $r$ ' !
10 "Gaar' sheo nu Shpee-lu shpee l' ěeky'h měet dee $\cdot \mathbf{r}$ '!
"Măanky'h buon'tu Bloo men zěend ăan dai-m Shtr'ăant.
12 "Maay nu Muot•er' hăat măanky'h guel•den Gev'ăant." -
" Maayn Faa'ter', maayn Faa'ter', uont heo r'est doo něeky'ht,
14 "V'ăas Er' lenkeo'něegy'h mee'r' laay'zu fer'shpr'ěeky'ht?" -
"Zaay r'oo'ěeky'h, blaay bu r'oo-ěeky'h, maayn Kěent
16 " Eěn duer'en Blet•er'n zoi'zelt der' V'ěent!' -

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

6.-Dhi Er•lking-(king ov dhi au•lder gr'oa•v.)

Poa•em bei Gai tu, meu•zik bei Shoo bert.
Hoo r'eidz soa lai't thr'oo neit and wind?
2 It iz dhi fai $\cdot$ dher widh hiz cheild.
Hee haz dhi boi wel in dhi-(hiz) aarm,
4 Hee hoa ldz him sai•fli, hee hoa $\cdot 1 d z$-(keeps) him waarm.
"Mei sun, whei hei $\cdot$ dst dhou soa fr'ei'tend dhei fai•s?"
6 "See st, faa dher, dhou dhi Er-lking not?
"Dhi Er lking widh kroun and skaarf?"8 " Mei sun, it iz oa'nli a fog-str'ip."
" Dhou dee'r cheild, kum, goa widh mee!
10 "Ver•i beu'tifuol gai•mz -plai ei-(ei wil plai) widh dhee!
" Meni kul'urd flourz aar on dhi str'and.
12 "Mei mudh•er haz men•i (a) goa•lden r'oa•b."-
"Mei faa•dher, mei faa•dher, and hee•rr est dhou not,
14 "What Er-lking too-mee in-loa-toa.nz pr'om•isez?"
"Bee kwei et, r'imai $n \mathrm{nkwei} \cdot e t$, mei cheild,
16 "In dr'ei lee'vz r'us'lz dhi wind." -

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

## Der Erlköniy-Fortsetzung.

" Willst, feiner Knabe, du mit mir gehen, 18 " Meine Töchter sollen dich warten schön;
" Meine Töchter führen den nächtlichen Reihn, 20 " Und wiegen und tanzen und singen dich ein."--
"Mein Vater, mein Vater, und siehst du nicht dort,
22 "Erlkönigs Töchter am düstern Ort ?"
" Mein Sohn, mein Sohn, ich seh' es genau,
24 "Es scheinen die alten Weiden so grau!"-
"Ich liebe dich, mich reitzt deine schöne Gestalt,
26 " Und bist du nicht willig, so brauch'ich Gewalt!"-
" Mein Vater, mein Vater, jetzt fasst er mich an! 28 " Erlkönig hat mir ein Leids gethan!" -

Dem Vater grauset's-er reitet geschwind-
30 Er hält in Armen das ächzende Kind,Er reicht den Hof mit Mühe und Noth-
32 In seinen Armen das Kind war todt!

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

 Der Er'l-keo'nĕeky' $h$-Faor't-zets'uong." V'ĕelst, faay'ner' Knaa•bu, doo mĕet mee'r' gai $\cdot \mathrm{n}$,
18 "Maay'nu 'Toeky'h'ter' zaol en děeky'h v'ăar' ten sheo'n ;
" Maay'nu Toeky'h'ter' fue'r'en dai'n neky'h'tleeky'hen R'aayn,
20 " Uond v'ee'gy'hen uont tăan'tsen uont zěeng'en dĕeky'h aayn." -
"Maayn Faa'ter', maayn Faa•ter', uond zee st doo něeky'ht daor't,
22 "Erl-keo'nĕeky'hs Toeky'h ter" ăam dues'ter'n Aort?"-
"Maayn Zoa'n, maayn Zoa'n, ëeky'h zai es genaaw',
24 "Es shaay"ner dee ăal•ten V'aay"den zoa gr'aaw:"
"Eĕky'h lee•bu děeky'h, měeky'h r'aaytst daay $n$ nu sheo nu Geshtăal't,
26 "Uond bĕest doo něeky'h v'ĕel'ĕeky'h, zoa br'aawkh ěeky ${ }^{\text {h }}$ Gev'aal't ! ' '
" Maayn Faa'ter', maayn Faa'ter', yetst făast er' měeky'h aa'n!
28 "Er'l-keo'něeky'h hăat meer' aayn Laayts getaa $n$ !"
Dai-m Faa'ter' gr'aaw'zet-s-er r'aay tet geshv ěent-
30 Er' helt ěen aar'men dăas eky'h'tsendu Kěent-
Er' r'aaky'ht dai•n Hoa•f měet Mue•u uond Noa't-
32 Eĕn zaay'nen Aar'•men dăas Kěent $\mathrm{v}^{\prime}$ aar' toa $t$ !

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

Dhi Er-lking-Kuntin $\cdot$ euai ${ }^{\text {shen. }}$
"Wilt, fein-(jen'tl) boi, dhou widh mee goa, 18 " Mei dau'terz shal dhee tend beu tifuoli ;
" Mei dau'terz (wil) lee•d dhi nei tli daans, 20 "And (wil) r'ok and daans and sing dhee in-(too slee'p)."
" Mei faa dher, mei faa dher, and seest dhou not dhair,
22 "Er-lkingz dau'terz at-dhi gloo'mi prai•s?"-
"Mei sun, mei sun, ei see it perfektli ;
24 "Dhair shein dhi oa.ld wil-oaz soa gr'ai!"
"Ei luv dhee, me atrak ts dhei beu tifuol form, 26 " And aart dhou not wil ing, soa-(in dhat kais) (wil) euz ei foars! "一
"Mei faa dher, mei faa•dher, ${ }^{1}$ nou ${ }^{3}$ see $\cdot \mathrm{zez}{ }^{2}$ hee ${ }^{5}$ mee ${ }^{4}$ on!
28 "Er.lking -haz ton mee a mis'cheef dun-(haz kild mee)!"
(Too) - ${ }^{3}$ dhi ${ }^{4}$ faa dher ${ }^{2}$ hor' $\cdot$ ifeiz- ${ }^{-1 t}$-(dhi faa dher shud $\cdot$ erz) - hee reidz swif $\cdot$ tli-
30 Hee hoaldz in (hiz) aarmz dhi gro oa ning cheild-
Hee r'ee chez dhi faarm-hous widh-lai ber and nee $\cdot d$-(pain and dif ikelti)-
32 In hiz aarmz dhi cheild woz ded:

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.
7.-Der Wanderer.

Musik von Schubert.
Ich komme vom Gebirge her,
2 Es dampft das Thal, es braust das Meer.
Ich wandle fort, bin wenig froh,
4 Und immer fragt der Seufzer wo ?
Immer, wo?

6 Die Sonne dünkt mich hier so kalt,
Die Blüthe welk, das Leben alt,
8 Und was sis reden, leerer schall!
Ich bin ein Fremdling überall.
10 Wo bist du? mein geliebtes Land! Gesucht, geahnt, und nie gekannt!
12 Das Land, das Land so hoffnungsgrün, Das Land wo meine Rosen blühn,
14 Wo meine Freunde wandeln gehn, Wo meine Todten auferstehn,
16 Das Land das meine Sprache spricht-
0 Land! wo bist du?
18 Ich wandle still, bin wenig froh, Und immer fragt der Seufzer, wo?

Immer, wo?
Im Geisterhauch tönt's mir zurück:-
22 "Dort wo du nicht bist. ist das Glück!"

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

## 7.-Der $V^{\prime}$ ăan•derer. <br> Moozee $k$ faon Shoo ber't.

Eěky'h kaom'u faom Geběer' $\cdot \mathrm{gy}$ 'hu hai'r',
2 Es dăampft dăas Taa $\cdot 1$, es br'aawst dăas Mai $\cdot{ }^{\prime}$.
Eĕky'h v'ăan•dlu faor't, běen v'ai•něeky'h fr'oa,
4 Uond ěem 'er' fr'aa $\cdot k h t$ der' Zoi ftser', v'oa? Eěm'er'. v'oa?

6 Dee Zaon'u dueng•kt měeky'h hee'r' zoa kăalt, Dee Blue tu v'elk, dăas Lai•ben ăalt,
8 Uond v'ăas zee r'ai den, lai $\cdot r^{\prime}$ 'er' Shăal!
Eěky'h běen aayn Fr'em'dlěeng ue ber'ăal.
10 V'oa běest doo? maayn gelee ptes Lăant!
Gezoo $\cdot k h t$, ge-aa•nt, uond nee gekăan't!
12 Dăas Lăant, dăas Lăant, zoa haof nuongz-gr'ue‘n,
Dǎas Lăant v'oa maaynu R'oa'zen blue'n,

V'oa maay $\quad$ nu Toa•ten aaw f-er'shtai'n,
16 Dăas Lăant dăas maar•nu Shpr'aa•khu shpr'ěeky'ht-

> Oa Lăant! v'oa bĕest doo?

18 Eěky'h v'ăan•dlu shtěel, běen vai neněeky'h fr'oa,
Uond eem 'er' fr'aa•kht der' Zoi ftser', v'oa?
Eěm Gaay•ster'haaw $k$ kh teo'nt-s mee'r' tsoo-ruek:-
22 "Daor'tv'oa doo něeky'ht běest ěest dăas Gluek!"

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

7.-Dhi Won•derer.

Meu'zik bei Shoo bert.
Ei kum from-dhi mou nten-land hidh er,
2 [Dhair] ${ }^{3}$ vai perz ${ }^{1}$ dhi ${ }^{2}$ val $\cdot \mathrm{i}$, [dhair] ${ }^{3}$ roa $\cdot \mathrm{rz}{ }^{1}$ dhi ${ }^{2}$ see.
Ei wau'k foarth, am -lit•l joi•us-(ver•i sad),
4 And ev•er aasks dhi sei, whair?
Ev'er, whair?
6 Dhi sun seemz-too mee heer soa koa•ld, Dhi blos um fai ded. [dhi] leif oa•ld,
8 And whot dhai spee $k$, em ti sound!
Ei am a str'ai njer ev'r'i-whair'.
10 Whair aart dhou? mei biluv d kun'tri i !
Saut, foarfel't, and nev'er noa'n :

12 Dhi kun•tr'i, dhi kun•tr'i, soa hoa'p-gree•n-(soa gree'n widh hoa'p).
Dhi kun'tr'i, whair mei r'oa'zez bloa,
14 Whair mei fr'endz wau'king goa,
Whair mei ded-wunz r'eiz-agai•n, 16 Dhi kun'tr'i dhat mei lang•gwej spee ks -

Oa kun'tr'i! whair aart dhou?

18 Ei wau•k sei•lent, am lit•l joi us,
And ever aasks dhi sei. whair?
20
Ever, whair?
-In-dhi goast-breth-(az if spoa•kn bei spir' $\cdot \mathrm{its}$ ) soundz-it too-mee bak:-
22 " Dhair whair dhou not aart, iz [dhi] hap ines !"

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY
8.-Adelaide.

Musik von Beethoven.
Einsam wandelt dein Freund im Frühlingsgarten, 2 Mild vom lieblichen Zauberlicht umflossen, Das durch wankende Blüthenzweige zittert,
4
Adelaide!

In der spiegelnden Fluth. im Schnee der Alpen, 6 In des sinkenden Tages Goldgewölke, Im Gefilde der Sterne strahlt dein Bildniss

Abendlüftchen im zarten Laube flüstern, 10 Silberglöckchen des Mays im Grase säuseln, Wellen rauschen und Nachtigallen flöten, 12 Adelaide!

Einst, O Wunder ! entblüht auf meinem Grabe, 14 Eine Blume, der Asche meines Herzens;

Deutlich schimmert auf jedem Purpurblättchen, 16 Adelaide!

GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

## 8.-Aadailaa-ee $\cdot d$ u

Moozee $k$ faon Bai t-hoa fen.
 Fr'ue'lĕengzgăa'r’ten,
2 Měeld faom lee•blěeky'hen Tsaaw•ber lěeky'ht uomflaos'en.
Dăas door'ky'h v'ăang.kendu Blue'ten-tsv'aaygy'hu tsit'er't,
4 Aadailaa-ee•du:
Eěn der' shpee gy'helnden Floo't, ěem Shnai der' Aăl'pen,
[ku,
6 Eěn des zěeng $\cdot k e n d e n ~ T a a \cdot g h e s ~ G a o l-d-g e v ' o e l--~$
Eě'm Gefĕel du der' Shter' nu shtr'aa•lt daayn Běel•dněes
8
Aadailaa-ee du !
Aa-bendluef tky hen ěem tsăar ten Laaw•bu flues•ter'n,
10 Zĕel-bergloek•ky'hen des Maayz ěem Graa'zu zoi'zeln,
V'el en raaw'shen uond năak•těegăal'en fleo'ten,
Aaynst, oa V'uon•der'! entblue•t aawf maay'nem Gr'aa•bu
14 Aay'nu Bloo mu, der' Aăsh•u maay'nes Her•tsens:
Doi•tlĕeky'h shěem'er't aawf yai•dem Poor'poor'blet•ky'hen,

Aadailaa-ee•du !

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLA'TION.

9.-Ad•ilaid.

Meu'zik bei Bee't-hoa'ven.
Sol-iter'i wau'ks dhei fr'end-(luv'er) in-dhi gaa•rden-ov-spr"ing,
2 Jen tli bei-dhi luv•li maj-ik-leit surou nded
Which thr'oo nod-ing flour-br'aa nchez tr'emblz
4
Ad ilaid!

In dhi mir'ur'ing flud, in-dhi snoa ov-dhi Alps, $6{ }^{1}$ In ${ }^{4}$ ov-dhi ${ }^{5}$ sing $\cdot k i n g{ }^{6}$ dai ${ }^{2}$ (dhi ${ }^{3}$ goa $\cdot 1 d-k l o u d z$ In-dhi feeld or-dhi staarz beemz dhei im•ej,

Ee•vning-lit•l-airz in-dhi ten•der foa•liej whis•per,
10 -Sil-ver-lit•1 belz ov [dhi] Mai-(lil•iz or dhi val 'i) in dhi gr'aas r'us•l,
Wai vz br'aul, and nei tinggailz peip,
Ad•ilaid!

Heerr'aa•fter, oa wun•der-(mir'akl), (wil -blos'um-up upon mei gr'ai•v
14 A flour, from) dhi ash-(ded-r'imai nz) ov mei haart;
Klee'rli (wil) shein upon' ev•r'i per'pl-lit•l-leef, 16

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.
9.-Lebewohl.

Musik von Schubert.
Schon naht, um uns zu scheiden,
Der letzte Augenblick,
In's Paradies der Freuden
Kehr' ohne mich zurück!
Der Tod kann Freiheit geben
Mit milder Freundeshand:
Geh' ein zu neuem Leben
In jenes bess're Land.
Nicht lang' sind wir geschieden
Bald werd' ich bei dir sein, Die kurze Frist hienieden

Denk' ich in Liebe dein.
Leb'wohl denn, bis der Morgen
Des neuen Tags erscheint, Der, fern von Erdensorgen,

Auf ewig uns vereint.

GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.
9. $-L a i \cdot b u v^{\prime} o a \cdot l$.

Moozee-k faon Shoo-her't.
Shoa $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ naa $\cdot \mathrm{t}$, oom uons tsoo shaay $\cdot$ den,
2 Der' let'stu Aaw 'ghenblĕek',
Eĕn-s Paar'aadee•s der' Froi'den
4 Kai $r^{\prime}$ oa nu mĕeky'h tsoor'uek' !
Der' Toa $\cdot \mathrm{t}$ kăan Fr'aay haayt gai ben
6 Měet měel-der' Fr'oi•ndes-hăan't;
Gai aayn tsoo noi $\cdot$ em Lai ben,
8 Een yai'nes bes'r'u Lăan't.
Něeky'ht lăang zĕend v'ee'r' geshee den,
10 Băald v'er'd ěeky'h baay dee'r' zaayn,
Dee kuor'tsu Fr'éest hee nee den,
12 Dengk ěeky'h ěen Lee bu daayn.
Lai $\cdot$ bv'oa:l den, bĕes der' Maor' 'gy'hen
14 Des noi en Taa khs er'shaay nt, Dai'r', fer'n faon Er'denzaor'gy'hen
16 Aawf ai•v'ěegy'h uons fer'aay'nt.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

9.-Fair'wel.

Meu'zik bei Shoo bert.
Aulr'edi aproa chez, in-au rder us too sep $\cdot u{ }^{\prime}$ ait, 2 Dhi laast moa ment,
In'too-dhi par'adeis ov joiz
4 R'itern widhou t mee bak!
[Dhi] ${ }^{1}$ deth ${ }^{2} \mathrm{iz-ai} \cdot b l-t o{ }^{4}{ }^{4} \mathrm{fr}$ 'ee-dum ${ }^{3}$ giv
6 Widh jen'tl frendz-hand.
Goa in, faur dhi neu leif,
8 In too dhat bet er-land.

Not long -aar wee-(shal wee bee) sep-ur'aited,
10 Soo'n shal ei widh dhee bee,
Dhi shaurt in'tervel-ov-teim heer-biloa,
12 -Thingk ei- ei shal thingk) in luv ov-dhee

Fairwel dhen, til dhi mau'rning
14 Ov dhi neu dai apee $\cdot \mathbf{r z}$,
Which, faar fron erth-sor oaz
16 Fanr ev'er us euneits

## II. ITALIAN SONGS.

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

1.-Diserto sulla Terra.

Musica di Verdi.
Diserto sulla terra
2 Col rio destino in guerra E' sola speme un cor
4
Al Trovator.

Ma s'ei quel cor possiede,
6 Bello di casta fede,
E' d'ogni rè maggior
8
Il Trovator.
2.-Il balen del suo sorriso.

Musica di Verdi.
Il balen del suo sorriso
2 D'una stella vince il raggio ;
Il fulgor del suo bel viso
4 Novo infonde me corraggio.

Ah! l'amor, l'amore onde ardo Le favelli in mio favor, Sperda il sole d'un suo sguardo
8 La tempesta del mio cor.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

1.-Deesaer'toa sool-laa Taer' $\cdot r^{\prime}$ aa.

Moo'zeekaa dee Vaer'dee.
Deesaer' toa sool-laa Taer'r'aa
2 Koal r'ee'oo daistee'noa_een gwaer'r'aa Ae soa•laa spae mai_oon kao'r'
4
Aal Troa vaatoa'r'.

Maa s-ai•ee kwail kao'r' poassyai $\cdot \mathrm{dai}$
6 Bael loa dee kaas taa fai dai Ae d-oa'ny'ee r'ae maad•jyoa'r'
8
Eel Troa'vaatoa'r'.

2 -Eel bualai•n dail so0.oa soar'r'ee'zoa.
Moo'zeekaa dee Vaer'dee.
Eel baalai'n dail soo oa soar'- $r^{\prime}$ ee'zoa
2 D-oo'naa stai $\cdot 1$-laa vee $n$-chai_eel r'aa•d-jyoa;
Eel foolgoa'r' dail soo oa bael vee zoa
4 Nao voa_eenfoa ndai mai koar'-r'aa'd-jyoa.

Aa! 1- aamoa'r', l- aamoa'r'ai_oa ndai_aa• $r$ '-doa,
6 Lai faavael $\cdot$ lee een mee oa faavoa' $r$ ',
Spaer' daa eel soa lai d-o0'n soo'oa sgwaar' doa
8 Laa taimpaes taa dail mee oa kao'r'.

VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.
1.-Dizer•ted upon•-[dhi] Erth.

Meu'sik bei Verdi.
Dizer ted upon-[dhi] Erth,
2 -Widh-[dhi] gil-ti-(kr'oo el) fait in- at) waur

- Conten•ding agai•nst kr'oo el fai $\cdot$ t)
${ }^{3} \mathrm{Iz}$ (the) ${ }^{5} \mathrm{oa} \cdot \mathrm{nli}{ }^{6} \mathrm{hoa} \cdot \mathrm{p}{ }^{1} \mathrm{a}$ " ${ }^{2}$ harart
Too-dhi Tr'oo-baadoo'r.

But if-hee dhat haart pozes $\cdot$ ez,
6 Beu tifuol widh chai'st fai th, ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Iz}^{5}$ dhan- ${ }^{6}$ ev $\cdot$ er'i ${ }^{7}$ king ${ }^{4}$ gr'ai $\cdot$ ter
8
${ }^{1}$ Dhi ${ }^{2}$ Tr'oo'baadoo r.
2.-Dhi Leitnning ov-[dhi] her Smeil.

Meu zik bei Verdi.
Dhi lei tning ov-[dhi] her smeil
$2{ }^{4} \mathrm{Ov}^{5}{ }^{5}$ a ${ }^{6}$ staar ${ }^{1}$ kong kerz (serpaa ${ }^{\text {sez }}{ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ dhi ${ }^{3}$ rai, Dhi br'ei tnes ov-[dhi] her beu-tifuol fais
$4{ }^{2}$ Neu ${ }^{1}$ infeu ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{2}{ }^{4}{ }^{4}($ in $)$-mee ${ }^{3}{ }^{3} k u{ }^{\prime} \cdot e j$.
Aa! ${ }^{2}$ dhi ${ }^{3}$ luv, dhi luv, whens- ${ }^{4}$ (widh-which) ${ }^{8}$ ei ${ }^{6}$ burn,
$6{ }^{8}(\mathrm{Too}){ }^{9}{ }^{3}$ er ${ }^{1}$ mai- ${ }^{7}$ speek ${ }^{10}$ in ${ }^{11}$ mei ${ }^{12}$ fai $\cdot v e r$,
${ }^{1}$-Mai. ${ }^{7}$ disper $\cdot{ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ dhi ${ }^{3}$ sun ${ }^{4}$ ov ${ }^{5}$ wun [her] ${ }^{6}$ luok
$8{ }^{8}$ Dhi ${ }^{9}$ tem $\cdot$ pest ${ }^{10}{ }^{10}{ }^{11}$ mei ${ }^{12}$ haart,
-(Mai dhi sun ov wun ov her luoks
Disper:s dhi tem•pest ov mei haart).

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

## 3.-Stride la Vampa. Musica di Verdi.

Stride la vampa
2 La folla indomita
Corre a quel foco
4 Lieta in sembianza.
Urli di gioja
6 Intorno eccheggiano,
Cinta di sgherri
8 Donna s’avanza.
Sinistra splende
10 Sui volti orribili
La tetra fiamma
12 Che s'alza al ciel.
Stride la vampa,
14 Giunge la vittima,
Nero vestita,
16 Discinta e scalza.
Grido feroce
18 Di morte levasi, .
L'eco il repete
20 Di balza in balza.
Sinistra splende
22 Sui volti orribili
La tetra fiamma
24 Che s'alza al ciel.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

3.-Str'ee-dai laa Vaam'paa.

Moozeekaa dee Vaer'dee.
Str'ee'dai laa vaam'paa
2 Laa faol laa eendao meetaa
Koar'r'ai_aa kwail fao 'koa
4 Lyae taa_een saimbyaan tsaa.
Oor'lee dee jyao yaa
6 Eentoar'noa_aik-kaid jyaanoa,
Cheen'taa dee zgair'r'ee
8 Daon'naa s- aavaan'tsaa.
Seenee str'aa splaen dai
10 Soo'ee voal'tee_oar'r'ee beelee
Laa tae tr'aa fyaam maa
12 Kai s- aal'tsaa_aal chyae'l.
Str'ee•dai laa vaam•paa
14 Joon jai laa veet'teemaa,
Nai'r'oa vaistee'taa,
16 Deesheen'taa_ai skaal'tsaa.
Gr'ee doa fairoa chai
18 Dee maor'tai lae'vaasee,
L-ae-koa_eel reepae-tai
20 Dee baal'tsaa een baal'tsaa.
Seenee str'aa splaen•dai
22 Soo ee voal'tai_oar'r'ee'beelee
Laa tae'tr'aa fyaam maa
24 Kai s-aal'tsaa_aal chyae-l.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

3.-Krak-lz dhi Flai•m.

Meurzik bei Ver•di.
$\mathrm{Kr}^{\mathrm{j}}{ }^{\mathrm{a}} \cdot \mathrm{lz}$ dhi flai $\cdot \mathrm{m}$,
2 Dhi kr'oud untai md. (ruf, roo $\cdot d$.
R'unz too dhat feir
\& Glad in apee'rr'ens.
Shouts ov joi
6 Ar'ou'nd ek'oa,
Sur'oun $\cdot$ ded bei gaardz
8 (A) lai $\cdot$ di ${ }^{2}[$ herself $]{ }^{1}$ advaan sez.
Il-oa•mend sheinz
10 On-dhi kou'ntenensez hor' ${ }^{\prime}$ ibl
Dhi hid yus flai.m
12 Which ${ }^{2}$ itself ${ }^{1}$ r'ai'zez too-[dhi] her•n.

Kr'ak•lz dhi flai $\cdot \mathrm{m}$,
14 Ar'ei 'vz dhi vik tim,
-Blackly kloa•dhd-(dr'est in blak)
16 Unger't and shoo les.
Kr'ei feer'oa'shus
18 Ov deth r'ai $\cdot z e z-i t s e l f$,
Dhi• ek'oa ${ }^{2}$ it ${ }^{1}$ r'ipee'ts
20 Fr'om r'ok too r'ok.
Il oa $\cdot$ mend sheinz
22 On dhi kou'ntenensez hor' 'ibl
Dhi hid yus flai'm
24 Which ${ }^{2}$ itsel'f ${ }^{1}$ r'airzez too-[dhi] hev'n.

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.<br>4.-Soave Imagine.<br>Musica di Mercadante<br>Soave imagine<br>2 D'amor, di pace,<br>Tu spiri all' anima<br>4 Dolce vigor.<br>Se tal delizia<br>6 M'invidi, o Cielo,<br>E' troppo barbaro<br>8 Il tuo rigor.

5.-Lascia chio pianga.

Musica di Handel.
Armida dispietata
2 Colla forza d'abisso,
Rapimmi al caro ciel
$4 \mathrm{De}^{3}$ miei contenti.
E qui con duolo eterno
6 Viva mi tiene.
In tormento inferno.
8 Signor, deh per pietà,
Lasciami piangere.
10 Lascia ch' io pianga
La dura sorte,
12 E che sospiri
La libertà.
14 Il duol infranga
Queste ritorte
16 De' miei martiri
Sol per pietà.

GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.
4.-Soa-aa•vai Eemaa-jeenai.

Moo zeekaa di Maer'kaadăan'tai.
Soa-aa-vai_eemaa-jeenai
2 D- aamoa $\cdot \mathrm{r}^{\prime}$, dee paa chai,
Too spee'r'ee_aal.l aa'neemaa
4 Doa-lchai veegoa'r'.
Sai taal dailee 'tsee-aa
6 M. eenvee•dee,_oa chyael $\cdot$ loa, Ae traop poa baartbaar'oa
8 Eel too'oa reegoa'r'.
5.-Laa'shyaa $k$-ee:oa pyaan gaa. Moo'zeekaa dee Haen•del
Aar'mee daa dee-spyaitaa'taa
2 Koal'laa faor' tsaa d- aabees 'soa
Raapeen $\cdot$ mee_aal kaa roa chyae 1
4 Dai myai $\cdot$ ee koantaen'tee.
Ai kwee koan dwao loa_aitaer noa
6 Vee vaa mee tyae nai,
Een toar'main'toa_eenfaer'noa.
8 Seeny'oar', dae! paer' pyaitaa,
Laa shyaamee pyaan'jairai.
10 Laa $\cdot$ shyaa $k$ - ee oa pyaang•gaa
Laa door'aa saor 'tai,
12 Ai kai soaspee-ree Laa leebaer'taa.
14 Eel dwao 1 eenfr'aan gaa Kwai stai r'eetaor'tai
16 Dai myai-pe maar'tee'r'ee Soa'l paer pyaitaa $\cdot$

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

4.-Sweet In $\cdot e j$.

Meu'zik bei Merkadan'ti.
Sweet im $\cdot \mathrm{ej}$
2 Ov luv, ov pee's,
Dhou br'ee dhest too-dhi soall
4 Swee t vig er.
${ }^{1}$ If ${ }^{5}$ such ${ }^{6}$ dilei $t$
$6{ }^{4}$ Mee ${ }^{3}$ en $\cdot v_{i e s t-~}{ }^{2}$ dhou, Oa hev $\cdot n$,
${ }^{3} \mathrm{Iz}$ ' ${ }^{4}$ too ${ }^{5}$ baa rebur'us
8 [Dhi] ${ }^{1}$ dhei ${ }^{2}$ r'ig er.

## 5.-Alow dhat ei mai-wee'p.

Meurzik bei Han•dl.
Aarmee daa pit-iles
2 Widh-dhi foars ov abis (hel)
Kar'id-mee of-foar rislif from-dhi deer hev'n 4 Ov mei kenten'ts (hapines).

And heer widh disee•t iter•nel
6 Alei $\cdot v$ mee keeps,
In tau'rment infer•nel.
8 Ser, alas! faur pit-i
Alou mee too-wee $\cdot$ p.
10 Alou•dhat ei mai-wee'p
Dhi-(mei) haa rd lot,
12 And dhat (ei mai-sei faur [Dhi] lib•erti.

14 (Mai) [dhi] disee t br'aik Dheez bondz
16 Ov mei suf•ur'ingz
Oa'nli faur pit-i.

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

## 6.-Non più Andrai.

Musica di Mozart.
Non più andrai, farfallone amoroso, 2 Notte e giorno d'intorno girando, Delle belle turbando il riposo, 4 Narcisetto, Adoncino d'amor.

Non più avrai questi bei pennachini,
6 Quel cappello leggero e galante, Quella chioma, quell' aria brillante, Quel vermiglio, donnesco color.

Tra guerrieri puoi far Bacco,
10 Gran mustacchi, stretto sacco, Schioppo in spalla, sciabla al fianco,
12 Collo dritto, muso franco, Un gran casco, o un gran turbante,
14 Molto onor, poco contante.
Ed in vece del fandango
16 Una marcia per il fango,
Per montagne, per valloni,
18 Con le nevi, e i sollioni, Al concerto di tromboni,
20 Di bombarde, di cannoni,
Chi le palle in tulli i tuoni
22 A l'orecchia fan fischiar.
Cherubino, alla vittoria!
24 Alla gloria militar !

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

6.-Noan pyoo aandr'aa'ee.

Moo'zeekaa dee Moa•tsaar't.
Noan pyoo_aandr'aa $\cdot s e$, faar'faal-loa nai_aamoar'oa:zoa,
[doa,
2 Naot-tai_ai jyoa'r'noa d-eentoa'r'noa jeer'aan:-
Dail-lai bael lai toor'baan doa_eel r'eepao'zoa
4 Naar'cheesaet toa,_Aadoanchee noad-aamoa'r'.
Noan pyoo_aavr'aa•ee kwai•stee bae eee painnaakee nee,
[tai
6 Kwail kaap-pael-loa laid-jae'r'oa_ai gaalaan:Kwail•la kyao maa, kwail-l- aa'r'yaa br'eellaan tai,
8 Kwail vaer'mee ly'oa, doannai•skoakoaloa $r$ '.
Tr'aa gwair'-r'yae'ree pwao eee faar' Baak-koa,
10 Gr'aan moostaak kee, str'ait toa saak koa,
Skyaop poa_een spaal-laa, shyaa•blaa_aal fyaang $\cdot k 0 a$,
$12 \mathrm{Kaol} \cdot \mathrm{loa}$ dr'eet toa, moo zoa fr'aang koa,
Oongr'aan kaas•koa,_ao_oon graan toor'baan $\cdot$ tai ${ }_{4}$
14 Moa $\cdot$ ltoa_oanoa $r$ ', pao koa koantaa ntai.
Aid een vai chai dail faandaang•goa,
16 Uo'naa maar' chyaa paer' eel faang'goa,
Paer' moantaa•ny'ai, paer' vaal-loa'nee,
18 Koan lai nai vee,_ai_ee soal-leeoa'nee, Aal koanchaer' toa dee tr'oamboa'nee,
20 Dee boambaar $\cdot$ dee, dee kaan-noa nee, Kai lai paal-lai_een toot-tee twao nee
22 Aa l-oar'aik kyoa faan feeskyaa'r'.
Kair'oobee noa. aal•laa veet-toa• $\cdot \mathbf{r}$ iaa !
24 Aal ${ }^{\prime}$ laa gloa $\cdot r^{\prime}$ iaa meeleetaa $\cdot \mathbf{r}$ '.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

6.-No moar dhou-wilt-goa.

Meurzik bei Moazaart.
Noa moar dhou-wilt-goa, but erflei am•ur'us,
2
4 . ${ }^{5}$,

4 Lit•l-Naarsis'us, lit-1-Adoa•nis ov luv.
Noa moar dhou-wilt-hav dheez beu tifuol ploomz,
Dhat hat leit and galaa.nt,
Dhat hed-ov-hair, dhat air bril-yent,
Dhat vermil-yen, lai•di-leik-(efem•inet) kul•ur.

Amung. wor'•erz dhou-kanst maik-(plai-dhi-paart-ov) Bak•us,

10 Gr'ai t moostaa $\cdot$ shoaz, teit bag (nap sak',
Mus.ket on shoa•lder, sai ber at-dhi seid.
12 Nekstr'ait,fiz-(ridik•eulus werd faur fai $\cdot$ s) boald, A gr'ait hel met, aur a gr'ait ter•ben,
14 Much on'er, lit-l r'edi-muni.
And in plai $\cdot \mathrm{s}$ ov-dhi fandang goa- daans
16 A maarch thr'oo dhi mud, Thr'oo mountenz, thr'oo laarj-val $\cdot i z$,
18 Widh dhi snoaz, and dhi dog daiz,
Too-dhi kon sert of tr'omboa nz,
20 Ov bum•berdz, ov kan'enz,
Which dhi baulz in aul toanz
$22{ }^{3} \mathrm{Too}{ }^{4}$ dhi ${ }^{5}$ ear ${ }^{1}$ mai ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ his.
Ker'oobee noa, too-[dhi] vik tur'i !
24 Too-[dhi] ${ }^{2}$ gloa•r-r'i ${ }^{1}$ mil-iter'i!

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

7.-Non è ver?<br>Musica di Tito Mattei.

Non è ver?
2 Quando assiso a te vicin
Ti parlai, ben mio, d'amor,
4 Ti ricordi, angel divin,
Palpitaro i nostri cor.
6 Ah! Nò, non è ver! Nò, nò.

Nò, non è ver! Ah!
8 Tu dicesti, ti sovvien?
"Per la vita io t'amerò !"
10 Ma mentisti, indegna, appien,
Non fu il cor che tel dettò.
12
Ah! Nò, non è ver! Nò, nò !
8.-Pur dicesti.

Musica di Antonio Lotti.
Pur dicesti, 0 bocca bella!
2 Quel suave e caro "sì !"
Che fa tutto il mio piacer.
4 Per onor di sua facella
Con un bacio Amor t'aprì,
6
Dolce fonte del goder.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

## 7.-Noan ae vai•r?

Moo'zeekao dee Tee'toa Măat-tae'ee.
Noan ae vai'r?
2 Kwaan $\cdot$ doa aas-see•soa_aa tai veechee'n
Tee paar'laa'ee, baen mee oa, d- aamoa'r',
Tee reekaor'dee, aan'jel deevee'n,
Paalpeetaa'roa_ee naos'tr'ee kao'r'?
Aa! nao, noan ae vai $\cdot r^{\prime}$ ! Nao, nao!
Nao, noan ae vair'! Aa!
8 Too deechai $\cdot$ stee, tee soav-vyae'n?
"Paer' laa vee'taa_ee•oa t-aamairao!"
Maa maintee'stee,_eendai ny'aa,_aap-pyae'n,
Noan foo_eel kaor' kai tail dait-ta0..
Aa! nao, naon ae vai $r^{\prime}$ ! Nao, nao.

## 8.-Poor' deechai-stee.

Moo'zeekaa dee Aăntao'nee-oa Laot'tee.
Poor' deechai $\cdot \mathrm{ste}$, _oa boak kaa bael-laa!
2 Kwail soa-aa vai_ai kaa'r'oa " see!"
Kai faa toot'toa eel mee oa pyaachai $r$ '.
4 Paer' oanoa 'r' dee soo aa faachael-laa
Koan oon baa'chyoa_Aamoa'r' t- aapree',
9

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

7.-Not iz-(it) tr'0o?

Meu•zik bei Tee•toa Matai•ee.
Not iz. (it) tr'00?
2 When see ted too dhee neer
(To) dhee (ei)-spoa $k$, ${ }^{2}$ guod-(deer) ${ }^{1}$ mei, ov luv;
[divei $\cdot n$,
4 -Dhè r'imeindest-(dust dhour'ekolek $\cdot$ t), ai njel
${ }^{3}$ Pal-pitated [dhi] ${ }^{1}$ our ${ }^{2}$ haarts ?
6 Aa! noa, not iz-(it) tr'oo! Noa, noa.
Noa, not iz-(it) troo! Aa!
8 Dhou sai dest, dhee dust-dhou-r'imei'nd-(dust dhou rimem $\cdot$ ber)?
"Thr'oo [dhi] leif ei dhee wil-luv!"

10 But dhou-didst-lei, unwer dhi wun, toa'teli,
Not woz dhi haart dhaat too-dhee-it sed!
12 Aa! no, not iz-(it) tr'oo! Noa, noa.

## 8.-Never-dhi-les dhou-sai-dest.

Meu'zik bei Antoa•nio Lot-i。
Nev•er-dhi-les dhou-sai•dest, Oa mouth bentifuol!
2 Dhat swee't and dee $\cdot \mathrm{r}$ "yes!"
Which mai'ks aul [dhi] mei plezh er.
4 Faur on er ov hiz feir,
Widh a kis Luv ${ }^{2}$ dhee ${ }^{1}$ oa pend
6 Swee $t$ fou'nten ov dilei $\cdot t$ !

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

9.-Possenti Numi. Musica di Mozart.
Possenti Numi, Iside, Osiri,
Date a que'petti senno e valor !
I vostri lumi la coppia miri
4 E non l'alletti ombra d'error !
Del bel sentier giunga alla meta,
6 O se a lei fier destin lo vieta,
Numi, o date degna mercè
8 Della virtude lor e fè.
10.-Qui sdegne non s'accende. Musica di Mozart.
Qui sdegno non s'accende
2 E soggiornar non sa,
La colpa non offende,
4 Trova l'error pietà !
Fraterno amor unisce i cor,
6 In pace i di passiam cosi.
Linganno qui non ride
8 Nel mascherare il ver:-
Fra noi ciascun divide
10 L'affanno ed il piacer.
In pace i di passiam così.
12 Finchè si vien d'Osiri in sen.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

## 9.-Poas-saen'tai Noo'mee.

Moo'zeekaa dee Moa tsaar't.
Poas-sien'tai Noo $\cdot$ mee,_Ee'seedai,_Oaseer'ee,
2 Daa'tai_aa kwai paet'tee sai'nnoa_ai vaaloar !
Ee vaos'tr'ee loo'mee la kaop'pyaa mee'r'ee
4 Ai noan 1 - aal-laet'tee_oa'mbr'aa d-air'r'oa $\mathbf{r}^{\prime}$ !
Dail bael saintyae $\mathbf{r}$ ' joong•gaa_aal-laa mae-taa,
6 Ao sai aa lae ee fyae•r daistee'n loa vyae taa,
Noo'mee, oa daa tai dai ny' aa mair'chai-
8 Dail-laa veer too dai laor ai fai.
10.-Kwee zdai'ny'oa noan s-at-chaen $\cdot$ dai.

Moo'zeekaa dee Moa'tsaar't.
Kwee zdai ny'oa noan s- aat-chaen-dai
2 Ai soad-joar'naa'r noan saa,
Laa koal-paa noan oaf-faen dai,
4 Trao vaa 1-air'roa'r pyaitaa-!
Fraataer' noa_aamoa'r' oonee'shai_ee kao'r',
6 Een paa chai_ee dee paas-syaa $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ koasee.
L- eengaan noa kwee noan ree-dai
8 Nail maaskairaa rai_eel vai'r':
Fraa noa ee chyaaskoo'n deevee•dai
10 L- affaan noa_aid eel pyaachai $r$.
Een paa chai_ee dee paas-syaa $m$ koasee ,
12 Feenkhai $\cdot$ see vyae'n d- Oasee $\mathbf{r}$ ree_een sai'n.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

[See Jer'men Songz, n. 4, p. 219.]
9.-Powrfuol Dee•itiz.

Meu'zik bei Moazaart.
Pou'rfuol Dee $\operatorname{itiz}$, Ei $\cdot$ sis, Oasei rr'is,
2 Giv too dhoaz br'ests sens and kur' ej.
[Dhi] ${ }^{5}$ eur ${ }^{6}$ leits ${ }^{2}$ dhi ${ }^{3} \mathrm{kup} \cdot{ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ mai ${ }^{4}$ see,
$4{ }^{1}$ And ${ }^{7}$ not ${ }^{9}$ it ${ }^{2}$ mai ${ }^{9}$ aleur ${ }^{3}$ (dhi) ${ }^{4}$ shad $0{ }^{5}{ }^{5}$ or ${ }^{6} \mathrm{er} \cdot \mathrm{er}$ !

Ov-dhi beu tifuol paath mai-it-r'eech too-dhi goal-(end),
6 Aur ${ }^{1}$ if ${ }^{6}$ too ${ }^{7}$ it-(dhi pair) ${ }^{2}$ fee ${ }^{\text {rs }}{ }^{3}$ fai ${ }^{6}{ }^{5}$ it-(dhis) ${ }^{4}$ faurbid $\cdot z$,
Dee-itiz, oa giv wer•dhi riwau•rd
$8^{1} \mathrm{Ov}$-[dhi] ${ }^{3}$ verteu ${ }^{2}$ dhair and fai th.
[See Jer men Songz, n. 5, p. 219.]
10. -Hee•r ang $\cdot g e r{ }^{2}$ not ${ }^{3}$ itself ${ }^{1}$ inflai $\cdot m z$. Meu'zik bei Moazaart.
Hee'r ang•ger ${ }^{2}$ not ${ }^{3}$ itsel•f ${ }^{1}$ inflai $m z$,
2 And too dwel not noaz-(kan oot dwel),
[Dhi] fault-(sin) not ofen $\cdot \mathrm{dz}$,
$4{ }^{2}$ Feindz [dhi] ${ }^{1}$ er er ${ }^{2}$ pit- I !
Fr'ater*nel luv eunei ts dhi haarts,
6 In pee's dhi- our) dai $\cdot z$ wee-paa $\cdot \mathrm{s}$ dhus.
-[Dhi] disee ${ }^{-t}{ }^{3}$ heer ${ }^{2}$ not ${ }^{1 l}$ laa•fs
8 In-dhi maa'sking-ov dhi tr'ooth (disee t moks men not hee $r$ bei konsee ling tr' ooth)
Amung- us eech-wun shai $x z$
10 [Dhi] sor"oa and [dhi] joi.
In pees dhi dai $\cdot \mathrm{z}$ wee-paa's dhus,
12 Until-itsel $\cdot f$ kumz-(wun kumz) ov Oasei $\cdot r$ 'is in'too buoz'em.

## ECCLESIASTICAL LATIN IN ITALIAN PRONUNCLATION.

ORIGLNAL ORTHOGRAPHY.
11.-Stābat Māter.

Rossinius cantum invēnit.
Stābat Mäter dolorōsa
Juxtā crucem lacrymōsa
Dum pendēbat Fīlius.
Cūjus animam gementem,
Contristantem et dolentem
6 Pertransivit gladius.
O quam tristis et afficta
Fuit illa bencdicta
Māter Uunigenitī.
Quas moerēbat et dolēbat,
Et tremēbat cum vidēbat Nātī poenās inclytī.

Quis est homo quī nōn fiēret,
Christi Mātrem sī vidēret
In tantō suppliciō?
Quis nōn posset contristārī
Piam Mätrem contemplārī
Dolentem cum Filiō ?
Prō peccātīs suae gentis
Vidit Jēsum in tormentīs,
Et flãgellis subditum.
Vidit suum dulcem Nātum
Morientem dēsolātum
24 Dum ēmisit spiritım.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

## 11.-Staa'băat Māa•taer'.

Raossee'nioos kăan'toom eenvae'neet.
Staa•băat Maa'taer' dao'laor'ao'saa
Yooks•taa kr'oo chaem laa•kr'eemao'saa,

Kaon'tr'eestăan'taem aet daolaen'taem

Ao! kwăam tr'ěes'těes aet ăafllěek'taa Foo $e$ et ěel-la bae'naeděek'taa
9 Maa'taer' Oo neejae nĕetee, Kwae maer'ae•băat aet daolae $\cdot$ băat Aet tr'aemae•băat kǒom veedae•băat
12 Naa'tee pae'naas ěeng-klěetee.
Kwěes aest hao mao kwee nao'n flae'r'aet
Krěes'tee Maa'tr'aem see veedae'r'aet

15
Kwěes nao'n paos'saet kaon'tr' eestaa'r'ee
Pee•ŭam Maa‘tr'aem kaon'taemplaa'r'ee
18
Prao paekkaa'tees soo'ae jaen'těes
Vee'dĕet Yae'sŏom ĕen tăor'maen'tees,
21 Aet flaajael-lees sǒob•dĕetoom, Vee děet soo.oom dŏol chaem Naa'torsm Mao'r'ee-aen'taem dae•saolaa'tŏom,
24 Dŏom aemee'sěet spee'rěetŏom.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

## 11.- ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Woz}^{4}$ standing ${ }^{1}$ (dhi)- ${ }^{2}$ Mudher.

Rossee ${ }^{n i}{ }^{2}$ (dhi)- ${ }^{3}$ voa•kel- ${ }^{4}$ meu'zik ${ }^{\text {l }}$ inven'ted. ${ }^{3}$ Woz- ${ }^{4}$ standing ${ }^{1}$ (dhi)- ${ }^{2}$ Mudh er fuol-ov-gr'eef, Neer (dhi)-kros, fuol-ov-tee'rz,
3 Wheilst ${ }^{3}$ woz- ${ }^{4}$ hang $\cdot$ ing ${ }^{1}$ (her)- ${ }^{2}$ Sun, ${ }^{2} \mathrm{HoO}^{\circ} \mathrm{z}$-(dhi Mudherz) ${ }^{3}$ soa $\cdot 1$ ' ${ }^{4}$ groa•ning
${ }^{5}$ Aflik ${ }^{\text {ting }}{ }^{6}$ and ${ }^{7}$ gree ving
$6{ }^{10} \mathrm{Haz-}{ }^{11}$ paast- ${ }^{1}$ throo ${ }^{8}[a]-{ }^{9}$ soa $\cdot \mathrm{rd}$.
Oa! hou sad and aflik'ted
Woz that bles'ed
9 Mudh er ov-(dhi)-Oa'nli-bigot'n,
Hoo woz-moo'rning and woz-gr'ee'ving
And woz-tr'em bling when (shi)-woz-see'ing
$12{ }^{3} \mathrm{Ov}-{ }^{4}$ (her)- ${ }^{6}$ Sun ${ }^{1}$ dhi- ${ }^{2}$ pai $\cdot n z[o v]-{ }^{5}$ sel ${ }^{-1}$ ibraited.

Hoo iz (dhi)-man ${ }^{1}$ hoo ${ }^{3}$ not ${ }^{2}$ wuod- ${ }^{4}$ wee $p$
${ }^{5}$ Kreists ${ }^{6}$ Mudh er ${ }^{1}$ if ${ }^{2}$ (hi)- ${ }^{3}$ shuod ${ }^{4}$ see
15 In soa-grai't pun•ishment- aflik shen)?
${ }^{1} \mathrm{Hoo} \cdot{ }^{5}$ not ${ }^{2}$ wuod_- ${ }^{3}$ bi- ${ }^{4}$ ai $\cdot{ }^{\text {bl }}{ }^{6}$ too- ${ }^{7}$ bee- ${ }^{8}$ allik ted
${ }^{11}$ (Dhi)- ${ }^{12}$ pei us ${ }^{13}$ Mudh $\cdot$ er ${ }^{9}$ too- ${ }^{10}$ kon templaitat kon'templai'ting),
18 Gree'ving widh (her)-Sun?

Faur (dhi)-sinz ov-hiz pee pl
(Shi)-sau Jee zus in tau rments,
21 And bei sker $\cdot \mathrm{jez}$ subdeu d,
(Shi)-sau her swee t Sun
Dei ing faursai $k n$
24 Wheil (hi)-eemit-ed (hiz)-breth.

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

## Stābat Mäter-Supplēmentum.

EEjā, Māter, fons amōris!
Mē sentire vim dolöris
27 Fāc et tēcum lūgeam.
Fāc ut ardeat cōr meum,
In amāndō Christum Deum,
30 Ut sibi complaceam.
Sancta Māter, istud agās,
Crucifixī fige plagās
33 Cordi meō validē.
Tuī Nātī vulnerātī,
Jam dignātī prō mē patī,

Fāc mê vêrê tēcum flêre,
Crucifixō condolēre,
39 Dōnec ego vixerō.
Juxtā crucem tēcum stāre
Mē libenter sociāre
42 In planctū dêsĩderō.
Virgō, virginum praeclāra, Mihi jam nōn sis amāra
45 Fāc mē tēcum plangere.
Fāc ut portem Christī Mortem,
Passiōnis fāc consortem,
48 Et plagās recolere.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

Staa•băat Mää•taer'-Soop-plaemaen toom.
Ae'yaa! Maa'taer', faons aamao'r'ees!
Mae saentee 'r'ae věem daolao'r'ees
Faa•k oot aar'dae-ăat kao $r^{\prime}$ mae oom
Eĕn aamăan dao Kr'ěes'toom Dae'oom
Oŏt see-bee kaomplaa chae-aam.
Săangk'taa Maa'taer', ěes'tŏod aa'guas,
Kr'oo'seefěek'see fee-jae plaa gaas
Kaor'dee mae'ao vaalleedae.
Too'ee Naa tee vŏol'naer'aa'tee,
Yaam deegnaa'tee pr'ao mae paa'tee,

Faa•k mae vae•r'ae tae 'kǒom flae'r'ae,
Kr'on'seefěek'sao kaon •danlae $\mathbf{r \prime a e}$,
Dao'naek ae'gao věek'saer'ao ;
Yŏoks'taa kr'oo'chaem tae'koom staa'r'ae,
Mae leebaen'taer sao'tsee-aa'r'ae
Eĕn plăangk too daesee daer'ao.
Věer'gao věer'jeenom praeklaa r'aa
Mee'hee yăam nao'n sěes aamaa'r'aa
45
Faa•k mae tae kkŏom plăan jaer'ae,
Faa'k oot paor'taem Krěes'tee maor'taem
Păas'seeao'nees faa $\cdot \mathrm{k}$ kaonsaor'taem,
48 Aet plaa'gaas r'aekao'laer'ae.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

${ }^{3}$ Woz-4ständing ${ }^{1}(d h i){ }^{2}$ Mudher-Kuntin•euai'shen.
Hoa ! Mudh•er, fount ov-luv !
${ }^{2}$ Mee too-fee 1 (dhi)-foa rs ov-gree•f
$27{ }^{1}$ Kau'z, and widh-dhee mai-ei-moorn.
Kau'z dhat mai-bern ${ }^{2} h a a \cdot r t{ }^{1}$ mei
In luving Kr'eist God,
30 Dhat himself• (ei mai-pleez.
Hoa li Mudh er, dhis doo-
${ }^{5} \mathrm{Ov}{ }^{-6}(\mathrm{dhi})-{ }^{7} \mathrm{Kr}^{\prime}$ oosifeid $-{ }^{8}$ Wun ${ }^{2}$ fiks ${ }^{3}(\mathrm{dhi})-$ ${ }^{4}$ str'eips
33 [Too]] ${ }^{11} \mathrm{haa} \cdot \mathrm{rt}{ }^{9}$ too- ${ }^{10}$ mei ${ }^{1}$ fao $\cdot \mathrm{rsibli}$,
${ }^{6} \mathrm{O}^{\mathrm{v}}-{ }^{7} \mathrm{dhei}$ [ov] ${ }^{9}$ Sun [ov]- ${ }^{-8}$ woo nded,
$\left({ }^{10} \mathrm{Hoo}{ }^{11} \mathrm{haz}\right.$ ) ${ }^{12}$ aulr ed $\cdot \mathrm{i}{ }^{13}$ dai $\cdot n d{ }^{16}$ faur ${ }^{17}$ meo ${ }^{14}$ too- ${ }^{-15}$ suf $\cdot e r$
36
${ }^{4}\left(\right.$ Dhi) $-{ }^{5}$ pai $\cdot n z{ }^{2}$ widh- ${ }^{3}$ mee ${ }^{1}$ divei $\cdot d$-(shai $\cdot \mathbf{r}$ ).

Kau'z mee tr'ooli widh-dhee too-wee'p, (Dhi)-Kr'oo sifeid-Wun too-gr'ee $\cdot \mathrm{v}$ widh,
${ }^{2}$ Ver-jin ${ }^{3}$ ov-ver-jinz ${ }^{1}$ ilus'trius
${ }^{4}$ Too. ${ }^{5}$ mee ${ }^{6}$ nou ${ }^{2}$ not ${ }^{1}$ bee ${ }^{3}$ bit-er,
Kau z mee widh-dhee too-lumen't, Kau'z dhat (ei)-mai-kar'i Kr'eists deth, Ov -(hiz -pash•en kauz-(mee-too-be) asoa shiet,
Az-long-az ei shal-liv;
Neer (dhi)-kros widh-dhee too-stand,
Mee wil'ingli (widh-dhee) too-asoa•shiait
In lạm•ntai shen (ei $\cdot$ dizei $\cdot \mathrm{r}$.

And (hiz ${ }_{j}$-str eips too-kul'tivait-uneu.

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

Stābat Mäter-Supplēmentum.
Fāe mè plagis vulnerārī,
Cruce hāc inēbriārī
Ob amōrem Fīlī̆.
Inflammātus et accensus
Per tē, Virgō, sim dēfensus
54 In diē jūdiciī.

Fàc mē cruce custōdīrī,
Morte Christī praemūnīī,
Quandō corpus moriētur, Fāc ut anima donētur 60 Paradisī glōriā.

AAmēn!
In sempiterna saecula, AAmēn.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCLATION.

Staa•băat Māa taer'-Soop•plaemaen'toom.
Faa. k mae plaa jees vǒol'naer'aa'r'ee,
Kr'oo chae haa $k$ eenae $b r^{\prime}$ 'eeaa $r^{\prime}$ 'ee
Aob aamao r'aem Fee-lee-ee.
Eĕn•flăammaa 'toos aet aatchaen'soos, Paer' tae', Věer'gao, sěem daefaen'soos
54 Eĕn dee ae yoodee'tsee-ee.

Faa•k mae kroo chae kǒos'taodee $r^{\prime}$ 'ee,
Maor'tae Kr'ĕes'tee prae'moonee'r'ee,
57 Kaonfaovae'r'ee gr'aa'tseeaa.
Kwăan•dao kaor' pơos mao'r'eeae'toor',
Faa•k ǒot aa'neemaa daonae'tŏor
60 Paa'r'aadee'see glao'r'eeaa.

Aa-mae'n!
Een saem•peetaer'naa sae•koolaa, Aa'mae'n!

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

${ }^{8}$ Woz- ${ }^{4}$ standing ${ }^{1}{ }^{\prime}(d h i)-{ }^{2}$ Mudh $\cdot$ er-Kuntin $\cdot$ euai $\cdot$ shen.
Kau'z mee widh- hiz)-str'eips too-be-woo'nded, ${ }^{3} \mathrm{Kros}{ }^{1}$ widh- ${ }^{2}$ his too-be-inee briaited
51 On-ukou'nt-ov (dhi)-luv ov-(eur)-Sun. Inflai $\cdot \mathrm{md}$ and set-on-feir, Bei dhee, Ver•jin, mai-ei-bee difen•ded
54 In (dhi)-dai ov-juj ment.

Kau'z mee bei-(dhi)-kros too-be-gaa rded, Bei- dhi)-deth ov-Kr eist too-bee-proatek ted,

Too-bee-much-cher -isht bei-gr'ai's.
When (mei)-bod i shall-dei
Kau'z dhat (mei)-soa•l mai-bee-prizen'ted
${ }^{4} \mathrm{Ov}-{ }^{5}$ par'udeis ${ }^{1}$ widh- ${ }^{2}$ (dhi)- ${ }^{3}$ gloa rr'i.
Ai $\cdot$ men !
In'too ev-erlaasting ai $\cdot \mathrm{jiz}$, Ai men $\cdot$ !

## III. FRENCH SONGS.

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.
1.-Où voulez-vous aller?

Musique de Gounod.
Dites, la jeune belle,
2 Où voulez-vous aller?
La voile ouvre son aile,
4 La brise va souffler!
L'aviron est d'ivoire
6 Le pavillon de moire,
Le gouvernail d'or fin.
8 J'ai pour lest une orange,
Pour voile une aile d'ange,
10 Pour mousse un séraphin.
Est-ce dans la Baltique :
12 Sur la mer pacifique:
Dans l'île de Java?
12 Où bien dans la Norwège,
Cueillir la fleur de neige?
Ou la fleur d'angsoka? 。
"Menez-moi," dit la belle,
18 '. A' la rive fidèle,
"Où l'on aime toujours."
20 Cette rive, ma chère,
On ne la connaît guère,
22
Au pays des amours.

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

1.-Oo voolai-vooz aalai?

Muezeek deo Goonca.
Deeteo, laa zhoeneo baeleo,
Oo voolai-vooz aalai?
Laa vwaal novr'eo saon aeleo,
Laa br'eezeo vaa sooflai!
L-aaveeroan' ae d-eevwaar'eo,
6 Leo paaveeyoan' deo mwaar'eo, Leo goovaer'naaee d-aor' faen'.
8 Zh-ai poor' laest uen oar'ahn'zheo,
Poor' vwaal uen aeleo d-ahn zheo,
Poor' moos oen' sair'afaen'.
Ae-seo dahn' laa Baalteekeo?

Suer' laa maer' paaseefeekeo? Dahn' l-eeleo deo Zhaavaa?
Oo byaen' dahn' laa Naor'vaezheo, Koeyyeer' laa floer' deo naezheo? Oo laa floer' d-ahn'saokaa?
"Meonai-mwaa," dee laa baeleo,
"Aa laa r'eeveo feedaeleo, "Oo l-oan aimeo toozhoor'."
Saeteo r'eeveo, maa shaer'eo, Oan' neo laa kaonae gaer'eo, Oa pai-ee daez aamoor'.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

1.-Whidh er wish-eu (too) goa?

Meu'zik bei Guon’oa.
Sai, dhi-(mei) yung beu'ti,
Dhi sail oa pnz its wing,
Dhi br'ee'z iz-goa'ing (too) bloa.
Dhi-oar iz ov-ei•vur'i,
6 Dhi flag ov wau terd silk,
Dhi helm ${ }^{1}$ ov- ${ }^{3}$ goald ${ }^{2}$ peur.
8 Ei hav faur bal'est an or' 'enj,
10

Faur sail a wing ov-ai'njel,
Faur kab•in-boi a ser'af.

Iz-it in too dhi Baultik?
12 Upon $\cdot$ dhi ${ }^{2}$ see ${ }^{1}$ Pasif•ik?
In'too dhi-eil ov Jaa vaa?
14 Aur wel-(else in too [dhi] Naurwai,
(T'oo) gadh er dhi flour ov snoa?
16 Aur dhi flour ov-Aashoa kaa-("Jonesia Asoka", Joanee zhia Asoa ka , dhi fei 'nest flou'rr'ing shr'ub in India).
"Tai k-mee," sez dhi beu ti,
18 "Too dhi ${ }^{2}$ shoar ${ }^{1}$ fai thfuol,
"Whair wun luvz au•lwaiz."
20 Dhat shoar, mei deer,

- Wun not it noaz haardli-(is skai rsli noa $\cdot \mathrm{n}$ )

22 In-dhi kun'tr'i ov luvz.

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.
2.-Sérénade (Berceuse).

Poésie de Victor Hugo, musique de Gounod.
Quand tu chantes bercée
Le soir entre mes bras,
Entends-tu ma pensée
Qui te répond tout bas?
Ton doux chant me rappelle
Les plus beaux de mes jours;
Ah! chartez ma belle, Chantez, chantez, toujours.

Quand tu ris, sur ta bouche
L'amour s'épanouit,
Et soudain le farouche
Soupçon s'évanouit.
Ah ! le rire fidèle
Prouve un coeur sans détours ;
Ah! riez. ma belle,
Riez, riez toujours.
Quand tu dors calme et pure, Dans l'ombre, sous mes yeux,
Ton haleine murmure
Des mots harmonieux ;
Tou beau corps se révèle
22
24

Sans voile et sans atours,
Ah! dormez, ma belle,
Dormez, dormez toujours.

GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.
2.-Sair'ainaad (Baer'soez).

Poa-aizee deo Věektaor Ue-goo, muezeek deo Goonoa.
Kahn' tue shahn'teo baer'sai-eo Leo swaar' ahn tr'eo mae braa, Ahn'tahn' tue maa pahn'sai-eo Kee teo r'aipoan too baa? 'Toan' doo shahn' meo r'aapaelen Lae plue boa deo mae zhoor' : Aa! shahn'tai, maa baeleo, Shahn'tai, shahn'tai toozhoor'.

Kahn' tue r'ee, suer' taa boosheo
L-aamoor's- aipaanoo-ee, Ai soodaen' leo faar'oosheo

Soopsoan's- aivaanoo-ee. Aa! leo r'eer eo feedaeleo
Proov oen ' koer' sahn' daitoor' ; Aa! r'ee-ai, maa baeleo, R'ee-ai, r'ee-ai too-zhoor'.

Kahn' tue daor' kaalm ai puereo Dahn' l- oan'breo, soo maez yeo, Taon aalaeneo muer'muer'eo Dae moaz aar'maonieo ; 'Toan' boa kor' seo r'aivaeleo

Saan' vwaal ai saan'z aatoor, Aa! daor'mai, maa baeleo, Daor'mai, daor'mai toozhoor'.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

2.-Ser'inaid (R'ok'ing Song, Lul•ubi).

Poa•em bei Vik•ter Heugoa, meu'zik bei Guon•oa.
When dhou singest, rokt
2 (In) dhi ee'vning, bitwee'n mei aarmz,
Heerr'est dhou mei thau't,
4 Which (too) dhee r'iplei z aul-(kweit) loa?
Dhei soft song (too) mee rikau-ls
6 Dhi moa'st beu tifuol ov mei daiz;
Aa! sing, mei beu ti,
8 Sing, -sing for'-ev•er (goa on sing 'ing).
When dhou laa $\cdot f e s t$, upon $\cdot$ dhei mouth
[Dhi] luv itsel $\cdot f$ ekspan $\cdot d z$,
And sud $\cdot$ enli [dhi] fee $\cdot$ rs
12 Suspish•en [itself] van $\cdot$ ishes.

Aa! [dhi] ${ }^{2}$ laa $f$ ' ${ }^{\text {fai }}$ thfuol
14 Pr'oo'vz a haart widhout weilz:
Aa! laa•f, mei beu•ti,
16 Laa'f, -laa'f for' ev'er-(goa on laa'fing).
When dhou slee pest, kaam and peur,
In dhi shaid, under mei ei $\cdot \mathrm{z}$,
Dhei br'eth mer'merz
20 [ Ov -dhi] ${ }^{2}$ werdz ${ }^{\text {l }}$ haarmoa nius;
Dhei beu'tifuol fig•eur ${ }^{2}$ itsel'f ${ }^{1}$ r'ivee $\cdot \mathrm{lz}$
22 Widhou tkonsee $\operatorname{lm}$ ment and widhoutadau $\cdot \mathbf{r n} \cdot$ ment,
Aa! sleep, my beu ti,
24 Sleep, -sleep for' ev'er-(goa on slee'ping).

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.
3 -Robert! toi que j'aime!
Poésie de Scribe, musique de Meyerbeer.
Isabelle.
Robert! toi que j'aime
2 Et qui reçus ma foi;
Tu vois mon effroi,
4 Grâce pour toi-même
Et grâce pour moi!
Robert.
6 Non, non, non, non.
Isabelle.
Grâce pour moi, pour toi.
8 Quoi? ton coeur se dégage
Des sermens les plus doux!
10 Tu me rendis hommage,
Je suis à tes genoux!
12 Grâce pour toi-même
Et grâce pour moi.
Robert.
14 Non, non, non, non.
Isabelle.
Grâce pour toi, pour moi.
16 O mon bien suprème Toi que j'aime,
18 Tu vois mon effroi, Grâce pour toi-même
20 Et grâce pour moi.

GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.
3.-Raobaer'! twaa keo zh-aimeo !

Poa-aizee deo Skreeb, muezeek deo Maay•erbai $\cdot \mathbf{r}$ '. Eezaabael.
R'aobaer'! twaa ken zh- aimeo,
2 Ai kee r'eosue maa fwaa,
Tue vwaa maon aefr'waa,
4 Gr'aaseo poor twaa-maemeo Ai gr'aaseo poor' mwaa!

Raobaer'.
6 Noan', noan', noan', noan'. Eezaabael.
Gr'aaseo poor' mwaa, poor twaa.
8 Kwaa? toan' koer' seo daigaazheo
Dae saer'mahn' lae plue doo!
10 Tue meo rahn'deez aomaazheo, Zheo sŭěeez aa tae zheonou!
12 Gr'aaseo poor' twaa-maemeo, Ai gr'aaseo poor' mwaa.

Raobuer'.
14 Noan', noan', noan', noan'.
Eezaabael.
Gr'aaseo poor' mwaa, poor twaa.
16 Oa moan' byaen' suepr'aemeo
Twaa keo zh- aimeo,

Tue vwaa maon aefr'waa,
Gr'aaseo poor' twaa-maemeo
Ai gr'aaseo poor' mwaa.

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

## 3.-Rob•ert!dhou hoom ei lwv!

Poa•em bei Skree•b, meu'zik bei Mei'erbair. Izabel.
Rob-ert 'dhou hoom ei luv,
2 And hoo risee vd mei faith, Dhou see eest mei dr'ed,
4 Paa rden faur dhei-sel $f$, And paarden faur mee!

Robert.
6 Noa, noa, noa, noa.
Izabel.
Paarden faur mee, faur dhee.

8 Whot? dhei haart itsel•f disengai jez
From-dhi vouz dhi moast soft- luving)
10 Dhou too-mee didst-ren der hom $\cdot \in \mathrm{j}$,
Ei am at dhei nee z .
12 Paarden faur dhei-sel•f,
And paarden faur mee
Rob-ert.
14 Noa, noa, noa, noa.
Izabel.
Paarden faur mee, faur dhea
16 Oa mei ${ }^{2}$ guod ${ }^{1}$ seupree m , Dhou hoom ei luv,
18 Dhou see•est mei dred, Paa $\cdot$ rden faur dhei-sel $\cdot f$,
20
And paarden faur mee.

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

> 4.-La Manola.

Musique de Paul Henrion.
De l'Aragon, de la Castille,
2 Toi que lion dit la plus gentille,
Accours vers nous sous ta mantille,
4 Pourquoi tarder, O Juanetta!
N'entends-tu pas les farandoles?
6 Les vives danses Espagnoles, Des Manolas jeunes et folles,
8 Au loin chantant, dansant déjà ?
Allons, ma belle, allons, ma reine,
Vîte au prado, chacun est là, Prêt à fêter la souveraine

De la Jota Aragonèsa!
Ne sais-tu pas que la Murcie,
14 Que Grenade et l'Andalousie, Ont envoyé la plus jolie
Des Manolas pour la Jota? Allons, enfant, la nuit nous gagne,

Déjà Madrid est en campagne
Pour voir danser la fleur d'Espagne,
Qui ne vaut pas ma Juanetta !
Allons, ma belle, allons, ma reine,
Vîte au prado, chacun est là,
Prêt à fêter la souveraine
De la Jota Aragonèsa !

## GLOSSIC PRONUNGIATION.

4.-Laa Maanaolaa (dhi Spanish werdz aar hetr proanou'nst az French werdz.)

Muezeek deo Poal Ahn'rec-oan'.
Deo l- Aar'aagoan', deo laa Kaasteeyeo,
2 Twaa keo l- oan' dee laa plue zhaan teeyeo, Aakoor' vaer' noo soo taa maan'teeyeo,
4 Poor'kwaa taar dai, oa Zhŭĕaanaetaa.
N -ahn'tahn' tue pah lae faar'aan'daoleo?
6 Lae veeveo dahn'seoz Aespaany'aoleo,
Dae Maanaolaa, zhoeneoz ai faoleo,
8 Oa lwaen' shahn'tahn', dahn'sahn' daizhaa?
Aaloan', maa bael; aaloan', maa r'aeneo,
10 Veet oa pr'aadoa, shahkoen n ae laa,
Pr'aet oa faitai laa sooveor aeneo
Deo laa zhoataa Aar'aagoanaezaa!
Neo sae-tue pah keo laa Muer'see-eo
14 Keo Gr'eonaad ai l- Ahn'daaloozee-eo, Oan't ahn'vwaayyai laa plue zhaolee-ec
16 Dae Maanaolaa poor laa Zhoataa? Aaloanz, aan'faan', laa nŭĕ-eet noo gaany'eo,
18 Daizhaa Maadr'ee aet aan' kaan'paany'eo,
Poor' vwaar' dahn'sai laa floeur d-Aespaany'so
20 Kee neo voa pah maa Zhŭĕaanaettaa!
Aaloan', maa bael; aaloan', maa raeneo,
Veet oa pr'aadoa, shahkoen'n ae laa,
Pr'aet oa faitai laa sooeor aeneo
24 Deo laa zhoataa Aaar'aagoanaezaa!

VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.
4.-Dhi Maunao -laa (daa-nsing gerl--dh1 Span•ish werdz aar heer restao rd too dhair Spanish soundz, eksept when naimz ov plai sez, which hav dhair Ing'glish soundz).

Meu'zik bei Paul Hen•r'ien.
Fr'om [dhi] Ar'agen, fr'om [dhi] Kaastee 1 l,
2 Dhou hoom [dhi] wun kau'lz dhi moast dai -nti,
Run-too toardz us un'der dhei măantee ly'aa(huod ',
4 Whei dilai, 0 Khwaanaet taa
Not-hee rr'est dhou [at-aul]dhi faar'aan ${ }^{\prime}$ doolaaz-
(Span •ish kum $\cdot$ puniz ov komee•dienz),
6 Dhi lei $\cdot \mathbf{v l i}$ daansez Span-ish,
Dhi Maanao laaz, yung and mad,
8 At dis'tens sing $\cdot$ ing, daan $\cdot$ sing aulr'ed $\cdot \mathrm{i}$ ?
Kum-on, mei beu'ti; kum-on, mei kwee'n,
10 Kwik too-dhi praa•doa-(publik gaar-denz), eech-wun iz dhair, [sov•ren
Red•i too fai't-(giv a fes'tiv risep shen too) dhi

12 Ov dhi ${ }^{2}$ Khao taa-(pikeu lyer daans) ${ }^{1}$ Aragoaneez.
Not noa est-dhou [at-aul] dhat [dhi] Mer shia,
14 Dhat Gr'enai da and [dhi] Andaloo ${ }^{\text {sh }}$ shia, Hav sent dhi moast beu-tifuol
16 Ov-dhi Maanao laaz faur dhi Khao taa :
Kum-on, (mei) cheild, dhi neit ${ }^{3}$ us ${ }^{1}$ gai $\cdot n z z^{2}$ on,
18 Aulr'ed-i Madr'id• iz-in dhi kun'tr'i-(out ov doarz)
Too see daans dhi flour ov Spai'n,

$$
20
$$

${ }^{1} \mathrm{Hoo}^{3}$ not ${ }^{2} \mathrm{iz}-{ }^{4}$ werth [at-aul] mei Kwhaanaettaa.
Kum-on, mei beu'ti; kum-on, mei kwee n,
22 Kwik too-dhi pr'aa•doa-(publik gaar•denz), eech-wun iz dhair,
Red'i too fait-(giv a fes'tiv risep-shen too) dhi sov'ren
24 Ov dhi ${ }^{2}$ Khao taa. (pikeu-lyer daans) ${ }^{1}$ Arag. oaneez.

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

## La Manola-Suite.

Mais tout se tait dans ta demeure
La brise seule arrive et pleure, Sous les grands arbres qu'elle effleure

Tout est silence, et je suis là! Quand une voix, douce et gentille,
Sortit au fond de la charmille, Soudain parut la jeune fille
Qui répondit, "Oui! me voilà!" Puis au prado vîte on l'entraîne.

Et Juanetta la Manola,
Comme toujours resta la Reine
De la Jota Arragonèsa.

## 5.-Partant pour la Syrie.

Poésie et musique de Hortense de Beauharnais.
Partant pour la Syrie
Le jeune et beau Dunois,
Alla prier Marie
De bénir ses exploits,
"Faites, Reine immortelle,"
Lui dit-il en partant,
" Que j'aime la plus belle,
"Et sois le plus vaillant."

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCLATION.

## Laa Maanaolaa-Sǔěeet.

Mae too seo tae dahn' taa deomoer'eo,
26 Laa br'eezeo soel aar eev ai ploer'eo, Soo lae gr'ahn'z aar'br'eo k-ael aefloer'eo
28 Toot ae seelahn's, ai zheo sǔe-ee laa !
Kahn't ueneo vwaa, doos ai zhaan'teeyeo,
30 Sor'teet oa foan' deo laa shaar'meeyeo,
Soodaen' paar ue laa zhounen feeyeo,
32 Kee r'aipoan dee: Wee! meo vwaalaa!'
Pǔĕeez oa pr'aadoa veet oan' l- aan'tr'aeneo
34
Kaomeo toozhoor, r'aestaa laa r'aeneo
36
Deo laa Zhootaa Aar a agoanaezaa !

> 5.-Paar'taan' poor' laa Seer'ee.

Poa-aizee ai muezeek deo Aor'tahn's deo Boa-ăar'nae.
Paar'tahn' poor' laa Seer'ee-eo
2 Leo zhoen ai boa Duenwaa,
Aalaa pr'ee-ai Maar'ee-eo
4 Deo baineer' saez eksplwaa.
"Faeteo, R'aen eemmaortaeleo,'
6 Lŭĕee deet eel ahn' paar tahn',
" Keo zh- aimeo la plue baeleo,
8 "Ai swaa leo plue vaayyahn'."

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

## Dhi Maanao•laa-Kuntineuai•shen.

But all itsel•f keeps-kwei•et in dhei dwel'ing,
Dhi breee'z aloa n ar ei'vz and seiz,
Under dhi gr ait tr eez which it gr'ai'zez
Aul iz sei lens, and ei am dhair:
When a vois, soft and dai nti,
30 Kumz-foarth from-dhi depths ov dhi elmaa'rber,
Sud•enli apee $\cdot$ rd dhi yung gerl,
32 Hoor ripleid : "Yes, ${ }^{2}$ mee ${ }^{1}$ see- ${ }^{3}$ dhair!" "
Dhen too-dhi pr'aa doa kwik•li wun her kar'izof,
34 And Kwhaanaet taa dhi Maanao laa, Az ev•er, r"imai $\cdot \mathrm{nd}$ dhi kwee•n
36 Ov dhi Khao'ta Arag oaneez.
5.-Lee'ving faur [dhi] Sir'ia.

Poa'em and meu'zik bei Aurtahn's Boa'haarnai.
Lee $\cdot$ ving faur [dhi] Sir' ia ,
2 Dhi yung and fair Duenwaa,
Went too-pr'ai Mai ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ 'i
4 Too bles hiz ek sploits.
"Kau'z, Kwee'n imaurtel,"
6 Too her sez hee in lee'ving,
" Dhat ei mai-luv dhi moast beu tifuol
8 "And bee dhi moast val'yent""

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

Partant pour la Syrie-Suite.
Il grave sur la pierre
Le serment de l'honneur, Et s'en va suivre en guerre

Le Comte et son seigneur;
Au noble vœu fidèle
Il crie en cornbattant,
"Amour à la plus belle,
"Et gloire au plus vaillant!"

On lui doit la victoire !
"Dunois," dit son Seigneur,
"Puisque tu fais ma gloire,
"Je ferai ton bonheur;
"De ma fille Isabelle,
"Sois l'èpoux à l'instant,
"Car elle est la plus belle,
"Et toi, le plus vaillant."

A' l'autel de Marie
Ils contractent tous deux
Cette union chérie
Qui seule rend heureux;
Chacun à la chapelle S'écrie en les voyant;
"Amour à la plus belle,
"Honneur au plus vaillaint."

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

Paar'taan' poor' lan Seer'ee-Sŭěcet.
Eel gr'aaveo suer' laa pyaer'co
Leo szer'mahn' deo 1-aonoer', Ai s ahn' vaa sǔ̌ěeevr' ahn' gaer'eo

Leo Koan't ai soan' Saeny oer' ;
Oa naobleo veo feedaeleo
Eel kree ahn' kaon'baatahn',
"Aamoor' aa laa plue baeleo,
"Ai glwaar" oa plue vaayyahn'."

Oan' lŭěee dwaa laa veektwaar'eo!
"Duenwaa," dee soan' Sainy'oer',
"Pǔěeeskeo tue fae maa glwaar eo,
" Zheo feor ai toan' baonoer",
"Deo maa fee Eezaabaeleo
"Swaa l- aipoo aa l- aen'stahn',
"Kaar' ael ae laa plue baeleo,
"Ai twaa, leo plue vaayyahn't."

Aa l- oatael deo Maar'ee-eo
Eel koan'tr'aakteo too deo
Saet ueneeoan' shairee eo
Kee soeleo rahn t oer eo;
Shaakoen' aa laa shaapaeleo
S-aikr ee ahn' lae voayyahn ' (vwaay vahn');
"Aamoor" aa laa plue baeleo,
"Onoer' oa plue vaaysahn't."

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

Lee ving faur [dhi] Sir'ia-Kuntin euai shen.
Hee engr'ai $\cdot \mathrm{vd}$ upon dhi stoa $\cdot n$
Dhi oath or [dhi] luv,
And himsel'f hens went too-fol.oa in waur
Dhi Kount and hiz Lauri.
Too-dhi noa bl vou faithfuol
Hee kr eiz-in kum buting-(az hee feits),
"Luv too dhi moast beu tifuol,
"And gloa-rr'i too-dhi moast val-yent!"
${ }^{1}$ Wun ${ }^{5}$ too-him ${ }^{2}$ oaz ${ }^{3}$ dhi ${ }^{4}$ vik 'ter' ! !
"Duenwaa," sez hiz Laurd,
"Sins dhou mai $\cdot$ kest mei gloa $\cdot$ rr'i
20
" Ei wil-mai'k dhei hap'nes.
" Ov mei dau'ter Izabel.
"Bee dhi huz bend at (on) dhi in stent,
"Faur shee iz dhi moast beu tifuol,
"And dhou dhi moast val'yent."

At-dhi au-lter ov Mai•rri
Dhai kontrak't -aul too-(boa'th)
Dhat eu'nyen cher'isht
Which aloa'n r'en•derz hapi;
Eech-wun at dhi chap $e l$
[Himself] kreiz -in dhem see ing-(az hee seez dhem)
"Luv too dhi moast beutifuol!
"On'er too-dhi moast val'yent!"

ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY. 6.-La Marseillaise.

Poésie et musique de Rouget de Lisle.
Allons, enfans de la patrie !
2 Contre nous de la tyrannie
4 L'étendard sanglant est levé.
Entendez-vous dans les campagnes
6 Mugir ces féroces soldats?
Ils viennent, jusques dans vos bras,
8 E'gorger vos fils. vos compagnes !
Aux armes, citoyens! Formez vos bataillons!
10 Marchez! qu'un sang impur abreuve nos sillons!
Que veut cette horde d'esclaves,
De traîtres, de rois conjurés?
Pour qui ces ignobles entraves,
14 Ces fers dès long tems preparés?
Français, pour nous; ah! quel outrage !
16 Quels transports il doit exciter;
C'est vous qu'on ose méditer
18 De rendre à l'artique esclavage :
Aux armes, citoyens! Formez vos bataillons! 20 Marchez! qu'un sang impur abreuve nos sillons !

Quoi ! des cohortes étrangères
22 Feraient la loi dans nos foyers! Quoi! ces phalanges mercenaires
24 Terrasseraient nos fiers guerriers !

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION.

## 6.-Laa Maar'saiyaez.

Poa-aizie ai muezeek deo Roozhāe d Lēel. Aaloan'z, ahn'fahn deo laa Paatr'ee-eo!

Leo zhoor' deo glwaar' aet aar eevai, Koan'treoa noo deo laa teeraanee-eo
L- aitahn'daar' sahn'glahn' ae leovai. Ahn'tahn'dai-voo, dahn' lae kahn' paany'eo

Muezheer sae fair aoseo saoldaa?
Eel vyaeneo, zhueskeo dahn' voa br'aa
8 Aigaor'zhai voa fees, voa koan'paany'eo!
Oaz aar'meo, seetwaayaen! Faor'mai voa baataayyoan' !
[noa seeyoan!
10 Maar shai! k-oen sahn'k aen'puer' aabr'oeveo
Keo veo saeteo aor deo d- aesklaaveo,
12 Deo tr'aetr'eo, deo r'waa koan'zhuer'ai ?
Poor' kee saez eeny'aobleoz ahn'traaveo, Sae faer' dae loan' tahn' pr aipaar ai ? Fr'ahn'sae, poor' noo ; aa! kael ootr'aazheo! Kael tr'ahn'spaor z eel dwaat aekseetai ; S- ae voo k- oan' oazeo maideetai
18 Deo rahn'dr'- aa l- ahn'teek aesklaavaazheo!
Oaz aarmeo, seetwaayaen'! Faormai voa baataayyoan'!
[noa seeyoan'!
20 Mar'shai! k-oen sahn' $k$ aen'puer' aabr'oeveo
Kwaa! dae kao aor'teoz aitr'ahn'zhaer'eo,
22 Feor'aelaalwaadahn noa faoyyai fwaayvai)!
Kwaa! sae faalahn'zheo maer seonaer'eo
Taer'aasseor'ae noa fyaer' gaer'yai!

## VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

## 6.--Dhi Maarsailz Maarch.

Poa•em and meu'zik bei Roo'zhai du Lee l.
Kum on ! childrenov dhi-(our) kun'tr'i
2 Dhi dai ov gloa'rr'i iz ar'ei 'vd,
${ }^{8}$ Agai nst ${ }^{9}$ us ${ }^{4}$ ov [dhi] ${ }^{5}$ tir' eni
$4 \quad{ }^{1}$ Dhi ${ }^{3}$ stan $\cdot$ derd ${ }^{2}$ blud $\cdot{ }^{6}{ }^{6}$ iz ${ }^{7}$ lif $\cdot$ ted Heer-yee, ${ }^{5}$ in ${ }^{6}$ dhi ${ }^{7}$ plainz
$6 \quad{ }^{4} \mathrm{Bel} \cdot \mathrm{oa}{ }^{1}$ dhoaz ${ }^{2}$ fir'oa ${ }^{\text {shus }}{ }^{3}$ soa ${ }^{1 j}$ ljerz?
Dhai kum, -until• in-(ee•vn widhin) eur aarmz,
8 (Too) mer-der eur sunz, eur kompan yenz! Too aarmz, sit-izenz! Faurm eur batal'yenz !
10 Maarch! dhat-(mai) a blud impeu'r ir igait our fur oaz-(feeldz)!

Whot wil-(mee $\cdot n z$ ) dhat hoard ov slai $\cdot \mathrm{vz}$,
12 Ov tr'ai'terz, ov kingz konspei $\cdot \mathrm{rd}$-toogedh $\cdot$ er ?
Faur hoom dhoaz ignoa•bl feterz, [pr'ipai•rd!
14 Dhoaz chai nz -from long teim-(long sins)
Fr'en chmen! for' us; aa! whot (an) ou'tr'ej!
Whot traa nspoarts ov pash en) it aut too ekseit!
It iz eu dhat wun dai rz (too)-med -itait
18 T'oo r'estoar too [dhi] ai nshent slai'ver'i!
Too aarmz, sit-izenz! Faurm eur batal'yenz !
20 Maarch! dhat-(mai) a blud impeur ir igait our furoaz-(feeldz !
Whot! (ov dhi) ${ }^{2}$ koa haurts ${ }^{1}$ for' ${ }^{\prime}$
Wuod-maik dhi lauz in our hoamz !
Whot! dhoaz ${ }^{2}$ fal:angksez ${ }^{1}$ mer siner'i Wuod-pr'os'trait our feers wor' ierz !

## ORIGINAL ORTHOGRAPHY.

> La Marseillaise-Suite.

Grand Dieu! par des mains enchainées,

Aux armes, citoyens! Formez vos bataillons!
30 Marchez! qu'un sang impur abreuve nos sillons!
Tremblez, tyrans! et vous perfides, L'opprobre de tous les partis.
Tremblez! vos projets parricides,
Vont enfin recevoir leur prix.
Tout est soldat pour vous combattre!
S'ils tombent, nos jeunes héros,
La terre en produit de nouveaux
Contre vous tous prêts à se battre.
Aux armes, citoyens! Formez voz bataillons!
40 Marchez ! qu'un sang impur abreuve nos sillons !
Amour sacré de la Patrie,
Conduis, soutiens nos bras vengeurs !
Liberté! Liberté chérie!
Combats avec tes défenseurs.
Sous nos drapeaux que la victoire
Accouro à tes mâles accens.
Oui tes ennemis expirans
48 Voient ton triomphe et notre gloire.
Aux armes, citoyens! Formez vos bataillons!
50 Marchez ! qu'un sang impur abreuve nos sillons !

## GLOSSIC PRONUNCIATION. <br> Laa Maar'saiyaez-Sǔěeet.

Grahn' Dyeo! paar dae maen'z ahn'shaenai-eo
Noa fr'oan' soo leo zhoog seo plwaar'ae!
Deo veel daespaoteo deovyaen'dr'ae
28 Lae maetr'eo deo noa daesteenai-eo!
Oaz aar'meo seetwaayaen'! Faor'mai voa baataayyoan'!
[noa secyoan'!
30 Maar-shai! k-oen sahn'k aen'puer' aabr'oeveo
Tr'ahn'blai, teer'ahn' ! ai voo paer'feedeo,
32 L- aopr'aobr'eo deo too lae paar'tee.
Tr'ahn'blai! voa pr'aozhae paar'eeseedeo
Voan't ahn'faen' r'eoseovwaar'loer' pr'ee :
Toot ae saoldaa poor' voo kaon'baatr'eo!
S- eel toan'beo, noa zheoneo air'oa,
Laa taer' ahn' pr'aodǔĕ-ee deo noovoa
38 Koan'tr'eo voo too pr'aez aa seo baatr'eo!
Oaz aar'meo, seetwaayaen'! Faor'mai voa baataayyoan'!
[noa seeyoan'!
40 Maar'shai! k-oen sahn'k aen'puer' aabr'oeveo
Aamoor' saakr'ai deo laa Paatr'ee-eo,
36 Koan'dŭĕ-ee, sootyaen' noa br'aa vahn'zhoer'!
Leebaer'tai! Leebaer'tai shair'ee-eo!
38 Koan'baaz aavaek tae daifahn'soer'.
Soo noa dr'aapoa, keo laa veektwaar'eo
40 Akoor' aa tae mahleoz aaksahn'.
Ooy, taez aeneomeez aekspeer'ahn
42 Vwaa toan' tr'ee-oan'f ai noatr'eo glwaar'eo.
Oaz aar'meo, seetwaayaen'! Faor'mai voa baataayyoan'!
[noa seeyoan' !
50 Maar'shai! k-oen sahn•k aen'puer' aabr'oeveo

VERBAL GLOSSIC TRANSLATION.

Dhi Maarsailz Maarch-Sŭěeet.
Gr'ai't God! bei [ov dhi] ${ }^{2}$ handz ${ }^{1}$ enchai $\cdot$ nd Our br'owz ${ }^{4}$ un•der ${ }^{5} \mathrm{dhi}{ }^{6}$ yoa•k ${ }^{3}$ dhemsel $\cdot \mathrm{vz}$ ${ }^{1}$ wuod- ${ }^{2}$ bend!
[ Ov ] veil des ${ }^{\circ}$ pots wuod-bikum ${ }^{*}$
Dhi maa'sterz ov our des'tiniz !
Too aarmz, sit'izenz! Faurm eur batal•yenz!
30 Maarch! dhat-(mai) a blud impeu'r ir'igait our fur'oaz-(feeldz)!
Tr'em•bl, tei $\cdot r$ 'ents! and eu perfid $\cdot y u s-(w u n z)$,
Dhi opr'oa brium ov aul [dhi] seidz.
'Tr'em•bl! eur pr'oj ekts par'isei•del
Kum-(aar goa.ing) at length (too) r'isee $\cdot v$ dhair preis-(riwau'rd).
Evrrithing iz soa-ljer (in order) too ${ }^{2}$ eu ${ }^{1}$ feit! If dhai faul, our yung hee rr'oaz, [(wunz) Dhi erth [ov-dhem] proadeu'sez [ov] new

38 Agai•nst eu aul r'ed•i too -dhemsel•vz beat-(too feit).
T'oo aarmz, sit•izenz! Faurm eur batal•yenz!
40 Maarch ! dhat-(mai) a blud impeu•rir'igait our furoa ${ }^{\prime}$-(feeldz)!

Luv sai $\cdot k r$ 'ed ov dhi Kun'tr'i, Konduk•t, sustai•n, our aarmz aven•jing!
Lib•erti! Lib•erti cher' isht !
Feit (on dhi sai $\cdot \mathrm{m}$ seid) widh dhei difen $\cdot$ derz.
${ }^{5}$ Un•der ${ }^{6}$ our ${ }^{7}$ ban $\cdot$ erz, (dhat dhi) ${ }^{2}$ vik'ter'i
$46 \quad{ }^{1}$ Mai- ${ }^{3}$ run- ${ }^{4}$ up ${ }^{8}$ at ${ }^{9}$ dhei ${ }^{10}$ manli ${ }^{11}$ ak sents. Yes, (mai) dhei en'imiz ekspei rr'ing
48 See eur tr'ei'umf and our gloa'rr'i !
Too aarmz, sit $\cdot$ izenz ! Faurm eur batal'yenz !
50 Maarch! dhat-(mai) a blud impeurr ir igait onr fur'oaz-(feeldz) !

## XVI. PRONUNCIATION OF THE NAMES OF COMPOSERS,

GERMAN, ITALIAN, AND FRENCH, WITH A FEW OTHERS.

Introduction.-The following list of names was compiled under the direction of Mr. Curwen, and the dates affixed of birth, or of death, or of both. The pronunciations given are double. The first is as correct a representation of the native sound as I am able to give; in a few cases I have not been sure that the orthography of the name given me was correct, and hence doubted the pronunciation, and I have often been obliged to assign the pronunciation from the spelling and not from personal knowledge. The second is the imitation or variation of the name best suited to English organs of speech. As we have Anglicised Baur, Han•dl, Moazaa'rt, Hai•dn, Bee t-hoa'vn, Roazee•ni (Bach,Händel, Mozart, Haydn, Beethoven, Rossini) why should we attempt to make foreigners of the others? At any rate it is better for English to have some sort of sound which is derived from the native pronunciation and which they can easily utter, than to make all kinds of guesses on the spur of the moment. The Christian names are in all cases translated in the second pronunciation, but as they have been derived from various sources into which they had been previously translated, I cannot be always sure that they are always rightly given in the first.

## Alphabetical List.

Abt, Franz, Aăp•t, Frănts. Fraan $\operatorname{sis}$ Abt.
Ahle, Johann Georg, Aa•lu, Yoahaan' Gai $\cdot a o r^{\prime} k y^{\prime} h$. Jon Jaurj Aa lu.
-1707.
Ahle, Johann Rudolph, Aa $\cdot l u$, Yoahaan $\cdot$ R'oo $\cdot d a o l f$. Jon R'oo dolf Aa•lu. - 1673.
Albrechtsberger, Johann Georg, Aăl-braeky'htsbaer'gy'hur', Yoahaan. Gai•aor'ky'h. Jon Jaurj Al 'brektsber ger.

1736-1803.
Allegri, Gregorio, Aăllai•gr'ee, Graigao 'r'ee-oa. Greg‘ur'i Alai'gr'i.

1580-1652.
Arcadelt, Jacob, Aa $r^{\prime} k a a d a e l t, ~ Y a a \cdot k a o b$. Jai $\cdot \mathrm{mz}$ Aarrkudelt. End of 15th cent.
Aretino, Guido, Aar'aitee•noa, Gwee•doa. Gwee•doa Ar'itee'noa [meaning "Of Arezzo." See Guido.] 11th cent.
Ariosto, Attilio, Aa•ree-aos-toa, Aattee-lee-oa. Atil'ius Ar'ios'toa. 1660 Auber, Daniel François Esprit, Oabāer', Dăanee-ael, Fr'ahn'swaa Aispr'ee. Dan•yel Fr'aa'nsis Es'pree Oa -bair. 1784-
Bach, Johann Sebastian, Băakh, Yoahăan. Saibăasteeaa $\cdot n$. Sibastyen Baak, or Bau. 1685-1750. Bach, Carl Philipp Emanuel, Băakh, Kaar'l Feelěep Aemaan:ooae 3 ]. Chaarlz Filip Eman'euel Baak, or Bau.

1744-1788

Bach, Johann Christian, Băakh, Yoahaan Kr'eesteeaa $\cdot n$. Kr'is'tyen Baak, or Bau. 1735-1782.
Bach, Johann Christoph Friedrich, Băakh, Yoahaan. $K r^{\prime}$ ěes'taof $\mathrm{Fr}^{\prime}$ 'ce'dr'ěeky'h. Kr'is'tufer Baak, or Bau.

1732-1795.
Bach, Wilhelm Friedemann, Băakh, V'ĕel-helm Fr'ee'dumăan. Wil'yem Baak, or Bau. 1710-1784.
Bartholdy, Felix Mendelssohn, Baa'r'tao ldee Fai lěeks Maen•delszoa'n. Fee•liks Men•dlsen Baartoa:Idi. See Mendelssohn. 1809—1847.
Barthélemon, François Hippolite, Băar'tailmoan', Fr'ahn'swaa Eépaotĕt. Fr'aa nsis Hip ulit Baartlmen.

1731-1808.
Beethoven, Ludwig von, Bai•t-hoa $\cdot f e n, L o \circ \cdot d v$ 'ĕeky' $h$ faon. Loo is fon Bee t-hoa•vn. 1770-1827.
Berlioz, Hector, Baer'ly'aoz, Aektaor. Hek•ter Berlioaz. 1803-
Bellini, Vincenti, Baillee'nee, Vëenchann'tee. Vin•sent Belee'ni. 1802-1835.
Bianchi, Giovanni Antonio, Byaang $\cdot k e e$, Joavaan'nee Aantoa nyoa. Jon Byangk'i. 1686-1758.
Bianchi, Francesco, Byaang $\cdot k e e$, Fr'aanchaes $k o a$. Fr'aa'nsis Byangk $\cdot$. 1752 - 1810 .
Boieldieu, Francois Adrien, Bwaaldyeo, Fr'ahn'swaa Aadr'eeaen'. Fr'aa'nsis Ai•drien Boi ldeu'.

1775-1830.
Buononcini, Giovanni Battista, Bwao'noanchee'nee, Joavaan'nee Băattèes'taa. Jon Bap'tist Boa'non. cheeni. Beginning of 18th cent.
Campagnoli, Bartolomeo. Kaam•paany'ao•lee, Baar'toaloamae 'oo Baarthol umeu Kampanyoa•li.

1751-1827.
Carissimi, Giacomo, Kaar'ěes'scemee, Jaa-koamoa. Jai mz Kuris ${ }^{\text {imi. }}$

1582-1672.
Cherubini, Maria Luigi, Kair'oobee'nee, Maar'ee'aa Loo-eejee. Ker'oobee'ni.

1760-1842.
Jhladni,Ernst Florens Friedrich, Khlaad'nee, Aer'nst Floarr'ens Fr'ee'drěeky'h. Er'nest Flor'ens Fr'edrik Klad•ni.

1756-1827.
Choron, Alexandre Etienne, Kaor'oan', Alegzahn'. drĕŏ Aityaen. Aleksaa'nder Stee vn Kao'rr'on.

1772-1834.
Cimarosa, Domenico, Cheemaarao zaa, Doamae'neekoa. Dom•inik Chim uroa'zu. 1749-1801.

Clementi, Muzio, Klarman'tee, Moo•tsyoa, Moot'sioa Climenti.

1752-1832.
Conti, Francesco, Koa'ntee, Fr'ăanchais'koa. Fr'aa'nsis Kon'ti.

1703-
Converso, Girolamo, Koanvae'r'soa, Jeerao laamoa. Jirol-umoa Konver'soa. Latter half 16 th cent. Corelli, Arcangelo, Koarael lee, Aar'kaan $\cdot \mathrm{jailloa}$. Koarel i .

1653-1713.
Crivelli, Domenico, Kreevaellee, Doamai•neekoa. Dominik Krivel-i.
1794.

Croce, Giovanni, Kroa'chai, Joavăan'nee. Jon Kroa chi.

17th cent.
Czerny, C. [Bohemian Chaer'nee]. Cherrni.
Donizetti, Gaetano, Doanee-tsaet'tee, Gaa-aitaa'noa. Gaa-itaa'noa Don'izet i. 1798—1848.
Dupuis, Thomas Saunders [French, Duepйёee]. Deupwee.

1733-1796.
Durante, Francesco, Door'ăan'tai, Fr'ăanchai $\cdot$ skoa. Fr'aa'nsis Door'an'ti. 1693-1755.
Dürrner, J., Duer'nur. Der•ner.
Dussek, John Ladislas [Bohemian ; French pronunciation Duesaek.] Deusek: 1762-1810.
Eisenhofer Aay'zenhoa'fur'. Ei'zen-hoa'fer.
Ferrari, Giacomo Gotifredo, Faer'r'aa ${ }^{\prime}$ 'ee, Jaa-konmoa Goateefr'ae'doa. Jai'mz God•fr'i Fer'aa'r'i.

18th cent.
Festa, C., Faes'taa. Fes'tu.
16th cent. Fétis, Francois Joseph, Fai'těes, Fr'ahn'swaa Zhaozaef. Fr'aa'nsis Joa'zef Fai'tis. 1784Flotow, Floa toa. Floa toa.
Freschi, Giovanni Domenico, Fr'ai•skee, Joavaan•nee Doamai•neekoa. Jon Dom 'inik Fr'es ki. 17th cent. Frescobaldi, Girolamo, $\mathrm{Fr}^{\prime}$ aiskoabăal-dee, Jeer' $a 0^{\circ}-$ laamoa. Fr'es'koaboldi. 1587-1654.
Fuchs, Johann Joseph, Fuoks, Yoahaan. Yoa'zef. Jon Joa'zef Fuoks. 1660 -
Gaillard, Jean Ernest, Gaayyaa'r, Zhahn' Aer'naest. Jon Er'nest Gaay 'yaar.

1687-
Gallo, Ignazio or Antonio, Gaal-loa, Eeny'aa tsioa or Aantoà'nyoa. Ignai'shius aur An'tuni Gal 0 oa.

1639-
Garcia, Manuel [Spanish, Gaar' $t^{\prime}$ hee-aa, Maanoo-e $\cdot l$ ], Man $\cdot$ euel Gaa rshiu aur Gaarsiu. 1775-1832.

Gasparini, Francesco, Gaaspaar'ee`nee, Fr'aanchaiskoa. Fr'aa'nsis Gaspuree•ni. 1665-1727. Giardini, Felice, Jaar'dee'nee, Failee chai. Fee-liks Jaardee'ni.

1716-1796
Gluck, Christoph von, Gluok, Krěes'taof faon.
Kris'tufer fon Gluok.
1714-1787.
Gossec, François Joseph [Belgian; French pronunciation Gaosaek, Fr'ahn'swaa Zhoazaef], Fr'aa'nsis Joa'zef Gos‘ek. 18th cent. Goudimel, Claude, Goodeemael, Kload. Klau•d Goo dimel. 16 th cent.
Gounod, Gŏonoa. Guon•oa.
Graun, Carl Heinrich. Gr'aawn, Kaa•rl Haay•nr'eeky'h. Chaarlz Hen'ri Gr'oun. 1701-1759. Griesbach, J. H., Gr'ee'sbăakh. Gr'ee'zbak aur Gr'ee 'zbaa.

- 1875. 

Grosse, Wilhelm Leopold, Gr'aos'u $V^{\prime}$ 'ĕel-helm Lai'oapaold. Wil'yem Lee oapoald Gr'os'u.

End of 18th cent.
Guglielmi, Gooly'ael•mee. Gooliel•mi. 1729-1804. Guido d'Arezzo, Gwee•doa d-Aar'aet'tsoa. Gweedoa d'Ar'et'soa.
Händel, Georg Freidrich, Haen•del, Gai•aor'ky'h Fr'ee•dr'ĕeky'h. Jau'rj Fr'ed•r'ik Han•dl.

1685-1759.
Hasse, Johann Adolph, Haas $u$, Yoahaan $\cdot$ Aa•daolf. Jau•rj Udol•fus Has•u.

1699-1783.
Hauptmann, Moritz, Haaw'ptmăan, Moa'r'ĕets. Mor' is Hou ptmen.

1794-
Hausmann. Valentin, Haaw'smăan, Faalentee'n. Val'entein Hous'men. Early 17th cent.
Haydn, Franz Joseph. Haay•dn, Fr'ăants Yoa'zef. Fr'aa'nsis Joa'zef Hai•dn aur Hei•dn. 1732-1809. Haydn, Michael, Haay•dn Meekhaa-ail. Mei•kl Hai dn aur Hei dn.

1801-
Hérold, Héraolt. Her-eld.
Hiller, Hĕel-lur'. Hil`er.
Himmel, Friedrich Heinrich, Hĕem $e l$, Fr'ee•dr'ĕeky'h Haay'nrěeky'h. Fr'ed'r'ik Hen'ri Him•l.

1765-1814.
Hummel, Johann Nepomuk, Huom $e$ el, Yoahaan Nai'poатио; Jon Nep•oamuok Huom•l.

1778-1837.

Jomelli, Nicolo, Yoamael-lee, Nep•koaloa. Nik•ulus Yoamel i .

1714-1774.
Deprès, Josquin, Deoprae, Zhaoskaen'. Zhos'kin Diprai•. 1445-1530.
Kalkbrenner, Christian Friedrich, Kaal'kbr'aen $\cdot u r^{\circ}$, Kr'ěes‘tee-aa`n Fr'eedr'ěeky'h. Kr'is'tyen Fr'ed•rik Kal•kbren'er. 1784-1849.
Kalliwoda, J. W. [Bohemian, Kaal•leevoadaa]. Kal-ivoadu.
Knecht, Justin Heinrich, Knaeky'ht Yuostee'n Haay•nrěekyh. Jus‘tin Hen'ri Nesht. 1752-
Kuhlau, Friedrich, Koollaw', Fr'ee dr'ĕeky'h. Fr'ed rik Koo'lou. 1786-1832.
Kucken, Friedrich Wilhelm,Kuok en, Fr'ee 'dr'ĕeky'h $V^{\prime}$ 'éel•helm. Fr'ed•r'ik Wil•yem Kuok•n. 1810-
Lachner, Franz, Laakh $n u r^{\prime}$ Fr'ăants. Fr'aa'nsis Lak'ner.

1804-
Lassus, Roland [Belgian, Latinised Laas'oos, Roa•laand]. Roa•lend Las•us. 1520-1595.
Lindpaintner, Peter Joseph, Lĕend'paay'ntur', Pai•tur' Yoa'zef. Pee'ter Joa'zef Lind•peinter.

1791-1812.
Liszt [Hungarian, Lĕest]. List.
Logier, Jean Bernard, Laozhyai, Zhahn' Baer'naar'. John Ber nerd Lozh iai. Early 19th cent.
Lulli, Giovanni Battista, Lool-lee, Joavaan'nee Baattěes'taa. [Better known by his Frenchified name, Zhahn' Baatee'st deo Luel-lee]. Jon Baptist du Luol•ee. 1633-1687.
Luther, Martin, Luo'tur', Maa'r'tee n. Maa'rtin Loo'ther. 1483-1546.
Marcello, Benedetto, Maar' chael-loa, Baenaidait 'toa. Ben•idikt Maarchel-oa.

1686-1739.
Marpurg, Friedrich Wilhelm, Maa'r'puor'ky'h Fr'eedr'ĕeky'h V'ĕel'helm. Fr'edr'ik Wilyem Maa'rpuorg. 1718-1795.
Marschner, Heinrich, Maar' ${ }^{\prime} h n u r^{\prime}$ Haay $n r^{\prime}$ 'ĕeky' $h$. Hen'r'i Maa'rshner. 1795-1861.
Martini, Giambattista, Maar'tee'nee, Jaam•baattees $\cdot-$ taa. Jon Bap'tist Maartee'ni. 1706-1784. Mazzinghi, Guiseppe, Maat•tsĕeng'gee, Joosaep pai. Joa'zef Matsing•gi.

1765-1844.
Méhul, Etienne Henri, Mai-ŭel, Aityaen Ahn'r'ee. Stee•vn Hen•ri Mai $\cdot \mathrm{hil}$.

1763-1817.

Meibom, Mark, Maay-boam, Maar'k. Maark Mei•bom. [Latinised, Meiboa•miuos]. 1626-1710. Mendelssohn-Bartholdy, Felix, Maen•delszoa r. Baa'r'taol-dee, Failĕeks. Fee•liks Men•dlsen-Baartoa-ldi. See Bartholdy. 1809-1847.
Mercandante, Saverio, Maer'kăandăan'tai, Saav-aer'ee-oa. Saavai'rr'ioa Merkandan'ti. 1798-
Metastasio, Pietro, Maităastaa see-oa, Pyae troa. Pee•ter Met-astaa•sio. 1698-1782.
Methfessel, Friedrich, Mai'tfes $e l$, $F r^{\prime} e e^{\cdot} \cdot d r^{\prime}$ ĕeky'h. Fr'ed'rik Mai•tfes l. 1771-1807.
Methfessel, Albrecht Gottlieb, Mai•tfes $\cdot e l$, Aal•br'eky'ht Gaot•lee•b. Albert Got•leeb Mai•tfes•1. 1786-
Meyerbeer, Jacob [in Italian, Giacomo], Maay $\cdot$ ur'$b a i \cdot r^{\prime}, Y a a \cdot k a o b$ [in Italian, Jaa koamoa]. Jai $\cdot k u b$ aur Jai $\cdot \mathrm{mz}$ Mei erbair.

1794-
Molique, B., Maolĕek. Moalee'k. 1803-
Morlacchi, Francesco, Maor'laak •kee Fr'aanchai skoa. Fr'aa•nsis Maurlak'i, 1784--
Moscheles, I., Moa•sheles. Moasheles. 1793-
Mozart, Johann Chrysostom Wolfgang Gottlieb, Moa'tsaart, Yoahaan• Kr'ěes'aostaom V'aol•fgaang Gaot•lee•b. Jon Kr'is'ustem Vol'fgang Got•leeb Moazaart.

1756-1791.
Müller, August Eberhard, Muel ur', Aaw guost Ai'bur'haar't. Augus•tus Ai•berhaard Mi•ler.

1767-
Nägeli,Hans Georg, Nai $\cdot$ gy'helee,Haans Gai $\cdot$ aor'ky'h. Jak Jaurrj Nai geli.

1792-1836.
Naumann, Naaw'măan. Nou•men. 1741-1800.
Neidhart, Naay•d-haar't. Nei•d-haart. 1706-1724.
Neukomm, Sigismond, Noy•kaom, Zee'gĕesmaond. Sij•ismend Noi•kem.

1778-1858.
Otto, Valerius, Aot•toa, $V^{\prime}$ 'aalae 'r'ee-uos. Vulee'rr'ius Ot•oa. Early 17 th cent.
Paësiello, Giovanni, Paa-aisee-ael•loa Joavaan•nee. Jon Paa•aisyel-oa.

1741-1816.
Palestrina, Giovanni, Paalaistr'ee‘naa, Joavaan'nee. Jon Pal'estr'ee'nu.

1529-1594.
Pepusch, Johann Christoph, Pai puosh, Yoahaan. Kr'èes'taof. Jon Kr'istufer Pai 'puosh. 1667-1752.
Pergolesi, Giovanni Battista. Paer'goalae zee,

Joavaan`nee Baattĕes‘taa. Jon Baptist Pergoalai $\cdot \mathrm{zi}$.

1707-1737.
Pfeiffer, J. M., Pf'aay $\cdot f u r^{\prime}$. Feifer. End 18 th cent. Piccini, Nicolo, Pĕetchee nee, Nee $\cdot k o a l o a . ~ N i k \cdot u l u s ~$ Pichee'ni. 1728-1801.
Pistocchi, Fr. Ant., Pĕestaok•kee. Pistok•i. 1660-1720.
Pleyel, Ignaz, Plaay•el, Eĕgnaa•ts. Ignai shius Plei $\cdot$ el aur Plai•el. 1757-1831. Porpora, Nicolo, 'Poar' ${ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ oar'aa, Nee $k$ ioaloa. Nikulus Pau rpura. 1689-1767. Prætorius, Michael, Pr'aitoa'r'ee-oos,Meeky'haa-ae•l. Mei kl Pr'eetoa 'rr'ius. 1571-1621.
Rameau, Jean Philippe, R'aamoa, Zhahn' Fěelĕep. Jon Fil:ip R'am'oa. 1683-1764.
Randegger, A., R'aan•daeg'ur'. R'an'deg'er.
Reicha, Joseph, R'aay'ky'haa, Yoa'zef. Joa'zef R'ei'ku. 1757-1787.
Reicha, Anton, $R^{\prime}$ aay $\cdot k y^{\prime} h a a$, Aantoa' $n$. An'tuni R'ei•ku. 1770—1836. Reichardt, Johann Friedrich, $R^{\prime}$ aay $\cdot k y^{\prime} h$-haar't, Yoahaan. Fr'ec‘dr'ĕeky'h. Jon Fred'r'ik R'ei•khaart.

1752-
Rizzio, or Ricci, David, R'ĕet'tsee-oa, or $R$ 'ĕét $\cdot$ chee, Daa•vĕed. Dai•vid R'itsyoa aur R'ich•i. - 1565. Richter, Carl Gottlieb, R'ĕeky'h'tur', Kaar'l Gaotlee•b. Chaarlz Got'leeb R'ish'ter. 1728-1809. Ries, Ferdinand, R'ee's, Faer'deenăand. Fer dinend R'ee's. 1785-1835.
Righini, Vincenzo, R'eegee nee Vĕenchai'ntsoa. Vin'sent R'igee'ni. $\quad 1758-1812$. Rimbault, Étienne François, R'aen'boa, Aityaen Fr'ahn'swaa. Steev'n Fr'aa'nsis R'am•boa.

1773-
Rinaldo da Capua, R'eenarl-doa daa Kaa'poo-aa. R'inal•doa ov Kap•eu-u. Early 18th cent. Rink, Christoph Heinrich, R'ěengk, Kr'ĕes'taof Haay•nr'ĕeky'h. Kris‘tufer Hen'r'i R'ingk.

End of 18th cent.
Romberg, Andreas, $R^{\prime}$ aom $\cdot b a e r^{\prime} k y^{\prime} h, A$ ăndrai ${ }^{\prime}$ ăs. An•droo Rom•berg. 1767-1821. Rosa, Salvator, $R^{\prime} a o^{\prime} z a a$, Saalvaatoa 'r'. Salvai•ter Roa'zu.

1615-1673.

Rosenmüller, R'oa'zenmuel'ur'. Roa'znmil'er.
1615-1685.
Rossini, Gioacchino, R'oassee'nee, Joa-aakkeenoa. Joa ukim Roazee'ni. 1792-
Rousseau, Jean Jacques, R'oossoa, Zhahn' Zhăak. Jon Jai•mz Roossoa. 1712-
Sacchini, Antonio Maria Gasparo, Săakkee nee, Aăntoa'nee-oa Marr'ce aa Găas'paar'oa. An'tuni Mur'ei'u Gas'per Sakee 'ni.

1735-1786.
Sarti, Giuseppe, Sarr'tee, Joosacp'pae. Joa zef Saarti.

1730-1802.
Scarlatti, Alessandro,Skăar'lăat'tee, Aalaessăan•droa. Aleksaa nder Skaarlat•i.

1650-1728.
Scarlatti, Domenico, Skăar'lăat•tee Doamai•neekoa. Dom•inik Skaarlat-i. 1683-1751.
Schicht, Johann Gottfried, Shěeky'ht, Yoahaan. Gaot $\cdot f r$ 'eed. Jon God fri Shikt aur Shisht.
1753-1823

Schneider, Franz, Shnaay•dur', Fr'ăants. Fr'aa•nsis Shnei der.

1757-1812.
Schulz, Johann Abraham Peter, Shuolts, Yoahann. Aabraahaa'm Pai•tur'. Jon Ai'bruham Pee'tur Shuolts.
-1800.
Schubert, Franz, Shoobur't, Fr'aunts. Fr'aa'nsis Shoo bert. 1797-1828.
Schumann, Robert, Shoo'mäan, Roabae'r'. Rob ert Shoo men. 1810-1856.
Silcher, Sěel'ky'hur. Sil•ker aur Silsher.
Spohr, Ludwig, Sh'poa‘r', Loo•dv'ğeky'h. Loo'is Spoa'r,

1784-1859.

Spontini, Gasparo, Spoantee nee, Găas paarioa. Gas per Spontee ni. 1778-1851.
Stadler, M., Sh'taa•dlur'. Staa-dler.
Steffani, Agostino, Staef.faance, Aagoastee-nor. Augus'tin Stef-uni. $1650-1730$.
Storace, Steffano, Stoar'aa chai, Staef faanoa. Stee'vn Stoar'aa'chi. [Quite an Englishman.]

1763-1796.
Stradella, Alessandro, Str'aadael laa, Aalaessăan:droa. Aleksaa nder Str'udel•u. 1645-1679.
Tartini, Giuseppe, Tăar'tee•nee, Joosaep pai. Joa'zef Taarteeni. 1692-1770
Teleman, Georg Philipp, Tai•lumăan, Gai•aor'ky'h Fee leep. Jau'rj Fil•ip Tel-umen. 1681-1767.
Thalberg, Taa $\cdot$ lbaer'ky'h. Taa'lberg.
Verdi, Guiseppe, Vaer'dee, Joosaep pai. Joa'zef Verdi. 1816-
Vogler, Georg Joseph, Foarghlur', Gai $\cdot a o r^{\prime} k$ 'h'h $^{\prime} h$ Yoa'zef. Jaur•j Joa'zef Foa'gler. 1749-1810.
Voigt, August Georg, Foa'ěeky'ht [or Foakht], Aaw'guost Gai'aor'ky'h. Augus'tus Jau'rj Foa kt .

1779-
Wagner, Richard, V'aa•ghnur', Ree'ky'haar'd. Rich•erd Vaa'gner. 1813-
Weber. Carl Maria von, $V^{\prime} a i \cdot b u r^{\prime}, K a ̆ a r^{\prime} l$ Maar'ee'aa faon. Chaarlz Murei u fon Vai ber. 1786-1826.
Weigel, Joseph, V'aay'gy'hel, Yoa'zef. Joazef Vei gel.

1765-
Zingarelli, Nicolo, Tsĕeng-gaarael-lee, Nee-koaloa. Nik•ulus Sing•gurel•i. 1752-1837.
Zumsteg, Johann Rudolf, Tsuom $\cdot \mathrm{sh}$ 'taeky' $h$, Yoahaan. R'oo'dnolf. Jon R'oo'dolf Suom•staig. 1760-1802

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[^0]:    * See his work "On the Sensations of Tone, as a Physiological Basis for the Theory of Music." Translated by the present writer. Pp. 800, exclusive of Index, Preface, \&\& . Published by Longman \& Co., in 1875. Price 36s.

[^1]:    * According to the latest researches of Hensen. See Professor Preyer's pamphlet Ueber die Grenzen der Tonwahrnehmung (On the Limits of the Perception of Musical Tone), Jena, 1876, p. 41.

[^2]:    - The usual cottage pianos in which the "action" covers the strings cannot be used in front. If the back silk screen be removed, and the sounding board exposed, they act better. But the best lnstruments are flat pianos, and especially welltuned grand pianos, with the lids raised, so that the singer can sing right down on to the strings.

[^3]:    *This circumstance has often been of use to me when I wished to examine either my own throat or another person's throat to see if it were inflamed or relaxed. It is well known that there is a great difficulty in inducing patients, especially children, to keep the tongue down, and that they involuntarily resist the action of the spoon used to depress it. Merely ask them to open their mouths and say $A U$, and the tongue disappears as by magic, revealing the whole inside of the mouth. But as the patient will then be breathing strongly into the observer's face, and his breath may be infectious (as in searlet fever, diphtheria, patrid sore throat, \&c..) the observer should carefully sereen his own face and nose with his hand while the patient is under examination. Safety from infection is not secured by simply holding the breath.

[^4]:    * So far as I know, attention was first called to the nature and existence of these glides, and the name for them proposed, in my little tract called "English Phonetics," $8\{61-85$, published in $18 \approx 4$.

[^5]:    NY' never occurs in English or German.

