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# EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

DEVOTED TO ADVANCED METHODS OF EDUCATION AND GENERAL CULTURE

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## EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

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### EASTER

Once again the calendar marks the inauguration of Spring. The slackened life-pulses of Mather Nature are quickening apace. There is a stirring of new life in the soil and in the tree-tops. Robins and song sparrows are singing their love songs among the branches. Pussy willows are throwing off their warm winter coats and the alders are hanging out their crimson catkins down by the brookside. The trailing arbutus is responding to the magic touch of the sun's increasing strength, and will soon be throwing its delicate perfume upon the vernal air. Spring is ushering in the reign of song and bloom.

Easter stands at the open door of Spring. The great Christian festival comes to greet Nature awakening from her winter sleep. Around a thousand church altars the Easter lily proclaims the glad message of deathless life. The Easter chimes ring out the blessed story of life and immortality brought into clearer light through the risen Christ. The Christian church celebrates again the anniversary of that first happy Eastern morn. Christendom revisits the empty tomb in the garden and hears anew the heartening words: "He is not here; He is risen." Afresh the glorious fact of Christ's resurrection is impressed upon the Christian consciousness. The power of an endless life is again gripping the heart of the world.

Easter is the golden day of hope. Multitudes sleep their last sleep in the dust, but Christ's resurrection wrote over every grave the words: "I am the Resurrection and the Life." A risen Christ broods over the crosses among the poppies in Flanders' field and those crosses are rain-

bow-arched with hope. Easter is the hopeful answer to the age-long question, "If a man die, shall he live again?"

Some inquiries have been made by teachers in N. B. schools as to the scope of the departmental examinations for the present year, more especially regarding the work in Algebra.

No one can speak for the various examiners who are an independent body, as they should be.

It may be assumed, however, that they will give just consideration to the vicissitudes of schools for various reasons.

While the requirements in Algebra remain the same as heretofore, it is altogether probable that such questions will be given as will be based upon a knowledge of either the old or the new text book. It may be that an option will be given as between Ancient History (one group) and Medieval and Modern (another group). The first group will cover most nearly the work of Matriculation candidates, and the latter group the work of first class teachers.

#### CORPORAL PUNISHMENT

A case of corporal punishment in one of the St. John schools recently attracted considerable attention. A boy who had been punished by his teacher, was taken ill the same or the next day, and two or three days later died.

A coroner's inquest was held to enquire into the cause of his death. From the evidence given at the inquest as published in the daily papers, it appeared that the boy had been troublesome to manage, had outgrown his grade, and was a truant. Expert medical testimony given at the inquest proved that the boy's death was caused by meningitis, and that the punishment given him by his teacher had nothing whatever to do with either his illness or death.

The jury's finding was that the boy's death was caused by the disease as alleged by the medical experts. As a part of its finding it recommended that the teacher in question be dismissed and that an investigation be held by the Trustee Board into the matter of corporal punishment in the schools on the staff of which the said teacher was employed. Although the boy's death was not in any way due to the punishment inflicted, the teacher was recommended for dismissal first, investigation afterwards. As the St. John Globe very justly observed, "this is not the British way." Investigation would naturally precede dismissal.

No specific regulations can in the nature of things be prescribed for the administration of corporal punishment. It may be used but should not be abused. Some school boards have unwisely decreed that it should not be used in their schools, but a short experience has resulted in the

rescinding of such a regulation or in winking at the use of such a form of punishment.

The school regulations are as comprehensive as they may be made to permit teachers "to practise such discipline as may be exercised by a kind, firm and judicious parent in his family."

No doubt the use of corporal punishment is diminishing from year to year. Many teachers do not find it necessary to resort to its use. Young teachers are more likely to adopt its use than those who have acquired resourcefulness in dealing with refractory pupils, from experience. It is generally conceded by educational authorities that it should not be used except for serious offences. Gross disobedience and defiance of the authority of the teacher are serious offences against school discipline, and it may be possible for a pupil to exhibit these qualities even in the matter of preparing lessons.

It is safe to say that no teacher, whether experienced or inexperienced, will resort to its use unless it is deemed necessary to in the maintenance of good government in the school.

#### CHILD LABOUR IN ENGLAND

Much interest has been aroused in the Education Act which became a law recently in Great Britain. It provides compulsory education for children between the ages of five and fourteen years except that children under six may be exempted from attending school or studying reading, writing and arithmetic. There are several clauses relating to the school attendance of children employed in special occupations. Young persons under eighteen years may not be compelled by their parents to attend elementary schools but must attend continuation schools for 320 hours each year. This rule is inactive until seven years after the passage of the Act. In the meantime the required attendance is to be 280 hours each year. Any one who has satisfactorily completed a course of training for or is engaged in sea service is not required to take the continuation course. Any one of the specified age who has matriculated for a university course or has had full time instruction up to the age of sixteen years is excused from the continuation work.

Whenever a young person is required to take the continuation work the local education board may require him to leave his employment on any school day not only during the class period but for several hours in addition in order to become physically and mentally fit for study. Sundays, holidays and the hours between 7 p.m. and 8 a.m. are not to be used for continuation work unless the persons are employed at night. No one shall be required to attend continuation school against his will and one month's notice in writing to his employer and the educational board is all that is necessary.

Children under twelve may not be employed.

Children of that age or over may not be employed on Sunday for more than two hours or on any school day before the close of school nor on any day before six in the morning nor after eight at night. There are several provisions for exemptions. There are also several provisions for exceptions to this rule to be arranged by the local educational board and parents. Boys under 14 and girls under 16 may not be exhibited for profit in entertaining or offering things for sale between eight at night and six in the morning. No child under twelve may engage in this work. Children twelve or over may be licensed to take part in public entertainments. No children may be employed in factories, workshops, mines or quarries. Any child who is engaged in an occupation that injures his health or interferes with his receiving full benefit from his education, even though all legal points are observed, may be removed from that occupation.

By the Act of 1910 it was possible for boys or girls under 17 to obtain help in entering a suitable occupation. This age limit has been raised to 18 years.—*Office of Director of Public Information.*

#### FLAGS OF THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

J. Vroom

The following brief descriptions of flags of the Allies, associated belligerents and friendly neutrals that will probably form the proposed League of Nations, though it may soon be out of date because things are changing so rapidly, may be of some use in making preparations for Empire Day and Peace celebrations.

**BRITAIN**—The Union Jack is the proper British flag for use on land, not the red ensign or the white ensign.


**FRANCE**—The French tricolor, with blue next the staff, white in the middle and red in the fly, is proper for use on land or sea.

**UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**—The well known Stars and Stripes, with forty-eight stars and thirteen stripes, is correct for land or sea.

**ITALY**—The Italian flag is like the French flag with the blue changed to green, and with the addition of the arms of Savoy in the centre of the white. These arms consist of a blue bordered red shield with a white cross running through the red. They were added to distinguish the Italian flag from that of Mexico, after the Mexicans had adopted the same colours.

**JAPAN**—The white flag with the red disc of the sun in the centre is correct for use on land. It is the flag of merchant ships. The naval ensign has rays, sixteen in number, and is never used on shore.

**BELGIUM**—The flag is a tri-color divided vertically, like that of France; but the colours are black, yellow and red.



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**BRAZIL**—The national flag is green, oblong in shape, with a yellow diamond, the corners of which nearly touch the edges of the flag at the middle of each side and each end. The green refers to the forest wealth of the country, and the yellow to its mineral wealth. A blue disc, which nearly fills the yellow diamond, is dotted with white stars, and represents the starry sky. It is crossed by a white band that bears the letters "Ordem e progresso."

**RUSSIA**—Though the country is now divided, each section having a flag of its own, it seems probable that before it comes into the League it will be reunited under its old flag, a horizontally divided tri-color of white over blue over red.

**JUGO-SLAVIA, or GREATER SERBIA**—This new state, officially known as the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, has adopted the flag of the old Kingdom of Serbia; which is like the Russian flag turned upside down, except that the Serbian blue is of an unusual hue, somewhat resembling that popularly known as old blue.

**CZECHO-SLOVAKIA**—The Czechs and Slovaks have adopted the old white and red flag of Bohemia, of which the upper half is white and the lower half red.

**POLAND**—The Polish flag is red above white, like the Czecho-Slovak flag inverted.

**ROUMANIA**—The flag of Roumania is like that of France with yellow instead of white between the blue and the red.

**GREECE**—In Greece, as with us, the jack of the navy is the national flag for use on land. It is a square flag of light blue with a white cross running through it, the width of the arms of the cross being one-fifth the width of the flag. The oblong Greek flag of nine stripes, alternately pale blue and white, with the cross in the staff-head corner, is only to be used at sea.

**PORTUGAL**—The Portuguese flag is green for two-fifths of its length, and red for the other three-fifths,

with the national coat-of-arms centered on the line that divides the red from the green. The arms consist of a white shield with a red border, surrounded or backed by a yellow device which represents the equator, ecliptic and other circles of an armillary sphere. On the white shield are five pale blue shields arranged in the form of a cross, each bearing five round white spots called plates because they are supposed to be of silver; and on the red border are seven golden castles. The flag of the Kingdom of Portugal was pale blue and white, about evenly divided, with the same shield on the dividing line, but without the yellow lines around it—a simpler and much prettier design.

**CHINA**—The flag of China for use on land, which is also the merchant flag and the jack of the naval service, is of five equal stripes, the upper one a dull purplish red, or old rose, the next dark yellow, the next bright blue, the next white, and the lower one black. These colours respectively denote China, Manchuria, Mongolia, Thibet, and the mountainous regions of the southwest inhabited by a distinct race although not under a separate government.

**SIAM**—The Siamese flag also is of five stripes, but not all of equal width. The upper and lower stripes are red, those next to them white, and the middle stripe is a very deep blue. The blue stripe is twice as wide as either of the others, and so occupies one-third of the whole width. This is the new merchant flag of Siam. The red flag with a white elephant is the naval ensign.

**HEDJAZ**—The flag of the Hedjaz, the newly recognized kingdom in the western part of Arabia, is of three equal horizontal stripes, black, green and white, with a triangle of red next the staff.

**CUBA**—The Cubans call their flag the Lone Star. It displays a five-pointed white star on a triangle of red next the staff; and the remainder of the flag consists of five equal stripes alternately bright blue and white.

**HAITI**—The merchant flag, which is used as the national flag, is of dark blue above red, equally divided.

**PANAMA**—The present flag of Panama is provisional, and perhaps may not be made permanent. It is divided quarterly. Next the staff is a blue canton beneath a white canton with a blue star, and in the fly a red canton above a white canton with a red star.

**HONDURAS**—A flag of three equal stripes, dark blue at top and bottom and white between, with a group of five blue stars in the middle of the white stripe, is the merchant flag, and also the proper flag for use on land.

**NICARAGUA**—The Nicaraguan flag is the same as that of Honduras except that the color is light blue and there is no group of stars in the centre. It usually has an anchor in the centre.

**GUATEMALA**—This is also divided into three

equal parts, light blue, white and light blue, but the divisions are vertical.

**LIBERIA**—The flag of Liberia resembles the American Stars and Stripes, but it has only eleven stripes and only one star. This is a five pointed star of the usual American pattern.

**PERSIA**—The national flag of Persia is a simple tricolor of pale green, white and pink, in equal horizontal stripes.

**BOLIVIA**—The National flag of Bolivia is a tricolor in red, yellow and green, in equal horizontal parts, the red above and the green below. It is sometimes shown as square in shape, which is probably correct.

**PERU**—The Peruvian flag is red, white and red, in equal vertical divisions; and this also is square when used on land.

**ECUADOR**—The upper half of the national flag of Ecuador is yellow, the lower half is blue above red, in two stripes of equal width. The blue is lighter than that in the flag of Columbia, which is otherwise similar.

**URUGUAY**—The national flag of Uruguay is of nine stripes, five of them white, and four blue of a shade not so deep as the blue in our own flags. On a large white square in the staff-head corner, which occupies the width of five stripes, a blazing sun is embroidered in gold.

The flags above describe those of the nations which were actually engaged in the war or had broken off diplomatic relations with Germany. Another flag which has appeared since the armistice is of three equal horizontal divisions, a bar of blue between two of white. It is used to distinguish enemy ships that have been requisitioned for the use of the Allies; but it does not follow that it will be adopted as the flag of the League of Nations.

#### EASTER

Life—where Death reigned;  
Greenspringing sod;  
Bloom from the mold;  
Everywhere—God!

Think of them not—  
Your glorious dead—  
Low-lying in earth  
Riven and red!

Think of them rather  
Beyond the dim portal  
Risen with Christ,  
Victors—immortal!

Emma Veazey.

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The first train which carried troops over the Government railways the year that war was declared was number one, and all special troop trains to and from Halifax since that time have been numbered consecutively. The last train from the "Belgic" on Saturday was No. 1279. Each train averages about twelve cars with an average of 50 men to a car, which figures up a total of 767,400 men carried. Of course in addition to this thousands of soldiers have journeyed between Montreal and Halifax by regular trains during the last four years.

The movement of troops back to Canada is now approaching its greatest activity. Last Sunday nearly 6000 arrived at Halifax by the transports "Lapland" and "Belgic," and fifteen special trains were dispatched westward inside of fourteen hours.

S. S. Megantic with soldiers and dependents arrived

Wednesday, and S. S. Adriatic is due Sunday. The movement of returning men is to be kept up actively all summer.

The process of disembarkation at Halifax is being carried on without a hitch, and there is a fine system of co-operation between the Military and Railway officials.

#### SCHOOL LIBRARIES

School libraries are desirable. Teachers, however, sometimes lack judgment in the selection or use of books. Last year a teacher raised about \$50. to establish a library. In selecting the books she chose nothing but fiction. Not a single reference book was included. This year another teacher has charge of the school. At the request of a number of parents she has closed the library; for, as the parents assert, the children neglected lessons and home duties in order to read school fiction. This is something to think about.

In a number of cases we learn of teachers who receive the Agricultural Gazette and Experimental Farm Bulletins, but who never take them to school. This is a serious mistake. Give your children every opportunity to look over government publications as well as other magazines. The pictures will teach more in an hour than the average teacher can teach in a week.—*Rural Science Bulletin (N. S.)*

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**FRENCH IN N. B. HIGH SCHOOLS**

Much time and energy are now wasted in N. B. High Schools on the subject of French. Can we call more or less skilful coaching for a stereotyped examination teaching? Can either our educationists or citizens be content to measure results solely by the number of marks won at said examination? Should not our High School graduates be able to speak, to read and to write simple French? French is a spoken, living language, and if pupils gain no practical command of it, why give it a place on our crowded curriculum?

Though keenly conscious of the limitations of the class room, the writer after several years of experimenting, is convinced that by applying the Direct Method to a suitable course some progress can be made even within the limits of the High School course. The acquisition of a language is the work of a life-time, but the High School can reasonably be expected to lay such a foundation as will enable its graduate to continue until he has mastered French.

The teaching of French might be ameliorated: first, by better qualified teachers; second, by improved methods; and, third by such changes in the prescribed course as would give effect to the foregoing.

One ignorant of the multiplication table is not allowed to teach algebra. And should we encourage the teaching of French by those who could not maintain the simplest sort of conversation in that language? Our teachers say that they studied but were not taught to speak French at the University. The University replies that its students are expected to come from the High Schools with some slight knowledge of French; and, further, that the University offers no courses in pedagogy. Responsibility is not fixed.

Unfortunately our Normal School offers no course in advanced pedagogy and many higher grade teachers lack adequate professional training. Could not some relief be found, as has been done in other subjects, through Summer Schools? Or, failing that, might our educational authorities not encourage teachers to attend suitable courses outside of the Province? e. g., "The McGill Summer School for Teachers of French." New Brunswick teachers have ever shown an eagerness to improve any opportunity offering professional improvement.

Many, perhaps most, N. B. teachers are using the Grammar Translation method. Though once the almost universal method of teaching languages in school, modern educationists hesitate to recommend it even for teaching the classics. By the Grammar Method the most skilful teacher does not get results commensurate with the amount of energy expended. This is eloquently demonstrated by the almost universal dislike for Latin, Greek and French, a dislike born of ignorance.

The teaching of French will continue to be a farce



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until we adopt the Direct Method. The Direct Method—variously known as the Natural, Scientific or Berlitz Method—seeks to give a command of the language studied by duplicating, with necessary modifications, the process by which one acquires his mother tongue. As applied to the class room, the pupil first hears French in the form of simple commands which he executes in silence. This, together with drill in pronouncing vowel sounds, syllables and easy words constitutes the work of the first few lessons. The pupil is next required to make simple statements in French as he executes the commands; at this stage a little reading and writing are introduced. Gradually the pupil passes to question-and-answer and finally to conversation and short stories. New words and forms of expressions are always introduced orally with the aid of suitable objects, pictures or actions. After thorough oral drill come reading and writing exercises. As progress is made the reading and writing occupy more of the lesson period.

Continuity is essential, and to this end there should be a daily lesson. During the lesson French is the language of "communication and instruction;" such anomalies as calling the letters by their English names when spelling a French word are avoided. Thus a French "atmosphere" is created. The pupil tends to forget the English and thinks in French. Thinking in French enables him to speak French freely.



Direct Method does not ignore the value of grammar. It is, however, careful to teach French and not merely rules of French Grammar written in English. Again the Grammar Method sets the irregular verb apart to be taken up after some progress has been made. But Direct Method by introducing these verbs—verbs which are quite worn out with much use—naturally and without effort from the beginning solves the difficulty before the pupil realizes that there was one.

After the age of ten, the muscles of articulation tend to become fixed and the co-ordinations of a new language are more difficult to build up. High School pupils are further handicapped by school methods which make of them "eye-and-book" learners, dependent on the printed page. Hence progress at first must necessarily be slow; and both teacher and pupil will need patience. The advanced intelligence of the pupil will, however, more than overcome this later on; that is if the corner stone has been well laid.

If High School pupils are to acquire correct pronunciation with a reasonable expenditure of time and energy, they must be carefully instructed and thoroughly drilled in phonetics. (1) French sounds are best taught by means of their physiology: i. e., the pupil is instructed in the teeth, tongue and lip positions required to produce the different sounds. The teaching of French sounds by comparison with English sounds results not only in a loss of that "atmosphere" so essential to success, but usually results in confusion—very few pupils having any clear appreciation of English sounds. As an aid to clearness and precision each sound should be associated with its phonetic character, and later with the letter or letters by which the sound is usually represented in French words. As French is a phonetic language there is much to be gained from thorough phonetic drill

at the beginning of the course. This drill together with a good model on the teacher's part—all spoken language is the result of imitation rather than of conscious obedience to rules—should during the first year enable the pupil to establish fairly correct pronunciation.

Needless to say the Direct Method cannot be successfully applied to the prescribed course; while the text books are not well suited even to the Grammar Method. The present course is too ambitious. Too much is required, and quite naturally we have "cramming" instead of teaching and "plugging" instead of study. Having regard to the principle of French as the language of communication and instruction, High School pupils cannot be expected to study Racine. Or supposing they were so qualified, why not study Canadian authors?

Text-books exactly suited to the needs of our High School grades may be difficult to find, yet, Fraser and Squair's "High School French Grammar"—now in use in most of the provinces—is a compromise between the Direct and Grammar methods and offers many advantages over the present texts.

The subject matter of a French reader should be of such a very simple nature that the pupil's only difficulty will be that of the new language. "Oral lessons in French" (2), parts I and II; or Berlitz "Premier Livre"; and "Oral Lessons in French", parts III-V, or "Lectures Faciles," by Lazare might be suited to the needs of Grades IX and X respectively. In Grade XI, after careful drill in verb conjugation, miscellaneous reading with the aid of a dictionary (3) should be encouraged. The Acadian Readers and French newspapers offer an abundance of suitable material with the distinct advantage of local color.

Expediency may require that matriculation examinations be mainly written. Yet, the questions set might

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be such that most, if not all, the words on the answer sheet shall be French, e. g., to test the candidate's knowledge of the verb he might be required to rewrite short stories in different tenses; the writing of short stories on simple topics would test both his vocabulary and knowledge of syntax. Translation is the work of an expert. If it is to figure in examinations, why not require sight translation, allowing the use of a dictionary and setting a time limit?

These lines have not been written in any spirit of unkind criticism. They set forth, clumsily no doubt but truthfully, existing conditions, and indicate the path of improvement. This is done in the hope that it may hasten the day when English-speaking students will be graduated from our Educational Institutions with that knowledge of French—historically first, legally the second language of our country—to which as Canadians they have a right.

Fred J. Patterson, Fredericton High School.

N. B.—(1) For a careful treatment of French phonetic read: Churchman's "An Introduction to the Pronunciation of French," University Press, Cambridge, Mass.; also "Elements of French Pronunciation and Diction," J. M. Dent & Co., London, England.

(2) Teachers not familiar with direct method will find "Oral Lessons in French," published by Renouf Co., Montreal, very helpful. These are in five parts, Teachers' manual, each part, 40c., corresponding pupil's book, 10c.

(3) As book of reference for class room, "Jack's International Dictionary," French and English (Phonetic), is of great service. Pupils will find Nugent's "Pocket Dictionary of the French and English Languages, Musson Book Co., a good book at small cost.

#### METHODS FOR TEACHING FRACTIONS

Inspector Amos O'Blenes, M. A., Moncton

To divide a fraction by a whole number.

Take six-eighths of an apple and ask the class to divide the  $\frac{3}{4}$  equally between two pupils, that is, to divide  $\frac{3}{4}$  by 2. Express thus  $\frac{3}{4} \div 2$ . Q. How many pieces are there? A. 6. Q. How many pupils are to get the six pieces? A. Two. Q. How many pieces will each pupil get? A. 3. Q. What kind of pieces are they? A. Eighths. Q. What has each pupil? A.  $\frac{3}{8}$ . Express thus  $\frac{3}{4} \div 2 = \frac{3}{8}$ .

By questioning get from the pupils the rule: To divide a fraction by a whole number divide the numerator of the fraction by the whole number to get a numerator and use the denominator of the fraction as a denominator.

Divide three quarters by 2. Express thus  $\frac{3}{4} \div 2$ . Q. Can this be done by the rule just used? A. No.

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Q. Why not? A. Because the numerator of the fraction cannot be exactly divided by the whole number.

Cut an apple, stick, string or some article into four equal pieces. Place three of the pieces on the table. Send two pupils to divide the three pieces equally between them.

They will generally each take one quarter, and cut the remaining quarter into two equal parts, and each take one piece. Question until the class can see that each pupil has one quarter and one-eighth.

Q. Can the quarter or the eighth be changed so as to have all the pieces alike? A. The quarter can be cut into two equal parts and thus made into eighths.

Q. What has each pupil now? A.  $\frac{3}{8}$ . Express thus  $\frac{3}{4} \div 2 = \frac{3}{8}$ .

Q. Why is  $\frac{3}{8}$  only half of  $\frac{3}{4}$ ? A. Because the eighths are only half as large as the quarters and there is the same number of eighths as quarters.

By examining the work lead the pupils to give the rule: To divide a fraction by a whole number multiply the denominator of the fraction by the whole number to get a denominator and use the numerator of the fraction for a numerator.

Give a thorough drill on the multiplication and the division of fractions by whole numbers, using all the rules given.

To multiply a fraction by a fraction:

Take an example in which no cancelling can be done

e. g.  $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{7}$ .

Q. If any number be multiplied by one what will the product be? A. The product will be the same as the multiplicand. Thus (a)  $\frac{3}{4} \times 1 = \frac{3}{4}$ .

Q. Next multiply  $\frac{3}{4}$  by  $\frac{1}{7}$ , thus (b)  $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{7}$ .

Q. How does the multiplier in (b) compare with the multiplier in (a). A. It is seven times as small.

Q. Since the multiplicands in (a) and (b) are the same how will the product in (b) compare with the product in (a)? A. The product in (b) will be seven times as small as the product in (a), that is, the product in (a) should be divided by 7 to get the product in (b).

Q. How can the product in (a) which is  $\frac{3}{4}$  be divided by 7? A. By multiplying the denominator by 7, thus  $\frac{3}{4} \div 7 = \frac{3}{28}$  therefore (b)  $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{7} = \frac{3}{28}$ .

(c)  $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{5}$ . Q. How does the multiplier in (c) compare with the multiplier in (b)? A. It is five times as great.

Q. Since the multiplicands in (b) and (c) are the same how will the product in (c) compare with the product in (b)? A. The product in (c) will be five times as great as the product in (b), that is, the product in (b) should be multiplied by 5 to get the product in (c).

Q. How can the product in (b), which is  $\frac{3}{28}$  be multiplied by 5? A. By multiplying the numerator by 5, thus  $\frac{3}{28} \times 5 = \frac{15}{28}$ .

Thus we see that when  $\frac{3}{4}$  is multiplied by  $\frac{1}{7}$  the result is  $\frac{3}{28}$ . Express thus  $\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{7} = \frac{3}{28}$ . Work several examples in the same way, then by examining the work in detail, in each case, it will be found that the numerator in the product, is the product of the numerators of the fractions to be multiplied, and that the denominator in the product is the product of the denominators of the fractions to be multiplied. Briefly stated the rule for multiplying a fraction by a fraction is: Multiply the numerators for a numerator and the denominators for a denominator.

To divide a fraction by a fraction:

Take an example in which no cancelling can be done: e. g.,  $\frac{9}{1} \div \frac{1}{8}$ .

Q. If any number be divided by one to what will the quotient be equal? A. The quotient will be equal to the dividend e. g.  $9 \div 1 = 9$ , therefore

$$(a) \frac{9}{1} \div 1 = \frac{9}{1}$$

$$(b) \frac{9}{1} \div \frac{1}{8}$$

Q. How does the divisor in (b) compare with the divisor in (a)? A. It is eight times as small.

Q. When the dividend remains the same, as it does in (a) and (b) what change will there be in the quotient if the divisor be made eight times as small? A. The quotient will be eight times as large, that is the quotient

in (a) should be multiplied by 8 to get the quotient in (b) thus (b)  $\frac{9}{1} \div \frac{1}{8} = \frac{9}{1} \times 8 = 72$ . (c)  $\frac{9}{1} \div \frac{1}{5}$ .

Q. How does the divisor in (c) compare with the divisor in (b)? A. It is five times as large.

Q. When the dividend remains the same as it does in (b) and (c) how will the quotient be changed by making the divisor five times as large? A. The quotient will be made five times as small, that is, the quotient in (b) should be divided by five to get the quotient in (c) thus  $\frac{9}{1} \div \frac{1}{5} = \frac{72}{5} \div 5 = \frac{72}{25}$ , therefore  $\frac{9}{1} \div \frac{1}{5} = \frac{72}{25}$ .


After several such quotations are worked examine the work in each case and it will be found that to divide one fraction by another fraction, the numerator of the dividend is multiplied by the denominator of the divisor to get the numerator in the quotient and that the denominator of the dividend is multiplied by the numerator of the divisor to get the denominator in the quotient. By a few questions the class may be led to see that if the terms of the divisor are inverted the rule for multiplying a fraction by a fraction will give the correct quotient; thus  $\frac{9}{1} \div \frac{1}{8} = \frac{9}{1} \times \frac{8}{1} = 72$ .

To multiply a whole number by a fraction e. g.  $24 \times \frac{2}{3}$ . Express the 24 as a fraction thus  $\frac{24}{1}$  and apply the rule for multiplying two fractions; thus  $24 \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{24}{1} \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{48}{3} = 16$ .

By questioning the following rule may be deduced: Multiply the whole number by the numerator of the fraction and divide the result by the denominator of the fraction, or when the denominator of the fraction is a factor of the whole number divide the whole number by the denominator of the fraction and multiply the result by the numerator of the fraction.

If you have a task worth doing,  
Do it now!  
In delay there's danger brewing,  
Do it now!  
Do not be a "by-and-byer,"  
And a sluggish patience-trier!  
If there's aught you would acquire,  
Do it now!

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**STEMS AND THEIR USES**

In The Teachers' Book of Nature Study, Vol. III

During winter time the chief thing to strike us during a country ramble is the bareness of the landscape. Trees and hedges have lost their leaves; herbs have died down. But this very bareness may be put to good account, if we will. We may observe closely many things which we passed by when the world of Nature around us was blooming and beautiful. Among such things are the stems of plants.

And what a number of stems we find! Every plant must possess one, but they are by no means alike. There are the tree trunks, hard, erect and woody; there are creeping stems, which wind in and out among the grasses; climbing stems, which find a way to rise in the world by aerial roots, suckers and tendrils; twining stems which twine around other plants, using them as crutches; scrambling stems, which seem to please themselves about their manner of growth; and there are even underground stems.

The Body of a Plant.—We come to the question, "What is a stem?" Looking at a tree we cannot imagine it as anything without its trunk which is really a stem. Now, the word "trunk" really means a body. Do we not use it ourselves when speaking of the main part of our body? We see, then, that the stem is the body of the plant, uniting all its parts, just as our body unites its members.

What work has the stem to do? First of all, it must bear the branches, leaves, flowers, and fruit of the plant. Sometimes there are no branches, the leaves just growing out of the stem; but, generally speaking, the stem has to hold up to the light the branches and leaves. When it cannot stand alone it uses some other stouter plant or other object as a support.

But to bear the branches and leaves is not the only function of the stem. It also has to form a conducting organ. We know how important are the roots to a plant, but what could the roots do without the stem to carry on the good work of feeding the plant? There are wonderful things to be found out when we study a stem. It contains thousands of tiny pipes or vessels along which liquid can flow, and which remind us of the blood-vessels in our bodies. In fact, when we compare a man with a tree we find many similarities.

The Struggle for the Light.—By making observations we shall find that no plant wants to make a very long stem. A tall plant, or a tall tree, is usually forced to become what it has become. And the secret of growth in plant-land lies largely in the struggle for light.

Look at an oak tree growing in the open field, then find another oak tree growing in a wood with other trees. Which is the taller? Compare the stalks of a dandelion found on the lawn with the stalk of one growing among

high grass. The latter has had to grow tall because of the lack of light which would have been its share had it stayed in a lowly position. Light is necessary to life, so all plants struggle towards it. It is the stem which grows and carries up the branches, leaves and flowers. But we must not think that it is light which makes a stem grow. All things grow more quickly in darkness, but such things are always of weak growth. We shall find growth most marked where there is lack of light, because all things are struggling towards it. We shall also find that the quicker the growth the weaker the plant.

Crutches.—Many plants, on springing into new life in the spring-time, must grow very quickly. Those with woody stems have already a good support, but even some of these use crutches. Many of them are so weak-stemmed that they could not stand alone. When growing wild they make use of neighboring plants and twine and climb, but when we grow such plants in our gardens we provide them with crutches. The gardener puts sticks for the peas and beans, the nasturtiums, and many other plants. Even the rambler roses and the creepers must have their arches, or they could not ramble or creep to give the effect we want.

We see Ivy climbing up a wall, or covering a tree trunk, by means of many tiny climbing roots; the Virginian Creeper uses its suckers; the Sweet Pea puts out many tendrils; the Hop, Honeysuckle, Convolvulus, and Scarlet Runner twine round and round their supports, while the Blackberry scrambles upward by means of its curved prickles. The weaklings of the plant world will lean against, or clutch and cling to, any sturdier plant near which they happen to grow.

Kinds of Stems.—All the many kinds of stems to be found among plants can be divided into groups. First we can separate all kinds of stems that grow in the light from those that grow in the dark, and then we can divide these two great classes. Of the first named we can make five divisions, beginning with climbing stems, such as Ivy and Honeysuckle, and creeping stems like the strawberry.

Our next division includes those stems which grow in an erect position. First, we have the thick, upright woody stems, called trunks—Elm, Oak and Chestnut, for instance. The next division contains such plants as Gorse and Holly, having smaller and more elastic stems, which can be called upright shrubby stems. The fifth section of stems in this class is a large one, including all those soft green herbs or herbaceous plants like the Nettle and Wheat. These are said to have upright herbaceous or upright soft stems.

Of those stems that grow underground in the dark we can make four divisions. These are bulbs, corms,

tubers and rhizomes, or root-stocks, such as those of the Primrose and Cuckoo-pint.

We have seen that the uses of stems are—

- (a) To conduct raw food materials to the leaves;
- (b) To spread out those leaves to the air and sunlight; but we must not forget that
- (c) They also conduct the foods elaborated in the leaves to the storage regions. In other words, stems connect the green leaves, which are the food factories of the plant, with the roots, which are the suppliers or raw materials in the form of water and minerals.

The wind exerts such force on the leaf surface of a tree that elasticity is demanded in the sturdiest of trunks. As the stem bends, the fibres on one side are lengthened and on the other compressed, so that the trunk can regain its former position. Much more is going on in the stem than we can mention. Little as we understand of it, we can yet see that the daily work of the stem entails wonderful complex chemical and mechanical processes.

The circulatory system in a plant is very interesting. It spreads from the roots through trunk and branch into every leaf. The channels consist of masses of tubes sometimes called vascular bundles; they are really old cells whose dead woody substance is strengthened and lengthened to form conduits. These bundles vary in number and position according to the kind of plant. They can be plainly seen in a section of many stems, but the best way to show them is to place a freshly-cut stem—of the Deadnettle, for instance—in a glass of water colored with red ink. Slit the stem when it has been left a day in the solution. The course of the channels is shown by their red color. Besides the vessels there are, tough woody fibres, which, together with the old, dry vessels form the supporting or mechanical tissue of the stem.

When we examine a tree we find that the real living, growing part lies just beneath the bark. The inner part is the wood which mainly forms a support. When a tree is felled and "bleeds" the centre or "heart-wood" is dry enough. The moisture is in the outer layers of the wood—the "sap-wood"; and in the soft layer of cells between the sap-wood and the bark.

#### STEMS

"Enforst to seek some couert nigh at hand,  
A shadie groue not far away they spide,  
That promist ayde the tempest to withstand,  
Whose loftie trees yclad with sommer's pride,  
Did spred so broad that the heauens light did hide,  
Not perceable with power of any starre.

"Much can they prayse, the trees so straight and hy,  
The sayling Pine, the Cedar proud and tall,  
The vine-prop Elme, the Poplar neuer dry.  
The builder Oake, sole king of forests all,  
The Aspine good for staues, the Cypress funerall.

"The Laurel, meed of mightie conquerours,  
And poets Sage; the Firre that weepeth still;  
The Willow worne of forlorne paramours,  
The Eugh, obedient to the bender's will,  
The Birch for shafts; the Sallow for the mill.  
The Mirrhe sweet-bleeding in the bitter wound;  
The war-like Beech; the Ash for nothing ill;  
The fruitful Olive; and the Platane round;  
The caruer Holme; the Maple seldom sound."

*Spencer.*

"Honeysuckle loved to crawl  
Up the low crag and ruined wall."—*Scott.*

"The harebell trembled on its stem  
Down where the washing waters gleam."

*Julia C. R. Dorr.*

"Across the porch  
Thick jasmine twined."—*Coleridge.*

\* \* \* \* \*

"The plant grew thick and fresh, yet no one knew  
What plant it was; its stem and tendrils seemed  
Like emerald snakes, mottled and diamonded  
With azure mail and streaks of woven silver....

It grew;

And went out of the lattice which I left  
Half open for it, trailing its quaint spires  
Along the garden and across the lawn,  
And down the slope of moss and through the tufts  
Of wild flower roots, and stumps of trees o'ergrown  
With simple lichens and old hoary stones."—*Shelley.*

"The Ivy and the wild vine interknit  
The volumes of their many twining stems."—*Shelley.*

"I see a chaos of green leaves and fruit  
Built round dark caverns, even to the root  
Of the living stems that feed them."—*Shelley.*

"A leaning and upbearing parasite  
Clothing the stem, which else had fallen quite  
With clustered flower-bells and ambrosial orbs  
Of rich fruit bunches leaning on each other."

— *Tennyson.*

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**QUESTIONS ON SCOTT'S TALISMAN**

M. Winifred McGray, Yarmouth, N. S.

41. Describe the Master of the Templars and Conrade of Monserrat. Write a brief character sketch of each. Whom did the Venetian government send to watch over Conrade's conduct? Describe this man.
42. Give a brief sketch of the career of Conrade and of the Master of the Templars, showing the influence each has on the plot of the story. Of what crimes was The Templar guilty? How was he punished for his last crime? What was it? Who discovered this last crime? How?
43. Make a collection of the different proverbs quoted. Who quotes them continually?
44. What were the amusements of the English soldiers in Richard's time? In ours? How did Richard win the love of his soldiers? What attention did King George pay his soldiers in order to win their affection? What did Conrade call the English soldiers? What military familiarity did Richard allow? Comment.
45. What was the parable told to the Grand Master by a santon of the desert. Explain its bearing on the then present situation. What is a parable? Name some familiar ones. Explain santon.
46. Give in your own words the gist of the conversation between the Templar and Conrade after their visit to Richard's tent. What did the Templar suggest? Conrade? As far as the success of their plans was concerned, which gave the better advice? What determined Conrade to try milder measures?
47. Write a brief character sketch of Leopold of Austria. Describe his personal appearance. Why did Richard despise him? Who helped to widen the breach? Why? Describe the noonday meal of the Archduke.
48. Write notes on Frangistan, spruchsprecher, blind Baynard, oriflamme of France, Pyrenean shepherds, morrice-dancing, signet of Graougi, Stradiots, the public executioner and the effect he produced on Berengaria, Rosamond of Woodstock minnesingers, Blondel's tale.
49. Find and explain, orisons, a rated hound, the sound of the lands, novices, chaplet, white-stoled, red samite, brindled, coif, biggen, mangonel, demesnes, astucious mark, shalms, keuledrums, los, vert and venison, vespers, a tall man and true, noble art of venerie, uleruat, astrolabe, bills and bows bagnio, book of gramarye, partizans, coil, leasing, dromond, khirkhah, thy tale of patients, charegites, bower-woman, Coptish slaves, soldans, costards, apothegems, morion, a stag of ten tynes, haiks, swart, accipe hoc.
50. Describe the scene on St. George's Mount when the Austrian Standard was removed by Richard. How often does this Mount figure in the story? What important events take place there?

51. Whose appearance calmed both Richard and Leopold? Quote Philip's politic speech. Show how it was politic. Who was delighted with it? Why? What do you think of it?

52. Describe Philip of France and compare him with Richard. What was Richard's opinion of him?

53. Who is the heroine of the story? Describe her personal appearance and character. Compare her with Berengaria. What qualities had she and Richard in common? When do we first meet the heroine? Is the hero worthy of her? Give reasons for your answer. How does she show her affection for the hero? What does Richard think of her? Berengaria? Blondel? Saladin?

**BIRDS AND SPRING MIGRATION**

The tide of bird migration is at its flood. Some by day, and more by night, the little winged travellers have been making their long journey from southern climes, many from the South American Republics, to our northern fields and groves. Others pass on to their nesting grounds in Labrador. The bobolink's "mad music" resounds from the meadows by the river. He has just arrived, this rollicking fellow, from his winter quarters in Central South America, having pulled up some of the young rice for the southern planters on the way, and, although a most delightful bird of unimpeachable manners during his stay with us, will on his fall migration cause great depredations in the rice fields of the Southern States where he is known as the reed or rice bird. One of our birds most famous for the length of its migration route is the Golden Plover. In its spring and fall migrations it travels practically the entire length of the two continents. It winters in Argentina and wings its way up through South America and on to its breeding grounds along the arctic coast of this continent. While the spring migration continues, almost any morning we go out a newcomer will meet our eye or a new song greet our ear. And it is a real delight to welcome back our old bird friends with a bow of recognition.

Now is the time to observe the birds. They all have on their wedding suits and their honeymoon manners. Their little throats are quivering, almost bursting, with their nuptial songs. The season of courtship and nest-building has come. There are interesting little scenes of courtship being enacted in our meadows and groves, some comical, others tragic (for the rejected suitor) and all entertaining, and it is no irreverence to train an opera glass upon such scenes. The ardor, the gallantry and the deep sincerity of a beau flicker suitor will often put to shame the attentions of the beau novice of the higher species whose fancy has lightly turned this springtime to thoughts of love. Yes, now is the time to study birds for soon their family cares will take the song out of their hearts and the gay colors out of their suits.



It is not necessary to travel to the woods at four o'clock in the morning and wade through bogs and swamps in order to enjoy bird life. There are scores flying over your head and singing from the trees on your lawn and in your orchard. Almost any day the Chirping Sparrow can be seen picking up crumbs at your back door and the Downy Woodpecker can be heard drumming to his mate on the rotten limb in the tree in front of your house. Every day the Phoebe and Chebec are telling their names to all who pass under the trees on Granville street, and snapping up flies between the calls. Any day the Purple Finch may be heard singing his sweet love song in the orchard or seen tumbling with quivering wings into a tree top. All winter and even now, the Chickadee could be seen performing gymnastic feats on the twigs of the trees near the house. Almost any day the Spotted Sandpiper will teeter up and down and will call out to all pedestrians who cross the Arboitau "Wet-feet, wet-feet" from his place by the edge of the water. And are not the Chimney Swifts nesting in your chimneys and the Swallows building mud huts under the eaves of your barns? If our eyes are not too fixedly set on the things of the world, and our ears too much filled with the jingle of coin, we may enjoy our bird neighbors without ever turning out of our tracks. With the expenditure of a surprisingly small amount of effort we may enjoy their delightful songs, learn their interesting ways, and watch these little policemen of the air guarding our fields and orchards from the depredations of insect hosts.

The following is a list of the dates of arrival of a few of our common birds this spring. No effort was made to secure scientifically accurate dates of arrival, but those given will be found to be approximately accurate:

- Horned Lark, March 4.
- Robin, March 25.
- Song Sparrow, March 25.
- Junco, March 30.
- Flicker, April 12.
- Purple Finch, April 20.
- Vesper Sparrow, April 20.
- Bronzed Grackle, April 29.
- Myrtle Warbler, May 2.
- Savannah Sparrow, May 6.
- Chipping Sparrow, May 7.
- Yellow Palm Warbler, May 7.
- White-throated Sparrow, May 9.
- Chimney Swift, May 9.
- Barn Swallow, May 9.
- Swallow, May 9.
- Tree Swallow, May 9.
- Chebec, May 11.
- Yellow Warbler, May 14.
- Bobolink, May 15.

- Spotted Sandpiper, May 16.
- American Goldfinch, May 20.
- Black and White Creeping Warbler, May 20.
- Blue-Headed Vireo, May 20.
- Magnolia Warbler, May 20.
- Baby-throated Humming Bird, May 23.
- Kingbird, May 23.
- Maryland Yellow-throat, May 31.
- Rose-breasted Grosbeak, June 1.
- Oven-bird, June 1.
- Black-throated Green Warbler, June 1.
- Northern Parula Warbler, June 1.
- American Redstart, June 1.
- Chestnut-sided Warbler, June 1.
- Belted Kingfisher, June 2.
- Catbird, June 2.
- Red-eyed Vireo, June 3.
- Nighthawk, June 11.

(Written at Bridgetown, N. S., for May and June, 1915, by Rev. G. C. Warren)

#### SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

Dr. Cutten has had trouble lately with an old knee injury, the result of a football accident. He was confined to his bed for a week with it.

Prof. H. G. Perry, of the Biological Department, has been given a term's leave of absence, and is now working in the graduate department of Harvard University.

Dr. W. H. Thompson, professor of Latin, has been called to New Haven by the sudden death of his father.

The chair of Geology, left vacant by the death of the late Prof. Haycock, has been filled temporarily by the appointment of Dr. W. J. Wright to the position for this term. Dr. Wright is a graduate of Acadia, of the class of 1907, and took his doctorate at Yale. He accepted a position with the Canadian Department of Mines, and when war broke out enlisted in the army and went overseas, serving as scout officer in the 219th Battalion and later in the 85th. He was wounded and came home, returning to his position at Ottawa after the armistice was signed. The department permitted him to take up the work at Acadia this term.—*Acadia Bulletin*.

The School Board of the City of Moncton has decided to erect a large school building in the west end of the City to meet the demands for school accommodation made upon it by their increasing population.

Rev. Fr. Tessier, of St. Joseph's College, was in Fredericton on March 27th, attending a meeting of the Vocational Education Committee.

The Intercollegiate debate between the University of New Brunswick and Mt. Allison was held in the Opera House, Fredericton, on Friday evening, March 21st, and resulted in a victory for Mt. A. The subject debated was "Resolved that our Dominion Government should nationalize the Railways of Canada."

# War to Peace

## Make the Returning Soldier Welcome

**T**HIS is an important hour for Canada. The nation is entering on a new era. It is passing from war to peace. Let us start this new era right. There are thousands of soldiers returning from overseas. The Government is doing all in its power to get these men back to civil life.

It is giving a *War Service Gratuity*—more than any other nation—to keep the soldier going till he gets a job.

It gives him a *pension*—where his usefulness is impaired by his service

It teaches a man a new trade when his service unfits him for his former trade.

It gives him free medical treatment when illness recurs, and supplies free artificial limbs and surgical appliances.

It is bringing back to Canada at the public expense the *soldiers' dependents* now overseas.

But the Government, however willing, cannot provide the personal touch needed in this work of repatriation. That must be given by the people themselves.

The men who went from these parts to fight in Flanders deserve a real welcome home—the best we can give.

In most towns committees of citizens have already been organized to meet the soldiers and their dependents at the station, to provide hot meals, supply automobiles, afford temporary accommodation when necessary.

In addition, many other towns are organizing social gatherings to give public welcome to returned men after they have been home a few days.

After he has rested, the soldier must be provided with an opportunity for employment. In towns of 10,000 population, Public Employment Offices have been established to help soldiers, as well as war-workers, secure good jobs quickly. Where these exist, citizens should co-operate. Where they do not exist, the citizens themselves should help put the soldier in touch with employment.

The fighting job is done. It has cost many a heart-burning. But it has been well done. The least we can do is to show our appreciation in no uncertain manner.

Don't let the welcome die away with the cheers.



### The Repatriation Committee

OTTAWA

On March 12th St. Thomas' College, Chatham, a Roman Catholic preparatory school, was burned at an early hour in the morning.

On Thursday evening, March 27th, in an Intercollegiate debate in Immaculate Hall, Antigonish, St. Francis Xavier's debating team defeated the Acadia University, Wolfville, team. The subject of debate was: "Resolved that if the autonomous parts of the Empire unite in a federation for the direction of common policy they shall have an equal voice rather than one based on proportional representation."

J. W. Burns, B. Sc., U. N. B. 1916, who has been taking a post graduate course in Chemistry at Harvard, has been granted a scholarship by the Dominion Research Committee. Mr. Burns will take his course at McGill or Toronto.

#### QUESTION BOX

Margaret M.: (1) That portion of Belgium bordering on France is called Flanders. There are two provinces, East and West Flanders. The inhabitants are called Flemings and their language, Flemish. Strictly speaking the Flemings are not Belgians, but Walloons or Germans.

(2) Standard, or Universal Time, was adopted at an International Conference held at Washington in 1883.

Suppose we join two places, such as Halifax, N. S., and Great Village, Col. Co., N. S., with a line, on the map. This line will run nearly north and south. These two places will have noon *by the sun*, at exactly the same time. All towns east or west of this north and south line, will have noon, either earlier or later. In order that all clocks and watches, within a certain east and west zone be alike, the Conference at Washington divided the world into Time Zones. Greenwich, England, was taken as the centre of the zero zone, which extends  $7\frac{1}{2}$  degrees east, and  $7\frac{1}{2}$  degrees west of Greenwich.

North America was divided into zones each 15 degrees in width.

The Atlantic zone extends from  $52\frac{1}{2}$  degrees W. Long. to  $67\frac{1}{2}$  degrees W. Long.

The Eastern zone from  $67\frac{1}{2}$  degrees W. Long. to  $82\frac{1}{2}$  degrees W. Long., and so on.

All the time-pieces within one zone show the same time, but in passing from one zone to another the watch has to be set back, or ahead, one hour.

Standard Time for Nova Scotia is that of 60 degrees W. Long, or half-way between  $52\frac{1}{2}$  degrees and  $67\frac{1}{2}$  degrees W. Long. When the sun crosses 60 degrees W. Long. it is noon all over Nova Scotia, and between  $52\frac{1}{2}$  and  $67\frac{1}{2}$  degrees W. Long. You can readily see that some such scheme, as was adopted, was necessary in order to make time-tables for railroads.

(3) Some *common* winter birds of Nova Scotia

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are—Blue-jay, English Sparrow, American Crow, Chick-a-dee, Red Poll, and Snow Bunting.

A few *common* summer birds are—Robin, Junco, Myrtle Warbler, Song Sparrow, King Bird, Bobolink, Olive Sided Fly Catcher, and Purple Finch.

(P.S.—Answers to some questions have been unavoidable held over until next issue.—Ed. Rev.)

#### CURRENT ITEMS

Serious uprisings have occurred in Egypt. General Allenby, who took Jerusalem from the Turks, has been sent by the British Government to Egypt to restore order. The situation there is said to be improved.

A delegation of Egyptians is now in Paris to demand complete independence for Egypt under the control of the League of Nations.

An aerial postal service has been instituted between England and the Continent to carry mail to the army of occupation.

It is expected that the Peace Congress will have the Peace Treaty ready to sign by or before the middle of April.

The Government of New Brunswick has introduced a Woman's Suffrage Bill into the Legislature, which will give the franchise to the women on the same terms as to the men.

**PARENT AND TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION**

The Parents' and Teachers' Association of St. Stephen continues to hold its regular monthly meetings on the second Tuesday of each month. Mr. J. L. Haley is the president and the attendance, although not large, is representative of the best life of the community, the leading men of the town showing by their presence their interest in the association and its work.

At the February meeting the subject for discussion was "The Aim of the Public School," and papers on that topic were read by Mr. J. Vroom, Secretary of Trustees; Rev. W. W. Malcolm, Vice-President of the Association, and Miss Thomas and Miss Emma Veazey of the St. Stephen staff.

At the March meeting Judge Cockburn read a splendid paper on "How to make school life more attractive for our children." The paper was followed by a brisk discussion in which many of the members took part.

The topics discussed at these meetings are interesting and timely and the discussions cannot fail to be productive of good to the community. E. V.

**N. B. OFFICIAL NOTICE**

The Board of Education has given authorization to teachers and pupils of the public schools, to co-operate with the National War Savings Committee in the sale of Thrift Stamps and in such propaganda work as may be outlined by that Committee.

A War Book, showing the importance and need of saving, has been sent out to the teachers and pupils, who are earnestly requested to do their utmost to promote the aims of the Committee.

Teachers are requested to carefully read the introduction. It will there be noted that the war book is a text book and some time must be given to it each school day. Thrift Stamps are not for children only, but for every man and woman in the community who can be induced to buy them.

Teachers and pupils can render great service by making known the contents of the War Book to all.

Teachers may act as treasurers for the money contributed for Stamps, and it is expected, will purchase them for any who may desire them to do so.

W. S. CARTER,  
Chief Superintendent of Education.

Education Office, Fredericton, N. B.,  
Dec. 26th, 1918.

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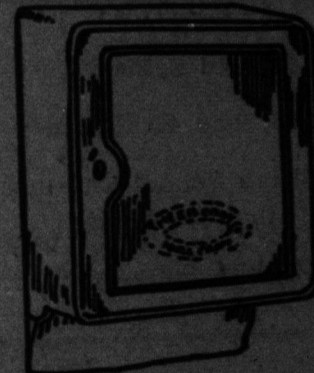
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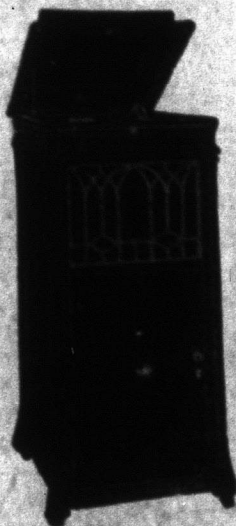
**OFFICIAL NOTICE**

**New Brunswick School Calendar**

1918 — 1919

1919 SECOND TERM

- Apr. 17—Schools close for Easter Holidays.
- Apr. 23—Schools re-open after Easter.
- May 19—Observed as Loyalist Day in St. John Schools only
- May 23—Empire Day.
- May 24—Last day on which Inspectors are authorized to receive applications for July Examinations.
- May 26—Observed as Victoria Day. (School Holiday).
- May 27—Class III License Examinations begin (French Dept).
- June 3—King's Birthday. (Public Holiday).
- June 6—Normal School closes.
- June 10—License Examinations begin.
- June 16—High School Entrance Examinations begin.
- June 27—Public Schools close.



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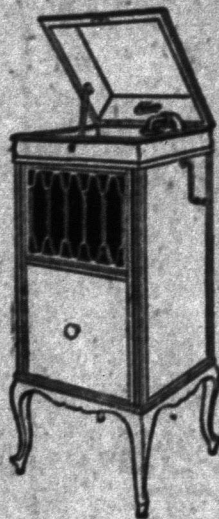
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