R E P O R T

of

COMMITTEE ON THESIS

THE undersigned, acting as a committee of
the Graduate School. have read the accompanying
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for the degree of ___Master of Arts,___
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May 28, 1915

A COMPARISON OF ESPERANTO AND

IDO, WITH OUTLINES OF OTHER REPRESENTATIVE

ARTIFICIAL LANGUAGES, AND A HISTORY OF THE

INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE MOVEMENT.

A THESIS SUBMITTED

TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THE

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA BY

NILS LANGSJOEN

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE

REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS.

May 20, 1915.

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INTRODUCTION

I

The need of a Universal Language may be said to
date back to the Babylonian Confusion of tongues but
it is only in comparatively recent times that men have
burdened their minds with definite plans for a univer-
sal means of communication.   The ancients failed to
discuss the question of a universal language, not be-
cause it was not needed nor because they were too un-
sophisticated to recognize such a need, but because
the need was partly met.   The world of the good old
times had one real advantage over the better world of
today.   In the periods between the entrance and the
exit of the successive world powers of the pre-Chris-
tian and Christian eras, we always find one language,
namely, that of the dominant power of the epoch, hold-
ing the center of the stage.

From 2000 to 1000 B. C. the Assyrian was the
universal language in the Near East.   Assyria was not,

of course, the entire geographical or political world.
Her realm only included that portion of the world
which is directly lighted by the history of that age,
but within that realm the dominant language was the
Assyrian.   Even the Egyptian would humble his pride
to the extent of acquiring the barbarous but useful
idiom.

Between 1000and 1 B. C. Greek commerce and arms
spread the language of Hellas both East and West.   In
the Near Orient it remained the ruling idiom until the
rise and spread of Islam; in the West it was supplanted
by Latin, which spread with the expansion of Rome but
did not fall with the fall of the Roman Empire.
Through the early Middle Ages Latin was really an in-
ternational language, the common medium of expression
for purposes of education, sciences, religion, and,
to some extent, of literature.

Today the confusion of languages is worse than
ever.   It is true, modern means of communication are
bringing the nations into closer contact with each

other. Chauvinism is weakening. The problems of
each nation are intimately related to those of the
other nations. Indeed, the race which secludes it-
self for a life of haughty selfsufficiency is fore-
doomed to fail. The conception of human brotherhood
is more clearly recognized now than ever before.
Men are more ready to help the individual, nations
less reluctant to lend other nations a hand -- i. e.,
in times of normal political sanity. And yet, the
perplexing fact remains that the members of the modern
world find themselves without a common international
language, and are apparently satisfied with the sign
of a silent handshake.

II

It may be objected that in our day every educated
European is required to possess a knowledge of German,
French, and English, and therefore may say, in a some-
what restricted sense, that the world's idiom is his
own. To get the same privilege all one needs is an
education along standard European lines. Ergo,

educate the people and the universal language question will be solved. This would seem to be a very simple and scholarly solution of the problem and one that possesses obvious advantages as well. National prejudices have less of a hold on the trilinguist than on the person to whom all but one language are "babbling jargons". It is fine, said the Roman Ennius, "tria corda habere"; and if "three hearts" were good to have in the time of Rome, they are presumably even more desirable now when Imperial Rome as an empire is vast by virtue of poetic charity alone.

But the "three hearts" are not to be had for the mere asking. "Thoughts," says Jespersen, "pay customs duty," not in gold but in time, and of the latter even modern Croesusses have but a limited allowance. And there is absolutely no hope that the time now spent in acquiring the needed foreign languages can be reduced. On the contrary, the trend of recent development points to the necessity of having to add a fourth language, namely the Russian. And, if we

may -- as in fact we must -- believe the testimony of
linguists, the cost (in time) of this fourth will equal
that of the other three.   And the end is not yet.
There is a colossal republic called China just rubbing
sleep out of its inscrutable eyes -- and there may be
others.   So, unless we are prepared for the exclusive
raising of Mezzofantis, we may as well abandon the idea
of making knowledge of the more important languages
a substitute for the ideal of one universal language.

III

It will be conceded that there are two possible
ways of solving the question of a universal language,
or to be exact an International Secondary Language
(I. S. L.).   The first is to chose and employ one of
the leading languages as an I. S. L., the second is to
adopt an artificial language.

Considering these two propositions in the order
stated, the first question would be: which of the
modern languages is best qualified to become the
I. S. L.?

Russian may be summarily dismissed. In the
first place, it is admittedly too difficult; in the
second place, the fact that it is the idiom of a race
as yet far behind the van of European culture makes it
unacceptable to the peoples boasting a higher cultural
status.

More reasonable are the claims of the French
language. For centuries French was considered the
leading idiom of Europe, the language of the courts,
of polite society, and the language of diplomacy.
From the time of Louis XIV to that of the world con-
queror Napoleon its international prestige was un-
questioned. It was fashionable, e. g., in England
at the time of the Restoration to garnish one's con-
versation with French phrases, and poets like Dryden
did not hesitate to insert French words bodily into
their poems. The ablest German sovereign of the
eighteenth century, Frederick the Great of Prussia,
composed all his numerous works in the language
of France.

French, as an instrument for expressing thought, is distinguished by exceeding clarity and precision. It lacks the German ability for forming compounds, and does not equal the English or even the German in wealth of vocabulary. But the French argue, and perhaps with considerable reason, that the expressive wealth of a language is determined, not so much by the facility for forming compounds, the abundance of synonyms, or the number of words paraded in the dictionary, as by the superior flexibility which permits the clear and precise expression of meanings and shades of meanings by a relatively limited number of words. And in proof of this statement the Frenchman points proudly to the fact that French is still the language of diplomacy all over the world. Even as late as 1829 we find Goethe expressing the conviction that French will never be ousted from its position as the world language of culture and of the courts. But in spite of its intrinsic merits, its one time hold on the world as the language of polite society, and the recent

enthusiastic efforts of the Alliance Francaise besides,
French has steadily lost ground in modern times.
French has failed or ceased to spread because the race
to whom it belongs has practically ceased to increase.
Languages in the past spread only with the conquest,
military, cultural, or commercial, of a strong and
aggressive race.

If French lost its foothold as a world language
because the French nation has ceased to grow, German
might be thought to have a good chance to become the
leading speech of the world. The Germans as a nation
possess the very qualifications for spreading their
language, the lack of which caused the failure of the
French. German, in a way, is the scientific language
of our age. In the United States even, a knowledge
of German is required of all science students. Hand-
books on anatomy used in our medical schools are com-
monly in German, and all the more important works on
philology likewise.

But other circumstances conspire against the
tongue of the Fatherland ever becoming the I. S. L.
In the first place German is geographically limited.
German commerce may encircle the world, and German
ships may carry German speech to the ends of the earth,
but withal there are few permanent outposts in the form
of German-settled and German-ruled colonies to serve as
linguistic distributing points.   Besides, altho Ger-
many is in the very van of cultural and industrial
progress, she has attained this proud position in com-
paratively recent times, i. e., during the last half
century generally speaking, and this same period has
also witnessed an ever quickening revival of national-
istic tendencies in the European countries, with each
nation jealously guarding its own language, purging it
of foreign elements if nothing more can be done to
satisfy national pride.   Add to this the complicated
accidence of German, several noun declensions, each
with its four case endings, German grammatical gender,
and double declension of adjectives -- and it seems

exceedingly doubtful that German can succeed when French failed.

Last but not least English may be considered as a possible I. S. L. According to Anglo-Saxon, Anglo- and Anglicized-American opinion, English is not only the language which has the best chance for becoming a world language, but the one most deserving of the honor as well. And unprejudiced judges of other nationalities must perforce admit that the dream of the Anglo-philes is not based entirely on idle theory.

English surpasses German and French in the wealth of its literature. According to Brander Matthews' somewhat exaggerated estimate, English literature, quantitatively -- if not qualitatively -- is equivalent to the combined literatures of France and Germany. Moreover, English is, to some extent, already a world language. It is the prevailing language on the high seas. It is the speech of two mighty nations. The English and the American possessions, where English is used either as the popular or the

official speech, encircle the globe and occupy the portions thereof best suited for the transplanting and propagation of European civilization. English apparently has undeniable advantages for winning in the race. It cannot be said to surpass all other languages in every respect -- although some extremists would fain have this accepted as a linguistic axiom. It is not so euphonious as the Italian, not so clear and precise of meaning as the French, not so deep and flexible as the German. Diels[1] holds that English is practical but not beautiful, or if it is to be termed beautiful at all, it may be said to possess the material beauty of practical efficiency, the beauty, e. g., of a steam-engine as compared with the truly beautiful work of a Grecian temple or a Gothic cathedral.

In a limited sense English may be said to approach internationality because it has a double vocabulary, a Germanic and a Romance.

(1): See "Das Problem der Weltsprache" in "Deutsche Revue", XXVI, 45 ff.

English is easy to acquire, being almost without grammar. There is but one noun declension with two cases in each number. The adjectives are indeclinable, the gender of nouns is natural, the verbs are conjugated by means of uniform auxiliaries. It has simplicity of syntax and morphology, in brief, to use Henry Bradley's felicitous phrase, "a noiseless grammatical machinery". Barring characteristic idioms, (which, by the way, are incidental to all languages) and a complex and illogical orthography, English is admittedly the easiest to acquire of all languages. It is, moreover, already spoken by more people than any other language, excepting Chinese and Hindoo.

Basing the future of English on statistical deductions, Lewis Carnac, an English statistician, arrives at the following results:

NUMBER OF SPEAKERS IN MILLIONS AT CLOSE OF EACH CENTURY

- -

Century	English	German	Russian	French	Italian	Spanish
1500	4	10	3	10	9.5	8.5
1600	6	10	3	14	9.5	8.5
1700	8.5	10	3	20	9.5	8.5
1800	20	31	30	31	15	26
1900	116	80	85	52	54	44
2000	640	210	233	85	77	74

- -
- -

But one caution should be taken. The figures for
the centuries previous to the nineteenth are more or
less guesswork, and even if they are accurate because
of a marvelous collection of coincidences, the final
figures need not be taken as inevitable. Race sui-
cide, political cataclysms and readjustments, and other
unmathematical factors might shake up the figures.
But even if the apparently scientific prediction should
come true, still this would not necessarily make English
the I. S. L. There would be 210 million Germans to

dispute the superiority of the idiom of a mixed race of 640 million over their own speech, and it is just possible that the Germans will be racially homogeneous, intelligent, organized, and determined enough to give weight to their objections. And there will be 233 million Russians to reckon with besides. The smaller nations might perhaps be persuaded to adopt one of the major languages as their secondary tongue, but the great nations, never.[1] The choosing of English as the I. S. L., for instance, would grant an immeasurable advantage to the commercial enterprises of the English speaking peoples. Besides, the fact would necessarily seem to imply an inferiority of the languages and influences of the other great nations, and the mere possibility of such a stigma the latter would never tolerate. And as the time is past when we may look for one world power alone, we might as well abandon the hope of a living language becoming by mutual international consent the I. S. L., for such an idiom must above all be neutral.

(1): It has recently been suggested that the peace negotiations at the close of the present European conflict ought to be carried on in the neutral language of Esperanto. See Amerika Esperantisto, March, 1915.

IV

Considering the indispensable requirement of
neutrality, it would seem natural to revive and mod-
ernize Greek or Latin for purposes of international
communication.

Greek was suggested (1880-90) as a universal
science language.   But Greek is too little used.
The study of Greek has all but disappeared from Amer-
ican high schools, and it is far from popular in the
higher schools of Europe.   The modern languages con-
tain far less Greek than Latin derivatives, thus
making the indirect popular knowledge of Greek ele-
ments far less complete than that of Latin.   Further-
more the language is difficult as to grammar and al-
phabet.

The plan of elevating Latin to the honor of
I. S. L. has been much more seriously considered.
Whatever the present status of Latin may be, it has the
advantage of having once been a real world language.
And it is a question if Latin is really dead yet, altho

it may be conceded dead enough to be considered neutral.
Following the fall of Rome, Latin remained thruout the
Middle Ages the language of education and of the church.
Authors like Bacon wrote in Latin because they desired
a wider public than the circle of their compatriots.
It lingered as the language of philosophy and science
for one hundred years after the appearance of "Paradise
Lost".   Latin is still taught in the high schools and
widely used in the sciences, notably botany.   All med-
ical prescriptions and occasional doctoral theses are
still written in Latin.   The Pope still words his en-
cyclics in the language of Cicero, as does also the
Austrian Emperor when addressing other crowned heads:
"Serenissime princeps consanguine carissime."

In 1890 George Henderson began publishing Phoenix,
a periodical dedicated to the cause of Latin as an in-
ternational language.   He boldly renounced the Cicero-
nian Latin and turned to the mediaeval form of the lan-
guage as more suitable to modern needs.   He furthermore
suggested that deficiencies in Latin in the matter of

expressions he made up by neologisms, terms like:
naves vaporariae, unio postalis, ferreae viae ordines,
etc.   To demonstrate that Latin could be used for ex-
pressing thoughts in a light and happy vein, he pub-
lished Postprandium, a collection of toasts and after-
dinner speeches.

The Mundolingue [1] of Julius Lott of Vienna may also
be considered a modernized Latin, but it is in reality
a refined "lingua franca", a naturally grown language
of the Mediterranean sailors.   Of this language it has
been said that any one understanding one Romance lan-
guage would experience no difficulty in reading
Mundolingue.

A serious objection to the modern use of Latin is
that it is too hard for the man of the twentieth cen-
tury.   No matter if Latin be modernized and simpli-
fied and taught with the practical end in view rather
than as a system of mental gymnastics, it will still
be, at least, as hard to acquire as the average living
language, and that is too difficult in our press-the-

(1):   See: Un lingua internazional: Grammatika et
vokabular pro angleses, germanes, romanes,
et pro kultivates de tut mond, Vienna, 1890.

button age.   The ideal I. S. L. must be first and last and all the time -- easy.   Even the easiest and simplest modern language, the English, is burdened with innumerable idioms and an antiquated and illogical orthography.   The only language which could be expected to meet the popular requirements for an I. S. L. would be an artificial language.

:::::::::::

CHAPTER I

THE MOVEMENT FOR AN ARTIFICIAL UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE

The idea of an artificial international language did not originate in our own cosmopolitan era.

Leibniz, the great German philosopher (1648-1716), seriously considered the possibility of producing a philosophic language which would be "an instrument of reason as well as an adequate medium for the expression of thought."   He presented no definite scheme for a philosophic language, but the fact that he took interest in such a project, which he regarded both possible and

desirable, is worthy of notice. Even as early as 1629
Descartes had presented a preliminary sketch for a
philosophic language, and from his time up to the pres-
ent approximately 70 schemes have been worked out <u>in</u>
<u>toto</u> or in outline. Couturat and Leau in their
L'Histoire de la Langue Universelle, and Les Nouvelles
Langues Internationales make mention of 71 authors and
their schemes. These 71 systems are divided into
three groups; viz., systems a priori, systems a post-
eriori, and mixed systems.

The systems a priori, as the name implies, are en-
tirely new. They take no account of any living or
dead language as a model for the general scheme of
grammar or details of accidence. The roots as well as
the inflectional affixes are arbitrary creations of the
author's mind.

The inflectional systems of the a priori languages
possess an advantage in their regularity, which, how-
ever, is counterbalanced by the strangeness of the
forms. The root forms of an a priori vocabulary are

entirely conventional and, except by chance, unlike any
roots of living languages. The result is a vocabulary
extremely difficult to acquire. To take note of an
a priori word and its assigned meaning is mechanically
easy enough, but to connect the same form with its
meaning later when occasion demands it, is somewhat
like locating in a wall a brick previously carefully
pointed out.

As an example of the purely a priori systems we
may consider Dalgarno, named after its originator
George Dalgarno (1626-1687), at one time director of a
private school at Guernsey, author of Dedascalocophus,
a method of instruction for deaf-mutes, and inventor
of a deaf-mutes' sign alphabet.

Dalgarno is a so-called philosophical language,
based on a logical classification of ideas. The
totality of ideas is divided into 17 classes. Each
one of these 17 classes is characterized by one of the
17 letters of the Dalgarno alphabet; the character-
istic letter of each class is made the initial letter

of all words belonging to the corresponding class.

The classes of ideas with their corresponding characterizing letters are as follows:

A   Beings, objects

H   (Eta), Substances

E   Accidents (or incidents)

I   Concrete beings

O   Bodies

Y   (Upsilon), Spirit

U   Man (body and spirit)

M   Applicates (mathematical concretes)

N   Concretes in a physical sense

F   Artificial concretes

B   Mathematical accidents or incidents

D   Physical and general accidents or incidents

G   Perceptible qualities

P   Sensitive accidents, i. e., perceptible

T   Rational incidents

K   Political incidents

S   Common incidents

The letter S, when not used initially, may be employed as a 'service' letter; i. e., for constructing a pronounceable letter combination without having any designated meaning of itself. Three other 'service' letters are: R, expressing the opposite;, L, the mean between two extremes; and V, the characteristic initial of numerals.

Each of the 17 classes is divided into subclasses distinguished by means of the second letter. Ex.:

Class K - Common incidents

Subclass Ka - Relations of function

Subclass Ke - Judicial matter.

Each subclass includes a certain number of words whose differences in meaning are indicated by the last letter. Ex.:

S - Class of common incidents

Ska - Subclass including terms relating to religion

Skam - grace. Skaf - to adore. Skad - to pray. Skak - miracle. Etc.

The outlined system of classification includes
both nouns and verbs. Special words were invented to
serve as pronouns, particles, and inflectional affixes.

The systems a posteriori, which are diametrically
opposed to the a priori schemes, are many and varied,
but they all have one principle in common, namely, the
international character of their elements. The vo-
cabulary is selected from the various living and dead
languages. For example, in Esperanto we find patro,
Latin; ŝipo, English; hejmo, German; kopeko, Russian;
fjordo, Norwegian; fanfaroni, Italian; surtuto, French;
spado, Spanish. In the inflections of Ido and Esper-
anto we find both retaining the Italian and Spanish -o
for the singular noun ending; Ido has the Italian and
Russian -i for the plural ending of nouns and Italian
and Spanish -ar for the present infinitive verb ending,
and both Esperanto and Ido employ the -nt and -t of the
active and passive participles of the Romance (and
partly the Germanic) languages. A priori features are
not, however, unknown in languages of this group, good

examples of which would be the correlated indefinite pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, and conjunctive adverbs of Esperanto.

The Mixed Systems are midway between the a priori and the a posteriori systems. They differ quite widely, some being more a priori than a posteriori and vice versa. In accordance with the a posteriori practice the root forms of the vocabulary are drawn from the natural languages, but such roots are subjected to certain rigid rules which generally destroy their identity: e. g., Volapük, nim - animal; rig - origin; ficul - difficulty; etc.

On the other hand the inflectional affixes are as a rule arbitrary or a priori. For example the present infinitive of the Volapük verb to love is löfön. The root löf- is plainly derived from the English whereas the infinitive ending -ön is a priori. In the Pres. Sing. Act. Ind. of this verb we have the forms:

I love - löfob.   He loves - löfom

You love - löfol.   She loves - löfof

It loves - löfos

The endings -ob, -ol, -om, -of, and -os are
plainly a priori. It may be remarked that endings not
only represent but actually are the Volapük pronouns:
I, you, he, she, and it, but they were in the first
place a priori monosyllables created by the author to
represent the ideas, I, you, etc.

The attitude of philologists with regard to the
scheme of an artificial I. S. L. is of course a matter
of considerable interest to us. It must be admitted
at the outset that the expert students of language
have so far given little support to the problem in
general or to any definite attempt at its solution.
Some of them have indeed voiced decided objections.
Thus, Karl Brugmann, Professor of Indogermanic philo-
logy at the University of Leipzig, is highly sceptical
regarding the ability of Esperanto to perpetuate it-
self even if adopted as an I. S. L. [1] A language, he
argues, must be capable of growing if it is to live,
and growth in a language depends on its traditions,
its historic associations, and --where are the

(1): See "Die neusten Weltspracheprojekte" in "Zur
            Kritik der künstlichen Weltsprachen" by
            Brugmann and Leskien. Strassburg, 1907.

traditions and the past of Esperanto?　To this objection the answer may be made that each separate a posteriori root form in the Esperanto vocabulary has a tradition of its own, running back through the history of one nation or more, and the entire vocabulary may thus be said to have a very complex and composite history.　Of course, the history of each individual root was somewhat twisted and strained when the word in question was arbitrarily taken, changed a little perhaps, and incorporated into a new language system, but in no case did such a procedure leave the word without a history.

(1)

Leskien, Professor of Slavic languages at the University of Leipzig, grants that Esperanto is admittedly the best and most nearly successful artificial world language, but 'the best' in this case is evidently very unsatisfactory.　He criticises the phonology of Esperanto as too difficult for many peoples. The mode of forming the feminine (patro, patrino, etc.) he calls ridiculous; magnifying suffixes (e. g., varma, warm; varmega, hot) are unheard of in many

(1): Zur "Kritik des Esperanto" in "Zur Kritik der künstlichen Weltsprachen" by Brugmann and Leskien.　Strassburg, 1907.

languages; why introduce such a feature into an arti-
ficial language which should be as simple as possible?
But Esperanto is not simple; six participles do not be-
speak simplicity.   And Esperanto is not easy according
to Leskien, who has tried it and found it difficult.
Finally, an artificial world language, he contends, is
in itself an impossibility for an artificial language
and living men cannot possibly agree.

Hermann Diels may be considered an opponent of
Esperanto and similar movements on the major premise:
"Whosoever is not with us is against us." [1]   Diels
admits that the idea of an international language is
practically and partly applied in the case of mathe-
matical, astronomical, and chemical symbols and signs,
and in the international system of marine signals; he
admits further that an I. S. L. is getting more and
more necessary, but he opposes an artificial language
as the I. S. L.   He offers no definite arguments
against it, but he seems to be of the opinion that it
cannot be done; men will never take enough interest in

an artificial language to insure its success as
an I. S. L.

Among the eminent supporters of the Artificial
I. S. L. idea may be mentioned L. Couturat of Paris,
author of L'Histoire de la Langue Universelle and mem-
ber of the delegation appointed at Paris, 1907, to take
steps to provide for an I. S. L.

Jesperson of the University of Copenhagen, one of
the most progressive students of language, believes
that an I. S. L. has been partly realized.   'Schleyer
demonstrated the possibility of the idea; Zamenhof
showed that we need not abandon modern forms.'   He
hopes that a suitable system will be found, and ac-
cording to Jesperson, "that international language is
the best which is the easiest for the greatest number
of men".

Wilhelm Ostwald is another strong exponent of
Esperanto.   He has recently stepped out of his special
field of chemistry and has worked energetically and
with great enthusiasm to arouse a greater popular in-
terest in Esperanto.

Years ago Max Muller, the well-known Sanskrit scholar and popular lecturer, expressed himself as unreservedly in favor of Volapük, and it is not to be doubted that he would have favored Esperanto still more.

Schuchardt, Professor of Mediaeval Latin at the University of Gratz, in Auf Anlass des Volapüks, shows himself to be diametrically opposed to Hugo Münsterberg, who characterizes Esperanto as "an artificial syllable series, lifeless and incapable of growth". To Schuchardt an artificial language is really an ideal one, for it has been worked out consciously and is therefore technically correct. He believes that the fact that a language has been consciously elaborated should not be held against it, for all true progress in life is due to conscious effort; and why should not the same be true in the case of a language? The extreme regularity of the grammatical systems of some of the artificial languages does not justify the branding of such languages as dead and monotonous. The

irregular flexion of living languages is not justified,
on the other hand, simply on the ground that these ir-
regularities result from natural growth and changes.
The fact that simplifying analogy in artificial lan-
guages is not always practical does not justify the
anomalies of living languages due to natural language
growth.

All in all, Schuchardt believes that 'an artifi-
cial language has as much right to exist as any organic
language.   Indeed, it is not going too far to pit
rational analogy against arbitrary anomaly.'

CHAPTER II

VOLAPÜK AND BOLAK

Of the 70 artificial language systems only three
have been worked out in full, have gained adherents, and
have been elevated to the position of being the lan-
guage of periodicals, of delegates at international con-
ventions and of international correspondence.   None of
the three belong to the a priori group -- another proof,
if desired, of the impractical nature of these systems.
The mixed systems are represented by Volapük; the
a posteriori, by Esperanto and Ido.

The idea which later grew into action and produced
the Volapük idiom originated, the report says, during a
sleepless night (March 31, 1879) of a Roman Catholic
clergyman, Johann Martin Schleyer, vicar of Litzel-
stetten.   Schleyer was at the time in his forty-eighth
year, having been born on the 18th of July, 1831, at
Oberlauda, Baden.   The motives giving birth to the idea

were of a high philanthropic order. It was not the
desire of facilitating commerce and travel, or light-
ening the courses of a liberal education which actu-
ated Father Schlyer. His hope was to further and
hasten the union and brotherhood of humanity. The
very motto of Volapük, "Menade bal püki bal," To one
humanity one language, seems to indicate that the au-
thor looked on his invention as a means for unifying
all mankind.

Schleyer's admirers credit him with having had a
knowledge of more than 50 languages; another report
places the number at 83; and, however much one might
wish to doubt the thoroughness of his knowledge, after
having looked over the plan of the Volapük grammar,
one cannot but feel convinced that his linguistic eru-
dition must have been exceedingly extensive. None
but a versatile linguist, a bold originator, stepping
nonchalantly over difficulties, a practical man and
dreamer both, could possibly have evolved the vocabu-
lary and grammar of Volapük.

OUTLINE OF VOLAPÜK

The Volapük alphabet comprises 28 letters: 8 vowels and 20 consonants.   The vowels are: a, e, i, o (English), u (Fr. ou), ä (Fr. è), ö (Fr. eu), ü (Fr. u).   Consonants: b, d, f, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, y, pronounced as in English, g (hard), c (tch), h(Ger. ch), j (Fr. ch), x (ks), z (ts).   To these must be added the sound of the Greek aspirate.

The vowels are always long; there are no diphthongs, and the principle of "one letter one sound" is rigorously followed.

The gender of nouns is natural.   The declension of nouns is as follows, there being but one class of nouns:

<u>dom</u>, house

	Singular	Plural
Nom.	dom	doms
Gen.	doma	domas

	Singular	Plural
Dat.	dome	domes
Acc.	domi	domis

The vocative is expressed by "o" before the nominative.

The accent is always on the ultima, insuring thus a distinct pronunciation of the case ending.

The definite article el, and the indefinite un inflect like dom. They are employed only in cases of absolutely necessity or when a literal translation demands it.

Adjectives and Adverbs

Adjectives are formed from nouns by suffixing -ik; e. g., gud, goodness: gudik, good. The adjective is invariable if it follows immediately the noun which it modifies. In all other cases it agrees with the noun it modifies.

The principal primitive adverbs are: si, yes; no, no; te, solely, only; ti, nearly; nu, now; is, here; us, there; ya, already; ofen, often; suno, soon; kiöp, where; klüp, when; kikod, why; liko, how; lio, how many.

Adverbs derived from adjectives have the ending -ik and are identical in form with the adjectives, but the adverbial suffix -o is added when the adverb is separated from its verb or when the need of clearness demands the distinctive ending: e. g., gudik, good; gudiko, well.

Adverbs derived from nouns always take the suffix -o: neit, night; neito, by or at night.

Adverbs of place, when marking movement towards a place, take the accusative termination -i, but the genitive -a is used when movement away from a place is expressed: e. g., golob usi, I am going there; komob usa, I come from there.

Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs

The comparative degree takes the suffix -um, and the superlative the suffix -ün: e. g., gudik, gudikum, gudikün; good, better, best. "Than" in a comparison is expressed by ka.

The absolute superlative is expressed by the adverb vemo plus the positive form: vemo gletik, very

great.   This method of comparison may also be applied to nouns: e. g., <u>fam</u>, <u>famum</u>, <u>famün</u>; glory, a greater glory, the greatest glory.

Adverbs are compared by means of the same suffixes used in the case of adjectives.

Prepositions

The principal prepositions are: <u>al</u>, to, toward; <u>de</u>, of; <u>in</u>, in; <u>se</u>; out of; <u>su</u>, upon, on, over; <u>dis</u>, under; <u>bifü</u>, before; <u>po</u>, behind; <u>pos</u>, after, next to; <u>ko</u>, with; <u>nen</u>, without; <u>ta</u>, against; <u>fa</u>, by, through; <u>plo</u> (ple in comps.), for.

Numerals

1.   Cardinals: bal, tel, kil, fol, lul, mäl, vel, jöl, zül.

2.   The tens are formed by adding -s to the numbers prededing: bals (10), züls (90).

3.   The intermediate numbers between 10 and 100 are formed as follows: balsebal (11), balsetel (12), lulselul (55), etc.

4.   Tum (100), mil (1000), balion (1,000,000).

5. Ordinals are formed by adding -id to the cardinals: balid, first; balsetelid, twelfth; etc.

6. Multiples are formed by adding -ik to the cardinals: telik, double; kilik, triple.

7. Fractional numbers are formed by adding -dil to the cardinals: kildil, a third; foldil, a fourth.

8. Once, twice, thrice, etc.: balna, kilna, balsena.

9. Verbs derived from cardinals: balön, to unite; telön, to double; etc.

10. Adverbs are formed from numeral adjectives by adding -o; balido, firstly; folido, fourthly; etc.

11. The numbers from one to nine are variable as to gender, number, and case.

Pronouns

1. Personal pronouns: ob, I; ol, you; om, he; of, she; os, it. Plural formed by adding -s.

2. Reflexive pronoun: ok, (plural, oks).

3. Indefinite pronoun: on, (plural, ons).

4. Possessive adjectives are derived from the personal pronouns by adding suffix -ik: obik, my.

The possessive adjectives become possessive pronouns by adding -el: <u>obikel</u>, mine; <u>olikel</u>, thine.

5. Demonstrative pronouns: <u>at</u>, this; <u>et</u>, that; <u>it</u>, same; <u>ot</u>, the same; <u>ut</u>, he who; <u>som</u>, such; <u>votik</u>, the other; <u>balimik</u>,....<u>votimik</u>, the one....
the other.

6. Interrogative pronouns: who, what, <u>kim</u>, (masc.); <u>jikim</u> (fem.), <u>kis</u> (neut.); which or what one, <u>kiom</u>, <u>kiof</u>, <u>kios</u>; what kind of, <u>kimik</u>.

7. Relative pronouns: <u>kel</u>, <u>jikel</u>, <u>kelos</u>; who.

8. Indefinite pronouns: <u>sembal</u>, any one; <u>ek</u>, some one; <u>nek</u>, nobody; <u>alik</u>, each; <u>alim</u>, every one; <u>nonik</u>, none; <u>bos</u>, something; <u>valik</u>, all; <u>nos</u>, nothing.

CONJUGATION

The conjugation of a Volapük verb shows absolute regularity.

The person of the verb is indicated by the suffixed personal pronoun:

	Singular	Plural
I love	löf ob	löfobs
You love	löfol	löfols
He loves	löfom	löfoms
She loves	löfof	löfofs
It loves	löfos	löfon

The present infinitive form of the verb <u>to love</u> is <u>löfön</u>.   Stem, <u>löf</u>, infinitive ending -ön.

The different tenses are indicated by prefixes:

Imperfect	ä	älöfob	I was loving
Perfect	e	elöfob	I have loved
Pluperfect	i	ilöfob	I had loved
Future	o	olöfob	I shall love
Future Perf.	u	ulöfob	I shall have loved

The modes are formed by suffixes:

Subjunctive	-la	(löfom-la, if he loves)
Optative	-ös	
Imperative	-öd	
Jussive	-öz	
Infinitive	-ön	
Participle	-öl	(<u>löföl</u>, loving)

The passive is formed by prefixing p- (pa- in the case of the present tense).

The verb forms of each tense and mode may be changed into the durative, expressing continuation of action, by inserting an "i" between the tense prefix and the verb stem: e. g., peilöfof, she has always been loved.

HISTORY OF VOLAPÜK MOVEMENT

Volapük appeared first in 1880; it spread first in South Germany, then in France (from 1885), and afterwards in all the civilized countries of the two hemispheres. The principal propagator in France was Auguste Kerckhoffs, Professor of modern languages in the Commercial High School of Paris. He organized the Association Française for the propagation of Volapük. In Paris this organization established 14 free public Volapük classes. One of these classes for example counted 121 members. In other countries Volapük met likewise with great success. The principal cities in Europe and America had their courses in Volapük.

The Italian Ministerof Education authorized the estab-
lishment of free Volapük courses in the Technical In-
stitutes of Reggio d'Emilio and Turin.   The high-water
mark of the Volapük movement was registered about 1888.
In 1889 there were in existence no less than 283 Volapük
clubs or societies, distributed over the whole civilized
world.   The number of Volapükists was estimated to be
about one million.   Works published for the study of
Volapük numbered 316, and of this number no less than
182 appeared in 1888.   There were 25 periodicals pub-
lished in the cause of Volapük and of these 7 were pub-
lished entirely in the new language.

In 1889 the third and most important Volapük Con-
gress met in Paris.   In this gathering Volapük is
said to have been the only language used.   It would
seem that this Congress marked the attainment of a uni-
versal and definite Volapük triumph and it is surpris-
ing to find that the very same year, 1889, witnessed
also a beginning of a decline in the movement, more
rapid even than its phenomenal rise.

The cause of the decline, however, is found in the
internal history of the new artificial language. It
was the old story of "a house divided against itself."

Schleyer, the originator, wanted a language as
rich as the richest living languages and capable of ex-
pressing all possible shades of thought; Kerckhoffs
considered Volapük valuable mainly as a commercial
lanlanguage, and in common with the Volapükists of all
countries (except Germany) he found Volapük too dif-
ficult. The 505 possible forms of a Volapük verb
would, in Kerckhoffs' opinion, lead the movement to
its defeat.

Almost from the start Kerckhoffs advocated numer-
ous changes, among which may be noted the following:
Suppression of the articles el and un; elimination of
the declension of numerals, of infinitives, and of ad-
verbs of place; suppression of the double orthography
of certain prepositions and conjunctions like ka, ke,
po, ple, etc. He also opposed the transcription of
proper nouns: e. g., Jleyer for Schleyer; and above

all he advocated the normal order in sentences on the
ground that the inverted order was confusing to all but
German Volapükists.   The unrestricted practice of form-
ing compounds he denounced as a Germanism.

The foregoing proposed changes were in general
adopted by the majority of Volapükists.   Schleyer,
however, as father of the system, seems to have been
very reluctant to permit any radical changes, and for
the purpose of adjudicating the differences regarding
Volapük reforms, three successive Congresses were
called.   The first Congress, mainly composed of Ger-
mans, was called by Schleyer at Friedrichshafen, August
25-28, 1884.   The second Congress, held at Munich,
August 6-9, 1887, organized the Volapükaklub Valemik
and instituted an International Volapük Academy to be
composed of members from among the most prominent
Volapükists of the various countries.   This Academy
was to watch and direct the development of the lan-
guage, provide for a dictionary, and preserve the unity
of the idiom.   Schleyer was made grand-master for life

and Kerckhoffs was unanimously chosen as director.   The
latter prevailed upon his colleagues to confer upon
Schleyer the right of a triple vote, but to withold the
privilege of an absolute veto demanded by Schleyer.
This move on the part of Kerckhoffs caused considerable
friction between the grand-master and the radical re-
form party headed by the director.

The third Congress (1889) drew up a system of
statutes for the government of the Academy.   Note-
worthy among these statutes is the fifteenth, which
gives the Academy the power to pass a decision against
Schleyer's objection by a two-thirds' majority.   The
differences among the Volapükists from now on came
rapidly to a crisis.   Schleyer maintained his right to
an absolute, instead of a merely suspending, veto, but
his objections were ignored.   Kerckhoffs, as director
of the Academy, presented his reforms, not in detail
but in bulk, for the Academy to accept all or none.
Divers members of the Academy proposed different gram-
matical schemes; Kerckhoffs resigned as director in

July, 1891, and Rosenberger of St. Petersburg was elected his successor. Within the Academy the exponents of the different plans for reform were unable to come to an understanding as far as Volapük went and gradually they converged to the construction of a new and entirely different language, Idiom Neutral.

From 1889 the Volapük propaganda rapidly quieted down and finally stopped. The leading men of the movement, conscious of the defects of the Volapük system on the one hand and despairing of ever having their reform proposition accepted either by the Academy or by Schleyer, turned their energies toward elaborating new languages.

At the present Volapük is dead. Even as early as 1906 only 4 Volapük clubs and one periodical remained: viz., Volapükabled Lezenodik.

The causes of the failure of the Volapük movement are in the first place the dissensions between the originator and the leading Volapükists regarding simplifications of the system. These dissensions were

due to the very serious defects of the language, however.

CRITICISM OF VOLAPÜK

Briefly stated, the language is too difficult. In the first place the grammar is too synthetic. The conjugation is essentially Greek and hence repugnant to the analytic spirit of modern languages. The prefixed tense signs (Imp. ä, Perf. e, etc.) constitute an archaic feature, an imitation of the Greek augment. The inflectional affixes, personal endings, tense prefixes, and modal suffixes are arbitrary, a monotonous a priori system extremely difficult for the memory to retain.

The number of affixes in some of the possible compound forms of the verb tends to obscure still more the verb stem, already disguised by the abbreviations of the system. Take the verb löfön, to love, stem ꜰ löf. This stem has had the good fortune to retain its family traits in the first place. In the 3d, sing., pres., active, löfom, the stem is conspicuous; in the imp., act., älöfom, it is still noticeable; in the 3d sing.,

pres., act., jussive, <u>löfomöz</u>, likewise; but in the passive of the same form, <u>palöfomöz</u>, the stem needs to be pointed out to all but the one who has carefully pieced the compound together.

Regarding the Volapük vocabulary it has been said that it is not international. Strictly speaking this charge is not true. The word stems in Volapük have been taken from the various living languages and in consequence the vocabulary is theoretically of an international character. But on the other hand the word stems are in general mutilated beyond identification. As far as results go, it may frequently be said that the inventor of Volapük has used a word taken from English for example, as a basis for his thought while producing an apparently a priori word stem: e. g., <u>nim</u>, animal; <u>rig</u>, origin; etc.

Certain rules laid down by the originator to be followed in the process of deriving word stems for the Volapük vocabulary are responsible for the majority of stems losing their identity. They are as follows:

1. Every word stem must begin with a consonant:

    e. g., <u>mag</u>, imago.

2. Substitution of l for r:

    e. g., <u>tal</u>, terra

3. Substitute v for w:

    e. g., <u>vol</u>, world

4. Tendency toward monosyllables: knowledge, <u>nol</u>.

5. Stems must not end in a sibilant in order to take
    the plural suffix -s: e. g., rose, <u>lol</u>.

6. Sacrificing the graphic character of a root for the
    sake of the phonetic: e. g., station, <u>stejen</u>.

As an example of the confusion which is produced
by destroying the identity of word stems may be men-
tioned <u>fil</u> (fire), derived from the English. <u>Fil</u> re-
minds the Latin peoples of <u>fil</u>, <u>fils</u>, or <u>fille</u>,
(thread, son, or daughter), the English and the Scandi-
navians of <u>file</u> (a tool). Volapük has the word <u>fir</u>,
but it does not mean fire but fir, a tree. Volapük
has the near homonyms <u>glop</u> and <u>glöp</u>; <u>glob</u> is derived
from and has the meaning of Danish grov (coarse):

glöp is derived from English globe and has the same meaning. As a result of the illogical rules for root formation, we find that the Volapük term for visible is logik, while the word for logic is tikav, and the universally known name Alps has been changed to lap.

It is apparent that Schleyer has not given the question of an international vocabulary sufficient thought. For instance he passes over the Latin word camera, which is practically international and takes the English chamber, which subjected to the rules becomes cem.

He seems anxiously to avoid everything of an international character, especially Latin stems, but does not hesitate to translate literally Latin or Greek compounds thru the medium of mutilated Germanic roots: e. g., thermometer becomes vam mafel (heat measure). Another disadvantage of the Volapük vocabulary is found in the numerous isomerisms: e. g., le-dom, palace; led-om, he blushes; le-mel, ocean; lem-el, buyer; etc.

In brief, Volapük failed;. not because of a vocabulary and a grammar too meager and limited as to forms. The vocabulary is rich enough as to terms, and it is the boast of supporters of the language that no possible shade of thought of which the human mind is capable can not be exactly couched in Volapük, and the mere thought of the 505 forms of a Volapük verb would make one loath to dispute the truth of the assertion.

Volapük failed because it is too difficult. It has all the disadvantages of a synthetic language, but lacks the logical advantages of the same. The affixes of the conjugational system, for example, are logical only when used with a word as a root of known primitive meaning; intrinsically these affixes themselves mean nothing.

But Volapük, though it failed, had its merits. It furnished the first experimental attempt to prove the possibility of establishing a practical written and spoken artificial language.

It may be said, of course, that the signal failure
of Volapük following its equally signal initial success,
has engendered in the public mind an unjust prejudice
against later, similar schemes like Esperanto and Ido.
But still, if difficult, faulty Volapük kindled enthusi-
asm and met with partial success; why should not an
artificial language, simpler, easier, and above all more
international in character be successful?

BOLAK, OR THE BLUE LANGUAGE

The Blue Language avoids the chief blunders of
Volapük; the system is ingenious and well thought out,
but withal the grammar is too system ridden, abstract,
and difficult.

The Blue Language was intended by its originator to
be used primarily in international commercial relations,
and as a commercial language it was to be the true
idiom of nations.   It takes its name from the blue of
the sky, where the azure canopy stretching over one

country merges with no discernible boundary with the
heavens above contiguous lands.   It has also been
called Bolak (<u>bol</u>, ingenuity, and <u>lak</u>, made with), and
a study of its grammar will prove that the last name is
not misapplied.

The author of Bolak has tried to make his language
concise, precise, clear, and rigid, and to insure this
he has followed the following rules:

1.   One letter, one sound.

2.   One word, one meaning.

3.   One class of words, one aspect.

4.   One phrase, one construction.

In addition to these specific rules is the general
rule that vocabulary must be subordinated to the gram-
mar, and the latter in turn to the theory of language.

Alphabet, Phonology, Stress.

Bolak lacks the Volapük vowels ä, ö, and ü; Volapük
x, z, and y are omitted since they may be substituted by
ks, ts, and i respectively; h' (<u>inverted</u> <u>h</u>) takes the
place of Volapük c; g and s are always pronounced hard.

There are no diphthongs; two adjoining vowels are pronounced separately; there are no marks to indicate accent, no cedilla, apostrophe, hyphen, etc.

All syllables are stressed alike; there is a short pause between words, a longer pause between phrases.

Vocabulary

All ideas are divided into two categories:

1. Vague ideas: i. e., ideas of subjection and relation are expressed by "motules", short words.

2. Precise ideas: complete and possessing signification in themselves, are expressed by "granmots", long words.

Each category is divided into four classes, arranged in order of the increasing precision and objectivity of the words.

First Category

Class I   Interjections

Class II   "Mot-cadres", expressing affirmation, negation, and general ideas of relation, resemblance, contrast, etc.

Class III Connectives: prepositions and conjunctions.

Class IV Designatives: relative, interrogative, ex-
           clamatory, indefinite, demonstrative, posses-
           sive, personal pronouns and adjectives.
           Second Category.

Class I   Names and numbers.

Class II   Verbs.

Class III Attributives, adjectives.

Class IV Modificatives, adverbs.

The length and form of the words indicate the
category and class to which they belong.

All words in the first category are "motules",
having three letters at the most, and if there are
three letters, the last must be a vowel.

All words in the second category are "granmots",
which have three letters at least, and if there are but
three letters, the last is a consonant to distinguish
the word from a three-letter "motule".

Classes are distinguished as follows:

1.   Interjections consist of single or repeated vowel.

2. "Mot-cadres" by two unlike vowels or of two or
three letters, of which the last, the only vowel,
is u.

3. Connectives by the presence of vowels i or o.

4. Designatives by the presence of vowels a or e.

5. Names and numbers are generally monosyllabic.
They begin and end with a consonant, but the final
consonant must be neither d nor h', these two being
reserved as distinguishing suffixes of adjectives
and adverbs respectively.

6. Verbs are distinguished by the tense signs a, o, e,
i, suffixed to a name or a number.

7. Attributives are formed by suffixing d to a verb
form.

8. Modificatives are formed by suffixing h' to a
verb form.

The declension of substantives is simpler than is
the case in Volapük, there being but two forms, the
singular and the plural.   Cases are shown by means of
the indefinite article, which precedes the noun and is
declined thus:

	Singular	Plural
Nom.	an	ade
Gen.	ad	ade
Dat.	al	ale

The plural of substantives is formed by adding -u:

"Feg ad reks" -- the daughter of a king.

"Fegu ade reksu" -- the daughters of kings.

There is no definite article. The demonstrative pronouns or the "mot-cadre" lu may be used instead.

The gender of nouns is natural, and the mode of forming the feminine from the masculine is analogous to that of Volapük: e. g., kval, horse; ukval, mare.

Besides there are about 30 nouns having distinct forms for the masculine and the feminine: e. g., per, mer, feg, father, mother, daughter, respectively.

Personal Pronouns.

The pronouns of Bolak are more a posteriori than is the case in Volapük.

	Singular	Plural
I	me	ne
you	te	pe
you (polite)	ve	ge
he	se	be
she	le	fe
it	h'e	de

The accusative is formed by changing the e of the
nominative to a; the dative is formed by prefixing a to
the accusative; the genitive by prefixing e to the same
form; the vocative is formed by reversing the letters
of the nominative: e. g., te (you) in the vocative
becomes et, etc.

The possessive pronouns form the singular by adding
-a: mea, tea, mine, thine, etc.   The plural, however,
is formed by the infixing of -a- : mae, tae, vae, etc.

The relative pronouns are characterized by the
letter r: r, singular; re, plural.

The interrogative and the exclamatory pronouns are
characterized by the letter k: ka (sing.), ke (plur.).

Conjugation.

Verbs are invariable as to person; the infinitive is used unchanged for all persons, singular and plural. The person is indicated by the preceding noun.

There are four tenses:

Eternal:	<u>lovi</u>	To love always
Present:	<u>lovo</u>	To love now
Past:	<u>love</u>	To have loved
Future:	<u>lova</u>	To have to love

The different modes are expressed by means of the unchanged infinitive, as follows:

a. Indicative: Infinitive and the personal pronoun in the nominative case.

b. Exclamatory: Infinitive and the personal pronoun in the vocative case.

c. Subjunctive: Infinitive and "mot-cadre" of subordination, <u>ku</u>.

d. Conditional: Expressed by Indicative present or future.

The four principal tenses give rise to four secondary tenses characterized by the prefix u-. This

gives a total of eight tenses, which are as follows for the indicative:

Eternal:	me lovi,	I love always
Imperfect:	me ulovi,	I was loving
Present:	me lovo,	I love now
Perfect:	me ulovo,	I have loved
Past Def.:	me love,	I loved
Pluperfect:	me ulove,	I had loved
Future:	me lova,	I shall love
Fut. Perf.:	me ulova,	I shall have loved

The passive voice is derived from the active by infixing -u- between the verb stem and the final vowel: e. g., me lovui, I am loved always (Eternal Pass. Ind.)

The participles are formed from the infinitives by adding -d to the sign of the adjective: e. g.,

lovid, the eternal active participle.

lovod, the present active participle.

Numbers

1, ven	4, far	7, h'ep	10, dis	20, dovis
2, dov	5, kel	8, lok	11, diven	80, lokis
3, ter	6, gab	9, nif	12, didov	

100, son or ven-son.   1000, mel.   1,000,000, mlon.

1,000,000,000, mlar.   0, nol.

Ordinals are formed by adding -em to the cardinals: dovem, second; dovemu, seconds.

Multiplicatives: ven-ip, dov-ip, ter-ip; once, twice, thrice.

Fractions: dov-om, one-half; far-om, one-fourth.

Collectives: didov-am, dozen; dovis-am, score.

Vocabulary

Each word conforms to the rules of structure for the different classes of words.   The following rules may be added to those already mentioned:

1. No word shall contain three consecutive consonants or vowels nor a double consonant.

2. No "granmot" shall include the vowel u nor two consecutive vowels.

3. No "motule" shall have the form vve or voc (v, vowel; c, consonant).

Besides this the author admits the use of 31 initial and 59 final consonant pairs, which are

phonetically possible.   Theoretically the number of
words that can be formed from the Bolak alphabet is
as follows:

Words of 1 letter	5
Words of 2 letters	151
Words of 3 letters	1051
Words of 4 letters	12420
Words of 5 letters	130512
TOTAL -----------------	144139

The entire dictionary of Bolak has thus been
worked out without the author's knowledge of a single
meaning which the word-forms were to express.

The possible number of "motule" combinations is 475.
The so-called vague ideas, expressed by "motules" number
about 400, and these 400 ideas have been arbitrarily as-
signed to 400 "motule" forms.

In the case of the "granmots" representing nouns,
(Class I of 2d Category), the author read the different
phonetic letter-groups aloud and assigned to each one
the meaning suggested by the phonetic resemblance to a
word of a European language.

Examples: bolv, boulevard; tlaf, telegraph; stit, Con-
stitution; flist, felicitation.

But even among the noun-"granmots" there are num-
erous arbitrary assignations of meaning: e. g., plin,
natural history; lalm, university; viul, chauvinism.
The last word in the Bolak dictionary, vovs, properly
enough, it seems, has been assigned the meaning
COMPLETION, closing, or end.

Proper names are considered as being outside of the
language: i. e., they retain their original orthography
as far as the Bolak alphabet will permit.   In the case
of geographical names, however, the author proposes
transcriptions conforming to the native pronunciation,
not to the native orthography: e. g., Pari for Paris.

Names of the days of the week and names of months
are based on the numerical sequence as is the case in
Volapük: ventag, Monday (one day); dovtag, Tuesday;
tertag, Wednesday.   venmes, January (one month);
dovmes, February; termes, March.

Derivation

Verbs are derived from substantives by suffixing the vowels a, e, i, o, which characterize the four principal tenses.   Such a derived verb may mean:

1.   To be in the state of: <u>fam</u>, hunger; <u>fami</u>,tohunger.

2.   To accomplish the action signified by the radical: <u>bet</u>, a wager; <u>beti</u>, to wager.

3.   To make use of object signified by the radical: <u>bilb</u>, cup-ball; bilbi, to play at cup-and-ball.

4.   The cry of an animal: <u>dog</u>, dog; <u>dogi</u>, to bark.

5.   To be in such a condition: <u>bon</u>, good; <u>boni</u>, to be good.

Other Derivations

All other derivations are accomplished by means of 25 absolute and 33 secondary affixes.

The absolute affixes include:

1.   The active and passive voice affixes

2.   The plural ending u

3.   The 6 terminations of numeral derivatives

4.   The past participial terminations: -ad, -ed,- id, -od.

5.   The modificatives: -ah', -eh', -ih', -oh': e. g.,
     lovah', lovingly; loveh', with love.

6.   The suffix -an: Pari-an, Parisian.

7.   The suffix -in: reks, king; reksin, queen.

The 33 secondary suffixes are used in forming
words when there are no original Bolak word-forms to
which the desired meaning may be assigned.   Some of
the more important are:

-as, augmentative: mesr, knife; mesras, cutlass.

-et, diminutive: mesret, a small knife.

-ort, place where a thing is made or sold: bir,
    beer; birort, brewery.

-il, tool or holder: tint, ink; tintil, inkwell.

-ig, the act of making or rendering: krant-ig-i,
    to enlarge, to cause to grow.

-ir, to become so and so: krantii, to become
    greater.

-enk, the beginning of an action: dormi, to sleep;
    dormenki, to fall asleep.

-osm, a material collection: bib, book; bibosm,
    library.

-ism, a system of ideas: <u>librism</u>, liberalism.

In addition to the above, there are 11 "mot-cadres" used as prefixes: e. g., <u>stu</u>, male; <u>stu</u>-<u>kval</u>, stallion. <u>plu</u>, plurality; <u>plu</u>-<u>gon</u>, polygon. <u>tu</u>, totality; <u>tu</u>-<u>slavism</u>, panslavism. <u>fku</u>, the opposite;of; <u>fkulov</u>, hate.

<center>::::::::::::::</center>

<center>CHAPTER III</center>

<center>A COMPARISON OF ESPERANTO AND IDO.</center>

<center>HISTORY OF THE MOVEMENT</center>

Esperanto and Ido, both characteristic a posteriori systems and parallel to each other, will now be considered. Esperanto is admitted, even by Leskien, to be "the best and most nearly successful" of all artificial languages; Ido is the result of a systematic attempt by scholars to improve upon the Esperanto system. Before attempting a comparison of the two rival languages, a brief history of the Esperanto movement may be in place.

The author of Esperanto, Lewis Lazarus Zamenhof, M. D., was born in Bielastok in the government of Gradno, Russian Poland, 1859. The idea of producing an artificial and neutral language was not kindled during a wakeful dream as is said to have been the case with Volapük, but it grew out of his surroundings so gradually that Zamenhof himself says that he does not know when it first took form in his mind.

In his native village four languages were spoken, Russian, Polish, German, and Yiddish, and four races mutually distrusted, hated, and persecuted each other in proportion to their abilities and opportunities for so doing. Zamenhof saw clearly that this deplorable race hatred was due, partly at least, to the differences of language and from an earnest humanitarian desire to remove one of the sources of racial prejudice there developed the plan for a neutral language.

Zamenhof at first considered removing one of the dead classic languages, but finding the grammar of either Latin or Greek too difficult and the task of

modernizing the vocabularies too Herculean in propor-
tion, he abandoned this plan and hung his hopes on the
a priori idea.   He planned to construct a language with
a simple grammatical system and word stems arbitrarily
derived from possible letter combinations, but he gave
up this project also because the resulting vocabulary
would offer too great a difficulty to the memory.   As
a third and last experiment he decided to expend his ef-
forts in constructing a language whose vocabulary
should be tentatively international and the grammar as
simple as possible.   While studying in the Warsaw Gym-
nasium he constructed an artificial language which was
actually used to some extent between himself and a num-
ber of his fellow students.   But when the Gymnasium
days were over, his fellow students scattered and their
promises of individual propaganda as well as the lan-
guage itself was forgotten.   Zamenhof, however, was
not discouraged.   From the Gymnasium he went to the
University, and for the next six years he never ceased
working with the language of his creation.   He

practiced translating into it, thinking in it, enriching
its vocabulary and improving and simplifying its gram-
mar. Finally, after six years of labor, he ventured to
publish (1887) a text on the new language. The author
of the text figured under the pseudonym Doktoro Esper-
anto, and from this pseudonym was derived the name of
the new language.

In constructing Esperanto the author has constantly
kept in mind these two principles:

1. Strive to attain the greatest possible interna-
   tionality in the matter of vocabulary.

2. All lexicological elements must be invariable:
   i. e., every element in a word compound must be a
   root with a definite meaning.

The last principle gives Esperanto the advantages of
both the agglutinative and inflexional languages.

The history of Esperanto from 1887 up to the
present is briefly as follows:

In 1888 Zamenhof left his language "on trial", for
he realized that the work of one man would at best be

imperfect. He considered himself the initiator of a new International Language, but was willing to step back and leave its development and improvement to the public or to any Academy that would undertake the task. The Esperanto propaganda proceeded slowly at first, probably because Volapük was still occupying the attention of those most likely to be interested. The first Esperanto club or society, the Espero, was organized in St. Petersburg in 1892. In Germany the Volapük club of Nürnberg was changed into an Esperanto society. The first leader of the German Esperanto movement was Leopold Einstein, who wrote an Esperanto manual and began publishing the first Esperanto periodical, La Esperantisto (1889). Henry Phillips, secretary of the American Philosophical Society, and M. R. Geoghegan, British consul at Tacoma, Wn., published the first Esperanto manuals in English. Similar manuals were written in Swedish, Polish, Lettish, Danish, Chechisch, Bulgarian, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Yiddish. Translations of classical works were made by prominent

Esperantists; Zamenhof translated Hamlet; Kofman, The
Iliad; Grabowski, The Snowstorm (by Pouchkin); etc.

But withal, Esperanto did not duplicate the imme-
diate success of the Volapük movement.   Financial dif-
ficulties retarded the propaganda.   An Esperanto
League, formed by Zamenhof (1890), served only as a
source of numerous more or less desirable reform pro-
posals.   In 1895 Russia forbade the circulation of La
Esperantisto because the periodical had published an
article on Tolstoy that flamed red before the eyes of
Russian aristocracy.   La Esperantisto was discontinued
as a matter of policy and replaced by La Lingua Inter-
nacia, published by the Esperanto Club of Upsala,
Sweden.   In France the spread of Esperanto did not
commence before 1896.   The leader of the movement was
Louis Beaufrent, a scholar of note, who had, previous
to the appearance of Esperanto, evolved a "Lingvo
Internaciona", which he called Adjuvanto.   Beaufront's
system shows a remarkable resemblance to Esperanto.
The author of Adjuvanto was ready, after twelve years'

labor, to publish an Adjuvanto lexicon, containing the
Adjuvanto equivalents of all the words of Gazier's
French Dictionary, but when Esperanto appeared, he re-
cognized that his language was inferior in many ways to
the former and promptly gave up his own project to ded-
icate all his time and influence to the Esperanto cause.
In Canada an Esperanto club was formed in Montreal.
This club commenced publishing the French Esperanto
periodical L'Esperantiste Canadien, which was changed
later into La Lumo.

In 1907 there were to be found Esperanto works and
manuals or textbooks in 22 languages, the sum total of
Esperanto publications amounting to about 150. The
number of Esperantists actually practising the language
was at the time estimated at 50,000.

The author of Esperanto was fully aware that his
language was not faultless and voluntarily proposed that
the numerous possible perfections be left either to the
public or to a competent Academy. The organization in
1890 of the Esperanto League and the avowed willingness

of Zamenhof to listen to proposed reforms brought forth
reformers more or less insistent and reform proposals
more or less desirable.   In 1893 Zamenhof, in response
to the reform clamor, suggested the following changes
of the Esperanto grammar and vocabulary:

I   Alphabetic and Phonological Changes

1.   Eliminate all accented letters.

2.   Eliminate the difficult sounds represent-
ed by $\hat{h}$, $\hat{j}$, $\hat{g}$, and $\hat{c}$.

3.   Let c (ts) be represented by z, $\hat{g}$ by s,
$\hat{c}$ by c.

4.   Replace -aj- by -e-, -ec- by -it-, -ig-
by -isk-, -uj- by -i-, -aŭ- by -av-.

II   Changes in Declension

1.   Elimination of the accusative case.

2.   Forming the plural by suffixing -i
instead of -oj.

III   Changes in Conjugation

The tense endings were to be changed to:

Inf., -a; Pres. -en; Pret. -in; Fut. -on;
Conditional -un; Imperf. -an.

IV   Syntactical Changes

    1.   Placing of the subject before the verb.

    2.   Placing of the object after the verb.

    3.   Placing the adjective in obvious con-
        junction with the noun modified by it.

V   The personal pronouns were to be: mu, I;
tu, you; lu, he; elu, she; lo, it; nu, we;
vu, you; loru, they.

VI   Among the proposed changes of particles may
be mentioned the following:

    kaj to be changed to e

    jes to be changed to si

    for to be changed to ab

    en to be changed to in

    kun to be changed to kum

    pri to be changed to de

    ol to be changed to kvam

VII   Changes in Vocabulary

    To insure a more homogeneous vocabulary
Zamehof proposed substituting Latin or Romance

stems for numerous stems of Germanic and Slavonic
origin, thus:

pekt-	for	brust-
obliv-	for	forges-
kalor-	for	varn-
vol-	for	flug-
frekvent-	for	oft-
pedokorn-	for	huf-

Many Romance roots were to be replaced by Latin
equivalents; i. e., brought back to their original
form, thus:

benedik-	for	ben-
ram-	for	branĉ-
domink-	for	dimanĉ-
kognosk-	for	kon-
lakrim-	for	larm-
karn-	for	viand-

VIII   Miscellaneous Changes

1.   Eliminate the definite article (unknown to
Slavs).

2.   Eliminate the linking preposition je.

3. Replace edz- by epos (It.).

4. And last but not least, replace the table of correlative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs by a posteriori Latin or Romance equivalents.

Esperanto with the enumerated proposed changes has been called Reform Esperanto. The latter has all the aspects of a neo-Latin tongue, but it retains the word structure of Primitive Esperanto and the latter's system of word formation, but it shows the grammatical and alphabetic simplicity of L'Idiom Neutral; the latter language is in fact based on Reform Esperanto.

Reform Esperanto is more a posteriori as to particles, and more a priori as to conjugation. This mixture of improvement and deterioration caused its failure for it was voted in 1894 to keep the then extant form of Esperanto unchanged.

Present day Esperanto is Primitive Esperanto with a few changes; e. g., the changing of ian, kian, tian, ĉian, nenian, into iam, kiam, tiam, etc.

The Reform Esperantists, however, did not give up the hope of effecting a reform of Zamehof's language. Many linguists and philologists who were in favor of an artificial international language did not concede that Esperanto was what an artificial international language should be, altho they considered it a great and praise-worthy philological experiment. The blind, unreason-ing adherence of the "Fundamentalists" (opponents of Reform Esperanto) to the original form of the language as well as the procedure and plans of the Esperanto Con-gresses convinced many clear thinking men that Zamen-hof's idiom would prove an ultimate failure.

As a result of this dissatisfaction a movement for producing an artificial language along the lines of Esperanto was set a foot, and a "delegation for the adoption of an auxilliary international language" was provided for. The delegation, composed of represen-tative linguists and philologists from England, Germany, Italy, Scandinavia, and the Slavic countries met in Collège de France, Paris, in 1907. During the meeting

a number of authors of artificial languages, who had
been previously invited to do so, presented their sys-
tems or their views to the delegates. A standing com-
mittee of Couturat, Beaufront, Jesperson, Ostwald, and
others, was intrusted with the elaboration of the new
international language along lines specified by the
delegation.

The result of the committee's labors might have
been called Reform Esperanto, being based on Primitive
Esperanto and including many of the reforms proposed by
Zamenhof in 1893. Indeed there seems to have been a
desire to call the new idiom by some term like New Es-
peranto or Reform Esperanto, but the "Fundamentalists"
objected strenuously and the new language was left for
a while without a definite name. It was later suggest-
ed that the initial letters and final ending -o of
"Internacia lingvo di la delegitaro" be used in forming
a name for the "language of the delegation". These
letters permit the formation of the words: Ildo, Ile,
and Lido. None of these forms have been formally

adopted, however, but in a project submitted to the del-
egation in 1907 is found the phrase: "grammaire complète
de la langue internacionale par Ido", and from this
phrase the present name of the new,proposed interna-
tional language has been derived.
(1)
The supporters of Ido   claim that its superiority
over Esperanto is so obvious as to be noticeable at a
glance, and the rate by which the new idiom has gained
ground gives foundation to the claim.   Even as early as
October, 1907, 310 organizations representing trades
unions, scientific societies, etc. and 1250 Professors
representing in all 189 universities had signified their
intention to support the new language.   At present more
than 250 societies outside of those in the United
States have joined the delegation.   Progresso the of-
ficial organ of Ido, is a monthly journal ppublished
entirely in the new idiom.   Unlike the Amerika Esperan-
tiste it daiedited entirely in Ido.

(1): The official name is Linguo Internaciona.

COMPARISON OF THE TWO LANGUAGES, ESPERANTO AND IDO

In the following pages Esperanto and Ido will be compared in detail with the end in view of showing the respective points of superiority of each, and also to determine, if possible, which of the two, all things considered, is the best prospective International Secondary Language.

I   Alphabet

1.   Esperanto and Ido have the vowels a, e, i, and u pronounced alike.   Esperanto o is pronounced close as in "so", while in Ido o is open as in "sought".

2.   b, c, d, f, g, h, k, l, m, n, p, s, t, v, and z have the same phonetic value in both languages: i. e., as in English.

Exceptions:

Esperanto	Ido
j (as y in yes)	j (like Eng. j)
r (English)	r (trilled)

ĉ is represented by ch

ŝ is represented by sh.

Esperanto ĝ, ĥ, and ĵ, are not found in Ido.

Ido w, x, y, are not found in Esperanto.

Esperanto ŭ (after a and e) is replaced in Ido
by u.

4. Ido has the Esperanto diphthongs aŭ, eŭ, but
avoids aj, oj, ej, and uj.

It will thus be seen that Ido avoids the accented
forms: ĉ, ĝ, ĵ, ŝ, ĥ, and ŭ for the stated reasons that
accented letters shock the eye and besides render the
writing and printing of the language more difficult.
ĝ and ĵ may have been omitted as a concession to the
German speaking peoples, since these sounds do not occur
in German. w has been added to the Ido alphabet be-
cause it is a common sound in English. The interna-
tional x has been retained because it is a convenient
abbreviation for the ks and gz combinations and besides
it saves the trouble of deciding whether to use ks or gz.

Esperanto kv is replaced by qu in Ido. The reason
for this particular change is given by Jesperson, who

says that k is an awkward letter to write.

II   Accent: In Esperanto every word carries the
            stress on the penult.   The same rule is fol-
            lowed in Ido with two exceptions:

1.   The present, past, and future infinitives are
     accented on the last syllable.

2.   y is always considered a consonant and is
     never stresses: e. g., <u>filyo</u> is pronounced
     <u>filjo</u>, accent on <u>fil</u>.

III   Declension:

            Nouns

	Esperanto	Ido
Nom. Sing.	frato	frato
Acc. Sing.	fraton	frato
Nom. Plur.	fratoj	frati
Acc. Plur.	fratojn	frati

Feminine formed by adding -in- to stem.

Esperanto adjectives declined like noun; Ido
adjectives commonly indeclinable.

	Esperanto	Ido
Nom. Sing.	bona fratino	bona fratino
Acc. Sing.	bonan fratinon	bona fratino
Nom. Plur.	bonaj fratinoj	bona fratini
Acc. Plur.	bonajn fratinojn	bona fratini

Exception: The Ido adjectives take the plural ending -i when used as nouns: e. g., La blanki e la nigri, The white and the black.

The accusative case form has been avoided in Ido because the accusative form is partly lacking in German and entirely in English and French.

The form of the Ido adjective used adjectively is invariable as in English.

Ido retains the Italian and Spanish noun ending -o but substitutes the Esperanto plural ending -oj by the Italian and Russian -i.

Esperanto and Ido adverbs end in -e.

IV   Personal Pronouns

Esperanto	Nom.	Acc. (Sing.).	Ido	Nom.	Acc.
I	mi	min		me	me

you	vi	vin	tu (familiar)
			vu (polita)
he	li	lin	il (ili if necessary)
she	ŝi	ŝin	el (eli if necessary)
it	ĝi	ĝin	ol (oli if necessary)

Plural

we	ni	nin	ni
you	vi	vin	vi
they	ili	ilin	li
one ⎞ ⎟ people ⎠	oni	onin	on
reflexive	si	sin	su

V   Possessive Pronouns

Esperanto			Ido
	Nom.	Acc.	Nom. and Acc.
mine	mia	mian	mea
thine	via	vian	tua
yours	via	vian	vua
his	lia	lian	sa
hers	ŝia	ŝian	sa

its	ĝia ĝian	sa
ours	nia nian	nia
yours (pl.)	via vian	via
theirs	ilia ilian	lia

In addition, Ido has <u>sua</u>, meaning: his own, its own, their. When <u>sa</u> becomes ambiguous, use:

ilsa, his   ilia, theirs (masc.)

elsa, hers   elia, theirs (fem.)

olsa, its   olia, theirs (Neut.)

VI   Verbs: Esperanto and Ido verbs are invariable in person and number, but take distinctive tense endings.

	Esperanto	Ido
Pres.	skribas	skribas
Past.	skribis	skribis
Fut.	skribos	skribos
Cond.	skribus	skribus
Imperative	skribu	skribez

Participles

	Esperanto	Ido
Active		
Pres.	skribanta	skribanta
Past	skribinta	skribinta
Fut.	skribonta	skribonta
Passive		
Pres.	skribata	skribata
Past	skribita	skribita
Fut.	skribota	skribota

Infinitives

Pres.	skribi	skribar, to write
Past	(none)	skribir, to have written).
Fut.	(none)	skribor, to write-- future)

VII   Affixes

1. Prefixes	Esper'to	Ido
Opposite of any idea	mal-	mal-
Relationship by marriage	bo-	bo-
Separation, dissemination	dis- (2)	(1)
A married person	edz	----

(2): Derived from Kronprinzessin;
     See "Progresso", February, 1914.

	Esperanto	Ido
Beginning of an action	ek-	-esk (suf.)
Persons of both sexes taken) together)	ge-	ge-
Again, back	re-	re-
Former, late	eks-	ex-
Wrongly, miskomprenar	---	mis-
Half, miharo	---	mi-
Fore, predikar	(1)	pre-
Back, retrosendar	(1)	retro-
Negation, neutila	ne-	ne-
Devoid of, senviva	sen-	sen-

Note (1) -- Pre- and retro- are found in Esperanto word compounds but are not employed as regular prefixes in word formations. The same is true regarding dis- in Ido.

2. Suffixes	Esperanto	Ido
Feminine suffix	-in	-in
Instrument	-il	-il
Continuation of action	-ad	-ad
Something made from	-aĵ	-aj
Member, inhabitant	-an	-an
Collection of things	-ar	-ar
Affectionate dimin.masc.	-ĉj	---

Affectionate dimin. fem.	-nj	---
Possibility	-ebl	-ebl
Abstract quality	-ec	-es
Augmentative	-eg	-eg
Place of action	-ej (1)	-ey
Beginning of an action	ek-	-esk
Propensity, disposition	-em	-em
One of a collection	-er	---
Chief, leader, ruler	-estr	-estr
Diminutive suffix	-et	-et
Descendant, young of	-id	-id
Cause to be (trans.)	-ig	-ig
To turn into (intrans.)	-iĝ	-iĝ
Worthiness	-ind	-ind
A holder	-ing	---
One of a given occupation	-ist	-ist
That which bears (receptacle)	-uj	-uy
Remarkable for (characterized by)	-ul	-ul
That which bears a fruit	(-uj)	-yer
System, doctrine	---	-ism
Amateur	---	-er

(1): Ek- is an Esperanto prefix.

Result of action	---	-ur
Reäating to	---	-al
Full of	~~iii~~	-oz
Like (English -ish)	--- (1)	-atr
That can do (what verb implies)	iv	-iv
That which must be	---	-end
To supply or cover	---	-iz
To produce	---	-if
Pejorative	---	-ach (2)
Indefinite suffix	---	-um

Note (1): Found in Esperanto but not as a regular suffix.

Note (2): Used to prevent ambiguity: e. g., mondumo, the social world; mondo, the world.

VIII   Esperanto Correlative Pronouns, Adjectives, Adverbs, Conjunctive Adverbs, and Ido Equivalents.

	Esperanto	Ido
Therefore	tial	do
Sometime, any time, ever	iam	kelkafoye irgatempe irg-ube

Always, for all time	ĉiam	sempre
When, at what time	kiam	kande
Never	nemiam	nul-tempe
Then, at that time	tiam	lor
Somewhere, anywhere	ie	kelka-loke
Everywhere	ĉie	omna-loke
Where, in what place	kie	ube
Nowhere	nenie	ne-ube
There, in that place	tie	ibe
Somehow, some way, anyhow	iel	irga-maniere
Every way, all ways	ĉiel	omna-maniere
How, in what manner	kiel	quale
No manner, nohow	neniel	ne-maniere
Thus, like that, so	tiel	ta-maniere
Something, anything	io	kelko, irgo
Everything, all things	ĉio	omno
What (thing)	kio	quo
Nothing	nenio	nulo
That (thing)	tio	ito, to
Somewhat, some quantity	iom	kelka

All of it, the whole	ĉiom	la tuto
How much, how many	kiom	quante
None at all, none	neniom	nulo
So much, as many	tiom	tam
Someone, anyone	iu	kelku, irgu
Each one, all every one	ĉiu	omnu
Who, which, that (rel.)	kiu	qua (qui, pl.) quo (what, rel.)
Nobody, no one	neniu	nulu
That one, the former	tiu	ita, ta

IX   Comparison of Adjectives

Esperanto	Ido	English
tiel...kiel	tam...kam	as...as
pli...ol	plu...kam	more...than
malpli...ol	min...kam	less...than
la plej...el	max...de	the most...of
la malplej...el	minime...de	least...of
tre...	tre...	very (superlative) (absolute)

X   Miscellaneous Differences

	Esperanto	Ido
Definite article (invariable)	la	la
Responsives yes, and no	jes, ne	yes, no
Interrogative particle	ĉu	kad

XI   Vocabulary

1. The rule of accenting the penult, common to both languages sometimes displaces what may be called an international accent of an international Latin derivative. Wherever possible Ido, through syncopation, retains the international accent:

Esperanto	Ido
artikulo	artiklo
cirkelo	cirklo
animo	anmo
partikulo	partiklo

2. In Ido an attempt has been made to avoid ambiguity of meaning caused by a too close resemblance in spelling:

Esperanto   Ido

Esperanto	Ido	English
astrologio	astrologio	astrology
astrologo	astrologisto	astrologer
aŭtokrato	autokrato	autocrat
aŭtokratio	autokrateso	autocracy
baterio	baterio	military
baterio	batrio	electrical
krabo	krabo	crab
krabro	horniso	hornet
kilo	kilyo	keel of boat
kilo-	kilo-	abbreviation of kilogram.

3. The elaborators of Ido have taken special care to spell the words in a manner that leaves the etymology of the word as obvious as possible. This rule has been applied to words derived apparently directly from the Latin: e. g.,

Esperanto	Ido
ajlo	alyo
apostazo	apostato
infanß	infanto
infero	inferno
limo	limito
legomo	legumo
parenco	parento
humo	humuso

4-a. Some words which Esperanto evidently derives directly from French or English, Ido derives directly from the Latin, presumably on the theory that a Latin stem of international distribution is more likely to be generally understood than a Romance or Anglicized Latin stem: e. g.,

Esperanto	Ido
diri	dicar
distri	distraktar
elspiri	ekspiracar
elĵeti	ejekbaⱦ
fari	facar
fojno	feno
piedo	pedo
ĉeno	kateno
agordi	akordar

4-b. But the rule of preserving the stem identity does not apply to the Latin and Romance derivatives only, as the following examples will show:

Esperanto	Ido
bubalo	bufalo
faruno	farino
feso	fezo
opio	opiumo
palto	paltato

5.   People of the various nationalities experience little difficulty in pronouncing series of alternate vowels and consonants or combinations like: tr, sp, bl, etc.; but heavy consonant groups of three or more letters are difficult for many races.

In Ido difficult consonant groups are consistently avoided: e. g.,

Esperanto	Ido
akcidento	acidento
sceptro	ceptro
abscesso	abceso
eksciti	ecitar

6-a. Many Esperanto terms of local or Slavic significance do not appear in the Ido vocabulary:

Esperanto	English
engraŭlo	northern anchovy
hubo	hide of land
imperialo	roof, outside of vehicle
junkro	an aristocrat
patĉulo	patchouli
pilko	ball for playing
barĉo	Russian beet-root soup
hetman	Cossack commander
klafto	Russian measure
knuto	knout
kaftano	kaftan
parao	Servian coin

6-b. On the other hand Ido contains numerous words not given in Esperanto, but these are almost invariably of a technical or scientific nature: e. g.,

Ido	English
astrolabo	astrolabe
benzoo	benzoin
ciboryo	ciborium
cikloido	cycloid
cinematiko	kinematico
cenocefala	cynocephalus
diatonika	diatonic
diatribo	diatribe
dinamo	dynamo
edro	face of a geometric solid
ekino	sea urchin
doplando	hinterland
endemio	endemic disease
equiseto	horsetail (equisetum)
fenolo	phenol, carbolic acid
feto	foetus
gay-ako	lignum vitae
herpeto	herpes
hibrido	hybrid
kolorito	tinting of lithographic (work
kromatipo	chromotype
kremacar	to cremate
litotomio	lithotomy
lobo	lobe (anatomical)
myelo	spinal chord
naftalina	naphthaline
nevrozo	neurosis
panaceo	panacea
pankreata	pancreatic
parturar	to bear a child
pedunklo	peduncle (botany)
piloro	pylorus
placenta	placenta
piretro	pyretrum

7.   Altho Ido includes a larger number of affixes
than Esperanto and would, therefore, be expected to
have a greater power for forming compounds, a com-
parison of the two vocabularies reveals the fact
that Esperanto uses its fewer affixes to a much
greater extent than does Ido.

Esperanto	Ido
flugilo	alo
similigi	asimilar
probatalanto	championo
fajrero	cintilo
prikonsiligi	deliberar
kontraŭstari	defiar
foriri	departar
malrektiĝi	deviacar
plilarĝiĝi	dilatar
manĝegi	divorar
altigi	elevar
circaŭpreni	embracar
mallumiĝi	eklipsar
malliberigi	enkarkerigar
forkuri	eskapar
formovi	eskartar
malpuraĝo	fango (mud, dirt)
lumturo	faro
bateleto	fialo
batelego	flakono
elfosataĵo	fasilo
haltigilo	freno
ŝtonĵetilo	frondo
tuŝeti	frolar (graze, touch)
ŝraŭbego	helico
harego	heriso

malamegi	horarar
vivega	impetua
petigi	implorar
alkalkuli	imputar
ekflamigi	incendiar
elpensi	injeniar (invent)
dorseeskribi	endosar
enhavi	inkluzar
proponeti	insinuar
kunligi	koherar
ŝarĝlevilo	krano
almortigi	masakrar

8.   Judging by appearance, the Ido vocabulary is
more exclusively Romance than that of Esperanto.
This is partly because Ido very often (as shown by
the foregoing list of c ompounds) uses a word taken
directly from the Latin or Romance when Esperanto
employs a semi-a priori compound, and such Esper-
anto compounds, although generally containing
Romance elements, do not give the first view im-
pression of being of a Romance origin.   The main
cause, however, of the preponderance of the Romance
element in Ido is the direct replacement of Ger-
manic-Esperanto terms by Romance terms: e. g.,

Esperanto	Ido
brusto	pektaro
ŝtuparo	eskalero
surstriki	efacar
fajli	limar (to file)
fadeno	filo
ŝajnigi	fingar (feign)
forgesi	oblivyar
ofta	frequa
flugi	flugar
ŝteli	furtar
kelnero	garsono
glimo	mikao
vinbero	grapo
ĥajli	grelar
haŭto	pelo
hejmo	domo
juki	pruritar
kombi	pektar
grafo	komto
ŝafo	mutono
ŝipo	navo
ŝtonetaĵo	aablego
daŭri	durigar

CONCLUSIONS

In general we would say that the weight of evidence
favors the Ido. The elimination of diacritical marks
is an undisputable advantage to the language. Whatever
else may be said in favor of Esperanto, it must be ad-
mitted that its orthographic system is not interna-
tional; letters like ĵ, ŝ, and ŭ are not found in the
type cases of the world's newspapers nor in the inter-
national telegraphic code. The Esperanto propaganda
met with encouraging results but there is reason to be-
lieve that the spreading of the new idiom would have
been greatly facilitated if the form of its letters had
permitted any printing office to have printed at will
excerpts from Esperanto books and periodicals and there-
by acquainted the public with the realities and merits
of the language. The use of the spellings qu for kv
and x for ks is likewise in harmony with the prevailing
systems of modern languages.

Other changes like the adoption of the three pro-
nominal forms tu, vu, and vi where Esperanto has vi
only, the introduction of the past and future infini-
tives and of the infinitive endings -ar, -ir, and -or,
the placing of the accent on the last syllable in the
case of infinitives, etc. are all more or less commend-
able.   The change of the infinitive ending -i into -ar,
or -ir, or -or and at the same time shifting the accent
of the infinitive from the penult to the ultima, seem to
mark a further step toward the Romance languages, but
the change was presumable made to avoid confusion of the
infinitive with the plural of nouns.   The indeclinable
Ido adjective and the lack of an accusative case form
of nouns brings the language nearer to the great modern
languages, French and English, and can only be classed
as an improvement.

The instances mentioned of preserving the stem
identity and the international accent of the stem, elim-
ination of words of no international significance, and
guarding against homonyms, do not by themselves create

a very noticeable difference between the Esperanto and
Ido vocabularies, but it cannot be gainsaid that the
changes are well worth the making.

The fact that Ido possesses a wealth of technical
and scientific terms not yet found in Esperanto, and
which at first glance furnishes a conspicuous and strong
argument for the superiority of Ido, is of a minor im-
portance. What Esperanto apparently lacks in vocabu-
lary she might get and will get as soon as leading
Esperantists have their attention called to that defect.

It has been shown by a list of examples that Esper-
anto contains by far the greater number of original com-
pounds. Some of these compounds are descriptive and
self-explanatory: e. g., ŝtonjetilo and circaŭpreni
(Ido: frondo and embracar); others like malrektiĝi and
malliberigi (Ido: deviacar and enkarkerigar) may be con-
sidered somewhat a priori as compounds; and still others
like malpurajo and elfosatajo (Ido: fango -- mud -- and
fosilo -- fossil) are by no means self explaining, and
it may be argued that the Ido equivalents of these com-
pounds are less arbitrary as to construction, more

concise and more euphonious. Yet the Esperanto readiness to form compounds, altho indiscriminate in application at times, and often startling in results, is not at all condemnable. The fact that some of these compounds like manĝegi, to devour, and harego, a bristle, have no parallels in modern languages, is no good reason for excluding them from an artificial international language. Their presence lends a characteristic aspect to the language which ought to refute somewhat the claim that "Esperanto is a lifeless and artificial syllable series."

The Ido tendency toward replacing Germanic-Esperanto words by words of Latin or Romance origin is not altogether commendable. In some cases the change may be justified on the plea of gaining a more nearly international term. Esperanto fadeno is familiar to Germans alone whereas the stem of the Ido equivalent filo is conspicuous in French and English and is found in the German and Scandinavian in the loan word Filet. In cases like Esperanto kelnero, Ido, garsono, there is,

however, no gain of internationality, and when ŝteli is
replaced by furtar there is a distinct loss.   Ido could
well afford to keep most of the Germanic stems which
have been replaced by Latin or Romance equivalents.   A
hundred words or so of Germanic extraction would impose
no great hardship upon Romance learners of the new
language, whilst their Teutonic brethren would heartily
welcome words like ofte, hejmo, ŝajnigi, fargesi, etc.,
as imparting a familiar appearance to the new system.
The demand for neutrality is not to be treated too
lightly, and the claim that Ido generally chooses the
word-stem of the greatest international distribution is
not always well founded.

It is maintained by supporters of Ido that their
language is easier to pronounce and, on the whole, more
euphonious.   In proof of this assertion Jespersen com-
pares the Esperanto, "Ŝi envolvis sin en ŝiajn densajn,
longajn harojn" with the Ido: "El envolvis su en sa
densa, longa hari."   The Ido version is undeniably the
better groomed of the two, and besides it is pronounce-
able with less expenditure of energy.   However, the

question of relative euphony is hard to decide; individ-
ual and racial prejudices and tastes play too great a
part in judging the same. We herewith submit an ex-
tract from the Ido reader, 'Unesma Lektolibro', together
with an Esperanto version of the same and leave it to
the reader to form his or her judgment as to which of
the two is superior in appearance and sound:

(Ido)   La dineo en la korto.

On plendas multe pri to: quante konsentar kun ula
homi esas malfacila e neposibla. To povas ya anke esar
vera. Tamen multi de ta homi ne esas malbona; li nur
esas stranja, e se on savus bone procedar kun li, multi
povus ya facile divenar plu saja.

To sucesis bone ad ula servisto kun sa mastro.
Segun ilca, freque il povis facar nulo bone, e devis ex-
piacar multo, pri quo il esis senkulpa. Ul dio, la si-
oro tre malbonhumora venis ad hemo, e sideskis por dine-
ar; lor la supe esis sive tro varma, sive tro malvarma,
o nek l'uno nek l'altro; sed sate: la sioro esis malhon-
humora. Il prenis do la pladi kun to quo esis en oli,

ed jetis ili tra la apertita fenestro, en la korto
ad-infre.

(Esperanto)   La meztagmanĝo en la korto.

Oni plendas multe pri tiu: kiom konsenti kiam iuj
homoj estas malbonaj kaj obstinaj.   Tiu povas ja ankaŭ
esti vera..   Tamen, multaj homoj ne estas malbonaj ili
nur estas strangaj, kaj se oni scius bone kiel procedi
kun ili, multaj povus ja facile fariĝi pli sagaj.

Tiu sukcesis boni al una servisto kun lia maestro.
Laŭ tiu, li povis plejofte fari nenion bone, kaj devis
elpagi multon pri kiu li estis senkulpa.   Fojâ la
sinjoro tremalbonhumora revenis hejmen kaj sidiĝis por
meztagmanĝi.   Tiam la supo estis aŭ tro varma aŭ tro
malvarma aŭ nek l'uno nek l'alio; sed sufice: la sinjoro
estis malbonhumora.   Li prenis la pladojn kun ĉio kiu
estis en ili kaj ĵetis ilin tra la malfermitan fenestro
en la korto malsupre.

Ido has effected its greatest reform in dropping
the Esperanto list of a priori correlatives and putting
Latin or Romance equivalents in their place.   This

table of correlative pronouns, adjectives and adverbs
included the one difficult part of the Esperanto gram-
mar.   It would seem very easy to remember, for instance,
that _iam_ means somewhere and _iel_ means somehow, and that
the prefixes _ĉ_, _k_, _ne_, and _t_ convey collective, inter-
rogative, negative, and demonstrative meanings respec-
tively; and it is really possible to commit the entire
table to memory in fifteen minutes -- for the time
being -- but to retain it in the memory is quite another
matter.   Looking at the words in the table it seems
perfectly obvious that _ĉio_ means all things, _ĉiom_
means all of it, and _kiom_, how much; but meeting the
same words in a text there generally appears to be no
reason why _ĉiom_ should not signify how much and _kiom_,
all of it.   The Ido equivalents of ĉio, ĉiom, and kiom,
viz., _omno_, _la tuto_, and _quante_, are certainly to be
preferred.

All things considered, Ido must be considered the
better medium for an International Language, altho it is
only fair to admit that Esperanto possesses some points

of superiority, or, at any rate, features which are com-
mendable even when compared with Ido improvements.　　On
the whole, Ido is just as simple grammatically, easier
to write, easier to pronounce, it includes fewer a pri-
ori features, and is above all easier for a beginner to
understand.　　I found this to be the case in my personal
experience.　　I tried to read the first selection I had
ever seen in Ido after having been acquainted with
Esperanto for three months or more, and I found, to my
surprise, that Ido was the easier to translate at sight.
Of course some knowledge of Latin and French is neces-
sary in order to read Ido without an intermittent　re-
course to the lexicon, but the same would be true in the
case of Esperanto.　　A person having a knowledge of Ger-
manic languages only would find Ido and Esperanto equally
difficult for offhand translation.　　The sight of a few
more familiar looking words in Esperanto than in Ido
would be cheering, and satisfying to national sentiments
but otherwise of little immediate help.　　Taking Jesper-
sen's definition of what is the best international

language as a criterion, it may well be said that Ido
is the best and most nearly perfect Artificial Interna-
tional Language hitherto proposed.

SYSTEMS A PRIORI

. Name	. Date	. Author	. Na-tion	.Grammatical Features	.Vocabulary
1 Descartes' system	1629	Descartes	Fœ'ch		Logical classification of ideas
2 Dalgarno's	1661	Dalgarno	Sc'ch		"
3 Wilkins'	1668	Wilkins	Engl ·		"
4 Leibniz' proposal		Leibniz	Germ	Analytic	"
5 Delormel's system	1795	Delormel	Fr'ch		"
6 Solresol	1817	Sudre	Fr'ch	Isolating type	.
7 Grosselin's system	1836	Grosselin	Fr'ch		Pasigraphic
8 Langue Universelle	1844	Vidal	Fr'ch	Analytic	Logical c. of id.
9 Letellier's s'm	1852	Letellier	Fr'ch		"
10 Ochando's system	1852	Ochando	Spœsh		"

11	Lingualu-mina	1875	Dyer	Engl	Agglutin-ative	Logical c. of ideas
12	La Langue Interna-tionale Etymologi-que	1875	Reimann			"
13	La Langue Naturelle	1887	Maldant	Fr'ch	Analytic	"
14	Spokil	1900	Nicolas	Fr'ch	Agglutin-ative	"
15	Zahlen-sprache	1901	Hilbe	Germ	Analytic	"
16	Völkerver-kehr-sprache	1902	Dietrich	Germ	Analytic	"
17	Blaia Zi-mondal	1884	Meriggi	It'ln		Ideas ex-pressed by letters
18	Perio	1904	Tälund-berg (pseud)	Germ	Synthetic	Romance

MIXED SYSTEMS

	Name	Year	Author	Language	Type	Origin
1	Volapük	1880	Schleyer	German	Synthetic	Germanic
2	Nal Bino	1886	Verheggen	Belg'n		
3	Langue Universelle	1886	Menet	French	Synthetic	Germanic
4	Bopal	1887	St. de Max	French	Synthetic	Arbitrary
5	Spelin	1888	Bauer	German	Analytic	English
6	Dil	1893	Fieweger	German	Synthetic	German
7	Balta	1893	Dormay	French	Analytic	Romance
8	Orba	1893	Guardiola	Ital'n	Synthetic	Arbitrary
9	Velt-parl	1896	von Arnim	German	Synthetic	
10	Dilpok	1898	Marchand	French		Latin-English
11	Bolak	1899	Bollack	French	Analytic and Synthetic	Arbitrary
12	Tal	1903	Hoesrich	German	"	Romance
13	Intern. Gram.	1905	Hely	French	Analytic	Latin
14	Pankel	1906	Wald	German	Analytic	

SYSTEMS A POSTERIORI

	Name	Date	Author	Nation	Grammatical Features	Vocabulary
1	Carpophor-ophilus	1734	Unknown	Ger(?)		Latin
2	Lang. Nou-velle	1765	Faiguet	French	Analytic	Romance
3	Communica-tions-sprache	1839	Schipfer	German	Synthetic	Romance & Germanic
4	Pantos-dimou-glassa	1858	Rudelle	French	Synthetic	Greek-Romance
5	Universal-sprache	1868	Pirro	French	Synthetic	Latin
6	Welt-sprache	1883	Volk & Fuchs	German	Synthetic	Latin
7	Langue Interna-tional	1885	Cour-tonne	French	Synthetic	English-Romance
8	Pasilin-gua	1885	Steiner	German	Anal.-Synth.	English
9	Welt-sprache	1887	Eichorn	German	Anal.-Synth.	Latin
10	Lingua Franca Nuova	1888	Bernhard	Austr.	Ital. Gram.	Italian
11	Kosmos	1888	Lauda	German	An. Syn.	Latin

No.	Name	Year	Author	Nationality	Type	Basis
12	Lingua	1888	Henderson	Engl.	Analytic	Latin
13	Latinesce	1901	Henderson	Engl.	Analytic	Latin
14	Anglo-Franca	1889	Henderson	Engl.	Analytic	Engl.-Fr'ch
15	Myrana	1889	Stempfl	German	An. Syn.	Rom-Ger.
16	Communia	1894	Stempfl	German	An. Syn.	
17	Mundolineo	1894	Braakman			
18	Nov Latin	1890	Rosa	Ital'n	Analytic	Latin
19	Mundolingue	1890	Lott	Austr.	Analytic	Latin-Romance
20	Langue Catholique	1890	Liptay	Chil'n	No Gram.	Intern'l.
21	Esperanto	1887	Zamenhof	Pole	Analytic	Romance-Germanic
22	Anti-Volapük	1893	Mill	German	(Proposed Int. Gram)	
23	Universala	1893	Heintzeler	German	Analytic	Latin
24	Novelatiin	1895	Beermann	German	Analytic	Latin
25	Nuove-Roman	1897	Puchner		Syn. An.	Latin
26	Lingua komun	1900	Kürschner	Swiss	Analytic	Latin-Romance
27	Tutonish	1902	Molee	Norw.	Analytic	Scn-Eng.

28	Panroman	1903	Molenaar	German	Analytic	Romance
29	Latino sine flexione	1903	Peano	Ital'n	Analytic	Latin
30	Mundelingva	1904	Hummler		An. Syn.	Latin
31	Lingua internacional	1905	Zakrzewski	Russôn	An. Syn.	Latin
32	Mondlingvo	1906	Trischen	German	An. Syn.	Latin
33	Ekselsiora dt Ulla	1906	Greenwood	Engl;	Analytic	Romance-Germanic
34	Parla	1907	Spitzer	German	An. Syn.	Rom-Ger.
35	Novilatin	1907	Beermann	German	Analytic	Latin
36	Linguum Iɓlianum	1901	Isly	French	Synthetic	Latin
37	Reform Latein	1902	Frölich	Aust'n	An. Syn.	Latin
38	Idiom Neutral	1902	Proposed by an intr'l Academy		Analytic	Romance
39	Ido	1907	Delegation Intern'l ꭶ		Analytic	Romance