

8. LETTIC branch, represented by.....	** (a) Old Prussian. (b) Lettish. (c) Lithuanian.
9. UNATTACHED.....	** (a) Old Dacian. (b) Albanian.
II. SEMITIC	
1. CANAANITIC branch, represented by.....	** (a) Hebrew. * (b) Phœnician or Punic. * (c) Arabic.
2. ARABIC branch, represented by.....	** (a) Mosarabic. (b) Maltese.
III. FINNO-TATARIC (Turanian, Uralo-Altai, &c.)	
1. SAMOTERIC branch or group, represented by.....	(a) Yürak. (b) Finnish proper or Suonic. (c) Karelian. (d) Tchudic. (e) Vepsic. (f) Votic. (g) Crowinian. (h) Estonian. (i) Livonian. (j) Lapponic. (k) Tchereemissian. (l) Mordvinian. (m) Permiian. (n) Votjak. (o) Strzyemian. (p) Magyar or Hungarian.
2. FINNIC or UGRIAN represented by.....	(a) Kazak Khirghiz. (b) Nogairic. (c) Tchuvak. (d) Turkish. (e) Basque.
3. TURKISH or TATAR group, represented by.....	
4. UNATTACHED.....	

From this conspectus it appears that there are still about 60 distinct languages spoken in Europe, without including Latin, Greek, Old Slavonic, and Hebrew, which are still used in literature or ecclesiastical liturgies. Besides, as we shall presently see, all those which are spoken over extensive territories, and some even which are confined within very narrow limits, are broken up into several distinct dialects. Most of the number, however, are destined to disappear within a comparatively short period, before the encroachments of the few which are especially favoured by political circumstances and literary culture. The process is rapidly going on, and everything tends to its acceleration. Some, indeed, whose doom appeared almost sealed in the end of last century, have gathered fresh life and repulsed the intrusive language by which their existence was threatened; and on others a temporary and melancholy restoration has been inflicted by the mistaken enthusiasm of a patriotic minority. English, French, German, Russian, Italian, and Spanish will probably for a long time share the real dominion of Europe; Dutch and the Scandinavian tongues will maintain their ground, but they hardly give promise of expansion; Bohemian, Hungarian, and the South-Slavonic have made good their position; and Neo-Hellenic, under favouring circumstances, may get possession of the territory of its nobler ancestor.

Greek and Latin may fairly claim the first place in a historic sketch, on account of the immense and varied influence they have exerted, directly or indirectly, on the popular and literary language of all the prominent peoples of Europe. The former, which is preserved in what is at once the most perfect and the most multifarious of the older literatures of the world, was spoken wherever a Greek city was established in Asia, Europe, or Africa. It had several well-marked phonetic dialects:—the Æolic, represented in Europe by the Boeotian variety; the Doric, employed in Sparta and most of the other Peloponnesian states, as well as in other colonies of Sicily and Southern Italy; and the Ionic, which in the Attic dialect attained its noblest development, and became the principal literary form. A rude dialect of the Æolian type was spoken in Thessaly; and in several districts of northern Greece other varieties must have had their home, some of them probably so divergent from the more cultured dialects as to be unrecognizable by the rough and ready philology of the ancient Greeks. After the extension of the political power of the Hellenic race by the Hellenized Macedonians the Attic dialect became in a necessarily modified guise the language of at least the educated classes over a wide foreign area. This *κοινή διάλεκτος*, or common dialect as it was called, was that in which all the Christian Scriptures were, if not originally penned, at least most potently disseminated; and some time after the establishment of the seat of the empire at Constantinople it was adopted as the official language of Eastern Europe, and developed or degenerated into what is distinguished as Byzantine Greek. Amid all the linguistic confusion of mediæval and modern times in the Balkan peninsula the old Hellenic speech maintained a precarious and degraded life

in the so-called Romaic of the Greek people, still recognizable to the philologist, but to the vulgar ear and eye very successfully disguised. It is still spoken, not only in the modern kingdom of Greece, but in Thessaly and other parts of Turkey along the coasts of the Ægean and the Sea of Marmora, and in the Greek settlements of southern Russia. Since the declaration of national independence an attempt has been made to go back to something liker the language of Xenophon; but as yet the Neo-Hellenic is almost purely a literary form, unintelligible to the great bulk of the people in the country. At best it is only a compromise between ancient Greek and Romaic, neither conforming to the classical standard of the one nor systematically accepting the grammatical changes developed in the other. As education advances,—and it is advancing rapidly under the control of the central administration,—it will probably take root among the people, and under the vivifying influences of national life grow up into a national speech. The ancient common dialect is still used in the liturgical services of the Oriental Church. The alphabet has been employed by several communities in the Turkish empire for their Turkish dialects,—among others by the people of Mariupol.¹

Latin was only one of a number of closely related languages domiciled in the peninsula of the Apennines, and by several of these it was affected much in the same way in which English is affected by German or French. Most of the number have left neither literature nor history behind them, but they must still be differentiating factors in the dialects of modern Italy. Oscan, which was spoken in a large part of the country south of Rome, and Umbrian, which takes its name from a district to the north, are both known to us from inscriptions,—the latter by the remarkable liturgical series called the Eugubine Tables. The Latin language kept pace with the extension of the Roman empire till it came into contact with the higher culture of Greece and the East; as an aggressive language it has no historic parallel, for though the area of English has advanced as rapidly in modern times, this advance has mainly found place where English-speaking people have outnumbered the foreign elements in the population. It continued to be the language of nearly all European literature for centuries after it had ceased to be a spoken speech; and it was the language of all learned literature well on in the 17th century. It is still used in the liturgy of the Roman Catholic Church, and still forms the most potent linguistic element in all European education. Its alphabet is more widely employed than any other in Europe, and is at the present moment gaining ground against the "Gothic" characters of modern Germany, as it did in early ages against the Saxon characters in England.

Of the languages which have sprung from Latin, French resembles it most in its fortunes, though not in its forms. It is the official, literary, and educational language of the country whose name it bears, and is daily becoming more and more the popular language as well. Based as it is on the old *langue d'oïl* of the north, it has gained the superiority over the dialects of Burgundy, Picardy, and Normandy, and the more cultured Provençal of the south, has already reduced them to the rank of mere patois, and is gradually diminishing even their local importance. On the north-west it is more slowly displacing the Breton, and in the south making inroads on the Basque. It was nearly naturalized among a large part of the inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine, and is still spoken by upwards of 200,000 of the new citizens of the German empire. In Switzerland it is the mother tongue of about 600,000 people, being dominant in Neuchâtel, Geneva, and Vaud, and sharing the ground with German in Freiburg, Valais, and Bern. In Belgium it is the principal speech of the educated classes. No European language has had such an extensive foreign history within the continent. Not only was the closely related Norman French introduced into England in the 11th century, with such striking effect on the English vocabulary, but at several subsequent periods literary French has been potently at work. In the decadent period of German literature it largely supplanted the German language among the upper classes, and for a time furnished a large proportion of his vocabulary to the nominal writer of German. In Russia there was a similar French period about the beginning of the 18th century, which has left its influence to this day on the official publications of the Government. And in spite of the growing claims of German and English, French is still acquired by a greater number of foreigners than any other modern tongue.

The language usually known as Italian is not so much the national language of Italy as the language of a special district. The other dialects have not sunk to the level of patois; and at the present moment it is a matter of keen debate what is to be considered the true standard for the people at large. From Venice to Palermo there is a rich variety of forms which have received more or less of literary culture; and the pretensions of Florence to be the sole and final arbitress are far from being unanimously admitted. Whatever position be assigned to Tuscan as the language of education, it will be a long time before it attain the predominance in

¹ See Blau in *Zeitschrift der deutsch. Morgenl. Ges.*, 1874.

Italy which French possesses in France. The dialects are usually divided into three main groups—those of Upper Italy, including Genoese, Piedmontese, Venetian, Æmilian, and Lombard; those of Central Italy, including Tuscan, Roman, and Corsican; those of Southern Italy, including Neapolitan, Calabrian, Sicilian, and Sardinian. From Italian the other peoples of Europe have borrowed many terms for artistic technicalities, but comparatively little which belongs to everyday life.

Literary Spanish or Castilian is in much the same position as literary Italian, with this difference, that its literary precedence is more definitely established. A large area is still occupied by Catalan or Estalan, both in Catalonia proper, in Valencia, and in Majorca; and the speech of the Galicians is much more akin to Portuguese. In Catalonia rich and poor, citizens and peasants, speak the provincial language; in Valencia and Majorca only the cultivated classes employ Castilian. On the whole, however, the Castilian territory is on the increase, and it is making its most rapid acquisitions from the Galician and Basque. Spanish is naturally distinguished from the other Neo-Latin languages by the greater number of words which it has borrowed from Arabic.

Portuguese is really what the name implies, and has to contend against no alien idioms. In comparison with Spanish it has diverged further from the Latin type. It has been equally indebted to Arabic, and has also a considerable French element.

Wallon, the language spoken by the Latinized people of the Low Countries, is now a mere patois. Latin is spoken by about 580,000 persons who occupy several considerable areas in the Alpine region, from the valley of the Rhine in the west to the neighbourhood of Aquileia on the Adriatic in the east.² Roumanian is not only the national language of the country of that name, but is used by a considerable population in Servia, Hungary, Transylvania, Bukovina, Bessarabia, Roumelia, Thessaly, and Albania. In Roumania it is the object of increasing literary culture; and in spite of the foreign influences to which it has been so long exposed, it does not present much variety of dialect in the other districts.

Of the Teutonic languages the Gothic furnishes the oldest literary monument—the translation of the Scriptures by Uphilas or Wulfila, who flourished in the latter part of the 4th century; but it is totally extinct, and among the living representatives of the branch the first place is due to what is popularly known as German *par excellence*,—that is, the modern literary or cultured form of High German. This is usually dated from Luther's translation of the Bible, which marks the transition from the "Middle" to the "New" period. It is not only the recognized speech of the various states of the German empire, but either in its cultured shape or in tributary dialects it is spoken by about 2,000,000 people in Austria-Hungary, and by nearly 2,000,000 in Switzerland. It has lost ground through the revival of Bohemian and Hungarian, but has gained on all the minor linguistic enclaves. Along the frontier regions of Russia and Poland it is partially retreating, partially advancing: Russia naturally discourages the German element in the Baltic provinces, and Germany as naturally the Polish element in Prussia. In both districts, German is the language of higher education. Whatever repressive measures Russia may adopt, it can plead, not only the example of Germany, but the fact that it is only attempting to recover ground that has been lost by the Slavonic tongues. Slavonic names of places occur as far west as Hanover, though the Germans frequently disguise or destroy them. Where it meets the Italian frontier the Teutonic language is retrogressive. Botzen in the end of last century was a border town of the German area; it is now thoroughly Italianized; and even Meran, several miles up the valley of the Adige, and 60 miles from the political frontier, is rapidly losing its Teutonic character. That the movement has been in this direction for centuries is clear; but it is doubtful whether the present German enclaves of the Sette Comuni and Tridici Comuni were always insular, or are to be taken as proof that the Teutonic frontier formerly extended as far south as the neighbourhood of Verona and Vicenza.³

The territorial relations of the Scandinavian languages are sufficiently indicated by their names. They are nowhere aggressive, except where they come into contact with Finnish and Lapp. All of them, even the Faroese, have a certain amount of literature; but three only, Danish, Swedish, and Icelandic, are vigorously cultivated. Norway is mainly indebted for its books to Sweden and Denmark, and its language is slowly passing into a patois. Danish has undergone the greatest changes from the old Norse type, and naturally from its position has been most affected by foreign influences.

Of the Low German group the Old Saxon, formerly spoken between the Rhine and the Elbe, has left several remarkable literary monuments; and two or three of its dialects, now bracketed together as Anglo-Saxon, furnished the basis of the present English language,

¹ M. Tabino, *Revue Scientifique*, 1876, p. 204.

² For details see Ascoli's map at the end of his *Archivio Glottologico Italiano*, vol. i.

³ See Petermann's *Mittheilungen*, 1866, and Charnock in *Journ. of Anthropological Institute*, 1873.

which, however, by its mere vocabulary has nearly as much right to be considered a member of the Latin or Italic branch. The only modern representative of the group besides English which ranks as a literary language is Dutch, which is spoken in Holland, and under a slightly modified form known as Flemish, in a large part of Belgium. Along the coast and islands of the North Sea the current dialects, varying from district to district in an almost exceptional manner, are remnants of the old Frisian tongue, whose oldest written documents date from the 13th century; and the popular language of the countries between the Rhine and the Weser and the Elbe, where it is not Dutch or Frisian, is Platt-Deutsch, which, while overshadowed by the High German, has recently attained a certain literary position through the writings of Fritz Reuter.

The Celtic languages are all without exception decadent,—the most tenacious of life being the Welsh and the Breton. The people who still retain them as their mother tongues are becoming more and more accustomed to the simultaneous use of the dominant languages around. The Welshman and the Scottish Highlander learn English, the Breton French. Cornish died out last century, and left only a few fragmentary texts; Irish is rapidly following it, but will be preserved in a considerable literature; Welsh alone has a fairly vigorous literature at the present time.

According to Professor Zerffi, there are no less than seventeen Slavonic dialects. The most important is Russian, or Great Russian, the national speech of the empire whose name it bears. At present it is spoken by about 34,390,000 of the 65,705,000 of the total population; and its area is rapidly being extended by the direct agency of the Government. In 1871 it was made the official language of Poland, and rendered obligatory in all the law courts of the country; and in 1876 it became practically the only permissible form in Little Russia, where all popular literature and public notices in the local language were prohibited. While it retains a rich inflexional system, Russian has enriched its vocabulary by a large foreign element, from French, English, and German; and its scientific terms are for the most part those of Western Europe. As a written language it is deeply indebted to the Church Slavonic.

Closely cognate is the Little Russian, or Ruthenian, already mentioned, which is spoken by about 14,201,280 people in Russia and upwards of 3,000,000 in Austria. Its Russian area includes Volhynia, Podolia, Kieff, Kherson, Ekaterinoslav, Klarkoff, Poltava, Tchernigoff, Minsk, Grodno, and Lublin, as well as portions of Astrakhan, the Don Cossack Country, Saratoff, and Voronezh; in Austria it is mainly confined to Galicia. Possessing as it does a rich store of popular tales and songs, and employed by several writers of great ability during the present century, it ranks much higher than the third Russian dialect—the White Russian—which is the current speech of about 3,592,000 people, for the most part in Grodno, Minsk, Mohileff, Vilna, and Vitebsk, and is mainly distinguished by Lithuanian and Polish elements. The second place in the Slavonic group may be assigned to Polish, which in spite of political disasters is still spoken by a large but scattered population. It is estimated that there are 3,905,871 Poles in Russian Poland, 2,450,000 in Prussia, 2,465,000 in Austria-Hungary, and 661,000 in European Russia. An extensive and vigorous literature will preserve the language even if it pass, as seems not improbable, altogether from the lips of men. Czech, or Tsekh, is the national language of Bohemia, and is also largely spoken in Moravia and north-western Hungary, where it is usually known by the names of Moravian and Slovak. The differences between the dialects of the several countries are on the whole comparatively slight; but as between Bohemian proper and Slovak, they are sufficiently marked to lead some philologists to recognize the Slovak as a separate language. There is a rich Bohemian literature which, dating from the 10th century, has after a long period of depression and threatened extinction received a new development in modern times. Bulgarian is distributed throughout European Turkey far beyond the district that bears the name of Bulgaria, and it also appears in eastern Roumania and south-western Russia. A very small proportion of the people by whom it is used are of Slavonic blood; and it has departed more than any other Slavonic language from the common type. Its literature is almost exclusively modern, and would be of little moment were it not for its possible value to a possible nation. A much higher position has been attained by the Servo-Croatian, which is spoken by about 5,500,000 people, in Servia, Bosnia, Montenegro, southern Hungary, Slavonia, Croatia, Istria, and Dalmatia. Its dialects though numerous are so slightly differentiated that with any one of them a traveller can make himself understood by those accustomed to any other. It is usual to divide them into three groups—a western or Istrian, a southern or Dalmatian, and an eastern or Servian. Even if the political unification of the South Slavonians should never be realized, the future of the Servo-Croatian is secured by the vigorous literary development which is encouraged both at Agram and Belgrade. Unfortunately it is written and printed in two alphabets—the Cyrillic being employed by the Servians and the Latin by the Croats. The remaining Slavonic tongues are of little practical importance except to the philologist. The Wends are being rapidly Germanized, and are now estimated at about 187,000, princ-

