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THE FUTURE OF ENGLISH

By H. L. MENCKEN

The English tongue is of small reach, stretching no further than this island of ours, nay not there over all.

This was written in 1582. The writer was Richard Mulcaster, headmaster of the Merchant Taylors' School, teacher of prosody to Edmund Spenser, and one of the earliest of English grammarians. At the time he wrote, English was spoken by between four and five millions of people, and stood fifth among the European languages, with French, German, Italian, and Spanish ahead of it in that order, and Russian following. Two hundred years later Italian had dropped behind but Russian had gone ahead, so that English was still in fifth place. But by the end of the Eighteenth Century it began to move forward, and by the middle of the Nineteenth it had forced its way into first place. To-day it is so far in the lead that it is probably spoken by as many people as the next two languages—Russian and German—combined.

It is not only the first—and, in large part, the only—language of both of the world's mightiest empires; it is also the second language of large and populous regions beyond their bounds. Its teaching is obligatory in the secondary schools of countries as diverse as Germany and Argentina, Turkey and Denmark, Estonia and Japan. Three-fourths of all the world's mail is now written in it; it is used in printing more than half the world's newspapers, and it is the language of three-fifths of the world's radio stations. No ship captain can trade upon the oceans without some knowledge of it; it is the common tongue of all the great ports, and likewise of all the maritime Bad Lands, from the South Sea islands to the Persian Gulf. Every language that still resists its advance outside Europe—for example, Spanish in Latin America, Italian in the Levant, and Japanese in the Far East—holds out against it only by making large concessions to it. That is to say, all of them show a large and ever larger admixture of English words and phrases; indeed in Japanese they become so numerous that special dictionaries of them begin to appear. Finally, English makes steady inroads upon French as the language of diplomacy and upon German as the language of science.

How many people speak it to-day? It is hard to answer with any precision, but an approximation is nevertheless possible.

First, let us list those to whom English is their native tongue. They run to about 112,000,000 in the continental United States, to 42,000,000 in the United Kingdom, to 6,000,000 in Canada, 6,000,000 in Australia, 3,000,000 in Ireland, 2,000,000 in South Africa, and probably 3,000,000 in the remaining British colonies and the possessions of the United States. All these figures are very conservative, but they foot up to 174,000,000. Now add the people who, though born to some other language, live in English-speaking communities and speak English themselves in their daily business, and whose children are being brought up to it—say 13,000,000 for the United States, 1,000,000 for Canada (where English is gradually ousting French), 1,000,000 for the United Kingdom and Ireland, and 2,000,000 for the rest of the world—and you have a grand total of 191,000,000.

Obviously, no other language is the everyday tongue of so many people. Russian is spoken as first choice by no more than 80,000,000 of the 150,000,000 citizens of the U.S.S.R.; the rest cling to one or another of the hundred odd lesser dialects in which the Bolsheviks are forced to print their official literature; and outside Russia, Russian is scarcely spoken at all, for the colonies of the U.S.S.R. lie without exception within its territorial bounds. German follows. It is spoken by 65,000,000 Germans in the Reich, by perhaps 7,000,000 in Austria, by a scant 3,000,000 in German Switzerland, by perhaps 5,000,000 in the lost German and Austrian territories and by another 5,000,000 in the German-speaking colonies in Russia, the Balkan and Baltic states, and South America. This makes 85,000,000 all together. Whether French or Spanish comes next is in doubt, but neither can show more than 55,000,000. Italian is the runner-up, and the rest of the European languages are nowhere. Nor is there any rival to English in Asia; for though Chinese is ostensibly the native tongue of more than 300,000,000 people, it is split into so many mutually unintelligible dialects that it must be thought of less as a language than as a group of languages. The same may be said of Hindustani. As for Japanese, it is spoken by no more than 70,000,000 persons, and thus lags behind not only English, but also Russian and German. As for Arabic, it probably falls below even Italian.

Thus English is far ahead of any competitor. Moreover, it promises to increase its lead hereafter, for no other language is spreading so fast or into such remote areas. There was a time when French was the acknowledged second language of all Christendom, as Latin had been before it, and even to this day, according to Dr. Frank E. Vizetelly, the number of persons who have acquired it is larger than the number of those who have it by birth. But the advantages of knowing it tend to diminish as English conquers the world, and it is now studied as an accomplishment far more often than as a necessity. In Tzarist Russia nearly every child who got any education at all was taught it; but the Bolsheviks, who are realists, are now substituting English and German. In our own high schools and colleges French is retained in the curriculum, but it is hardly likely that more than five per cent of the students ever acquire any facility in it. In the schools of Germany, Scandinavia, and Japan, however, English is taught with relentless earnestness, and a great deal of it sticks. Indeed, even the French begin to learn it.

How far it has thus gone as a second language it is not easy to determine, but a few facts and figures taken at random may throw some light on the question. Half a century ago it was little used in the lands and islands settled by the Spanish; the second language in all of them, in so far as they had any second language, was French. But the impact of the Spanish-American War has forced French to share its hegemony with English. The Latin-Americans still prefer French on cultural counts, for they continue to regard France as the beacon-light of Latin civilization, but they turn to English for the hard reasons of every day. This movement is naturally most marked in the areas that have come under direct American influence—for example, Cuba, the Isthmian region, and, above all, Porto Rico, where twenty per cent of the people now speak English—but it is also visible in Mexico, in Central America, and in the more progressive of the countries to the southward. In the Philippines, I am informed, fifteen per cent of the population of 15,000,000 now not only speak English, but also read it and write it.

All over the rest of the Far East it has been a *lingua franca* since the Eighteenth Century, at first in the barbarous guise of Pidgin English, but of late in increasingly seemly forms, often with an American admixture. In Japan, according to the Belgian consul-general at Yokohama, it is now "indispensable for all Europeans. One can do without Japanese, but would

be lost without English. It is the business language." In China it has been established for many years, and in India, though only 2,500,000 natives can read and write it, it is the language not only of business but also of politics. Those Indians who know it, says Sir John Marriott in *The English in India* (1932) "are the only persons who are politically conscious. . . . The medium of all political discussion is necessarily English." And on the level of illiteracy it is fast becoming a bridge between the native dialects.

Altogether, it is probable that English is now spoken as a second language by at least 20,000,000 persons throughout the world—very often, to be sure, badly, but nevertheless understandably. It has become a platitude that one may go almost anywhere with no other linguistic equipment and get on almost as well as in New York. I have visited since the War sixteen countries in Europe, five in Africa, three in Asia, and three in Latin-America, beside a large miscellany of islands, but I don't remember ever encountering a situation that English could not resolve. I have heard it spoken with reasonable fluency in a Lithuanian village, in an Albanian fishing port, and at the edge of the Libyan Desert. (*To be continued*)

AMERICA'S NEED OF SEA POWER

By Herbert Corey

Current History, November 1934

Mr. Corey, a war correspondent throughout the World War and now president of the Overseas Writers in Washington, is well qualified to discuss American naval policy by reason of his long and intimate study of the subject. He covered the Washington Arms Conference and has since been in a position to acquire information that enables him to write on naval affairs in an authoritative manner.

This article follows Hector C. Bywater's in this Monthly for November (adopted from Current History for October) which gave a British view of the issues of this year's naval conference and Captain Gumpei Sekine's in the January and February numbers, which presented the Japanese official attitude.

(Continued from April Number)

An agreement of a sort was reached by Great Britain, the United States and Japan in 1930 because of the similar purposes of the British and American governments. A Labor government in London was, to quote Mr. Bywater, "anxious for party purposes to achieve a spectacular coup in the realm of high politics." The Hoover administration may have been actuated by much the same motives as well as by a conviction that a reduction in armaments would eventually ensure world peace. This left Japan in a position to get her own way. Her ratio was increased from 5:3 to 5:3½, and by that much her position in the Far East was strengthened.

Precisely as in this country official opinion and popular sentiment seem to be in agreement that the United States will not again attempt to secure world safety by giving its own weakness as a bond, so the dominant political parties in Great Britain have declared themselves in opposition to further disarmament. The

British naval budget has been increased, 2,000 have been added to the fleet personnel and it has been decided to build heavier cruisers to match the 10,000-ton cruisers which the United States insists are essential to the safety of its commerce. The British base at Singapore is indispensable to the protection of Britain's Asiatic interests in the event of a war in the Far East. The base at Hongkong is, according to press reports, being improved so far as is possible within the limits of the Washington treaty. Mr. Bywater has suggested that if America resigns the Philippines our Asiatic squadron would be withdrawn. It is only necessary to point out that this squadron was permanently stationed in the Far East long before we took possession of the Philippines.

At the 1935 conference American eyes will be turned toward the Far East. Our relations with Japan have not been altogether pleasing. In an attempt to maintain the provisions of the Four-Power Pact, which was later supplanted by the Nine-Power Treaty, both of them designed to protect China and maintain peace in the Far East, the United States protested against recent Japanese action in Manchuria and China. No support was offered by the other signatories to these treaties, and Japan had her way. The United States was allowed to bell the Japanese cat all alone. The British Government ultimately issued a statement to the general effect that the Japanese explanations had been satisfactory.

Even before Japan was assigned the former German islands in the Pacific under mandate she was virtually immune to successful attack. Her mainland is in reality one great fortress, lying behind a series of highly defended bases which parallel the coast of Asia for 2,600 miles. They reach from her northernmost outpost in the Kurile Islands to Formosa. This Gibraltar of the East lies within 250 miles of the Philippines, on which the United States has a very imperfectly defensible base. If it were possible for an enemy force to penetrate Japan's island screen and set foot on the mainland it would only be to meet one of the two most formidable armies in the world.

Japan now owns two-thirds of the Sea of Japan. The narrow straits of Tsushima, in which Admiral Togo destroyed the Russian fleet in 1904, provides the only southern entrance. It is commanded by long-range batteries on the Korean shore. The three narrow ways which give entrance from the north—the Tartar Straits, the La Perouse Straits, and the Tsugaru Straits—could easily be closed by mine fields and fortifications. As long as the Sea of Japan is in effect a protected waterway to the Asiatic hinterland Japan is in no danger of a shortage of food or raw materials. To the south lie 1,400 islands that would have to be cleared one by one if an enemy fleet should attempt to penetrate to the Japanese coast. Each would provide a base from which bombing aircraft and submarines might operate. Through her bases at Formosa, in the Pescadores and in the Nansei Islands, Japan has control of the Yellow Sea,

Captain Sekine, writing in this Monthly for January and February, says: "Our [the Japanese] treaty navy, even if it were

built up to its 60 per cent allotment, could be but 36 per cent effective in actual combat against an opposing naval force of 100 per cent" in obedience to the law of N square. He ignores the fact that all naval battles have been fought close to shore. Therefore, if the United States fleet were to attempt aggressive operations on the Japanese coast the Japanese could use all the shore-based aircraft as well as the smaller vessels of types which Japan has been building actively in the past few years. Captain Sekine likewise ignores the fact that sea power is built of combatant ships, plus merchant marine, plus defended bases. In the Far East Japan is superior in these factors to the United States. She has already built to treaty strength, whereas the United States will not reach that position before 1942. Captain Sekine in his article considered only combatant naval strength and omitted to mention the other factors of the situation.

The United States, moreover, is compelled to consider the national attitude of the Japanese. They are essentially a military people, rightfully proud of their traditions, and able to point to their successes of the past half century as an evidence of the wisdom of their course. Their territories have been added to by the sword, with the result that other nations are forced to scrutinize closely every move made by Japan.

It is difficult, therefore, to accept Captain Sekine's argument that what has seemed aggression to us has been in each case an act of legitimate self-defense. Nor can his insistence that the fact that the Philippines may gain their independence "is a purely domestic problem of the United States and has nothing to do with naval disarmament" be easily reconciled with the Japanese position at the Washington Conference in 1921. Japan was then willing to accept the 5:3 ratio on condition that there be no further fortifications in the Far East. Now she insists that these restrictions be retained, but declines to consider them as a quid pro quo for the maintenance of the present treaties. Japan would eat her cake and have it, too.

The nearest American naval base is Hawaii, 3,400 miles from Manila. If there were war with Japan and the United States battleship fleet were ordered to the East, it would arrive at Manila, an almost undefended port, with greatly depleted fuel supplies. The strong Japanese battle fleet, supplemented by land forces, might quite possibly succeed in reducing Corregidor long before the American fleet could arrive. It follows as a matter of course that the American fleet must consist of the larger types of battleship, with abundant fuel capacity, in order that they might be able to keep the sea. If the Japanese demand that ships of this class, which she has defined as "offensive" weapons, were to be accepted as such by the 1935 conference, the United States would be helpless in the Far East. An alternative might be the raising of the present prohibition against the fortified bases, but this is unlikely both because the United States would not care to do anything that might be construed as provocative and because of the opposition that Japan would certainly offer.

THE GERMAN ARMY: A Force to be Raised to 36 Divisions

On March 15—the day before the German declaration of conscription and a largely increased Army strength—a vote in the French Chamber authorised an extension of the period of military service, in view of German re-armament. Addressing the Chamber, M. Flandin said: "As the result of plans known to all, Germany will have available at the beginning of 1936 at least 600,000 men. . . . We should have 208,000 men. Such a difference cannot be tolerated." After the German declaration of March 16, Marshal Pétain commented: "Approximately this news is what we knew long ago. It makes official a state of affairs which already existed." A Paris report on other French views stated: "Germany's military strength will exceed 600,000 men, with an air force far stronger than that of France, but a much less formidable Navy." A ceremony commemorating Germany's war dead was held in the Berlin Opera House on the 17th. The curtain parted, disclosing 81 colours of the old German regiments (to be honoured with the War Service Cross), carried by Reichswehr soldiers. Behind hung a huge Iron Cross in black and silver. The decoration of the colours took place on the Schloss Platz, at the end of Unter den Linden.

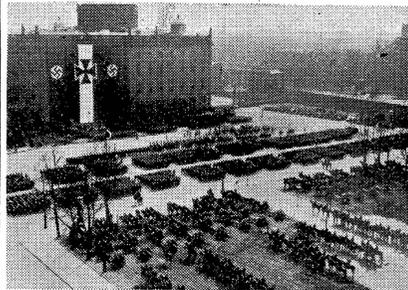
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After the commemoration of Germany's war heroes, held in Berlin on March 17, the day following the proclamation of conscription and increased Army strength,

Perhaps the most striking statement in Captain Sekine's discussion of Japan's naval needs is that, "even granting that the facts justify America's attitude toward her markets in the East," it must be remembered that markets only exist where there is peace and that it "would be impossible for any country other than Japan" to keep the peace in the Orient. The implications are inescapable. Japan may not be opposed to the Open Door, but she proposes to keep her hand on the latch. To this frankly exposed determination America will assuredly be opposed at the 1935 conference. Such a situation undoubtedly has within it the seeds of trouble.

Before the Pacific position can be considered at the 1935 conference, it may be that the European enigma must first be solved. France and Italy are showing signs of engaging in a naval race of their own. Germany has already produced a "pocket battleship" that is obviously feared by the other European powers. Great Britain, in order to protect her own position, may perhaps have to insist upon a strengthening of her forces, and the United States would then in turn be forced to add to its line of battle. In any event the American position is in effect what it was in 1921. The goal of American effort will be so to distribute sea power that no single nation may again

Herr Hitler went to the Schloss Platz for the ceremony of decorating the colours, and afterwards took the salute outside the War Memorial at a march-past of the troops. Special interest was aroused by the Air Force detachment, seen for the first time in a purely military parade with



rifles and fixed bayonets. The question of air forces was, of course, one of the principal matters for discussion during Sir John Simon's visit to Berlin. Commenting on the effect of the new German conscription scheme, the "Times" military correspondent stated recently: "Before Germany left the League her proposal was for an expansion of the Versailles Treaty army of 100,000 long-service troops to 300,000 short-service troops. It has been generally assumed that she has since carried out this expansion. The declaration that her peace-time Army will now consist of 12 Army corps headquarters and 36 divisions will naturally suggest that the total strength is considerably larger. . .

regard the sea as its private dominion and to reduce the burden on the taxpayer. In the background will be the conviction that sea power is more safely entrusted to nations that live by trade and therefore desire to promote peace, and that have no huge standing armies. Precisely what technical means will be utilized to this end have not been disclosed, as this is being written. It is difficult to obtain parity by means of a formula. The international position has changed since the time of the Washington treaty, when it was possible to obtain an agreement by what Mr. Bywater well describes as rule-of-thumb methods. Now the situation as among the powers is more intricate.

To the best of American ability, every chance was given to good faith and fair play in 1921 for the sake of world peace. Little came of these sincere efforts. The hope that other nations would reduce their armaments if the United States led the way proved illusive. As American sea strength waned American influence in the councils of the nations grew weaker. It may be assumed that an agreement of some sort will be reached in 1935. A nation would be ill-advised to take steps that might result in another naval race. Nevertheless the situation today, as compared with that in 1921, obviously contains far more threatening elements and greater possibilities of danger.

It is unlikely that the peace strength of a division would be more than about 12,000. This would give a total of perhaps 440,000. Its army and corps troops are reckoned on the 1914 scale, another 25 to 30 per cent. at least may be added. This would give a total of 550,000 to 600,000. It might be more. . . . In automatic weapons it (the new army) is certainly well equipped, having nearly 400 machine-guns. These assure the divisions a high defensive value. But it is hardly to be expected that an army . . . long restricted in developing heavy artillery and tanks, should have anything like an equivalent power of taking the offensive."

Network of Pacts Over Europe Seen Major Stresa Feat

Stresa, April 14.—"Complete agreement" on all questions discussed during the past three days between the delegates of Great Britain, Italy and France was announced by the official joint communique issued here this afternoon following the concluding formal session of the Stresa conference. The communique, adopted by the conference as a joint resolution, covers eight separate points connected with European security and armament questions.

Seven of the eight items included in the communique represent agreements among all three participating Powers, covering the French appeal to the League of Nations, East European security, Austrian independence, a West European air Locarno, rearmament and unilateral repudiation of treaties. The eighth item is an Anglo-Italian reaffirmation of the two Governments' determination to fulfill their obligations under the Locarno treaty.

The three delegations found themselves in complete agreement on the following points:

1. They agreed on a common line of conduct to be pursued in the course of the discussion of the requests presented to the League Council by the French Government respecting Germany's denunciation of the military clauses of the treaty of Versailles.

Eastern Security Encouraged

2. The information presented to the conference confirmed the view of the three delegations that negotiations should be pursued for the purpose of securing the desired promotion of East European security.

3. With regard to Austria, the three Governments confirmed the Anglo-French-Italian declarations of February 17, 1934, and September 29, 1934, recognizing the necessity of maintaining Austrian independence and integrity, which will continue to inspire their common policy.

Further, recalling the agreement of the three Governments under the London and Rome accords to consult together in regard to measures to be taken in the event of a threat to Austrian independence, they agreed to recommend that representatives of the governments enumerated in the Rome protocol meet at the earliest pos-

sible date with a view to concluding a Central European agreement.

4. With regard to the proposed West European air pact, the representatives of the three Governments confirmed the principles and procedure that should be followed in accordance with the London communique of February 3 and agreed to continue active study of the question with a view to drafting a pact among the five Powers mentioned in the London communique and any bilateral agreements which might accompany it.

Disarmament Desired

5. Approaching the problem of armaments, the representatives of the three Powers recalled that the London communique envisaged an agreement to be freely negotiated with Germany to replace the relevant clauses of Part V of the Versailles treaty, and they noted with careful and anxious consideration the recent action of the German Government and the report of the British Foreign Secretary, Sir John Simon, on his conversations with Reichsfuehrer Adolf Hitler, on this question.

The three delegations regretfully recognized that the method of unilateral repudiation adopted by the German Government at a moment when steps were being taken to promote a freely negotiated armament settlement had undermined public confidence in the security of peaceful order. Moreover, the magnitude of the declared program of German rearmament, which is already well in the process of execution, invalidated the quantitative assumption on which the efforts for disarmament had hitherto been based and shook the hopes by which these efforts were inspired.

The representatives of the three Powers nevertheless reaffirmed their earnest desire to maintain peace by establishing a sense of security and declared that they were anxious to join every practicable effort to promote an international agreement to limit armaments.

Rearming Agreements Advised

6. The representatives of the three Governments took under consideration the desires of those States whose military status is determined respectively by the treaties of St. Germain, Trianon and Neville to obtain a revision of this status, and they decided that the other States concerned should be informed of this desire diplomatically.

They further agreed to recommend to these States to examine the question with a view to reaching a settlement by mutual agreement within the frame-work of general and regional guarantees of security.

7. With regard to the Locarno treaty, the British and Italian representatives made a joint declaration as follows:

"The representatives of Great Britain and Italy, Powers which participate in the treaty of Locarno only in the capacity of guarantors, formally reaffirm all their obligations under that treaty and declare their intention, should need arise, faithfully to fulfill them. Inasmuch as the two Powers entered these obligations in relation to all the other parties to the treaty, this joint declaration will also be formally communicated to the Governments of Germany and Belgium."

Treaty Repudiations Opposed

8. The three delegations adopted a final declaration setting forth complete agreement among the British, French and Italian Governments in opposing by all practical means any unilateral repudiation of treaties which may endanger the peace of Europe and announcing that they will act in close and mutual collaboration for this purpose.

The communique, which was drafted following the conclusion of the parley's discussions yesterday evening, was formally adopted at a brief final meeting of the three delegations late this morning.

In an interview with the press follow-

The World Affairs of To-Day

Edited by O. Umetani

Price .90

Antarctic Discoveries: ★ ★ ★ ★ Byrd's Own Story

The second Byrd Expedition to Antarctica has completed its task and will soon leave Little America for the long voyage back to civilization. In the following article Admiral Byrd sums up the results of the expedition—the explorations at sea, the flights into Marie Byrd Land, which uncovered new territory and determined that Antarctica is one continent; the geological and geographical discoveries of the trail parties, and the contributions made by the scientific staff.

(Continued from April Number)

THE RESULTS

Summing up, we can say that the results of the expedition are nearly all that we could rightfully hope for. Thanks to flight operations and the three sledging parties striking at strategic points along the front of Marie Byrd Land, we now have a better conception of the area which, in 1930, we lifted above the horizon. We know something of its geology and biology, of the thickness of the ice capping it, and by means of the mapping camera we shall be able to construct a map of its features.

This newest of American discoveries is a magnificent sweep of territory running from the Pacific Ocean to the South Pole, and encompassing more than 200,000 square miles of territory. Superb mountains lift gleaming peaks through the glacial seas covering it, and a grand plateau marches over all but the tallest peaks.

It must be clear to any one that such reviews as this can only outline the high spots and the general story. For the daily routine observations and efforts, each of which in its own field possesses great merit, there can only be passing mention. Prominent among these is meteorology. Haines, assisted by Griminger, has extended the excellent observations on polar meteorology he began with the first expedition. In addition to routine surface observations he has made a continuous series of upper-air soundings with pilot balloons—a total of nearly a thousand over both expeditions.

Weather Studies

Our particular interest in this direction

ing the meeting, Prime Minister Ramsay MacDonald said that he was glad that the conference had been carried out in such a successful manner. The delegates, he said, had come only diplomatically but in the intention and determinations which underlay the purpose of their meeting, namely the peace of Europe.

"I am sure," stated Prime Minister MacDonald, "that the conference has made a very lasting contribution to the solution of this problem."

Voicing similar satisfaction, Premier Pierre-Etienne Flandin said that the conference had worked hard to promote world peace and that he was sure this goal could be achieved if collaboration among the three Powers were maintained in the future.

A spokesman of the Italian delegation also expressed great satisfaction with the results of the parley, saying that it had assured the tranquillity of Western Europe and Italy's Alpine frontiers.

—The Japan Advertiser.

is to study the circulation of air over the polar regions and to test the theory of the glacial anticyclone. It is a common mistake to think that polar weather is of concern only to the polar regions. The world's meteorology cannot be divided into airtight compartments. The poles exercise a great influence upon world weather, and a knowledge of the conditions prevailing in Antarctica has a vital bearing on long-range forecasting not only for the Southern Hemisphere but for the world.

In the same sort of category is the study of terrestrial magnetism, one of the strongest departments not only on this but on the first expedition. With better apparatus over a longer period of time Dr. Bramhall, assisted by Zuhn, has made a continuous registration of magnetic elements at the base station. Such data are of indispensable importance to a full knowledge of the permanent magnetic field of the earth.

The biologists, Siple, Dr. Perkins, Lindsey and Sterrett, have worked with the same quiet effectiveness. From the day we landed here they have studied life—the variety of birds, seals and penguins and the microscopic plankton that inhabit the ocean depths within their reach. Even in the dead of the Winter night Dr. Perkins and Sterrett could be found in the Bay of Whales, with the temperature 60 below, lowering a plankton net for specimens until every crack in the bay ice was closed.

Testing the Ice Sheet

Now a number of these so-called routine observational activities, especially where they have been able to benefit by improved technique, will, I trust, provide



北歐フィンランドの最大デパートメントストアに飾られたる北星堂発行其他の日本関係圖書

several of the brightest chapters in the scientific report. Earlier in this article I mentioned several innovations this expedition has introduced. Of these the seismic soundings have yielded the most spectacular data.

This instrument, which measures the velocity and track of a sound wave beneath the surface, has at last provided us with long-sought means to tap the ice sheet, determine its thickness and get a hint of what lies buried beneath.

While Morgan was running his series of seismic soundings along the tractor track, Dr. Poulter made a series of soundings in the vicinity of Little America, the preliminary results of which threaten to force science to recast its present conception of the Ross Shelf ice as being largely water-borne.

He found that the ice is supported by an anchor on numerous submarine reefs and peaks. In many places where we had thought there was water these instruments showed land above sea level. Scarcely fifteen miles south of Little America a great hill rising in the barrier snow has been identified as an island, the summit of which is 1,000 feet above sea level and capped by 400 feet of ice.

Another excellent merit of the apparatus is that with its data we will be able for the first time to limit the probable volume of Antarctica ice to a reasonable figure.

A New Technique

At first Poulter relied upon a dog team to carry his apparatus. Then he tried a tractor. Lately he has used the Condor plane William Horlick. Once he was flown to seven strategic points on a twenty-five-mile radius of Little America, at each of which he landed and made soundings. Returning to the main base, he develop-

ed his data that night.

It has been one of the firm negatives of my policies, never to land a plane away from base, if it could be avoided, on account of the possible disastrous consequences of a crack-up; but in this case I was tempted by the high promise of the research. Certainly here was exploration with a new twist—tracking down the unknown past a 600-foot armor of ice, with sound waves returning to whisper their discoveries to sensitive apparatus on the surface.

The cosmic-ray research is another innovation which has had highly creditable results. It was begun aboard the Ruppert by Dr. Poulter, Dr. Bramhall and Mr. Zuhn, carried across the Pacific, extended into new regions during the eastern cruise and made an integral part of the routine program at Little America. Recently, in order to determine whether or not the significant variations in cosmic-ray activity noted at high altitudes and lower latitudes occur at high altitude in high latitudes, we sent the apparatus to an altitude of 12,500 feet in one of the planes.

Cosmic-Ray Data

The data, which have been only partly analyzed, have confirmed Dr. Compton's theory of cosmic rays as consisting in their major part of electrically charged particles of great penetrating power originating in remote space, which rain in a continuous bombardment through the earth's atmosphere. A variation of intensity of cosmic-ray radiation with geomagnetic latitude has been determined. Of equal and perhaps greater interest, the observations at Little America show an unexpectedly high absolute value and a slow increase in intensity which may presage some period variation.

Polar meteorology was likewise given a boost upward. In September, with the temperature still between 50 and 60 degrees below zero, Haines initiated a series of high-altitude aerological soundings, the first of the kind ever undertaken in the South Polar regions. The autogyro was equipped with a barograph for making a continuous registration of temperature, barometric pressure and humidity at different altitudes. Through September until the gyro crashed, McCormick made such flights on every clear day. Now that the major flights are safely past and a standby plane is not required for emergency purposes we have been able to resume these flights. The data, Haines believes, are of great value in understanding the general circulation of the air in these latitudes.

Considering how recent is the use of aircraft in polar explorations, we were able to put our planes to excellent use in many directions. Certain flights served as many as four purposes simultaneously: discovery, mapping, aerological soundings and altimeter soundings of surface elevations. On different occasions aviation was effectively employed to reconnoitre dangerous terrain for field parties.

Hazards Present

The hazards, to be sure, remained. The keenest sort of cooperation was required between the meteorologist and pilots. Practically all our later flights were barely squeezed in between periods of unfavorable weather; but the main program was successfully executed.

Radio, too, as a polar tool made important advances. Every field party was equipped with radio and reported at fixed intervals. As many as five parties have reported to the main base on a single day.

The Mediterranean Cradle of European Culture

From "FROM JAPAN TO JAPAN" by G. Caiger

§ 31

I SAT forward in my bunk. Bright amid the pale tints of dawn a light gleamed and was regularly eclipsed. The lighthouse—not so far from the famous lighthouse of ancient days, the giant Pharos of Alexandria—marked Port Said and the eastern exit from the Mediterranean. The coasts of this inland sea had been the nursery of our European civilisation. Along the banks of the Nile had been fulfilled those necessary conditions of civilisation—a guaranteed food supply, peace, leisure and communication. To the north the island of Crete, which a day or so previously had sheltered us from a boisterous wind, had been a stepping stone for this culture.

One of the finest monuments of this phase is the Palace of the Kings at Cnosos. At the peak of the Cretan period, about 1200 B.C. the number of passages in the huge building caused people to marvel, while that circumstance and the decoration of the double axe upon the walls, in Greek *labyrinthos*, gave us a new word for complexity. The old legend of the Minotaur, fabled as dwelling in the labyrinth until Theseus slew him, sprang from the bullfights of the time. Athletes and acrobats displayed their agility and daring by literally taking the bull by the horns and performing somersaults, vaults and hand-springs such as have been recorded on Minoan vases.

From the eastern shore of this sea the Phoenicians shook out their sails and ventured ever westwards till, beyond Gibraltar, they looked upon the awful phenomenon of the tides. In the north-east corner of the sea rose Troy, the city of love and siege, the focal point of the Homeric legends. Many centuries later the magnetism of this epic so stirred a grocer's assistant in Germany that he determined to find Troy and after making money with that sole end in view he not only achieved his purpose but left his name as one of the pioneers of classical archaeology—Schliemann. At the Dardanelles, not far from the strategic site of Troy, thousands of men of other races were destined to lose their lives in a later war. From burning Troy fled the pious Aeneas, bearing the sacred flame, after many wanderings to land at Misenum, on

When important flights were pending these field parties filed weather reports from their widely scattered positions. The planes were in continuous communication with the main base and have on occasion communicated with field parties in the area of their flight, passing on important information about crevasses and other hazards in their path.

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the northern tip of the Bay of Naples, which Fascists still know as Miseno. The descendants of Aeneas conquered Carthage and Massilia, colonies of the Phoenicians, and conquered Greece, the home-country of the settlers who created the new city—Neapolis—on the shores of that lovely bay.

In spite of their great contributions to the better ordering of public life—organisation on an Imperial scale, Roman law, roads, the conception of a planned, authoritative state—even the leading Romans seem ponderous and phlegmatic besides the questing intelligence of the Greeks. These amazing people, or at any rate their best minds, did not rest content with what they had inherited from the past and learned from Egypt, but out-distanced their mentors in sculpture and mathematics, and by the simple, but epoch-making process of looking at things as for the first time, set up the standards of European culture in philosophy, beauty, oratory and drama: by their conscious desire to know themselves they created order out of chaos in the study of economics, history and politics and revealed to mankind new possibilities of achievement in the realms of physical beauty and intellectual effort. That their initial success in science was not developed into continual progress is generally attributed to lack of moral fibre and to the institution of slavery which insulated their keenest minds from direct contact with problems of everyday life. But the whole question of the status of the individual, especially the individual who did not happen to enjoy the privileges of citizenship, was given a new turn by the Hebrews, another people bordering on the Mediterranean.

Their long devotion to the belief in a single God—a spiritual conception in advance of their neighbours—flowered eventually in the life and teaching of the greatest of them all, Jesus of Nazareth, who simplified and deepened this belief and whose influence slowly undermined the age-old institution of slavery and ultimately affected the subordination of women.

The conflict between the three influences, the Hebrew in the moral and spiritual sphere, the Greek in the intellectual and the Roman in the governmental sphere, has not yet been satisfactorily resolved. Indeed during this century it has once again come to a head. The demand of scientists and intellectuals to be free to question existing arrangements cuts clean across the orthodox religious dependence upon revelation, and the demands of the Corporate State for implicit obedience on the part of the individual. The workings of these three influences, now one, now the other, uppermost and the reactions against them, supply the clue to European history. From the ideal of the Holy Roman Empire, through the Renaissance following upon the rediscovery of Greek art, the Reformation following the translation of the Bible into various vulgar tongues to modern Fascism, the reconciliation of these forces has been incomplete. As an Italian critic has written, "Europe

has a religion that satisfies her heart but not her head, and a philosophy that satisfies her head, but not her heart."

I will not claim that these thoughts flashed through my mind as we approached Port Said, the truth being that they represent a certain amount of celebration during an afternoon in the Red Sea, but on a journey round the world, in time as well as in space, the Mediterranean occupies a position of cardinal importance. All I have attempted to do is to sketch, in the barest outline, something of this psychological significance, crystallized perhaps by the act of crossing the sea.

THE BUKOVINA'S UNIQUE PAINTED CHURCHES:

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East of Sziget, in the northern end of the Transylvanian Alps, where they are already descending into the great plains of Poland, lies Voronetz, a disused monastery, in a cup surrounded by hills. It was built by the famous Voevod of Moldavia, Stephen the Great, to commemorate one of his forty-two victories against the Hungarians, Poles, Tartars and Turks, for each of which he is said to have built a monastery. In 1547 an exonarthex was added to Voronetz, and the great work of the frescoes was begun. They cover every wall of the church inside and out, and create an astonishing effect of brilliance by careful juxtaposition of natural reds, browns, greens, and blues, picked out with touches of white. The interior frescoes are very beautiful, but almost impossible to reproduce owing to the usual darkness in churches of the Greek Rite; but, in any case, it is the glorious exterior work which is of particular interest, because there are many interior frescoes of equal beauty elsewhere, whereas these exterior paintings are unique except in the Bukovina. Through the piled snow of the winters and the scorching sun of nearly 400 years, these frescoes have lasted with scarcely any dimming of their pristine freshness. The face of the west wall, unbroken owing to the entrance of these churches always being on the south side, presents a gigantic 'Last Judgment.' At the top, unfortunately in the shadow in the photograph, is God the Father with angels; in the second zone, Christ in glory occupies the centre, with Saint Joseph and the Virgin Mary on either side, and the Twelve Apostles seated to left and right. In the third zone, Man is being judged, and from left to right are Old Testament prophets and holy men, kings and princes. On the left of the fourth zone are martyrs and (in vestments) doctors and bishops of the early Church; in the centre angels are expelling erring mankind with long tridents into the great brown River of Hell, which flows down into the fifth zone, carrying souls of the condemned; and also occupying the two lowest zones on the right is Hell, with its creatures and a symbolical figure. To the left, below the martyrs, are hermits sitting in a quiet garden contemplating in peace, while to right of them are anchorites enclosed by a wall. In the centre is the Death of Man, with an angel receiving his soul, and King David playing before the Lord.

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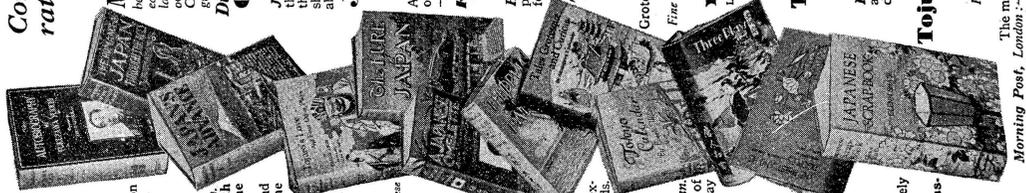
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編輯室から

春光悠々天地に映えて櫻花爛漫妍を競ふ、帝國戰艦「比叡」蒼海に白波を蹴つて滿洲國に使ひすれば、滿洲國皇帝陛下日東帝國を訪づれば、何たる輝ける春日譚であらう。慶祝極りない事であるが然し吾人の慶びとするは其事自體にも増して此の平和圖の象徴する日東滿蒙の極東の空に充ち渡れる平和感と安全感である。兩三年前國際聯盟調査

委員團は帝國の滿蒙に於ける平和的意圖に對して惡意的烙印を押して引揚げて行つたものである。然かも帝國の盤石の如き安定的勢力と平和的意圖は此處に此の春日譚を生み出して居るのである。

試に眼を歐洲に轉ぜられよ。聯盟はあり、ロカルノはあり、ストレーザ會議はあつた、然し乍ら何人かストレーザが歐洲の安定を此處三ヶ年にて確定し得たと信じ得ようぞ?ロカルノ協約の成るや世界はあげて歐洲の恒久的平和來をうたつたものである。ストレーザの持つ意義亦一時的糊塗策たるをに出で得ないだらうが然し此一時的瀾縫なくしては歐洲の平和は危殆に頻すると云ふ現狀である。微妙なる意義と重要性は其處にある。本紙は紙面の都合上滿洲國皇帝御訪日の記事を所載し得なかつたがストレーザ會議の成果文載せて置いた。

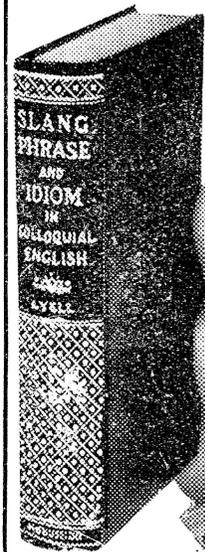
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バード少佐 南極探險の話と米國の軍縮に對する態度を論じたコーレイ氏の論文は共に本月號を以て終る。先月號に寫眞文載せて

置いたルーマニアのゾオロネツ寺院の記事を入れた。内外の壁面全體に繪をかけた趣味の問題として、兎も角珍しい事だ。今月號と來月號に亘つて米國評論家メンケン書所「英語の將來」なる一文を載せる事にした。本誌の讀者諸子に取つては或は關心事であらうと思ふ。武藏高校教授ターチャー氏の「日本から日本へ」は旅行に託して、歴史地理風物習慣を盛り英語學習上の萬般に關するインフォメーションを盛るものとして好評を以て受けつゝあるが、試に同書中から一セクションを抜いて御覽に入れる事とした。

同く出版部の清岡映一氏譯「福翁自傳」英譯並にシャーラー博士著「躍進の日本」は引續き世界各地から絶讃を浴びつゝある、未だ之れで盡した譯ではないが一部分丈お目にかけよう。松岡女史の「奈良の聖寶」も評判がいい。帝室博物館鑑査官後藤守一氏の讀賣紙上の批評を轉載した。

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