

SUGGESTED OUTLINE AND INSTRUCTIONAL TESTS ON
CIVILIZATION FOR ELEMENTARY COLLEGE FRENCH

A THESIS

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JAMES ROY NIELSON

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Approved for the Major Department

Minnie M. Miller

Approved for the Graduate Council

H. B. Sherrill

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The study of a language from a linguistic standpoint is of much greater interest and significance to the student if he is acquainted with the civilization of the people who use it. This wider comprehension of a nation and the opportunity for correlation of the study with the student's own knowledge should lead to a better grasp of the subject and greater appreciation of it. The chances for practical application of his knowledge should be likewise increased. However, some effort at logical organization of the information must be made if the student is to retain a clear idea of the country studied.

A number of recent texts have been designed to present a study of French civilization for first and second-year students. These texts have been listed and described in the bibliography of this thesis. At least two tests dealing with French civilization have been printed. One is by J. B. Tharp, "A Test in French Civilization," French Review, VIII:283-287, March, 1935. The other is by Minnie M. Miller, "A Test on French Life and Culture," Modern Language Journal, XX:158-162, December, 1935. A Master's thesis by Robert Buda, A French Cultural Test, M. A., College of the City of New York, 1931, tests the civilization knowledge of high school students. In none of these was an organized effort made to present the material taught prior to the administration of the tests.

This thesis will contain a brief sketch of factual matter concerning French life and culture, together with instructional tests for each unit.

The material is designed to furnish a condensed outline of facts for presentation by the teacher to classes in beginning college French. The facts given are those generally recognized by authorities as of importance to the American student of French.

The material has been divided into four units to correspond to the four nine-weeks periods of the beginning year in French. The units are given the general titles of (1) the country and people of France, (2) the history of France, (3) French literature, and (4) contemporary France. There is an objective test of one hundred questions following each nine-weeks unit. The questions in each test were divided into three sections as follows: completion, matching, and multiple choice. Each test has twenty-five matching questions, but the number in the completion and multiple choice sections varies.

The units were presented to the first-year French class of the Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia during the school year of 1938-39 by Dr. Minnie Miller, the instructor. The first two units and tests were used in the elementary French class, a five-hour course. The last two units and tests were used in the intermediate French class, also a five-hour course. Une aventure en français, I, by Bovée and Lindquist was the text used the first semester. Easy French Readings by Havens and Moore was the reading text for the second semester. Une aventure en français was especially good for the unit on history, and all the historical selections in this text were read by the students in French. The Havens and Moore text formed the basis of the student reading on the subject of French literature. All the selections of French poetry in the Easy French

Readings were read to the class by the instructor. An average of not over fifteen minutes each day was devoted to the teaching of French civilization. The last week of each nine-weeks period was used for review and for taking the test.

All material and tests were presented in English. The four units or sections of the work are arranged in a logical order so that the first sections correlate with the later ones as much as possible.

The first unit deals with the country and people of France. It aims to acquaint the student with certain facts about France: its size, climate, provinces, rivers, colonies, festivals, industries, and the customs and characteristics of its people. These facts should enable the student to orientate himself with reference to the main geographical conditions of the country whose language he is studying, and to obtain some insight as to its people.

The second division presents information concerning French history, treated from the biographical standpoint. The names are arranged in chronological order, and the historical importance of each person is discussed. Among the personages selected were Charlemagne, Saint Louis, Louis XI, François I, Henry IV, Louis XIII, Louis XIV, Louis XV, Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette, Napoleon I, and Napoleon III. The purpose of the biographical matter accompanying each name is to present facts of interest which will also correlate with information received elsewhere.

There is also in the second section a brief history of the French language. The student is shown the Latin influence upon the French

language, and is told about the appearance of French as a distinct language, dating from the Oaths of Strasbourg.

In the third part, French literature is presented briefly. The authors were treated in much the same manner as the historical personages, being listed in chronological order and discussed biographically. Whenever possible, the author was identified with some short, characteristic phrase; for example, the words, "Que sais-je" were used for Montaigne. French literature was divided into the following sections: (1) literature of the Middle Ages, (2) the Renaissance, (3) the seventeenth century, (4) the eighteenth century, (5) the nineteenth century. The nineteenth century was further divided by genres: poetry, novel, and drama.

The main literary movements of the different periods, such as Classicism in the seventeenth century, and Romanticism in the nineteenth were discussed, but usually the writers were treated as individuals. The great amount of material of importance in this field made the selection of authors somewhat difficult and open to question, but choices were made according to the general opinion of various authorities. Consideration was also given to the chance of the student's becoming acquainted with a writer through translations, the cinema, or any other channel. The students were given some idea of French literature through the selections in the Havens and Moore text and by certain short poems which were written on the blackboard and read to the class. For example, the first laisse of the Chanson de Roland was presented in this way.

In the section on literature was included some information about French music and art. The development of the arts was discussed in

connection with the parallel movements in literature. Most of the treatment of art and music comes in the part on the nineteenth century. The choice here was determined by the paintings most likely to be found in America in the original or in reproduction, and music most likely to be heard at concerts, at the cinema, or over the radio.

The fourth and last section, which concerns contemporary France, begins with a continuation to the present day of the material on literature and history. Contemporary writers, composers, and painters are discussed. The history of France since the formation of the Third Republic in 1871 is noted. The government is described and compared wherever possible with that of the United States. The French educational system is presented in its similarity and contrast to our own. The contributions of France in the field of science are outlined here in brief, with special reference to those scientists with whom the student is already familiar such as Louis Pasteur or Madame Curie. This section concludes with a treatment of various phases of French life such as cafés, sports, amusements, and home life.

Each of the following four chapters of the thesis covers one unit of the four into which the cultural matter is organized. At the end of each unit is the instructional test which treats that particular unit. The correct answers have been added to the tests. At the end of the thesis is found an annotated bibliography listing the books which have been studied or consulted in the construction of this work. The bibliography may also be used as a guide to supplementary material on French civilization.

CHAPTER II

UNIT I. THE COUNTRY AND PEOPLE OF FRANCE

The following paragraphs are intended to enumerate some of the more important geographical facts concerning the French nation and to give an idea of the French manner of life.

Size and position. France is about four-fifths the size of the state of Texas and is about 212,000 square miles in area. It is bounded on the north by the English Channel and Belgium; on the east by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea and Spain; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean. The population is approximately 42,000,000.

Climate. France lies in about the same latitude as Newfoundland, but the Gulf Stream and Mediterranean Sea make the climate of much of the country rather mild. Northern France has much precipitation; it is pleasant in summer and has snow and freezing temperatures in winter. The climate of Paris is rather mild without extremes of heat or cold. Southern France resembles Florida in climate, although it has the same degree of latitude as Nova Scotia. The southern part of France is often called the Midi.

Mountains. Mountains often form natural boundaries for France. The wooded Vosges are in Alsace along the German border. the Jura mountains are between France and northern Switzerland. The French Alps are near Italy and contain Mont Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe. The Pyrenees lie

in France and Spain, and are the home of the Basque people, who have different customs and language from either the Spanish or the French.

Rivers and Canals. French waterways are still an important factor in transportation. The Seine, with its tributaries, the Oise and the Marne, connects Paris with the interior and with the English Channel. The Loire, the longest river of France, runs from southeastern France to the western coast. Tours is on the Loire River. The Rhône has its source in a Swiss Glacier near Lake Geneva and empties into the Mediterranean. The Garonne drains the southwestern part of France and opens into an estuary, the Gironde, at Bordeaux. The Rhine flows along the Franco-German border. An extensive system of canals gives France 8,000 miles of navigable waters. The Canal du Midi joins the Mediterranean with the Garonne River.

Provinces. The province was a political division before the French Revolution, but now provinces are of interest mainly because of their traditions. There were formerly thirty-two provinces, and a few of the better-known ones will be mentioned.

Brittany is the section farthest west, extending out into the ocean. It is the most important fishing section of France. A Celtic dialect is spoken in Brittany. The people are noted for their fondness of tradition. The religious pilgrimages in Brittany are famous.

Normandy joins Brittany on the northeast. It was settled by the Norsemen over a thousand years ago. Its old capital is Rouen. Le Havre is its largest seaport. Normandy is an excellent farming and grazing country.

Provence is in the southeastern part of France. The climate is

warm and sunny, and it is here that the Côte d'Azur or Riviera district furnishes Europe its winter playground. Oil, wine, and perfumes are produced in southeastern France.

Alsace and Lorraine are two provinces along the German frontier. They were given to Germany in 1870, but were retaken during the World War. Strasbourg, on the Rhine, is the principal city in Alsace. This region contains the nation's most valuable coal and iron deposits and industries.

Burgundy is located in the eastern central part. Here are the producers of the famous red Burgundy wine. Another important product is mustard. Dijon is the most widely known city of Burgundy.

The Ile-de-France contains Paris and is the nucleus from which the present unified France grew. It received its name from the fact that it is practically surrounded by rivers.

Touraine, lying along the Loire River, is called the garden of France. Its chief city is Tours. Many French châteaux are found in Touraine.

Gascony lies in the southwest part. Its inhabitants are noted as being fun-loving and fond of exaggeration. This is also a wine-producing section.

Départements. The départements are the small administrative sections into which France is at present divided. Including Corsica there are ninety of these. Each is governed by a préfet, appointed by the president of France. A département has less power than one of our American states, because the French government is much more centralized. The département

is subdivided into arrondissements. These are divided into cantons. The smallest administrative unit is the commune.

Cities. The capital of France is Paris, a city of more than 3,000,000 people on the river Seine. It is the largest, most beautiful French city, and is the center of the industrial and cultural life of the nation.

Historically, Paris is of great interest and importance. There was a settlement called Lutèce on the Ile de la Cité in the first century when the Romans conquered Gaul. It has always been the most influential city of France. In the Middle Ages its rulers acquired more and more of the surrounding territory, and thus was built the present French nation.

Paris is considered one of the world's most beautiful cities. While many of its streets are narrow and winding, there is a fine system of through boulevards, dating largely from the time of Napoleon III. The Seine River divides Paris into two parts. On the right bank of the Seine are two famous public squares. One, the Place de l'Etoile, is a point of convergence for twelve streets. The Place de l'Etoile contains the Arc de Triomphe where is the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier. One of the twelve boulevards, the Avenue des Champs-Élysées, leads to the center of the fashionable quarter of Paris, the Place de la Concorde. This is the largest square in Paris. In its center stands an Egyptian obelisk, and two fountains. This obelisk marks the location of the guillotine during the French Revolution. On pedestals around the square are eight stone figures representing the principal French cities. On the left bank of the Seine is the Quartier Latin, largely inhabited by students and artists.

The University of Paris is located there. The school of arts and sciences at the University of Paris is called the Sorbonne.

The Parisian parks are favorite centers for recreation. One of the most famous is the Jardin des Tuileries near the Louvre on the right bank. Another is the Jardin des Plantes, containing a large and interesting collection of botanical and zoological specimens. A third, possibly the most famous, is the Jardin du Luxembourg. It is on the south or left bank of the Seine in the Latin Quarter. The Palais du Luxembourg is now occupied by the French Senate. The Bois de Boulogne is a park at the northwestern edge of Paris.

Paris has four important theaters subsidized in part by the government. They are the Opéra, the Opéra Comique, the Comédie Française (or Théâtre Français), and the Odéon. Each specializes in a certain type of production. Among the many commercial theaters, the Folies Bergères, the Théâtre Sarah Bernhardt, and the Grand Guignol might be mentioned.

The churches of Paris are excellent examples of beautiful architecture. The cathedral of Notre-Dame de Paris was built in the Middle Ages on the Ile de la Cité. The Sainte Chapelle, famous for its stained glass windows, was built by Saint Louis in the thirteenth century to house the relics of Christ's crucifixion. The church of La Madeleine was built by Napoleon I.

The Louvre is the largest and best known museum. It has been successively a fortress, a prison, a palace, and is at present a vast art gallery of paintings and statuary. The work of living painters is not admitted. The museum of the Luxembourg contains contemporary paintings

selected by the government. The Cluny Museum is a former monastery built on the site of a Roman bath. It contains objets d'art.

The Tour Eiffel is a high steel structure built for the World's Fair of 1887. It affords a perspective view of Paris and is important as a radio sending station.

The cheapest and quickest means of transportation in Paris is the Métro or subway. Other means of transportation are the tramway, the auto-bus, and the taxi.

Nine other cities may be mentioned. Marseille, with a population of over 900,000 is the second largest city in France. It was a Greek port in 600 B.C. and is today a great shipping center. It is called the cross-road of the world because of its position on the Mediterranean. Next in size is Lyon, a city of 570,000 population specializing in silk products and the manufacture of automobiles. It is located on the Rhône river. Bordeaux is the fourth largest city with a population of 258,000. It is a shipping center and is especially noted for wine export. Le Havre, at the mouth of the Seine, is an important seaport and commercial center. Its Norman inhabitants are very picturesque. Rouen, on the Seine north-west of Paris, contains a beautiful Gothic cathedral, and was the scene of the death of Jeanne d'Arc. Reims, northeast of Paris, is the site of another cathedral where the kings of France formerly were crowned. It was badly damaged in the World War, but has been rebuilt. Reims is also the champagne center of France. Nice is a city of flowers on the Mediterranean at the southeastern tip of France. It is the largest winter resort on the Côte d'Azur. Lille in Flanders, the northern part, has long

been the site of extensive textile factories, famous for the quality of their products. Located there is the university where Pasteur made many of his great discoveries. Dijon is located in the great vineyard section of Burgundy. Dijon is also noted as the site of a university, and as being a city of fine architecture, paintings, and sculpture.

Colonies. France has a large colonial empire, second only to that of Great Britain. Her colonies are extensive in Africa where she controls most of the northern coast countries: Morocco, Algeria, and Tunisia. She governs a large part of the African interior, including the Sahara Desert. France owns the island of Madagascar off the southeastern coast of Africa. This island is about the size of France herself, and is very rich and valuable. In the Orient France rules most of Indo China and has several Indian cities. She owns islands all over the world along her trade routes. French Guiana, in South America, is the site of the penal colony of Devil's Island. The population of her colonies is over 60,000,000, and her African possessions alone are larger in area than the United States. The African colonies furnish tropical products including sugar, coffee, rice, and cotton. Indo China produces rice, silk, and valuable woods.

Money and stamps. The French monetary unit is the franc, which is the equivalent of one hundred centimes. A coin of five centimes is spoken of as a sou. In terms of United States money the franc is worth .0268 cents (November first, 1938). The postal system in France is a government monopoly, and the privilege of selling stamps is leased to certain cafés and tobacco shops.

Metric System. The decimal or metric system of weights and measures

is used in France. The meter (39.37 inches), the liter (a little over a quart), and the kilogram (2.2 pounds), are the units. A kilometer equals one thousand meters and is about five-eighths of a mile.

Flag. The French tricolor was the work of La Fayette in the first days of the French Revolution. He joined the colors of Paris, blue and red, to the white banner of the Bourbon kings. The blue section stands next to the flagpole.

Industries and products. France is chiefly an agricultural country, and the main rural products are wheat, potatoes, sugar beets, fruits, wine, wool and flax. Fishing is an important industry in all the coastal sections. The main minerals are coal and iron. The position of mineral deposits causes mining and smelting centers to be located in the East and Northwest at such cities as Nancy and Strasbourg. There is manufacturing in all the larger cities. The main products are machinery, textiles, perfumes and other products of luxury such as the fashion designs of Paris. The colonies furnish a valuable amount of such raw materials as cotton, rubber, oil and silk.

Village and farm life. French farms are small and well kept. Many peasants live in villages and work on the surrounding land. The villages are picturesque and usually contain a central square. This serves as a market place and the center of fairs and social life. The houses, especially in Normandy, often have thatched roofs, covered with flowers in warm seasons. Most buildings are of stone. There is less farming with machinery than in the United States.

French festivals and holidays. The French celebrate many holidays

and festivals. January first, le Jour de l'An, is a day to visit friends, reward servants, and exchange cards. January 6 is le Jour des Rois. Whoever finds a hidden porcelain doll in his piece of cake is king of the family celebration. Mardi-Gras is a festival the Tuesday preceding Lent. Easter is called Pâques and is a religious festival celebrated much as it is in the United States. The first of April, called le Poisson d'avril is a day for tricks and pranks. July 14 is la Pête nationale, the anniversary of the Fall of the Bastille. November first, la Toussaint, is a day for visiting cemeteries. December 6 is la Saint Nicolas when the patron saint leaves presents in the shoes of the good children. This holiday is especially celebrated in northern France. Christmas is called le Jour de Noël, and there are different ways of celebrating it in various provinces.

Characteristics of the people. The average Frenchman is said to be thrifty and industrious, cheerful and courteous, home-loving, well-informed politically, and socially inclined. He is patriotic and proud of the long and famous history of his patrie. The peasants love their land and take great pride in their work. This same pride is characteristic of the craftsmen in the towns who do a fine quality of handiwork. The women are the rulers in the home. They are the partners of their husbands in their business, but do not ordinarily follow careers. They take little interest in politics and do not have the right to vote.

Test

The Country and People of France

Part I

Directions: Write the answer to each question on the line at the left of the number.

- Pyrenees..... 1. What mountains separate France and Spain?
- Mont. Blanc..... 2. Name the highest mountain in Europe.
- Brittany..... 3. Name the French province most noted for the fishing industry.
- Préfet..... 4. What title is given the chief officer of a French département?
- Blue, white, and red..... 5. What colors are used in the French flag?
- metric..... 6. What system of measures is used in France?
- more..... 7. Is the kilogram more or less than a pound?
- more..... 8. Is a meter more or less than a yard?
- no..... 9. Do French women have the right to vote?
- Sorbonne..... 10. What name is given to the school of letters and sciences at the University of Paris?
- Seine..... 11. What river divides the city of Paris?
- Arc de Triomphe..... 12. Where is the tomb of the Unknown Soldier in Paris?
- Louvre..... 13. Name the largest and best-known Parisian art museum.
- métro..... 14. What is the subway in Paris called?
- July 14..... 15. When is the French holiday to celebrate the fall of the Bastille?
- Pâques..... 16. What is the French name for Easter?
- Noël..... 17. What is the French name for Christmas?
- Mardi-Gras..... 18. What is the name of the holiday preceding Lent?

- Mediterranean...19. Into what body of water does the Rhône river empty?
 Garonne.....20. On what river is Bordeaux located?
 Rhône.....21. On what river is Lyon located?
 Rhine.....22. What river separates France from Germany?
 Touraine.....23. What province is called the garden of France?
 smaller.....24. Is France larger or smaller than Texas?
 more.....25. Is the French national government more or less centralized than ours?

Part II

Directions: From Column II select the answer to each item of Column I and write the number of the answer in the parenthesis at the left of the item. The answers of one section may be matched with the items of the same section only.

Column I

Column II

- | | |
|--|---------------------------|
| (15) 26. What Frenchman is given credit for forming the present French flag? | 1. Ile-de-France |
| (12) 27. What French city is a port of entry for boats from the United States? | 2. Ile de la Cité |
| (10) 28. What French cathedral was partially destroyed during the World War? | 3. Nice |
| (5) 29. What city is especially noted for its silk industry? | 4. Champs-Élysées |
| (2) 30. In what section of Paris is the cathedral of Notre-Dame located? | 5. Lyon |
| (1) 31. What is the name of the province in which Paris is located? | 6. Orléans |
| (4) 32. Name one important avenue of Paris | 7. Foch |
| (6) 33. Name one of the state-subsidized theatres in Paris. | 8. Place de la République |
| (9) 34. What is the largest public square in Paris? | 9. Place de la Concorde |
| | 10. Reims |
| | 11. Lutèce |
| | 12. Le Havre |

- (11) 35. What was the name of Paris when the Romans first came there? 13. Hôtel des Invalides
- (14) 36. What part of Paris contains many educational institutions? 14. Quartier Latin
- (17) 37. What tower was built for the World's Fair in 1887? 15. La Fayette
16. Montparnasse
17. Eiffel

Column I

Column II

- (17) 38. Name an important French colony in Africa. 1. Brittany
- (3) 39. Name the resort district along the coast of southern France. 2. Alsace
3. Riviera
- (2) 40. Name a province retaken from Germany after the World War. 4. Gascony
- (5) 41. Which province contains Rouen and Le Havre? 5. Normandy
- (4) 42. Name an important province in southwestern France. 6. Sicily
7. Basque
- (16) 43. What large island, east of Africa, is a French possession? 8. Gironde
- (14) 44. What are the mountains in Alsace called? 9. Jura
- (9) 45. What mountains separate France and northern Switzerland? 10. Garonne
- (7) 46. What people living in the Pyrenees have a language and customs distinct from the French? 11. Seine
12. Loire
- (11) 47. What river empties into the English Channel? 13. Rhône
14. Vosges
- (8) 48. What is the estuary into which the Garonne River empties? 15. Midi
- (12) 49. On what river is Tours located? 16. Madagascar
- (15) 50. What name is frequently given the southern part of France? 17. Algeria

Part III

Directions: Place the number of the part which makes the best answer to the statement in the parenthesis before the statement.

(3) Paris is in: 1. Germany. 2. England. 3. France.

In this sample, "France" is the correct answer. The number of the word "France" is 3. The figure 3 has been placed in the parenthesis.

(1) 51. The approximate population of France is: 1. 40,000,000.
2. 60,000,000. 3. 25,000,000.

(1) 52. The approximate population of Paris is: 1. 3,000,000.
2. 5,000,000. 3. 1,500,000.

(3) 53. The total number of départements is: 1. 24. 2. 70. 3. 90.

(1) 54. The principal cause of the mildness of the French climate is:
1. the Gulf Stream. 2. the latitude. 3. the humidity.

(2) 55. The largest seaport town of France is: 1. Rouen. 2. Marseille.
3. Brest.

(2) 56. The second largest city of France is: 1. Lyon. 2. Marseille.
3. Bordeaux.

(1) 57. Marseille is located on the: 1. Mediterranean. 2. Rhône.
3. Atlantic.

(2) 58. A city on the Garonne is: 1. Lille. 2. Bordeaux. 3. Dijon.

(2) 59. The Canal du Midi connects the: 1. Seine and Loire. 2. Garonne and Mediterranean. 3. Seine and North Sea.

(2) 60. The French kings formerly were crowned in the cathedral at:
1. Paris. 2. Reims. 3. Rouen.

(1) 61. The city in which Jeanne d'Arc was burned at the stake is:
1. Rouen. 2. Le Havre. 3. Orléans.

(3) 62. Dijon is the principal city of: 1. Brittany. 2. Lorraine.
3. Burgundy.

(3) 63. A city important for wine export is: 1. Le Havre. 2. Rouen.
3. Bordeaux.

(1) 64. A city noted as a winter resort is: 1. Nice. 2. Reims.
3. Nancy.

- (2) 65. A city in Flanders noted for textile products is: 1. Dijon.
2. Lille. 3. Le Havre.
- (1) 66. The most important industry of Lyon is: 1. manufacture of silk. 2. fishing. 3. pottery.
- (1) 67. An important product of Burgundy is: 1. wine. 2. fish.
3. perfume.
- (2) 68. The main occupation of French peasants is: 1. manufacturing.
2. farming. 3. fishing.
- (1) 69. French industry as a whole is best noted for: 1. quality production. 2. quantity production.
- (1) 70. An important agricultural product of France is: 1. wheat.
2. corn. 3. oats.
- (2) 71. A valuable product imported by France from her colonies is:
1. wine. 2. rubber. 3. perfume.
- (2) 72. Olive oil is an important product of: 1. Brittany.
2. Provence. 3. Flanders.
- (1) 73. One land which belongs to France is: 1. Indo China. 2. Quebec.
3. Egypt.
- (2) 74. The population of France's colonies is approximately:
1. 25,000,000. 2. 60,000,000. 3. 40,000,000.
- (2) 75. France owns several cities in: 1. Egypt. 2. India. 3. Australia.
- (1) 76. The Parisian museum that contains principally objets d'art is
the: 1. Cluny. 2. Louvre. 3. Sainte Chapelle.
- (3) 77. A museum which specializes in contemporary art is the:
1. Louvre. 2. Cluny. 3. Luxembourg.
- (1) 78. One of the commercial theaters in Paris is the: 1. Sarah
Bernhardt. 2. Cluny. 3. Opéra.
- (3) 79. Another name for the Comédie Française is the: 1. Opéra.
2. Odéon. 3. Théâtre Français.
- (3) 80. The former site of the guillotine in Paris is marked by the:
Tour Eiffel. 2. Arc de Triomphe. 3. Egyptian obelisk.
- (2) 81. The finest stained glass in Paris is found at: 1. L'Arc de
Triomphe. 2. Sainte Chapelle. 3. Luxembourg.

- (1) 82. A public park in Paris frequented by the students of the Latin Quarter is named: 1. Luxembourg. 2. Fontainebleau. 3. Montmartre.
- (2) 83. The botanical gardens of Paris are called: 1. Tuileries. 2. Jardin des Plantes. 3. Riviera.
- (2) 84. The Tour Eiffel is used as a: 1. fortress. 2. radio station. 3. mooring mast for balloons.
- (1) 85. In the center of the Place de l'Etoile is found the: 1. Arc de Triomphe. 2. Tour Eiffel. 3. Egyptian obelisk.
- (1) 86. A famous Parisian church is: 1. La Madeleine. 2. Cluny. 3. Odéon.
- (2) 87. Mont Blanc is in the: 1. Pyrenees. 2. Alps. 3. Vosges.
- (3) 88. A Celtic dialect is spoken by the peasants of: 1. Alsace. 2. Burgundy. 3. Brittany.
- (1) 89. The approximate length of the kilometer is: 1. five-eighths of a mile. 2. one-half mile. 3. two and one-half miles.
- (1) 90. The franc is worth in American money about: 1. 3 cents. 2. 10 cents. 3. 20 cents.
- (3) 91. The sou is: 1. 2 francs. 2. 50 centimes. 3. 5 centimes.
- (1) 92. The franc is equal to: 1. 100 centimes. 2. 10 centimes. 3. 25 centimes.
- (1) 93. A liter is a unit of measure about the same as a: 1. quart. 2. gallon. 3. bushel.
- (2) 94. A holiday on which cemeteries are visited is: 1. Le Jour de l'An. 2. La Toussaint. 3. La Saint Nicolas.
- (1) 95. The French New Year's Day is called: 1. Poisson d'avril. 2. Le Jour des Rois. 3. Le Jour de l'An.
- (1) 96. Many French houses are built of: 1. stone. 2. wood. 3. adobe.
- (3) 97. The mineral for which Lorraine is noted is: 1. lead. 2. oil. 3. iron.
- (2) 98. The largest administrative division of the French nation is the: 1. province. 2. département. 3. arrondissement.
- (1) 99. One of the smallest divisions of a département is a: 1. commune. 2. province. 3. county.
- (1) 100. One subdivision of a département is called the: 1. arrondissement. 2. stat. 3. quartier.

CHAPTER III

UNIT II. THE HISTORY OF FRANCE

Origins. France was called Gaul at the time of the Roman invasion in the first century B.C. The inhabitants were of varied origin. Iberians from the Spanish peninsula had settled in the southwestern part. Other Mediterranean tribes filled the southern section. The dominant people, however, were the Celts who had come from the North and East, establishing their religion and a new culture. The Druids were their priests, and led them in a kind of nature worship. This involved certain sacred rites, and from their custom of cutting the sacred mistletoe with golden sickles are derived some of our own Christmas traditions.

Development of the language. The evolution of the French language began at the time of Caesar's Gallic Wars. The Celtic language and the Basque language of the Iberians have left very little influence, affecting mostly proper names. For example, the name of the French royal family of Bourbons comes from the Celtic name, Bourbo, the river god. The later invasions of the Germanic Franks had more influence, but the real basis for the present language was the folk Latin spoken by the Roman soldiers and settlers in Gaul. Twenty centuries of usage have modified and transformed the pronunciation and spelling. Letters and sounds have been dropped, added, or changed to make a distinct language noted for its beauty and clarity.

The small amount of writing during the Middle Ages is responsible for many of the changes which have occurred. The first French document

is the Oaths of Strasbourg, an oath of fidelity sworn by two kings, grandsons of Charlemagne, in 842. It shows the tendency of the folk Latin to develop into the language which is today called French.

Certain provincial dialects preserve today the usage of centuries ago, notably the Celtic spoken in Brittany and the Provençal of the Midi. The Breton dialect is a remnant of the language spoken by the Celts who migrated into Brittany from England in the early Middle Ages.

Vercingetorix. In the first century B.C., Julius Caesar brought his army into Gaul to conquer it for the Romans. The Gauls were not well organized and there was little resistance until one young leader, Vercingetorix, mustered a large army and nearly drove Caesar out. However, his experience and the discipline of his army were inferior to Caesar's, and he was forced to surrender in 58 B.C. Thousands of Gauls were killed, and the country became a Roman province. Vercingetorix was taken prisoner and held captive in Rome where eventually he was beheaded.

The country soon adopted the language and customs of the Romans. But foreign tribes continued to invade and settle Gaul, largely because of the agreeable climate and the fertile soil. In the fourth century A.D., the Franks, members of a Teutonic tribe from the North, began to conquer Gaul. From them comes the present name of the country.

Sainte Geneviève. Paris was a flourishing city in the fifth century, when a warlike Asiatic race of Huns under Attila, "the Scourge of God," invaded the land. This army came so near as to threaten Paris, and the inhabitants were in terror. However, a young shepherdess calmed them with the assurance that God would save Paris. Then Attila did change his

direction and went to Orleans where his siege was soon lifted by a united army of Gauls and Franks. The Huns were permanently ejected in the battle of Châlons. The young shepherdess is known today as Sainte Geneviève, the patron saint of Paris.

Clovis. The king of the Franks during the invasion of the Huns was Mérovée, and the rulers who were his descendants are known as Merovingians. One of these in the late fifth century was Clovis. He married a Christian princess and once, in a battle, he vowed to embrace her religion if he won. Victorious, he made Catholic Christianity the state religion. Since Clovis was baptized in the church at Reims, the French kings after that time were crowned in the Cathedral of Reims. Under Clovis the Frankish empire was much enlarged. After his reign, however, the kingdom declined in strength under weak rulers.

Charles Martel. In succeeding centuries the Merovingian kings were so ineffective that they earned the title of "Rois fainéants." The actual governing was done by an official, the Maire du palais. In the eighth century the Saracens, a warlike people of African Mohammedans or Moors, invaded France. The Maire du palais, whose name was Charles, led the defense and in the Battle of Poitiers (732), he defeated the Moors. It is said that this battle saved Europe for Christianity. Charles was given the name of martel or hammer. Charles Martel's son, Pepin le Bref, succeeded in overthrowing the Merovingian line of kings and became the first king of the Carolingian line.

Charlemagne. The son of Pepin was the greatest king of the Franks. He was called Charlemagne or Charles the Great. He was a wise ruler and

was crowned by the Pope as Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in 800. He led wars against the Moors in Spain and won fame as a warrior, inspiring the famous French epic, La Chanson de Roland.

Charlemagne also concerned himself with the welfare of his subjects. He gave a great impetus to education and, although he could not read nor write when he became emperor, he founded schools for instruction in Latin throughout his kingdom. He also made the churches more enjoyable and helpful to all people, including the peasants. His enlightened and humane administration ended with his death in 814.

Charlemagne's successors divided and weakened the empire. In the middle of the ninth century the invasions of the Norsemen began. The weak Carolingians finally gave them the northeastern section of the kingdom, which was called Normandy. William, Duke of Normandy, conquered England in 1066.

The weakness of the royal power caused the development of feudalism. The nobles lived in strongly fortified châteaux and had absolute power over the peasants who tilled the land as serfs.

Louis IX. Louis IX, called Saint Louis, who ruled in the thirteenth century, was the most noted of the Capetian kings. The founder of this line was Hugues Capet who was elected king by some nobles in 987. Saint Louis was noted for his justice and sympathy toward his subjects, both rich and poor. During his rule many churches and cathedrals were built, and there was a medieval Renaissance of learning during his reign.

Saint Louis participated in the Crusades directed against the Mohammedans who controlled the Holy Land. The name Crusades comes from

the symbol of the cross worn by the chevaliers going on these Crusades. Saint Louis was taken prisoner by the Turks on his first expedition in 1248, and allowed to return to France only after the payment of a large ransom. He brought back many Christian relics. These are now kept in the Sainte Chapelle, a shrine on the Ile de la Cité built under his direction. King Louis made a second unfortunate expedition and died in Tunis of the plague.

Jeanne d'Arc. The era following that of Louis IX was one of almost constant warfare. There was civil war among the nobles, and invasion by the English. The English kings claimed the French crown at this time. Since there was no strong government nor well-trained army in France, the foreign soldiers took control of the land, plundering and taxing the people. This situation existed in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. In the beginning of the latter period the uncrowned dauphin was Charles, later known as Charles VII. He seemed powerless to win back his kingdom, and lived in disgrace in his little court at Chinon. In 1429 Jeanne d'Arc, a peasant girl from Lorraine, came to Charles' court. She claimed to have seen visions in which saints had informed her that God wished her to lead an army and have the king crowned. Finally she obtained the consent of Charles and personally led an army against the English. Her courage, coupled with the belief that she was acting under divine assistance, had a great moral effect on the soldiers. She was able to lift the siege at Orleans. Her army increased as the spirit of patriotism spread. She was able to conduct the king to Reims where he was crowned Charles VII in the famous cathedral where many kings had been crowned before.

The remarkable career of Jeanne d'Arc ended tragically. She was captured by the English, imprisoned for awhile, and tried as a witch. Eager for revenge, the English condemned her regardless of evidence. She was burned at the stake at Rouen in 1431. She is the greatest French heroine, and her memory is honored to the present day. In recent years she has been canonized as a saint by the Roman Catholic Church.

Louis XI. The successor to Charles VII was Louis XI. He was eccentric, absolute in power, cruel to his enemies, and one of the craftiest of French statesmen. He was ugly and deformed but had much personal charm. Louis XI trusted the bourgeois more than the nobles, and, since he hated court life, he spent much time traveling about with little ceremony, visiting his subjects. He came to the throne in 1461 and managed to crush one by one the powerful rival barons, such as the Duke of Burgundy, who had caused so much civil strife.

Louis XI was more adept at playing clever politics than in making war. While he gained so much land for his kingdom that he is often called The Founder of the National Unity, he accomplished it by trickery, political marriages, and bargaining rather than by force. His annexation of Burgundy on the death of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, was one of his most important additions.

Francois I. The two kings succeeding Louis XI continued his policy of expansion. Brittany was added to the kingdom by the marriage of the Duchess of Brittany to the King of France. The next king, Francois I, ruled from 1516 to 1547. At this time the great intellectual reawakening of the Renaissance was at its height.

In his military campaigns, François I was not fortunate. He was captured in Italy by Charles V, Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire, and was held prisoner a year in Spain, although he suffered more humiliation than physical discomfort.

François I was a gentleman of fine taste and a love for beauty. When he saw the splendid examples of architecture, sculpture, painting, literature and all other forms of culture which were flourishing in Italy, he wanted to introduce them into his own land. He brought back to France some of the great artists, including Leonardo da Vinci and Benvenuto Cellini. Examples of the arts were imported to encourage French talent. His most important accomplishment was the bringing of the New Learning of the Renaissance to his kingdom. Many of the most beautiful French châteaux were built during his reign.

Henry IV. The rulers following François I were troubled by the bloody religious wars of the Huguenots or Protestants and the Catholics. Under the influence of the ruthless queen Catherine de Médicis, her son Charles IX permitted the massacre of Saint Bartholomew's Day in 1572. The resulting civil wars led to the assassination of the heirs to the throne until Henry of Navarre, a Huguenot, was next in line.

The Catholic element of France would not accept the new king, and he resolved to become king by conquest. He was quite successful, but when he saw that the unyielding citizens of Paris were starving under his siege, he became the Catholic sovereign under the name of Henry IV. The celebrated words, "Paris vaut bien une messe," are attributed to him.

Henry IV ruled from 1589 to 1610 and was one of the best French kings. He was able to reconcile the religious factions, and with the famous Edict of Nantes in 1598 he made Protestants the equals of Catholics in all civil affairs. Furthermore, he unified and strengthened the nation by eliminating for a time the wars with Spain and with England. At home, he was instrumental in establishing a good financial system, and he aided the improvement of agriculture. Henry IV befriended the peasants by reorganizing taxes, building better roads, and encouraging industry and commerce. Much of the credit for these improvements should also be given to Henry's minister, the Duc de Sully.

It was during the reign of Henry IV that Canada was settled by the French, although Jacques Cartier had explored the Saint Lawrence River as early as 1534. Quebec was founded by Champlain in 1608. Later, during the reign of Louis XIV, La Salle explored to the mouth of the Mississippi River.

Henry IV was assassinated by a Catholic fanatic in 1610. He was the first in the line of Bourbon kings who ruled France for two hundred years.

Louis XIII and Cardinal Richelieu. The power of France declined for several years after 1610, while under the control of a child king and an incompetent Queen Regent, Marie de Médicis. No one had a strong control of the government until the able Cardinal Richelieu became minister in 1622.

Richelieu dominated Louis XIII so that he controlled all policies of the government. He entered countless intrigues and plots to accomplish his ends. First, he brought about the subjugation of the Huguenots by

leading personally a siege against them in their stronghold at La Rochelle. Then, by allowing them privileges, he made the Huguenots his allies for breaking the power of the strong Catholic nobles and bringing absolute control into his own hands.

Richelieu's rule comes at the time of the Thirty Years' War in Europe. He plunged into a wonderful game of international politics. He tricked all the surrounding nations: England, Spain, Austria, Prussia, and Sweden; he played one against another and betrayed all. By the end of this European struggle, France was the strongest nation in all Europe.

In spite of his crafty, tricky methods, Richelieu was a good ruler. He brought order from political chaos and fostered reform in finance and legislation. He abolished the practice of dueling. He strengthened educational institutions, and encouraged literature and art. He founded the French Academy of forty members to honor writers, and laid the foundation for French supremacy in cultural matters.

Louis XIV and the Golden Age of France (1643-1715). Richelieu died in 1642 only a few months before the death of Louis XIII. He had built up the nation to a point where it was ready for its highest monarchical epoch. Louis XIV inherited the throne at the age of five. During his minority the government was controlled by his mother, Anne d'Autriche, and another wily cardinal, Mazarin. This administrator managed to conclude some of the policies of Richelieu although he robbed the French treasury for his own personal fortune. Mazarin died in 1661. By this time the new king was twenty-two years old, handsome, with all the elegance of a kingly appearance. He resolved to rule without the aid of prime ministers and cardinals.

During the reign of le roi soleil literature, art and culture in general rose to great heights. Louis XIV built a huge expensive palace at Versailles and surrounded himself with all the highest nobles, the best writers and artists, and the most extravagant luxuries possible at that time. The Age of Louis XIV is known today as the Classic or Golden Age of French literature and art. The court and language of France served as the model for the other courts of Europe.

Outside of Versailles a contrast existed. The extravagant court was causing a great financial burden. Colbert, the famous minister of finance of this time, did his best to enforce reforms and emergency measures. He wished to establish the country's credit by building up industry, trade and colonies. But Colbert received little thanks for his troubles; he could not stop the extravagance of the court, and he died in disgrace.

Louis XIV was successful in making himself an absolute ruler. As he advanced in age he became more religious and decided that all his subjects should become Catholic like himself. In 1685 he revoked the Edict of Nantes. An outstanding result of this action was the permanent exodus of over 200,000 of his most intelligent subjects, a great loss to the nation.

The monarch had territorial ambitions inspired by the work of Richelieu, but lacked the other's finesse. In a series of more or less absurd wars, notably the bloody War of the Spanish Succession, he gained a very little territory (Strasbourg, Flanders) and lost much of the

prestige of France, ruining her finances. Louis XIV died in 1715, repentant of his extravagance and militarism.

It has been said that France was in her prime under Louis XIV, but grew old with him. The period ends with the domination of England in world affairs, and the beginning of unrest in France, preparing the climax to come in the Revolution at the end of the century.

Louis XV (1715-74). The successor to Louis XIV was an incompetent libertine king who seemed to realize that the nation was disintegrating, and who only hoped that it would last during his own reign. His mistress, Madame de Pompadour, exercised much influence in state affairs. The country was practically bankrupt and the financial schemes of John Law did not help this condition. More European wars, and the French and Indian Wars in America drained the treasury and lost to England the rich colonies of Canada and India. Tyrannical measures were used to keep down opposition. Lettres de cachet were used by the nobles to imprison their enemies without any trial or hearing. Louis XV died in 1774, leaving his successor an unwanted problem and the fulfillment of a prophecy made in his court, "Après nous, le déluge."

Louis XVI and Marie Antoinette (1774-93). The Revolution (1789-1804). The new king, Louis XVI, was not the immoral nor wicked type that some of his ancestors had been; he was merely stupid and incompetent. His queen, Marie Antoinette of Austria, loved pleasure and was not concerned with the welfare of the nation. Louis was dominated in turn by various groups of nobles, free-thinkers, and clergy; however, he was in reality powerless.

Meanwhile the masses of people were being educated by the liberal thinking of such influential men as Voltaire and Rousseau. They were realizing more and more how bad their plight was.

All attempts to refinance the country failed. This was due to the fact that nothing could be accomplished without abolishing or reducing the privileges of the nobles. Participation in the American Revolution completed the bankruptcy of the nation. Able ministers such as Turgot and Necker were not permitted enough power to do anything constructive. A famine due to crop failure swept the country, and in 1789, on July 14, the people of Paris broke open the Bastille, a prison which had become the symbol of intolerance to them. The whole monarchical system fell in the next few years, and the king and queen were guillotined in 1793.

An immediate result of the Revolution was the Reign of Terror, 1793-94. The dictator of the new Republic, Robespierre, caused priests, nobles, and members of the opposition to be guillotined in large numbers. Within less than a year, however, Robespierre was overthrown and the Reign of Terror ceased. The country was yet unused to ruling itself, and all was in a turmoil. Also, the neighboring kings viewed with concern the death of Louis XVI, and were preparing to invade France and restore a Bourbon monarch.

Napoleon Bonaparte (1796-1815). With the nobles and clergy dispossessed and the government in disorder, the nation was ready for the advent of Napoleon Bonaparte, the military genius. Napoleon was born in Corsica and educated in France. Beginning by suppressing a Royalist uprising, he soon had complete control of the army and had won the applause

of the people. He was made absolute head of the government in 1799 with the title of First Consul.

As an army commander, Napoleon was one of the greatest. In planning, discipline, and manoeuvres he ranks among the highest in all history. Soon he had defeated Austria, Germany, and Italy. There was then little danger of attack by England. In 1804 he was made the first head of a new hereditary empire with the title of Napoleon I.

Napoleon further proved his ability by his wise home rule. He formed the present arrondissement divisions for local government. He restored the financial system and established the Bank of France. He formulated the Napoleonic Code of Laws, called the Code civil, which is used in France today and which effected a great simplification of legal procedure. He formed the Concordat with the pope whereby Catholicism was restored as the state religion of France. The educational system was unified. France was becoming settled for the first time since the Revolution.

However, Napoleon's ambition would not allow him a quiet reign at home. He wished to break the power of England. To secure money for his campaigns he sold Louisiana to the United States in 1803. From 1805 to 1814 he won many victories and controlled nearly all of the European continent. Then coalitions were formed, and England defeated the French navy. Napoleon's Russian campaign failed in 1812, and he was forced to abdicate in 1814. He was then sent to the island of Elba. He escaped, and in a desperate attempt to regain his power he led his army for the last time at Waterloo in 1815. He was defeated by the superior numbers

of the English under General Wellington. Napoleon was captured and imprisoned on the island of Saint Helena where he died in 1821.

The Restoration and the Second Empire (1815-70). After the Empire, the Bourbons were brought back to head a constitutional monarchy. From 1815 to 1848 there were three kings: Louis XVIII, Charles X, and Louis-Philippe. The last was finally sent into exile in 1848. The people could no longer be ruled by reactionary, traditional nobles. A new republic of short duration followed. The head of this government was Louis-Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon I. Taking advantage of the glory of his name, he formed the Second Empire by a coup d'état in 1852. At first all was well, but as soon as troubles came up, his incompetence became visible. He made great international blunders, being neither diplomat nor militarist. When the Prussian Army invaded France in 1870, he could do nothing but surrender. Paris was entered, and France humiliated and defeated. Alsace and part of Lorraine were taken by the Prussians.

In 1871 the Third Republic was formed. The rapid recovery of the nation from bankruptcy and ruin to prosperity and prestige was remarkable. It is perhaps the most democratic nation in the world today.

A Test

The History of France

Part I

Directions: Write the answer to each question on the line at the left of the number.

- Latin..... 1. What language formed the basis for the French tongue?
- Gaul..... 2. What was France called at the time of the Roman invasion?
- Druids..... 3. What were the Celtic priests called?
- Julius Caesar..... 4. Name the Roman general who conquered the country now called France.
- Vercingetorix..... 5. What leader of the Gauls was defeated and captured by Julius Caesar?
- Gauls or Celts..... 6. Who were the dominant people living in France at the time of the Roman invasion?
- Franks..... 7. From what Teutonic tribe does France get its name?
- Sainte Geneviève..... 8. Who is the patron saint of Paris?
- Attila..... 9. Name the leader of the Huns who invaded France in the fifth century.
- Clovis..... 10. Under what king did Christianity become the state religion?
- Charlemagne..... 11. Who was made the emperor of the Holy Roman Empire in the year 800?
- Oaths of Strasbourg..... 12. What is the oldest document showing the beginning of the French language?
- eleventh..... 13. In what century was the Norman conquest of England?
- Louis IX..... 14. Which French king was noted as a Crusader?
- thirteenth..... 15. In what century did Louis IX rule?
- England..... 16. What nation was the main enemy of France during the Hundred Years' War?
- fifteenth..... 17. In what century did Jeanne d'Arc live?

- François I18. Who was the French king at the time of the Renaissance?
 sixteenth19. What was the century of the Renaissance in France?
- Italy20. What country was the inspiration for the French Renaissance?
- Huguenots21. What name was given to French Protestants, especially
 during the sixteenth century?
- Religious
 equality22. What privilege was granted by the Edict of Nantes?
- Henry IV23. Who was the first Bourbon king of France?
- Richelieu24. Who was the Prime Minister under Louis XIII?
- Mazarin25. What cardinal ruled France during the minority of Louis XIV?
- Louis XIV26. Who was the French king who built the palace at Versailles?
- Colbert27. Who was Louis XIV's famous minister of finance?
- Louis XIV28. Who was called le roi soleil?
- Louis XV29. What king is credited with the saying, "Après nous,
 le déluge"?
- Louis XVI30. What king was guillotined during the French Revolution?
- Marie
 Antoinette31. Who was queen of France during the Revolution?
- 178932. In what year was the Fall of the Bastille?
- Corsica33. On what island was Napoleon I born?
- Waterloo34. What battle marked Napoleon I's final downfall?
- 181535. What was the year of Napoleon's final defeat?
- Napoleon I36. What French ruler sold Louisiana to the United States?
- Code civil37. What legal document compiled by Napoleon I is used in
 France today?
- Wellington38. Who was the English General who defeated Napoleon I?
- Napoleon III39. Who was the ruler during the Second Empire?
- 187040. In what year did the Franco-Prussian War begin?

Part II

Directions: From Column II select the answer to each item of Column I and write the number of the answer in the parenthesis at the left of the item. The answers of one section may be matched with the items of the same section only.

Column I

- (5) 41. Who saved France from the Moors at the battle of Poitiers?
- (4) 42. Name an important Merovingian king.
- (8) 43. Who started the line of kings which succeeded the Carolingians?
- (9) 44. What king brought to France the sacred relics kept at the Sainte Chapelle?
- (2) 45. To what king did Jeanne d'Arc restore the kingdom and power?
- (10) 46. What king, noted for his craftiness, is called the Founder of the National Unity?
- (6) 47. What French king in the sixteenth century was held captive by the King of Spain?
- (20) 48. Who was the Prime Minister under Henry IV?
- (7) 49. What king said, "Paris vaut bien une messe"?
- (12) 50. Who was the King of France during the Classic or Golden Age?
- (13) 51. During whose reign did England secure control of Canada?
- (14) 52. Who was King of France during the American Revolution?
- (19) 53. Who was the virtual dictator of France during the Reign of Terror?
- (16) 54. Who restored Catholicism as the state religion after the Revolution?
- (17) 55. Who ruled France during the Second Empire?

Column II

1. Charlemagne
2. Charles VII
3. Charles X
4. Clovis
5. Charles Martel
6. Francois I
7. Henry IV
8. Hugues Capet
9. Louis IX
10. Louis XI
11. Louis XIII
12. Louis XIV
13. Louis XV
14. Louis XVI
15. Mazarin
16. Napoleon I
17. Napoleon III
18. Pepin
19. Robespierre
20. Sully

Column I

Column II

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| (4) 56. What province was settled by the Celts who migrated from England in the early Middle Ages? | 1. Avignon |
| (9) 57. Where was Jeanne d'Arc born? | 2. Austria |
| (5) 58. At what castle did Jeanne d'Arc first meet the King? | 3. Burgundy |
| (10) 59. What famous siege was lifted by the French army under Jeanne d'Arc? | 4. Brittany |
| (3) 60. Where was the domain of the powerful duke who was a bitter enemy of Louis XI? | 5. Chinon |
| (7) 61. What city was a stronghold for French Protestants in the seventeenth century? | 6. Elba |
| (2) 62. What was the native land of Marie Antoinette? | 7. La Rochelle |
| (15) 63. Where did Napoleon's army have a disastrous campaign? | 8. Le Havre |
| (6) 64. To what island was Napoleon exiled before the battle of Waterloo? | 9. Lorraine |
| (14) 65. Where did Napoleon spend his last years? | 10. Orléans |
| | 11. Poitiers |
| | 12. Provence |
| | 13. Russia |
| | 14. St. Helena |
| | 15. Touraine |

Part III

Directions: Place the number of the part which makes the best answer to the statement in the parenthesis before the statement.

(3) Paris is in: 1. Germany. 2. England. 3. France.

In this sample, "France" is the correct answer. The number of the word "France" is 3. The figure 3 has been placed in the parenthesis.

- (3) 66. Julius Caesar began his conquest of what is now France in:
1. 800 A.D. 2. 146 B.C. 3. 59 B.C.
- (1) 67. The name Bourbo and its derivatives come from the: 1. Celtic.
2. Basque. 3. Italian.
- (1) 68. The mistletoe was used in religious celebrations by the:
1. Druids. 2. Merovingians. 3. Maire du palais.

- (1) 69. The Basque language was probably once spoken by the:
 - 1. Iberians. 2. Romans. 3. Germans.
- (3) 70. The "Scourge of God" was: 1. Mohammed. 2. Vercingetorix. 3. Attila.
- (2) 71. The Asiatic race which nearly conquered France in the fifth century was the: 1. Moors. 2. Huns. 3. Turks.
- (2) 72. The Merovingian "Rois fainéants" were succeeded by the:
 - 1. Capetians. 2. Carolingians. 3. Bourbons.
- (3) 73. The father of Charlemagne was 1. Charles Martel. 2. Hugues Capet. 3. Pepin.
- (2) 74. Charles Martel means: 1. Charles the Great. 2. Charles the Hammer. 3. Charles the Wise.
- (2) 75. Charles Martel was a: 1. king. 2. maire du palais. 3. emperor.
- (3) 76. Charlemagne is credited with establishing: 1. a legal code. 2. a national bank. 3. schools.
- (1) 77. The century of the Norman invasion in France was the: 1. ninth. 2. fourth. 3. thirteenth.
- (1) 78. The feudal system was developed because of: 1. the weakness of the royal power. 2. the Hundred Years' War. 3. invasion by the Huns.
- (3) 79. The king called St. Louis was: 1. Louis XIV. 2. Louis XI. 3. Louis IX.
- (1) 80. Many churches and cathedrals were built during the reign of:
 - 1. Louis IX. 2. Louis XV. 3. Charles X.
- (2) 81. In the time of the Crusades, the Holy Land was held by: 1. Huns. 2. Mohammedans. 3. Iberians.
- (1) 82. Louis XI put his trust in officials chosen from the: 1. bourgeois. 2. nobles. 3. clergy.
- (1) 83. The province joined to France by Louis XI in the late fifteenth century was: 1. Burgundy. 2. Savoie. 3. Alsace.
- (2) 84. The king under whom many châteaux were built was: 1. Hugues Capet. 2. François I. 3. Louis IX.
- (2) 85. The queen who caused the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day was:
 - 1. Anne de Bretagne. 2. Catherine de Médicis. 3. Marie Antoinette.

- (3) 86. The king who was assassinated by a religious fanatic was:
1. Louis IX. 2. Charles VII. 3. Henry IV.
- (3) 87. The French Academy was begun during the reign of:
1. Charlemagne. 2. Francois I. 3. Louis XIII.
- (2) 88. Dueling was prohibited by: 1. Sully. 2. Richelieu. 3. Colbert.
- (1) 89. One war during the administration of Richelieu was the: 1. Thirty Years' War. 2. Franco-Prussian War. 3. Hundred Years' War.
- (2) 90. An early French explorer in North America was: 1. Montcalm. 2. Cartier. 3. La Fayette.
- (3) 91. The Frenchman who first explored to the mouth of the Mississippi was: 1. Frontenac. 2. Champlain. 3. La Salle.
- (2) 92. The Queen Regent for Louis XIV was: 1. Marie de Médicis. 2. Anne d'Autriche. 3. Anne de Bretagne.
- (1) 93. Minister of Louis XIV was: 1. Colbert. 2. Sully. 3. Necker.
- (2) 94. The mistress of Louis XV was: 1. Madame de Sévigné. 2. Madame de Pompadour. 3. Madame Récamier.
- (2) 95. Prisoners were condemned to the Bastille by: 1. trial by jury. 2. lettres de cachet. 3. ecclesiastical courts.
- (1) 96. The Bank of France was established by: 1. Napoleon I. 2. Richelieu. 3. Henry IV.
- (3) 97. The first king under the Restoration in 1814 was: 1. Louis Philippe. 2. Charles X. 3. Louis XVIII.
- (3) 98. The relation of Napoleon III to Napoleon I was that of: 1. son. 2. brother. 3. nephew.
- (3) 99. The present French republic is the: 1. first. 2. second. 3. third.
- (1) 100. A French province given to Germany after the Franco-Prussian War was: 1. Alsace. 2. Savois. 3. Burgundy.

CHAPTER IV

UNIT III. FRENCH LITERATURE AND ARTS

The Middle Ages. The Oaths of Strasbourg in 842 was the first

document written in the language which was developing from Latin into French. However, the first work of significant literary value was an epic of the early twelfth century, La Chanson de Roland. It belongs to the type known as chansons de geste or songs of deeds. In these a long poem is used to relate the achievements of a great national hero. La Chanson de Roland tells how Roland, a nephew of Charlemagne, fought a tragic, heroic battle against the Saracens in Spain, losing the unequal fight because he was too proud to blow his horn for help. The poem portrays character excellently, and contains the ideals of chivalry and medieval Christianity.

Besides the chansons de geste, there were the lais or short narrative poems, and romans, verse narratives of love and adventure. The most noted writer of lais was the first French woman writer, Marie de France, who wrote sentimental tales of knights and chivalry. She lived in the twelfth century. A successful writer of romans was Chrétien de Troyes who adapted the Arthurian romances and wrote the first poem using the Holy Grail theme.

A famous work of the early thirteenth century is the anonymous Aucassin et Nicolette which tells the story of the separation and reunion of two lovers.

The works mentioned above treated members of the nobility. In the period from the twelfth to the fourteenth centuries, the bourgeoisie and peasants were portrayed in the fables and fabliaux. The fables were in

mock-heroic verse and used animals such as Chantecler the Cock or Renard the Fox to represent people. Of these, the Roman de Renard has influenced literature to the present day. The fabliaux used human characters. Both satirized the clergy, the nobles, and the conventional character types.

The Roman de la Rose, written in the thirteenth century, is a long allegorical poem in which such qualities as Love, Beauty, Courtesy are personified. Love is represented in the allegory by the Rose.

Lyric poetry was developed early, especially by the traveling minstrels called troubadours in the South and trouvères in the North, who entertained at the châteaux. The thirteenth century was the flowering period of medieval French literature. Through the fourteenth century no great poets are recorded. However, in the fifteenth century there are two. The first, Charles d'Orléans, wrote short descriptive lyrics called rondeaux. The other was François Villon. He was a master of arts of the Sorbonne, but he became a thief and murderer and barely escaped the gallows several times. Finally he disappeared. His poems are beautiful and artistic, usually dealing with Death. His best-known poem is the Ballade of the Dead Ladies.

The medieval religious drama began as early as the ninth century as a part of the church litany in Latin. Episodes in the mass and church ritual were dramatized in French in the twelfth century. As the drama developed in size and importance, it was presented outside the church. There it was more and more influenced by worldly attitudes and began to include comic or farcical elements. In the following centuries both the serious and the comic traits grew. In the fourteenth century, miracle plays

portraying the lives of saints were prominent. By the fifteenth century there were companies of actors presenting mystery plays which were dramatized cycles of Bible stories. There were also farces, short witty plays often used for satire. Of these, a fifteenth century masterpiece is La Farce de Maître Pathelin, a gay, realistic play of uncertain origin.

Architecture in the Middle Ages followed the Gothic style. The châteaux, churches, and cathedrals constructed at this time were solid, thick-walled, and had high pointed arches. The windows were arched and pointed also, and were often of stained glass. The Sainte Chapelle, Notre-Dame of Paris, and the cathedrals at Reims, Chartres, and Rouen are examples of Gothic architecture. Gothic châteaux were strong fortresses with towers, moats and drawbridges. The château at Chinon is an excellent example of a medieval château.

The Renaissance. By the end of the fifteenth century the influence of the Italian Renaissance was entering France, and the sixteenth century produced several great writers. This reawakening of learning was extremely important. The individuality of writers became more pronounced.

The first great French prose writer of the century was François Rabelais (1490-1553). He was a native of Chinon who took priestly orders but had difficulty with his religious vocation because of his free-thinking. He came in contact with the Renaissance through travel in Italy and learned about the new science through studying medicine. Rabelais wrote five books in which he related the adventures of giants called Gargantua and Pantagruel. The giant motif was used to cover a witty satire of religion, government, and education. Rabelais' style was clever and eloquent although the

language was often vulgar. He used a large vocabulary of unusual words. His liberal ideas were expressed by the motto, "Faites ce que vous voudrez."

The first great French essayist was Montaigne in the latter half of the century. His Essais are valuable as a contribution to prose form as well as by the fact that they anticipate the thought of the eighteenth century philosophers in their skepticism and tolerance. His famous phrase, "Que sais-je?" embodies his attitude.

The Renaissance produced a movement toward making the French tongue important for literature. The movement was sponsored by a group known as the Pléiade which took its name from a constellation of seven stars. The members wished to enrich the vocabulary by borrowing foreign words, and copying the form and style of the Greeks and Romans. The leader of the group and the greatest poet of the century was Pierre de Ronsard (1524-85). He traveled widely in his youth and underwent the influence of the Renaissance. He wrote odes and an epic, but is most remembered for his lyric love poems such as the sonnet, A Hélène.

Because of the influence of the Italian Renaissance, ideals in architecture changed. Châteaux were built for beauty with large windows and small towers and were surrounded by beautiful gardens, forests, and parks. The château at Fontainebleau, those in Touraine along the Loire including Chambord, Chenonceaux, and Blois, and the palace of the Louvre represent the Renaissance trend. The churches and other public buildings of the time also show the trend toward ornament and decoration.

Music at the end of the Renaissance consisted of popular, humorous songs, renditions of psalms, and marching songs.

The Seventeenth Century. The seventeenth century is known as the period of Classicism in France. The term implies the highest perfection in art forms, and also a period greatly influenced by the classic works of ancient Greece and Rome. The French nation had reached political stability and prominence so that the time was ripe for artistic achievement.

French Classicism was noted for its formal beauty and objective adherence to rules. Its ideals were order, clarity, common sense, formality, and restraint. The highest peak of Classicism was reached in the second half of the sixteenth century during the reign of Louis XIV.

An important aspect of the century was the salon movement. The salons, which were presided over by women, were regular gatherings of distinguished people. Their association and manners produced an ideal of social polish known as préciosité, which used involved rhetoric and complicated figures of speech.

An important philosopher of the first half of the century was René Descartes (1596-1650). He founded the Cartesian method, which is characterized by a search for truth based on reason. Descartes expressed his idea in the phrase, "Je pense, donc je suis."

A deep thinker in the realm of religion was Blaise Pascal. He was also noted for his work in science and invention, and assisted in the reform within the Catholic Church known as Jansenism.

Classicism was especially rich in dramatic production. Classic drama favored adherence to the three unities of time, of place, and of action. The three greatest dramatists of the century were Corneille, Racine, and Molière.

Pierre Corneille (1606-84) was the founder and one of the greatest writers of French tragedy. He followed the unities and usually portrayed a tragic conflict between love and duty, with duty the stronger. His style was marked by the stirring eloquence of his strong-willed heroes and heroines. Corneille's Le Cid, the first masterpiece of French tragedy, was based on the story of the great Spanish national hero. The Cid kills the father of his beloved Chimène in order to defend his family honor. Duty then demands that Chimène seek the death of the Cid. When the Cid returns victorious after a battle with the Moors, duty is satisfied and the two lovers are again united.

The other great French tragedian, Jean Racine (1639-99), attended the Jansenist school at Port-Royal where he was greatly influenced by Greek literature. He was sensitive and temperamental, and deeply resented his few failures. His private life was full of stormy love affairs. In later life he renounced the theater, married, and retired from the theater although he wrote two religious dramas later at the request of the court. Racine differs from Corneille in that his characters are victims of their passions. He uses simple plots, usually of Greek origin. His passages are often lyrical. His first great triumph was with Andromaque in 1667. This play, of Greek origin, is concerned with the maternal love of Andromaque, widow of Hector; and the revenge of a forsaken fiancée, the daughter of Helen of Troy. His last play, Athalie, treats an Old Testament theme.

The greatest writer of comedies was Molière (1622-73). He was of good bourgeois stock, was well-educated, but turned early to a career as an actor. After a successful tour of the provinces, he attained the peak

of his success as a dramatist, actor, and manager. He was favored at the court of Louis XIV. His satire made him many enemies, but the king's influence was a great protection. It is interesting to note that Molière, a chronic invalid, died at the end of his performance in a play satirizing the medical profession. Molière is often ranked with Shakespeare as one of the world's greatest writers of comedy. His was the realm of ridicule; he turned his powers on foibles of character and absurd or vicious customs. He glorified the bourgeoisie and occasionally introduced slap-stick comedy scenes with lower-class characters. Les Précieuses ridicules makes fun of the pretentious salon groups; Le Misanthrope deals with the problems of an individual poorly adjusted to society; Tartuffe presents the religious hypocrite; L'Avare ridicules avarice; Le Médecin malgré lui is a satire on doctors.

The greatest writer of fables in French was Jean de la Fontaine (1621-95). He was a student of theology and law, but his epicurean tastes led him into an irregular life. His poetical gift was recognized, however, and he was aided by patrons. La Fontaine wrote, in verse, adaptations of the fables of AEsop and others. They are remarkable for their metrical variety, good sense, realism and wit. Especially well-known are La Cigale et la Fourmi and Le Corbeau et le Renard.

A moralist, La Rochefoucauld, wrote Les Maximes, in which he presented highly condensed and polished epigrams. He showed an attitude of disillusionment, and pictured man as selfish, vicious, and hypocritical. The following maxime illustrates his manner: "Nous avons tous assez de force pour supporter les maux d'autrui."

Madame de Sévigné, who knew the most important people of her time both in the Parisian salons and at the court of Louis XIV, wrote Lettres to her daughter and others in the provinces. These Lettres are written in charming, conversational style and give an accurate and brilliant picture of the fashionable society of the Classic age.

Much of the grandeur and elegance characteristic of seventeenth century art was due to Louis XIV himself. The greatest achievement in architecture was the palace at Versailles, built from 1667 to 1680 under the king's supervision. It had harmonious facades, fountains, basins, and beautiful windows overlooking parks, pools, and woods. Mansard was the architect who designed the château, while Le Nôtre was responsible for laying out the parks and formal gardens which surround it.

Sculpture flourished as ornamentation for architecture. The sculptors worked to decorate with statues and figures the palace, the churches, even the prows of the royal fleet.

Painting in this period was rather formalized. National academies were founded for recognition of architecture, painting, and sculpture, corresponding to the earlier Académie Française for literature. This regulation and restraint discouraged individual masterpieces. Philippe de Champaigne in the first part of the century painted a famous portrait of the Cardinal de Richelieu. While the latter part of the century was more noted for paintings of mythological and allegorical themes, there was some painting of portraits, notably the one of Louis XIV by Rigaud.

The Gobelins factory was taken over by the government under Louis XIV, and much beautiful tapestry and upholstery was produced.

The favorite musical entertainment of the court was the ballet and musical comedy. Lulli, a native Italian, was the most famous composer, and worked with Molière on various court representations.

The Eighteenth Century. The death of Louis XIV liberated art and literature from classical restraint. The attitudes and ideals of the nation began to change toward liberal thought that reached a climax with the Revolution at the end of the century.

Montesquieu (1689-1755) was of noble family and followed for a time a legal career at Bordeaux. He also traveled widely and knew well the salon life in Paris. In his writings, Montesquieu frequently criticized the life and government of his time. In his clever Lettres persanes under the guise of Persians traveling in France, he exposed many abuses and absurdities of the age. The Esprit des lois is a study of government advocating liberalism and tolerance. Many of his ideas, especially that of the division and balance of governmental powers, were used by the makers of the Constitution of the United States.

Eighteenth-century literature was dominated by the important figure of Voltaire (1694-1778). Bourgeois by birth, he became immensely wealthy and was disappointed at not being welcomed into the society of nobles. His liberal writings and his radical ideas caused him to be imprisoned in the Bastille for a brief time, and then to be exiled to England. Much of the latter part of Voltaire's life was spent on his patriarchal estate at Ferney near the Swiss border. During a long and extremely active life, Voltaire worked constantly to combat intolerance, injustice and oppression. Horacez l'infâme was his battle-cry against intolerance. Besides his

neo-classic drama and poetry, Voltaire's works include the Lettres philosophiques, satirical essays comparing France unfavorably with England; Le Siècle de Louis XIV, showing his emphasis upon the history of civilization; and Candide, an amusing satire of the philosophy of his time. His collected correspondence of some ten thousand letters deals with most of the interesting problems of his day.

In contrast to the wealthy and popular Voltaire was Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-78), penniless and anti-social. A native of Geneva, he was left an orphan and began his life-long career of vagabondage. He received little formal education, but worked at many trades. Rousseau was protected and aided by many noted people, but could not keep his friends. His life was always abnormal, for he was extremely sensitive and impressionable. In his last years he became unbalanced mentally. Rousseau believed that man is naturally good and that civilization makes him evil. Primitive nature was his professed ideal. La Nouvelle-Héloïse is a sentimental love story; Emile advocates education by experience rather than by books; the Contrat social expresses the idea that government depends on the consent of the governed; Les Confessions is his emotional autobiography.

Beaumarchais (1732-99), in the latter half of the century, wrote Le Barbier de Séville and Le Mariage de Figaro. Both plays are well-known operas. The former is a lively comedy of intrigue managed by the roguish barber, Figaro. The latter, written shortly before the Revolution, is highly prophetic of the coming social upheaval. During the American Revolution Beaumarchais aided the colonists with supplies.

Art became more individual and original in the eighteenth century.

Watteau (1684-1721) painted delicate and fanciful subjects as seen in L'Embarquement pour Cythère, where a group of young people are shown ready to sail for the Island of Love, noticed in the distance. Greuze, whose painting was done just before the Revolution, embodies in his work the sentimental traits given vogue by Rousseau. L'Accordée de Village and La Cruche cassée are popular. David, who began painting in the eighteenth century, was best known as the court painter of Napoleon I. His work was more restrained and showed signs of reaction toward Classicism. The greatest sculptor of the century was Houdon, who made busts of many of the important men of the time, including Voltaire and Rousseau. His busts of Washington and of La Fayette are in the Capitol at Richmond, Virginia. Architecture did not vary much from that of Louis XIV's epoch. French music, however, may be said to date from the eighteenth century. The operas show much foreign influence. Gluck was outstanding among the French composers. He frequently chose operatic themes from Greek legends.

Poetry of the Nineteenth Century.

The first part of the nineteenth century produced the Romantic school of poets whose ideals were contrary to those of the Classicists. They were opposed to the classic restraint, and favored the portrayal of personal emotion in an individual manner.

Alphonse de Lamartine (1790-1869) was the first successful French Romantic poet. He rose high in his political career, and was provisional president of the Second Republic. In his poetry he presented nature as the setting for deep personal emotions in the subjects of love, death and religion. To Lamartine nature was something felt spiritually rather than

seen photographically. Le Lac is a well-known poem which illustrates his ideas.

Alfred de Vigny (1797-1863) was a stoical philosopher who was unhappy in his military career and disappointed in love. He became a recluse and retired to his "ivory tower." Pessimism is outstanding in his works, for he saw man as helpless in the control of a destiny that was cold, unfriendly and indifferent. Happiness was unattainable; religion was futile. His attitude of stoic submission to fate is seen in La Mort du loup, while Le Cor treats the theme of La Chanson de Roland.

The best-known French lyric poet was Victor Hugo (1802-85), who was the leader of the Romantic group. His interest in liberal politics made him the enemy of Napoleon III, and he lived outside of France from 1852 until 1870. His last years were spent in Paris where he was a public idol. Hugo was not a great thinker, but was gifted with a vivid imagination and an enormous vocabulary. He was a versatile stylist: he wrote love lyrics, elegaic tributes, domestic portraits and poetic narratives. Les Djinns is a fantastic poem of varied rhythm; Les Châtiments is a work of bitter satire against Napoleon III; the short Extase exemplifies a lyric and religious vein. His poetry is rhetorical, colorful and filled with sharp contrasts.

Alfred de Musset (1810-57) was a precocious writer who frequented Hugo's circle of poets before 1830. His life was greatly influenced by an unhappy love affair with George Sand in 1834. In the few years following he produced his best poetry. His short life ended in sadness and dissipation. The importance of Musset is found in his lyric portrayal

of subjective passion and intense emotion, in themes of love and melancholy. He was not versatile nor deep, but his poetry is sincere and delicate. Les Nuits record his despair after his love affair. A short poem, Tristesse, portrays well a mood of hopelessness.

Many new ideas appear in latter nineteenth-century poetry. The Parnassian school was a reaction against individual expression. Its leader was Leconte de Lisle (1818-94), although his poetry is probably more subjective than his professed theory would allow.

A personal and lyric poet in the second half of the century was Paul Verlaine (1844-96). He was the enemy of rhetoric and complicated phrases. His poems are simple, delicate, and often melancholic in tone. Many of them have been set to music. His Chanson d'automne illustrates well his poetic vein.

The Novel in the Nineteenth Century. The Romantic novel in the first part of the century was mainly historical, and its plot showed the influence of the novels by Walter Scott. Victor Hugo's best novels were Les Misérables, humanitarian tale of a convict, and Notre-Dame de Paris, a story of medieval Paris. The novels of Alexandre Dumas (1803-70) were pseudo-historical and romantic. He wrote Les Trois Mousquetaires and Le Comte de Monte-Cristo.

The realistic novel, for which the latter part of the century is noted, began earlier with the works of Honoré de Balzac (1799-1850). Balzac led a tempestuous life of unsuccessful business ventures and poverty, with ultimate success after an enormous literary output. In his novels he showed that environment was responsible for the development of character.

Balzac endeavored to write, under the general title, La Comédie humaine, a complete picture of contemporary French society at all levels. He portrayed militarism, politics, Parisian and provincial life in this way. He was especially good in treating financial ventures, probably because of his own business dealings. Eugénie Grandet, one of the many novels in the series of La Comédie humaine, shows the effect on his family of a father's avarice.

Gustave Flaubert (1821-80), a native of Rouen, was perhaps the most artistic of the realists. He trained the talents of his younger contemporary, Maupassant. A master of style, Flaubert is noted for his polished, objective use of words, the employment of much exact detail, and a certain almost romantic fondness for foreign and exotic situations. His best-known novel is Madame Bovary, a realistic study of Norman life.

Guy de Maupassant (1850-93) was a Norman who learned from Flaubert to record his impressions in an exact, impersonal, condensed manner. He lost his mind, and some of his later works show the influence of his hallucinations. He is most noted for his brief, realistic tales which may have a surprise ending such as La Parure or La Ficelle. His best stories treat the peasants or the petite bourgeoisie. His novels give a pessimistic, sardonic view of life.

Alphonse Daudet (1840-97) came to Paris from Southern France. He is especially famous for his short stories which may be humorous, sentimental, or naturalistic. His humor is droll, his satire gentle and amusing, and his treatment of character sympathetic. His novel, Tartarin de Tarascon, is an ironical tale of a boastful Southern Frenchman. Le Petit Chose is

mainly an autobiographical record of the hardships of his early years of poverty.

Emile Zola (1850-1902) worked in a publishing house and as a journalist before he attained distinction as a novelist. He was the enemy of tradition and attacked corruption in government, notably with reference to the Dreyfus Case. Zola was the founder and leader of the school of Naturalism. His theory was an attempt to apply the determinist theories of science to the novel, emphasizing experiment and observation, noted objectively by the author. The movement fell into disrepute because of its tendency to show sordid scenes from the life of the lower class. His series of novels treats the degeneration of the descendants of one family and contains such novels as L'Assommoir, showing the effects of alcohol; and Nana, the life of a prostitute. L'Attache du Moulin is a shorter story of the Franco-Prussian War.

Anatole France (1844-1924), the greatest French novelist since the Realistic and Naturalistic schools, has been widely translated into English. He grew up among books and writers in his father's bookshop, achieved early prominence, and continued to write for half a century. He was elected to the French Academy for his novel Le Crime de Sylvestre Bonnard. Anatole France was a religious skeptic, an advocate of tolerance, a socialist, and a pacifist. His works show his great love of beauty and style, and his art of combining irony with pity. His short stories, such as Le Jongleur de Notre-Dame are widely read. Thaïs is a story of monastic life in ancient Egypt and has been made into an opera by Massenet.

Pierre Loti (1850-1923) grew up near the sea and traveled widely as a naval officer. His novels treat exotic foreign scenes, especially in the Orient. The plots are secondary to his impressionistic and melancholy style. His best-known novel is Pêcheur d'Islande, a tragic story of Breton fisher families.

The Drama of the Nineteenth Century. The nineteenth century was a period of great activity in the French theater. Victor Hugo is credited with overthrowing the classic tradition for drama with his romantic play, Hernani (1830). The new genre ignored the unities, relaxed the metrical rules, made use of elaborate stage settings, and introduced comic and grotesque elements into tragedy. Many romantic plays were made into operas. Alfred de Musset wrote plays which were fanciful and light; often supporting a tone of pessimism and containing a moral. His play, On ne badine pas avec l'amour, is a love story with characters similar to himself and George Sand.

Romantic drama was followed by the great vogue of the realistic "well-made" play which featured plot rather than character and was designed to balance situations and crises against one another in anticipation of a startling dénouement. These plays were used as propaganda for social reform, especially by Alexandre Dumas file who wrote Le Drame aux Camélias, known as Camille in America. Le Voyage de M. Perrichon, a light comedy by Labiche and Martin, satirizes the rich, uncultured bourgeois.

A later thesis dramatist was Eugène Brieux (1856-1932) who did not use the machinations of the well-made play. He strove less for artistry than for actual social reform, but made good use of dramatic situations. Blanchette shows the conflict of an educated daughter living with her

ignorant, tradition-bound parents. La Robe rouge exposes corruption in politics and the legal profession.

Maurice Maeterlinck, born in 1862, is a Belgian who has written symbolistic plays which owe more to atmosphere than to plot. His characters are simple, but their speeches suggest somber, mysterious things. His best play is Pelléas et Mélisande which has been made into an opera by Debussy. L'Oiseau bleu is an allegorical play on the pursuit of happiness.

Edmond Rostand (1868-1918) wrote Cyrano de Bergerac, a play whose success in 1897 was the greatest of any since Hugo's Hernani. Cyrano was a romantic play in an age of realism. In it the seventeenth-century hero sacrifices his own chances for love to make happy the one he loves. The poetry and atmosphere of the drama are excellent.

Art and Music of the Nineteenth Century. There were many schools of painting during the period. Often they corresponded to the literary movements. Géricault, a Romantic painter, created a sensation in 1819 with his Radeau de la Méduse, a scene of the disorder of the survivors and victims of a violent wreck at sea. After 1840, the Realistic school took the lead. Millet painted harmonious scenes of simple peasant life, such as L'Angélus and Les Glaneuses. Corot, more idealistic, painted exotic landscapes as is seen in his Dante et Virgile and Diane et ses Nymphes. Manet represented the school of Impressionism which achieved new effects in color technique. Representative of no particular school, Puvis de Chavannes was famous for his frescoes of the life of Sainte Geneviève, patron saint of Paris, which decorate the Panthéon. He also painted the

murals in the Boston Public Library. Rosa Bonheur was noted for her scenes of rural life, as in the Marché aux Chevaux.

The nineteenth century is especially rich in music. The first of the great operas of the time were composed by Gounod. His Roméo et Juliette and Faust are still popular today. The opera, Carmen, was composed by Bizet and treats the tragic life of a Spanish gypsy girl. A Belgian, César Franck, composed religious music and sonatas noted for their serene mysticism. His Symphonie en ré mineur is often heard. At the last of the century Massenet produced masterpieces in operatic versions of Thaïs and Le Jongleur de Notre-Dame by Anatole France. His Manon is also popular. Massenet's music is sentimental and sensual. A more classic composer was Saint-Saëns, noted for Samson et Dalila, an elegant and intellectual opera. The greatest name at the end of the century was that of Claude Debussy whose music shows the influence of the Symbolist and Impressionistic schools. He gains unusual effects in tone-coloring. His best work is the opera Pelléas et Mélisande made from Maeterlinck's play.

A TEST

French Literature and Arts

Part I

Directions: Write the answer to each question on the line at the left of the number.

Chanson

de Roland..... 1. What is the name of the most famous old French epic?

fables..... 2. What name is given the stories which used animals to represent people?

Villon

..... 3. What fifteenth-century poet wrote the Ballade of the Dead Ladies?

sixteenth

..... 4. What is the century of the Renaissance in France?

Montaigne

..... 5. Who was the great Renaissance writer of essays?

Ronsard

..... 6. Who was the leader of the poetic group in the sixteenth century known as the Pléiade?

Gothic

..... 7. What style of architecture was used in French medieval cathedrals?

Classicism

..... 8. What name was given the school of literature predominant in the seventeenth century?

Corneille

..... 9. Who wrote Le Cid?

Molière

..... 10. Who was the greatest seventeenth-century author of French comedies?

La Fontaine

..... 11. Who is the best-known writer of fables in French?

Versailles

..... 12. What elaborate palace was built for Louis XIV?

Montesquieu

..... 13. What eighteenth-century writer was responsible for the balance and division of powers in the United States Constitution?

Rousseau

..... 14. Who wrote Le Contrat social?

Romanticism

..... 15. What literary movement was predominant in France about 1830?

Lamartine

..... 16. What early nineteenth-century poet wrote Le Lac?

- Musset17. What nineteenth-century lyric poet had an unhappy love affair with George Sand?
- Victor Hugo18. Who wrote Les Misérables?
- Dumas19. Who wrote Le Comte de Monte-Cristo?
- Balzac20. Who wrote the series of novels called La Comédie humaine?
- Maupassant21. Who wrote La Parure and La Ficelle?
- Loti22. Who wrote the Pêcheur d'Islande?
- Hostand23. Who wrote Cyrano de Bergerac?
- Maeterlinck24. Who wrote L'Oiseau bleu?
- Millet25. Who painted L'Angélus?

Part II

Directions: From Column II select the answer to each item of Column I and write the number of the answer in the parenthesis at the left of the item. The answers of one section may be matched with the items of the same section only.

Column I

- (9) 26. Who wrote the Lettres persanes?
- (14) 27. Who was the author of Candide?
- (1) 28. Who wrote the play, Le Barbier de Séville?
- (6) 29. What poet lived in exile because of his hatred of Napoleon III?
- (10) 30. What lyric poet wrote Tristesse?
- (3) 31. Name the playwright whose father wrote Romantic novels.
- (4) 32. What novelist taught Maupassant to write exact descriptions of his observations?
- (15) 33. What novelist was a leader in the school of Naturalism?

Column II

1. Beaumarchais
2. Brieux
3. Dumas
4. Flaubert
5. France
6. Hugo
7. Lamartine
8. Montaigne
9. Montesquieu
10. Musset
11. Racine

- | | |
|---|--------------|
| (2) 34. Who wrote the play <u>Blanchette</u> ? | 12. Ronsard |
| (5) 35. Who wrote the novel, <u>Le Crime de Sylvestre Bonnard</u> ? | 13. Vigny |
| | 14. Voltaire |
| | 15. Zola |

- | Column I | Column II |
|---|-----------------|
| (15) 36. What architect designed the palace at Versailles? | 1. Bizet |
| (13) 37. Name the Italian composer at the French court in Louis XIV's era. | 2. Rosa Bonheur |
| (20) 38. Who painted <u>l'Embarquement pour Cythère</u> ? | 3. Corot |
| (10) 39. Who painted <u>La Cruche cassée</u> ? | 4. David |
| (11) 40. What eighteenth-century sculptor made busts of Voltaire, La Fayette, and Washington? | 5. Debussy |
| (4) 41. Name the court painter of Napoleon I. | 6. César Franck |
| (7) 42. Who was the Romantic painter who painted the <u>Radeau de la Méduse</u> ? | 7. Géricault |
| (3) 43. Who painted <u>Dante et Virgile</u> ? | 8. Gluck |
| (2) 44. Who painted the <u>Marché aux Chevaux</u> ? | 9. Gounod |
| (6) 45. Name the nineteenth-century Belgian composer noted for religious music. | 10. Greuze |
| (9) 46. Who composed the opera <u>Faust</u> ? | 11. Houdon |
| (1) 47. Who composed the opera <u>Carmen</u> ? | 12. Le Nôtre |
| (16) 48. Name the composer of the opera <u>Thaïs</u> . | 13. Lulli |
| (19) 49. What nineteenth-century composer wrote the opera <u>Samson et Dalila</u> ? | 14. Manet |
| (5) 50. Who composed the opera <u>Pelléas et Mélisande</u> ? | 15. Massard |
| | 16. Massenet |
| | 17. Millet |
| | 18. Mozart |
| | 19. Saint-Saëns |
| | 20. Watteau |

Part III

Directions: Place the number of the part which makes the best answer to the statement in the parenthesis before the statement.

(3) Paris is in: 1. Germany. 2. England. 3. France.

In this sample, "France" is the correct answer. The number of the word "France" is 3. The figure 3 has been placed in the parenthesis.

- (1) 51. The first written French document was the: 1. Oaths of Strasbourg.
2. Roman de la Rose. 3. Aucassin et Nicolette.
- (1) 52. Medieval French drama grew out of the: 1. church. 2. court.
3. fairs.
- (2) 53. A thirteenth-century allegorical poem is: 1. Le Roman de Renard
2. Le Roman de la Rose. 3. Les Maximes.
- (1) 54. The first French woman writer was: 1. Mlle de Scudéry.
2. Mme de Sévigné. 3. Marie de France.
- (2) 55. The satirical tales of the Middle Ages were called: 1. jongleurs
2. fabliaux. 3. épopées.
- (1) 56. The lyric poets of the Middle Ages in Southern France were called:
1. troubadours. 2. chevaliers. 3. chansons de geste.
- (3) 57. The fifteenth-century cycles of dramatized Bible stories were
called: 1. fabliaux. 2. lais. 3. mystery plays.
- (1) 58. The Farce de Maître Pathelin is a play of the: 1. fifteenth
century. 2. seventeenth century. 3. nineteenth century.
- (2) 59. An example of Gothic architecture is the: 1. Louvre. 2. Notre-
Dame de Paris. 3. Château de Blois.
- (2) 60. The influence of the Renaissance was brought to France from:
1. Spain. 2. Italy. 3. England.
- (2) 61. The Renaissance writer who used the expression "Faites ce que
vous voudrez" was: 1. Montaigne. 2. Rabelais. 3. Montesquieu.
- (1) 62. The Renaissance thinker whose motto was "Que sais-je?" was:
1. Montaigne. 2. Ronsard. 3. Rabelais.
- (2) 63. The sonnet, A Hélène, was written by: 1. Leconte de Lisle.
Ronsard. 3. Corneille.
- (2) 64. Many ornamental châteaux were built during the Renaissance in:
1. Alsace. 2. Touraine. 3. Normandy.

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- (1) 65. The seventeenth-century philosopher who said "Je pense, donc je suis" was: 1. Descartes. 2. La Rochefoucauld. 3. Montesquieu.
- (3) 66. The seventeenth-century gatherings of distinguished people were called: 1. troubadours. 2. lun. 3. salons.
- (2) 67. The seventeenth-century tragedian who dramatized Grecian themes was: 1. Boileau. 2. Racine. 3. Voltaire.
- (1) 68. The seventeenth-century moralist who wrote Les Maximes was: 1. La Rochefoucauld. 2. La Fontaine. 3. Bossuet.
- (3) 69. The man who wrote, produced, and acted in seventeenth-century comedies was: 1. Beaumarchais. 2. Corneille. 3. Molière.
- (3) 70. Jean Racine wrote: 1. Tartuffe. 2. Le Cid. 3. Andromaque.
- (2) 71. La Fontaine wrote: 1. Le Médecin malgré lui. 2. La Cigale et la Fourmi. 3. Emile.
- (1) 72. The seventeenth-century dramatist who satirized doctors was: 1. Molière. 2. La Fontaine. 3. Verlaine.
- (2) 73. A seventeenth-century scientist, inventor, and religious reformer was: 1. Leconte de Lisle. 2. Pascal. 3. Montaigne.
- (1) 74. The famous seventeenth-century letter writer was: 1. Mme de Sévigné. 2. Mlle de Scudéry. 3. Saint-Saëns.
- (2) 75. The tapestry factory patronized by Louis XIV was: 1. The Cloth of Gold. 2. Gobelin. 3. Chambord.
- (1) 76. The literary movement which grew out of the seventeenth-century salons was: 1. préciosité. 2. chinoiserie. 3. dadaïsme.
- (2) 77. The three unities were most important in the drama of the: 1. fifteenth century. 2. seventeenth century. 3. twentieth century.
- (3) 78. The man who designed the park at Versailles was: 1. Gluck. 2. La Fontaine. 3. Le Nôtre.
- (1) 79. The painter of a famous portrait of Richelieu was: 1. Philippe de Champaigne. 3. Mansard. 3. Corot.
- (3) 80. The eighteenth-century author who fought intolerance with the cry, Écrasez l'infâme was: 1. Rousseau. 2. La Rochefoucauld. 3. Voltaire.
- (2) 81. La Nouvelle Héloïse was written by: 1. Voltaire. 2. Rousseau. 3. Racine.

- (3) 82. Voltaire spent his first exile in: 1. Jersey. 2. Spain.
3. England.
- (1) 83. The native home of Rousseau was: 1. Geneva. 2. Paris. 3. Lyon.
- (1) 84. The great writer of letters in the eighteenth century was:
1. Voltaire. 2. Louis XV. 3. Rousseau.
- (1) 85. A composer of operas in the eighteenth century was: 1. Gluck.
2. Gounod. 3. Greuze.
- (2) 86. L'Accordée de village was painted by: 1. Watteau. 2. Greuze.
3. Corot.
- (3) 87. The novel, Notre-Dame de Paris, was written by: 1. Daudet.
2. Vigny. 3. Hugo.
- (2) 88. The novel, Eugénie Grandet, was written by: 1. Flaubert.
2. Balzac. 3. Zola.
- (2) 89. The novelist who helped bring about justice in the Dreyfus case
was: 1. Balzac. 2. Zola. 3. Daudet.
- (1) 90. The author of Tartarin de Tarascon was: 1. Daudet. 2. Maupassant.
3. Loti.
- (3) 91. The author of l'Attache du Moulin was: Rostand. 2. David.
3. Zola.
- (1) 92. A novel by Flaubert was: 1. Madam Bovary. 2. Nana. 3. Le Petit
Chose.
- (3) 93. The Romantic poet who was provisional president of the Second
Republic was: 1. Hugo. 2. Vigny. 3. Lamartine.
- (2) 94. Extase was written by: 1. Verlaine. 2. Hugo. 3. Gautier.
- (3) 95. The author of Le Cor was: 1. Verlaine. 2. Lamartine. 3. Vigny.
- (1) 96. The author of La Dame aux Camélias was: 1. Dumas. 2. Vigny.
3. Hugo.
- (2) 97. A famous Romantic play was: 1. Le Cid. 2. Hernani. 3. Athalie.
- (3) 98. Le Voyage de M. Perrichon was written by: 1. Rostand.
2. Alfred de Musset. 3. Labiche.
- (2) 99. A dramatist whose motive was social reform was: 1. Corneille.
2. Briux. 3. Hugo.
- (1) 100. The designer of the frescoes in the Panthéon was: 1. Invis
de Chavannes. 2. Le Nôtre. 3. Manet.

CHAPTER V

UNIT IV. CONTEMPORARY FRANCE

History of France since 1870. In 1871, France was a helpless nation, defeated and disorganized. It had lost Alsace and part of Lorraine to the Germans, and it was necessary to pay them a heavy indemnity. The French government, an impromptu republic, was neither permanent nor stable. A bloody civil war broke out in Paris, and a group known as the Commune attempted to gain control of the government.

Once order was restored, the political leaders worked to make it permanent. In 1875, a Constitution was set up, making France a republic with a parliamentary form of government, comparable to that of England.

The post-war recovery was rapid. International Expositions in 1878 and 1889 invited the world to see the progress of the nation. The latter date was the time of the construction of the Tour Eiffel.

There was prosperity in the 1890's, but much political dissension. One main source of discord was the famous Dreyfus case in which Captain Dreyfus was wrongly punished for treason in 1895. Although many proofs of his innocence were produced, notably by the novelist, Zola, Dreyfus was not restored to his rank until 1906. The issue was the central one of several which divided the opinions of the country for nearly twelve years into two groups: the army with the conservative element, and the liberals and radicals including Zola and Anatole France.

France played a leading part in the World War of 1914-18, furnishing many soldiers, supplies and much of the battle ground. Raymond

Poincaré, who had been elected for a seven-year term in 1913, was president, and Georges Clemenceau, known as "The Tiger" became premier in 1917. Joffre was chief of the French armies and Foch the commander of all the allied forces. France is known for her heroic defense and victory in the battle of the Marne in 1914 when the invasion of Paris was barely averted. Another major point in the war was the French victory in the defense of Verdun. The famous battle-cry at Verdun was "Ils ne passeront pas." The Armistice in 1918 found France victorious but low in resources.

French literature of the twentieth century. Francis Jammes (1868-1938) was a poet of the humble life. He was a Catholic who spent most of his life in his native lower Pyrenees. His poetry is remarkably simple and clear, treating intimate domestic scenes and showing his deep religious faith. La Salle à manger is typical of his poetic style.

Paul Fort, born in 1872, writes poetry in the form of prose. This rhythmic prose, as he calls it, has meter and rhyme or assonance. His work is popular, but the innovation of form has not attracted many followers. He writes of nature and also describes scenes from the past. His work is full of imagery, and he is called a neo-Symbolist. He wrote Hymne dans la nuit. Paul Fort has been chosen Prince of Poets by a popular newspaper poll.

Paul Claudel is known in the United States as a former French ambassador to Washington. His diplomatic career involved much travel so that his writing is cosmopolitan. Another influence is his strong Catholic faith. Claudel used a verse line modeled on hymns and psalms. His lyric

drama, l'Annonce faite à Marie, exemplifies his refusal to conform to rules, and the near mysticism of his ideas.

Romain Rolland, who was born in 1868, is a novelist who gained great popularity in France before the World War. During the War, however, he lived in Switzerland and wrote pamphlets condemning the War and advocating universal brotherhood. He thus lost the support of many French patriots. His long novel, known as Jean-Christophe, modeled, perhaps, on the life of Beethoven, is well liked in this country in its English translation. It illustrates Rolland's desire for harmony between France and Germany.

André Gide (born in 1869) is a very popular writer who is noted for his use of psycho-analysis. He has been condemned as corrupt and immoral, but praised for being a pioneer in his use of introspection and the liberalism of his morals. He was the foremost figure in French letters ten years ago. He wrote les Caves du Vatican, an ironic social novel.

A widely-discussed author is Marcel Proust (1871-1922) who wrote a sixteen-volume series, entitled A la Recherche du temps perdu. The first and best book of the series is called Du Côté de chez Swann. Proust was a chronic sufferer from asthma, morbid to the extent of living a secluded life in a cork-lined room with sealed windows. His works are often obscure in meaning, long, and involved; however, he is a master of introspection, intuition, and the philosophy of the unconscious. His series treats a group of characters before and after the World War, involving his personal life and experiences. He is as much a psychologist as a writer of fiction.

Jules Romains (born in 1885) wrote plays and poetry before entering the field of the novel where he is best known. Romains is the founder of a new literary theory called Unanimism. He frequently portrays a large number of people engaged in mass action, and analyzes the situation to point out the reason for such behavior. His series of novels, Les Hommes de bonne volonté, is a wide view of contemporary French life in all classes. It is available in an English translation. His best play, Knock, shows how a clever doctor induced an entire community to feel the need of medical attention.

Georges Duhamel (born in 1884) is a Parisian who saw the World War from the point of view of a doctor. This experience gave him an understanding of human suffering and the effects of horror on the individual. His novel, La Vie des Martyrs, gives a realistic picture of hospitals during the war. Scènes de la vie future describes a visit to America.

André Maurois (born 1885) is a noted lecturer and author who makes frequent tours in the United States and England. He speaks English perfectly, and several of his works are written in English. His biographies, in a popular and informal style, include Byron, Disraeli, Ariel or the life of Shelley, and many others. Maurois writes novels, critical works, essays, and has written literary criticism for the New York Times. He has written about his impressions of America, notably when he was a visiting professor at Princeton University.

Jean Giraudoux (born in 1882) is a novelist and playwright, noted for the wit, humor, and imagery of his works. He uses a variety of themes, and often gives them exotic touches. His novel, Suzanne et le Pacifique,

is called the new Robinson Crusoe. Among his plays is Amphitryon 38, with a theme from Greek mythology. It has been played on the American stage recently by Alfred Lunt and Lynn Fontaine.

The French theater is very active today. Topaze, by Pagnol, which had a long run in Paris, is a satire on corruption in politics. Another recent comedy, Tovaritch, by Jacques Deval, is a story of royal Russian refugees in Paris. Both of these plays have been filmed in America.

Contemporary French art and music. Modern art in France has been influenced by several groups of artists whose works are bizarre and unrestrained by rules. The so-called creator of modern French painting is Paul Cézanne (1839-1906) whose work was done early in the present century. He was a boyhood friend of Emile Zola. Cézanne tended to use rich colors, and distort the lines or shapes of figures. He emphasized the third dimension of depth to bring out mass and volume. Among later painters who were followers of Cézanne were Gauguin (1848-1903), described as primitive, and Van Gogh (1853-90) whose work is quite individual. The two were associates and lived unconventional lives. Gauguin is noted for his landscapes of Brittany and his Tahitian scenes painted in the South Sea islands. Van Gogh used unusual lighting effects and vigorous coloring.

The genius of sculpture in the period was Rodin (1840-1917).

Probably his masterpiece is the statue, Le Penseur. Here he depicts the strong emotions of a primitive man with contracted muscles and bent head. His works are of varied and contrasting types.

Maurice Ravel (1875-1937) was an outstanding twentieth-century

composer. His music is usually stately and classical. One of his popular compositions is the Boléro. A less important composer, Charpentier (born in 1860), is the author of the popular opera, Louise, which contains scenes from the street life of Paris. The ballet is also important in present-day French music.

French scientists. The French have contributed largely to the development of science, especially medical science. They are more noted for research than invention.

Blaise Pascal, a seventeenth-century writer, was the outstanding scientist of his time. He was a mathematician who discovered the law which made practical the invention of the hydraulic press. He performed a successful experiment to measure air pressure, and invented a primitive adding machine.

Lavoisier, in the late eighteenth century, is called the founder of modern chemistry. He gave it modern methods and accurate terminology. He made the first conclusive analysis of the composition of air. Lavoisier was guillotined during the Revolution.

In the early nineteenth century Lamarck gave biology its name. Among his many contributions to this science was his theory of organic evolution which furnished the foundation for Darwin's theory of evolution.

Louis Braille, (1806-52) was a blind man who achieved success in music and science. He perfected the Braille system of raised characters used by the blind since then for the reading of words and music.

An early nineteenth century electrician, Ampère, made the important discovery of the relation of electricity to magnetism, and invented the

electro-magnet. The unit of measuring the intensity of electric current was named for him.

Louis Pasteur (1822-95) is the greatest name in French science. His main work was proving the existence and effect of bacteria, or germs, and isolating the helpful from the harmful. The process known as pasteurization was used by him to improve the quality of wine, and is now used to insure wholesome milk. He applied his experiments to many fields and was responsible for the first successful cure for rabies as well as the development of vaccination with antitoxins to prevent certain contagious diseases. Pasteur taught the medical profession the necessity of absolute cleanliness and the use of sterilized instruments. His life was spent largely in the classroom as a teacher and in the laboratory as an experimenter. His reforms were accepted with great reluctance, and his life was one of endless struggle against the opposition of his superiors. The Institut Pasteur at Paris honors his name and carries on the type of work he began.

In 1898 Pierre and Marie Curie discovered radium, now used to cure cancer and similar diseases. The husband was accidentally killed a few years later, and Marie Curie continued alone the study toward the practical application of the new discovery. She is known as the greatest French woman scientist. The work was done mainly on the meager resources of the two. In 1934 the Institut de Radium was founded to recognize their work and further its benefits.

The outstanding mathematician and physicist of modern times was Henri Poincaré (1854-1912), brother of President Poincaré. Other Frenchmen whose scientific discoveries are widely used today were Daguerre, whose

work caused the early photographs to be called daguerrotypes; and Binet, who made one of the early studies on objective tests.

The contemporary French government. The Constitution of 1875 makes France a republic with legislative, executive, and judicial divisions much like those of the United States. France is a centralized republic; the United States is a federal republic.

The theoretical head of government is the president who lives at the Elysée Palace. He is elected for a seven-year term by the combined legislative bodies, meeting at Versailles. He names the chief minister or premier with the approval of the Chamber of Deputies. The president appoints certain other officials and acts as leader in state social functions, such as greeting ambassadors or awarding prizes given by the state. His constitutional right to dissolve the legislative bodies is no longer used.

There are two legislative bodies: the Senate which meets in the Luxembourg Palace, and the Chamber of Deputies which meets at the Palais-Bourbon. The Senate is a group of about three hundred men who are chosen by certain selected electors from the local government divisions. They hold office nine years, a third of them being elected every three years. The Chamber of Deputies contains over six hundred men, elected for four-year terms by all the voters. Women do not have the right to vote in France. The Chamber of Deputies is by far the most powerful legislative branch. The premier is chosen from the Deputies and forms a cabinet which determines the policy of the administration. Whenever a premier cannot

obtain a vote of confidence, he and his cabinet must resign and the president must appoint a new premier in whom the Deputies have confidence. In time of political stress the legislative bodies may give the premier the power to rule by decree when they are not in session. The Senate has the nominal power to reject a bill passed by the Chamber of Deputies, but the power is seldom used. The Senate may protest a measure, but must accept it if the other branch passes it again. Thus, the most representative section of the government has most of the power.

France is divided into ninety départements, including the island of Corsica. Each is headed by its préfet who is appointed by the president. The départements are divided into arrondissements, each headed by an appointed sous-préfet. The Département de la Seine-et-Oise is mainly the city of Paris, and contains twenty arrondissements. Paris is governed by a préfet de la Seine for administrative purposes and a préfet de police, who is head of the police force. The préfet and sous-préfet in each département are aided by councils elected by popular vote. Within each arrondissement are five or six cantons. Within the canton are several communes, or villages, administered by an elected mayor, who enforces the laws and supervises tax collections.

The French judicial system is built on a number of specialized courts. In each canton a juge de paix holds a simple police court. In the arrondissement is a Cour de Première Instance or common-law court which deals with ordinary civil and criminal cases. In the département a Cour d'Assises tries graver cases. There are also courts of appeal, and above them all is the Cour de Cassation or Supreme Court of Appeal which is in

Paris. The Conseil d'Etat at Paris helps decide administrative problems, elaborates public decrees, and serves as adviser to cabinet officers.

Political parties are neither so permanent nor so powerful in France as in the United States. There are at least half a dozen leading ones, so that several must form a bloc if a premier is to have a majority to support him. The president usually confers with party leaders before appointing a premier. It has become customary for the legislators to sit in the chambers according to their various degrees of liberalism or conservatism. Thus those seated on the extreme Right are the Royalist or reactionary groups; those on the extreme left have Communist and Socialist affiliations; those in the Center are the Democrats and the Republicans. Party ties are not strong, and changes are made frequently in accordance with changes of policy.

One of the leading French statesmen of modern times was Aristide Briand. He was a great orator and able diplomat, winning a Nobel peace prize for his efforts. He was premier of France many times. The present president of France is Albert Lebrun who has recently received the unusual honor of reelection to a second seven-year term. The present premier (June, 1939) is Edouard Daladier.

Education in France. The head of French education is the Ministre de l'Education nationale. Education in France is a state-controlled profession. The teachers are paid by the state, and degrees are given only to those who pass an examination which it gives. Students in private schools must pass the state requirements if they wish to receive diplomas.

There are three levels of French education: l'enseignement primaire,

l'enseignement secondaire, and l'enseignement supérieure. Primary education is free, compulsory, and non-religious. Many schools have also a kindergarten or école maternelle for children of both sexes. From the age of six to fourteen, children must attend an école primaires. Usually boys and girls are separated. Here they learn the elements of reading, writing, mathematics, history, French literature, hygiene, drawing, etc. Boys also have military exercises. The pupils spend six hours a day in classes. They have two hours for lunch at noon. Schools are closed on Thursday and Sunday. There are short vacations at the New Year and at Easter. The grandes vacances are from August first to October first, approximately. The diploma from the elementary school is the Certificat d'études primaires. The courses are difficult, much homework must be done, and many fail to receive the diploma.

There are several types of schools for l'enseignement secondaire. From the primary schools pupils may enter an école primaire supérieure for from two to four years to complete their education. This is a terminal school and corresponds somewhat to the American high school. Each département maintains an école normale for the training of elementary teachers. For training in any profession or for preparation for a university, the students enter either a collège, supported largely by local funds, or a lycée, which is usually larger and located in the chef-lieu of a département. The lycée receives more support from the state than the collège. Both types of school have the same educational program and neither has coeducation. The collèges and lycées frequently offer also elementary work such as is given in the écoles primaires, but charge

tuition for that part of the instruction. On leaving the sixth class, the pupils pay no more tuition, but must pass a difficult examination to continue. Contrary to the American practice, the beginners in the elementary schools are in the eleventh class; those finishing in the secondary schools are in the first. The pupils may be internes, who board and lodge at the school; or externes, living at home and merely attending classes. The grandes vacances last from July fourteenth to about the first of October. The students of the lycées and collèges study sciences, history, literature, languages, and other subjects. Having completed the first class, the students must pass examinations, first written, then oral, which last several days. Those passing may attend the school for another year, studying one of two specified courses with the general names of Philosophy and Mathematics. Then they take another similar examination. Those succeeding receive the degree of baccalauréat. This degree is required for entrance to a university. Students finish the lycée at about the age of eighteen. Those of exceptional ability who are without funds are awarded scholarships or bourses to the higher schools for which they are suited.

The bachelier may then enter one of the seventeen state universities, which are coeducational although far more men than women attend. The fees are not high, and the instruction is excellent in the usual Faculties of Law, Medicine, Sciences, and Letters. Class attendance is not required, but the student must pass a rigid examination in order to secure any degree.

The University of Paris and several others have recently erected dormitory units which are called cités universitaires. The cité universitaire

at Paris has a separate house for each foreign nation. Some of the universities have all the faculties; others do not. The degrees are la licence, l'agrégé, and le doctorat d'état, and are qualified by the special field of the scholar, such as licence en lettres. The French universities correspond more nearly to the American Graduate Schools, and the above degrees represent the completion of an imposing amount of work and the passing of severe oral and written examinations. The standards for university professors are extremely high.

The University of Paris in the Latin Quarter is the largest and most important university. Among its schools is the Sorbonne, many centuries old, which contains the Faculté des Lettres and the Faculté des Sciences. Thousands of foreign students from all over the world attend the University of Paris each year. Among the sixteen other universities are the following: Lyon, which is particularly well-known for medicine and for study of textile processes; Grenoble, in the Alps, where foreign students are especially welcomed; Toulouse, an old university in southern France; and Marseille, especially good for sciences and law.

There are few social organizations in French universities. Furthermore, sports play a minor part in student life, not being organized as they are in America. One of the favorite activities is interest and participation in politics.

Other higher schools include l'Ecole Normale Supérieure for training of professors, l'Ecole des Beaux-Arts for art, Saint-Cyr for army officers, l'Ecole Polytechnique for military engineers, and Le Conservatoire

for music and dramatic arts. The Collège de France was founded in the sixteenth century by François I in Paris in order to provide for instruction not given by the conservative University of Paris. It has no examinations and grants no degrees, but offers a series of lectures which are free, open to the public, and given by prominent professors.

Conclusion. Organized amateur sports are much less important in France than in the United States. Tennis and a kind of football are popular, while pelote, a Basque game resembling handball, is the main sport in the Pyrenees section. The richer Parisian set is fond of attending the horse races at Longchamp, and the whole country follows with interest the annual Tour de France cycliste for which the race course is an entire circuit of France. Skiing and skating are features of the mountain winter resorts. At the beaches or plages such as at Biarritz, Nice, and Deauville there is swimming and boating. The ordinary Frenchman in any part of the country can enjoy fishing and hunting. Fencing is a well-patronized school sport.

The café is one of the main units of social life. It is universal, for the village peasants as much as for the Parisian élite. The café usually has an open-air terrasse, shaded by awnings and possibly screened by shrubbery, where refreshments are served. Cafés for the French replace the American clubs, and furnish the place for relaxation, sociability, and discussion of politics or other topics of general interest. There is no occasion for hurry, and the café is the scene of card games, the reading of newspapers, and even letter-writing.

Large business corporations are comparatively rare in France, but

several are of interest. Le Creusot, a steel center in northeastern France, is the seat of the Schneider company which manufactures high quality guns and munitions, and also locomotives and other machinery. The automobile industry in France is second only to that of the United States. The average French autos are smaller and more expensive than similar American cars. Three popular French makes are the Citroën, the Peugeot, and the larger Renault.

The French army is one of the largest and strongest in Europe. The military schools furnish efficient officers, and at the age of twenty every Frenchman is required to do military service for a certain period of time. He may be called back to the army at any time until he reaches the age of forty-five. Thus, France has a large potential army of trained soldiers in reserve at all times.

The government air force is comparatively small, but is being built up rapidly at present. However, commercial aviation is important. The airport of Le Bourget near Paris, the landing place of Lindbergh on his first transatlantic flight, is a center of European air transportation. It is only two and one-half hours from London.

The French navy is small compared to that of other world powers. It consists mainly of light cruisers, aircraft carriers, and submarines, used to patrol the coast in the Mediterranean and the Atlantic. Part of it is always near the African colonies. The French merchant marine includes well-known passenger ships such as the Normandie.

The French home or foyer (hearth) is a closed institution where few outsiders may penetrate. Furthermore, family ties are extremely close,

and all members are likely to be together in every-day business as well as on Sunday promenades and picnics. The French are thrifty and prefer saving money or improving their business to spending for luxuries or modern conveniences. The parent's authority in the home is strong, and marriage arrangements are usually made by the respective parents of the bride and groom. It is still customary for the father of the bride to settle a sum of money on the couple as a dowry or dot. In the matter of religious faith France is predominantly Catholic, although there is no state religion. Marriage ceremonies which are performed in the church must also be performed by civil authority. Most French towns and villages furnish fewer opportunities than do American towns for entertainment outside the home. Social life is comparatively simple, and centered around the foyer.

TEST

Contemporary France

Part I

Directions: Write the answer to each question on the line at the left of the number.

- | | |
|---|---|
| Alsace or
Lorraine | 1. Name a province taken by Germany after the Franco-Prussian war. |
| Clemenceau | 2. Who was the war-time premier known as "The Tiger?" |
| Foch | 3. Who was the commander of the allied forces at the close of the world war? |
| 1914-1918 | 4. What are the dates of the last World War? |
| Dreyfus | 5. What treason case was championed by Zola and Anatole France? |
| Romain Rolland | 6. Who is the author of the novel <u>Jean-Christophe</u> ? |
| <u>Le Penseur</u> (The
Thinker) | 7. What is the masterpiece of the sculptor Rodin? |
| Lavoisier | 8. What eighteenth century French scientist is called the founder of modern chemistry? |
| Braille | 9. Who perfected the system of raised print to enable the blind to read? |
| Pasteur | 10. Who discovered the first successful cure for rabies? |
| Madame Curie | 11. Who was the greatest French woman scientist? |
| <u>Chambre des Deputés</u>
(Chamber of Deputies) | 12. Which is the most important French legislative body? |
| Daladier | 13. Who is the present premier of France? |
| Lebrun | 14. Who is the president of France? |
| Poincaré | 15. Who was president of France during the World War? |
| Seven years | 16. For how long a period does the president of France serve? |
| less | 17. Has the president of France more or less power than the president of the United States? |

- left.....18. On which side of the Chamber of Deputies do the radicals sit?
- larger.....19. Is the French Senate larger or smaller than that of the United States?
- college.....20. What French secondary school has the same educational program as the lycée?
- National government.....21. Is education in France directed chiefly by the national government or by the département?
- Le Bourget.....22. Name the important airport near Paris.
- Catholic.....23. What is the religious faith of most French people?
- Normandie.....24. Name a famous French passenger ship.
- dot.....25. What name is given the dowry in French marriages?

Part II

Directions: From Column II select the answer to each item of Column I and write the number of the answer in the parenthesis at the left of the item. The answers of one section may be matched with the items of the same section only.

Column I	Column II
(10) 26. Name the painter of scenes in the South Sea islands.	1. Ampère
(15) 27. Name the composer of the <u>Boléro</u> .	2. Bernard
(11) 28. Name the biologist whose theories were followed by Darwin.	3. Bertillon
(1) 29. What electrician gave his name to the unit of intensity of electric current?	4. Bizet
(9) 30. What Frenchman gave his name to an early type of photograph?	5. Briand
(6) 31. Name the composer of the opera <u>Louise</u> .	6. Charpentier
(14) 32. Name the outstanding mathematician of modern times.	7. Madame Curie
(12) 33. Which scientist discovered the principle of the hydraulic press?	8. Cuvier
	9. Laguerre
	10. Gauguin
	11. Lamarck
	12. Pascal

(13) 34. Which scientist discovered the importance of bacteria?

13. Pasteur

(7) 35. Who discovered a treatment for cancer?

14. Poincaré

15. Ravel

Column I

(13) 36. Who was the chief of the French army during the World War?

(5) 37. Name a French writer who was formerly ambassador to Washington.

(10) 38. Who wrote Les Caves du Vatican?

(17) 39. Name the author of A la recherche du temps perdu.

(7) 40. Name the author of Scènes de la vie future.

(12) 41. Which poet wrote La Salle à manger?

(19) 42. Who wrote Les Hommes de bonne Volonté?

(14) 43. What French author writes popularized biographies?

(11) 44. Name the author of Amphitryon 38.

(6) 45. Who wrote the play Tovaritch?

(4) 46. Who may be called creator of modern French painting?

(3) 47. What Frenchman was premier many times?

(1) 48. What Frenchman was a pioneer in the field of the standardized objective test?

(8) 49. What present-day writer has the title, Prince of Poets?

(16) 50. Who wrote the play Topaze?

Column II

1. Binet

2. Bourget

3. Briand

4. Cézanne

5. Claudel

6. Deval

7. Duhamel

8. Fort

9. Anatole France

10. Gide

11. Giraudoux

12. James

13. Joffre

14. Maurois

15. Morand

16. Pagnol

17. Proust

18. Régnier

19. Romaine

20. Zola

Part III

Directions: Place the number of the part which makes the best answer to the statement in the parenthesis before the statement.

(3) Paris is in: 1. Germany. 2. England. 3. France.

In this sample, "France" is the correct answer. The number of the word "France" is 3. The figure 3 has been placed in the parenthesis.

- (2) 51. The uprising in Paris after the Franco-Prussian War was called the: 1. Bloc. 2. Commune. 3. Second Republic.
- (3) 52. A structure built for the International Exposition of 1889 was: 1. Elysée Palace. 2. Institut Pasteur. 3. Eiffel Tower.
- (2) 53. "Ils ne passeront pas" was the French slogan at the battle of: 1. Marne. 2. Verdun. 3. Belleau Wood.
- (3) 54. A modern French poet noted for his Catholic faith is: 1. Gide. 2. Giraudoux. 3. Claudel.
- (3) 55. The French writer who advocated the literary theory of Unanimism is: 1. Giraudoux. 2. Paul Fort. 3. Romaine.
- (1) 56. A Frenchman who has written about American life is: 1. Maurois. 2. James. 3. Proust.
- (1) 57. A modern French painter was: 1. Van Gogh. 2. Bavel. 3. Gide.
- (3) 58. The work of Madame Curie is carried on by the: 1. Institut Pasteur. 2. Ecole Polytechnique. 3. Institut de Radium.
- (1) 59. The scientist who was guillotined during the French Revolution was: 1. Lavoisier. 2. Pascal. 3. Lamarck.
- (2) 60. The president of France is selected by: 1. popular vote. 2. the Senate and Chamber of Deputies. 3. the cabinet.
- (1) 61. The Supreme Court of Appeal in Paris is the: 1. Cour de Cassation. 2. Cour d'Assises. 3. Cour de Première Instance.
- (3) 62. The name given the administrative subdivisions of Paris is: 1. canton. 2. département. 3. arrondissement.
- (2) 63. A criminal court in France is called: 1. Conseil d'Etat. 2. Cour d'Assises. 3. juge de paix.
- (3) 64. The governmental body which gives advice to the lawmakers is: 1. Cité universitaire. 2. Cour de Première Instance. 3. Conseil d'Etat.

- (1) 65. The juge de paix decides cases for the: 1. canton. 2. province.
3. département.
- (3) 66. The president of France lives in the: 1. Jardin des Plantes.
2. Hotel des Invalides. 3. Elysée Palace.
- (2) 67. The Chamber of Deputies meets in the: 1. Luxembourg Palace.
2. Palais-Bourbon. 3. Tuileries.
- (2) 68. When a premier resigns, his successor is chosen by: 1. the Senate.
2. The president and the Chamber of Deputies. 3. a general election.
- (1) 69. Paris is governed by the: 1. Préfet de la Seine. 2. premier.
3. president.
- (3) 70. The power of ruling by decree when the legislative bodies are not in session may be given to the: 1. president. 2. Cour d'Assises. 3. premier.
- (1) 71. The préfet of the département is chosen by the: 1. president.
2. popular vote. 3. arrondissements.
- (3) 72. The coalition of French parties is called a: 1. bourse.
2. foyer. 3. bloc.
- (3) 73. Pupils in the eleventh class attend the: 1. école normale.
2. école maternelle. 3. école primaire.
- (1) 74. Secondary schools in France are: 1. for both boys and girls separately. 2. coeducational. 3. for boys only.
- (3) 75. The fall term of French schools begins about: 1. September first.
2. September fifteenth. 3. October first.
- (2) 76. Students usually finish schooling at the lycée at the age of:
1. fourteen. 2. eighteen. 3. twenty-one.
- (1) 77. A university attended by many foreign students is at:
1. Grenoble. 2. Montpellier. 3. Nancy.
- (3) 78. The number of state-supported universities in France is:
1. nine. 2. thirteen. 3. seventeen.
- (2) 79. The school of Saint-Cyr is for: 1. music. 2. military training.
3. art.
- (1) 80. Music and dramatic arts are taught at the: 1. Conservatoire.
2. Ecole des Beaux-Arts. 3. Ecole Polytechnique.

- (1) 81. One degree given at the universities is the: 1. agrégé.
2. bachelier. 3. faculté.
- (3) 82. In French universities there are: 1. more women than men.
2. about the same number men as women. 3. more men than women.
- (2) 83. There is a university at: 1. Fontainebleau. 2. Toulouse.
3. Chartres.
- (3) 84. The diploma required for entrance into a French university is the: 1. agrégé. 2. licence. 3. baccalauréat.
- (2) 85. Military engineers are trained at the: 1. Ecole des Beaux-Arts.
2. Ecole Polytechnique. 3. Institut Pasteur.
- (2) 86. Pupils who board and lodge at their school are called:
1. externes. 2. internes.
- (1) 87. A French scholarship is called a: 1. bourse. 2. baccalauréat.
3. licence.
- (3) 88. An educational institution at Paris giving free lectures to the public is: 1. Saint-Cyr. 2. the Conservatoire. 3. the Collège de France.
- (1) 89. The dormitory unit found at several French universities is called the: 1. cité universitaire. 2. pension. 3. faculté.
- (1) 90. The Collège de France was founded by: 1. François I.
2. Louis XIV. 3. Napoleon I.
- (2) 91. The usual day for vacation in French schools is: 1. Wednesday.
2. Thursday. 3. Saturday.
- (2) 92. Pelote is a game popular in: 1. Paris. 2. the Pyrenees.
3. Flanders.
- (3) 93. The track for horse-racing near Paris is at: 1. Luxembourg.
2. Versailles. 3. Longchamp.
- (3) 94. One of the seaside resort cities is: 1. Avignon. 2. Chartres.
3. Biarritz.
- (2) 95. Nice is noted as the site of a: 1. steel center. 2. seaside resort. 3. university.
- (1) 96. A popular make of French auto is the: 1. Citroën. 2. Fiat.
3. Renard.

- (2) 97. A large steel center in Central France is at: 1. Dijon.
2. Le Creusot. 3. Beauville.
- (2) 98. French boys undergo a period of military training at the age of:
1. eighteen. 2. twenty. 3. twenty-five.
- (3) 99. The strongest French military division is the: 1. air force.
2. navy. 3. army.
- (1) 100. To be legal, French marriages must be performed by: 1. civil
authorities. 2. the Church.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

An evaluation of the results of the foregoing project can not always be specific because of certain limitations due to its experimental nature. This study covers such a wide range of topics that much possible material is necessarily excluded. A major problem, therefore, in the assembling of information for the four units has been that of selection. This was especially true in connection with historical figures, authors, artists, and scientists. An effort has been made to find material that is generally accepted as important to students of French. The works listed in the bibliography of this thesis were consulted carefully with this idea in mind.

The success of the project should be judged not only from the scores made by the students on the various tests, but also from the comments of the students to whom the material was submitted, the comments of the instructor who presented it, and the knowledge of this class as compared with that of other classes who had not followed this particular course of study. A great responsibility in the presentation of the units falls on the instructor. His teaching and interpretation must make the facts live and seem vital to the students. The real purpose of the units is to furnish a guide for the instructor rather than a text for the class.

Presenting foreign cultural material in English by the teacher is usually considered more successful than expecting the student to gain his entire knowledge through the reading of foreign texts. In the latter

method the student is likely to be handicapped by technical difficulties and proceed much more slowly. Also, he misses much pleasure and interest because the text can not make the material as vivid as the instructor can. This is especially true of beginning students. It will be noted, however, that the class which followed this experiment read about the history and literature in French (Cf. Chapter I, p. 2).

The success of the project has been greatly aided by the excellent cooperation of the French class itself. The students took an active interest in the material, and applied themselves as consistently to the study of French culture as to their other class work. They were invited to regard the work critically. At the end of each unit they were asked to write any comments or suggestions, signed or unsigned, that they thought might be appropriate. Finally, at the close of the course, they wrote their appreciation and evaluation of the civilization study. These comments were on the whole quite conscientious and helpful, and will form the basis for much of the analysis of the success of the enterprise.

The material and tests were presented to between thirty-five and forty students of all college classifications. The range in scores on the tests gives an indication as to the effectiveness of the project. It further shows the variation of the different units in difficulty and in previous familiarity to the students.

The first test, which covered the unit on the country and people, had a range in scores from 65 to 100. The median score was 90. The test on history, which was next in order of administration, produced a range in scores from 42 to 100. This time the median was 84, showing

that the material had been much more difficult. In the third test, over literature, the scores ranged from 36 to 99. The median, 75, was by far the lowest of all the tests. The test over contemporary France had scores ranging from 61 to 99 1/2. The median was 92. One-half point was counted off in each test for mistakes in spelling in the completion questions.

The material was prepared with special reference to the student who may take only ten hours of French. Students who have majors or minors in French eventually come in contact with considerable information on civilization. Frequently, however, a beginning student has had little contact with the culture of the foreign nation whose language he is studying. If he does not receive this in his beginning course, he may miss it entirely. The student who gains a considerable background of cultural information from his beginning work, and then wishes to continue his studies of the language, acquires that phase of his study when he needs it most. For example, when he begins his first literature course, he has already had some contact with the works of literature he may read. This was found to be true of the students who went directly from their first-year work into the class on Selected French Readings offered the following summer. They were enabled to make judicious choices of books for outside reading as well as to be aware of the literary value of the authors to be studied.

In the course of the experiment several weaknesses became evident. One apparent inconsistency is the including of music and art in the section on literature. This is one of the reasons why the unit proved more difficult

than the others. There is, however, a relationship between the literary movements and corresponding activity in the fields of other arts. It seems likely that the third section would be improved by a further selection and omission to simplify and reduce the amount of factual matter. Because of its bulk, the section on literature seems the most open to challenge. But it is also evident that a student of French should know the more important names in French literature. Furthermore, considerable poetry was read and interpreted to the class in order to make the author, his style and period clearer. In addition, books of literary value were often shown to the students. Such books included Jean-Christophe, by Romain Rolland, and Le Crime de Sylvestre Bonnard, by Anatole France. The students who took first-year French for senior-college credit were required to attend one extra class each week. This hour was devoted to the study of French literature. Although there was no text for this part of the course, many selections were given to the class in typed form. The instructor thought that an anthology of French literary selections suitable for beginning students would have obviated the difficulty which the class had in reading material without notes or vocabulary. The students receiving senior-college credit in the course memorized several poems, including the Rondeau by Charles d'Orléans, La Cigale et la Fourmi by La Fontaine, and Extase by Victor Hugo.

Another possible weakness of the tests is the danger of including questions or facts which are more nearly on vocabulary than on culture. Such a possibility has been avoided wherever possible, but it has seemed advisable to include the French words for many names and institutions

because there is no real translation which conveys the exact idea. Thus the word dot is used in connection with French marriages because it explains the custom better than the English word "dowry."

The unit on contemporary France might be criticized as being too much a miscellaneous division. It does contain a considerable variety of topics which have little relation to one another. The fact that all the material on science is included in the last section is open to question; but, since it would be quite out of place in any of the other sections, it has seemed advisable to leave it where it is. Also, the scientific contributions discussed have been mainly in the last century. The purpose of the last section is to tie up all the foregoing units with life in France in the present day.

Some of the most frequent criticisms of the students themselves should be noted. The test over the material on the country and people was thought to be too easy, and it was suggested that some of the answers could be guessed from the wording of other questions. However, there was considerable difference of opinion as to which of the questions actually were too easy. Twelve questions were challenged in the first test on such grounds, but no two students cited the same question. It is probable that this was because the students found the material easy which they had already assimilated from other sources.

In the test on history the students noted that the unit and questions were more difficult than they had been in the first one. It was thought that some questions answered others, and that the fact that the questions were listed in chronological order gave away the answers occasionally.

The section on literature received the most criticism. It was cited as being more difficult than the first two sections, as covering too much unrelated material and as containing too many names which were hard to differentiate in the time allotted for the study of them. Some of the criticism of this section was only personal opinion based on the sense of value of the student. For example, music students felt that their field had been slighted in favor of literature. Art students would have preferred more material on French art. Literature students thought that the music and art material might be discarded as not being of sufficient importance.

The section on contemporary France was criticized least of all. A few thought the test was too easy, and one person found the discussion of the French judicial organization difficult to understand. However, most of the comments were favorable. It is likely that many of the students had some previous acquaintance with parts of this unit, and favored it for that reason.

The comments on the project as a whole are gratifying. The main objection was that there was too much detail and memory work in the unit on literature. It was suggested further that a study of fewer things more intensively would be more enjoyable. One person expressed a preference for more tests with fewer questions each time. Another thought that each student should have a copy of the source material. Only one person expressed a preference for the study of grammar and composition exclusive of civilization material.

One of the strongest points in favor of the project is the fact that

it gives the student the names of persons, places and institutions which he may meet elsewhere than in French class. Movies he has seen, such as Marie Antoinette, Tovarich, or The Life of Emile Zola should receive a new appreciation. References to French literature in American books and magazines will have more value. The American student will find these contacts with France in newspapers, the radio, the theater, or acquaintance with French people.

The comments of the students in favor of the experiment were more numerous than the adverse ones. Concerning the section on the country and people, there was a general agreement that the material was interesting and that the test covered the main points without being difficult to understand. The material on history was commended especially by students who had had little contact with the subject before, and whose ideas about the various kings or even Napoleon I were quite vague. It was generally granted that the section on literature contained worth while information, and the test was considered clear although the questions were not easy. Contemporary France seemed to appeal most to the students, and the material and test for this section were almost universally approved.

Commenting in retrospect on the entire course, the students made many commendatory remarks. It was said that the civilization matter was more valuable to most students than the study of grammar and irregular verbs. Some students found that they had gained a French background valuable in other college courses. A frequent comment was that the cultural matter "has a definite bearing on our study of French." Finally, the material was thought to have achieved its purpose in giving an acquaintance

with France and an appreciation of the nation as a whole.

The variation of the median scores of the four tests from 75 to 92 is not a desirable factor. However, a certain variation would be almost impossible to avoid if the foregoing material were covered effectively in the tests. This is due to the fact that certain phases of civilization study are more difficult than others. Furthermore, the beginning class to which the units and tests were given was composed of students from all college classes and many major fields. History students, for example, made excellent scores in that particular section, but were likely to be a disadvantage in the study of literature. The fact that the juniors and seniors in the class were studying French literature one hour extra each week was a great aid to them, for they made better average scores on this test than did the other students.

In conclusion, an appreciation and understanding of a foreign country is one of the main products to be desired from the study of a language. The time devoted to the civilization material is well worth while when it gives a class a feeling of awareness that deepens the interest in the study of the language. In the foregoing experiment the students and the instructor felt that certain gains could not be tested by an objective test. Furthermore, the instructor would present a more vivid picture of French life than can be indicated by a mere outline of facts. The median scores do not reveal the entire effectiveness of the experiment. For example, the section on contemporary France probably gave the class more of a sense of comprehension of the spirit of France than any of the others; and yet, due to the type of material it contained, it was the hardest

to test objectively. However, a great advantage has been gained when the instructor can mention historical events, or works of art and literature, or a university, or merely a section of Paris in connection with his teaching, and receive a feeling of appreciation and understanding from a majority of the class.

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Amateau, Edward I., French Civilization. New York: Globe Book Company, 1936. 65 pp.

A very brief outline of facts about French culture treating about twenty-five different aspects of France such as geography, colonies, agriculture and industry, and the like. Items of interest are listed but not discussed.

Bagley, Charles R., Great Men of France. Boston, D. C. Heath and Company, 1932. 222 pp.

Aims to give a view of French culture through a biographical discussion in French of ten great men from different fields. It is intended for second-year college work. The men discussed are: Henry IV, Descartes, Molière, Watteau, Rousseau, Hugo, Pasteur, Rodin, Anatole France and Foch.

Bovée, Arthur Gibbon, and Lilly Lindquist, Une Aventure en français. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Vol. I, 543 pp.

The first of a two-volume series of beginning French texts. It is divided into three parts: a study of phonetics and pronunciation; alternating study of grammar, history, and civilization material; and a section of reading selections. The history and civilization material is in French, and the history selections are especially complete.

Buda, Robert, "A French Cultural Test." Unpublished Master's thesis, College of the City of New York, 1931.

A test of seventy-five items was made to test French cultural knowledge. It was administered to eighty college students and two hundred high-school pupils. The conclusion of the study was that cultural knowledge was not stressed by the teachers and the students' acquaintance with it was only incidental.

Chinard, Gilbert, Petite Histoire des lettres françaises. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1934. 343 pp.

Written in French as a text for intermediate college and high-school French classes. The most important names in French literature are treated, and many modern authors are mentioned. The work includes several full-page pictures of authors.

_____, Scènes de la vie française. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1938. 346 pp.

The book is composed of short essays about various phases of life in France: the village, the town, the city, Paris with its points of special interest. Each of the above is discussed with special emphasis on education, government, and occupations.

Cole, Robert D. and James Burton Tharp, Modern Foreign Languages and Their Teaching. New York: D.Appleton-Century Company, 1937. 640 pp.

A book discussing methods of teaching modern foreign languages with reference to the different objectives of the instructor. Contains a brief history of tests in French civilization, listing the most important tests, their authors, and purpose.

Cotnam, A. Louise, and others, Course of Study in French. Des Moines Public Schools, 1935. 270 pp. + xxviii.

A detailed syllabus for three years of high-school French with daily charts specifying just what should be done during each class period. The main objective of the courses is to learn to read French, but much material on civilization is included.

Cru, Albert L., La France. Distributed by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1937. 145 pp.

Designed to supply facts about France to the teacher. The material is brief and written in French. The book resembles an outline with occasional short discussions. The section on history has the most detailed information. Occasionally rather unusual topics are treated such as "Les grandes batailles de l'Histoire de France," and "Les meilleurs livres français sur la Guerre."

Denoew, François, Petit Miroir de la civilisation française. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1938. 306 pp.

This book, intended for students with two years' study of the language, is divided into seven parts dealing with geography, history, government and colonies, Paris, literature, arts and sciences, education and French life in general. The language is fairly simple, and more emphasis is given to contemporary topics than to historical matters.

Des Granges, Ch.-M., and Oliver Towles, Histoire de la Civilisation française. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1934. 473 pp.

Presents a historical and social background of modern France for students who can read French easily. The six parts into which it is divided are the Middle Ages, the Renaissance, the seventeenth century, the eighteenth century, the period from 1789 to 1848, and the nineteenth century. Each period is developed so as to treat the social, historical, political, literary, artistic and scientific aspects of the time.

Fenley, G. Ward, and Henry A. Grubbs, Jr., An Outline Notebook of French Literature. New York: F. S. Crofts and Company, 1933. 88 pp.

Contains the history of French literature in outline form suitable as an aid to students in survey courses of French literature or as a guide for any rapid review of the field. The work has a blank page for notations opposite each page of outline, and an index that is helpful for quick reference.

French, Junior and Senior High School. Course of Study Monograph, Number Fifteen. Public Schools Denver, Colorado, 1925. 276 pp.

A course of study containing plans for a two-year junior high school course and a one-year senior high school course. In addition to the weekly schedules it contains a great deal of cultural material for the guidance of the instructor. The course of study seems to give almost equal value to the study of grammar and to the use of realia material.

Guyer, Foster Erwin, The Main Stream of French Literature. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1932. 350 pp.

A rapid survey of the history of French literature from its origins to about 1914. All the more important writers and movements are included. The book is especially suitable for beginning students in French literature.

Havens, George R., and Olin H. Moore, Easy French Readings. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1936. 518 pp. + cxvii.

A reader for intermediate French students. It contains Le Voyage de M. Ferrichon and La dernière Classe in complete form, and parts of Sans Famille, Le Comte de Monte-Cristo, and Les Misérables. Civilization material is interspersed among the literary selections, and the discussions of authors are especially valuable.

Headlam, Cecil, France. Vol. VI, 408 pp. The Making of the Nations, 4 vols.; London: Adam and Charles Black, 1913.

A short history of France to the end of the Franco-Prussian War. The style is interesting and there are many pictures of people and places important in French history.

Hills, E. C., and Mathurin Pondo, La France. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1931. 290 pp.

Designed to be a text for beginning French students. The reading matter is prepared to include words of high frequency, and the selections are written in a simple, popular vein so as to make the study interesting as well as educational. French history and civilization in general furnish the subject matter.

Hourticq, Louis, Art in France. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1911. 469 pp.

A history of art in France from the time of the Romans to the beginning of the twentieth century. Nearly a thousand illustrations of works of art add much to its value.

Huddleston, Sidney, France and the French. New York: Jonathan Cape and Harrison Smith (Travellers' Library), 1929. 311 pp.

This book is not intended to be a school text, but a source of information about contemporary France designed for the reading public. The first division treats the social and intellectual phases; the second discusses the political and economic angles.

Miller, Minnie M., "A Test on French Life and Culture," Modern Language Journal, XX: 158-162, December, 1935.

One hundred questions on French culture divided into completion, matching, and multiple choice types.

Nitze, William A., and E. Preston Dargan, A History of French Literature. Revised edition; New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1928. 818 pp.

A complete and authoritative work suitable for reference or for actual study of French literature.

Pargment, M. S., La France et les Français. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925. 371 pp.

The purpose of the book is to furnish cultural information to American students of French. There are three divisions: the first is concerned with the French nation as a whole, including a resumé of the history; the second treats the people, their customs and characteristics; the third is about the French cultural and intellectual achievements.

Paris, W. Franklyn, French Arts and Letters. New York: G. A. Baker and Company, 1937. 182 pp.

A series of essays which deal mainly with French art. Especially good for a discussion of the Gobelin tapestry factory.

Peck, Anne Merriman, and Edmond A. Méras, France: Crossroads of Europe. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1936. 324 pp.

Written in English for students of French, especially at the high school level. Many aspects of France are discussed: geography, history, government, art, literature, science, education, etc. It is intended also to correlate the study of French with the study of social science.

Sedgwick, Henry Dwight, France, A Short History. Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1929. 418 pp.

A book intended to appeal to the general public, and written in a popular vein. It aims to present a short history of France's "politics, literature, and art from earliest times to the present."

Stokes, Hugh, French Art in French Life. London: Philip Allen and Company, 1932. 272 pp.

Written in a popular style with a view to showing the relation between French art and French life. Has a rather complete list of the more important painters and full-page reproductions of several, although not in color.

Tharp, J. B., "A Test in French Civilization," French Review, VIII: 283-287, March, 1935.

Made for testing the cultural information of French majors about to be certified to teach. A matching test of persons and places under five categories of geography and travel; history; fine arts and music; science, invention, and education; and literature.

Whiting, May, Introduction to French Civilization. Ithaca, New York: The Thrift Press, 1938. 70 pp.

A brief treatment of the civilization of France including history, literature, art, government from a chronological standpoint. At the end of the work are several valuable lists including French writers, principal rulers and presidents, cathedrals, and châteaux.

Wright, C. H. Conrad, History of the Third French Republic. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916. 206 pp.

Discusses the Franco-Prussian War and the various administrations from the forming of the Third Republic until the World War. ma