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# BATHS.—PART I.

Edith M. M. Bendeley, Montreal and London, Eng.

"Cleanliness is next to godliness," says the old proverb, and most of us have had this quotation hurled at our youthful heads during that period of life when personal appearances were less to us than the pleasures of the moment. To be told how dirty we were and how ashamed we ought to be, did not convey to our budding intelligence any sense of humiliation or dishonor; only our faces fell and our spirits were dampened by the foreboding certainty of a more than damp experience to follow, when the ruling powers of the nursery took us in hand and cleaned us with more thoroughness than mercy. History shows us that, though cleanliness has often gone without the sequel indicated in the proverb, it has always followed in the wake of civilization and been recognized as a factor in the æsthetic and moral life. The Greeks bathed often, and the Romans considered public baths a necessity besides having private ones in every house that could afford it. We know that when the Roman legions had hewn their way through the pathless forests of Britain and had brought the proud and valiant tribes to their knees, they cut roads and built towns in which public baths were established as indispensable to a Roman community. In the west of England, where some mineral springs exist, they constructed large stone basins into which the warm chalybeate waters could flow. Here Roman society congregated; the troops stationed in the colony of Britain constituted a military coterie, and we can picture tired officers and their gay wives and families riding down from Londonium to take the waters at Bath and spend a furlough in the pretty villas which then, as now, dotted the surrounding country. "The old order changeth," and the little colony of a great empire has become the centre of another empire, no less great than that of 2,000 years ago. The Great Western railway has cut an iron road through a lovely country, and the jaded Londoner and gouty or dyspeptic subject of His Majesty King Edward can run down in three hours to the quiet, aristocratic little town where the old Roman baths are still carefully preserved, and

where every facility is offered for drinking and bathing in the rich mineral waters which flow as freely now as they did in the days of the Cæsars. Later on we find that the gilded youth of Rome had become so enervated in mind and morals that they would spend a greater part of the day lounging in their baths; so a virtue became a vice, and the barbarians from the north sacked the city, scoffing at a foppish generation which could no longer hold its own, despite the veneer of cleanliness which masked nothing but effeminacy and vice.

In the Middle Ages we find a quite opposite idea rampant. The good and saintly seem to have evolved the notion that cleanliness of the body was a snare of the devil and a sinful pandering to the flesh. The "dirty saint" was a model of holiness, and the monk who could wear his hair shirt the longest without washing, in fact, until the garment went into dissolution of its own accord, was considered a person of great spiritual attainments. In those days the laws of Moses were evidently in disrepute, and it is not surprising to find that in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries epidemics such as the "black death" swept over Europe, killing off three-quarters of its inhabitants. So outraged nature intimated to humanity that if it would survive, it must find the happy medium between an enervating, half aquatic existence which paralyzed its manhood, and a degrading neglect of cleanliness which bred wholesale destruction and death.

A short statement of the structure of the skin will help us to understand how important it is that the functional activity of our outer covering should not be impeded.

The skin consists of an outer surface or epidermis composed of layers of minute cells, which, when they reach the surface, dry and fall off as scales. This is especially noticeable in the scurf of the scalp, but the shedding of epidermal scales goes on continually all over the body, though not perceptible to the eye on account of their minuteness. Below the epidermis is the dermis or corium, which contains blood vessels and nerves and is sometimes called the true skin. In the dermis there are two kinds of glands, the sudoriparous or perspiration glands which secrete from the blood vessels in the dermis a varying quantity of water, containing chiefly salt and some solids of an acid or fatty nature; and the sebaceous glands which secrete a fatty or oily substance. Both kinds of glands open on the surface of the epidermis, the sebaceous glands are always connected with hairs and their excretion keeps the skin smooth and supple. Hence we see that the skin is primarily an organ for excreting waste matter taken from the blood. It has, however, another most important function, namely, the regulation of the temperature of the body. Heat is generated by the oxidation of the tissues in just the same way as it is produced by the oxidation of coal in burning. The circulation of the blood distributes the heat and keeps the temperature even. The skin is always a little colder than the internal organs, and the blood passing through the capillaries in the dermis gives up some of its heat which passes off from the body by evaporation with the sweat and by radiation. When more heat than usual is formed, more blood is sent

to the skin and more heat is lost through the expansion and increased activity of the glands. Cold tends to contract the skin, with the result that less heat is lost and the body retains its normal temperature, whatever the outer conditions may be. Another curious fact in this connection is, that cold slightly increases the production of heat in the body while heat lessens it, so the temperature is kept normal, not only through the amount of loss but by the regulation of the production of heat. The results of not keeping the skin clean are far-reaching and affect the whole body in the long-run. In the first place the waste epidermis tends to collect, obstructing the pores and so hindering the excretion of the perspiration and oily matter. The quality and natural beauty of the skin will in time become hopelessly spoilt through the accumulation of effete matters, and the blood as it circulates through the network of capillaries lying in the dermis will perforce take up, instead of getting rid of, certain substances which it is the natural function of the skin to excrete. A cold, clammy skin is the least of the evils following the neglect of personal cleanliness, and most of the horrible skin diseases are due to the same cause. I say "most" advisedly, for there are certain skin affections which are due to bad diet and which affect people who are spotlessly clean and refined. A delicate skin will often be the suffering organ when the blood has become tainted or overheated. An excess of fats or starchy foods will in some constitutions produce very distressing conditions of the skin, even when great care is observed. Another evil follows in the train of a dirty skin. The sensibility is dulled through the inability of the sensory papillæ to re-act in response to changes of temperature. The sensations received by the skin are the natural means of regulating the temperature of the body. The deficiency of nervous tone due to blunted sensibility, enormously increases the tendency to chills. Hence, the unwashed run a far greater risk of colds and all other developments than the cleanly. A coating of dirt is no protection from inclement weather and the wearer thereof is far more likely to fall a victim to pneumonia, catarrh and kindred maladies than the person who washes daily and is the happy possessor of a fine, clear, sensitive skin. There are some very curious fallacies believed in by many worthy and cleanly people. While fully recognizing the need of a bath after violent exercise, some will tell you that a sedentary life or a quiet day in the house has obviated the necessity of such careful washing as is necessary when one comes in hot and travel-stained. As a matter of fact, persons leading a sedentary life need baths more than the active because when the skin is kept active by exercise it partially cleans itself and the products of this kind of natural ablution are to be found chiefly on the clothes. But under sedentary conditions all the excretions collect on the skin and need to be thoroughly and often removed.

It is by no means uncommon to find the victim of a "cold" huddled into bed and kept there for several days while the bath has a holiday. The skin does its best under these adverse conditions to get rid of the excess of carbonic

acid and salts and acids which the blood is charged with, and the sufferer lies sweltering in moist heat and discomfort until his "cold" is a little better and it is considered safe to approach soap and water. Many a cold might be nipped in the very beginning by a hot bath followed by a speedy retreat between the bedclothes and a hot drink. It should be remembered however, that the profuse perspiration following is Nature's way of throwing off the "cold" and the skin should be washed with warm water within twelve hours (in bed if necessary) and this should be kept up while the sufferer is in bed. A cool sponge bath with some salt in it should be taken on first getting up, as after a chill and much sweating, the skin is sensitive and needs hardening and strengthening. Finally, we are all of us familiar with the excuse that we are "too tired to wash to-night,,' and consequently feel justified in betaking ourselves (hot and dirty) to bed. "Mother, need I wash to-night, I'm so sleepy?" says the child who has been allowed to regard cleanliness as a bore, and the indulgent mother with an eye to saving trouble as well as pleasing her darling, replies: "No, dear, you needn't; just let me braid your hair, then jump into bed!" The wise and kind reply to the child's request would be to put the tired little body straight into a warm bath and with soap to remove part of the cause of the tiredness and with kind words divert the mind from its own sensations. The fretfulness would vanish with the dirt, and when she emerged warm and glowing from the water, the weariness would have given place to a comfortable drowsiness which would speedily end in the deep, dreamless sleep of healthy childhood.

A hot bath is a powerful tonic and a warm bath taken every night will, besides cleansing the body, increase the circulation, induce sleep and banish half the fatigue owing to stimulation of the nervous system through the sensory nerves in the corium. It is not always possible in some houses to take a nightly bath, but there is surely nothing to prevent anyone from washing the whole surface of the body before retiring to rest. This should be done with warm water and good soap, and the advisability of doing so at the end of the day lies in the fact that warmth opens the pores and contact with cold air immediately after might give a chill, while, if we retire straight to bed, no such risk is run.

The question of cold baths, sea bathing and care of the hair, etc., we can discuss in the next paper, but it may be mentioned here that it is always good to sponge the face, back and chest with cold water in the morning, as it gives tone to the skin and lessens the susceptibility to cold.

There is also something to be said for the education of children in habits of cleanliness. The childish dislike to washing is in no wise due to love of uncleanness. It is simply a bother, the subject doesn't interest them, and there are so many other things to be done! If the force of habit and sense of duty were brought to bear on the daily wash, we should find children as amenable to it as they are to anything else.

# THE HISTORY OF EDUCATION IN THE KINDERGARTEN TRAINING SCHOOL.

By Arthur O. Norton, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

The training of kindergarten directors, like the training of all other teachers, is becoming more and more extensive and complex. Froebel's own training school, founded in 1847, offered a course which could be completed in twenty-six weeks. The best training schools of to-day require two, or even three, years of study. The academic conditions for admission in Froebel's day were very modest: "The knowledge and dexterity which a good public school and girls' school give are also needed . . . by those who wish to cultivate themselves for child-directors and kindergartners." The candidates who would be admitted to the best schools to-day must have had a high school training or its equivalent, and the college-bred woman begins to appear among them. Moreover, in twenty-six weeks only the most essential parts of kindergarten theory and practice could be attempted, while in two or three years it is possible to make not only a fuller study of this system, but also to introduce other subjects of study. In many important directions, therefore, the training school is genuinely developing.

Among the new subjects thus introduced are elementary psychology, child-study in its modern form, and the history of education. The first two have received fair consideration at the hands of several recent writers on the kindergarten, and, I doubt not, at the hands of many training teachers. There has been a serious attempt to assimilate to Froebel's system whatever recent psychology and child-study have had to contribute toward its improvement. But there has been less disposition, I think, to utilize, as well, the experiences and ideals of Froebel's predecessors. Among the studies of such training schools the history of education has been given a satisfactory place, but it appears to have been neglected by kindergartners in general.

An evidence of this neglect is the attitude of many followers of Froebel toward other teachers and writers on education before—and shall I say also, after?—the founding of the kindergarten. Their devotion to Froebel is justifiable and admirable in many ways; but it has, perhaps, blinded them to the merits of his predecessors. One sees and hears, it is true, occasional references to other great teachers and writers, but the tone of these references not infrequently leads even a sympathetic critic, like the present writer, to feel that to some kindergartners all educators before Froebel are, like all political economists before Adam Smith, little better than pre-Adamites.

In urging upon training teachers the value to the kindergartner of the study of the history of education, I shall point out first, what she may gain from the subject; and, second, what are some of the ways and means to its profitable study.

## I.

In the first place, then, it should make her familiar with the whole body of literature on the education

of very young children. Froebel is only one of a series of writers on this topic,—although he is easily the greatest of them—and it vastly widens her horizon to learn that many of the supposedly distinctive ideas of Froebel were explicitly stated long before his time. For example, Plato recognized, nearly twenty-four hundred years ago, the great importance for young children of properly selected games, songs, and stories,—three agencies of education often supposed to have been brought first to public attention by Froebel. In various ways, too, he recognizes the value of the activity of children as a condition of the best training; and he clearly anticipates the kindergarten by the remark that all children of each neighborhood, between the ages of three and six, ought to meet daily under the direction of nurses for orderly play. (*Laws, vii, 794.*)

Again, Plutarch records of Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver, that "he esteemed the education of children the chiefest and greatest matter that a reformer of laws should establish"; and from various sources, notably Xenophon, Plato, and Aristotle, we obtain a fairly authentic description of the Spartan ideal, and the Spartan system of training, which existed quite twenty-five hundred years ago.

Plutarch's own essay "On the Training of Children" is extremely important, because of its modern attitude toward children, and because of its influence on the ideals of the Renaissance. It was one of the most widely-read treatises on education in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian made valuable observations on the same subject, and the educational writings of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries teem with quotations from these authors.

Perhaps the most remarkable foreshadowing of the kindergarten is found in Comenius' "School of Infancy," a manual of directions for education during the first six years of child-life. Almost every important idea of Froebel is here stated emphatically. Listen, for example, to this observation on two important ideas of the kindergarten,—activity and expression:

"Boys ever delight in being occupied in something, for their youthful blood does not allow them to be at rest. Now as this is very useful, it ought not to be restrained, but provision made that they may always have something to do. Let them be like ants, continually occupied in doing something, carrying, drawing, constructing and transposing, provided always that whatever they do be done prudently. . . . They are delighted to construct little houses and to erect walls of clay, chips, wood or stone, thus displaying an architectural genius." Froebel himself has not phrased the matter more clearly. And quotations equally to the point might be made concerning story-telling, music, nature-study, and moral training.

Moreover, two hundred years before Froebel, Comenius recognized the value for the social development of children of play with their fellows: "Although parents and attendants may be of great service to children in all these matters, yet children of their own age are of far greater service. When they play together, children of about the same age, and equal progress and

manners and habits, sharpen each other more effectually, since one does not surpass the other in depth of invention."

Further comparisons might be made, and quotations might be multiplied, but the point is perhaps sufficiently clear. The history of education first of all presents to the kindergartner a new field of literature on her own subject. It brings home the fact that most of the supposedly distinctive ideas of Froebel are not new. They are phrased differently by different writers; they reveal different ideals of the education of children; but they existed centuries ago. For the enlargement of her own view, she should know of these writings, in addition to those of Froebel.

Again, the study is of value in giving the whole kindergarten movement its proper setting in history; its relation to other great educational institutions. Schools are of very ancient origin. We know that they existed in Greece at least twenty-five hundred years ago; and there is evidence that they were established in one form or another under the most ancient civilizations. Our primary schools, our grammar schools, and our universities are the result of centuries of growth. The kindergarten is barely seventy-five years old,—the merest infant in comparison. Knowledge of these facts gives one a better sense of proportion, and a better historical perspective. To be sure, the kindergarten must always demand the greater part of the kindergartner's attention; but if she studies the history of education aright, it can never fill the entire circle of her thought. And she will be less likely, perhaps, to fall into the too common error of making extravagant assertions concerning the value of this one of the many educational institutions.

Third, she will learn that Froebel's theory of education is only one of many. One may mention Plato, Aristotle, Cicero, Quintilian, Comenius, Rousseau and Pestalozzi; but the list is too long to complete. Knowledge of the theories of these men enables one to give a juster and more critical estimate of the doctrines of Froebel himself. One way to escape undue servitude to the thought of one theorizer is to seek other points of view. And I think that such action is peculiarly needful in the case of Froebel. His writings have so definitely the stamp of genius, the "note of fire" runs through them so surely, that, without this precaution, one is likely to be carried away into excessive, exuberant, and uncritical adulation of the man and his achievements. One need not fear that his theory and his philosophy will wholly lose their inspiration in this wider knowledge. Rather, one will find in them new and more abiding significance.

I shall note but one more of the many services which the history of education may render. It gives inspiration and certainty to our own teaching by placing before us the examples of great teachers. No precept or theory can have so much power in spurring one to action as the concrete illustration of the thing actually done. It is easy to say to the young teacher, "Be enthusiastic"; but she will understand far better what enthusiasm is through the lives of Comenius, Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Arnold, and best of all through the example of living teachers. The methods of work, the successes, and quite as

often the failures, of other men and women serve as a guide for us, often more effective than the best abstract theory. "Where the discourse is without illustration," says Martin Luther, "no matter how just and excellent it may be in itself, yet it does not move the heart with such power; neither is it so clear nor so easily remembered. . . . And did we but think of it, all laws, arts, good counsels, warnings, threatenings, terrors,—all solace, strength, instruction, foresight, wisdom, prudence, together with every virtue—flow from histories as from a living fountain." I would by no means decry the study of the theory of education. But any theory gets its significance through its historical development in actual human experience.

II.

The enumeration of reasons for the study of history of education is a simple matter. But the satisfactory discussion of means and ways is both difficult and beyond the limits of this paper. I shall consider merely a few aspects of the literature of the subject, and some profitable ways of dealing with it.

The literature of the history of education in English is now abundant; much of it is recent; some of it is scholarly. For convenience we may divide the material available for the average student into four parts. First, there are the so-called histories of education in one volume. These small text-books have been produced in response to a growing demand for the study of the subject. Not infrequently they are written by men who have had little special training for the work. Some of them are avowed compilations from a few large French or German works, and none of them, within my knowledge, represents a first-hand study of sources. They attempt to give in a few hundred pages a summary of the principal educational theories, and the history of educational practices, in the chief. countries of the world, from the beginning of records. The result is, as one might expect, a mere skeleton of facts, with little or no relation to the rest of history or to the present. The facts themselves seem to be curiously unreal and far away. Frankly, these books are not histories in any true sense of the word. None of them pretends to historical scholarship, and not one of them, I believe, is written by a well trained historian.

Their style, though of varying quality, is somewhat worse than the substance. It almost never rises above colorless mediocrity; it is sometimes depressing, dispirited, and deadly dull, and sometimes atrociously bad.

As a student and teacher of the history of education, I find these books invariably stupid. They will be used and multiplied for some years, possibly, but clearly they are books to get away from as soon as may be. In the present state of research on the subject any well-proportioned and accurate single-volume history is out of the question. There must be, first of all, much careful and detailed investigation of special topics and special periods.

The second body of material to which I have referred is made up of precisely such investigations. We have at least a good beginning in the numerous educational biographies which have been issued within the past ten years. The

"Great Educators Series," edited by President Butler of Columbia University, forms a notable contribution to this group of books. Such scholarly monographs as Mr. Leach's "English Schools at the Reformation," Mr. Woodward's "Vittorino da Feltre," and Mr. Rashdall's "Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages," are examples of the kind of work which should be done over the whole field of the history of education. These books treat with sufficient fulness, and usually with fair accuracy, the facts with which they have to deal. Most of them represent a large amount of careful and often unappreciated labor. Considering the poverty-stricken state of the literature fifteen years ago, one must be glad that so much really good material is now available.

The third group of books consists of the original treatise dealing with education which have been written during the past twenty-five hundred years. The most important of these writings not originally written in our tongue now exist in good translations into English. One may mention among them the "Republic" and the "Laws" of Plato; the "Politics" of Aristotle, Cicero's "Oratory and Orators," Quintilian's "Institutes of Oratory," Plutarch's essay "On the Ages; and the more modern works of Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Froebel. By reference to these books one comes into direct touch with the past. One gains as in no other way the feeling of the nearness of that past and the similarity in thought and feeling of teachers of ancient times to those of our own. And such a feeling of nearness and kinship is essential if the facts of history are to have a living interest.

Fourthly, I mention in the briefest way some of the means by which life and vividness may be given to the subject. These are student-autobiographies, such as that of Thomas Platter, student letters, student songs, and general accounts of student life, dealing often with trivial matters, yet imparting to the more important facts an intensely human quality. To these may be added references in contemporary literature, paintings, old illustrations, and inscriptions. Beyond all these are the general social and political histories of the various countries which should be familiar to both teacher and student of the history of education.

Here indeed is material for a study which shall be interesting and profitable. But obviously it is quite too extensive to be considered in the limited time at the disposal of the kindergartner. How, then, shall the work be carried on? We lack a good general text-book on the one hand; on the other the literature available is unwieldy. May I suggest in a very tentative way a possible solution of the difficulty?

First, let the training-school provide a well-selected library of books relating to the history of education.

Second, let the topics for the course be selected carefully by the training teacher with especial reference to the needs and interests of her pupils. The history of the kindergarten movement itself lies nearest their daily work. It would seem, therefore, to be a good subject for the beginning of the course. Following this naturally is the history of theory and practice in the education of young children; and

if one were to go on one might well study next the history of education in the United States, and finally the general history of education in Europe. I am by no means sure that this order is the best one. I suggest it because, at the moment, it seems to relate the subjects most closely at each step to the other interests of the student. Experience alone can give us definite information in the matter.

Third, let the teacher discuss the selected topics fully in lectures, even where they are treated in books at the student's hand. This subject is peculiarly difficult to master from books alone. The lectures afford opportunity for emphasizing special topics and for giving a proper proportion to the whole, not afforded by any book: and the living voice, better than any other instrument of instruction, gives it life.

Fourth, let the students be sent to the books for collateral reading, with references to page and volume for each subject on which the lecturer has spoken.

Finally, let their work be tested from time to time by oral recitations, written reports and examinations.

May I insist again that the foregoing suggestions are merely tentative? I know of no training school in which the history of education is thus treated. Here, as always, we must wait for experience. But I am convinced that a study carried out on these general lines may have a living interest and significance for the kindergartner.

May I suggest further to training teachers, for whom this paper is especially written, some facts of vital importance in the best teaching of the history of education? First, the subject cannot be taught to the best advantage unless the teacher has a good knowledge of general history. Education is not a thing apart from the rest of civilization; it is closely related to civilization at all times; and the understanding of the one is bound up with the understanding of the other. There has been too general a failure on the part of teachers of the subject to note this important relation. Again, reading *about* books is never a satisfactory substitute for the reading of the books themselves. Second-hand or third-hand information of this kind is almost invariably pale and flabby. Therefore, if, for example, one is lecturing on Comenius, let the student read some small portion at least of one of his works, and turn over the pages of the *Orbis Pictus* and the *Janua Linguarum*. Such a method gives one's knowledge a gratifying concreteness not otherwise to be obtained. The lectures themselves should be illustrated—not too frequently—by direct quotations from sources; and the books under discussion should be on the lecturer's desk for inspection by the students. Still again, maps and pictures should be used wherever possible. One will understand education in Europe in the Middle Ages far better with maps of the continent for that period before him; and a single engraving of a sixteenth century lecture room tells the student more than pages of description. Finally, let the teacher remember that the value of the subject to the student is partly determined by her own interests and enthusiasm in the teaching of it.—**Kindergarten Review.**

# SCHOLAR OR GENTLEMAN?

W. A. McIntyre, Winnipeg.

He was one of the best known and most prosperous business men in the West, and I leave it to you to judge whether he spoke as a wise man or as a fool. He was talking about the education of his boys—you know men are sometimes really interested in the education of their boys—and after an exchange of opinions regarding their teacher he remarked: "I don't understand how teachers so often overlook the fact that the most important thing in teaching a boy is to give him the instincts and manners of a gentleman. When I went to high school in the East we had six or eight teachers, and it was said to be the best school in the district, yet my recollection of it to-day is this: The principal, who taught classics, and who should have been a man of refinement, was nothing but a cold-blooded registering machine. He seemed to be made of metal. He followed the progress of the boys in their studies with lynx-eyed vigilance; if a boy was shaping well for examination that was enough; no matter what merits he had outside of that they were disregarded. I have seen boys come into that school who needed above all things a little talk as to dress and deportment—just a little word would have sufficed—but that word was never spoken.

"There were others who had offensive ways—they were slovenly and dirty; yet they were good students and they were in the *favored lot. They left that school* resembling 'the learned hog,' and they are probably after that pattern to-day.

"Our mathematical teacher was a quiet, patient man, who could solve anything in the shape of a problem, but we ran wild with him. His influence was altogether in the direction of producing 'hoodlums.' Our English master was one of the driest specimens imaginable. There was nothing he could not analyze, except a boy's nature. If he had been capable of doing that he would probably have discovered a boy's needs. He gave us, words, words, words, but there was no inspiration, no life. The teacher of science, however, was a man, and a gentleman. Whenever he came into the room we felt the presence of a lofty soul. He said nothing about manners but most of us began to reverence him and copy him. His spirit was infectious. The other teachers gave us most of our schooling; he gave us most of our education. I shall love the memory of that man as long as I live. We had a man who taught us bookkeeping and history. He was boorish, narrow, conceited. He was self-educated, and never having been in the world of men never really understood how ignorant and full of faults he was. He had dirty hands, greasy coat, unkempt beard. I can't understand to this day how they kept such men in a school. But, you know, they were all hustlers. Yet, I wish to heaven they had all been gentlemen before they were hustlers. When my boys are old enough to go to high school or college they are going where the teachers are first of all gentlemen."

Now here is a criticism of the schools of twenty years ago, by a

gentleman capable of forming a judgment and it raised a series of questions that deserve consideration:

1. *Should the school consider the cultivation of a gentlemanly demeanor as of very great importance?* It will be conceded that in life a gentlemanly bearing is most desirable. None of us wish in our business relations to deal with uncultured, uncouth specimens of humanity, and in our social intercourse we are careful to cultivate the acquaintance of those who have not only intelligence, but that style and manner which characterize the gentleman. It may be said that *internal worth* and not *form* determines the man. In answer to this it may be said that where real worth exists the form will be desired, and many a man of real worth suffers because he has not that repose and manner which indicate "the man of good breeding." Again, it may be said that the special aim of the school is "scholarship," and it is the duty of the home and society to look after manners. In answer to this it might be asked "Who settled it that the special aim of the school was 'scholarship'? and if it were, is not the great aim of education—the upbuilding of life—of more account than this special aim? There is not an institution of civilization but has a right to expect that the school will supplement its legitimate efforts to improve the condition of mankind. The school which carries on its work as if it were not co-operating with home and society is decidedly 'out of order.' There must be as good manners, as good style. As much consideration for others in school as in any home or any society in the country. Once more it may be urged that we don't want *prigs* and *popinjays* but men. Most certainly we want men; but we want *gentle men* and not *boors* and *hoodlums*." The man of business who made the criticism a few minutes ago has in him not a particle of prig and popinjay, but he is a man in the fullest sense of the word, and be believes that the first requisite in any man's education is that he have the bearing and manner of a gentleman. And he is not far astray.

2. *Does the criticism apply to the schools of to-day?* There is no use in evading this question by saying that our teachers have a high sense of their moral responsibility, that they are aiming at character formation. This is quite true. Yet the conduct of pupils, the bearing of teachers in schools, the reports of inspectors, would all indicate that this "making gentlemen" is not, in many cases, receiving the attention it should. There are indeed schools in which the very worst of bad manners may be seen, where both teachers and pupils lack the repose, the courtesy, the finish that characterize the refined. There is instead an air of roughness, crudeness, confusion, and discord. A gentleman is known by his temper, his speech, his address, his general style. He does not scold and nag, he does not use coarse or inelegant expressions habitually, he does not insult childhood, he is more careful to speak gently and tenderly in the presence of little ones than in the presence of his ball-room associates; it is in him to be kind and gentle; he can not be otherwise.

*O si sic omnes!*

3. *What is required under the circumstances?* First of all it

would seem that our teachers must perceive the importance of training of the kind indicated. But there is no hope so long as those in charge of our schools think only in terms of intellect. Additional intellectual ability is the last thing some people need. Soap and curry-comb would be more to the point. Yet there are cases on record where children have entered a school rough, untidy, unmannerly, and at the end of a year have gone away worse than they came. A man came into a high school down East. He was dirty, rough, uncultured, offensive in his ways, crotchety, and all the rest of it, but he was a wonderful worker. At the end of a year he passed the teachers' examination and received a license to teach. It would have been as fitting for a Zulu to take charge of a school as that man. Why in the name of all that is sensible didn't the teachers of that school take him where he came short instead of bending all their energies to making him come out first on examination? It requires more courage to talk to a man on personal matters than to teach him physics or algebra, but what is a teacher for, if it is not to assist in building up life? There are some of course who shout "can't" as soon as you mention character-building or anything of that kind. Can a man not be as honest in trying to help a fellow to a better life, as in trying to teach him history or literature? The fact of the matter is, teachers require to have their eyes open to dirty hands, greasy coats, rough manner, signs of bashfulness, and everything of this kind. Then they can do something. But they never in this world will do anything of account if they are thinking in terms of the subject of study rather than in terms of the pupil.

In the second place teachers must know in theory and practice what the gentlemanly life means. Ay, there's the rub. How can one with rasping voice, slovenly expression, bad temper, insolent tone, hyper-business air, cast-iron precision, understand the life we are considering? The thing is impossible. It may be that with many of us we shall never reach the ideal; it may be that early training and environment are against us; it may be that we have it not in our blood, for there is a good deal in that; but we can do our best. And when we review our work for the term upon which we are just entering, one of the questions we shall ask ourselves in all seriousness is this, "Have we helped our boys to be gentlemanly in thought, act, and word?" and if we have, our labor has not been in vain.—Western Ed. Journal, Winnipeg.

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## EDUCATIONAL MOVEMENTS AT HOME AND ABROAD.

Michael E. Sadler, LL.D.

The keynote of the best educational thought of our time is hope. Never before has the work of national education been so full of promise for the future, or of deeper interest to the teacher, the administrator, and the student. But there can be no standing still in educational effort at the present time. The world is passing through a period of rapid and disturbing change in the sphere of thought and

of economic conditions. We live in a time of spiritual unrest, which in many subtle ways produces unrest in education. Education has constantly to readjust itself, in order to guard against new dangers which arise through the disintegration of older habits of thought and ways of life. The triumphant advance of applied science threatens to bring about social conditions in which, unless forethought is exercised, individual initiative may be unduly hampered by the pressure of great masses of capital controlled by corporations. Moreover, the decay of many old restraints and the weakening of some of the older forms of upholding traditions and authority have deprived many people of a sorely needed support in the trials of life, and there are signs of a great longing in many minds for the peace which definite and unfaltering conviction can give. Education is sensitive to these atmospheric changes in human thought and sentiment. All over the world there are marks of educational unrest.

Educators, therefore, are looking around in all directions for suggestions as to the best lines of further advance. It is significant that each nation is realizing, more fully than before, how much it may gain by studying the educational history and development of other nations. Students of education in Great Britain are keenly alive to the characteristic excellence of American, French, and German Schools. Germans are carefully following the course of educational development in France, Great Britain, and America. And in the recent parliamentary inquiry into French secondary education frequent reference was made to German, to American, and to English experience. Education, indeed, is so intimately national a thing that no country can with advantage directly imitate the educational system of another country. Each nation must needs build up its own system in accordance with its own traditions and national needs. But the comparative study of educational systems is full of valuable suggestions and of stimulus. In this branch of the scientific study of education, the United States have been among the pioneers, largely through the labors of the late Dr. Barnard, of Dr. W. T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education, and of President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University.

The strong points of the best tradition in English education are its conviction that physical training and close contact with nature are essential things in true culture; that it is a mistake to regard purely intellectual training as the sole work of a well-organized school system; that education does not come through books alone or words alone, but also through making things, through first-hand contact with stubborn materials, through the training of hand and eye, and through practice in the arts of home life; that it is expedient to cultivate many kinds of expression of the human spirit, and not to confine our training to the powers of verbal expression, but rather to encourage expression through art, through making things, through the exercise of judgment in practical affairs, and through practice in the work of organization and government. The fundamental belief of the best English educators has always been that the true fruit of a

good education is not knowledge alone, or intellectual agility alone, but a combination of four things —discipline of body, enlightenment of mind, balance of judgment, and obedience to duty.

Such an ideal of education, however, presupposes for its best work a stable order of society, an undisturbed acceptance of certain broad principles of conduct, and a general agreement as to the right application of those principles. It is peculiarly liable to confusion, injury, and unsettlement at a time of upheaval in the ideas which underlie the traditional ways of thinking. The disintegrating effects of scientific criticism have, therefore, been especially noticeable in the strongest parts of English education. Moreover, the characteristic defect of a type of education which lays marked stress on ethical rather than on intellectual influences, is a tendency to underrate the value and moral bearing of intellectual thoroughness. Hence the urgent need for a revision of the intellectual standard in many parts of English education. The intellectual standard is far from being low, but it needs re-adjustment. Many of the brightest English boys are learning too much of things which they will not need in after life, and too little of things which it is imperatively necessary for them to know. But rapid changes are taking place in the English schools. Never before in her history has England shown signs of being on the verge of so vigorous an educational movement. And those who have most closely followed the signs of that movement are best aware how much stimulus and guidance have come to it from the study of American and German education.

But it is with the underlying principles of American education rather than of German that most English teachers find themselves in closest sympathy. It is to be desired that there should be more intercourse between American and English teachers. Distance makes many forms of regular meeting impossible. Might not more be done, however, to encourage graduate study by young English students at American Universities, and *vice versa?* English conditions are full of interest to the student of social science, and I should like to see courses of graduate study in social economics, in English educational history and practice, and in the principles and practice of municipal, colonial, and Indian administration, organized at Oxford and Cambridge, in London, Birmingham, and Manchester, for the benefit of graduate students from other countries besides my own. I have only mentioned, out of many subjects, two or three in which England is in a position to offer especially interesting opportunities of advanced, practical study. The benefit which England would derive from the intellectual stimulus and from the future results of such systematic investigations would be great. And I am convinced that the students would find much material for profitable study.

Another suggestion has been made which I desire to submit to your consideration. It has been suggested that encouragement should be given to American teachers to come and teach for a short time in English schools and *vice versa.* If something can be done in this direction, I believe that much good would follow. The chief difficulty is a practical one, namely, that neither in the United

States nor in England is there any central authority which appoints teachers to positions in the schools. In both countries appointments are made locally. But much might be done by means of a joint committee which would disseminate information as to vacancies, examine the credentials of applicants, facilitate the exchange of references, and bring the idea of such interchange of qualified teachers effectively before the public in the two countries. Beginning in a small way the experiment would be tested by its results, and personally I believe that it would lead to a fruitful interchange of ideas, of suggestions, and of experience.—*School Journal, N. Y.*

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## THE YOUNG MAN AND HIS COMPANIONS.

By Rev. Hugh Black, M.A.

Nothing in a young man's life deserves more, and as a rule receives less, attention than this subject. It will be perhaps more useful to show why the subject is so important rather than to give descriptions of the different sorts of companionships common among men. A principle of action clearly presented to us is always more powerful than mere detailed good advice. In a general, vague way we acknowledge that evil companionships should be avoided and good ones encouraged, but, unless we are impressed with the reason why this is so, it usually ends with a pious opinion which has little effect on conduct.

The principle here is the law of environment. We usually take an outside and very surface view of what environment means. We think of it as our outward surroundings, conditions of work, and conditions of home, and the like. It is chiefly as a physical question that we consider it, and imagine that, if we could but improve the material lot of the people, if we could sweeten the conditions of living, then we should avert all the possible evil of the law of environment.

Of course there is very much in this aspect of the subject, and we should encourage every effort towards the amelioration of the surroundings of life. But the law of environment is a far subtler thing than all that, and cuts deeper into our lives. After all has been said about material conditions, it has to be remembered that the chief environment of a human life does not consist of things, but of *persons.*

It is an influence that begins from the cradle. The conditions of work and conditions of houses and streets and civic arrangements are so important because they represent this subtler personal factor. They are powerful agents in influencing habits and affecting character just because they are impregnated with the lives of others. The people make the homes and the workshops and the towns, which have such influence over our lives. When we think of it, we see that all the permanent influences of life come from persons. Home is not just the walls where furniture is stored, but the place where others exercise their weird influence over us.

If you analyze the conditions of your work which you feel has a

great effect on your life, you will find that the effect is produced not so much by the mere work itself as by the relations it brings you into with other men, the influence of your fellow workmen and those with whom you associate. This is so also with every other sphere of life. The real environment, the mighty forces that play upon life and mould character, are thus spiritual: and this is where we have power over our environment.

Because it is spiritual, we can open mind and heart to it, or we can shut the door against it. We can submit to what is evil in our environment, or we can shun it. We can also, to some extent, select the forces that act upon us. If we wilfully submit ourselves to the influence of the lower, if we choose to associate with what impoverishes true life, if we let evil intercourse do its corrupting work on us, it will pervade and pollute all life. We may think that we can play with evil influences, enter their company when it suits us and leave it as we entered; we may think that we can read defiling literature and be none the worse for it, that we can tamper with doubtful courses and keep our real life unspotted, that we can be one of evil company and yet not become as it is; but we are deceiving ourselves. The law of spiritual environment acts unerringly and unfailingly.

When we consider the tremendous force of this law, we may well wonder that we enter into relationships so casually and carelessly. A young man chooses his friendships by haphazard; or, rather, he often does not choose them at all, but lets himself drift into them. Their opinions and standards of thinking and of practice gradually become his for good or evil; and yet how much, or how little, thought does the average young man give to this subject?

It is not a plea for a hermit life, but a plea for serious consideration of the actual conditions of social life. The consideration should be twofold—a deep sense of duty towards others in this matter, and a sense of a necessary duty towards ourselves.

First of all we must see to it that our influence in all our companionships and in all our associations with other men is for good. We shall never make anything of our lives worth making if we have not some idea of *service* in our minds. Nothing but that will ennoble an work and preserve all relations with others. It would be a poor thing if a young man thought only of how he himself might be guarded from all harm and danger. Such a motive would fail of its purpose, and, at the best, would give a mean and selfish life. We tarnish the fair name of friendship if we have no feeling of responsibility towards our friends and no desire to serve their best interests. We must use the law of environment as a force for good to others, for that is our first duty.

The second point is that we must consider our rightful duty to ourselves. We must see to it that we do not wilfully submit our lives to the degradation and contamination of evil relationships. This is a larger thing than perhaps appears at first sight. The moral environment of which we have been speaking acts insistently and remorselessly. The books read, the friendships formed, the opinions held, the

faith professed, all affect mind and motives and ambitions, and so affect and influence life. It has the certainty of fact, for it is the statement of law.

If a young man is impressed with the seriousness of this subject, he can dispense with all the detailed advice about forming friends. If he understands what is at stake, he can make his own rules, and will not go far astray in practice. If he accepts his friendships guided by the two principles that he must use his influence for good and that he must allow himself no weak compliance with evil, he will make his friendships a strength to himself and to his friends.

The law of environment, like all other laws, is morally neutral till it is colored by us for good or for evil. It is designed for good, and it is only when it is perverted that it becomes an instrument of evil. Charles Kingsley was once asked how he was able to attain so much in his life, and he replied, "I had a friend." A true, pure friendship has been the secret of many a fine character and many a useful life. It cannot be too jealously guarded or too nobly served.

Edinburgh, Scotland.

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## NATURE STUDY.

Ella M. Powers.

No trees during these early autumn days are more gorgeously attired than our native maples. Their brilliant colors of crimson, scarlet, orange and yellow, are wonderfully attractive to the children, who gladly collect specimens and study their characteristics. Leaves should be collected, pressed and mounted; also bark and twigs, the fruit and specimens of the wood should be available to make the lessons of greater interest.

One of the maples which early dons its gay autumn gown, and is the brightest of them all, is the Red Maple. We see its rich foliage from the damp northern forests southward to the lowlands of Florida and westward to the highlands of the Dakotas. We easily recognize it by its reddish branches, the twigs of young trees being a bright dark red. The head of the tree is usually rounded and somewhat low.

The leaves are thick and make a dense shade although variable in size. A close examination of the leaf shows there are three distinct divisions, sometimes five, although the lower lobes near the stem are very small. The hollows between the lobes are pointed and extend about one-third of the distance to the base of the leaf. The margin of the leaf consists of tiny saw-teeth.

In August and early September the leaves are a bright deep red, and by the first of November the leaves have fallen. Often during the summer days we see a branch of brilliant scarlet among the green branches,—evidently the flow of sap in that branch is arrested, an insect may have stung the stem, a worm may be gnawing at the pith, or some unseen living creature may be the cause of this brightness among the surrounding green.

The bark of the Red Maple is smooth and of a warm gray color when young, but in old trees it be-

comes furrowed, rough, easily cracks in scales and turns a brown color. Light gray lichens are often seen clinging to the bark of a red maple whose home is in a swamp.

The fruit of the Red Maple is ripe in September and is the smallest and most delicate of all maples. It is red, and found hanging in pairs from stems two or three inches long. The wings of the "keys" slightly diverge and are about one inch long.

The wood is hard and of a light color, having a reddish tint. Its grain is fine and compact and when the fibers are in wavy lines or "curled" it is highly prized, for, as the wood takes a fine polish, it is greatly valued in cabinet work.

The White Maple, or Silver Maple, is a favorite shade tree, as it is most ornamental. This large, stately tree, one of the most grateful of the maples, is found from the Atlantic to the Indian Territory. Its long, slender branches spring from the trunk in an upward, rather than outward, direction at first. They spread at the top, then slightly droop.

In old trees the bark of the trunk and large limbs is rough and furrowed. The color is a dark granite gray inclining to brown. The smaller branches are smooth and white, the young shoots are of a light green.

The leaves are among the most beautiful of our shade trees, the upper surface being a bright green while the under surface is light, almost a silvery white. In these autumn days the leaves show varied colors of orange, scarlet, and a purplish crimson. The leaves, on long, slender stems, have five divisions, separated by sharp notches and tapering to a point. The edge is prettily and finely toothed.

In early summer the fruit ripens and now, in September, we find many a wayside dotted with the new seedling trees. The fruit is supplied with long, stiff wings, arranged in pairs and set at right angles.

The wood is soft, white, and light. It is not durable and so not highly prized.

There is no grander maple than the Rock Maple, or Sugar Maple tree. This grows in some localities over one hundred feet high, is erect and exceptionally symmetrical. In the region of the Great Lakes it attains its finest development.

Its lower branches, firm and stiff, lack the grace of the White Maple's more slender branches. The bark of the young tree is an ash gray, light colored and smooth, but when old it becomes dark, scaly, rough and deeply furrowed; and then assumes a gray brown. Greenish lichens are often seen in patches upon the trunks of old trees in the forests.

The leaf of the Rock Maple is easily distinguished from the others as it has no tiny saw teeth on the margin. This long-stemmed leaf has five divisions, not deeply cut, and the notches between the lobes are curved. During these fall days the foliage on many of the Rock Maples is a clear straw yellow, on others it is a light red with orange tints. This gorgeous coloring depends upon different conditions of temperature and moisture. In England there is no brilliant foliage to compare with that in the United States and Canada.

The fruit is of a pale yellowish green. The seed, ripening in September, is too late to grow little seedling trees the same season. The wings of the seed are about one inch long and are slightly curved toward each other.

The wood, of a yellowish tint, is much used in cabinet work. It is hard, compact, tough, fine grained and, as it takes a high polish, a satin-like lustre, it is greatly valued for interior finish for buildings and for furniture. When the fibres are knotted we get the beautiful "bird's-eye maple." The wood is also valuable for fuel.

No tree is more attractive to children than this sugar maple, for its sap, drawn upward and compelled to fill the long row of buckets in our groves, soon yields the longed-for maple sugar. How many children have stood before these tapped trees counting the seconds by the drops that fall! Four gallons of sap will yield about one pound of sugar. One tree often yields thirty gallons of sap. Many of these trees are tapped annually for forty years

To be able to distinguish these three varieties, regardless of the Striped Maple with its downy leaves so finely pointed and its striped bark, and the Mountain Maple with its coarsely toothed leaves and small fruit widely separated, is to awaken new interest.—Intelligence.

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## INDIVIDUALITY IN READING.

Mr. A. H. Leypoldt, writing in his interesting monthly, the Literary News, says:

"Our day is remarkable for the wide diffusion of instruction and equally remarkable for the decline of true culture as it is defined by the dictionary—'the training, disciplining, and refining of the moral and intellectual nature of man.'

"To the ignorant and uneducated the reading of books seems the one great road to knowledge and refinement, and many who include themselves among the educated and well-informed base their claim upon the amount of printed matter over which their eyes travel during a large proportion of their waking hours. The great aim and purpose of our educators is to make everything easy for the learners. All the work is done for them from Kindergarten days to the boiling down, editing, rewriting, etc., of the classics.

"And in America, at least, everything is furnished with such lavishness and extravagance that the untrained, undisciplined mind flies from one thought to another without any time to know their average relation or importance. And the mind gets accustomed to this rapid, superficial work, and immediately tires when it must apply itself to one thought for any length of time.

"Everybody is wide awake and everybody wants to know all everybody else knows, and very soon wants to have everybody else know all that has been acquired.

"One great trouble is that very soon the half-taught turn round and pronounce themselves teachers.

"There is a great unrest in the world. What is it leading to? One thing after another is taken

up, talked about, written about, read about and dropped. And all with the same energy and with the same interest, whether it be golf, the bicycle, ping-pong, the latest much-advertised novel or the newest 'fad' in physical culture, mental healing, universal language, etc., *ad libitum.*

"Individuality is almost extinct in our 'cultured' circles. One person's opinions are just like another person's opinions, and are held chiefly because they are the opinions of another person now on the flood-tide of publicity.

"And this superficiality is strongly reflected in our books. How many of the thousands published each year really stand out and last after the publishers and so-called critics have ceased to give them publicity? Where are the novels all the world was reading twelve months ago? What are those who read them reading now? We strongly advocate good novels, and do not by any means think that all reading should be study. What we want to encourage is the reading of books that reach the individual needs of the reader, books from which will really come the true refinement and wide culture that lead to modesty, quiet, and usefulness.

"Our authors just now are really more sinned against than sinning. It is almost a pity to have a bright talented writer bring out a successful book. The first thing demanded is another one. If the book was a good historical novel we must have another, and while it is being made ready for us we must turn publicity upon the author, must see his house, his writing-table, his clothes, his favorite breakfast, his pet cat, and finally all the manuscripts he once knew were not good enough for publicity, but now brings out in print to catch the public before he has become one of the forgotten "fads" of a given year. Does true refinement and culture pry around and display curiosity concerning the private affairs of others?

"After many conversations, especially with young girls, we are convinced the present condition of affairs rests chiefly upon the mistaken idea most conscientiously held that it is really necessary to know the last new book in order to take rank among the cultured. Some of these girls were totally unfitted to understand several of the books that everybody read last year, but they thought they had read them because they had turned the pages to the end.

"In many cases it would be good if a prohibitive price still kept the newest fiction from the general reader. But here the library steps in and offers for nothing to the non-tax-paying girl what would otherwise be outside her reach, and also more and more impresses on her that she must read and read and read. True, the libraries do excellent work in directing those who wish to do better, but they also provide for those who take books just as they take any other kind of amusement and excitement.

"Readers should take time to think on what subjects they need information, and should then seek it intelligently and restfully. They should be 'individuals' in reading and in all else! The 'young girl' is evidently a power in the American literary world."

## THE CRISIS OF DEMOCRACY.

Chancellor Andrews, LL.D., University of Nebraska.

In every leading country of the world possessing free institutions the party of the people is in despair. American democracy is not peculiar in this; British Liberals are in an even worse plight. The last House of Commons began with a unionist majority of 152 in a membership of 670, a disparity of parties almost unparalleled in England. The present Parliament is nearly as lop-sided. And Liberals there lack leaders, a policy and heart as much as our Democrats do. A party so little robust is unfit even for opposition duty.

This low estate of democratic parties some refer to wrong leadership, others to ill party organization, others to alliance with socialism, and still others to questionable measures which have been urged, as Irish Home Rule yonder, free silver or free trade here.

I venture to pronounce these causes superficial, wholly inadequate to explain the passivity of democracy to-day. It is my belief that democracy droops mainly because political society itself is undergoing a radical change comparable with the rise of feudalism or of absolute monarchy. Democracy of the type which has become familiar to the modern world is passing away, never to return.

The ideas man perfectible, history purposive, humanity a single thing in all epochs, races and classes, struck Europe with the combined might of novelty and of reason. Lodged in the world, they set about conquering it, nor, until recently, has their victorious campaign been seriously checked.

For, the conviction of a schism between diverse people and classes to perish of course took time. In the politics of the Middle Ages notions living over from the classic period were ceaselessly at work. Bishops and monks might preach equality as they would, the practical maxim of public policy still was that men are not by nature equal; that there are, by a divine and inevitable arrangement, privileged human beings and pariahs, those to be rich and rule, these to be poor and be ruled.

Only at about the time of the American and French revolutions did the notion of human fraternity secure aught like triumphant recognition in legislation. "What an eventful period is this," exclaims Doctor Price, in a sermon part of which Burke quotes in his "Reflections upon the French Revolution." "I am thankful that I have lived to see it. I could almost say 'Lord, now lettest thou thy servant depart in peace, for mine eyes have seen thy salvation.'"

The notion of the essential equality of human beings became in time the soul of liberalism. Under its stimulus the American constitution was framed. Not one of the many parties known to our history has ever dared gainsay it. It has become the spirit of our law as of our religion. It is preached in our churches. It was the death of African slavery. It is the life and strength of American democracy. It is the belief of the vast majority of our people in every section of the Union.

And of course liberalism is no

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Address delivered at University of Chicago.

mere American passion. The persistence of the French Republic is due to it. The free constitutions of Germany, Italy, Scandinavia, Holland, Belgium and Spain are its offspring. Its career in Great Britain has been peculiarly proud, furnishing a record second in splendor to none in humanity's whole history.

To English liberalism is mainly due that noble succession of reform acts, extending the political franchise until at last manhood suffrage is realized in Britain, if anything, more perfectly than in the United States. Laws have been passed unshackling British trade and commerce greatly to the benefit of the common people. Class privileges have been curtailed or abolished. Popular election has been carried into counties and municipalities, placing the peasant and the mechanic in condition to hold his own against wealth and rank as he could never do before. The old extra voting power of the rich has been mostly annulled, the public service purified and opened to the humblest, the administration of justice immensely improved. Most remarkable of all, a system of public education has been launched by which the poorest youth who will may gain intelligence that shall be worthy of his freedom and enable him to utilize and enjoy it.

Why, then, is democracy so in the dumps? What is it that balks its progress and even threatens its end? Certainly no superficial circumstance. Deep forces are here and a little tedious underground work will pay if it promises to disclose them.

One doubtless is the vision that bare civil and political liberty does not constitute and does not assure the liberty which has been the inspiration of liberalist struggle. The French Revolution programme of simply knocking off political shackles does not go to the root of things.

The hopes of political liberals a century ago have not been realized. Poverty and oppression have not come to an end. *Laissez faire* has proved no gospel. Though wealth and culture have immensely advanced, there is ground for believing that the last hundred years, the age which free institutions proudly call their own, have been the unhappiest century on record. This period of freedom and political equality, of status changed to contract and of a ballot for all, is precisely the one in which pessimism has been born—pessimism, that is no longer the smart hobby of a few but the fixed conviction of multitudes.

Till within a quarter of a century civilized men have always had at their disposal, free save for the slight exertion and expense of going to it, abundance of arable land in desirable latitudes. Whenever acute poverty, whenever social congestion, whenever feuds threatened anywhere, the oppressed, the beaten, the discontented had only to move into fresh fields where they could lay under pleasanter auspices the foundations of new states. All civilized communities, however far from the free land, were aided, mostwise without knowing it, by the existence of such land. In hard times a few would emigrate, advancing wages for the rest or else presenting a fall. Strifes between cliques or classes were kept from extremity. If aught like tyranny got foothold great numbers would flee.

In communities near the free

land, like the new United States, and as England and all West Europe in effect were after passage to America and Australia became cheap and easy, no real oppression could arise. Every poorest man, being, if able-bodied and industrious, in condition to make his way to a waiting home, dictated the treatment he received from all. Democracy was automatically established and continued. Its name might be this or that, but popular government existed of necessity.

The situation has passed away irrevocably and with it all possibility of the automatic, non-strenuous, non-studious democracy to which we have been accustomed. The day of the homesteader is over. Free arable land is no longer to be had. A state of affairs has come which the world has never known till now. Emigration can never more serve as a cure for social and political ills. Communities must get on with the refractory since they cannot send such away. The common man no longer dictates how he shall be treated or paid, since he cannot certainly better his condition by removing. He must stay, fighting his fight with whatever means the vicinage affords and taking his chances. And, partly owing to his own errors and misdeeds, to the systematic misinformation of the public, and to the various and subtle ways in which his friends are incited to treason against him, the common man is certain for a long time to find these chances more and more forbidding. As things at this moment are he can effectively react only by force, and the moment he does this a vast majority are against him.

As society consolidates, multiplying the occasions when men must act together, there is increasing chance, in every direction, not only for adroit management *bona fide* but also for fraud and chicane, victimizing the unwary. Men's life together becomes of necessity artificial. Simplicity and straightforwardness wax less possible, and when they do exist less immediately or obviously profitable. This, again, hardens the position of the man who is simply such, destitute of rank, place, fortune, and cunning. Beaten often and sure of place and good treatment if submissive, caravans of the fortuneless in church, state, and business, turn satellites, valets, servitors, produce opinions and votes as ordered, and help to keep society in the clutch of a not very large, patriotic, or philanthropic minority.—Record.

*(To be continued.)*

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A memorial to Pasteur has been erected at his home, Arbois. He is represented seated between two groups of vinedressers and herdsmen, the one showing his services to agriculture and the other his services to the victims of hydrophobia. A Medallion containing the effigies of his father and mother is on the plinth.

## RESERVE.

Something should remain unseen,
All the will should not appear;
For light thoughts will intervene,
And light words to danger veer.

Sometimes on the verge of speech,
Better not be over-bold,
But little pausing caution teach.
What to say and what withhold.

Idle talk is ever free,
And with riches soon runs o'er;
Reason should the treasurer be,
And still something keep in store.

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## EDITORIAL NOTES.

Deliver not the tasks of might
To weakness, neither hide the ray
From those, not blind, who wait for day,
Though sitting girt with doubtful light,

That from Discussion's lips may fall
With Life, that working strongly binds—
Set in all lights by many minds,
So close the interests of all.

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### TEACHERS' SALARIES.

M. A. James, J.P., Bowmanville, who taught Public Schools in Durham and Northumberland counties ten years and had the honor of receiving the highest salary ever paid in these counties to a Public School teacher (excepting Model School teachers, perhaps), writes in his weekly paper, The Canadian Statesman, as follows on the salary question:

The fact of so few males entering the teaching profession is a calamity that Canada will have reason to regret. At the Teachers' Summer School in Toronto over 200 teachers from all Ontario were present and only eighteen were males. The reason of this wholesale abandonment of the teaching profession by men is that the rate of wages paid teachers has not kept pace with the ever-increasing cost of living. The wages paid in rural schools are so small that no young man with any confidence whatever in his own ability or any desire to get along in the world would think of accepting the salaries that are offered in most schools. In this banner county of Durham there are 83 female and 34 male teachers. We have no word against lady teachers, for many of them are splendid teachers and for young pupils we prefer them, but the discipline, manly bearing, breadth of view on subjects men should understand, and the sturdier qualities that alone can be inspired by men require men teachers. If public school inspectors in Ontario did their full duty and had the courage to tell trustees what they think of the paltry salaries they are paying, they could do very much towards improving present deplorable conditions.

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We thank Inspector Knight for the following. It is gratifying to know that the Bible is still read: The Canada Educational Monthly for October is to hand, and I am glad to see my article so correctly printed. The oth r papers appear quite satisfacio y I am sorry to see a misprint at the top of page 318, especially as it is in a quotation

from the Scriptures, 1 Sam. 2. 30. "They" may be a printer's error for "them" and overlooked in the correction, but how did you get "shall honour" for "will honour"? This would be all right in the mouth of a schoolmaster, because he is not a sovereign to do as he likes. Sometimes one word does as well as the other, as in Matt. 24. 50, 51, and Luke 12. 46. In the Revised Version "shall" is used in both places.

In the High School Reader, p. 101, somebody changed "shall" to "will" and made the charter of the land to be, "Britons never will be slaves."

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ONE OR MORE SCHOOLS?

Ontario is a young country, a young province: only a few years more than a hundred since the British people began to find homes in its wide, wild wilderness. Many came direct from the homeland, and many were home people from the United States of America. Nevertheless, young and immature as our province is, there are already many school sections in the earlier settled parts of the province where it was the normal state to have large and flourishing schools. Now the schools are small and feeble. We mean feeble, because the attendance is small, and especially because the teacher in charge, although well intentioned, is young and inexperienced, and his chief recommendation to the ratepayer is, that his salary is conveniently small. Why the school is small is plain, so much so, that he who runs may read. The cause thereof is permanent; therefore the attendance at the school is sure not to increase.

Appliances for the working of the land and the ingathering of the crops have increased to such an extent and have reached such a state of efficiency that one man with little help in summer can manage to cultivate,'" in a sort of way," a farm of a hundred acres. Hence, since the farm lands are cleared and approaching a fair state of cultivation, the number of people decreases and consequently the children are not. Therefore the school attendance shall be small. The small school of ten or fifteen leads to feebleness. The parents say that they cannot afford to pay such a salary as would justify a capable and experienced teacher to take their school and care for their children. But then some parents will be quite ready to spend five times as much in the purchase of a first class animal as they are required to expend on their school in educating the children. This is the condition Ontario is now facing. Many parts of the United States are facing the same condition, only in a more acute form. What is the remedy? Two farms, not far apart, are not valued the same by the assessor; therefore the one farmer pays more than the other. Two townships in the same county are not of the same money value as viewed by the official assessors and therefore the one township pays more taxes and grumbles, perhaps justly. To secure fairness in tax-paying among the inhabitants of a county, councils have been for several years wrestling with the problem of equalization of taxation.

Can a remedy be found for the school difficulty in equalization of taxation? The Hon. Adam Crooks, when Minister of Education for Ontario, held that the school unit is the school section. For many years school men have been sug-

gesting to make the township the school unit, and by this means to lessen the number of schools very materially, thus making the school attendance larger at each school and perhaps the cost less to the taxpayer. We think that this plan has been adopted by a few townships in Ontario and also by some parts of the United States of America. How are the people satisfied with it? Does it ease the pressure of the problem in any way and to any degree?

The last plan suggested is, bring the child to the school, and is held to be much easier and cheaper than bringing the school to the child. The advocates of this plan say, have only two or three schools in a township: a school well-staffed, graded, conducted by well-qualified teachers, enjoying reasonable salaries. The scholars to be collected at these one or two centres in the morning and called for again in the afternoon to be left at home by carriages specially prepared and paid for doing this daily work. It is claimed for this scheme that it is cheap and good; the reverse of the well-remembered proverb. The readers of the Canada Educational Monthly have been favored with comments and communications both for and against this new scheme.

We would like to hear more from both sides; it is an important question and it is by discussion led by those immediately concerned we can arrive at the best solution of the problem.

The statement is frequently made: it is so nice for the children to be called for in the morning and taken back home again in the afternoon, and particularly so in winter. But we have seen nothing yet about the benefit and pleasure gained by the child in walking to and from school in the summer months, nor, for that matter, in the winter months. Needless to dilate on the pleasures and joys and unconscious benefits of tramping to school in fine weather, and even foul weather has its compensations, having its hidden relation to after life. Are we not in danger, fond parents, of dandling, mothering the children too much? We have cherished memories of long walks to and from school in all sorts of weather, taking our chance of "a cast in a waggon" that we would not like to exchange for a systematic drive in a special carriage. We hear a fond mother say, what of the winter? Well, of the winter we say: We cherish memories of being snow-balled thoroughly, covered over in a heap of new driven snow fence-high, and of doing the same to others. Allow us to add, none the worse for these strenuous things, and doubtless such tustles called forth the fight in us for future work. Perhaps this was part of the manual training of those ancient days. Let us hear more on this matter from those who will feel it most.

That from Discussion's lips may fall
With life that working strongly binds,
Set in all lights by many minds,
So close the interests of all.

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We take it as an omen for good that such a number of Public School Inspectors have taken the trouble, this year more than ever before, more than four fold, of sending us their annual Reports. We make use of these reports to the utmost limit of our space and the friends will please remember that if not printed in full

the information is made use of in our columns. It is high time that teachers should become a body compacted together. We thank the Inspectors for their courtesy. We have also the pleasure of thanking the many friends who write to us expressing their appreciation of the Canada Educational Monthly: one of these friends, this month, writes: "The Monthly has a worthy field and it well attends to it." Another in one of the States in the neighboring Union writing for copies with which to forward the interest of the "Monthly" and benefit our fellow workers there, expresses himself in very favorable terms of its merits.

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## COMMENTS.

In the early part of the school year when, refreshed by vacation delights, we take up work with new ardor and zeal, who does not feel the habit of hurry gradually but surely resuming its domination? And who does not regret this?

These are "step lively!" days, to be sure, and we read with something of wistful incredulity Emerson's saying that a gentleman does not hurry, a lady is never in haste. Can we not in some way elude hurry or let it get but a slight hold now in this beautiful new autumn when we are all a year older and, of course, much wiser than ever before? Can we not cultivate a habit of leisure to take its place? The wise statement that the expression of a feeling intensifies it, points to one slight means of lessening hurry and cultivating leisure. We need not say so much about hurry. We are constantly adding our own hurry to our neighbor's and feeling the drive and whirl of his by frequently telling how busy we are and hearing how busy he is. We get into the habit of obtruding the idea of haste even upon our correspondents, by signing ourselves "yours hastily," instead of expressing some more interesting personal condition or more definite relation to the particular correspondent, as we might easily do.

Far back in the second century there lived a man who never sinned in this fashion; and this restraint was enough of a virtue even in those days, A.D. 121, to be put to his credit, for, in the long list in which Marcus Aurelius calls to mind the virtues and merits of his various teachers and friends, he says that he learned "from Alexander the Platonic not frequently nor without necessity to say to anyone or to write in a letter, 'I have no leisure'; nor continually to excuse the neglect of duties required by our relation to those with whom we live by alleging urgent occupations."

"Occupy thyself with few things," Marcus Aurelius quotes again; but he offers as an amendment: "Do what is necessary, and whatever the reason of the animal that is naturally social requires. . . . . For the greatest part of what we say and do being unnecessary, if a man takes this away he will have more leisure and less uneasiness."—Kindergarten Review.

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Victoria, the capital of British Columbia, is beautifully situated at the southern end of Vancouver Island, within a few hours' sail of

Vancouver, Seattle and Tacoma. It is the most westerly city in Canada. On the south and west are the Straits of Juan de Fuca and the Pacific Ocean, on the east lies that splendid inland sea, the Gulf of Georgia, which, with its wealth of picturesque islands, outrivals the more widely known Thousand Islands. The combination of picturesque scenery and old-fashioned English homes, with their air of comfort and contentment, makes Victoria a delightful city to visit or reside in. Its climate, too, is devoid of extremes of heat and cold, being much like that of the South of England. Her proximity to the Pacific Ocean and Japan Current flowing past her shores, keep the winter temperature above freezing, while during the summer the prevailing winds are from the south-west, which passing over the snow-capped Olympic Mountains and the Straits of Juan de Fuca, are comfortably tempered before reaching the city. No day is so hot as to be uncomfortable, and no night so warm as to warrant discarding the blanket. The thermometer rarely registers more than 75.

Victoria's scenic attractions are not excelled anywhere. There is the variety of rocky shore-line and sandy bay, snow-covered mountains and undulating plains, peaceful lakes and lagoons and rushing rivers. From Beacon Hill Park can be seen on the one hand the rugged, snow-clad Olympians, and on the other, rising proudly away in the distance beyond the island-studded Straits of Juan de Fuca, the lordly Mount Baker. There can be witnessed most gorgeous sunsets, radiant moonlight nights, a varied and glowing wreath of vegetation and the wild beauty of the mountains.

Victoria looks very much like an English city. Its institutions, buildings, clubs, homes, manners and customs are essentially English. It is comparatively quiet and steady in its business methods. For the pleasure seeker there are many pastimes; beautiful parks, boating, yachting, wheeling, driving, mountain climbing, bathing, trout and salmon fishing, golf, shooting, music, and many others. The locality is very healthful. There are no fogs, no mosquitoes, no malaria.

There are many places of interest in Victoria and about it. The Parliament Building is acknowledged to be one of the handsomest and most imposing on the Continent. It is one of the first sights to catch the eye as one enters the harbor of Victoria. Its lawns and other surroundings are beautiful. The Government Museum contains an interesting collection of British Columbia minerals, fossils, stuffed beasts and birds, and Indian relics.

Esquimalt, the North Pacific depot of the British Navy, is only four miles away, and is connected with the capital by electric cars. In Esquimalt harbor are always some of the fastest cruisers and torpedo boat destroyers of Great Britain's navy. Macauly Point is where the fortifications and big guns are, and nearby are the Work Point barracks, where a force of soldiers is maintained.

Beacon Hill, a park of about 300 acres, is situated on the Straits of Fuca, within a short walk of the centre of the city. It contains zoological gardens, large recreation

grounds, splendid old oaks, shrubberies, meadows, walks and lakes where gold-fish and swans may be seen.

Then there is the picturesque Gorge, where water rushes through a narrow, rocky channel either way according to the tide; there is Oak Bay, Goldstream and Sidney, and other attractive spots within easy reach.

Victoria has been called the evergreen city of Canada. There is not a month of the year when flowers cannot be picked in its gardens, and when pleasure parties cannot have enjoyable outings.

Such is this, one of the most beautiful of our Canadian cities, as described by its own citizens. It is fitting that we should know our sister in the far west, and we shall doubtless pay a visit to her some day if we can.—The Canadian Boy.

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In this country, where the classics receive less attention than in the old country, students avail themselves of the options to get away from them as soon as possible. On the other hand, the scientific courses are crowded, and buildings cannot be erected fast enough to accommodate students. It is useless to speculate on the question whether the classical or scientific course has the greater educational value. Either is good when followed with enthusiasm; neither is good when followed listlessly. There is no use blinking the fact that the matter is regulated by the choice of the student. If he prefers the scientific course, that is the better course. He will never be nourished by food which is forced down his throat.

Another point to be borne in mind is that thoroughness will itself help to make a course attractive. A boy or girl might be attracted by the ambition to become a thorough linguist if a course were arranged with that object. Greek and Latin would be the basis, and with a good knowledge of Latin, the study of Italian and Spanish would be comparatively easy. On this continent French, Spanish, German and Italian all have a high commercial value. We are aware of the objections to the multiplication of options in the colleges, but it seems, if the tendency to specialization can be made to encourage thoroughness, it will not be an unmitigated evil.

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"It is the common opinion that secondary schools are merely to meet the demands of the college. Colleges charge their shortcomings to failures and defects in the secondary system. In an important sense, problems of the secondary school must be solved primarily in light of a sound psychology rather than in light of preparation for college or a preparation for life.

"The primary aim of secondary education is not preparation for college. The aim of the secondary education is suitable preparation for the period of adolescence; it is liberal education for adolescence. The emphasis must be upon the individual, not upon his means for making a living. It is the work of the secondary school not to make a specialist, but to make a man who may become a specialist.

"This period of adolescence demands studies that call gradually into play his developing faculties. They must increase in difficulty and they must begin to satisfy his de-

sires to understand and see reasons and relations. The nature of secondary education is determined by the nature of *things*, not by nature of college requirements."—Dr. Nathaniel Butler.

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Recently the Edinburgh Merchant Company and Chamber of Commerce and the Leith Chamber of Comerce remitted to a joint subcommittee the consideration of how the present system of education should be altered so as to bring it in consonance with the needs of business men, with power to take such action as they might deem proper in support of the movement for rendering commercial instruction more efficient and extended. The committee has just issued a report. It is explained in the first few pages what steps were taken to procure information. Forty-three witnesses were examined, including prominent educators and representative men of affairs, and in the course of the investigation the committee collected printed matter relating to the subject, consisting of productions by the witnesses, prospectuses, etc., of schools, and official reports on commercial education in certain continental countries and in the United States.

The main conclusions formulated by the committee are as follows:

1. That commercial subjects properly so called should not be taught in the public schools, but that the study of arithmetic, of history, and of geography should have a commercial application; the aim of the school course should be to give a sound general education fitting pupils for entering on a commercial career.

2. The better teaching of modern languages is also a first necessity for the improvement of commercial education.

3. Faculties of commerce should be established in the universities.

It is noticable further that the committee have not thought it necessary to make any recommendation in regard to the education of girls as distinguished from that of boys. They hold that for the purpose of commercial education "differentiation is not required, and that if their views were adopted, the increasing number of girls who look forward to clerkships, as well as the few who aspire to higher positions of trust in mercantile life, would, equally with boys, have the means of obtaining suitable education."

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In the attempt to alleviate the hard conditions of the poor it is no doubt true that we have often deprived the objects of our charity of the courage and resourcefulness that are such necessary attributes. This is a charge that is frequently brought against charitable effort. The same charge is now made against the common schools. "For those destined to a life of disillusionment and hardship—and that means the vast majority of us all—the qualities most valuable, after truthfulness, industry, and respect for law and justice, are perhaps resourcefulness and cheerful courage. If we seek evidences of these qualities among our public school children, if we seriously and without prejudice ask what the schools are doing to cultivate them, the results of our investigations are sadly disheartening.

"Unbridled and unblushing conceit pervades the school atmosphere of to-day. The well-meant efforts of teachers in the lower schools to

lead children to express their ideas freely, and the encouragement given to any attempt, however feeble, have established a precedent according to which the pupils demand perpetual tribute of enthusiastic praise. These children are individually the centres of their own universe; and the laws of nature and of man sink into insignificance when in conflict with their good pleasure or convenience. The delusion is so extreme as to be almost a mania, and it permeates and poisons the very essence of their work and character. The belief that all their lessons should be made pleasant and easy for them is so deeply rooted as to have the authority of an axiom, and whatever controverts it is either reduced to an absurdity or causes consternation and righteous wrath.

"The tremendous influx of the more ignorant and debased or turbulent classes of foreigners upon our shores has nearly swamped the public schools of our great cities with hordes of children whose home influences are on the side of neither culture nor morality, and whose proper training presents a problem before which the boldest educator may well shrink appalled. The children of these immigrants soon acquire a smattering of book lore that makes them, in their own eyes, wiser than their parents, and there the benefits of the school to them too often end. The modesty, the regard for the rights of others, the growing sense of responsibility for the performance of their own duties, that would be of untold value to them as individuals and as law-abiding citizens, their school training does very little to engender."—In Educational Journal of Ethics.

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## CURRENT EVENTS.

The different British chambers of commerce almost unanimously decided in favor of holding the annual gathering of that body in 1903 in Montreal. Much good in the way of extending trade between Great Britain and Canada is expected to result from this gathering, which will be made up of representatives of all the largest mercantile and industrial concerns of Great Britain. After the meeting the delegates will take a trip to the wheat fields of Manitoba.

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Sir Thomas Lipton's challenge for another series of races for the America's Cup has been posted. The challenger will be built at Dennys' yards and nickel steel will be employed throughout for her frames, plating, deck and principal spars. The early start of the Shamrock III. for this side will give her a considerable advantage over previous attempts—the failures of which are attributed to inadequate preparation. The new boat shall have all the advantage of a thorough testing on both sides of the Atlantic before the races. Yacntsmen appear to regard the return to plain steel as sensible.

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Recent investigations, made by educational and scientific experts in Germany, as regards the order of development of the brain in children, go to show that these parts which serve the purpose of systematic thought, commonly known as the reasoning powers, are the last to mature. They also show that

mental exhaustion from overwork is most serious and most frequent among pupils under 12 years of age. It has been found clearly that nothing exhausts children so much as prolonged mental exertion combined with strict attention. Thirty minutes is the utmost limit of time during which the close attention of a child to one subject should be demanded. An interval of from five to fifteen minutes after every lesson freshens up the little student greatly. As to how this interval should be employed, some recommend light physical exercise, others advocate rest. Probably some children would benefit more by the one method and others by the other. Morning hours are also generally recommended for study and the afternoon for handicrafts, etc. The result of all these elaborate investigations is graphically summed up in the old, old proverb, "All work, and no play makes Jack a dull boy."

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In the Statutes of King's Hall Cambridge given by Richard II., we have the earliest evidence respecting the limitation imposed in the colleges as to age at the time of admission, no student being admissable under fourteen years. The Arts course of study after admission extended over seven years, and for the doctorial degree in Civil and Canon Law ten years.

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The Pall Mall Gazette says: "Professor Dewar's address to the British Association is very fascinating reading. His story of the pursuit and location of the absolute zero of temperature is more engrossing than any romance, and for incident it beats M. Jules Verne hollow. The prowess of the chemist has still an opportunity of distinction; although the point at which all thermal activity ceases is demonstrated to be 273 degrees centigrade below the freezing point of water, no experiment has yet resulted in a lower temperature than 260 degrees being reached. Professor Dewar does not believe that the zero 'will never be reached by man,' so that the chemist of the future has still something left to live for. Otherwise, the modern chemist seems to handle the elements pretty much as he pleases, and all gaseous elements have now been subdued to the liquid form, and made to produce new elements, the names of which strike strangely on the ear. The practical side of Professor Dewar's address is equally worthy of attention: that in which he pleaded for the endowment of scientific education.

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The report of a consular agent in Saxony (Mr. E. L. Harris, Eibenstock) shows the merchant union co-operating with the State for the promotion of this interest. "Nowhere in the world," says Mr. Harris, "does commercial and technical education hold such a prominent place as in Germany, and of all the States which compose this Empire, Saxony takes the lead in this direction. This little kingdom alone has about fifty commercial schools. These schools are in the first instance organized by the merchant unions, which exist in every little town in the country. The State exercises a supervising influence over each school. An inspector appointed by the Government visits the schools periodically. The merchant union supports the school; but if there is any deficit

at the end of the year, this is made good by the State. The buildings, together with light and heat, are furnished by the town authorities. In many cities of Saxony, handsome buildings have been erected for the purpose of commercial schools alone." In the schools of Saxony special stress is placed on the study of languages as has been advised by the Scotch Committee. With reference to this branch the Agent in Saxony says: "Noticable, however, is the time devoted to English and French. Through the courtesy of the principal and board of trustees, I was permitted to attend the exercises for several days. It is astonishing with what rapidity and precision the young students dash off sentences in English and French. During the second year, the hours devoted to these languages are taken up entirely with conversation and readings, and not a word of German is heard. During the hours devoted to calculation, the currency, together with the measures and weights of every country in the world is taught, and the students are compelled to make rapid mental calculations in them all. Outside of school hours the apprentice is kept busy looking after the English and French correspondence of his chief and in learning that particular trade or business of the house to which he is apprenticed."—Report of Bureau of Education, U.S.A.

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## SCHOOL HYGIENE.

Helen MacMurchy, M.D.

The Science Series. Bacteria. By George Newman, M.D., F.R.S., D.P.H. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. London: John Murray.

The author, who is Demonstrator of Bacteriology in King's College, London, has discharged his difficult task of writing a book on this subject which should be at once popular and scientific with signal success. It is not too technical and it is not too popular. We need say nothing about the importance of the subject, but we wish to say that there should be a good book on this subject in every Teachers' Library, and we know of none better than this. Its scope is wide, it contains information which teachers ought to have in their possession, and which they could advantageously bring to bear on general education.

A Handbook of Hygiene. By Lt.-Col. Davies, M.R.C.S., D.P.H. Cambridge. London: Charles Griffin & Co.

This complete and admirable Handbook of Hygiene has now reached its second edition. The author was Sanitary Officer to the Army Headquarters, India, and Assistant Professor of Hygiene in the Army Medical School, Netley. His wide experience and extensive knowledge of the subject have enabled him, with the aid of his publishers, to produce a book containing all the essentials, yet at once handy, portable and thoroughly reliable. It is one of the very best books on this most important subject.

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We are indebted to the United States Department of Agriculture for copies of their interesting and

valuable publications, including eighteen pamphlets on Dietary Studies and Food. These embody the results of a most important work at the experiment stations and elsewhere.

We have also received from the same department the Seventeenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Animal Industry, a volume of over 600 pages, containing information on a great variety of topics, interesting to farmers and others. Articles on poultry-raising on the farm, on a plan for the improvement of market milk and on ocean transportation may be specially mentioned.

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Experimental Hygiene. By A. T. Simmons, B.Sc., and E. Stenhouse, B.Sc. Macmillan & Co., London, England.

In the preface the authors say: "We have attempted to make students familiar with those broad principles of science without which the intelligent guidance of the domestic economy is impossible." Our housekeepers, cooks, etc., cannot do better than procure a copy of this book for their information and guidance to the intelligent care of the kitchen and its work. In this book principles are stated, illustrated by experiments, figures of apparatus given, and often proved, all bearing finally on the preparation of the best kinds of food. The best book we have seen on scientific domestic economy.

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Twentieth Century Expense Book. By Mary W. Dewson. Boston: Richard G. Badger & Co.

This excellent account book, which is published under the auspices of the School of Housekeeping of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston, is calculated to make the woman who uses it think and plan wisely about the division of income. There is a pointed and suggestive introduction by Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

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Home Economics. By Maria Parlon. New York: The Century Co.

The name of the authoress, who founded the original cooking school in Boston, is a household word in America, and she has written many volumes on the themes connected with domestic science. This volume deals with the necessities of daily home life, the making and management of a home, and we have within it a great deal of practical information and direction, garnered in a long life devoted to the study and practice of the arts and sciences that contribute to Home Economics. There are a great many women to whom this book would be a great boon and a suitable gift. There is no part of the house, and there is scarcely anything that comes into a house which one may not learn something of from this book. The final chapter on Miscellaneous Matters is one of the most valuable. There is a good index.

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The Library of Useful Stories. The Story of Germ Life. By H. W. Conn. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This little manual contains an outline of the structure and functions of bacteria. It is intended especially to cover the field of non-pathogenic organisms, and two of the best chapters are those which deal with the uses of bacteria in

agricultural and industrial processes, etc.

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Maxims of Public Health. By O. W. Wight, M. D., Medical Health Officer of Detroit. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This book, though published nearly twenty years ago, is not out of date, because it is full of common sense and acute observation. It is rather a series of hints to the average citizen than a systematic treatise for the learned.

The Commonwealth of Cells. By H. G. F. Sparrell, B.A. London: Bailliere, Tindall & Cox.

The modest sub-title declares this book to be some popular essays on human physiology and, though it is unquestionably that, it is also somewhat more. It is as accurate as if it were not popular, and its interest amounts almost to charm, especially in dealing with "those delicate tissues wherein the soul transacts its earthly business."

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## BOOKS AND MAGAZINES.

To accommodate readers who may wish it, the publishers of THE CANADA EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY will send, postpaid, on receipt of the price, any Book reviewed in these columns.

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The departments in St. Nicholas occupy continually more space and interest in the magazine. The long story in the October number is "Slushy," the Roustabout, by Howard E. Ames.

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The contributions of special excellence to the October Atlantic include an article on Montaigne, by H. D. Sedgwick, Jr.; one on Meredith, "A Knightly Pen," by Harriet Waters Preston; and two short poems on Joan of Arc, by H. W. Boynton. The first essay in the Contributors' Club, An Afternoon Grievance, is a sprightly and genial complaint.

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The concluding series of London Depicted, by Tony Grubhoffer, appears in the September Studio. The scenes dealt with are: A Cabman's Shelter, Somerset House, The Temple, Dock opposite Waterloo Pier, Blackfriar's Pier, and St. James' Park. The Work of Josef Israels, Turin Exhibition, and American Press Illustrators are among the important articles. Julien, Matthews, Bengough, and Racey are the four Canadians whose work receives mention in the last mentioned article.

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The October Century contains some interesting reminiscences of American poets by the artist Wyatt Eaton, by whose early death Canada was deprived of a gifted son. There is also a reproduction of a crayon drawing of the artist by himself which illustrates the charming qualities of his work. This number of the magazine is partly devoted to the elucidation of supposed mysteries, such as the Cardiff Giant and the methods of J. A. Dowie.

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An important contribution to present day art criticism opens the October Scribner's. It is an article on the work of J. Q. A. Ward, by Russell Sturgis, with numerous reproductions from Mr. Ward's statues. There is a remarkable story, quite recalling in atmosphere and distinction the work of Hawthorne, by Henry Van Dyke, a short story very much in advance

of the usual work of this author. At Damascus Gate is an unusually fine poem by G. M. Whicher.

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Some Phases in Fiction, by Walter Sichel, taken from the Fortnightly Review, is the longest and most serious piece of work in The Living Age for October 11th.

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The Cosmopolitan contains, besides other articles, an interesting account of the Winter's Drama, by Wingrove Bolton; one of Mr. W. T. Stead's most disagreeable articles—which is saying a great deal—on the Coronation; and a contribution from Prof. Peck, "What a Father Can Do For His Son."

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Two of the short articles in the October Book Buyer are devoted to accounts of the work of Edward Eggleston, and of Mr. Richard Harding Davis. The Virginian and the Maid-at-Arms are given special signed reviews.

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The October Lippincott has an unusually interesting novelette by a new writer, Mary Moss "Fruit Out of Season" is the name; it is a love story, pleasing and not too probable, the latter quality not in the least interfering with the former.

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Sir Edwin Arnold contributes an article on Indian Viceroys to the Youth's Companion for October 16. There are the usual number of wholesome and interesting short stories, and the editorial page maintains its standard of excellence Mr. Thomson's capital serial story of the Sister of a Canadian Surveyor who took a share in her brother's work was concluded in the last number.

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Analytical Psychology. $1.50. A practical manual for colleges and normal schools, presenting the facts and principles of mental analysis in the form of simple illustration and experiments, with forty-two figures in the text and thirty-nine experimental charts by Prof. Lightner Witmer, of the University of Pennsylvania. The purpose of this manual is to base psychological study upon experiment, so making it practice in true induction. It begins with showing the combination of apperception and sensation to develop the perception and several very striking experiments are given to show the part taken by the mind itself. The figures and charts are clear and striking, and the series of color charts, to show how colors are varied by contrast, is of special interest. (Ginn & Company, Boston and London.)

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We have received Volume VIII. of the Documentary History of Education in Upper Canada. The whole history covers the time between the passing of the Constitutional Act of 1791, and the close of Dr. Ryerson's administration of the Education Department in 1873. It is edited under the direction of the Minister of Education, with explanatory notes by J George Hodgins, M.A., LL.D. Volume VIII. deals with the years 1848-1849. The matter is prepared with great intelligence and care and the volume is a valuable addition to the records of education in the Province of Ontario. Having been Chief of the Staff in the Education Department from 1844 to 1890, Dr. Hodgins was personally cognizant

of the various educational events recorded in the Volumes of this Documentary History, and no man now living is better qualified for the task of putting into continuous and readable shape, the vast fund of materials at his command.

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*The Standard Reader Series* is inaugurated by a "First Reader," which is accompanied by a Teacher's Manual, with an introduction for the entire series. Much care has been taken in preparing the First Reader for use in schools, but we have serious doubts of its fitness for our schools. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York and London.

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In the *Riverside Literature Series,* Mr. Ewing's "Jacknapes" and "Brownies." 15 cents, have been sent us. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.

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*Our Country's Story.* An Elementary History of the United States. 65 cents. By Eva March Tippen. A collection of the essential facts and principles of history, briefly told in a simple style that cannot fail to appeal to a child, and to develop thought, without which the study of history is almost valueless. Much of this history is applicable to the history of Canada.

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The age of Chaucer (1340-1400), by F. J. Snell, M.A., with introductions by Prof. I. W. Hales. Messrs. George Bell and Sons, London, price 3s 6d. This is one of the volumes in the series of Hand Books of English Literature. We have had occasion to speak in high praise of these hand books; they seem so thorough, complete and scholarly, that it is very satisfactory to read and commend them to the attention of our readers. The illustrations by Mr. Hales is worth more than the whole price of the book.

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Murray's Home and School Library. Edited by Laurie Magnus, M.D. London, England. 2s.

"Heroes of the West." The writers say, "We are writing primarily for those who have the main facts and biographies of English History; we aim at supplementing this, and at suggesting the true prospective of the English events in the wider landscape of Western Europe."

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The Teaching of Chemistry and Physics in the Secondary School. By Alexander Smith, B.Sc., Ph. D., associate professor in the University of Chicago, and Edwin H. Hall, Ph.D., professor in Harvard University. Longmans, Green & Co., Publishers, London, Eng.

Prof. Smith treats of the defects in the present teaching of chemistry, which he considers more abundant than the advantages secured. He goes on to show what ought to be the work done in the secondary school to make this science do the most for the mental development of the pupil, especially in training to careful observation and true inductions from the observations made. This should be supplemented by thorough recitation work with lectures and full explanations by the teacher. Considerable attention should be given to the theories of chemistry.

The second part of the book gives clearly Prof. Hall's views in regard to the teaching of physics. He indicates the class of experiments that give the pupil the best prepara-

tion for the work which should be done in college. It is refreshing to note that he would have a distinction made in the work of students merely preparing for more advanced study and those who expect to go into active life from the secondary school. Yet in all he says the college student is clearly in his mind. He would have the larger part of the work quantitative measurements.

We commend this book to all teachers as they will find instruction and inspiration in it for their work, and these things are needed by every true teacher. But to the teacher of physics and chemistry this book we deem indispensable, directions for fittings of the laboratory, the instruments to be secured, the teaching in the class-room, in the laboratory, and out of doors, We like the free spirit of the writers.

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Coleridge and Wordsworth: Select Poems: prescribed for the matriculation and departmental examinations, 1903. Edited with introduction and notes, by Prof. Pelhan Edgar, Ph.D. George N. Morang & Company, Toronto. Prof. Edgar in the introduction to and notes on these select beautiful poems places much valuable information at the disposal of the teachers and scholars in both Public and High Schools. Dr. Edgar has constantly kept in mind the master and the pupil in his work on these poems, and we have no doubt but that they will profit by the good judgment he has shown.

The Geo N. Morang & Co. are making themselves a name for good printing.

Tangled in Stars. By Miss Ethelwyn Wetherald. Richard G. Badger, The Gorham Press, Boston, U.S.A.

"Tangled in Stars" is a slim volume of verse as regards number of pages,—wisely slim, as thereby the lover of out-door scenes and the moods called forth by them is left unsatiated. The book is an expression of the author's pleasure in birds and weeds, stars and flowers, with glimpses of woodland and running water, budding boughs and falling leaves. These poems are above all things sincere—there is not an affected line in the book. And there is scarcely a poem in which feeling and perception do not go hand in hand. Observation penetrated by emotion would perhaps best describe these verses. The eye revels in the outward show of things and the heart continually makes its comment.

There are also touches of imagination, as when it is said of "the Roads of Old," "They bordered childhood's country well"; or in the subtle truth of these stanzas:

"Who hath not in a darkening wood,
At twilight's moment, dimly known
That all his hurts were understood
By some near presence not his own,

That all his griefs were comforted;
His aspirations given release;
And that upon his troubled head
Was laid the view-less hand of Peace."

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In other poems—noticeably in "At Awaking" and "The Budding Child"—the author appears to be led astray by force of her own optimism into the implication that this is the best of all possible worlds. But this view would, we are sure, have been corrected, had Miss Wetherald's recent poetic work been adequately represented instead of being confined to the lightness and earth-loving pleasantness of these "little leafy songs."

The author of this neat volume of verse is no new votary of the Muses, but has already proved herhelf a poet and a finished writer of prose.

"The poets, who on earth have made us heirs
Of truth and pure delight by heavenly lays!"

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It is is now some months since George N. Morang and Company, of Toronto, issued Mr. Beckles Willson's entertaining life of Lord Strathcona which has attracted considerable attention from the leading periodicals of Great Britain as well as in Canada. Mr. Willson's purpose has evidently been to provide a short, readable and generally comprehensive account of what has been accomplished by a man who, it is universally acknowledged, has been a great force in developing Canada. The book appeals, and appeals successfully, to the same class of readers who derive the greater part of their information and recreation in reading from the daily newspapers and popular magazines; and it is through this class, on account of the largeness of its constituency, that possibly the widest influence may at present be exerted. Mr. Willson's work is not a final, nor intimate biography which was not the intention of the author; but it is interesting, picturesque, and patriotic, and forms a successful contribution to what may be called journalistic Canadian history. The appearance of the book, as is usual with the publications of the Company, is attractive and creditable to the enterprise of the publishers.

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