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**WESTERN SCHOOL
JOURNAL**

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The Bulletin of the Manitoba Trustees' Association

BIRDS AT EVENING

When the rooks fly homeward and the gulls
are following high,
And the grey feet of the silence with a
silver dream are shod,
I mind me of the little wings abroad in every
sky
Who seek their sleep of God.

When the dove is hidden and the dew is
white on the corn,
And the dark bee in the heather, and the
shepherd with the sheep,
I mind me of the little wings in the holm-
oak and the thorn
Who take of Him their sleep.

When the brier closes and the iris-flower is
furled,
And over the edge of the evening the
martin knows her nest,
I mind me of the little hearts abroad in all the
world
Who find in Him their rest.

“The Lamp of Poor Souls”
Marjorie Pickthall.

Convention Number

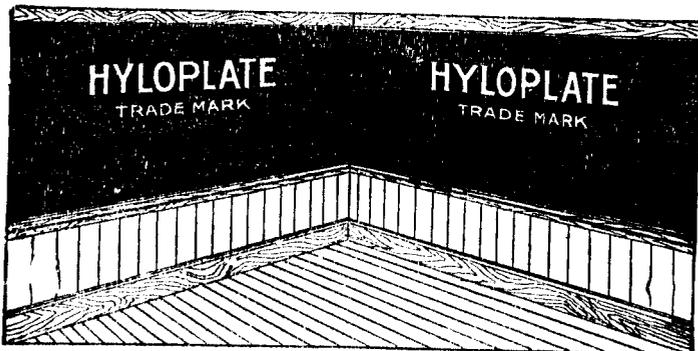
Winnipeg, Man.

June, 1917

Vol. XII—No. 6

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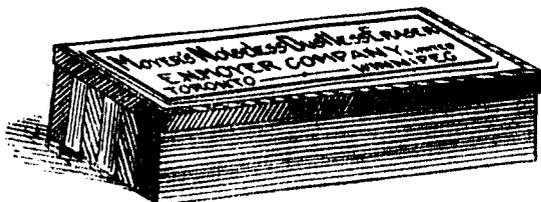
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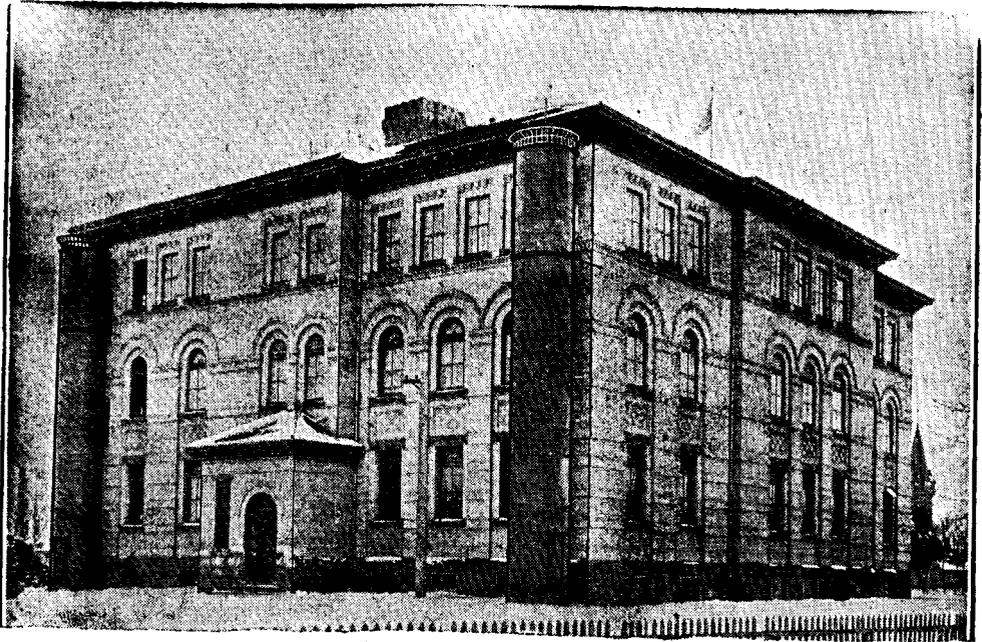
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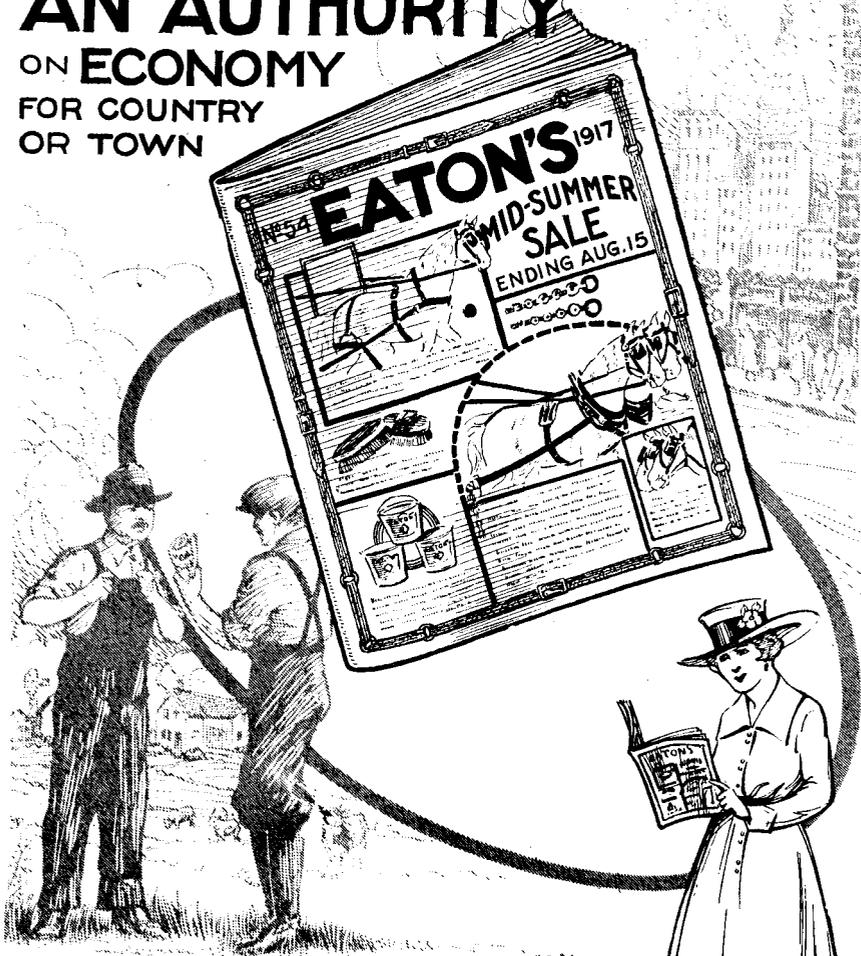
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The Western School Journal

(AUTHORIZED BY POSTMASTER GENERAL, OTTAWA, AS SECOND CLASS MAIL)

VOL. XII

WINNIPEG, JUNE 1917

No. 6

Editorial

The End of the Journey

And so the end of the year has come. My little children and I have finished our journey. We have walked and talked together, sometimes hungry, sometimes thirsty, and oftentimes weary, yet on the whole happy and well contented, for we enjoyed one another's company, and were cheered from day to day by the songs of the birds and the sight of the wayside blossoms.

When the year began I was in dread. I saw the repellent rather than the attractive features in each pupil. The dirty hands and face of Tom, the awkward gait and mannerless air of Mary, the irreverence of Alex, and the venomous disposition of Katie — all such things as these magnified themselves from day to day and I became depressed. I could not lead the flock and so I determined to drive them. Of all my errors this was the greatest. No one who has not attempted to drive can ever know the misery I suffered during those first three months. I say nothing of the misery endured by the helpless children.

Then came a change. I need not say how the change came only that it came by way of revelation. I saw myself and was ashamed. The strangest thing about it was that as I recognized my fundamental error, and began to adopt the more humane method of management, I began to see, hear and feel what my senses were incapable of perceiving before. Tom was dirty, but he was only too ready to keep himself clean

when I approached him in the right way. Mary was awkward, but as department leader of a smaller group she soon made herself a model in her bodily movements. Alex, the irreverent, became my playground assistant and sharp-tongued Katie became the willing nurse or kind mother of the baby class and I lost my ill-temper.

Yes, when I changed all changed, and during the last seven months we have had a heavenly journey. I am leaving the district in a few weeks, but I leave it with a great loneliness in my heart. I grew to love these children of mixed nationality and strange speech. I grew to love them because I was one with them, and they loved me, for they have told me so.

There is no other bond worth anything. I am not gushing. It is not my way. Those who gush, I am sure, cannot love. But I have been absorbed in these pupils and I could not help sympathizing with them in all their trials and difficulties, and I have appreciated all their merits. Strangest thing of all, I am not weary now at the end of the year, but I feel ten years more mature than I was last June. Nor can I say I am sorry for it.

At the end of the journey I am well content. All of us, teacher and pupils alike, have added something to experience and to the joy of life. And we like to look back over the way we have travelled.

Such in brief is the happy confession of one young lady in Manitoba. What can I say? What can you?

A Notable Book

When a man puts into a book his heart and his wisdom, when he chronicles actual experience and avoids overstatement and wild imagination, when he breathes sincerity in every line and strives to express truth rather than to utter fine phrases, he is likely to carry his readers with him. No book has appeared for years that is so interesting and inspiring as that which has just issued from the Macmillan press. It is written by Angelo Patri, and is entitled "A Schoolmaster in the Great City." It is a plain statement of the actual happenings in a large school in Greater New York. Nothing is hidden, nothing is suppressed. Page after page gives incidents reflecting the life, or should we say death, in the schoolrooms and on the streets. We visit dirty homes, we hear the noise of traffic, take part in the confusion, and at every stage follow the author as he asks if the school is really doing what a school should exist for in a community of this kind. We follow him further as he asks if the school is not practically useless unless the whole community life is linked up with it. As he reveals the growth of the organization in his community we realize that the central thought in education is adaptation, and that this means for every age and every condition, new goals of effort, new classes of teachers, new activities, new equipment. Yes, as we read this true, earnest book we become alive to the fact that nationally the great problem is that of the city and not that of the country. Though invidious distinctions are to be avoided, one cannot resist comparing the frankness, kindness and charming simplicity of this book with the highly spiced and purposely imaginative "Brown Mouse" — which, nevertheless, is a most inspiring volume. So, we say teacher, wherever you are, get this book by Angelo Patri. Read it, weep, sing and then enter upon your work in a new spirit. Just listen to this picked out at random:

"When my family came to New York I lost the companionship of open

fields, grass, trees, flowers, sheep, streams, dark castles on the mountain sides. I wandered about with the rest of the children doing what we saw the older boys doing. The streets and boys who owned the streets were our masters. They did the training. . . . In all this there was never a word of school. School had nothing to do with living and we were busy living.

"Already these children had too much of the fundamentals. Their mentalities have foundered on the sacred three R's. In these average special classes instead of less of the three R's the children got more of them. It was like taking a drowning man out of a lake and throwing him into the sea.

"Socializing the teacher means humanizing the teacher.

"In my discouragement I told an older principal about my efforts and failures. 'What do you mean?' he said in a puzzled fashion. 'I don't understand you.' 'I've tried to make teachers and children feel that I'm their friend, and I'm eager to help them, but I don't seem to be able to get them to speak or act freely in my presence. They are afraid of me!' 'Afraid of you? Of course they are and they ought to be. They are all right. They are well trained. They will do your bidding without question. Take my advice and keep them under your thumb.'

Editorial Notes

The Journal congratulates the Agricultural College and Prof. Jackson in particular on the result of the gopher-killing contest. The Government must also be congratulated on giving financial assistance to this scheme. Thanks are due also the public-spirited citizens who donated prizes. Above all congratulations to the army of boys and girls in out of school who made things go.

Teachers and scholars should note particularly the prize list for the Brandon Fair. See the advertisement in the Journal of May and June.

Twelfth Annual Convention of
**The Manitoba Educational
 Association**

Kelvin Technical High School, April 9th, 10th, 11th and 12th, 1917

SECONDARY DIVISION

(Minutes)

There were held two general sessions of this division and a great many sectional meetings.

At the general sessions the following items were the chief:

Selection of High School Studies—President Murray.

Report of Committee on Programme—Inspector S. E. Long.

Conference led by Mr. Tufts in—

(a) Grade IX. and Grade X. unexamined work.

(b) Taking account of term work.

The officers of this division for next year are:

Chairman—J. R. Hamilton.

Secretary—W. Sadler.

The following sectional programmes were carried out. As many of the papers as have come to hand will be printed in full or shortened form. Others will be given in subsequent issues. Reports of committees and discussions are not printed.

I. Classics—

The Teaching of Ancient and Modern Languages, Dr. Dickerman.

II. Science—

Conference on Recording Results of Practical Work.

III. History—

Educative Value of History, Prof. Martin.

Topical Methods, Mr. S. Burland.

Selected Lessons, Mr. G. J. Reeve.

(All these are printed below.)

IV. Home Economics—

Scientific Management of Home Work, Miss Eadie.

Household Science in Rural Schools, Miss Kelso.

Reports from Rural Schools.

V. Conference of Supervisors—

Tests in Arithmetic, Mr. W. J. Sisler.

How a Supervisor can help Teacher, Miss Plotemy.

The same from Teacher's side, Miss Parkinson.

What can be done in Supervising, Mr. J. C. Anderson.

Grading and Promotion, Mr. A. E. Hearn.
 (Two of these are printed in this issue.)

VI. English—

Oral Composition, Miss Colwell.

Verse making in High School, Dr. Gillen.
 (Both of these are printed in this issue.)

VII. Modern Languages—

Demonstration First Year French, Miss Reany.

Elementary Phonetics, Prof. Muller.

Talk on Cosette, Miss Hildred.

French on the Phonograph.

VIII. Mathematics—

Arithmetic, Mr. D. B. Huggins.

Algebra, G. Hogarth.

Geometry, T. A. Neelin.

(A report follows.)

IX. Industrial Education—

Unconsidered Aspects, Mr. Russell.

Educative Value of Wood Carving, Miss Farrow.

Learning to Think, Mr. Tipping.

Recognition of Technical Education, Mr. W. J. Parr.

Theory and Practice, Mr. Baskerville.

Correlation of Art and Technical, Mr. Fanshawe.

(Several of these are published in this issue.)

X. Agriculture—

Very few were present and the session met with principals of High Schools. Prof. Reynolds spoke on Agricultural Education. A lively discussion followed.

XI. Conference of Intermediate and High School Principals—

This took the nature of a conference. The following topics were considered:

1. Promotion.
2. Supervision.
3. The "Transferred-in."
4. School Supplies.
5. Card Registration.
6. Adapting Programme of Studies to the Local Situation.
7. Art and Music in and out of School.

HIGH SCHOOL COURSE OF STUDY FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES

(By President W. C. Murray)

It is not an easy matter to state, defend and apply the fundamental principles which should govern the selection of the subjects for a course of study for High Schools. There has been much controversy over the retention of some of the oldest subjects of the school course, and not a little disagreement over the object of the course. A selection is inevitable and yet nearly every reformer advocates the inclusion of something.

The old type of High School was intended for a special purpose, to prepare boys of a certain class for a definite object. Tradition had settled the best way to do this, and sentiment had attached this class to that way of training.

The new type of High School is intended for all the people. Unless it attracts all and retains many, it is regarded as a failure. Consequently it must provide for that infinite variety of wishes and needs that is characteristic of democracy. In attempting to be all things to all men the modern High School loses definite character. Probably in time the democratic High School will develop a definite type. At present its most dominant note is its sincerity to please every one.

I will take this anxiety as an index of the first and most fundamental principle that should govern the selection of a subject for a High School course. The school is made for the boy, not the boy for the school. When education was conceived as a process for re-making, or, in the words of John Milton, the Puritan, for "repairing the ruins wrought by our first parents," the school became the reformatory, and the boy was fitted to the school. Now, when education is conceived as a process of development, as the unfolding of nature's gifts, the school must be fitted to the boy. "Follow nature," said Herbert Spencer. He, however, adopted a highly artificial and untrustworthy test of nature's way. Nature's methods, he held, should be pleasant, therefore pleasure should be the test of everything. What gives pleasure is right; what does not is wrong. This crude Naturalism, in turn, gave way to scientific Naturalism—the newer psychology, which demands that the course of study should be adapted to the psychological needs of the boy. To give the strong meat of grammar to beginners, or the milk of fairy stories to High School graduates, is a greater educational blunder than the corresponding error in dieting.

The High School course, then, should be adapted to the psychological needs of the adolescent, the youth. Let us look at them for a few moments. The period of adolescence, the beginning of becoming adult or mature, is in sharp contrast with boyhood or girlhood. About the age of twelve the boy turns from childhood to youth, from dependency to self-reliance, from being a ward of the family to membership in society. He is beginning to grow into a man. I wish you

to take note of the age when the change begins. In some cases it begins earlier than twelve, in tropical races earlier even than ten, in others as late as fourteen or fifteen. With us twelve is the most frequent age. Do we observe this in our school programmes? The transition from the Public to the High School is made in theory eight years after entering school at the age of six.

I believe that if the break occurred at the end of Grade VI., the High School course could be made much more suitable to the pupils. It is not necessary to mention the many practical advantages of the proposal. Let us centre our attention on the psychological. The work of Grades VII. and VIII. is not stimulating, not suggestive. It is aimed less at opening up new vistas of knowledge, and more at repetition for the purpose of developing greater skill. Were it not for the stimulus of the Leaving Examinations, I believe the semi-satiated pupils would go to sleep over this work.

Have you not noticed how the pronounced physical attitude of the boy gives place to the lassitude of the youth? One is always "on the go," the other prefers a couch and a book. Boyhood is the time for forming habits mainly physical. For this purpose that unceasing activity is essential. The passion for reading develops and becomes intense during the transition to youth. This indicates an intense craving for information, for new ideas about everything, but more especially about humans.

Why should not the difference be recognized to a greater extent in the requirements for Grades VII., VIII. and IX.? It seems to me that these grades should introduce the boy to a greater variety of interests. I do not mean a great number of new subjects, but that the aim of the work should be not drill, drill, review and review, but the introduction to the larger world of romance, of nature and of human society.

May I support my views by quoting from Judd's very able discussion of the psychology of High School subjects? "The impatience of boys and girls in the seventh and eighth grades with a mere continuance of the elementary curriculum ought long ago to have drawn the attention of teachers to the fact that a new mode of administration is required for these years." "The necessity of recognizing the onset of the adolescent period somewhat earlier is coming to be very obvious." "Twelve years of age is the crucial period, physically and morally and intellectually. We cannot do the work of training adolescent youth by waiting until the period is well advanced." "It is true that children of fourteen and fifteen years of age are consciously assuming an entirely new attitude toward society. It is equally true that these children ought to have some preparation in the years immediately preceding fourteen and fifteen for the new type of work and the new

type of thought which they are to take up."

Can the psychology of adolescence throw any light upon what should be included in the High School course?

In boyhood the memory and imagination are at their best; in youth reason and emotion are prominent. The development of the youth's reasoning powers shows itself in his proneness to argue, his quickness to criticize, his fondness for puzzles and conundrums, his delight in games of skill and chance which involve quick and clever combinations. I need not elaborate. Everyone recalls how he felt and acted as new powers rapidly developed. This delight in pulling things to pieces, in criticism and argumentation amply justifies the phrase "the puppy dog stage."

The reasoning powers manifest themselves in two complementary ways, in one they pull apart, in the other they combine. We may call them abstraction and relation, or discrimination and combination, or analysis and synthesis. Individuals differ greatly. One has greater analytical or critical capacity than another. In others the synthetic gift is stronger. There may be more than a superficial relation between unusual imagination and synthetic ability. The subject of algebra exercises to a preponderant degree the analytical faculty, while geometry appeals more to the synthetic. Logically the analytical should precede the synthetic, but I believe nature works the other way. Things are found together, are presented as wholes. Whether this is due to the constructive activity of imagination or not, the fact remains. Upon the materials apprehended as wholes, the dissecting, discriminating, analytical or abstracting activity of the mind descends, and when it has pulled it to pieces to its satisfaction, it turns to putting it together again in skeleton fashion.

I do not wish to say more. These powers develop rapidly with adolescence. At this time the abstract studies of the High School course can be taken up with power and satisfaction. By abstract studies I mean the scientific view of language, e.g., grammar; of nature, e.g., physical geography, physics, chemistry and biology; of social organization, e.g., civics or government; above all the mathematics. These studies are not only possible, they are attractive at this stage. The facility for this type of work not only determines the kind of study most suitable, but also the favorite method of learning. For example, a foreign language begun in this period is approached by the grammatical method. First grammar, then composition, then translation or interpretation of texts. This is in direct contrast to the natural method which relies mainly upon imitation. When imitation is at its best, in early childhood and boyhood, the natural method is the most effective, in fact the only possible. In youth, more particularly in later youth, when imitation is weak and analytical power strong, the grammatical method is almost the only possible in our conditions. Results, too, as well as method, are different in this period.

The imitative method leads to skill in the use of the new language as a medium of communication, the analytical or grammatical method supplies a key for the interpretation of the written text. It is as unfair to test the efficiency of late High School teaching in a foreign language by facility in conversation as it is to test the efficiency of early teaching by knowledge of grammatical structure and skill in translation.

I assume that enough has been said to make clear how the rapid development of reasoning power in adolescence calls for and justifies the introduction of abstract studies into the High School course.

There is another marked characteristic of youth—that is the intensity and the instability of the emotions. You remember Shakespeare's reference to the youth, "Then the lover sighing like furnace, with a woeful ballad made to his mistress' eyebrow"—"sighing like furnace, with a woeful ballad." The emotions are intense yet pitiful. With this emotional susceptibility there is often found an artistic impulse. Youth is the period of inner discoveries—discoveries of talent, of capacity to do as well as to feel. The artistic impulse seeks expression for the emotion, and the emotion in turn quickens the artistic impulse. Youth witnesses the outbursts of the poetic impulse, the impulse of song, of decoration, of graceful movement. The youth has aspirations for poetry, for music, for painting, for dancing.

The High School course should make provision for these things, but they are not to be taken in the abstract way of science, not merely nor even mainly as grammar and versification, nor as theory and musical technique, nor as drawing and coloring, nor as gymnastic and military drill, but as the expression and interpretation of emotion. Dry and deadly analysis, elaborate and mechanical formulations destroy and kill. Sympathy and appreciation quicken and kindle. Here the personality of the teacher gives life or crushes it.

In a vague way I have hinted at two widely different sides of youthful human nature—the intellectual and the emotional. To both the High School course should minister.

The moral and religious sides can receive but passing notice. The moral attitude should determine the method of approach, the religious the respect due to youth.

The child is tied to his mother's apron strings. The boy tugs at them for a time in vain. Then the joint pull of the gang snaps them asunder and the youth asserts his freedom. From a state of obedience he may rapidly pass to one of rebellion. It is natural. The time comes for the chick to break the shell, for the boy to leave the home.

The High School should treat the youth as a novitiate, candidate for membership in a society where self-reverence, self-knowledge and self-control should prevail.

We may now turn from the consideration of the first principles that should govern the selection of a course of study for the High School. The course should be adapted to the

psychological needs of the pupil. When he changes it should change; as his powers develop it should exercise them, and no side of his nature should be neglected.

The school, however, is society's instrument for preparing the young for membership within it—for good citizenship. Hitherto the emphasis has been laid upon patriotism and efficiency, upon loyal sentiment and skilful workmanship. Here I shall not challenge this too utilitarian view of the purpose of human life. Important as is the making of commodities with its consequent enrichment of the worker, glorious and great as it is to defend and, if need be, die for one's country, these in my opinion are not the things of supreme value. Over and above wealth, power, nay even the unity of the State, stands the sanctity of the individual. Man, not money, not government, was made in the image of God, and unless we wish to obliterate that image we should never treat even the humblest members of the human race as instruments for the satisfaction of lust, of greed for gain, of power or even of honour.

In what ways can the High School prepare for membership in society? Modern society is conceived as an industrial organization with powers of self-government. The idea of self-government has been thrust into prominence by the rapid growth of democracy. Some believe that when the political order becomes stable and the State develops settled democratic habits there will be less need for conscious training in government. That may be so, but the time is far distant so far as Canada is concerned. Not until the third and fourth generations of native born constitutes over ninety per cent. of our people will it be possible. Further, self-government is a mode of living rather than a method of government. If so, it cannot become mere routine without sacrificing the essential.

The training for self-government means more than learning how to organize, how to conduct meetings, how to legislate, how to be efficient in execution and at the same time responsible to others. In a few words, two things may be sought. One to form correct habits of self-government, the other to develop right ideas. The acquisition of political habits is at best a matter of minor importance, but the development of fruitful ideas is the supreme thing. We as a people are too practical, too prone to make the attainment of habits the chief thing. We should strive rather to foster ideas. Habits become obsolete and crippling. Ideas ever grow and reproduce their kind. A few fruitful ideas leaveneth the whole democracy.

I wish to apply the same conception to the other side of social preparation, the preparation for efficiency as a member of an industrial organization, the training of the worker, call it what you will—technical, vocational, professional or industrial training. Here again we may aim at manual skill, scientific knowledge or mental power and intelligence.

I believe that a system that makes the acquisition of either manual skill or encyclo-

paedic information its goal is sure to end in failure. The manual skill acquired by the diamond cutter is of little use in repairing boots. If we could determine with accuracy the particular vocation or calling which the boy of ten will follow throughout life, we might with some confidence start him in the acquisition of those habits that would prove serviceable. This we might do, even if we agreed to ignore the possibility of changes in the methods of his trade.

To concentrate on imparting useful information is even more risky. The useful knowledge of one generation may become the useless knowledge of the next. Nothing grows obsolete as quickly as technical knowledge. Only the latest edition of the standard work is authoritative, and it must not be more than two or three years old. Not long ago I heard of a proposal to establish a good working library for medical practitioners. It was distinctly stipulated that purchases should be restricted to books published within the last three years. Three years later the practitioners became indifferent about consulting it. You can readily see that specific habits or technical information may become a burden when conditions change. If so, it becomes a matter of great importance when we are preparing a boy for a long period to give him the power to adapt himself to changing conditions. In a country like Canada where men constantly pass from one vocation to another, and where the conditions of any one industry or calling are rapidly changing, power to adapt is of far greater importance than mechanical skill.

To develop power rather than to impart information or skill should be the aim of the High School course. It has been held by some that general power cannot be developed. Only specific habits can be acquired. You have heard much of the doctrine of formal discipline. It has become a subject of great dispute between the defenders of the old classical and mathematical courses and the advocates of the new courses in science and moderns.

If the doctrine of formal discipline be false, then the course of study must provide training in every subject which has a direct bearing on the boy's work in after life, and in no others. All training must be specific for its effects are limited to one particular thing. Let me illustrate very crudely. My right hand acquires skill in writing. To my left that skill cannot be transferred. All habits are specific and cannot be generalized. Or again, a child may be taught habits of neatness in doing exercises in arithmetic. In his grammar and composition neatness may be conspicuous by its absence. Or take James' classical instance. Certain students were tested as to their ability to memorize certain kinds of verse, and between the first and last tests were trained in other kinds of memorizing. No appreciable improvement was revealed by the test.

From arguments such as these it has been inferred that there is no such thing as the

development of general power by specific training.

I am not going to weary you with a discussion of this question, but merely say that Bagley and Judd, two of the ablest of the younger group of educational psychologists, hold the contrary opinion, and in my opinion have established their case. As Bagley points out, while a course of training may result in specific muscular habits, it may develop ideals which are of general application, and Judd adds that these are due more to the methods of the teacher than to the material used. An unintelligent repetition of mechanical actions may result in specific habits which are not transferable, but intelligent and critical presentation of any problem of doing or thinking, with frequent reference to the progress and purpose of the doing, will give rise to ideas of method that are of very general application.

If this contention be true, then a course in physics yields results of value beyond the boundaries of physics, or the sister sciences, and even beyond these. The same may be held with regard to mathematics, to English, history and to foreign languages. Hence selection of typical subjects is not only possible, but desirable. Overloading is avoided, and that concentration is possible which has always been held to be necessary for the development of power.

Our first principle was—Adapt the course of study to the psychological needs of the youth. The second claims that the best way to meet the demands which society will make upon him is to develop powers capable of general application and not the specific habits of technical skill. This is psychologically possible and socially best. Select then the great instruments which time has tested and found best fitted for this purpose. From this general training may be developed the special skill required for the particular calling. These vocational courses should come just before the student passes out into the business of life.

Many of the present High School courses in Canada are too rigid. They have not been drawn up on the assumption that training, the development of general power is better than a mass of miscellaneous information. Consequently they include too many subjects and not enough of some. Too little of many is a more serious defect than too much of a few. It would be better to prescribe a certain number of basal subjects for everyone, and to permit each one to concentrate upon a few chosen from a fairly representative group.

One further observation and I have done.

We have heard much of the High School course being framed to suit the Universities. I have been in close contact with High Schools and Universities in three provinces in Canada, and my impression is that the Universities are in the position of beggars—they cannot be choosers. They simply take what the Department of Education permits with an occasional gratuity in the matter of foreign languages.

The courses of the High Schools are vocational to a greater degree than is realized. The vocation is teaching. The courses are crowded with too many subjects because the prospective teacher must have a little of everything. They cannot give enough time to some subjects which the teacher must know will be neglected. The order of the subjects, the amount assigned to each year, are determined not on general principles, but to meet the needs of students who will complete their course with a Third Class or a Second Class or a First Class Certificate. If the High School course were treated as a unit which everyone was expected to complete, a much better arrangement could be secured, for example, in such subjects as English, history, science and possibly mathematics. I am not sufficiently familiar with Manitoba's course to apply this remark to it specifically, but what I say is true of other courses.

What is the remedy? Transfer some of the special preparation required of teachers to courses either in the Normal Schools or elsewhere, and leave the High School course open and flexible, free from the suffocating clutch of any vocation or profession, be it learned or industrial.

Do not these practical conclusions emerge from our discussion of principles?

1. That High School subjects and High School methods might with advantage be introduced as early as Grade VII.
2. That the abstract studies represented by the sciences are appropriate tasks for the developing reasoning powers of the youth.
3. That his imagination and sympathies should be ministered to by those subjects which are tinged with emotion and which supply the vivifying ideas of nature and human society, and the ideals which direct conduct.
4. That the aim of the earlier part of the High School course should be rather to develop power than to prepare for a definite vocation.
5. That High School courses should be relieved of the necessity of providing for the complete preparation in scholarship required for the vocation of teaching.

THE EDUCATIVE VALUE OF HISTORY

By Professor Chester Martin

Professor Martin illustrated three conceptions of history suitable of progressive application in elementary, secondary and Univer-

sity education. The first was the chronicle, the narrative, or (to use a cognate derivative to history itself) the story of human achieve-

ment traced liked the annals of the Roman historian Tacitus, in chronological but not necessarily in casual sequence. A desiccated and disjointed narrative was a traversing upon a living subject in which cause and effect operated as inviolately as in a living organism, but it might be impossible to avoid at this early stage much that was mechanical and unreflecting and designed merely to dispel ignorance. It was unwise at any stage to dispense with honest mental discipline. At the same time the long list of dates and dynasties and arid facts without visualizing life itself and its underlying purpose in the long fight for freedom, could never transmute that laboured mental discipline in the students into active and thoughtful interest. This rather primitive conception of history might effect that change. A story of the French Revolution in a boy's vigorous language, or a tale of the Canadian fur-trade should fire any mind gifted with a degree of healthy inquisitiveness. Even for the boys and girls who seemed destined to go through life believing what they are told and acting unreflectingly upon what they believe, it was the teacher's privilege to temper the mechanical side by some of the boundless material in modern history for the picturesque and the useful. Episodes in Canadian history can be presented in a way to enliven the imagination of the average schoolboy. The teaching of history, at this stage particularly—and at any other, for that matter—was an art rather than a science. An interested teacher meant interested students if only we could resurrect dead, half-forgotten figures of the past into living men, breathing and toiling in an historic present.

For the secondary stage a deeper conception of history is necessary. In the 16th century one of the wisest statesmen of his day, Guicciardini, drew up for the secret use of his own family, a profound treatise on Florentine history in order to initiate them into the mysteries of statecraft. He used history to explain things as they had been and as they were. To have allowed prejudice or passion to distort his reasoning would have vitiated his whole work; for after all, sound judgment can be based only upon the truth. Much of modern history in that sense was in practice long before it was committed to writing: "Politics were present history, and history was past politics." Wisdom for the future depended largely upon past experience—our own, if we could command no other, but the recorded experience of the ages if we had the knowledge and wisdom to profit by it.

This second conception was particularly applicable to the secondary schools for two reasons. Over seventy-five per cent. of the students, we are told, never went to the University, and it was necessary to give in the high schools a sound basis for useful citizenship; and in the second place, the reflective thinking powers of the student should now begin to gain ground upon the receptive and emotional. With regard to the former, Professor Martin made a strong plea for this in-

clusion of a course on general history in the requirements for matriculation into the University. It was a matter of national importance to see that our students really appreciated the spirit of our development as a nation, as distinct from the mere forms of democratic government, and also that they knew enough of foreign history at least to read current periodicals with intelligence. For the development of thinking and reasoned reflection as distinct from mere docility in learning, history was conspicuously valuable at this stage. The process nearest akin to that reasoning from cause to effect in history was perhaps the solution of an exercise in geometry. Hypothesis and conclusion were known; it was required to think, to understand, to demonstrate the one from the other. The important questions in history were not what and when, but how and why. The aim was not knowledge only, but wisdom; for knowledge, after all, is only the beginning of wisdom. At the same time, Professor Martin urged the copious use of descriptive readings and visual illustrations; perhaps even over-emphasizing the graphic and the picturesque, so long as mental discipline was not allowed to degenerate into spoon-feeding and unblushing scholastic hedonism.

The ultimate conception of history, however, must be wide enough to include all others. Nothing which produced historical effects could be considered foreign to historical investigation. The fact that we are driven to distinguish Stubbs' Constitutional History, Fisher's Political History, Pastor's History of the Papacy, Lucas' Historical Geography, Ashley's Economic History, and special treatises on a thousand different subjects, would indicate how vast and complex is the experience which history seeks to press so indiscriminately into service. "It is not," says Stubbs, "a collection of a multitude of facts and views, but the piercing of the links of a perfect chain." Everything was the effect of some preceding cause, and in turn the cause of some effect follows. If one had infinite knowledge of causes in the past and infallible judgment and wisdom in reflecting upon these, it would be possible to foresee a whole infinity of effect in the future. The limitations within which history may thus be said to be in any sense prophetic are of course to be inferred from the hypothesis: we are, after all, but broken lights of an infinite intelligence, and in the book of Job even the wise and upright man is at last brought to his knees in contemplation of the infinity out of which he comes and the infinity into which he goes. If there was anything next to astronomy calculated to impress the human mind with the infinity and majesty of inexorable law it was the multitudinous movement of history.

The first requirement for the student who thinks of history in this light is to be sincere with himself and scrupulously honest with his evidence according to his light, for of all forms of deception, self-deception is the most insidious and the most foolish. The actual

process of events, of history itself, was as inexorable and inviolate as the stars; to falsify facts was impossible in the very nature of things; the attempt to falsify the record of truth must be futile and vicious in the long run because nothing but the truth could explain the facts. The student's task is not merely to know the facts but to understand them. The study of a series of historical problems throughout a period—the writing of essays upon them based upon as wide a range of evidence as possible—was designed to apply to history the methods long since taken for granted in scientific subjects. Books are the apparatus; varying or conflicting views are the reagents; the experiments are supplied not by the awkward manipulations of the student but from the recorded experience of the past.

For the average student the emancipation from the tyranny of the single text book—that abomination of desolation in historical study—would seem at first to involve a veritable shipwreck of mental confidence. If he despises to think for himself and to lead others, he is false to his only light if he surrenders the conviction of his own mind to an easy and indiscriminate credulity. Above all, he is brought face to face with the much more fundamental and terrifying truth that the only kind of education which is worthy of the name in the last analysis is, strictly speaking, self-education; that is, it is think-

ing, not merely memorizing. Sooner or later a man who aspires to leadership must face life squarely with the talents that are his. He cannot succeed indefinitely on borrowed thoughts. None but the demagogue can lead by following.

It may be added that history should supply much of the very material which a good citizen should use all his life. In the laboratory of history the minds that have been trying to shape the democratic destinies of Russia for fifteen years have been toiling over the lamp. As the principles which underly this war became unmistakably clear, it may be called a conflict between what is best in our history and what the Prussian schoolmaster of Germany claims to be the best in theirs.

And thus finally there is the influence of sound historical training upon character; perhaps the most signal educative value of all. The exercise of judgment upon great moral issues, the tempering of the mind to self-reliance and intellectual freedom, the habit of trying first to be sound intellectually and then to temper justice with chivalrous rectitude and fair play for the opinions of others—all these processes are ingredients in that inimitable British ideal playing the game in all the eventualities of life. History, therefore, could supply an appropriate training for the most exacting demands of scholarship, of education and of sound citizenship.

TOPICAL METHOD OF TEACHING HISTORY.

(By S. Burland)

Teachers of History agree that there must be some method or methods of teaching the subject. This agreement is due to several causes, some of which are—

1. Conferences like our own to-day in this History section.
2. The increasing number of well-informed and well-trained teachers.
3. New light upon the purpose of history teaching.

4 The realization of the teacher why he teaches History and the end to be attained.

The question naturally comes to all teachers, "What is the best method of teaching a subject?"

What is the best method of teaching History?

There is no best method. The real question for the teacher is, "What am I aiming at?" If you have a distinct end in view, means and methods of teaching will easily be discovered. The object is therefore the chief thing. If you do not know what you wish to accomplish all means are of no value. Let me repeat again, definitely decide in your mind and always keep before you why you teach a certain lesson in History, and you will

discover means and methods of attaining this object.

What Are Some of the Objects in Teaching?

1. To cram into the mind of the student the greatest number possible of historical facts so that some day in June he may be able to put these facts on an examination paper.

What is the best method to accomplish this object? By question and answer upon the prescribed text book combined with frequent examinations in writing. Two results of this method would be: 1st, To give the student positive knowledge of a kind; 2nd, to make him most certainly hate History.

2. To discipline his mind. Here the chief objects are the training of the mind by thinking historically; the awakening of the scientific spirit; the cultivation of scientific thinking; power in using language; ability to grasp grammatical distinctions; the fostering and promotion of the literary sense. We are not yet quite awake to this phase of History teaching.

3. To reveal man's relationship to his neighbor, to his country and to his race; to make good citizens and good leaders for the province and the dominion.

The topical method seems to combine these three objects—Advantages:

1. Assigning lessons by topics avoids the evils of assigning so many pages of the text book, and the student can pass his examinations just as well without committing those fearful "howlers" which examiners meet with.

2. It enables the teacher to select and concentrate upon the great facts in History, and merely pass by the unimportant facts as connecting links. The teacher can supplement the topics, point out their relative importance and their connection with one another, and help the student in acquiring a complete and accurate general view.

3. It encourages the student, under the direction of the teacher, to seek first his information, assimilate it, and then use it. This is one of the chief ends of all our education. power to acquire and power to use.

4. The tracing of the origin, development and end of any of the great elements of human progress gives the student a definite view of its complete evolution.

An illustrative lesson—"The Friars"—will appear in next issue.

A COURSE OF SELECTED LESSONS IN BRITISH HISTORY UP TO 1485.

(By G. J. Reeve)

A suggestion has been put forward more than once that it would be well for the teachers of British History to agree upon a list of lessons to cover the important movements and events in British History before 1485. An attempt is here made to suggest such a list, and to emphasize the main lines of development at the expense of side issues with no direct bearing upon the main current of progress.

The whole period up to 1485 may be taken in three sections:

- (a) Up to 1066: The Making of England;
- (b) 1066-1272: Saxon versus Norman;
- (c) 1272-1485: The Coming of Parliament.

In the first of these sections the outstanding feature is the assembling in Britain of the various racial elements that have shared in the making of the English nation, and the main line of study should be the contribution made by each of these elements to the making of the nations. The laws, government and social life of the Saxons should be carefully studied since they are the foundations of the present-day institutions of England.

The state of England at the end of the 9th Century may be broadly summarized as follows:

1. The Anglo-Saxon love of liberty had degenerated into licence;
2. The Church was ignorant and corrupt;
3. Power was in the hands of an aristocracy which had outlived its usefulness and its virtues;
4. The specious unity which appeared under

Dangers of Topical Method.

The text book is to the student what the day book is to the merchant. The merchant needs the ledger to comprehend his various accounts and departments and their relationship. The topical method is the ledger of the student. If the topical method is used alone, and the text book forgotten, there is danger of the student's information becoming unconnected. He will lose sight of the main current, and it is the current and not the eddies which he should watch. After all, every method has its limitations, and these you must discover before you can use it with discretion.

Subjects Suitable for Topical Method.

1. Constitutional progress.
2. National expansion.
3. Religious culture.
4. Educational progress.
5. Social progress.
6. Industrial and commercial expansion.
7. Growth of liberty and overthrow of tyranny.

a strong king had uniformly disappeared under his weak successor;

5. By the year 1000 A.D. the important question was not whether England would be conquered, by whether Norman or Dane would be the conqueror.

The second section, 1066-1272, deals with a time of invention and experiment, with a conflict of two sets of ideas (Saxon and Norman), the chief factor in shaping the course of development. The Saxon idea of kingship triumphed over the Norman theory of primus inter pares; the barons followed the Witan and aimed at controlling the royal power and not at independence; the Church became strongly national; the freemen saw the possibility of resuming their share in the government of the country by the road of the elected House of Commons; the Saxon local courts and the Saxon military system had also been revived before the close of this period.

The third section, 1272-1485, is mainly concerned with the growth of the powers of Parliament. This body, called as a temporary expedient by Edward I., became a normal part of the government as a result of the pressing financial needs of Edward III., was the real ruler of the country under the Lancastrians, and reached the lowest point in its long career under the popular despotism of the two Yorkist kings; after it had failed to make good its claim to control or limit the executive. Other important features of this period are the decline of the importance of the baron (due to military developments), the decline of the Church, and the rise of the merchant class.

Suggested Course

1. Prehistoric Man—His weapons, tools, occupations.

2. Celtic Britain—(a) Social, political and religious organization; (b) share of Celts in composition of English race.

3. Roman Britain—Extent, character and effects of Roman occupation.

4. Saxon Conquest—(a) Methods and character of conquest; (b) the free village community of the Saxons.

5. The Church before the Norman Conquest—(a) The conversions; (b) Roman vs. British; (c) organization and its effect.

6. The Coming of the Danes—(a) New methods and settlements; (b) influence on England; (c) work of Alfred.

7. The Struggle for the Possession of England—(a) Anglo-Saxon civilization—its weakness; (b) the Danish Conquest—why temporary; (c) reign of Edward the Confessor; (d) Hastings; (e) was the conquest beneficial.

8. William I.—(a) Feudal system, chivalry, crusades; (b) King and Church; (c) Domesday Book.

9. Henry II.—(a) King and Church; (b) legislation and administration of justice; (c) King and barons; (d) military matters.

10. John—(a) King and Church; (b) King and nation; (c) English and Normandy; (d) charter.

11. Simon de Montfort—(a) The pioneer of the representative principle; (b) the England of his day.

12. Edward I.—(a) Union of Wales and attempted union of Scotland; (b) laws; parliament.

13. Edward III.—(a) Hundred Years' War (a trade war; (b) parliament.

14. Peasants' Revolt—(a) Manorial system, villein tenure and status; (b) causes and results of revolt.

15. The First two Lancastrians—(a) Powers of parliament; (b) Henry V.'s unwise policy.

16. Breakdown of Parliament Government—(a) The triumph of the over-mighty subject; (b) results of Wars of Roses.

17. England in Middle Ages—(a) Police, trials; (b) agriculture, industry, commerce; (c)

Home Economics

SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT OF HOUSEHOLD WORK

(By Miss E. M. Eadie)

Madam President and Co-Workers:

The subject chosen for me deals with the present, but I wish first to recall that conditions were different in the past. During the time that the Manorial system was found in England, each Manor house was self-existent. To-day we may use rice from China, coffee from Arabia, mutton from New Zealand, gowns from Paris, and rugs from India. Habits of living were changed gradually, and the changes were brought about by the development of roads, canals, railways, the introduction of money, etc. Even our grandmothers were proud of their achievements in weaving, candle making, and food preservation, while we merely must have money to spend for the electric light bill, a ready-made gown, cans of fruits, vegetables, and meats.

The household work undertaken to-day may include only cooking and cleaning, and the results of our labors in these fields are more difficult to see than the results of the efforts of our grandmothers, therefore we find many of our cleverest women letting the factory do as much of this work as possible. At the same time, our doctors are working long hours, our hospitals have waiting lists, and our places of amusements overflow because there is no enjoyment in doing things at home.

We cannot travel backwards to the old system, but I hope to show that housework

may be raised to the standard of other worth while labour requiring intelligence.

Scientific management means minimum labor for maximum returns. What returns do we expect as a result of household labor? We must expect the welfare and health of the family, and the sciences are ready to-day to tell us how this may be obtained, and nature's laws never fail. A laboratory instructor in chemistry used to tell his class to record exactly what happened in their experiments, and he assured them that they got the correct results for what they did. Dyspepsia, gout, and anemia are the correct results for certain habits of eating. What is labor? What kinds of labor are there? For why will we save labor? Let us consider this chart.

To what class of labor does housekeeping belong?

To what class of labor does home-making belong?

Classification of labor—

Class 1, unskilled; description, requiring only bodily strength; examples, dock laborers.

2. Artisan; requiring skill with tools; carpenter, weaver.

3. Clerk; requiring accuracy and perseverance—routine brain workers; stenographer.

All degrees of skill and intelligence may be exercised in Classes 2 and 3.

Better results bring higher wages.

4. Manager; requiring the above plus initiative, experience and judgment; organizers of industries.

5. Professional; requiring all the above; surgeons, sculptors.

Classify similarly household tasks, e.g.—

1. Carrying fuel and water.

2. Ironing.

3. Planning and preparation of meals.

4. The equipping, the furnishing, and the upkeep of home plant.

5. Nurture and care of family.

Better results bring higher physical, mental, and moral standards.

We can see that cooking and cleaning are the kindergarten subjects of home-making, but it is with these I wish to deal. Why will we try to economize in labor in the doing of these tasks?

You have all heard of efficiency engineers, who by motion study and various devices have changed factory methods and studied how to lesson labor in bricklaying, shovelling, etc.

Nixon Carver, expert in rural economics at the Department of Agriculture, Washington, and often quoted in our magazines, gave an address at the American Home Economics Association meetings held at Cornell University three years ago. This address was reported in the *Journal of Home Economics* for October, 1913.

Nixon Carver said "An efficiency engineer saw a father amusing his child by tossing it with his arms. It occurred to the engineer that there was a considerable waste of energy in the father's crude and primitive manner of doing this, and that he could invent a single machine by which a father could toss the child twice as high and many times as fast with less expenditure of energy. The difficulty with this scientific gentleman was, that he did not know what economy is for."

There is an easier and more expeditious way of getting a golf ball round the links than by using a golf club. To answer this third question, "for why will we try to save labor," then, we need to know whether the doing of that task is worth while. Such labor we will call productive labor, not in the materialistic sense, but for the sake of the family or human life. The mother who neglects the dusting of the parlor table and takes the children for a walk, or a romp, or reads to them, may be choosing the more productive occupation. An English teacher once said a good duster may be a most uncomfortable person to live with. Dust on a hard, dry, polished table can do little if any harm, whereas bacteriology teaches us that dust in our food may cause illness and fatality. Knowledge is necessary in order to make the choice of what tasks may be most productive of family welfare.

Is it not a very important concern of ours to understand the nature of woods, metals, etc., in the home, and the cleansing agents suitable for these in order to preserve them and keep them fit for use? Further, is this

knowledge not necessary in order to decide what is wise in our choice of things about us? What does a great deal of silver ornaments, pudding dishes, tea service, etc.) mean in the home? Is the care of that productive labor? Housekeeping is only a means to the end of home-making.

Knowledge and moral courage are necessary if we are going to set up new standards and eliminate unessentials that hamper our best living and happiness every day. We require the necessities for efficient living in food, clothing, shelter, etc., and in exercise. In education and the larger life we read "Our modern man may be a little dull of hearing and rather hard to talk to, but with the microphone he can hear a fly walk. He is a trifle short-winded and finds running fatal, but why should he want to run when the 'elevated' shoots him over the city, and the 'limited' over the country? All along the line of modern human defect we find the substitution of some mechanical excellence. The modern man is not personally attractive, but he has undoubted taste in bric-a-brac. He has lost his wholesome appetite, but gained a French cook. He fails in democracy, but he gives alms. He denies himself fresh air and pure water, but he has the sanitarium and the doctor. Stated in this bald fashion, the illusion is evident. One puts it aside as resolutely as one would put aside the tempter himself. The substitutes are poor trinkets to be offered in exchange for human power and beauty and excellence.

"From this way of looking at life, all activity which makes against the health and sanity and completeness of organic power is criminal, and this, whether the wrong be committed in the name of education, or industry, or art, or religion."

A doctor once charged \$25.00 for a prescription which read "saw wood."

Labor saving devices may not be of value in some inexperienced hands, or by others may be abused, i.e., sufficient exercise may not be taken if we can press a button and have everything done for us.

Kinds of labor saving devices:—

1. Plan of house with built-in and stationary conveniences.

2. Furnishing and arrangement of equipment.

3. Household tools must be efficient, easily cleaned tools.

4. Utensils for accurate measurement.

Note—A few charts and models of these were shown and suggestions were made as to how this work may be adopted to public school classes by means of connection with drawing paper, cutting wood work, arithmetic, spelling and writing.

A kindly husband may buy for his wife any number of so-called labor saving devices. If they are of no value to the user they would be better in the shop—out of the way of the housewife. "The greatest labor saving device is the woman who is master of the situation."

Wherein lies the value of any of our possessions? Economists have generally neglected

ted the woman's side in calculating the wealth of nations. Mill said, "To be wealthy is to have a large stock of useful articles." Ruskin points out the flaws in this in "Unto this Last"; "lately in a wreck of a Californian ship one of the passengers fastened a belt about him with two hundred pounds of gold in it, with which he was found afterwards at the bottom. Now, as he was sinking had he the gold or had the gold him?"

Wealth means the possession of useful articles which we can use. It depends on the can and not the have. What we cannot wield to serve us may often chain us to inconvenience or even misery.

Do our houses serve us perfectly, or do they demand too much time and labor?

Does our clothing answer the hygienic and artistic reason to be, or hamper our every step?

The things we have may not only annoy, but cause misery for the family through unwise use.

Ruskin — "Whether any possession is a curse or a blessing depends on the user."

Fire and water are good servants, but poor masters.

Fire may burn or warm us.

Food may cause dyspepsia or nourish.

Clothing may distort our bodies or protect them.

Ruskin — "Wealth means any support to life or strength. There is no wealth but life."

Anything at the disposal of the housewife that will in its use lead to welfare, or efficiency and comfort of the household, is included in the wealth of the housewife. We are too apt to think we have a home when we have a collection of beautiful wedding presents.

Nixon Carver—"The educated or cultured person might live more economically than the uncultured person," means the educated person should be able to make the best use of all resources, fresh air, sunshine, etc.—as well as of those things which must be procured with money.

Carlyle in Sartor Resartus says—"Understanding is not a tool, it is a hand which can handle any tool."

Legitimate use of labor saving devices prevents drudgery, strain and premature death,

and puts joy into the doing of things worth while with the best tools and in the best manner.

H. W. Dresser, in his book on Human Efficiency, has a chapter on the value of human work. I have abbreviated part of this suggestive chapter. There he says: "Undoubtedly no condition is so complex as that presented by the home. Would it be possible to make a study of all housewifely activities and draw up a schedule so as to save time, material and money? At first thought the undertaking seems wholly impossible, since the housewife must do forty things in a day and, knowing from long experience how everything should be done, she is likely to resent a plan which seems intended to get more work out of her. Yet the housewife who believes she has learned the best way would admit that she acquired the art slowly, and that there is still room for improvement. Surely no scientific student of these problems would wish to get more out of the housewife, but would see her less fatigued and happier at the close of the day, with more accomplished. If by taking these matters under consideration she is able to be a little more patient, less nervous, more contented, there will be something gained. A calm interior will thus become the starting point for better planning. The thoughtful housewife may object at first to the vacuum cleaner or the fireless cooker, for fidelity to the good old ways is strong. The alert mother enlists the services of children and others when they are passing empty-handed and can easily carry needed articles to another room. She posts a list of repairs and other services to be attended to, at leisure, by the father. She is not doing forty things in a day, but just one thing with many branches, each one of which is contributory. Efficiency is not merely a question of capacity and training. Where there is love and interest there is a way. To have a scale of values revealing an end that is worth while is to be superior to time, and to many other conditions, intent on realizing the ideal."

It is not only the emancipation of women that is needed, but the emancipation of humanity from the tyranny of things, and from customs which blasts like a hoar frost and traditions which hamper our daily living.

HOUSEHOLD SCIENCE FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

By Mary L. Kelso, Brandon, Normal School

Until a comparatively recent period, education was regarded mainly as a means of training the intellect, but this conception of education is now considered incomplete. As our ideas are becoming broader we realize that the purpose of schools is not only to give mental training, but that all the child's activities and interests should be given direction by means of the training given in our schools. Further than that, we believe that these ac-

tivities and interests will assist the mental development.

Household science aim to educate in this way, by directing the mind to ideas connected with the home and by training the muscles to perform household duties. If this subject be rightly presented it will give a mental training similar to other subjects of the course of study. Another valuable reason for adding this to the course of study is that it relates

the knowledge gained in school to the home life. If this subject is used as a means of correlating the various subjects it will lead the pupils to see the importance of mastering other school subjects. (See note.)

The special branch of this work which I wish to discuss is that of hot lunches for rural schools, and before doing so it might prove interesting to briefly sketch the history of the School Feeding Movement, for in doing so facts will be brought to mind which may help to stimulate a lasting interest in the work.

Germany

The actual historical beginning of school lunches was made in the City of Munich, Germany, when Count Rumford established "People's Soup Kitchens." The work, though not organized for many years, was never discontinued, and in 1876 the city passed a law requiring all school buildings to include a kitchen and diningroom.

France

In France the work commenced in 1849, when a local battalion of the army, stationed at Paris, found that there was a surplus in their treasury at the end of the year. The men decided to use this money for the general good of the people, and it was given as a school fund, with the stipulation that it was to be used for the purpose of making the school more effective; and, to make a long story short, it was used for the establishment of school lunches.

England

In England it was Victor Hugo who, in 1866, by furnishing meals to the country children in the neighborhood of his home in the Isle of Guernsey, started the charitable provision of meals to school children, which during the following 50 years was extended widely over the country. Little official notice was taken of this work in spite of local efforts until the events of the Boer War. The startling fact brought to light was that only 2 out of every 5 men who applied for admission to the army could be admitted, the rejection being due to physical unfitness. Whether or not the fact was a fact it served to rouse the country to a high pitch of excitement, and for four years England was the scene of a most searching self-analysis that any country has ever known. It was rumored abroad that the English race was deteriorating; that the end of her supremacy had begun, and that she was repeating the history of Rome. Commission after commission was appointed to investigate the situation. The first commission was charged to look into the condition of physical training in the schools, and although they found out that it was not at fault, yet they discovered that a large percentage of the children were poor material to train, due to malnutrition, and the result of this discovery was a recommendation by the commission to the effect that where this condition existed, food should be provided.

Another commission was appointed later to inquire into the causes of the alleged physical

deterioration of the race. This commission reported that the causes were not evidently hereditary. Again the factor of malnutrition was noted. After the report of possibly the fourth commission a "Provision of Meals Act" was passed. It is interesting to note that it preceded many other Acts, all of which were in relation to national conservation in England. At present the work of school feeding is under the direction of the medical department of the national education board. Every child in the schools must be examined by the school medical officer, and his nutrition is made the basis of the report on his physical condition.

Scotland

In Scotland, which has its own school feeding law, the work is in a sense compulsory, as the local educational authorities are required to see that any child reported as underfed is cared for.

Germany

When England passed her "Provision of Meals Act," Germany became apprehensive of her own condition, and since it was estimated that 46 per cent. of the drafted conscripts were unable to pass the physical tests, one of the major causes being, as in England, long continued malnutrition, the subject of school feeding became a burning one, and before the war there was a great agitation for compulsory legislation.

To Summarize

The school feeding movement began over a century ago, and promoted with the various objects of charitable relief, encouraging school attendance, promotion of hygiene, and national welfare, the work now is receiving national recognition and is subject to national legislation in France, Bavaria, Denmark, Switzerland, Holland and Great Britain, and is national in scope with support from the municipalities in Germany, Italy, Sweden, Norway, Finland, Austria and Belgium. Beginnings have also been made in Spain, Russia, the United States and Canada.

Need of Hot Lunch

Personally, I think the system used in England is well worth our effort to repeat and by that I mean I think medical inspection and school feeding should go hand in hand. If we approach the problem of school lunches and medical inspection with a consciousness that they are inter-dependent and co-operating to secure the same end, we shall better appreciate their educational importance. The purpose of school lunches and medical inspection are largely identical. Both are designed to act in a preventative and curative way in all phases of physical and mental health. Medical inspection seeks in part to eliminate contagious diseases from the public schools, while school lunches aim to increase the resistance of children to contagious diseases. Medical inspection seeks out physical and mental defects, while school lunches aim to prevent or relieve physical or mental defects.

The common ground of school lunches and medical inspection might well be said to be the prevention, determination and relief of malnutrition. Intellectual development and physical development are interwoven. One criticism one might offer regarding statistics of medical inspection is that while they record symptoms they seldom deal with causative factors.

Did you ever realize that poor teeth are the result of insufficient lime and other salts in the food. You may have noticed, too, that in some families more than one member of a family will have the misfortune to have broken limbs, or one individual may have more than one breaking accident. Has it ever occurred to you that it might be an indication of an improper supply of the proper nourishment for bone building?

Where medical inspection and school feeding are going hand in hand we find reports saying that the symptoms of malnutrition which have been overlooked, or have been regarded as unavoidable, are noted as anemia, pallor, muscular weakness, squints, diseases of the external eye, lassitude, inattention, backwardness and mental dullness. Among the results are stunted growth, delayed physical and mental development, weaknesses of the spine, increased susceptibility to infectious diseases and marked liability to tuberculosis. Facts like these should make every parent and teacher ready to co-operate with any movement towards proper feeding.

I fully believe that the children in rural districts are on the eve of receiving, shall I say, a square deal. The city child has the advantages of well planned, well equipped schools, and with all that, well trained teachers. The system of consolidation is doing much to make the same possible for rural schools. Meanwhile, we are not losing sight of the fact that there are scores of one-room rural schools, and the aim of the Brandon Normal School is to train teachers for those schools. In addition to the lessons in cookery, home nursing, cleaning and laundry, lessons are given in management of social functions so that the students will have training in organizing labor and rotation of duties. This experience should be helpful to them in organizing hot lunch work so that it will not have to be all done by the teacher or by the teacher and older girls, but every one present will do his bit.

Each student is required to design a cupboard suitable for this work, keeping in mind that it will be used by children, that there must be a place for storage of lunches and for the children's individual equipment, as well as other equipment and supplies. In the manual training department they will make a blue print for a cupboard and get an estimate of cost.

The students have been grouped together to work out a suggestive outline for the correlation of this work with the other school subjects; and later we hope to grade this

correlation and make a suggestive syllabus for rural schools.

The line along which we are working is to try to provide at least one hot dish a day to supplement a suitable lunch from home. This can be managed by Friday afternoon demonstrations, when the duties for the following week could be assigned. There could be cooks who would also act as a menu committee, waitresses, dishwashers, housekeepers, etc. The duties should rotate and everything should be so well planned that the carrying out of the work would not be distracting to other work.

So that the students may know how to plan this work, they are working out a suggestive list of Friday afternoon demonstrations, and this of course will require alterations to meet the needs of various communities. They are also working out market lists, with a view to being ready to make requisition lists. Later on they will consider what the school garden can contribute to the hot lunch.

Over 50 per cent. of the students who attended Second Class Normal in Brandon last year and of those in attendance this year, have had the experience of carrying their lunches to school. An opportunity was given for every student to express opinions regarding the defects of the cold lunch system, and to discuss the advantages of hot lunches for rural schools. The result of these discussions may be summarized as follows:

Defects of the Cold Lunch System

1. Improper receptacles or wrappings.
2. Improper lunches, due to various causes, among which we might mention, hurried preparation, neglect, lack of knowledge, etc.

Quite often children pack their own lunches, when mothers are busy, and what do we find them selecting? It may be the first thing in sight, or whatever is conveniently packed, and too often the selection is pie or some similar food difficult to digest.

3. In the winter season it is difficult to prevent the freezing of the lunch.

4. Many children have chores to do before they leave home, with the result that a scanty breakfast is all they have time to eat. In cases like that you will often find reccess-nibbling, which often interferes with a noon appetite. A better way would be to allow them time for a lunch when they arrive and their recess could be used for the purpose intended.

5. A cold lunch is not very appetizing to anyone at noon, and it is less so in cases where children are not properly nourished. Many children simply nibble at their lunch and throw the remainder away so that mother will not know when they get home.

6. I think I would safe in saying that in possibly 50 per cent. at least of the rural schools, the school lunch is undisciplined, the pupils being allowed to eat their lunches wherever they choose. In fact, in some cases the only choice they have is between the dusty basement, or porch, or outside. The results of the undisciplined lunch are scatter-

ed crumbs, papers thrown about, and swarms of flies, etc. The habits of eating are often far from being the best. I know I am safe in stating that a large percentage, more than 50 per cent. of the pupils, simply bolt the cheerless cold lunch in order to get out to play, and much that is taught in regard to table manners is simply undone at the undisciplined school lunch.

I might enumerate many more defects, but I think it would be more valuable to enumerate some of the advantages of the hot lunch system.

The Advantages of the Hot Lunch System

1. A better physical condition is ensured as the proper selection of food results in ease of digestion.

2. A higher standard of efficiency is possible, as the pupils are more alert and attentive during the afternoon session.

3. Habits of cleanliness are formed by insisting on every child washing his or her hands before partaking of food.

4. Habits of courtesy are formed, and girls and boys are both educated to form sane ideas about the boys' part in the work.

5. It makes it possible to continue home instruction in proper table manners, and the proper use of utensils.

6. Habits of generosity are formed.

7. Children are educated along the lines of proper selection of food.

8. Children become genuinely interested in **production of food materials, and learn the value of home grown products.** If a school garden is not already in existence the lunch will stimulate enough interest to have them want a school garden.

9. It establishes a good relation between teacher and pupils and gives the teacher an opportunity to direct conversation along proper lines.

10. An elementary knowledge of domestic science will be acquired.

11. Children will become more useful at home and can relieve their mothers of the responsibility of the lunch basket.

12. It raises the dignity of the household duties.

13. It affords an opportunity for the teach-

er to have some control over the lunches brought from home.

14. It affords an excellent lesson in co-operation; co-operation among the children, co-operation on the part of the mothers and in this way an excellent spirit of co-operation between home and school is developed. One school has a schedule arranged whereby each mother can know the date on which is expected to co-operate by sending stated amounts of food supplies. (Wisdom required). It is essential that the teacher be competent to create and hold the proper co-operative social spirit.

15. Children develop healthy appetites for wholesome food.

Those who read the report of last year's work would notice that we had three experimental lunches. In each case one student acted as teacher and organized the class as she would the pupils in a rural school. This year we made the experiment still more practical by arranging with the public school to have 15 children for the day. A student was placed in charge of this "rural school" and taught the lessons assigned by the various teachers from whose rooms the pupils came. A hot lunch was prepared, and the students' report of the experiment is very encouraging.

The ideal arrangement, I think, would be to have a household science graduate take charge of this branch of work in a locality and visit several schools, but until something like that can be made possible, let us do what we can to introduce household science into rural schools.

Never before have we faced a problem like that of the present. Our country is being robbed of so many of our best men that our minds naturally turn to the up-growing generation. When we realize what they have to face in the near future, is it not the duty and privilege of every British citizen to do all in his or her power to prepare our boys and girls of today to shoulder the burden of tomorrow. Statistics show us that one means of producing a strong nation is through the control of the proper feeding of the children. Then, for this reason, along with the others already mentioned, let us do what we can for the children of the rural communities.

Supervisors and Principals

EFFICIENCY TESTS.

(By W. J. Sisler)

Two years ago I was struck forcibly by the statement made by the head of a large publishing firm, who said that the greatest fault of the boys that they got as apprentices was that they had no realization of the value of time. This firm had a wide choice in selecting boys and took only the best that they

could get from the high schools. If this is true of the best boys in the high school, what is the condition of those of only average or less than average ability? With the idea of finding out just what individual pupils could do in a given time, I gave a series of tests to pupils of all grades from Grade III. up-

ward. The work was very simple. All that was demanded was accuracy and speed.

The following tests given to Grades IV. and V. will illustrate what was done:

1. 5 days—hours.
2. 14 yards—feet.
3. 12 gallons—quarts.
4. 5½ pounds—ounces.
5. 6 feet—inches.
6. 33 inches—feet.
7. 2½ days—hours.
8. 2½ hours—minutes.
9. 44 ounces—pounds.
10. 13 pints—quarts.

The questions were dictated and after being set down pupils were given four minutes to fill in the answers. The results were:

Class	No. having all correct	No. having 9 correct	Average of class
1.....	0	1	50%
" 2.....	2	4	63%
" 3.....	5	7	68%
" 4.....	6	4	65%
" 5.....	9	12	70%
" 6.....	23	11	90%

Immediately after this test the following words were given and the pupils were given one minute in which to write the plurals: Man, woman, boy, child, house, loaf, foot, tooth, sheep, mouse.

The results were:

Class 1.....	18	19	90%
" 2.....	27	10	91%
" 3.....	20	12	90%
" 4.....	16	14	88%
" 5.....	22	19	90%
" 6.....	40	3	98%

There were about 45 in each class and the pupils were not allowed to ask to have the words repeated nor to get the slightest help of any kind. The work appears so simple that one would think that at least 90 per cent. should get all correct. But the fact remains that only about 20 per cent. of the pupils got all the problems correct, and less than 50 per cent. could give all ten of the plurals without a mistake. Other similar tests were given, in most cases with better results, but it does not seem that the results are quite satisfactory. I believe that the fault lies partly in the fact that problems usually given are too long and pupils get tired of spending a long time in working over a theoretical problem for which they do not see a practical application. They expect hints from the teacher, have problems re-stated, or get help from other pupils until they lose the power of concentrated thought and really independent work.

I believe that in arithmetic at least short, simple problems as practical as possible should be given, and pupils should be required to do these with accuracy, speed and neatness.

I must confess that I have been rather disappointed with results obtained and should be glad to know the experience of others along the same line.

GRADING AND PROMOTIONS.

(By A. E. Hearn)

In an article published in the Free Press on Feb. 3rd last, forming one of a series of articles on "The University Question in Manitoba," the following reference is made to the work of the public elementary schools: "A clever child could easily learn in five years all that is taught in eight or nine, and I venture to say that without taxing himself unduly he could do it in four. It is not merely harmless that such a clever child should wait a year in each standard in order to pass to the next; it is positively demoralizing to his character and intellect because each lacks the exercise and effort which is requisite to its growth and development."

We shall all be ready perhaps to admit the justness of this latter statement, although we may feel strongly disposed to question the assertion made in the opening sentence. To keep children in a grade any longer than is necessary to cover the work well is of course an injustice and should not be permitted. Whether or not this is being done to any extent in the public schools and whether we are permitting or actually encour-

aging retardation among the cleverer children is another question. Even if it were possible to put a child through the grades in four years it does not follow that it would be desirable to have him enter the high school say, at 10 years of age. With pupils who enter school late it is somewhat different, and I am convinced not only that clever children can cover the grades in less than eight years, but I know that many of them do so. To satisfy myself as to conditions in my own school I made an examination recently of the attendance cards, and I found that of all the pupils sent up for the entrance examinations in the past four years 34% of the number had covered the eight grades in seven years or less. 15% of the whole number had done it in six years or less, while 9% had taken but five years. Probably an investigation of this kind undertaken in other schools would show similar results. However, the charge that we are wasting the time of the brighter pupils cannot be passed over lightly, and I had thought it might be profitable this morning to devote a short time to

a discussion as to how far this charge is true and if true, what remedy ought to be applied.

And, first of all, it may be admitted that the plan of teaching large classes in graded schools does, indeed must, have a tendency to hold back the cleverer pupils to accommodate the slower ones. Many different plans have been suggested and put into operation, particularly in the United States to overcome the difficulty, but it seems to me the extent of the evil will depend largely upon the degree of elasticity allowed in our methods of grading and promotion whatever those methods may be. I care not very much whether the course is divided into eight grades or six as some would prefer, or into sixteen half-grades as in many schools in the United States. The individual boy or girl is more important than the system of grading, and no system will be a success unless considerable latitude is allowed in its working out. If we were to follow the present system rigidly we should have whole classes of pupils passing from grade to grade at the same time each year from the receiving grade to the entrance class, and pupils who failed would have to do the whole year's work over again. This, with the provision of supplementals, is what actually takes place in the high schools and university, and I presume it is a fairly accurate picture of what our critic imagines to be the condition in the elementary schools also. Now, an ideal condition would be the very opposite of this. Every child would be given the opportunity to cover the work of the grade in as short a time as he was able to do it well and would be advanced to a higher grade the moment he was ready. This is perhaps unattainable under present conditions, but it is well to keep an ideal before us and the nearer we can approximate to that ideal the better it will be.

It appears to me there are a number of ideas abroad that have become more or less fixed that we shall have to rid ourselves of before we can attain that flexibility of working that I consider needful. And, first, there is the idea that promotions should be made once a year at Midsummer. I think I am right in saying that 75% at least of promotions throughout the schools are made at the close of the spring term. Perhaps this has become the rule by reason of the fact that the high schools have fixed dates on which their courses of study begin and end, and for which reason the entrance examinations are held in June. So far as Grade 8 is concerned the matter is not in our hands, but it does seem to me there is no reason whatever for having fixed times for making the promotions from grade to grade. The step from one grade to another is like any other step in the child's development, as for instance when he has completed the learning of the phonic elements or when he has mastered the process of long division and the step forward should be made as easily as possible, and obviously the right time to make it is whenever a pupil
 a class has completed the work of the

grade without respect whatever to the time of year it may happen to be.

Another idea that we should do well to put aside is that it is necessary or desirable to make promotions in the mass that is a whole class at a time. When a teacher gets a class of pupils starting a new grade of work say, in August, she is inclined to plan her work somewhat like this—so much arithmetic to be covered by Christmas, so much more by Easter and so much by June and so on with grammar and spelling and the other subjects. Such a plan would be an excellent one assuming that all the pupils were to be put through together, as for instance in Grade VIII., where all must wait their test in the entrance examination. But in the lower grades is it not an injustice to the cleverer pupils to set the pace to accommodate the average or slow ones? I am satisfied that out of a class of average ability one-third of the number at least could, if given the chance, complete the work of the grade in seven or eight out of the ten months of the school year. I say I am satisfied it can be done because I have seen it done repeatedly, and to accomplish this a teacher should have at least two and perhaps three or four classes from the very beginning of the term, and the most advanced class should be given the opportunity of covering the work in the shortest time possible with the view to promotion as soon as they are ready and without respect to the standing of any other children in the room.

There is a third point of equal importance. The grade teacher should be able to look beyond her grade. Her attitude should be not to have all her pupils just cover the work of the grade in the allotted time, but rather, considering the pupils as individuals, to advance each one as far as he can go during the time the pupil is under her charge. Not only should she promote the most advanced of her class ahead of the rest and as soon as the work can be done, but she must be prepared to carry the promoted pupils through the higher grade as far as they can go by the end of the term. There is an advantage in having a senior class in a room doing the work of a higher grade. It is the best kind of incentive to the slower ones. Each junior knows there is a place in the senior section waiting for him whenever he is ready to take it. The change of studies too will not be a disadvantage to the teacher and will help to give her new interest in her work.

Under this plan a re-grading of the whole school will be advisable from time to time. At the end of a year it will be found that nearly every room in the school will have two grades and perhaps three or four groups doing work at different stages. The advanced pupils in one room will be found to be ahead of the juniors in a room higher up and so a complete survey of the attainments of each pupil is desirable, for the purpose of redistribution. In our school we make this survey in the month of June. At this time we

try to place every child according to his attainments and ability. Three factors go to make this classification: (1) The amount of work so far covered by his group; (2) his teacher's estimate of what he should be capable of doing in the coming term, and (3) his record for the past year as shown by the marks obtained in examinations conducted throughout the year. By the use of these three factors we are able to come to a fairly accurate estimate of pupils' standing and the relative position of each is determined from the highest to the lowest. Of course, I don't mean that all the pupils will be arranged in consecutive order. There will be grouping, but the groups will be small in some cases but three or four in a group, in others perhaps fifteen or twenty where the teacher considers they are on a fairly even level.

Lists of pupils will be prepared, each class or group on a separate sheet. These lists will show (a) the work so far covered, (b) the grade or division to which pupils are to be promoted, and (c) the pupils' standing in the examinations. It will show also the number of days so far spent in the grade and remarks on each pupil according to individual needs.

This being done, the next thing necessary is to arrange the groups in order and redistribute them among the teachers ready for the fall term. Suppose the class unit is 40 pupils, then the most advanced 40 or thereabouts will be given to the head teacher, the next 40 to the second teacher and so on down to the lowest pupils in grade I. In some cases in order to equalize the classes

it may be found necessary to divide the groups, but as I have said the groups will be small and it will not often be necessary to split them up. Thus each room at the opening of the fall term will contain pupils as much alike in standing as it is possible to get them. Each teacher on the re-assembling of school will be handed her lists, which will show her exactly the pupils she may expect and the place of each. This will provide her with a ready classification on which to begin her work, and will show her at a glance what work each pupil is ready to take up.

Now I have indicated how I consider flexibility in the work of grading may be attained, (1) by making promotions at all times of the year, (2) by the promotion of small groups as soon as ready, and (3) by retaining the advanced groups under the same teacher till the end of the term. I have shown how a redistribution may be carried out once a year. I have one other thought to offer, and it is this. However careful we may be with our grading and however often we may make promotions, there will always be found some pupils in a large school who might better work in a higher room. The supervisor must be on the watch for these. The teacher will not always call your attention to them. It may be the pupil is older than his class and able to do harder work, it may be he is a foreign boy who has been handicapped by having to learn a new language. Whatever the reason the best plan is to remove him at once to a higher grade room. We seldom find that a pupil so advanced fails to make good.

Mathematics

INTRODUCTORY TALK

A Summary

(By J. C. Pincock)

Are we teaching Algebra, for instance, in order that our pupils may acquire a certain facility in manipulating algebraical expressions, or are we relating the subject to other studies of which it is the chief handmaiden? Is the subject an end in itself or do we keep in mind as we teach that it is a form of mental discipline through which a student acquires power to grapple more easily with problems of any kind. In our teaching of Geometry are we interested mainly in bringing our students to the stage where they can perceive and prove that certain points are co-linear or, are we anxious that in the study of Geometry they may acquire that training which makes possible such testimonials to the subject as this, given to me some time ago by a prominent educationist in this province: "I owe to my study of Geometry whatever facility I possess of presenting any proposi-

tion before a body of men in a clear, concise and logical way."

Mathematics more than any other subject on the curriculum gives training in consecutive thinking. We do not learn to think well logically without constant training in logical thinking. That surely is supplied in mathematical study if anywhere.

Mathematics is invaluable as an aid to English composition. The first essential to a good proof in Geometry is correct and careful arrangement of ideas so that logical sequence is maintained throughout. What better model for any essay than a Geometrical proposition? Its study would at any rate save us from addresses which say so little with so many ornate sentences.

What about that ability to grasp essentials necessary in any form of study? "Understandest thou what thou readest" would, we

fear, be answered in the negative by many who read much to-day if they were truthful. Why? Because they read words and not thoughts and often miss the meaning of the author. Can a pupil work any problem in mathematics without first reading it so as to understand exactly the conditions given and required in the problem? Much more can and should be said of the value to general education, of mathematical study, but if this

effort will serve to awaken us to the necessity of having firm convictions of the importance of our work it has not been in vain. Our subject is bigger than our text books.

A clearer vision of its real function will make us better teachers, satisfied that if we teach it faithfully we are rendering service second to none in the cause of education.

English

ORAL COMPOSITION.

(By Miss Colwell)

In preparing a discussion, however brief, on the subject of oral composition the scarcity of material at once becomes evident. The "Special Methods" texts claim that oral work is of great value, far beyond that of written work; but maintain a discreet reticence concerning the methods to be employed in teaching it effectively. Several monographs on the subject are to be found in the New York Teachers' collection. The text books in Rhetoric and Composition contain, some of them, a chapter on argumentation and debate and these mainly in the written form; others occupy no space whatever with the subject in any form, and confine themselves to the written composition in theory and practice. The Ontario High School composition, however inferior it may be in some respects, is yet superior to our own text books in this respect, for there is in it a brief course in oral composition which may serve as a starting point, at least for the busy teacher. The field is therefore practically a virgin one, and there is need of some good genius to arise to clear it for us.

During the last century great strides have been made in the methods of teaching in all subjects. Formerly, theory was considered of paramount importance, and education was a cramming of knowledge. The world of activity and experience was of no account. In most subjects this is a thing of the past. The text book has been supplemented by the laboratory and practical work in chemistry and physics, by field and forest in botany. Perhaps we who teach English have been slower in making the change to the world of action, more especially in our composition, where we still confine ourselves to rules without practice, and practice without effective criticism; and again in our neglect of the spoken word. Oral composition is the natural shape of the art of expression; it is the crucial, fundamental matter; the human, vital and essential form of language. Speech is primary, the visual symbols of sound are but secondary. The tongue, not the pen, is the

greatest, because the primary instrument of language. In very justice, therefore, it should receive training, and by this training in the spoken word the pupil's attention will be drawn to the facts and usages of his language in their living forms. This is the first great advantage of the study of oral composition.

The second advantage follows naturally from the first. By his work in oral composition the pupil will be greatly benefitted in his written composition. He will learn that the former is the normal or typical form of expression, and he will thus write with the idea of how his words will sound and not how they will look, before him. Once the pupil understands that he composes as well when he speaks as when he writes, many of the difficulties of the written composition will be cleared away. One of the commonest forms of incapacity in the High School pupil is his inability to think connectedly. He thinks in scraps, he speaks in scraps, and he expresses himself disjointedly in writing because he is allowed to express himself thus orally. Has any teacher here failed to obtain at one time or another the statement from a pupil, "I know it, but I can't express it." The root of this evil lies far back of the High School. If in all recitations the pupil were required to be careful of the form of his sentences given in answers to questions, of the form of his oral reproduction, and of the coherency of his contributions to class discussions, this difficulty would disappear from the written work as well. From lower grades through higher, to and through the High School the pupil should be led to be connected and direct in his statements, should be checked in tendency to irrelevancy and digression, and should be corrected in wrong use. In the ideal school the standard of the English class is the standard of all classes: the topical recitation in history or geography, the exposition in science, the argument in mathematics, all should be in the best form; Here the general teacher in the smaller school

has the advantage of the specialist in the larger.

Just here I should like to say a word with reference to the position of the pupil for recitation of any kind. In my own classes I require the pupils to stand and to stand well when reciting or reading, unless I notify them that it will not be necessary for them to rise. I have sometimes had difficulty in enforcing this rule, not because the pupils wish to be disobliging, but because they are unaccustomed to stand, are shy, and therefore self-conscious. If it were urged upon them in all classes it would prove most beneficial to them, not only in giving them assurance and self-confidence and ability to think on their feet, but also as a relaxation from the confined and cramped position which most of them have to take to get their bodies into the space allotted for them.

To resume then: The basis of all training in language should be oral, and the fundamental test is "Does it sound right?" A helpful exercise in this connection is the reading before the class of theme or essay, followed by oral criticism on the part of pupils and by criticism of the criticisms on the part of the teacher. This is but a variation of Professor Barrett Wendell's method of written criticism with which you are all familiar. With the majority of classes I have found it to work well, though where it is impossible to obtain a spirit of helpful criticism it is better omitted. The ear is thus made the arbiter of speech.

The third advantage of training in oral composition is in connection with the study of literature, where it takes the form of oral interpretation and proceeds mainly from the exercise of reading aloud. Professor Carpenter claims that reading aloud is the main element in oral composition and advocates that it be carried on so regularly that "no lesson in literature take place without at least one pupil's reading aloud with the aim to be audible, natural and expressive." Doubtless some children are born readers, as others are born spellers; yet here much depends on training. From my experience with a class of forty girls who entered High School last autumn I have been forced to the conclusion that the art of reading is given much more attention in some of the elementary schools than in others, as practically all of the pupils from one school read intelligently and expressively, while all those from another school read neither intelligibly nor correctly. Thus reading must begin earlier than the High School, but it is never too late to mend. It must be conceded that some teachers are better fitted naturally to teach reading than others, yet it requires no very special training—the ordinary skill in teaching, combined with a natural aptitude of ear and voice, and a scientific knowledge of physical facts. Voice culture is dependent upon correct breathing: in correct inspiration the diaphragm contracts and sinks, the abdomen pushes forward, the ribs move out and up and the lower chest is expanded. In correct

exhalation the process is reversed. Any text book in public speaking will furnish sets of breathing exercise through which the pupils may come to correct control of the voice physically. The three attributes of the voice, purity, flexibility and strength must also be attained by judicious exercises which may be taken by the class in concert, and sets of which are easily obtained. Training for the ear and voice, resulting in correct pronunciation, consists of exercises in: 1, The vowel and consonant sounds, to free from dialect and local pronunciation; 2, articulation—the joining of the sounds that compose the words of our language—and enunciation—the power to make distinctly audible the elements of a word; 3, syllabication; 4, proper accent. Force, time, pitch, quality and inflection are essential to all sound, and must be mastered if the pupils are to be ready to answer any demand that natural reading may make. Six months' work in the first year of High School will cover the requisite ground, and the results will be most noticeable, even where the lessons must be very brief. Pupils will then be able to breathe properly, to pronounce correctly, to read intelligently, and to make themselves heard distinctly at any ordinary distance. The effect in ability to interpret the literature of the course cannot but be helpful in the study of that subject. Professor Hiram Carson goes so far as to claim that all literary examinations should be tests in reading and that all literary culture is vocal culture.

And finally we come to the practical importance, the commercial value, so to speak, of the study of oral composition: and it is this, I think, which makes the greatest appeal to our Western boys and girls and, in some cases, rouses them to a high pitch of enthusiasm. It is training for citizenship, and this forms its greatest advantage. It is true that not all our pupils will be called upon to speak in public, but more of them will influence others by the spoken than by the written word, and thus the great need for training. The teacher has here a great field open to him, and a great responsibility resting upon him; for often the exercise in oral composition will discover in the pupil the aptitude for certain vocations, and as the technical aptitude draws to the studio, the architect's office or the mine, so the literary gift points the way to platform or pulpit, court room or stage.

There should be systematic work in public speaking, in debate and in dramatic representation. Many pupils will go no farther than the High School, yet will take their places as citizens. Different occasions will require from them different forms of address. Our text book in composition takes no account of any form of public speaking except the debate. In our own school we have several methods for obtaining training and practice in the several different forms. In connection with our annual election of student officers all candidates for office have the opportunity of speaking before the assembled school to announce their platform. As many

of their adherents as care to do so have the liberty of making campaign speeches. These are senior students and have had the advantage of training in their first and second years. Again, it requires but a little planning to resolve a class of boys or girls into a banquet minus the menu, and thus give them training in toast making, both proposing and replying. They are then conversant to a certain extent, and after several exercises of the sort, with the after-dinner speech. In the class meeting, over which president or vice-president presides, comes training in the conduct of a meeting, in the moving and seconding of resolutions, and the taking part in discussions. There are also occasions for presentation speeches when just before Christmas the boys seek the teacher of English with carefully prepared speeches which must be rehearsed before the final delivery to the favored teacher. Then no occasion is lost of presenting a vote of thanks to a speaker. While all do not take part in these, all have the advantage of hearing their fellow pupils take part.

But perhaps the form of public speaking which has roused the greatest enthusiasm in the last three years is the debate. To some extent this is carried on in all three years of the course, though the method and extent vary with the maturity of the pupils. In the primary year it is my custom to announce a debate in which everybody shall take part, dividing the class into two equal divisions by one method or another—this year it was all the light-haired girls against all the dark-haired girls on one occasion—and allowing each side to chose a captain. Each pupil had to prepare at least one point which she took to her captain, who then arranged the order of speakers. It was not possible for all to speak in each debate as some of the points were necessarily duplicated. A chairman and timekeeper were chosen, and the captains made the rebuttal speeches, while I acted the dual role of judge and critic. The subjects chosen were very simple, and no debates of any more formal character were held in the first year. After we had had six debates each pupil had to write an argumentative composition on any one of the subjects which had been debated. In the second year the method was more formal, but still elastic. The class numbered twenty-eight and these we divided by means of numbered slips of paper into groups of four, who again drew lots for groups of two, thus making seven sets of debates. I then announced the subjects for all seven debates, and gave the first group two weeks for preparation. Preliminary instruction was simply to the effect that no speeches must be read, that notes must be on cards, that the affirmative side must define the terms of the question, and show it to be a debatable question, and that the negative side must not only have points to prove their question, but must also try to disprove the points of the affirmative side. A chairman was chosen to introduce the speakers and discussion was called for at the close

of the formal debate. The class acted as judges, but no one could vote who had not kept a tally sheet of the points on both sides. I acted as critic. This second year class is a rather unusual one and enthusiasm waxed high. Soon the speeches were excellent, and the rebuttals skilful and pertinent. We worked out to the championship of the room through two sets of debates and a vote. One forty-minute period per week was spent in this exercise for eleven weeks. In the third year the method of drawing for teams was the same. We have four senior classes, and we worked out to the championship of each room through two sets of debates and a vote. Then we had two inter-class debates held in the auditorium with judges appointed from the staff, and we shall finish for champions of the school immediately after the Easter recess. The preliminary work in the senior year was much fuller than in the junior. The nature of argument was discussed; the form of debatable questions; the history and origin of the question, the definition of terms, the statement of admitted matter and the exclusion of irrelevant matter; brief-making was taken up in detail and the card system used entirely. Short argumentative speeches were given, and written criticisms made on each. A few methods of argument, as the syllogism, argument from analogy, by reductio and absurdum, from cause to effect and from effect to cause, and some methods of refuting these were taken up very simply. The value of evidence and authority was discussed. Then the formal debates took place as already described. In the preparation for these, valuable habits were formed; the library habit for one, and here I want to register my appreciation of Dr. Johnston of the Carnegie Library, whose patience has been inexhaustible, and who is now, seemingly, a personal friend of every Kelvin senior. The boys and girls went everywhere for material; to the street railway officials, to the C.P.R. officials, to the Superintendent of Education, to the Chief Justice; and were everywhere well received. At no time was there exhibited any spirit of selfish rivalry or jealousy. Rather was the exercise one of self-subordination in the service of the class, and therefore excellent in disciplinary value.

For dramatic representation this year the teacher of music presented an operetta. In theory I believe that the senior class should represent each year a simple play, either one studied in the class room or another; but in practice I find this difficult to carry out, though two years ago we presented "As You Like It" with fair results. The final exercise of the year in oral composition is the class day exercise, where poet and prophet, historian and valedictorian, have an opportunity to show their skill.

In conclusion of this somewhat lengthy paper, and in re-enforcement of what I have already said, I should like to quote from Mr.

Perceval Chubb, "On the Teaching of English":

"The pleasant voice and delivery, the breeding implied in correct speech, the evidence of character and culture in the touch of distinction in the vocabulary, the power of

graphic description and narration—these have sometimes even a commercial value; while ability to read and recite agreeably, to debate and argue effectively is almost everywhere a valuable asset and in certain callings an indispensable condition of success."

VERSE-MAKING IN THE HIGH SCHOOL.

(By Dr. C. F. Gillen)

"English versifying is a strong educational power," said Tom Hood. I am of the opinion that the making of verses by our pupils will result in an increased vocabulary, a greater precision in the use of words, a brevity of expression opposing the too common discussions, an ability to handle intelligently the figures of speech, the introduction into prose writing of a smoothness and flow obtainable by no other exercise, and, above all, a scientific appreciation of the best of our literature, which best is enshrined in poetic forms.

"The best way to learn French," says Theophile Gauthier, "is to study your dictionary." This advice is not to be taken altogether literally. He meant, I think, that, very often, there is a lack of expression because of the lack of words to express ideas—ideas striving for expression, but defeated because of dearth of words to express them. Verse-making is an exercise which, on account of the restraints imposed, will force the writer to search for words, weigh them when found, and choose or reject as the occasion demands. Thus, in writing even a single verse, the pupil may scrutinize many times the number of words he finally sets down, and this scrutiny must impress on his memory not only the selected words but also the rejected ones—rejected for the present, but stored away for future use when another idea calls for suitable expression. Such a process of scrutiny, rejection and choosing must add to the pupil's vocabulary. If so, verse-making must be a profitable exercise.

The second benefit accruing from writing measured lines is a greater knowledge of the exact meaning of words. A certain word presents itself. Metrically it suits: does it say what the author wants it to say? If it came with little effort, he suspects it; if it came only after much searching he puts it through its paces to try it out. In either case, he acquires a more precise knowledge of its meaning, and forever after he is master of that particular word; he calls it to his aid when he needs it, or rejects it without loss of time, if it obtrudes itself while he is searching for another. To be able to do this is to have a knowledge of the precise meaning of words,—a knowledge acquired by the close inspection of words demanded in writing a verse.

"A large vocabulary is a cure for verbosity." Verbosity is a characteristic of

youth. Such need an exercise that sets limits. Such an exercise is verse-making. The very nature of the stanza necessitates brevity of expression, a crowding of idea into a set space. The standard forms of stanza should, therefore, be taught to the pupils: the sonnet, the rondeau, the ballade. In these forms, the rhyme—system restrains, and restraint is a desirable quality in every art. "Every day," said Julia Marlowe, "I practised restraint of gesture." Gesture is a means of expression no less than language. What is greatly to be desired is its restraint. The same of language.

Besides this restraint demanded by the forms mentioned, there comes from versifying a knowledge of the melody of words. In the best poetry this melody is a necessity; in prose it is an embellishment. The training of the ear to the melody of words acquired in writing verses, will be of great use when the pupil writes prose. It is a significant fact that our greatest prose writers are the best poets. Shakespeare's prose, obscured no doubt by the brilliancy of his verse, is one of the marvels of our literature. (See Francis Thompson's essay on Shakespeare's prose.) The lilting prose of Blackmore is the result of his apprenticeship in the making of verses. Macaulay, George Elliott, Ruskin, Thackeray, Dickens, Stevenson, Newman — to mention only a few—are first thought of as prose writers, but every one wrote admirable verse, and their prose reflected the training in melody.

The nature of figurative language is best learned by the practice of versifying the study of any great poem reveals the fact that one of the chief factors in the pleasure it gives is the figurative language. Since the beauty of our best poetry depends to a great extent upon its figures of speech, the pupils should be taught carefully these aids to poetical expression. Simile, metaphor, etc., are mere names to the beginner. An explanation of them should not be limited to a cold definition—even followed by an example: the etymology of the different names should be carefully explained, so that the pupils may have a scientific knowledge of them, and not a parrot-like knowledge. Such an explanation does not take up much time, and the time so spent is amply repaid.

In addition to a sense of melody developed in writing the different stanza forms which have a determined rhyme system, there comes

from the writing of verse—say, blank verse—a flow and smoothness which the pupil will take with him when he writes prose.

Lastly: If the greatest thing to be desired in teaching literature is an appreciation and enjoyment of the best in literature, I believe that the best means to arrive at such ability to appreciate and enjoy is to attempt the forms in which such models are enshrined. I think that it is safe to say that our best literature is our sonnet literature. Shakespeare, Milton, Wordsworth, Keats, Mrs. Browning and, in our own day, Mrs. Maynell and Francis Thompson, are among those who "painted little pictures well." A true appreciation of the beauty and philosophy of

the sonnet form can be learned only by attempting, at least, to write a sonnet. Even an unsuccessful attempt brings its reward and justifies the time spent.

I hope that I have at least created a suspicion in the minds of any who may have been skeptical concerning the advantages claimed for verse-making by high school pupils, that, after all, "there may be something in it."

How to set about teaching poetics "is another story."

[During the summer Dr. Gillen will conduct a class in Poetics. For information address St. John's Tech'l, Winnipeg.]

Technical Education

RECOGNITION OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

(By W. J. Parr)

The recognition of technical education by the Universities of provisional governments is much to be desired, it at once raises the standard and nominally carries a qualification. To attain such recognition a large amount of work and very serious consideration falls to those whose lot it is to negotiate.

Dealing with a University recognition, one acknowledges that the foundation of the student lies in the public schools and in furtherance of general education provision has been made by the establishment of technical authorities to further enhance its value.

Such being the case, and the value of technical education being realized by the public, a status should naturally follow, and to this end I submit that this should not only be provincial, but inter-provincial, and extending throughout the Dominion.

The value of a recognition is very far-reaching in its effect and at once places the whole of the work on a more serious basis:—1st, by taking the student—he has a very definite object in view and quickly realizes that only by serious work and study can he hope to obtain a certification of his qualification; it would add an impetus to his work—have a steadying effect on the easy going student and be creative of a keen competition amongst all alike to obtain the highest grade certificates.

Dealing with the teacher, he would be placed a great deal nearer his academic relations, as his course would have to conform to some standard recognized by the authorities, this integral part of the institution will year by year find it more necessary to specialize in its several branches, it would if

possible call for greater energy, closer collaboration, would be productive of an intensive study. Here again a healthy competition would result in establishing records of students' proficiency.

Again recognition would establish standards in many branches, which without going into detail I would mention only mathematics, electricity, chemistry, mechanical design and shop work, to show the importance of standardization, and there is little doubt that it would be productive of many valuable and practical text books.

The present position of the student after taking courses say, for three years, at the schools is well known, and whilst he has spent a great deal of time and profited accordingly, he has not the opportunity of demonstrating the knowledge gained by submitting himself to a recognized examination.

The country being democratic, education must naturally follow or lead in these lines in as practical a form as it is possible, and as technical education will appeal to the average man and woman more effectively than a University education, the call for standardization and recognition becomes more pronounced.

Recognition would be productive of a keener student and through his possibility of obtaining a certificate a greater appreciation of the splendid efforts made by the authorities would quickly be apparent. This would lead a student on from year to year to pass through elementary, advanced and honours courses, and the knowledge thus gained would be of greater value to him.

LEARNING TO THINK.

(By F. G. Tipping)

In the January number of the Manual Training Magazine, Mr. C. A. Bennett has an article on "Three Typical Methods of Teaching the Manual Arts." These he calls—1, The Imitative Method; 2, The Discovery Method; 3, The Inventive Method. Briefly defined the Imitative method of instruction is that of demonstration, the pupil copying the processes and learning the method used by the teacher. The "do as I do" and "don't dare to do anything else" way of thinking. In contrast to this is the Discovery method. Here the boy is given the finished model and told to go ahead. The teacher does not tell the boy how to go ahead, but rather gets the boy to tell him, stimulating him to think as he goes along, leading him to exercise his curiosity and resourcefulness as much as possible; allowing him to learn by experience and by failure.

We are not concerned in our discussion today with the Inventive method, but it implies that the boy should produce something to meet a special need without prearranged plan or material.

I think it cannot be denied that most of us have used almost altogether the Imitative method of instruction. It seems the natural method. It is the method that our fathers and our grandfathers used with good results—it produced us, but without casting any reflection on the intelligence of this very intelligent audience I think it has its limitations.

Our adherence to this method, to the exclusion of other methods, is I think due to a fundamental which even Mr. Bennett (if I may venture to criticize one holding such a high place in our profession) seems to share, and that is the reverence we have for the finished model or for technique. Says Mr. Bennett, "The teacher's constant effort in the discovery method is to develop rational thinking, and this he believes will lead to good technique."

Surely technique is not of greater value than rational thinking? Good technique we know can be obtained as a result of drill, or training in given processes. It can be secured with a class of lunatics, but rational thinking can only be obtained by a drawing-out process, by an inductive method of teaching. We have then to face this question: Should Manual training be limited in its scope to mere technique, the production of a good model or as other subjects should be used, for the purpose of training the boy to think? This question necessarily leads to another, the basic question which all engaged in manual training must ask, i.e., "What is the purpose of manual training?" Let me quote Mr. Bennett again: "Comparing the three methods, the Imitative is the most elementary. It prepares for industry; it is economical. The Discovery is good in certain places, or in modified form, to follow the Imitative. Alone or as a beginning method

it is industrially weak. With the Imitative as a foundation it is good; it helps to make foremen and superintendents." I do not want to do Mr. Bennett an injustice, but is it possible that he means that the Imitative method is good because we need in industry to-day more men who have not the power to think than those who have that power? Mr. Bennett is not alone in this view, which I think economically is unsound. It springs from the idea that what is needed to-day is greater production. We do not need greater production for the world contains more than enough for human needs, but better distribution. The world is rich enough but not wise enough to see that some have so much they are miserable, and more have so little they cannot be happy. I would have all educated to be foremen and superintendents.

But let us not wander into the realm of social reconstruction, tempting as it is to some of us, and fundamental as it is to the consideration of all questions educational, and let us return to the manual training room, having decided that what the world needs is greater power to think—and thence a better world.

As already stated, we have made a fetish of the finished model, and here I think is the centre of our mistake. We have had exhibitions and prizes (though I am glad to say the prizes are gone) and the boy and his parents and sometimes the teacher have come to the conclusion that this is the "be all" and "end all" of manual training. To prove this. The other day a parent visited a manual training teacher in order to find out why her son had not brought home a model lately. He had brought home several the year before. Now if this had been merely an enquiry as to the progress of the boy this would not have been written, but no, the parent had an idea she was not getting her money's worth. As a matter of fact, the boy was making a jardiniere stand and progressing favorably. When this was pointed out the mother was comforted in the fact that the model was large enough to be of greater value than two or three smaller ones. In the face of this conception of values you can imagine how hard it was for the teacher to impress on this woman's mind the fact that the boy was obtaining something of even greater value than the model. But the teacher! It's so nice to make good models, and a boy can make anything if the teacher makes it for him. No, that isn't an Irishism, what I mean is, it is comparatively easy to produce a good model if the teacher step by step shows the way.

But the boy! What is he to get? Only the model or only the model plus the power to use his hands and eyes a little? Does he learn sufficient for instance in making the tea pot stand to be able to introduce the centre-half lap joint in the construction of a saw bench at home or he forgets the joint

and only uses nails, in spite of the fact that he seldom uses nails in the manual training room? If this be the case, and I think it often is, it is because we have not linked up the idea of a half-lap joint with the boy's idea of construction. In other words, he has made one because we have told him to and have shown him how, not because he saw it was a rational method of construction.

Last week I gave my classes a test, the blue print of the exercises have been distributed. In giving this to the classes I left them entirely alone. They were given the blue print and the stock and told to go ahead. From this test I learnt much, but for our purpose the following is sufficient: 1st, That 89% of the boys could read the blue print correctly; 2nd, that in nailing the smaller block to the larger one 90% tried to hammer it on without tapping the nails through, with the result that the block slipped and in many cases was not exactly in position; 3rd, that 53% cut off the small block from the stock and planed the two pieces separately, although both are of the same thickness, and so on, proving that in the things in which they had been drilled they were fairly good, but where thought and initiative were required they fell down. Nine boys asked me what the model was for. I answered with a counter-question, "What is a problem in arithmetic for?" They understood. For a long time I adopted the method of making the classes memorize the rules of plain thinking, thinking that if they only knew the rules they would carry them out. But they didn't. I found boys work perfect in reciting them, with little knowledge of how to apply them. Now I wait and let the boy learn by experience why a piece of wood needs to be planed straight and square before teaching him the rule.

But so far my remarks have been largely in the nature of a criticism of prevailing methods. May I venture to tell of a few of the lessons I have outlined for myself with the idea of drawing out the boy and getting him to think his way to a better understanding of his work?

When a class comes to the manual training room for the first time I set them to work. Here again my methods have changed. I used to give them a preliminary talk. The boys did not want to hear my talk. For they had peeped in through the windows and longed for "the day." The day had come and

now they wanted to use that plane. So the talk is largely dispensed with and I let them make shavings, even if they don't make much else. But before they go home and after they have cleared up I ask them what they came for. You know the kind of answers one gets. "To learn to be a carpenter." I used to say no emphatically. Now I question the class as to their idea of what a carpenter is. How he obtains his skill. The hand and eye training necessary to his work. The impossibility of producing one in half a day a week is learned indirectly.

Just a word about the carving: It has been said that the boy in learning carving must be entirely imitative. That is nearly true, but surely we can arrange our lessons in such a way that the boy may use his own eyes and thoughts as well as ours. One of the chief reasons why a boy fails to do good work is because he does not appreciate the necessity of keeping outside of the line. It is no good saying don't. Don't say don't.

Enough has been said to show you that I believe we should instil a reason into the boy wherever possible for any particular process taught. We cannot eliminate altogether. To that extent I agree with Mr. Bennett, but not on the basis of his reasoning. If children are to learn only from experimental discovery and we reduce this argument to its logical conclusion, we would have to do away with school altogether, and this would be a very foolish thing for a teacher to advocate; but I believe in helping a boy to discover a motive for his action.

One other thought. We have been a little too much afraid of a spoiled piece of work and a little too afraid of a spoiled boy. If men are of more value than many sparrows, then surely a boy is of more value than much wood. In his initial lessons the boy should learn from failure (what Spencer calls the discipline of consequences), and certainly we should never save a boy's model for him by doing part of it for him, thus sacrificing the boy for a small piece of furniture.

I earnestly hope that as a result of the demand for industrial efficiency that we shall not lose sight of those things which are of greater value—the power to investigate and know (Efficiency is not necessarily knowledge). With knowledge comes power, and with that kind of power all that would make for the welfare and happiness of mankind.

CO-RELATION OF THE DEPARTMENTS OF ART AND TECHNICAL STUDIES.

(By Hubert V. Farnshaw)

When the organizers of this section approached me with a request to discuss with you the subject of co-relation of art to the technical studies, I was glad to embrace the opportunity to give expression to a long-felt apprehension regarding the future of an education that regarded art and technical expression as divorced and to be kept as far

apart as the limits of a building would permit.

Glancing over the programme which you had set for your morning session I discovered no less than six important papers for discussion. The subtle humor of your envoy's request that I do not talk more than ten minutes became clear and necessitated a

broad handling of essentials on my part that eliminates all those methods of analogy and elucidation of parallels so useful to enforce principles vital to a discussion of this kind.

Under circumstances so restricted I do not propose to enlarge upon the principle of co-relation from the viewpoint of economy in process. This fact is demonstrated by common adoption in all affairs of business activity and general scholastic pursuits. It is a self-evident advantage. Rather, let us consider whether any similarity of conditions exists in the technical education in our schools that would warrant a close relationship between the departments of art and technics.

In all the problems you elucidate during your school activities there are two basic factors always working for or against you, the one mental vision, the other physical expression. No matter how simple your model or process of craft energy you cannot escape the dominance of these two processes. Imperfect mental vision of the idea to be expressed is fatal to right expression and hampers progress to that extent.

Speaking broadly our problems resolve into the choice of a reasonable idea, embodied in an adequate material by a right method of craftsmanship, to express both idea and material to the advantage of both.

To use a parallel of the business world the use of administrative office to design the policy of business and an executive staff to assemble and distribute energy to achieve that policy.

This is by no means a simple problem. Each is necessary to the other, co-relation of process is carried out to the last efficiency that all stages of transition from idea to last stroke of execution be one harmonious whole, a logical development of cause and effect. Nor is the whole problem of development carried out at one or the same time or place, and in this our schools are subject to similar conditions by use of class periods with specialists.

A consideration of any one of the factors in the problem will enable us to appreciate this division of work, from a pedagogic standpoint. Take for instance the problem of ideas.

The value of an idea rests upon that first and last principle of design. "Fitness of purpose." It consists in a sensible anticipation of essential requirements as a primary factor and may further make concession to individual character. Any chair may provide the first value but difference of conception gives additional value to that idea expressed. An idea is subject to mental fertility. This is obtained only by proper exercise of the faculties over an extended field of observations germane to the subject of expression.

Ideas may be original. Originality of expression is best attained by the intelligent observation of what has been accomplished. "You cannot pump water out of a dry well."

To ignore the common tendencies of the mind in solving ordinary problems would oc-

clusion all humans to travel the road of discovery through similar experiences resulting in duplication. By observing the tabulated discoveries of the world's mentality best assure originality of expression.

Ideas may have character. This may be periodic or of time value, i.e., before or after discovered facts. It may be national or race value resulting in style, or of individual or personal value. The truths of these are best inculcated by research and familiarity with obtained expressions to enforce the presence of this quality. Beyond the recognition of certain qualities of handwriting in technic the average student is incapable of recognizing personal style in his conceptions.

Ideas may have relative truth, i.e., they may enforce natural laws and principles or may run contra to procedure. This necessitates research and progressive thinking to enable a right choice in conception.

Herein lie a few of the aspects of the problem of the idea, the first necessity to technical realization. If you are to produce the best results in your students it is important that the brain be in advance of his manual problems. His keenness of mentality will determine his probation as to the rudiments of physical expression.

To train the hand to the perfection of a mechanical operative, that its skill may be employed upon inferior conceptions, seems to me the essence of folly, the degradation of labor.

Consider the remaining factors in our problem, the choice of material expression, involving selection of material substances and their proper craft expression. Rightly used in education the personality or character of every individual material should be retained and worthily expressed as truth values and as a rebuttal of tendencies toward pretention.

That and the value of right craftsmanship the logical handling of tools are so well known to you, I do not presume to enlarge upon this aspect of the work.

I do not consider it good pedagogy to bring before the student too many considerations at one and the same time, and I have no doubt you will agree. To instruct many students at the same period amidst the complicated risks of modern technical plants in restricted periods it is quite enough for the average instructor to deal with the latter part of our problem. This I venture to point out remains largely the problem of mechanical expression of creative thought. Important, by all means, yet dependent for its final success upon the appeal to reasonable judgment as to whether the energy is applied to noble or ignoble ends.

The scope both as to time and opportunity for research in the average technical department precludes the just realization of the whole problem by any one department alone. The development of the creative faculty, the adequate use and selection of material, the logical handling of tools and processes is too wide for practical solution by that means especially en masse. Its proper solution may

be accomplished by division of labor and time periods with intelligent co-operation and co-relation of both departments.

The few thoughts presented for your consideration only suggest some aspects of a

larger field for thought. They are compressed within the time limit allowed, but I venture are of sufficient importance to justify the plea for co-relation of work towards a logical use of education in a school of this character.

UNCONSIDERED ASPECTS OF EDUCATION.

(By H. J. Russell)

H. J. Russell, Commercial Master of St. John's Technical High School, in his talk on "Some Unconsidered Aspects of Education," remarked that his title might sound somewhat presumptuous, but that in the effort to construct and work out elaborate programmes of study it was just possible that certain obstacles to progress were being overlooked or regarded as impossible to remove or adjust. Among the points he suggested for consideration were, over-emphasis upon the value of reports and statistics, the raising of the pass mark standard, arbitrary determination of the length of courses, more facile methods in the purchase of supplies

and enlarged opportunities for students to work under the best of physical surroundings. Students, he claimed, were heavily handicapped in their efforts to do the best work by reason of the fact that the time they were to spend on a course was determined in advance. They should enter high school not knowing when they would leave it. He questioned the value of organized sport as it had worked out hitherto. It interfered with the efficient prosecution of studies and did not work for the benefit of the physically weaker boys who were overlooked in the effort to secure good athletic material for the purpose of gaining points for a school.

Classical

THE TEACHING OF ANCIENT AND MODERN LANGUAGES—CONNECTION AND INFLUENCE.

(By Prof. S. O. Dickerman)

A language is a complicated thing. It takes years of education and practical experience to attain the mastery of the mother tongue alone. The ear must be trained to understand, the vocal organs to speak, the eye to read, there must further be developed the art of expression through written words. These four sides are separate processes and are acquired by distinct methods. In the case of a foreign language we often see how one of the four can be carried to a considerable degree of proficiency without the development of the others. But for a normal and complete mastery of a language all four are necessary. For the last century our acquaintance with Latin and Greek has been largely confined to two of these four sides, reading and, to some extent, writing. Training of the ear and the vocal organs has been neglected. It is probably due to the influence of the study of the modern languages that in the last quarter of a century a demand has made itself heard for a broader, more vivid acquaintance with Latin and Greek. While the ultimate aim of classical study is to be found in the

reading of the literature, the conviction has gained ground that this power can be attained more quickly and effectively by calling into play the other processes also. Increased emphasis is being laid on the pronouncing of the Latin. Viva voce methods are introduced in elementary study. The dramatic instinct is utilised and plays in Latin and Greek are now produced with increasing frequency. Among many leaders, Dr. Rouse, of the Pierce Grammar School, Cambridge, England, has made his influence especially felt in these directions. Another aspect of the same movement is the growing importance given to sight translation. The aim of study becomes the development of the power to read independently without resort to dictionary and notes. In general no better advice can be given to one who is ambitious to bring new life into the teaching of Latin and Greek than to apply himself to one of the modern languages and transfer to the classical field the methods which he finds useful there.

Elementary Division

(Continued from May)

THE ADVANTAGES OF A RURAL SCHOOL LIBRARY.

(By Miss L. McFarland)

The advantages of a rural school library to the pupils of the school, to the teacher and to the school district are inestimable.

First, take the value to the pupil. Without plenty of supplementary reading a child loses a great part of his education. Primary grades need a great amount of reading material and the library should supply this. If suitable books are at hand the pupils may make use of them in spare moments and so they learn to read more quickly, learn to read suitable material and get a taste for literature, which will benefit them throughout their entire life.

In the library there should be books for all grades, so the child in Grade I. may begin with picture books, then stories, then on to history and geography tales, and finally to reference books, etc. By the time the child is in Grade VII. or VIII. he will enjoy looking up help in his other lessons. A good rural school library encourages a child to read, and this is a value since it helps him in his spelling, composition, reading and almost every subject.

The value to the teacher is also great for the library supplies her with material to make lessons more interesting. Often a history or geography lesson may be taught by a short story, which, because it is a story, is so interesting that it is not forgotten. Stories of Lapland, or life in the mountains, or Eskimo land are always far more interesting than history or geography lessons on the same subjects.

Again, the library is of value to the teacher in providing her with subject matter for composition.

Then, too, there is a way to keep the children all occupied. In almost any class there are some pupils who always finish their work ahead of the rest. It is a great advantage to the teacher if there are then real, live books ready for the child's use until time for recitation. The quick workers can then use their spare time profitably and pleasantly, and so keep out of mischief.

Perhaps the greatest advantage to the rural teacher is this, in the country she has practically nothing except the library on which to depend for information outside of that supplied by the text, and without this a lesson cannot be made all that it should be.

The reading of library books arouses interest in other subjects. For instance, I read my pupils "Swiss Family Robinson." They soon began to question where these people lived to see and do such wonderful things. I had them find the islands on the map for themselves, and I think they will remember a little at any rate of the geography of those islands of the Lesser Antilles.

The school district also benefits by a good library as almost everyone enjoys reading. Perhaps one of the greatest advantages of a rural school library, both to community and pupils, is that the children are educated as to what kind of book to read. The reading of good books develops a taste for such, so if children get plenty to read during their school life the chances are they will never begin to read trash. This would be a real benefit to pupil, teacher and community.

BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUBS.

(By S. T. Newton)

Between thirty and forty years ago physics and chemistry were striving for a place on the school programme. Now they are accepted as a necessary part of a well balanced High School education.

Between ten and fifteen years ago the subjects receiving most attention at gatherings such as this were manual training and domestic science. Today under the name of Industrial Education they are recognized as an integral part of the programme in almost every city on the continent.

At present most emphasis is being placed on agriculture by reason of the tremendous exodus of people from the farm to the cities. Fifty years ago two-thirds of the people lived in the country and one-third in the cities. Today this is reversed and one-third live on the land and two-thirds in the towns and cities.

Within the memory of many who are here today the average sized farm in Ontario was 100 acres, now it is nearer 200, and in Mani-

toba a man feels that he cannot very well make a living on less than 320 acres.

Changes come slowly along educational lines. Teachers are conservative, not because they are behind the times, but because their motto has for so long been, "Be sure you are right then go ahead." In a country where agriculture is the basic industry the schools should give considerable attention to this subject, but in all the years that I attended school I never remember of a teacher trying to interest me in agriculture. In the four years which I was teacher in rural schools myself, I do not remember having tried to interest anyone in agriculture. It never occurred to me that I should. I am glad to say that those entering the teaching profession now are more progressive than we were, consequently, I think we can with confidence again turn to the schools as being the organization most likely to cope with this problem. Agriculture has been slow in finding a

place on the school programme for three reasons:

1. No one has yet succeeded in developing the subject to a point where the teacher felt there was a well defined curriculum which she could safely follow, and not knowing what was expected of her one could scarcely blame her for not becoming wildly enthusiastic over the subject.

2. Agriculture is a practical subject and needs to be taught in a practical way, and up to the present it has been impossible to make provision at either the rural school or the high school for the necessary equipment.

3. The third drawback is that the teacher in a rural school, with all the grades from one to eight, nine or ten, cannot find much time for practical subjects and still devote the amount of time considered necessary for the regularly established subjects.

So far the boys' and girls' club movement has more nearly solved the problem than anything that has yet been devised. This movement is less than seven years old, yet it has swept from one end of the continent to the other more rapidly than any other educational movement. Practically every State of the American Union has in that time adopted it as the most suitable method of teaching agriculture in the rural, and, to a great extent, in the high schools. In Manitoba our plans are very far from the ideal on account of the development of the idea in the province having been so rapid that we have not been able to consolidate our gains, yet during the last three weeks we have had letters of enquiry from every province in Canada, from New Zealand, England, South Africa and the Argentine. The number of members already enrolled is now close on 15,000, and when it is realized that only those between the ages of 10 and 18 are enrolled, it can be seen that Manitoba has enrolled a larger proportion of those attending the rural schools than any other province or state, this not because of any remarkable work done by the Extension Department, but because of the cordial co-operation of the Departments of Agriculture and Education. The inspectors, teachers, trustees and parents were quick to appreciate the advantages of the movement and for that reason have given it their enthusiastic support. Public spirited citizens, such as bank managers, farmers, merchants, ministers, and in fact, representatives from every line of effort have freely given any assistance needed to make the work a success.

Boys' and girls' clubs meet the difficulties mentioned in the following ways:

1. The agricultural work is put on a contest or home project basis. The rules governing the contest are so planned that they represent approved practices in agriculture and home economics.

2. The organizing experience of the teachers is linked up with the practical knowledge and farm experience of the parents. School and home are thus brought closer together.

3. These home projects, which includes such subjects as pig raising, gardening, canning,

etc., are carried on the home farm, which really provides the great agricultural laboratory. There only we find the scales, hoes, rakes, cultivators, seeds, poultry, live stock, buildings, and the hundreds of other things used on the home farm, as well as the experience of the farmer and his wife, which is at the disposal of the club members.

The interest of the pupil is in the home and the interest of the parent is in the home activities of the child. The school really exists to supplement the training given in the home.

4. This plan enables the spare time activities of the boys and girls to be utilized to educational advantage. The contests are so arranged that they are of a recreative nature and the boy or girl learns many valuable lessons incidentally while thoroughly enjoying the work.

To sum up boys' and girls' club work:

1. Brings the home and school closer together.

2. Provides a harmonious partnership where the chief asset is the organizing genius of the teacher on the one hand and the practical experience of the parents on the other.

3. Turns to educational advantage the spare time activities of the boys and girls.

4. Takes advantage of the entire equipment of the home farm.

5. Gives the boys and girls a real interest in the farm by providing not only recreation but a means of earning real money.

6. Adds thousands of dollars to the wealth of the nation and assists the parents to the same extent.

7. Develops habits of thought and study.

What the Extension Service is trying to do: These boys' and girls' clubs belong to the schools, without the assistance of parents, teachers and inspectors they cannot be a success. Our aim is to render whatever assistance we can by way of preparing literature on the various subjects, by supplying certain material, such as garden seeds, potatoes, seed grain, etc. We have already sent out 5 tons of garden seeds, and as soon as we are sure the danger from frost is past we will send out over 10 tons of potatoes. Enough registered seed grain has been supplied to 700 boys for them each to sow a half acre and a dozen eggs will be supplied to members of new clubs.

When fair time comes, from fifteen to twenty judges are supplied for a period of from two to three weeks.

An urgent call has gone forth for increased food production, and Manitoba boys and girls will not only grow large quantities of garden produce, but will can the surplus products in order that they will have plenty of vegetables for the balance of the year as well as when vegetables are in season. During July and August demonstration in vegetable canning will be given in all parts of the province, and we are confident that Manitoba boys and girls will this year prove their patriotism by raising a large quantity of food for the use of the nation.

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Departmental Bulletin

WESTERN SCHOOL JOURNAL NOTICE FOR JUNE

Grade IX. Drawing Examination

Teachers are hereby advised that the paper in Drawing for the Grade IX. examination this year will contain a question providing an option between color work and pencil work. Candidates who incline to color work should take their color boxes with them to this examination.

Annual Report

The Department has prepared a new annual report form and copies will be supplied to all secretary - treasurers early in June. Teachers will kindly ask their secretaries for these and complete their part of the report on these new forms. **Do not use the annual report form in the school register this year.**

SUMMER SCHOOL COURSES

Household Science

The Household Science department of the Manitoba Agricultural College offers a special course of eighteen weeks to enable teachers with Second Class Professional or higher professional standing to qualify as teachers of Household Science in the Elementary schools. This course will be spread over three summer vacations, teachers attending for six weeks each summer.

The course will open on Tuesday, July 3rd, 1917, and will include the following work this summer—Cooking (including canning, preserving and school lunch work), Housecraft, Demonstrations, and lectures on Foods, Sanitation and Hygiene.

For further particulars apply to Miss Eadie, Household Science Department, Manitoba Agricultural College, Winnipeg.

Teachers of Agriculture

The Manitoba Agricultural College offers a three-year course leading to the degree of B. S. A. Teachers holding First Class or Second Class Professional certificates may complete the first year's work in three summer courses of six

weeks each, which will qualify them to enter the fourth year of the B. S. A. course. The first year's work is divided into nine groups of subjects, as follows:

1. Cattle
Horses
Veterinary Science
2. Sheep
Swine
An. Chemistry
3. Dairying
Dairy Bacteriology
Poultry
4. Soil Bacteriology
Soil Physics
Soil Chemistry
Soil Cultivation
Principles and Methods
5. Weeds
Cereals
Legumes
Grasses
6. Vegetables
Fruits
Flowers
7. Farm Accounts
Farm Management
Rural Economics

8. Forge Shop
Building Construction
Farm Homestead
9. Wood Shop
Building Construction
Farm Homestead

Three of these groups will be covered each summer. The course this year will open on July 3rd.

A teacher holding a First Class Professional certificate will be qualified to act as Principal of a High school or Collegiate upon receiving his B. S. A. degree in this course; while a teacher holding Second Class Professional standing will be qualified upon completion of the course to act as assistant teacher in a High school or Collegiate. For further particulars apply to the Registrar, Manitoba Agricultural College, Winnipeg.

Elementary Science, Nature Study and School Gardening

The usual course in Elementary Science, Nature Study and School Gardening for teachers will be given this summer at the Manitoba Agricultural College, beginning July 23rd and ending on August 17th. Students can arrange for board and lodging at the College at a reasonable rate. Teachers intending to take this course should forward their names in good time to the Registrar, Manitoba Agricultural College, Winnipeg, from whom particulars re lodging, etc., may be obtained.

Arts and Handicrafts

The usual courses in Arts and Handicrafts, including Raffia work, Wood carving, Bench work, Forging, Sewing, Millinery, Mechanical Drawing, etc., will be held at the Kelvin School, beginning July 3rd and closing on August 3rd. Teachers intending to take one or more of these courses should send in their names to the Department of Education not later than June 20th.

Teaching English to Non - English Speaking Pupils

A special course of two weeks will begin on July 3rd at the Strathcona School, Winnipeg, under the direction of Mr. W. J. Sisler, for those who are teaching and who desire to teach in schools by numbers of non - English speaking children. This course will deal with the method of presenting English to such children. Teachers interested should apply to the Department of Education.

Oral French

A course in Oral French for High School teachers will be held at the Kelvin School commencing about July 16th and continuing for three weeks. This will be similar to the course given in 1916. All who are teaching French in High Schools or who are aiming at teaching this language are urged to attend this course in order to learn something about the direct method of presenting this language to children in our High Schools.

CANADIAN CLUB PRIZES

The attention of principals is called to the conditions governing the Canadian History prizes offered by the Canadian Club. Lists of the names of the

students competing should be supplied to the Department of Education before the close of school.

THE OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE MANITOBA TRUSTEES' ASSOCIATION

Trustees' Bulletin

WHAT A TRUSTEE SHOULD KNOW

1. About the purpose of a school

That it exists for the benefit of the children.

That it should help them physically.

That it should increase their knowledge and intellectual power.

That it should minister to their moral growth.

That it should make them better members of the community.

That directly or indirectly it should fit them for life's duties.

2. About the building

That it should be properly lighted, heated and ventilated.

That it should be reasonably equipped and furnished.

That it should be kept clean.

That it should be home-like.

That it should be the brightest spot in the district.

3. About the grounds

That they should be large, clean, fenced, cultivated or treed as necessary.

That there should be proper apparatus for play and proper tools for gardening.

That the outhouses should be clean, sanitary, always inspected by trustees as well as teachers.

That there should be an ample supply of good drinking water.

4. About the teacher

That she is qualified.

That she is on duty all the time.

That she is a friend of the children.

That she is in sympathy with the activities and needs of the community.

That she is paid monthly.

That she has a proper boarding house.

That she has a square deal.

That she has the support of the school board.

That she has encouragement to remain in service.

5. About the children

That they are all at school.

That they love the school.

That they are doing the work laid out for them.

That they are transported to and from school.

That they are comfortable in school.

That they behave in school and on the way to and from school.

6. About education in general

That the world is changing and education must change with it.

That no two schools can or should do the same kind of work.

That the greatest word in education is service.

SCHOOL VENTILATION

The principle on which the gravity system works is very simple; but, strange as it may seem, is yet frequently misunderstood. Many school boards are still erecting large buildings with huge, unheated ventilator shafts which are expected to carry off vitiated air against the gravity pressure on the cold air column in the flue! Either the foul air must be carried into the basement and there purified—or, what is more practical, carried off through heated ventilator shafts.

Hot air furnaces have been installed in some rural schools, particularly in the Northwestern states. This system is excellent, first, because it does away with a heating apparatus in the school-room altogether, since the furnace must be placed in the basement. Then it supplies the room with a constant current of warm, fresh air which is supplied to the heater through a fresh-air

conduit from the outside and takes up the foul air through return registers in the floor.

However, for the average schoolhouse a jacket ventilating stove will answer the purpose very well. Such stoves have been on the market for a number of years and may be set up ready for use at an outlay of from \$35 to \$45. This is a great improvement on the old-fashioned stove, which, as all must know, is the greatest vitiating agent in the room in that it uses up enormous quantities of oxygen in the process of combustion, and has none of the appliances for successful ventilation. Let it be abolished from the modern school.

Construction of the Ventilating Stove

The ventilating stove as set up ready for use appears a great deal like a small hot air furnace. It comprises a cast iron stove, inclosed in a heavy sheet iron jacket which fits the floor tightly and has a circle of holes at the top through which the heated air escapes into the room. The jacket communicates at the floor with a fresh air conduit, extending underneath the floor to the outside of the basement wall, the opening being protected with a coarse screen. The working principle is simple. Fire in the stove heats the cast-iron surface, which communicates its heat to the air between it and the outer jacket. The heated air rises and passes into the room; and this naturally causes an influx of fresh air through the conduit, which in turn becomes heated, rises, and passes into the room. All this heated air rises towards the ceiling,

expanding outward as it goes, and then it slowly settles towards the floor near the walls. A return current is created here by the stove draft, which helps to remove the vitiated air from the room.

An excellent way to supplement the insufficient stove draught is by a conduit leading to the heated chimney. Of this Dr. Shaw gives a good description in his *School Hygiene*. He says:—

In the opposite side of the room from the stove a tin or galvanized iron ventilating duct should be constructed, oblong in shape, having its cross-section dimensions 12x6 inches. The open end of this duct should be within one foot of the floor. The flue should extend to the ceiling and run along the ceiling to the chimney. There should not be any curved angle in this duct but a curved bend where the upright section unites with that which runs along the ceiling. The ventilating duct should discharge into a large chimney flue, at least 14x20 inches of cross-section area. In the middle of this flue there should run a sheet iron pipe of sufficient capacity to deliver the smoke and gases from the stove. The heat radiated from this pipe when there is a brisk fire in the stove will cause a strong draught in the flue and draw the air out of the schoolroom through the ventilating duct.

In districts where the school boards are reluctant about discarding the old stove for a new ventilating stove, it is a good plan to improvise such an one by fitting a strong sheet iron jacket and a fresh air conduit to the old stove.

HABIT

“Habit must make our nervous system our ally instead of our enemy. For this we must make automatic and habitual, as early as possible, as many useful actions as we can. We must launch ourselves with as strong and decided an initiative as possible; we must never suffer an exception to occur till the new habit is securely rooted in the life; we must seize the first possible opportunity to act on every resolution and on every emotional prompting we may experience in the direction of habits we aspire to gain; and we must keep the faculty of effort alive in us by a little gratuitous exercise every day.”—Summarized from James’ *Psychology*.

Children's Page

SUMMER

Now like a pageant of the golden year
 In rich memorial pomp the hours go by,
 With rose-embroidered flags unfurled
 And tasselled bugles calling through
 the world

Wake, for your hope draws near!
 Wake, for in each soft porch of azure
 sky,
 Seen through each arch of pale green
 leaves, the Gate
 Of Eden swings apart for summer's
 royal state.

The feathery meadows like a lilac sea,
 Knee-deep, with honeyed clover, red
 and white,

Roll billowing: the crisp clouds pass
 Trailing their soft blue shadows o'er
 the grass;

The skylark, mad with glee,
 Quivers up, up, to lose himself in light;
 And, through the forest, like a fairy
 dream

Through some dark mind, the ferns in
 branching beauty stream.

Quoted from "Summer"—Alf. Noyes

EDITOR'S CHAT

My Dear Boys and Girls,

We want you older ones to read over very carefully with your teacher the two beautiful verses we have given you above. They are not perhaps easy to understand, but we think you will agree with us that when you have studied them for a little while you will find some of the most beautiful word pictures that you have ever read. Later when you are older we hope you will read the whole poem and enjoy all its beauty.

And now for our little June talk. Here is a text for it, but please don't

be afraid you are going to have a sermon just because we have a text!

It is my faith that every flower
 Enjoys the air it breathes—

Have you ever looked into the face of a pansy or a big wood violet? Have you ever thought of the sweet loving nature of the rose? Have you marvelled at the shyness of the columbine? Each little flower seems to have a nature of its own and a separate life of its own, just as people have. They are happy when the gentle rains fall, when the sun shines. They droop and are sad when the terrible heat dries the

earth around them or the sharp frost cuts them off, and they are most unhappy when careless hands gather them and leave them to fade in the sun. If you think of each plant as enjoying life, or being unhappy in it, there will be no need to remind you to water the garden to pull the weeds that choke the flowers, to put the flowers you gather into water at once. And when you walk in the woods and field you will look at each flower with a fresh interest and summer will mean a wonderful time to you when with the poet you can feel,

The very grass I trod
Whispering the gentle thought of God.

And then a word of our friends the birds! How is that army progressing that we organized some two years ago? Do you remember the allies who formed the army to keep our birds? All kind boys, all kind girls, and all kind grown ups? And the enemies we are fighting, the bad small boy, the cat, and the sharp shinned hawk? Don't forget this army and the work that it has pledged itself to do during the summer days that are coming.

And now last of all—our compositions this month are on "What It Means

To Be a Canadian." We have had some very good compositions. And every writer has agreed that as a result of what it means to be a Canadian we have sent from Canada to the battle-field of Europe some of the bravest soldiers who have ever fought battles since the world began; we have sent nurses and doctors whose skill and brave endurance have eased the suffering of thousands; we have sent grain that has helped to feed the hungry and money that has bought help for the destitute, and if these are the results of what being a Canadian means then we should try during the summer when we are celebrating the 50th anniversary of Confederation to make ourselves better Canadians, in thought, word and deed, and as Canadians to do everything in our power to help our men at the front, to help those in the hospitals, and those who have returned, and wherever possible to brighten the lives of those women and children who have been left behind.

With these ends in view our holiday should be busy and happy — full of work, of interest, and joy, and the world should be a little better place to live in because of our trying. Here's a Happy Holiday to every one!

OUR COMPETITION

Our attention has been called to a matter in connection with last month's prize story which we regret very much. The prize was awarded to the story on its form, its writing and its composition, its form, its writing and its composition, but we find that the story corresponds in places word for word with the account in the Fifth Reader. The Editor was not familiar with this account and the matter escaped attention, but we offer our apologies to the other competitors and to the readers of the Journal. We are under the impression that the writer of the story has perhaps unconsciously memorized the Fifth Reader

account, but had we observed the similarity the prize as a matter of fairness would certainly have been awarded to another competitor. We sincerely hope that such an incident will not occur again.

The prize this month has been won by Fanny Fitzmaurice of St. Patrick's School, Ste. Rose du Lac, and we have pleasure in giving Honorable mention to Dorothy Coates, Elm River School; Jessie Erickson, Minnesota School, Dacotah, Man.; Laura Tufford, Elm Creek; Elodie Vachon, Hesselwood School; Ellis Edgar Stewart, Elm Creek; Mary Tennant, St. Patrick School, Ste.

Rose du Lac; Manuel Dunn, Elm River School.

We would give special mention to little John McCarthy, 9 years old, from Ste. Rose du Lac, who has a very good

idea "What It Means to be a Canadian," and who has expressed it especially well. We hope to print some of the honorable mention stories in the September number.

PRIZE STORY

"What It Means To Be a Canadian"

To be a Canadian is to be a free-born subject of the British Empire, native of the Dominion of Canada, the best country in the world. It means one who lives in the great and wonderful country extending from the United States to the Arctic Ocean, and who helps by his vote and in many other ways to make this country a great nation. A true Canadian loves his country and does all in his power to make it great and glorious, equal to any other, perhaps better. Canadians live in a country able to produce all that is necessary for a useful and happy life. Grain of all kinds can be grown to furnish food for men and animals, all the most useful vegetables can be raised and all domestic animals are found. Canadians may well be proud of their beautiful country, of their great chain of mountains, their fine rivers, their wonderful forests, containing some of the biggest trees in the world and the

most useful kinds of timber, their chain of very fine boats both for pleasure and commerce. Canada is so big that Canadians can enjoy almost any kind of temperature, either great heat or extreme cold, frost or rain or sunshine. There is a great choice of sea coast or inland living. Canadians have the best chance of making a living in any way they choose, either in farming, cattle raising, mining, engineering, hunting or business, and greater chance of sport in shooting, fishing, ball games and swimming than any other people. We have also some of the best railroads in the world. Canadians are the happiest and luckiest people on the earth, and I am proud to be one, and when I grow to be a man I hope to work for my country and fight to defend the Empire if I am needed.

Tommy Fitzmaurice,
Age 10 (Grade V.),
St. Patrick School,
Ste. Rose du Lac.

GOPHER CONTEST IN MANITOBA RURAL SCHOOL

In a recent gopher contest in Manitoba Rural Schools the boys and girls of the province have shown what they can do in exterminating the gopher. The Department of Agriculture lent their heartiest support to this effort, and, as a result, it is estimated that ten

per cent. of the gophers of the province were killed during the first week in May. Over 70,000 gopher tails were brought in, and, as a pair of gophers killed in April is as good as fifteen gophers killed in July, the effort of the school children of the province has

been equivalent to killing more than a million gophers at midsummer. In addition to rendering this service to the province, the schools have been satisfactorily rewarded, the Department of Agriculture distributed \$1,000 among 200 schools, and business firms of Winnipeg contributed a further prize list for individuals amounting to an additional \$300.00, so that many of the boys and girls of the province are in possession of trophies, won during this contest, ranging from bicycles, watches and automatic rifles to bird guides, of which Professor Jackson had to give away 70 to those who shot more gophers than he did on May 5th.

Alex. Henry, age 14, of Rapid City, brought in 386 gopher tails on May 5th, which meant that he shot over 500 as many of them, perhaps half, get away. Alex. Henderson, age 16, Deepdale, shot 375. Mr. H. H. Janzen,

teacher, Wakeham School, Morden, shot 196; and two lady teachers at Glenboro, Miss Blough and Miss Moir, shot 141 and 132 respectively. Many other ladies shot over 100 on May 5th, and many records were established to the credit of our "home defence guard."

In addition to killing gophers, there were 156 essays sent in on "How Gophers Live," the damage they do and how to get them, and many photographs were also sent in which will add to our knowledge of the gopher.

The Departments of Education and Agriculture have worked together in this matter, and the inspectors and teachers have lent their assistance, and it is hoped that this successful effort can be made an annual feature of Rural Schools in gopher districts and an efficient means of controlling this menace to our crops.

Teachers!

Show
What
You
Are
Doing



Provincial Fair, Brandon, July 16th to 20th

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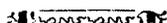
Splendid Prize List.

Some sections open to the Province.
Others for rural schools only.

Write W. I. SMALE, PROVINCIAL FAIR, BRANDON, for
School Prize List.

MANITOBA AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE

Results of Gopher Contest in Manitoba



Over 300 schools competed in Contest No. 1 and over 60,000 gopher tails were brought in during the first four days of May. One hundred and eighty-eight schools obtained over 100 gopher tails each, or a total of 42,261, for which the Department of Agriculture is giving a bonus of two cents per tail, making \$870.00 to be distributed to such schools. Eighty-three schools obtained over 50 tails each, and are each entitled to two boxes of Dominion cartridges, but as these cannot be sent through the mail nor by express we shall be compelled to sell such as we cannot deliver and remit the funds to the respective schools. It has been arranged that every competitor getting over 40 tails will get a prize.

In the school contest Errol School, Lenore, Miss Florence Miller teacher, wins first prize with 1,645 tails (bonus \$32.84); second, Cherry Grove School, McAuley, Miss Treva Siddon, teacher, 1,083 tails (bonus \$21.66); third, Crosby School, Millwood, Miss Cecelia E. Cox, teacher, 649 tails (bonus \$12.98).

The largest number of gophers shot on May 5th was 386 by Alex. Henry, aged 14, Rapid City, who gets Eaton's baseball outfit. Alex. Henderson, age 16, Deepdale, shot 375 and gets the Remington Repeater. Fred Foster, age 15, Lena, shot 152 and gets a Winchester rifle, as does also Bert Hathaway, age 15, West Hall, who shot 146.

Seventy get Reed's leather covered Bird Guide, given by Professor Jackson, for shooting more than he did on May 5th, i.e., 52. Those who shot over 40 will get "Farm Botany," or "How Crops Live," and schools over 50 will get books or money in place of the cartridges which cannot be delivered.

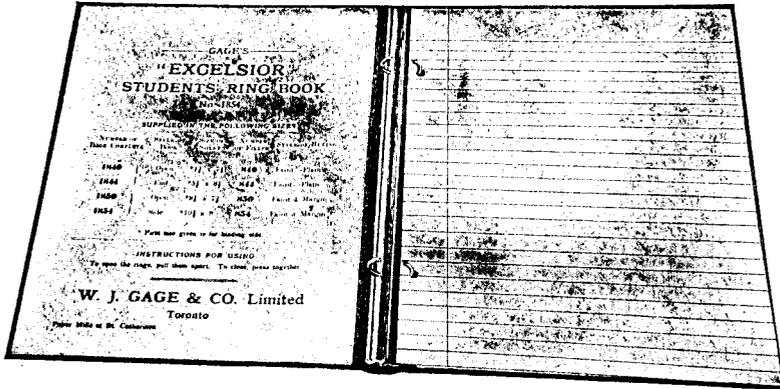
In the teachers' contests, Nos. 5 and 8, Mr. H. H. Janzen, Wakeham School, Morden, shot 197 gophers on May 7th and gets Automatic Remington and 1,000 rounds cartridges. Jas. E. Maynard, Luther School, Dand, shot 162, and Stephen Quelch, Theona School, Beulah, shot 151. Miss Myrtle Blough, Glenboro, shot 141; Miss Lulu V. Moir, Glenboro, shot 132, and Miss Laura M. Chapman, Boissevain, shot 117. Special prizes are being given to the ladies who made such a remarkable record, which has perhaps not been exceeded in the province before. Seven teachers shot over 100 each on May 5th, which is a remarkably good record.

The prizes total over \$1,200, and if satisfactory to all a similar and greater contest may be arranged next year.

The awards for the gopher essays, of which there are 156, will be announced later.

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