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Vol. VI

Toronto, June, 1918

No 10

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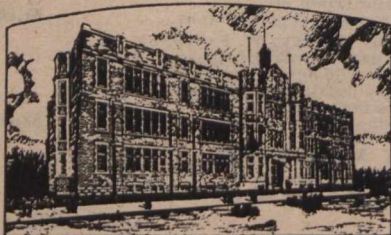
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The School

Faculty of Education Building
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TORONTO

The School

A Magazine devoted to Elementary and Secondary Education in Canada.

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Ontario Department of Education.

The Minister of Education directs attention to the fact that, when some years ago the Ontario Teachers' School Manuals were first introduced, Boards of School Trustees were furnished with a copy of each, bound in paper, free of charge, to be placed in the School Library. For the same purpose, a copy of the "Golden Rule Books' Manual," was supplied free in September, 1915, to all Public Schools, and the Manual entitled "Topics and Sub-Topics," has also been supplied free to schools where there are Fifth Forms.

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TORONTO, May 1st, 1918.

Ontario Department of Education

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High, Continuation, Public and Separate Schools have the following number of teaching days in 1918 :

January.....	21	July.....	
February.....	20	August.....	
March.....	20	Sept.....	19
April.....	17	October.....	23
May.....	22	November.....	22
June.....	19	December.....	15
	<hr/>		<hr/>
	119		79
		Total.....	198

DATES OF OPENING AND CLOSING

Open.....	3rd January	Close.....	28th March
Reopen.....	8th April	Close.....	28th June
Reopen.....	3rd September	Close.....	20th December

NOTE—Easter holidays (29th March to 7th April, inclusive), Midsummer holidays [from 29th June to 2nd September, inclusive], Christmas and New Year's holidays (21st December, 1918 to 2nd January, 1919, inclusive), all Saturdays and Local Municipal Holidays, Dominion or Provincial Public Fast or Thanksgiving Days, Victoria Day the anniversary of Queen Victoria's Birthday (Friday, 24th May), the King's Birthday (Monday, 3rd June), and Labour Day [1st Monday (2nd of September)], are holidays in the High, Continuation, Public, and Separate Schools, and no other days can be deducted from the proper divisor except the days on which the Teachers' Institute is held. The above-named holidays are taken into account in this statement, so far as they apply to 1918, except any Public Fast or Thanksgiving Day, or Local Municipal holiday. Neither Arbor Day nor Empire Day is a holiday.

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(See also inside front cover of this issue)

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The School

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Editorial Notes

A Larger Administrative Unit.

In the May issue of THE SCHOOL Principal McNally made out a strong case for the larger unit in the administration of rural schools in Alberta; at the O.E.A. the Inspectors' section seemed to be unanimous in urging the same reform; in Saskatchewan the expert who made the recent survey recommends the larger administrative unit. So far, no educationist seems to have expressed himself as being opposed to the change demanded. Teachers might test the feeling of rural communities by discussing the matter with their trustees and by asking their opinions of the article mentioned.

That some reform is necessary in the present rural school system in all Provinces of this Dominion everyone who has studied existing conditions will admit. As to what change or changes are necessary there will, of course, be differences of opinion. Many maintain that consolidation of schools will solve the problem. And certainly there is much to be said in its favour. Think of the ten or more little rural schools in most townships; the attendance from five to forty; five, six, seven, eight, nine, or ten classes in each school; one teacher trying to do justice to all these grades. Eight classes are engaged in 'seat-work' while one class is reciting. What a tremendous waste of time! It is impossible that all members of those eight classes are fully and profitably employed while the teacher instructs the ninth class. One who has made a careful investigation estimates that eighty-five per cent of the rural pupil's time is spent in 'seat-work' and that most of this work lacks purpose, sequence, motivation. Again, think of the multitudinous subjects in which one teacher must instruct all these classes. Some will certainly be neglected for lack of time, lack of interest, or lack of ability on the teacher's part. And in addition to the traditional subjects and some 'newer' subjects, there is agriculture and there is school gardening

for which the teacher may be poorly equipped by inclination or by training. Is it any wonder that the present system is accused of educating children away from the farm?

Imagine those ten little schools merged into one larger school of four rooms. Now there are only two grades in each classroom; only one class is engaged in seat-work while the other class recites; special attention to individual pupils is now possible; no time need be wasted. At least one teacher on the staff is particularly interested in agriculture and school gardening and takes the supervision of that work. Time and energy are conserved; discipline is in many respects better; the children are educated for the farm, not away from it; and (oh! happy result!) salaries are larger and teachers more competent.

But the consolidated school is slow in coming and the administrative system of small independent school sections seems to be the chief obstacle. No section wishes to be deprived of its own 'little red schoolhouse' no matter what the prospective advantages or the prospective economies. Perhaps, if it had been the custom or the law that the inhabitants of each city block should elect three school trustees of their own, there might now be a little school in the centre of every block in every city, each with its own teacher and with all the grades represented!

Advocates of consolidated schools maintain that the larger administrative unit is essential to the betterment of rural school conditions. Are there any disadvantages in the consolidated system? Will opponents of the scheme send their objections to this journal so that the matter may be fully discussed?

The Long Vacation.

To the teacher's conscience (and there is no conscience more sensitive than the teacher's) the problem of this year's vacation comes more forcibly than in any year in the world's history. Is the word 'vacation' to drop entirely from the teacher's vocabulary? It would appear so. After ten months of toil than which none makes greater demands on the nervous system, after ten months spent in a classroom more or less (usually less) hygienic, after ten months spent in encouraging, urging, guiding, restraining numerous budding citizens, may not the weary teacher *rest*? Not for long. Before the war (how long ago that seems!) it was believed that an occasional teacher spent the whole two months in a state of absolute rest. That is no longer possible. The Canada Food Board in its advertisement in the May number of *THE SCHOOL* suggests how teachers may help in the present crisis. And teachers will respond as they always do and always have done. Then, in all Provinces, the Summer School beckons to those who wish to improve their status as teachers and the State, especially at this time, requires

the very best that teachers can qualify themselves to do in their own profession. Health, too, for next year's work must receive due consideration. Health, food production, improved attainments—these three, in varied order of importance, present their urgent claims for valuation; and for himself or for herself the teacher decides. If room is to be made for all there are two busy months ahead!

That June Feeling.

“What is so rare as a day in June? Then, if ever, come perfect days.” So perfect are June days that frequently a feeling of languor steals over the classroom, affecting teacher and pupils alike. Perhaps it is in High School; all the work has been thoroughly covered; the responsibility is now on the students (and it sits lightly there); deadening reviews are the order of the day; it is difficult to be enthusiastic and energetic. Perhaps it is in Public School and the stress of examinations is not so potent; the children are restless, anxious for long intermissions and unending games; the weather is ‘too nice’ for indoor work.

But there is really no excuse for this inertia, for imagining that June is the ‘fag end’ of the year and that it counts for little. One's duty is not performed by merely ‘keeping school’ this month. It is criminal to waste time when there is so little of it for the immense amount of work that waits to be done. Is there not a new book that will throw a different light on the subject in hand and will make the review seem like a new lesson? Is there not some subject that has been neglected or has been treated as a ‘side issue’ during the year? Now is the time to concentrate on that subject. Are there not many *new* things, many interesting things, to be done in June? The teacher who takes the trouble to crowd this last month of the year full of useful, profitable activities will enjoy every day of it—and the one who lets things ‘drift’ will feel that June is interminable.

Teachers' Contracts.

Yes, it is a temptation, and it seems a hardship, when a contract has been made to stay in the same school next year with an increase of fifty dollars and an opportunity for a hundred-dollar increase in a new school looms up. But a contract is a contract. Usually there need be no great hurry to make one. Once made, the ethics of the profession demands that the contract be kept, no matter what the temptation to break it. Let it not be said that teachers regard contracts lightly.

And it is worth while to stay in the same school another year. A teacher with a reputation for good work in the same school for three successive years is ready for almost anything the profession has to offer.

**Grammar School
Masters Wanted
(in 1849).**

The accompanying advertisements from the *Toronto Globe* of October, 1849, need no comment; the interesting features are sufficiently obvious. However, one cannot help wondering what took place at Prescott when all the applicants for the vacant position had assembled.

GRAMMAR SCHOOL MASTERS WANTED

The Trustees of the Grammar Schools in the Home District are ready to receive applications for the situations of Master in the three Schools about to be established in the villages of Newmarket, Streetsville, and Whitby, respectively. The sum of £75 (exclusive of fees from pupils) will be given to every one of the appointed Masters for the remainder of the year 1849.

Application to be made (if by letter, post-paid) to

REV. H. J. GRASETT, M.A.,
Chairman, Board of Trustees.

Toronto, October 12th, 1849.

WANTED.

A Qualified Teacher for the Prescott Grammar School. Applications may be made (if by letter, post-paid) to Alfred Jones, Esq., or to Rev. R. Boyd.

Candidates are requested to attend on Saturday, the 20th inst., at the Prescott Grammar School house, at the hour of 3 o'clock p.m.

A. JONES, *Chairman,*
R. BOYD, *Secretary.*

Prescott, October 8th, 1849.

Evidently there was not much specialization in the early Grammar Schools. A master was expected to teach any subject on the curriculum. How would the salaries now paid in High Schools compare with the remuneration offered by the Home District Board? It is quite apparent that the trustees of those by-gone days practised economy—it was no part of their design to pay the postage on applications!

Choosing Subjects for Composition

PROFESSOR O. J. STEVENSON, M.A., D.PAED.

Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph.

A FEW years ago, when a long list of composition subjects appeared in *THE SCHOOL*, there was a "run" on that particular number, and the same thing happened the following year when the list was reprinted. The evidence in both cases pointed to the fact that many teachers find it difficult to think of suitable subjects and are glad to avail themselves of a ready-made list. And yet, to the teacher who goes at his task in the right way, a ready-made list must always prove less satisfactory than one which he makes for himself.

The chief reason why some teachers fail to provide good subjects is that they do not spend enough time in the search, and do not study the personal interests of their pupils. In choosing subjects for High School classes I used to follow a systematic plan. When the time came to make up my list I used to ask myself such questions as these: What is the chief topic of interest in the newspapers this week? Has any important event taken place recently in the town or city? Has the weather been unusual? Is there any holiday or local celebration of special importance, close at hand? What are the boys interested in at home? What are the girls interested in? What sports do the boys and girls engage in? What farm operations are taking place at this time of year? What industries or activities of the town are these pupils interested in? Is there anything of special interest in the history or the literature that I can send them to the library to look up? By means of these and similar questions I scanned the horizon weekly, and I entered my list of subjects up in a book kept for the purpose. It must not be inferred, however, that my choice of subjects was left until the last minute. The teacher of composition must always be on the alert, with both eyes open for good subjects; and in most cases it took me only a few minutes to make my list because I had already made note of my subjects, on the way to school, at the skating rink, while reading the newspaper, when out for a walk in the country, whenever anything came to my notice that could be utilized as a subject.

And even after a list has been made for the class as a whole, there is sometimes a boy or a girl in the class for whom special provision must be made. I shall not soon forget my experience with a boy who could not write, or thought he could not, on any of the subjects I had given him. I have no doubt now that he was quite right. If he really had nothing to say on any of the subjects how could he write? Anyway, no threats of loss of marks or other penalties on my part could move him. Finally, after he had missed several compositions I said to him, "I have a special subject for you, Frank; tell me all you can about the little ravine that runs behind your house". The effect was magical. He knew that ravine and loved it. The song sparrows were earlier there in springtime than anywhere else; the white-throats always lingered there on their way north and sang their song of 'Canada'. The hepaticas and trilliums covered the hillsides, and the bloodroot bloomed in the moist corners of the little valley. For him every tree and every fallen log had a history of its own. From that day forward I never had any trouble with Frank except that I had to repress his natural tendency to write 'flowery' compositions.

But it is not enough to choose your subjects carefully; you must see that they are worded in such a way as to appeal to the pupil. It is

a mistake, in the first place, to make your subjects too broad and too abstract. Such a subject, for example, as "Canada in War Time" is too general. The field is so large that the pupil does not know where to begin, and if he does write on it he is sure to make general statements. Some one phase of the subject should be chosen, as, for instance, "How Canada raised her Army", or "What our town is doing to win the War". And it goes without saying that the subject should be made as personal and as concrete as possible. It is not an easy matter to write on "Our Wheat Harvest" or even "A Field of Wheat"; but a school boy will write with a good deal of interest on "The Day I Drove the Binder". A pupil is naturally repelled by such a subject as "The Value of an Education"; but he will debate the subject as to whether it is better for a boy or a girl to go to High School or take a position in a drygoods store. Last week I wished to give as a subject for a first-year class "The advantages of a course at the O.A.C."; but instead of wording it in that form I asked them to write a letter to a chum at home to persuade him to attend the O.A.C. next year.

Out of curiosity I have just turned up the book in which I entered the subjects assigned to composition classes in my first year of High School teaching, and the sight of it makes me shudder! Here are the first twelve subjects in the list: A Drive Across the Country; Superstitions; The Necessity of Ideals; Habit; An Old Bridge; The Choice of a Profession; Recent Advances in Photography; The First Frost; A Public Holiday; The Study of Botany; The Corner of a Market Place; The English Sparrow. It is no wonder that the boy Frank, of whom I have spoken, set his teeth hard, with a look of grim determination, and said, "I can't write on any of them subjects". And yet to my knowledge there are schools in Ontario in which just such subjects are still given. The possession of a university degree is no guarantee that the teacher is likely to be sane and sensible in assigning composition subjects. Sometimes there are assigned to ten-year-old country children subjects upon which the graduate in philosophy would find it difficult to gather sufficient material to fill a foolscap page. It is sometimes more blessed to give than to receive. Before assigning a subject to a class it is always worth while to ask yourself whether you could write a composition on it.

One kind of subject that is run to death, usually by the ill-prepared teacher, is the reproduction story; and the worst of it is that the stories for reproduction are, more frequently than not, unsuitable. In most cases it is difficult to conceive of any great enthusiasm being aroused on the part of the pupil in retelling the story; it is "cauld kale rehet".

Two years ago when visiting at a farm house in Western Ontario I asked the eight-year-old boy (in the Second Book) whether he had to write any compositions. "Yes", he said. "The teacher read us the

story of King Lear to-day, and we had to write it." King Lear!! What interest has an eight-year-old farm boy in King Lear? He was interested in the colt which his father had given him to take care of, in the transplanting of a bed of strawberries which his uncle from the city had undertaken to superintend, in the kinds of weeds that grew in the bean field which he was helping to hoe, in the katydids that kept up an uninterrupted duet all night long in the trees in front of the house, in the raccoon that visited the farm yard one rainy night, and in the hen-hawk and the weasel that killed his mother's chickens. He could have written a small volume on these and similar things at the farm, but he struggled for a full half hour to get a single sentence of the story of King Lear which the teacher, fresh from the training school, had required the class to reproduce. As a matter of interest, I drew up that afternoon a list of subjects on which it seemed to me the boy or girl in the rural school might have something to say. The list is imperfect, but it may contain suggestions for the rural school teacher who has hitherto overlooked the "rural" interests of her boys and girls.

1. The Colt. 2. How to tell a Beech from an Elm, or a Maple. 3. Gathering Nuts. 4. Weeding the Garden. 5. Our Turkeys. 6. Putting up a New Fence.
7. A Good Barn. 8. Potato Bugs (what they are, how to get rid of them, etc.). 9. The Wood-pile. (Where we get the wood, the kind of wood, etc.). 10. The Commonest Weed in Our Fields. (What it is like, how we get rid of it, etc.). 11. How the Farm Animals go to Sleep. 12. Loading and Unloading Hay. 13. Summer Fallow. (What is it? Why is it necessary?) 14. Making Bread. 15. The Cream Separator. (What it is like. What use is it? What trouble is it?) 16. Barbed Wire Fences. (What they are like. What use are they? etc.). 17. Some different kinds of Farm Gates. 18. Apple Pie. (Getting the apples, making the pie, etc.). 19. Getting up at Daylight. 20. The Day the Storm Came. 21. Elderberries. (Where they grow, what they look like, etc.). 22. Doing the Chores. 23. Our Collie. 24. A Wormy Apple. (How the worm comes to be there). 25. When the Lightning Struck the Tree. 26. The Disk Harrow. (What is it like? How it works). 27. A Woodchuck's Hole. 28. Getting the Horses Shod. 29. Signs of Rain. 30. Filling the Silo. 31. A Bat. (What it looks like. Its habits). 32. A Lantern and a Lamp. (The difference in appearance and use.) 33. Indian Turnip. (The flower, the seed, the taste.) 34. How I Climbed the Tree. (Why I climbed it. The difficulty. How I got down.) 35. Clover, Alfalfa and Timothy. (The difference.) 36. A Rotten Log. (What it looks like. What makes it rot, etc.). 37. Pop Corn. (What the corn is like. How it is popped. How it is served.) 38. The Day I fell into the Creek. 39. Making Taffy. 40. Our Telephone. 41. Drilling for Water. 42. Gravel. (What is it? How it is used. Where do we get it?) 43. The Brush Pile. (What is it made of? What is under it? The birds and animals. How it is burned.) 44. How we Scrubbed the Floor. 45. The Old Mare. 46. Barn Swallows. (What they look like. Where they build, etc. 47. A Horse's Harness. (The different parts and their use.) 48. Some of the Thieves that Rob the Farmer. (Insects, weeds, animals, etc.). 49. The Incubator. (How it works.) 50. Making Pickles. 51. How I groom the horse. 52. The Vines on our House. (Kind, when planted, what they look like.) 53. Gathering the Eggs. 54. The Day I went to the Mill. 55. Husking Corn. 56. A Stile—How it is made. 57. The Wind Mill. (How it works. What use it is.)

58. The Way Our Farm is Drained. (The tile ditch, the open drain.) 59. The Straw Stack. (How it was built. The animals that use it, etc.). 60. Horse Chestnuts. (The tree, the flower, the nuts, the name).

Note to the Teacher—These are only suggested subjects. Every pupil has experiences of his own about which he may prefer to write. If the whole list is posted up pupils may be able to choose any one that suits them. They should be given a chance to talk over their subject at home before writing. The teacher will need to talk to each pupil separately, and find out what his experiences are and perhaps suggest how he should begin. The pupil should be left to plan his work in a natural way and should write as much or as little as he pleases. In some cases one paragraph may be sufficient.

I am of the opinion that in senior Public School classes and the junior classes of the High School most of the written work in composition should consist of single paragraphs only; and in that case the subjects should be narrowed still further. The advantage of one-paragraph compositions is that the teacher can read a set of them in a short time and can examine them more carefully than in the case of long compositions; and the pupil will rewrite a single paragraph with much more care than a longer composition. Besides, the single paragraph gives the teacher an opportunity to judge of the fundamental things in paragraph structure, sentence structure, language, and form. When only one paragraph is required it is sometimes advisable to give a general subject, with instructions to the pupils to choose some particular phase of it to write upon. For instance: "Give an account, in a single paragraph, of any piece of household work or farm work that you have done". "Describe in a single paragraph the place you would choose to go for a picnic".

And, finally, in choosing subjects for either a single paragraph or a longer composition it should always be remembered that the interest in dramatization is strong in children of all ages, and the subject may sometimes be thrown into a form which will provide expression for this dramatic instinct. Instead of writing on "Making Munitions", what boy or girl would not rather make the shell or the bullet tell its own story? And there is a good deal more fun in making the old plough-horse give his impressions of the threshing machine than in writing a stodgy composition on "Threshing on the Farm". Of course, that sort of thing is unreal, and there is a limit to the amount of it to be given to any class; but you will read and correct these compositions with more interest than those written on dry-as-dust subjects.

The Serbian boys in this country are making rapid progress in English. The extent of their attainments may be judged from the following story, which is vouched for as authentic. One of the boys was asked to translate from Serbian into English the following sentence:

"He gave up his life on the battlefield."

With the help of a dictionary he produced the version:

"He relinquished his vitality on the bellicose meadow."—*Tit-Bits*.

The First Duty of Teachers

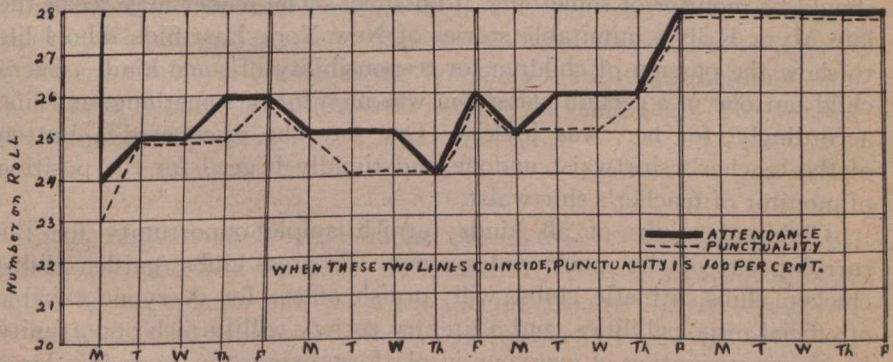
(Continued from the May number).

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WHILE educating the parents in the manner outlined, it is necessary that the teacher should use other devices to secure more regular attendance, especially if it is below an average of ninety per cent of enrolment.

Such means as the telephone, notes, and personal calls at once suggest themselves, and are doubtless used by most teachers to some extent. These means should be used still more energetically or in common parlance "for all they are worth"! But there are other means; legitimate use can be made of composition in many ways. Even the setting up of a standard for each month will accomplish much. Tell the children on Friday night that next week is to be a banner week—every pupil asked to be present every day on time. Two or three schools near together should compare attendance records month by month in order to see which school has the highest average attendance. Reports of the average monthly attendance of each school at township fair gathering should stimulate regular attendance. If the teacher is wise she will have an attendance committee of older pupils.

The teacher may make use of graphs of attendance so as to bring clearly before the children the meaning of regular attendance. The concrete presentation appeals to children and makes both teacher and children familiar with this modern way of presenting reports.



A record of tardiness could be kept on the same chart, starting at some high level and trying to keep it there. Every day's record is more

effective than a weekly average and it constitutes a register of daily attendance and punctuality if the figures on the left represent the actual daily attendance, the highest representing the enrolment. Furthermore, the inspector can see at a glance the two important records that he always wants to see. The whole record can be kept on cards, five by nine inches, ruled to represent a month's record and these can be filed for ready reference. Let the older pupils keep the graph filled in daily.

School mottoes and names are inspiring. In cities the "Connaught School" is better than Ward Three School, or No. 49, and in the country "The Black Creek School", is better than No. 3 D——. If, in addition, either of these schools has the motto, "Every Moment Counts," or a similar maxim, there is a stimulus to be true to its fundamental truth.

Every Public School teacher should have a copy of the Canadian Standard Efficiency Tests for Boys, and Canadian Girls in Training, ten cents each, both of which offer stimulating suggestions in the line of charting work. Organized Sunday School classes offer many good suggestions to teachers of our Public Schools. These classes have a name, a motto, a registration certificate and strong committees to carry on their work. Study them and see how their organization has increased Sunday School attendance in America a million a year for the past three years.

But the highest means of all is the vitalized work of the school. Make every day worth while, so that, as in the Porter School, already mentioned, children will call up the teacher by telephone and ask that certain lessons be held over until they can attend. The important principle to observe in this connection is "Let the pupils carry the responsibility of as much of the school's activities as possible". Each child should be monitor of something, if possible. The reader may recall the late Myra Kelly's inimitable stories of New York East Side school life to show the passion of children for responsibility of some kind. Every child but one in a certain classroom was monitor of something, and life, accordingly, for her, was joyless. One day she discovered a button of the teacher's shirtwaist undone and timidly begged for the position of monitor of teacher's shirtwaist.

Children's clubs of all kinds furnish ample opportunity for the carrying out of the monitorial system. Progress clubs, garden clubs, chicken clubs, athletic clubs, will furnish offices for everyone capable of official responsibilities, and a literary society will furnish opportunity for the participation of everyone in platform expression, even in a large school. During recreation hours there should be supervised games and play. The teacher who looks upon this as an irksome task has not yet experienced the full benefit of it in the general spirit of the school.

A teacher's life is not an easy one. Even if she should be willing to do all that has been suggested up to this point, there is much work that she cannot do both for lack of time and for lack of ability; perhaps the best classroom teacher may be a poor play leader and a complete failure in dealing with parents. Moreover, the very time that the cases of absenteeism should be investigated is during the day when the teacher is busy. At four o'clock the teacher thinks, "John will be here tomorrow", and soon a whole week has passed. Hence, many boards of education are appointing teacher visitors and attendance officers, who are expected to make the position of truant officer unnecessary. The visiting teacher would occupy the same relation to the child's mental condition that the school nurse occupies in relation to the physical. I wonder whether it would not be possible in most large schools to set free one teacher for half a day each week to do this kind of work.

"In Brandon a woman was appointed as attendance officer to give her mornings to this work, her afternoons being devoted to work in the superintendent's office. . . . The compulsory idea was kept well in the background. Altogether four hundred and forty-nine visits were made to homes. Every influence was brought to bear to induce careless parents to send their children willingly. Only as a last resort was a "final notice" sent. During the year only twenty-six of these notices were sent out. In eighteen of these cases it was sufficient; the children were sent. Four cases were taken to the magistrate, and in two cases with good results. . . . The fact that thirty children, who previously were not attending school, were found and required to go to school, is justification enough for the time and expense put upon this work. . . . The average monthly attendance for the year was 86.2% as compared with 84.8% last year". It is apparent that work of this kind cannot be done in rural communities. In them the whole work will usually fall upon one teacher. But would it not be possible to interest a Mother's Club or a branch of the Women's Institute in these matters? Then there is play, the most vital activity of child life. The teacher should make the most of it.

TRUANCY.

Little remains to be said about the method of dealing with real truancy. If the field has been thoroughly covered as described, there should be no truants and no work for the truant officer. However, we know that no efforts are wholly successful and we expect that in most urban centres there will be found an occasional truant; that is, a boy who is unsocial, preferring solitude and freedom in the fields and woods to community life and restriction as found in the school. Success with these abnormal boys demands patient effort on the part of the teacher

when the boy is kept at school to develop his social nature. Usually, such training will be based upon work which allows the boy considerable freedom and activity. Hence, the ordinary routine work of the school is not likely to appeal to these boys; indeed, it is very irksome to them. In most large centres special classes are formed for these pupils, when they can have the kind of training that they need (see article on Discipline, p. 368, January issue). An American educational speaker, at the O.E.A. a few years ago, told of a confirmed truant in New York whose work in school was made so interesting that when he had to leave school to earn his living he used to play truant from his work to get back to school!

Judge Lindsey of Colorado has dealt with all kinds of culprits of both sexes and claims that every boy and girl is redeemable. Every teacher should read about his work in *Upbuilders*, by Lincoln Steffens, before becoming pessimistic about confirmed truants.

The Truancy Act requires that every municipal council of a city, town, or village "shall appoint, control, and pay, one or more truant officers for the enforcement of this act", but, "the council of a county or township *may* annually appoint one or more truant officers". As a matter of fact these councils do not appoint truant officers and if they did it is doubtful whether the appointee would do very much by way of carrying out the law. Consequently, the improvement of rural attendance falls back upon the teacher and inspector who should strive to improve attendance by the present scheme of monthly reports by each teacher to the inspector of all pupils, who, for other causes than illness, have not attended eighty per cent of the number of school days for that month. This plan has brought about some improvement in the attendance but not enough to bring the average rural attendance up to eighty per cent of the enrolment, whereas in cities the monthly attendance, in the absence of serious epidemics, may not fall as low as ninety per cent, the standard of excellence adopted at the beginning of this paper.

I am firmly of the opinion that as in ordinary conduct more is to be accomplished by persuasion than by force, so in this matter of improving attendance, both in urban and in rural centres, we must depend almost wholly upon the influences mentioned earlier in this article. The people must be shown the value of education and every influence available must be brought to bear by the teachers, inspectors, and trustees to secure a willing compliance with the law; indeed, to do better than the law requires not only during the compulsory school age of eight to fourteen years, but also before and after those ages.

There is another phase of this question that ought to be considered; that is, the increase of the enrolment.

Many of our rural schools are uninspiringly small. Look through the latest report of schools for Ontario and notice how many are below

twenty in average attendance, and still others below even ten. I believe that most of these sections have more children in them who could attend school, some even under age, but many who have passed the entrance or who are over fourteen years of age. Isn't it time that the clause allowing children who have passed the entrance to cease attending school should be repealed? No child can be educated by the time he is eleven or twelve years of age, even though he is able to pass the entrance examination. There is, therefore, still room to make schooling compulsory in rural sections up to fourteen years of age, at least. Something further should be done to continue attendance for the winter months up to at least sixteen years of age. I do not advocate this, however, unless provision is made for a really vital course of study for such pupils. Such a course would demand much thought on the part of the educational authorities.

Then there are pupils in many sections near towns and cities who attend the urban schools rather than their own. These should be enticed to their own school by a new spirit in the community. It has been done. Reference was made, in an article on Discipline in the January issue, to the Porter School in Missouri, in which the enrolment was increased from below twenty to as high as forty by vitalizing the work, improving the plant, and developing the community spirit through organizations. There is much room in Canada for this kind of work. It means more enthusiasm for education in line with the needs of the community.

This leads naturally to the consideration of the Adolescent School Attendance Act of Ontario, in which 'Adolescent' means "one who has passed the High School entrance examination or completed the course of the fourth form of the Public Schools or an equivalent course, and is under the age of seventeen years or who is not less than fourteen nor more than seventeen years of age".

The Act is not compulsory, however, and is limited to city, town, or village schools. Article 3 provides that "A board *may* pass by-laws requiring the attendance of adolescents in a city, town, or village under the jurisdiction of the board at day or evening classes to be established by the board or at some other classes or school in the municipality".

I am informed by the Deputy Minister of Education that no board in Ontario has yet made use of the Act to secure the advantages of education for the class of pupils mentioned, so that there seems to be need of considerable agitation throughout the country in order to make the provisions of the Act effective, and its application should be extended to rural sections. The Industrial Education Act has no compulsory features either, so that, excellent as the work of industrial schools and classes is, their influence and value are necessarily limited by their optional nature.

Who was Right, and Why?

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THE following story is intended to teach several things:

1. That in adjectives in—us, a, um (including adjectival pronouns, etc.) the nominative and vocative feminine singular and the nominative accusative and vocative neuter plural end in “a” short.
2. The 2nd singular, present imperative active, of verbs of the 1st conjugation ends in “a” long.
3. The adjective does not always precede the noun which it qualifies; and, indeed, is often separated from it by one or more words.
4. “Est” is the 3rd person singular, present indicative, of “edo, edere, ēdi, ēsum,” *to eat* as well as of “esse” *to be* (sometimes instead of “edo, es, est”, we have “edo, edis, edit;” both forms are allowable and they are about equally common).
5. The ancient Romans used only capital letters.
6. They had no punctuation and did not always even separate their words.
7. And most of all, the very great importance of quantity in reading Latin.
8. The incidental lesson that with all due care in translating Latin, you cannot always tell whether you are absolutely right.

An archaeological expedition was digging in the site of an ancient garden near Naples when a stone was turned up with the inscription:

MEAMATERESTMALASUS*

Forthwith the savants set to work to interpret—the first thing to do was to divide the inscription into words.

J. Canuck Beaver read it thus: “Meam ater est mala sus”—and believing that “meam” referred to some word understood, such as “culinam”, he translated “The bad black pig is eating my vegetables”.

Herr von Schwartz roared with laughter. “‘Ater’, ‘mala’, ‘sus’—how coult a pick pe ein ‘mala’ poar oder eine ‘ater’ sow?” He divided the words thus: “Mea mater est mala sus”; and in this the rest of the scholars agreed. But when the German went on to shout “Mine frient, it chust means ‘my mudder is a vile pick’”, there was much shaking of learned heads.

*This sentence was given to me *Consule Planco* by a Scottish farmhand on a Canadian farm.

"No," said the Reverend Dr. Saunders McSpleuchan, "it should be punctuated 'Mea, mater, est mala sus', and it means 'Mother, my pig is bad'. This did not suit the Parisian, Mons. de Boulogne: 'Non, non, ze pig is not pad, ze pig is in ze vocative, 'O pig, my muzzer is pad'".

"Fer the love o' Mike" broke in Jonathan Washington Eagle, "can't you see the first 'a' in 'mala' is long? It means 'My mother, the pig is eating the fruit': (of course they all knew that "malum" means any kind of tree-fruit like apples, pears, quinces, peaches, oranges, etc., with the fleshy part outside and the kernel inside, as distinguished from "nux" which has the meat inside).

S. Togo applauded, but said, "If the honourable American will allow me to venture to think so, the possessive pronoun belongs to 'mala' not to 'mater': and the inscription means 'Mother, the pig is eating my apples'".

"D'ye say so, now?" said Patrick Shamrock, "and why not 'Mother, my pig is eating the apples'?"

Signor Garibaldi, prefacing his remarks with three profound genuflections, begged to suggest that it was the pig which was addressed, and that the mother was imitating her great ancestrix Eve, "Pig, my mother is eating the apples". Ah Sin thought it rather "O pig, mother is eating my apples". Professor von Wien said, "You are all wrong; the ultimate of 'mea' is long, not short. 'Mother, get a move on, the pig is eating the fruit': Hetman Cossack cried "No, no, brothers, 'est' is from 'esse' not from 'edo': 'Run, mother, the pig is bad'."

John Bull England broke in "Why don't you say, 'Hurry up, pig, mother is eating the apples'?" And Signor Miguel, the man from Mexico, insisted on "Run, pig, mother is bad".

And they argued and argued with ever-rising wrath and openly expressed contempt till the meeting broke up with fierce words and fiercer looks.

There were thirteen separate reports on the "find"—no two of them agreeing—and *sub judice lis est*.

Who was right, and why?

Unlike most little boys who have never attended school, little Arthur was firm in his determination not to go. Finally his favorite Aunt Emma was called in. "Why, surely, Arthur," said his aunt, "you are going to school with your big sister in the fall."

"No, I'm not going to school at all," steadfastly declared the little chap. "I can't read, nor I can't write, nor I can't sing; so I'd like to know what good I'd be at school!"

Professor to Old Cook—"Regina, you have been with me now twenty-five years. In reward for your faithful service I have decided to name this new beetle, which I have discovered, after you."

A Study of Some Plant Foods

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WITH the coming of spring, student and teacher welcome the opportunity to transfer some of their activities from the school-room to the school yard. The pupils welcome the change from a routine of five or six hours spent daily over a desk and respond with eagerness and a quickened intellect when allowed to take their lessons out-of-doors.

To the teacher of agriculture this surely proves an aid and so long as the interest of the pupils can be retained, the teacher may count on being the captain of a faithful band of disciples of Agricola who are willing to learn, even under the penalty of acquiring a few blisters or expending a certain amount of perspiration.

Retention of the pupils' interest will be dependent in a great measure upon definiteness of aim in conducting the work in the school garden. Hence, the work of each plot should give some definite result by way of showing some fact or illustrating some principle. If this aim be combined with that of interesting the pupil in the appearance of his plot the best results may be looked for.

In planning experiments for the gardens the teacher may be somewhat at a loss to provide subjects. Since the study of fertilizers and soil fertility is of some importance as an economic problem, particularly when the call everywhere is for greater production, some of the plots should be so planned as to provide an opportunity to study the effects of different simple fertilizers and mixtures of fertilizers on different crops.

The work may be introduced by a study of the requirements of the plant as seen in the natural provisions made for it in the seed and by a discussion of the sources of food supply.

Experiment 1. Procure some kernels of corn and crush them to a fine powder. Add a drop of iodine solution to the finely-ground corn. Compare the colour given with that shown when iodine is added to a "solution" of laundry starch. Extend the tests to other seeds. Seeds contain starch, the constituents of which (carbon and water) are obtained from the air and the soil-water. Carbon is taken in the form of carbon dioxide and united with water in the leaf to make the starch-forming substances.

Experiment 2. Procure some bits of grass, wood, and starch. Heat these in a test tube or tin vessel out of contact with the flame. The

contents become charred, showing the presence of carbon. Steam is given off and thus water is shown to be present.

Experiment 3. Heat some scraps of grass or other vegetable matter as in Experiment 2, but mix with these a mixture of caustic soda and lime. In the fumes driven off, hold a piece of moist red litmus paper. Compare the result with that obtained when a similar piece of paper is held in the fumes of ammonia. The result indicates the presence of ammonia, the chief constituent of which is nitrogen.

Nitrogen is taken up by nearly all plants from the soil, in the form of its compounds which are in solution in the soil-water. Although the air contains about 79% of free nitrogen, no plants except a few, such as clovers, beans, peas, vetches, and a few related plants can use it. All other plants depend upon the food in the soil for their supply of this very important element.

Experiment 4. Repeat Experiment 2 and heat until all the substances have been burned except a grey ash. This consists of mineral substances which cannot be burned and contains, in varying proportions, some twelve or more plant substances which must be provided in the plant food. Of these, only three are important from the standpoint of fertilizers,—nitrogen, the presence of which has been shown, potash and phosphorus. These are used most rapidly by growing plants and their supply from the soil does not keep pace with the plants' demand for, or ability to take, food. The remaining food substances are usually present in the soil in sufficient quantity to support the plant in a healthy growing condition. It is the farmer's problem, therefore, to keep up the supply of those foodstuffs which are most rapidly depleted. To do this intelligently and economically he must study the needs of different crops, the values of the different available fertilizers and the needs of the soil which is to be treated. The only satisfactory and trustworthy method of doing this is by plot experiments.

Nitrogen, one of the three foods mentioned above, is perhaps the most important—if one food necessary for a balanced ration may be more important than another—and in pre-war days was one of the most expensive fertilizers to buy. Now, however, potash is dearer because of the reduced supply.

In the absence of nitrogen the plant makes no appreciable growth; with only a limited supply, the plant begins to grow in the ordinary way, but as soon as the available nitrogen is used up, the lower and smaller leaves gradually begin to die down from the tips and all the plant's energy is centred in one or two leaves. Also, since it is a constituent of the green colouring matter of the leaves, in its absence the leaves assume a sickly yellow colour.

Plants with large, well-developed leaves are not suffering from lack of nitrogen. An abundance of this substance produces a luxuriant leaf and stem growth but it will retard maturity and, with cereals, will frequently cause the crop to lodge. Therefore, when crops, such as cereals, tomatoes, potatoes, etc., are to be matured, an over-supply of nitrogen is injurious, but with crops such as lettuce, cabbage, and celery, which are harvested in the green condition, an abundance of nitrogen will produce vigorous growth and give a crispness of quality to the crop.

The sources of nitrogen and its compounds, for use as fertilizers, are mainly barnyard manure, dried blood, tankage and meat scraps, fish manures, sodium nitrate, or Chili saltpetre, and ammonium sulphate.

Barnyard manure is the most easily available and the cheapest source for most farmers. It contains from nine to thirteen or fourteen pounds of nitrogen per ton, depending upon the care with which it is handled and upon the source. Besides adding plant food to the soil it adds decaying vegetable matter which forms humus in the soil, improves its water-holding capacity, and provides a breeding ground for the bacteria which aid in the liberation of other plant foods.

The loss of nitrogen from the manure may be to some extent due to weathering and leaching. A considerable loss of nitrogen is sometimes due also to heating, which changes the nitrogen compounds into volatile forms. These pass off into the air and are lost.

Dried blood contains from nine to twelve per cent of nitrogen. It decays rapidly in the soil, but not too rapidly for the needs of the growing plant. Hence, it provides a continuous supply of plant food during the season without loss by leaching.

Tankage, meat scraps, and fish manures are rich in nitrogen, but decay slowly in the soil on account of the oil they contain. This retards the liberation of plant food.

Sodium nitrate comes from Chili and Peru. It contains about fifteen per cent of nitrogen and, since it is extremely soluble, it becomes available at once for plant food. For the same reason, it should be applied only when the crop is sufficiently grown for the plants to assimilate it as it dissolves, else a large part will be lost by leaching.

Ammonium sulphate is produced by treating with sulphuric acid the ammoniacal liquors left as by-products in the manufacture of coal-gas and coke. For this reason its tendency is to make the soil acid or "sour". The presence of lime in the soil is essential for the changing of this fertilizer into available plant food and also for correcting the acid properties of the salt. Hence it should not be sown on land deficient in lime. It does not dissolve readily, so may be applied before the crop is sown without fear of loss by leaching.

The properties of these fertilizers at once suggest topics for plot experiments. One which will readily occur to the teacher is the study of the effect of a nitrogen fertilizer on plant growth. Select one or more kinds of plants for the experiments, *e.g.*, lettuce, cabbage, and tomatoes. Have similar plants of equal thrift placed in a check plot which is not to be treated with fertilizer. If possible, divide the plot to compare the effects of applying the fertilizer at different times during the growing season.

Apply sodium nitrate at the rate of about two hundred pounds per acre to the plot. Give careful cultivation and record carefully the results as compared with the check plot. Vary the procedure, if possible, by applying the fertilizer at different times and at different rates, *i.e.*, one application after the plants have taken root, two applications during the season and when the seed is sown.

Other similar topics which may be chosen are the comparison of the effects of farm-yard manure and of different nitrogen fertilizers and the comparison of results when ammonium sulphate is sown with and without lime.

Reports, to be of value, should include observations made during the season on the appearance of the plants and the yield per acre or per pound of seed sown.

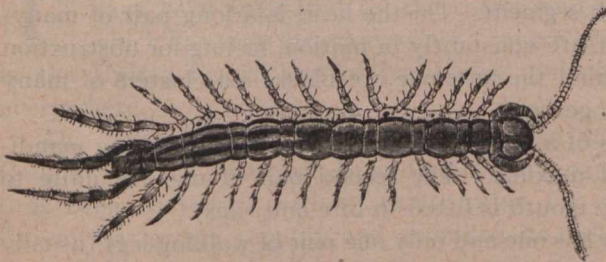
Such work trains the pupil to become observant, to work out problems for himself by experiment, encourages reading of reports by other experimenters and relates agriculture to other branches of school work.

An Elementary Science Lesson

MARY C. TUCKER, M.A.

High School, Harriston

The centipede was happy quite,
 Until the toad in fun
 Said, "Pray, which leg moves after which?"
 This raised her doubts to such a pitch,
 She lay distracted in the ditch,
 Considering how to run.



THE CENTIPEDE.

From *Peripatus, Myriapods, and Insects*, by Sedgewick, Sinclair, and Sharp.
 The Macmillan Co., Toronto

PROBABLY every teacher thinks of this verse when the centipede is mentioned. The idea contained in it is, of course, psychological and not scientific. Professors of psychology

use it to illustrate the principle that as habits are perfected they affect consciousness less and less and that a habit may be deranged by conscious attention to it after it has been learned. Very few are the dissertations on the centipede in which this verse is not quoted. Its author is Professor E. Ray Lankester who, after attempting to study the order in which the legs of a centipede move, came to the conclusion that, if the animal had to study the question itself, it would not get on at all.

The centipedes in Ontario are golden-brown, many-segmented creatures with a smooth, hard, shiny exoskeleton. They are from 1 to $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches long and usually less than one quarter of an inch broad. The bodies are flattened dorsoventrally. They are active, swift, and ferocious hunters, living usually in dark obscure places such as crevices under stones, logs, wood, bark of dead trees, and decaying stumps. They are often found during the summer in dry tulip beds, in hills of potatoes, and frequently in dry, empty pots in greenhouses. When disturbed, they run swiftly in a zig-zag course towards the nearest hiding-place, and disappear quickly under boards, pots, and lumps of earth. They are usually found in dry situations.

The centipede's body has only two distinct divisions, a squarish, flattened, distinctly marked-off head and a segmented trunk consisting of a very short segment and from twelve to nineteen other segments of varying length but fairly uniform breadth. The different number of segments is probably due to the members of the species being much alike except in the number of segments. The trunk is very flexible, for the hard, chitinous ring of one segment is joined to the next by a thin membrane which allows great freedom of motion. Touch a centipede on different parts of the body and watch the motions of the segments, or block his onward course by a piece of glass and his body becomes horse-shoe shaped or semicircular as he turns about to avoid the obstruction. There are distinct dorsal, ventral, and side shields of hard tissue joined by soft membranes. On the soft tissue near the base of the legs is an oval opening, the stigmata or spiracle. This spiracle leads into a chamber and from that to a system of breathing tubes. There are two stigmata on each trunk segment. On the head is a long pair of many-jointed antennæ which are constantly in motion, feeling for obstruction or danger ahead. Behind the antennæ are blackened clusters of many sessile ocelli crowded together.

The mouth consists of a labrum, one pair of toothed, cutting mandibles, and two pairs of maxillæ. The second pair of maxillæ unite to form the labium. The mouth is fitted to bite and suck.

Each body segment has one and only one pair of walking legs (usually seven-jointed) each ending in a single claw. But the two legs on the first segment are much modified; they are fused at the base to form the

poison fangs. A poison gland is situated in the fused base and the poison oozes out at the end of the leg. These poison claws bend forward to lie near the mouth.

The centipedes have been seen to creep up to a fly or beetle, seize it, and kill it instantly by injecting the poison with the poison fangs. They hunt under decaying bark for larvæ of insects, beetles, flies, millipedes, etc., and kill them with poison. They will grapple with an earthworm for hours and suck its blood. The poison does not seem to be fatal to the earthworm.

The female is furnished with two small movable hooks or feelers on the under surface near the posterior end of the body. This is close to the opening of the oviduct. During June, July, and August, which is the breeding season, the female ejects the eggs singly from her body by convulsive movements of the last few segments. These movable hooks grasp the egg, which is about the size of No. 5 shot, as it falls, and roll it in the earth and leaves until it is completely covered. The egg is covered with a sticky film secreted by glands within the body, so that the earth becomes glued to the egg. The female does this because the male will devour the eggs if he finds them. The egg is left on the surface of the ground and hatches in about twelve or fourteen days. From sixty to one hundred eggs are laid by a single female during one season. The larvae when hatched have numerous segments and develop without any marked metamorphosis. It is said that the female sometimes lies on her side and coils her body about the eggs in order to protect them.

A Dominion Bureau of Education

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THE idea of a Dominion Bureau of Education for Canada seems to have been suggested by the corresponding one at Washington which has been for many years a source of inspiration to teachers in the United States and of invaluable assistance to the profession everywhere.

The United States Bureau of Education was created by Act of Congress in 1867; its work, beginning in a comparatively small way, has thus been continued without interruption for over fifty years. The Bureau has grown steadily and extended its usefulness in many directions, linking up with various other organizations for the betterment of social and educational conditions until it has become a great national

clearing-house for the collection and dissemination of educational information. Its value cannot be estimated nor would any one dream of suggesting its discontinuance.

The matter of its establishment was first discussed in the National Teachers' Association in 1864; a plan for carrying it out was presented at a meeting of state and city school superintendents in 1866; and the bill establishing the Bureau was passed by Congress rather through the personal efforts of General Garfield than because of any deep interest in the proposal on the part of Congress itself. Indeed, both the Congress and the State legislatures were opposed to any effort to confer on the Federal Government any right to interfere with State educational systems. There seems to have been something of the same jealous guarding of State rights in matters of education as may now be observed in Canada with regard to Provincial rights.

The duties of the Bureau as organized were: "To collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several states and territories, and to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country".

The Bureau was further "charged with the education of the children of Alaska, and the administration of the endowment fund for the support of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanical arts".

The organization of the Bureau has always been a simple one. A commission, appointed by Congress, has been in charge, and the work is organized into divisions, each under a competent head. There have been six in all, the present commissioner being P. P. Claxton; all of them have been outstanding men in the field of educational administration and research. The divisions of the Bureau have multiplied and now include: School Sanitation and Hygiene, Higher Education, School Administration, Rural Education, Home Education, Civic Education, Education of Racial Groups, Education of Immigrants, Kindergarten Education, School and Home Gardening, Editorial, Library, Alaska Division, Industrial Education and Home-making, Community Organization, and Correspondence.

A number of these are maintained in conjunction with other national organizations such as The National Municipal League; National Congress of Mothers and Parent Teachers Associations, etc.

The work of the Bureau has been from the first essentially that of collecting and disseminating educational information. The giving out of information has been through three main channels:

(a) Annual reports containing statistics of all kinds of educational institutions, public and private. These have long been regarded as among the most valuable educational reports published anywhere.

(b) Circulars of information issued from 1873 to 1906.

(c) Bulletins issued serially, about fifty each year, since 1906. These furnish information regarding educational work in many countries as well as the United States; they give digests of current legislation and current school practice and administration; they serve to interpret educational movements and describe significant educational experiments; some contain special reports of committees of the National Educational Association.

Being a child of the N.E.A., the Bureau has always worked in the fullest harmony with it.

Some idea of the range of subjects treated and the value of the information given by the publications of the Bureau may be gathered from the following brief selection of titles: Education for the Home (in four parts), School Hygiene, Vocational Guidance, The Public School System of Gary, Consolidation of Rural Schools, Training of Community Civics, Open-air Schools, Current Practice in City School Administration, The Money Value of Education, The Economy of Time in Education, The School System of Ontario.

These are prepared for free distribution and for sale; approximately half a million are sent out each year.

With the United States Bureau before them as an object lesson, educational leaders and thinkers in Canada have for many years longed for the establishment of some similar service in this country. At the first meeting of the Dominion Educational Association in Montreal, 1892, two resolutions were passed which referred matters to a committee of the Ministers of Education and the Superintendents of the various Provinces, thus recognizing the need of some nation-wide expression of opinion. At the Halifax meeting in 1898 it was resolved "that a Committee consisting of G. U. Hay, M.A., New Brunswick; Thos Kirkland, M.A., Ontario; D. McIntyre, M.A., Manitoba; J. B. Calkin, M.A., Nova Scotia; and J. M. Harper Ph.D., Quebec; be appointed to consider and report on the establishment of a Central Bureau of Education of Canada. (The name of the Hon. G. W. Ross was subsequently added to this Committee).

The committee presented an oral report at the meeting in Ottawa, 1901, and was instructed to continue, with the addition of Dr. J. A. McCabe and to report at the next meeting. Apparently no formal report was presented in 1904, though reference was made by Chancellor Burwash of Victoria University to the desirability of such a Bureau as a unifying force in the development of a Canadian type of national

education. Chancellor Burwash stated then what many feel to be only too true still to-day, "Our systems of education are as yet Provincial rather than National".

In 1909 at the meeting of the Dominion Educational Association held in Victoria the institution of a Canadian Bureau came up incidentally in connection with the discussion of the future of the Association. Its desirability was admitted by all, the only question being as to the feasibility of securing its establishment.

More definitely again in 1917 at the meeting in Ottawa the matter was discussed by Dr. A. H. McKay of Nova Scotia, Principal J. F. White of Ottawa Normal School, and Dr. H. L. Brittain. All who heard or took part in the discussion at that time were agreed that it would be an excellent thing for the Provinces to know one another's educational work better, also that a national ideal of education must be evolved if a united Canada is to be secured.

How to secure these results without infringing on Section 93 of the British North America Act which gives exclusive rights to the Provinces in matters of education, and without creating harmful prejudices in the minds of those who are jealous of provincial autonomy, is the problem at the present time. It was pointed out that in the Canada Year Book for 1914, a beginning had been made in the compiling and publication of educational statistics and that this would be continued and extended. While the establishment of a Dominion Bureau of Education is regarded in some quarters as "unconstitutional and neither necessary nor desirable", the collecting and publishing of educational statistics seems to be acceptable to all and will have the fullest co-operation of every Province. This may possibly afford the necessary opportunity to demonstrate the usefulness of a central source of information and pave the way for a wider service in future.

The present attitude of the Provincial Departments of Education is shown by the following quotations from letters received in answer to a request for an expression of opinion concerning the wisdom of having a Dominion Bureau of Education:

Nova Scotia—"I am strongly in favour of a Bureau as of great value." "If the Census Department gradually enlarges its statistical and information summaries, I am content to allow a Bureau to be evolved in this manner".

New Brunswick—"Would justify itself on the mere ground of comparative statistics, not to mention the history of educational movements in our own and other countries." "The great difficulty with Canada is that we are inclined to be provincial rather than federal in our views."

Prince Edward Island—"Impossible to estimate the value of such a Bureau until its functions are defined". "If its formation would tend

to a uniform standard of Teachers' licences and a uniform system of educational statistics, it should prove of distinct advantage".

Quebec—"Proposition unconstitutional and neither necessary nor advisable." "If it is simply a question of obtaining statistics the Federal Government has at its disposition, through the Department of Agriculture, all the necessary powers".

Ontario—"If we had some central organization to which reports could be sent, there would grow up greater co-operation in education amongst the Provinces—an object I have greatly at heart." "As the relation of the Federal Government of the United States to the State Governments is paralleled by that in the Dominion, a Dominion Bureau of Education presided over by a Commissioner might serve a useful purpose in Canada."

Manitoba—"For several years past I have been interested in the formation of a Bureau of Education for the Dominion on lines similar to the Bureau maintained at Washington." "I believe we shall not be long without the assistance of such a bureau after the termination of the war."

Saskatchewan—"I am heartily in favour of a Dominion Bureau of Education." "A Dominion Bureau, if established, would undoubtedly lead to a better understanding between the Departments of Education in the several Provinces".

Alberta—"I consider that a Bureau of Education would stimulate the educationists in Canada to live up to the best ideals of any Province, and from the different Provinces to realize a Canadian ideal of education."

British Columbia—"I am heartily in favour of the establishment of a Dominion Bureau of Education with headquarters at Ottawa." "Do not particularly care whether a Bureau of *Education* is established or not, provided one of the present Departments at Ottawa would assume the responsibility of issuing a report". "I feel sure that some such Bureau will be established by the Government in the near future."

In trying to sum up, the consensus of opinion among the educational administrators is found to be strongly in favour of the establishment of a central bureau for the collecting and issuing of educational information. Objection has been made that this is not in accord with the principles of the British North America Act, but the history of the Bureau at Washington shows that there has been no interference with State rights and that a growing spirit of co-operation has exhibited itself until definite national ideals of education have been developed.

A very satisfactory beginning has been made in the publication of educational statistics in the Canada Year Book, the information given being more comprehensive each year. With greater uniformity in the statistical information furnished, and fuller information concerning

educational movements and legislation in the several Provinces, the section of the Year Book on education would be a most useful report for educational workers throughout Canada and in other countries. [This has been issued as a pamphlet entitled "Education in Canada", and may be procured from the Census and Statistics Office].

I believe that the time has come for the various provincial associations as well as the Dominion Educational Association to take action in urging the establishment of a Dominion Bureau of Education. More than ever before in our history there is need of national unity, and of a perfect goodwill and understanding among the many factors which enter into our Canadian make-up. The lack of knowledge and appreciation, with a certain feeling of suspicion which has been too common, would disappear in the light of more accurate information and a common meeting ground for better acquaintance and an interchange of ideas. Speaking nationally rather than educationally, my belief is that one of the wisest steps that could be taken in Canada to-day would be the organization of a Dominion Bureau of Education whose duties would be "to collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several Provinces and Territories, and to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of Canada in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country."

The Alberta Teachers' Alliance

J. W. BARNETT

General Sec.-Treas. Alberta Teachers' Alliance, Edmonton

THE whirlwind progress which has become manifest since serious and energetic steps were taken to organize the Alberta Teachers' Alliance gives evidence that the world-wide movement for united action among not only the mechanics and farmers, but among those classed as brainworkers, is to envelop the teaching body also. Considerable difficulty was, and is now, experienced in getting in touch with the teachers in the smaller centres and rural schools, and it was not until February of this year that it was possible for the acting executive, appointed at the 1917 Annual Alberta Teachers' Convention at Calgary, to forge ahead with its scheme to form into one unit the teaching personnel under the jurisdiction of the Department of Education of Alberta.

It was evident that if the Alliance was to make satisfactory progress it would be necessary for the larger centres—Edmonton and Calgary—which together account for practically one-sixth of the Alberta teachers, to adopt first the tentative constitution. Edmonton made the first move and advanced \$20 on account to enable the executive to proceed to organize the local associations, and as there was a reasonable certainty that Calgary would join, the acting executive set to work to get into touch with the leading representatives of the profession in other centres, asking them to take steps to call meetings of teachers in their particular centres for the purpose of obtaining an expression of opinion of the attitude of their fellow-teachers on the question of affiliation. The result was that at the 1918 Convention at Edmonton the executive was able to report that the following local alliances were formed and affiliated with the Central Alliance: Edmonton Public School, Wetaskiwin, Calgary, High River, Red Deer, Ponoka, Vegreville, Leduc, Carstairs, Didsbury, Macleod, Raymond, Camrose, Medicine Hat, Fort Saskatchewan, Claresholm, Sedgewick, Killan and Lougheed. The total of 793 affiliated members included only those who had actually paid the membership fee and whose names had been sent in, together with the fees, by the local secretaries to headquarters: but had there been more time it is probable that 1,000 would have been nearer the mark.

Several other groups of teachers—among them Vermilion, Athabasca, Tofield, Banff, Youngstown, Stettler, Okotoks, Calgary Separate School—have moved in the matter, but were unable to complete the necessary organization in time to be announced as affiliated in accordance with the terms of the constitution.

The response has been very gratifying and there has not been a single instance brought to notice of a definite turning down of the proposition: two groups only have stated that the teachers are not enthusiastic over the question, but are open to conviction. But wherever there are teachers who have had experience of Alliance work and could give their confrères a general idea of what are likely to be the ideals of such an organization the response has been unanimously favourable; and where the executive officers have been able to address meetings of teachers enthusiasm on the part of rural teachers has been particularly marked: in fact, it is very evident that once the difficulty of giving all teachers a correct interpretation of the objects and executive workings of the Alliance on behalf of teachers as a body, or, if necessary, in defence of the individual, is overcome, so soon will the permanent establishment and high prestige of the Alliance be assured.

At the First Annual General Meeting of the Alliance over fifty delegates were present, and although members other than delegates were not able to vote or initiate business, all were able to attend and take part,

and matters of vital importance to the teaching body were passed upon. The constitution was radically amended, and it was made possible for a teacher with academic standing not lower than Grade XI, but so located as to be unable to attend meetings of any local alliance to become a "member at large" on payment of a membership fee of one dollar. This will enable the isolated rural teacher to receive the full benefits, exactly the same as if he were affiliated through a local alliance.

Resolutions were passed deciding upon: (1) The incorporation of the alliance. (2) The drawing up of a code of honour. (3) The taking over of the Teachers' Pension Scheme. (4) The method to be adopted to get an expression of the opinion of the affiliated teachers on questions of serious importance which cannot stand over till the annual meeting. (5) The appointment of a legal adviser whose duty it will be to advise the executive on questions of organization, and also the individual teacher on matters arising out of professional difficulties either with school boards or with the public. (6) The gathering together of information for file at headquarters, relative to schedules of salaries paid by the different boards, their treatment of teachers and their attitude towards educational matters in general. (7) Expressing to the Department of Education the opinion that the recent action of the Legislature in fixing the minimum salary for rural teachers is a step in the right direction. (8) Arranging a deputation to interview the Minister of Education with a view to securing: (a) a directory of teachers employed in the Province; (b) a revision of the form of the teachers' contract issued by the Department; (c) a consideration of the pension scheme for teachers.

The following are the elected representatives of the executive for the present year: President, G. D. Misener, Edmonton; Vice-President, M. H. Long, Edmonton; Executive Members: Miss B. Coatts and T. E. A. Stanley, Calgary; General Secretary-Treasurer: J. W. Barnett, 10701 University Ave., South Edmonton. The latter invites correspondence on Alliance matters.

The Hot Noon Lunch

ANNA M. ARCHIBALD
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MY experience in conducting hot school lunches is limited to only one winter. Being a novice in this work and finding that it was a new idea in this district, I thought it better to prove its value before asking financial aid from the school board. Those consulted were, however, in favour of the experiment.

The first task was to furnish our "kitchenette" which we decided should occupy a corner at the back of the room. As the school is heated by a furnace, this necessitated some other source of heat for cooking, but the difficulty was met by the loan of a two-burner gasoline stove by one of the parents. Another donated a small working-table and for our cupboard we chose the lower shelf of the bookcase—we lined this, and covered the table with oilcloth. We obtained the loan of two small dish pans, three sauce pans, a potato masher, a large spoon, a fork, etc., and each pupil furnished his own cup, saucer, and spoon. Cup towels were given by parents and these the little girls hemmed in their sewing classes. Each family took turns in supplying us with cocoa, sugar, milk, seasoning, potatoes, butter, soda biscuits, canned corn and tomatoes, etc.; and occasionally some one brought soup stock. We attempted just one hot dish each day, such as could be cooked over a fire—cocoa, milk and stock soups, and potatoes.

Before beginning the hot lunches the pupils were given a few preliminary lessons on the proper method and order of washing dishes and cup towels, and the permanent arrangement of dishes in the cupboard. As we began with cocoa, the basic recipe and method were first taught; similar lessons were given for soup and potatoes, each lesson preceding the cooking of that particular dish.

At the boys' request they were allowed to cook two days of each week—this, by the way, furnished the occasion for much good-natured teasing among the boys and girls, especially if a girl allowed the milk to scorch, or a boy set the potatoes in cold water on the register to "soak". Two boys or two girls worked together each week, two other boys washing dishes for the boy-cooks, and two girls for the girls. The little girls in grades I, II, and III took turns in washing cup towels, in serving, gathering, and stacking the dishes. A notice explaining the division and order of the work was posted on the wall so that the pupils knew when their turns came and what the work would be. A list of the supplies contributed was carefully kept. At morning recess the water for washing and rinsing the dishes was set on a register to heat, as was also the quantity of milk, water, or canned goods needed. This was sufficient to scald the milk and heat the water, though not to boil it. The cooking was completed when the stove was lighted about twenty minutes to twelve (this work was entrusted only to two of the older pupils). If we were to have potatoes, they were peeled at recess and the fire was started a little earlier than usual. Thus, by making use of our furnace heat, we economized in gasoline. Occasionally corn soup was prepared entirely on the register. At first I supervised the cooking, but as the older girls were soon found to be quite competent, they were given the duty of assisting the younger girls and the boys.

We served potatoes either mashed and beaten light, with butter and seasoning, or sliced and served with a cream sauce. We usually cooked enough potatoes so that there should be a sufficient quantity left to make potato soup the following day. This summer we hope to have home school-gardens, the products to furnish material for our hot lunches next winter. In making the cocoa and milk soups, the following recipes were found most satisfactory for school lunches: Cocoa (individual): 1 teaspoonful cocoa; $\frac{1}{2}$ cupful milk; $\frac{1}{2}$ cupful water; spk. salt; 2 teaspoonfuls sugar. Boil the water, add cocoa, sugar and salt mixed with a little water, boil three minutes, then add scalded milk. Serve at once.

Milk Soup: 1 cupful solid material (corn, tomatoes or potatoes); 2 cupfuls liquid (milk or some vegetable water, in case of potatoes); seasoning (salt, pepper and celery salt); a little butter (depends on quality of milk); flour ($1\frac{1}{2}$ tablespoonfuls for corn and potatoes and 3 tablespoonfuls for tomatoes). Heat the vegetable, combine with scalded milk, and add flour diluted with water, butter and seasoning. In the case of tomatoes, a little soda must be added to them before combining with milk. A few slices of onion may be added to milk and removed when the milk is scalded.

We used newspapers as tablecloths on the desks, and on these each pupil spread his lunch. Although it was not convenient for all of us to eat at the same table, still there was ample opportunity to train the pupils in proper table etiquette. In connection with this, a few lessons were given in proper methods of serving in the home and of setting a table.

When our work was fairly systematic and seemed practical, the school board was asked to help us financially. They were quite ready to co-operate and it was evident that the hot lunch appealed favourably to the parents. The trustees readily agreed to furnish the gasoline, utensils, cocoa, and sugar. It was decided that each pupil should pay twenty-five cents per month to cover the expense of the canned goods. (It has been found, however, that canned goods of this value lasted us more than a month. We still have some on hand which we shall use occasionally on wet or chilly days, for it seems best to discontinue the hot lunches when the warm spring days arrive). The pupils and the teacher were still to take turns in furnishing milk, seasoning, soda-biscuits, and potatoes.

The cooking of the noon lunch appeals to the children in several ways. It seems to make a closer correlation between the work of home and school and gives variety in the day's routine. During winter days when very often it is impossible to play outside the work takes up the pupils' time and attention and, incidentally, helps to keep them out of mischief. Besides—and this is the most important reason—a cup of hot cocoa or

soup warms them when perhaps their own lunch has become frozen during the drive to school. They take more time for eating and learn to eat properly. Added to this, it is practically the only way one can teach the cooking outlined in our Course of Studies in a one-roomed rural school.

The plan of work outlined is imperfect in many ways, but it may furnish a suggestion to those who have not yet tried it. Indeed, it is to be hoped that very many rural school teachers will try it, for they will certainly be convinced of the value of the Hot Noon Lunch.

Drawings for the Classroom

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I FORMERLY used the blackboard a great deal for diagrams in teaching geography and biology. It was no light task to go from room to room and copy a sketch of a mosquito, or the teeth of a carnivore, or the anatomy of a volcano, or the successive stages of a river terrace. The substitute described below is a discovery of great importance, at least to me, and as there does not seem to be any part of it capable of being patented there is no obstacle to the philanthropic impulse that prompts me to describe it for the benefit of my colleagues.

From some old kodak films the gelatine was washed and scraped in rather warm water. Cold water is slow; hot water cooks the gelatine and makes it harder to take off. If the film is laid on a piece of glass the gelatine may be taken off easily with a table knife.

The clean film is then laid over any diagram in a book and rubbed vigorously with blotting paper. This has two effects. It removes any traces of oil. Also, it seems to electrify the film and make it cling to the page. Sometimes a thin slip of wood is placed beneath the page and the film is fixed in position with two thumb-tacks. Now with India ink and a mapping pen the drawing is traced in more or less detail. The result, when placed in a cardboard frame, is a very satisfactory lantern slide.

With the lantern the drawing is projected on a sheet of paper 28 x 48 inches, fastened on the wall, the distance being adjusted to make the projection of any required size. The lines of the drawing are quickly fixed on the sheet with a lead pencil. Afterward the films are washed with soap and hot water.

The last stage comes when, with the original sketch in the book beside me, I go over the drawing with a small brush and India ink, developing the outline and more or less of the shading. This may seem a great deal of work, but let me indicate some of the advantages.

Students may begin to draw the moment the class opens, instead of having to wait until the drawing develops. At the same time the teacher may go among them with suggestions and criticisms. The result is a neater note book. The drawing they work from is much better than if drawn freehand on the board. Instead of being in white lines on black, it is in black lines on white, the same medium they are using. The teacher has to do the drawing only once. It may be carried from room to room, and one is not afraid the janitor will rub it off before one has finished using it. It may be brought out for review or for students who were absent the first day and missed it. In a lesson, several drawings may be used, more than could possibly be drawn in a lesson period. One can accumulate an equipment of drawings in any subject, copying them from books that one is too poor to own, or that one borrows from one's neighbours.

It goes without saying that students are not required to copy every drawing put before them, but a picture or diagram makes an excellent focus for the attention of a class and as a means of instruction can produce more vivid conceptions in their minds than any number of words.

These numerous advantages and some others more than compensate for the work involved in preparation.

"Father," said a little boy one day, "where is atoms?" "Atoms, my son! You mean Athens, surely?" "No, father—atoms, the place where things are blown to."

Young Wife—"I got a beautiful parchment diploma from the cooking college to-day and I've cooked this for you. Now guess what it is."

Husband (trying the omelet)—"The diploma."

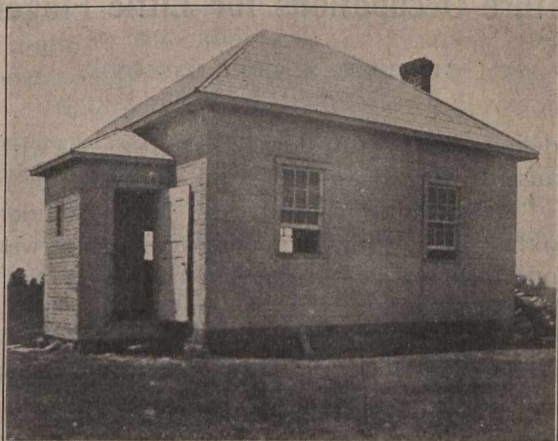
The teacher's last question was meant to be a scientific poser. "What is that which pervades all space," she said, "which no wall or door or other substance can shut out?" No one had an answer ready but Freddy Sharpe. "The smell of onions, Miss," he said, promptly.

School Examiner—"What is the meaning of false doctrine?" Schoolboy—"Please, sir, it's when the doctor gives the wrong stuff to the people who are sick."

Teacher—"What happens when a man's temperature goes down as far as it can go?" Pupil—"He has cold feet, ma'am."

"There's a young man who makes little things count." "How does he do it?" "Teaches arithmetic in the infants' school!"

Primary Department



MAPLE HILL SCHOOL, BURRITT'S RAPIDS, ONT.
Teacher, Miss A. M. Doran.

Send in a "snapshot" of your school for reproduction on this page.

[THE SCHOOL undertakes to answer promptly, by letter, all reasonable questions, if correspondents enclose stamped, addressed envelope. When this condition is not met, answers are given on this page as soon as space is available.]

Correspondence

2225 Rae Street, Regina,
May 2, 1918.

Dear Enquirer:

I hope I am not "twenty minutes late" in giving you a few suggestions for your bazaar. Do you live "on the land?" I am assuming that you do. How would it be to serve tea as an accessory during the fact—even without sugar it is acceptable; and, with a couple of sandwiches, money can be made by selling it at 10c. a cup. For articles to sell you might have bags of all descriptions (like the rats of Hamelin), caps, also aprons, sensible work-a-day ones, calendars (minus the pads and made by pupils), emergency sewing kits, change purses, tags for Christmas parcels (also made by pupils), sets of gingham collars and cuffs, slips of plants (rooted), recipes (tested and especially adapted for war time), skirt hangers, towels of all sorts, tatting by the yard, crocheted pin-cushion tops—and keep the price within the dollar limit if possible. Then write to the different firms for sample packages of baking powders, ketchups, soaps, cleansers, and so on. They are most generous when the object is patriotic—it really is a good advertising device anyway. Is that enough? If I can give explicit directions for any of them I shall be happy to do so. Hoping there is something that will appeal to you,

I am, Yours truly, CORA R. L. FISHER.

Nature Occupations for Little Fingers

FLORENCE M. CHRISTIANSON
Niagara Falls South

THE dandelion—the dearest flower that grows—is with us. Dearest —because it is everywhere—“the first pledge of blithesome May,” “an Eldorado in the grass,” “dear common flower, that grow’st beside the way.” How the youngsters look forward to its coming, for it lends itself so well to fashion chains for their decoration! Dandelion-chains are made much as we make daisy-chains where these flowers abound. And the little ones come trooping in after play-time with their offerings. If the teacher puts a few of the best about her neck and wears them for a few moments the maker is afforded infinite delight.

A dandelion-sheaf makes a beautiful filling for a jardinière and will keep fresh for a week or more, if provided with fresh water daily. Some of the children out for a walk one day, came to a place where great tall dandelions grew and, knowing the teacher’s predilection, gathered a large bouquet about fourteen inches in circumference, tied it tightly in two places with cord and cut off the stems uniformly. The next morning early it stood on the teacher’s desk. This is a delightful way to enjoy the golden sunshine stored up in the golden-cups.

Many flowers and some flowering weeds are easily converted into miniature dolls. The poppy is one of these. The floral envelope is turned back over the stem and tied with a piece of thread just below the stigma.

From the fruit of the burdock children can make baskets, teddy-bears, dolls, houses, tents, and various articles of furniture for the doll-house. Take the youngsters for a walk along the roadsides frequented by the burdock-people and gather a large quantity of burs in the green state. Then retire to your own yard or sit under a tree and show how to fashion a few things and it will not be long till the child will design something else

The maple and other trees having key-fruits lend themselves admirably to the construction of belts, hat-bands, etc., a stout string in a large needle being all that is required to make them. The leaves, too, make beautiful wreaths. Teach the child to gather entire, uniform-sized leaves and show how to fasten them together with long stems. These make pretty garlands and bandeaux.

Corn-husks can be cut into strips of the right size and used for making corn-husk chains, such as are made from coloured paper. And, if some of the husks be dipped in red dye, a very pretty chain results from alternating the colours. They are novel and more durable than those fashioned from paper.

Rose-haws and thorn-apples strung on a cord will make fine decorative material both for the child's use and for the schoolroom. These chains may be put away carefully, and used to help make the Christmas tree beautiful. Children get intensely interested in this work and much of it may be done out-of-doors.

Horse-chestnuts gathered while the rough outer covering is still green may be readily pierced by a darning needle and so strung. The rich brown of these, interspersed with one or two bright, red thorn-apples, makes a much admired chain.

The white-pine needles and the longer needles of the red pine may be gathered if one has access to these conifers and are admirable for use in various kinds of number work. Their dainty, piney odour, their restful colour and the fact that they are natural "counters" make them especially valuable. Have each child gather his own supply and keep them in a small box in his desk to use as occasion requires.

These are only a few suggestions but the teacher will be able to invent others. These are the simpler things that we find ready to hand when we go on our rambles or when the children are at play.

To fashion these things in a portion of the playtime is instructive and restful and gives the child a means of entertaining himself. Such work encourages inventive skill, delights, amuses, and inculcates care and patience. It fosters the spirit of co-operation and prepares the child for the life out of school.

This nature-play makes the child at home in the world at large; he becomes independent, for he has power in himself to invent his own entertainment. Wordsworth, the nature poet, voices this spirit.

"Nature never did betray
The heart that loved her; 'tis her privilege
Through all the years of this our life to lead
From joy to joy."

Functional Arithmetic in the Kindergarten and Primary School

ETHEL M. HALL

Kindergarten-Primary Form, Ryerson Public School, Toronto

TOO often number has been taught as a subject entirely separated from life or at least having little direct relation to it. Such teaching of number must be changed and adapted to meet the life *interests* of children in their relation to the world.

To teach number entirely in the abstract is useless and wasteful. What direct use in life can long addition "questions" have? When a

bank clerk wishes to add several long columns of figures, he does it by means of an adding machine. The same objection can be made to long multiplication, division, or subtraction "questions". *The functional use of number would be that which would refer directly to some life situation.*

McLellan and Dewey say: "The development of number in school should follow the psychological development of life. There are two ways of teaching number: (1) By abstract quantity; (2) by the direct property of things. Number does not belong to things in themselves, but is the economical adaptation to some use or purpose. Number is not taken from things but is put into them."

Gesell says: "The number sense is stifled by notation on the blackboard and not developed by the fundamental conception of size, distance and form in every open field. Number conceptions are born in nature, not in arithmetics. Out of doors the child's sense of direction may be easily trained to feel north, south, east, and west. There the relation of height of trees, shrubs, and plants, the length of his garden plot, the space between rows of vegetables, establish standards of measure and proportions. The child cannot deal with these concrete expressions of life and motion without constantly making comparisons, training judgment, stating and verifying conclusions. These experiences are the bases of number experiences. The child needs intimate experiences with *long, short, round, square, big, and little*. What possible good can a question like this do him: 'If I had ten oranges and ate five, how many have I left',—if he is not likely to possess an orange?"

Dr. Dewey says: "Only that which functions in a child's *life* is concrete." If this be so then the teaching of number must be *localized* to meet the requirements of each individual life.

Professor Eugene Smith says: "The earnest teacher, awake to the needs of the business community in which a school is located, can hardly fail to introduce genuine problems with *local colour* to enliven the work in arithmetic. There is always an interest in getting outside the text and making an attempt to touch home life."

To arouse the child's keenest interest and thus secure his best effort, the data of some of his problems must be of such a nature that they will help him interpret his every-day experiences. Nothing touches him as closely as the reference to his home or community.

Dr. Dewey says again: "Arithmetic and abstract notions represented by figures are meaningless to a child of six, but number as a part of things he is playing with or using every day is so full of meaning that he soon finds he cannot get along without a knowledge of it."

In dealing with number the question has frequently arisen: Should number be taught at all in the first year of school? Professor Eugene Smith says: "In favour of having no arithmetic in the first year it is

argued that the spirit of the kindergarten should extend through all the primary grades; that the number work should be introduced only when there is direct need for it, all learning being made attractive and natural, and education appearing to the child as a unit instead of being made up of scattered fragments. Such a theory has much to commend it not only in the primary schools but everywhere else. Opposed to it is the rather wide-spread idea that much kindergarten work is superficial in aim and unfortunate in result; that children who have been trained in kindergarten are wanting in even the little seriousness of purpose that they should have; that they have no power of application; that they have been coddled mentally into a state that requires constant amusement as the condition for doing anything. The dispassionate on-looker in this old controversy probably feels that there is truth in both lines of argument and that *mutual good* has been the result.

"Ancient education was a dreary thing and to the *spirit* of the kindergarten, although not to extreme Frobelism, we are indebted for the brighter spirit of the modern school. On the other hand to make children self-reliant, independent in thinking, conscious of working for something definite, demands more seriousness of purpose than seems to pervade the ordinary kindergarten."

But most of the experiences of the kindergarten can be used for training in number. The construction exercises which are so prominent a feature in the kindergarten and primary are admirably adapted to lead gradually to mathematical abstractions and generalizations if the aim of the kindergarten is, as it should be, an *effective preparation* of the child for his subsequent educational course.

Where the "gifts" of Froebel are still retained, simple number facts may be developed. In the first gift the child has the ball as a measuring unit and can visualize and number as far as six and develop the facts of these numbers.

The second gift introduces the idea of volume, angle, line, point, surface, square, and curved face. In the third gift he may learn eight, one half, one quarter, one eighth, comparison of volume, shape, height, and surface. The fourth gift introduces a different magnitude—we can compare the cube and the parallelepiped, showing the equality of volume. Thus we may proceed throughout the gifts, extracting number relations wherever possible. But, after all, are we not in most cases putting into the gifts that which the child never would see unless his attention is called to the facts?

But the child entering the kindergarten is not destitute of number experiences. For example, one child below kindergarten age could count to three hundred, tell the time on the clock or watch, knew how many make a dozen, how many feet in a yard, and inches in a foot.

Is the normal child entering the primary at six ready for number work? Professor Smith believes that it will depend upon the taste and inclination of the child. "Has he such a taste for number as shows him mentally capable of studying the subject at the age of six and are his needs such as to make it advisable for him to do so? There is no doubt as to the answer. He takes as much delight in counting and in other simple number work in the first grade as in anything else that the school brings to him, and he makes quite as much use of it in his games, his 'playing store', his simple purchases, his reading of the conversation of the home and the play ground, as he does of anything else he learns. If we could be sure that in the incidental teaching that is so often advocated he would have these tastes and needs fully satisfied, then arithmetic, as a topic, might be omitted from the first or even the second form, but since we are fairly sure that it will not be accomplished in the average school, then it is our duty to assign a definite allotment of time and of thought to the work in the kindergarten-primary." Where the pupils are of foreign parentage, the *language* of number must receive special attention.

"Number is but one more social tool," says Dr. Dewey, "to help the child to interpret the world and use it. This new tool becomes an unconscious aid and help in his work." Professor Norseworthy believed "that number should be taught only as the situation required it." "If we take number," says Dr. Dewey, "as a subject isolated from social activities and uses, then the aim of instruction must be to cover the whole ground. Any failure to do so will mark a defect in learning. But not so if what we as educators are concerned with is *that pupils shall realize the connection* of what they learn about number with *vital social activities*. The question ceases to be a matter simply of quantity and becomes one of *motive and purpose*."

"The industrial phase of the situation comes in, of course, in the fact that these social experiences have their industrial aspect. This does not mean that his number work shall be crassly utilitarian or that all the problems shall be in terms of dollars and cents. On the contrary, it means that the pecuniary side shall be relegated to its proportionate place and emphasis put upon the place occupied by knowledge of weight, form, size, measure, numerical quantity, as well as money in the carrying on of the activities of life.

"The problem is not the impossible one of acquainting the pupil with all the social uses to which knowledge of number is put, but to teaching him in such a way that *each step which he takes in advance in his knowledge of number shall be connected with some situation of human need and activity, so that he shall see the bearing and application of what he has learned.*"

Any child who enters upon the study of number already has experiences which involve number. Let his instruction in arithmetic link itself to these *everyday social activities* in which he already shares, and the problem of socialization of instruction is solved.

Abstract work is quite as interesting as concrete; it is a game and all the joy of the game element in education may be made to surround it. As much fun can be had in a lesson in fractional parts as in a game of marbles or ball. Most of the practical life arithmetic is in the abstract and demands swiftness and accuracy. Therefore, the duty of the kindergarten-primary teacher is to teach number in such a way that the little pupils will look forward to every lesson with the pleasure of anticipation and the happiness of realization.

The Burden of Marking Essays

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

IT has long been felt by many teachers of English that the marking of compositions, particularly where the classes are large, makes excessive demands upon both time and energy. At the 1917 session of the Ontario Educational Association this subject was considered in the English and History Section, and at the close of an animated discussion a committee of five was appointed to bring in a report at the next annual meeting. What follows is the report as adopted by the Section at the recent meeting of the O.E.A.

Report of Committee on Ways and Means of Lessening the Burden of Composition Marking.

Your Committee appointed last Easter to report on ways and means of lessening the burden of composition marking begs to report as follows:

In order to submit as comprehensive a report as possible, circulars were sent to a number of representative teachers of English throughout the Province asking definite information on the following points:

1. Do you consider that the task of marking compositions makes excessive demands upon your time?
2. To how many pupils do you give instruction in composition?
3. How many compositions, exclusive of class exercises, do you mark per pupil per year?
4. How many spare periods per week have you for marking compositions?
5. By what percentage of your staff is composition taught?
6. Do you consider it essential that every composition be marked with minute care?
7. Could you suggest any method of lessening the burden of composition marking without decreasing the effectiveness of your work?

Replies to these questions were received from the following twenty-five schools: Napanee, Owen Sound, Brockville, Perth, Renfrew, Orillia, Goderich, Windsor, Kingston, London, Morrisburg, Peterborough, Ottawa, Paris, Collingwood, Smith's Falls, Stratford, Omemee, and the following schools in Toronto: Jarvis, Malvern, Parkdale, Oakwood, Humberstone, Harbord, The University of Toronto Schools. It will be noticed that small High Schools are represented in this list as well as several of the larger collegiates.

From the information received in this way, these deductions were drawn:

1. That while composition marking is considered no great burden in the small High Schools, there is a very strong feeling among teachers of English in the larger centres that they are the victims of excessive home work in this subject, made all the more objectionable in view of the number of their fellow-teachers in other departments who escape all such drudgery.

By those who declared that the burden was excessive the average total number of compositions marked per year was 897; by those who replied to this question in the negative the number was 420. Of twenty-five replies, representing as many schools, thirteen regarded the work as excessive, eight had no complaint to make, and four were non-committal.

2. That some teachers have an excessive number of compositions to examine. One report indicated that over 1,700 essays were marked by a teacher in one of the larger collegiates who had only one spare a week!

3. That there is no semblance of uniformity in the number of essays given during the academic year, the number as reported varying from "seven or less" to 18 or 20. The average number written by each of the 1,500 pupils covered by this report is 10.87. The average number of essays assigned a year by each of the twenty-five teachers reporting is 10.44.

4. That an insufficient number of spare periods for marking essays is granted teachers of composition, the average being three per week for 60 pupils. Moreover, many reported that few of the spare periods set aside for composition marking could be devoted to that work.

5. That the average percentage of teachers marking composition is between 44 and 45.

6. That most teachers are of the opinion that all compositions should be carefully examined.

7. That there is a strong feeling among those who regard the burden as excessive that the work should be more equitably distributed among the teachers of the various staffs; that there is a feeling that the pupils' profit is not commensurate with the teacher's labour; that the pupils'

power of self-criticism should be developed; that a greater use might be made of shorter compositions; that live topics should be assigned. In this connection, the following expressions of opinion may be found of interest: "Give each member of the staff a class. I don't see why the burden should fall on the English and language teachers." . . . "Distribute the burden. All the staff, with perhaps one or two exceptions, should teach this subject. There are obvious objections to this, but they can be avoided if the great importance of the subject is appreciated. Team work is needed here." . . . "I would make each teacher handle the subject in the room of which he is form-master. If I were given this arrangement, my grievance at teaching composition would at once and absolutely end."

After a careful consideration of the whole question your Committee recommends the following:

1. That under no circumstances should any teacher be called upon to correct the composition of more than one hundred pupils.

2. That in order to allow for a decrease in the number of essays examined per year, without at the same time decreasing the effectiveness of the work, the following suggestions should be given effect:

(a) That neatness in written work should be insisted upon by all teachers in all subjects. Composition teachers should refuse to examine any work showing clear evidences of carelessness, undue haste, or untidiness.

(b) That the pupils' critical powers should be called into play by the frequent correction, under the teacher's supervision, of one another's class exercises.

(c) That—possibly excepting the Lower School—at least one short prose work be read intensively in class every year. Your committee feels that it is unfortunate that in many cases no careful study of prose texts takes place in either the Middle or the Upper School. While the discussion of pupils' essays in class has its place, and while the home reading in prose is not to be belittled, it is felt that many of the principles of literary composition can best be taught by pupils having in their hands prose works by the best writers. Such suitable little books are obtainable at a moderate price and their use in the classroom should be insisted upon.

3. That no teacher be required by either principal or inspector to correct more than seven formal compositions per pupil per year. To your Committee it seems absurd that so many compositions should be required from all that no opportunity is afforded of examining additional work from those who really need help in this subject. For the best pupils, seven formal essays a year is ample; for the worst, twice that number would not be too many. Some discretionary power should be left to the teacher.

4. That in the Middle and Upper Schools three spare periods a week should be allowed for each composition class of thirty or over and in the Lower School at least two spare periods a week. By spare period is meant one during which the teacher is entirely free from all class supervision. Consecutive spares are particularly valuable.

5. That the burden of composition marking be more equitably distributed. If English is the medium of expression of all pupils in all classes, then every teacher is vitally interested in correct expression, in clearness and orderliness of thought. Let the teachers of classics and moderns bear their share, they are well fitted to do it. Nor need one apologize for including even those favourites of fortune—the mathematical masters. It is not alone the burden of marking compositions that now stirs resentment among many teachers of English; it is the feeling of injustice that they should suffer while others escape. We cannot too forcibly urge a greater equalization of the burden.

6. That in our larger city schools an office girl be employed. Besides freeing the Principal from much clerical work, she could be of very great assistance to teachers of composition by providing them from time to time with enough duplicate copies of selected faulty or model sentences or paragraphs to permit each pupil in a form to do effective class work in criticism.

Nature Study for June

PROFESSOR G. A. CORNISH, B.A.
Faculty of Education, University of Toronto

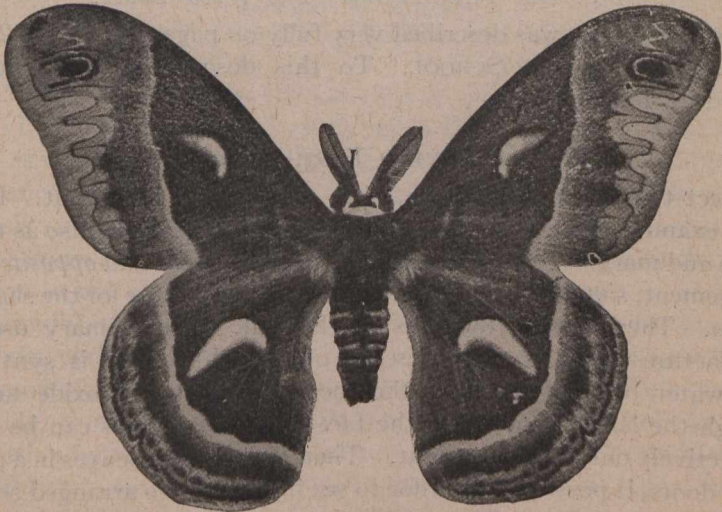
FOR THE FIRST FORM—*The Pansy.*

No garden plant appeals more to the girl or boy than the pansy. The flowers are so large, richly coloured, and variable in appearance, that the pupils are at once attracted. This flower is a close relative of the violets that grow in the woods, and the similarity should be pointed out to the pupils. The First Class might very well be taught the names, *sepals* and *petals*, from this plant. There are five green sepals forming an outer and lower circle of leaves around the flower. Without removing these, let the pupils ascertain how many coloured leaves there are in the next circle which forms the conspicuous part of the flower. Have them note the large lower petal. This forms a platform on which the bee rests when visiting the flower. Then there are two lateral petals and two large upper petals, making five altogether. On the base of the lower petal is a short sac containing the nectar which the bee delights to sip. If this sac is opened there will be found projecting into it two translucent, green, club-like masses. These are the organs that secrete the nectar which drops into the nectar sac, there to be kept until the bees come to take it. The structures at the centre of the flower are too complicated for a First Form class to understand and may well be passed over.

Late in the season the plant should be examined for the seed pods. It has what is called an explosive fruit. When the pod is ripe, if it is touched, it explodes and scatters the seeds to some distance.

FOR THE SECOND FORM—*The Cecropia Moth.*

Occasionally one hears that a very large and rare moth or butterfly has been discovered resting on a wall or other surface. In fact, the local papers often consider such a discovery of sufficient importance for mention in their columns. The supposedly rare insect is most probably the cecropia moth, which is in reality not rare at all, but quite common. As it flies at night, however, it is not very frequently seen by the casual observer.



THE CECROPIA MOTH

From *Handbook of Nature Study* by Anna B. Comstock. Comstock Publishing Company, Ithaca, N.Y.

The illustration gives a good idea of its appearance. The best way to obtain specimens is to gather their cocoons in the winter or spring before the leaves open. These cocoons are the largest found in the trees, and are quite common on the branches of shade and garden trees. The cocoon is kept in a pasteboard box with a window cut in one side, the opening being covered by netting. It is preferable to keep the cocoon in a cold place throughout the winter and thus to imitate its natural environment out of doors. A rare sight, indeed, it is to see this beautiful creature emerge from the cocoon. At first the wings are folded down over the body. Gradually they dry and spread until finally they are quite expanded in all their glory, measuring sometimes fully six and one-half inches from tip to tip. Don't leave this moth any sugar or sweetened water to sip, for it never takes food. It lives for only a couple of weeks

at most—just long enough to lay its eggs. These eggs soon hatch into little caterpillars which rapidly devour the leaves of the trees on which they are found. As they eat a great deal of food, they grow very fast. Soon they develop into those great green worms found in the trees. Each is as thick as the thumb and has projecting, coloured warts of blue, orange, or yellow. If you can find one of these caterpillars and put it in a box as above described, there you are likely to see one of the most remarkable processes in nature. It begins to weave its silken shroud. Finally, the shroud is complete with the caterpillar packed away inside of it. And how tight it must be packed to crowd such a big body into such a small space!

FOR THE THIRD FORM—*The Wood Louse.*

The wood louse was described very fully on pages 641 and 642 of the May number of THE SCHOOL. To this description the teacher is referred for information.

FOR THE FOURTH FORM—*The Leaf.*

Select twigs from the maple, lilac, willow, and butternut. Let the pupils examine these as to their arrangement on the stem, also as to their shapes and margins; introduce such terms as *alternate* and *opposite* for the arrangement, *simple*, *compound*, *lobed*, *serrate*, and *entire* for the shape and margin. Then discuss the uses of the leaf. The primary use is to manufacture starch in the presence of sunlight. This is synthesized from water brought up from the roots and carbon dioxide taken in through the leaf. Emphasize the fact that this process can be carried on effectively only in the sunlight. Then examine the leaves in a plant—out of doors, if possible—in order to see how they are arranged so as not to shade one another. The arrangement on the stem, the shape of the leaf, the length of the petiole, and many other features are all for the purpose of adapting the foliage to receive the maximum of sunlight.

The second important function of the leaves is the evaporation of water. A stream of water enters through the roots, passes up through the stem, and out through the leaves. This stream carries up the nitrogenous material and mineral salts to the leaves, and a vigorous stream means vigorous development. It is, therefore, essential that there should be a rapid evaporation from the leaf, provided the soil is moist enough to allow adequate absorption. In many ways leaves are adapted to assist rapid evaporation. The narrow petioles, causing a waving motion in the air, are very effective in this respect. This process of evaporation of water—called *transpiration*—can be readily illustrated by rolling up the blade of a leaf on a geranium plant so that it can be inserted into a narrow-necked bottle. When the blade is inside the

bottle (which must be dry) and the petiole extends through the neck and is still attached to the plant, set bottle and plant in a bright window and fill the neck of the bottle with absorbent cotton. In half an hour the inside of the bottle becomes dim with mist, and in a few hours drops of water will be trickling down the glass inside. These drops must have come from the leaf.

Pencil Technique

EDWARD H. THOMAS,
Perth Avenue School, Toronto

TIMOTHY COLE has been quoted as saying: "My line is nothing, I do not think about it; it means nothing in itself; all that matters is what I say and what my line expresses." This would place all importance in art on expression and this, indeed, is where the greatest emphasis should lie. But should the stress always be placed on the finished expression, or is there a time and a place for close and thoughtful attention to the line itself?

Assuredly, the schools and training institutions are the places for the proper perfecting of the line itself. The writer who quotes Cole as above makes clear his recognition of this when he says: "We understand him (Cole) to mean that he is no longer hampered in the free play of his imagination by technical considerations; hand, eye, and brain have been thoroughly trained to work in perfect unison." This technical training, leading to perfect control, is imperative if the finished masterpiece is ever to be realized.

That the foundations of mechanical perfection should be laid in the schools must be conceded if any result is to come from our awakened consciousness of the need of national development in the graphic and decorative arts. Probably the most convenient medium for expression of this kind is the pencil. The soft, grey, silvery effects of a pencil drawing are at once attractive and full of charm.

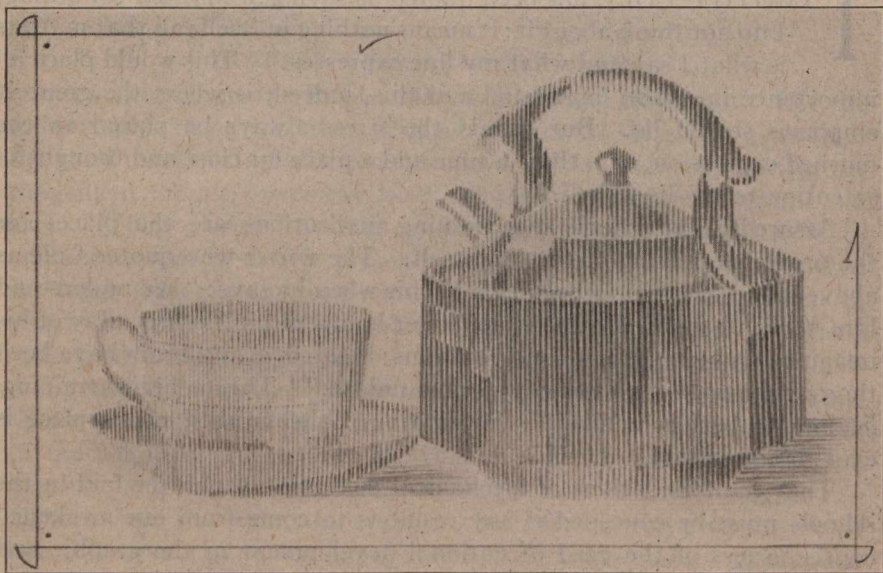
The problem, then, is to discover the most characteristic and expressive manner of using this medium, and, having decided on this, to find the best means for training the beginners and 'improvers' so as to lead them, in some small degree at least, towards that hoped-for day when the "hand, eye, and brain will be trained to perfect unison."

As far as outlines and boundaries are concerned there is only one answer. Expressive line with the pencil demands an immediate distinction between those edges adjacent to the source of light and those

farther away. (See diagram "A"). A fine, hair-like, and sometimes even broken, line should be used for the edges nearest the light. A heavy, firm, and decisive line must be used in the shade and shadow. Much practice should be given in this method of rendering before fully-toned and shaded drawings are attempted. Of course, it is presumed that the most painstaking care has been given to the correct reproduction of the outline of the particular form before the subject of pencil technique is approached at all.

It is, however, when one approaches the question of the best method of rendering mass, tones, and shadows in pencil drawing that differences of opinion may arise.

How, then, may we render best, in pencil, mass, tones and shadows? Three answers, at least, may be offered. *First*, by solid tones as at *B*. *Second*, by distinct lines as at *C*. *Third*, by crossing lines as at *D*.

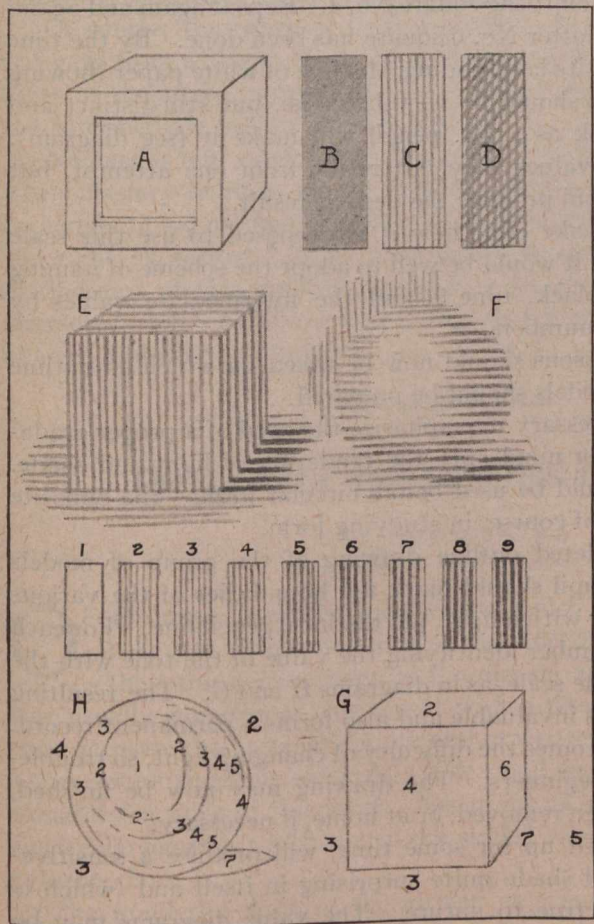


The reason for refusing to accept the first solution is that it is not characteristic of the pencil. The effect produced in this way is very close to charcoal work, and thus lacks distinctiveness. The texture and the 'life' of the paper are also frequently lost in the production. The results are not as sure and dependable as in the method selected below.

The third method leads, with beginners especially, to the sacrifice of exactness in order to obtain sketchy results. The exact value of the cross-hatched line in the process of drawing is hard to measure. It over-emphasizes and lessens the firm and striking qualities of the production. It arrests the eye, distracts the attention, and prevents unity. The cross-

hatched line seems to invite freedom too soon and careless methods are always difficult to eradicate.

The second is by far the preferable method and presents fewer difficulties in reproduction. The distinct line, devoid of cross-hatching, is characteristic of Walter Crane, and is preferred by R. G. Hatton in *Figure Drawing*, p. 8.



For the rendering of tones and shadows a broad, dull, chisel point is the best. The lines may vary in thickness from a thirty-second to a sixteenth of an inch. Much better results are obtained from work where the lines are parallel to one of the containing edges. Generally speaking, all vertical surfaces should be in perpendicular shading, and horizontal surfaces in horizontal shading (see figure E). Spherical forms may be either vertical or horizontal (figure F). Walter Crane, in *Line and Form*, p. 209, models a sphere entirely with horizontal lines.

Much practice must be given in drawing parallel straight lines. That most children in the upper forms of the Public Schools cannot draw a straight line seems to be a fact. The self-control demanded in the parallel shading of a three-inch square is invaluable.

Close attention must be given to tone values and this demands a thorough understanding of a fixed scale. For pencil-work a scale of nine values is preferable. The extremes should be clear white and a 3-B black, with only thread-like spaces between the lines.

The pupils should prepare the customary nine squares of, say, two-inch dimension. Leave the first unshaded, and shade all the other eight with a faint, silvery-grey tone using H.B. pencil very lightly. Repeat the process a second time, excepting square No. 2, and almost imperceptibly increasing the pressure on the pencil. Repeat the third time, leaving the third square untouched. Follow the fourth time, using this time a B. pencil and omitting square No. 4. Repeat again and again, changing to a 3B. pencil after No. 6 square has been done. By the time No. 9 panel has received its last shading, the line of white paper showing between the pencil lines should be very hair-like, but still distinct and continuous, and as black as a 3B. pencil will make it (see diagram). A satisfactory scale of values may not result from one attempt, but repetition and practice will produce the desired result.

It now remains to make clear how it is proposed to use this scale of values. At this point it would be well to adopt the scheme of naming the white, tone 1, the black, tone 9, and the intermediate values by the proper intervening numbers.

A few observation lessons should now be taken for which an outline drawing of a group of models should be prepared.

At this stage it is necessary to emphasize the need of a proper gradation of models, having in mind only the rendering of light and shade. Rectangular objects should be used before circular forms—the opposite order would be correct, of course, in studying form.

Having, then, completed outline drawing of the group of models before the class, each pupil should mark the boundaries of the various areas of tone and shadow with a light, yet distinct, pencil line. For each of these areas use the number identifying the value of the tone with the corresponding value in the scale, as in diagrams *H* and *G*. The resulting diagram of tone values is invaluable and also forms a permanent record. This simple scheme overcomes the difficulty of changing light, so troublesome to slow-working beginners. The drawing may now be finished, after the models have been removed, or at home, if necessary.

This exercise, followed up for some time, will produce a sensitiveness to tone of light and shade quite surprising in itself and (which is always gratifying) very true to nature. The value diagrams may be made on tracing paper, thus preserving the original drawing clean for completion.

The process of finishing the drawing is now quite simple. Suggestions as to direction of shading lines have already been given. Now, very lightly, sketch, on the various areas, direction lines, at about one-half inch apart. These must be scrupulously straight and parallel, if the containing sides are parallel. If the adjacent sides approach each other, the space between must be proportionately divided by the guiding lines.

If the surface of the model be of a double curve, the guiding lines should conform to the contour of the object at that particular point.

The whites, tone 1, are left untouched, and all the remaining surface is covered with tone 2, the high-light tone. Next, tones 2 are left, and all the remaining areas are covered with the repeated shading forming tone 3. This process is repeated until the darkest shadows have been rendered.

Of course, the range of light and shade in a particular study may not vary from white to black, but the process is the same. The student must fix definitely in mind the value of the two extremes and produce the intermediate values as indicated.

No need is felt, when using this method, of cross-hatching. However, when mastery of these simple, single, shading lines has been obtained, no conventional method need be discouraged, providing that it produces the right expression. After thoroughly mastering the regularity and distinctness of this method, scope may be given to individuality and character; and deviations producing sketchiness and vigour may be allowed and even encouraged.

The Camera and Canaries in Warfare

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OF the many scientific instruments which in this world war have been put to new uses one of the more important is the camera, the valued instrument of the airmen and the spy. The latter now usually supplements his report with a photograph, which is much more accurate than was the former oral or written description, even when it was accompanied by sketches. The small vest-pocket camera is most valuable for work of this kind. Negatives as small as one square inch yield enlargements which under the skilled reader's examination reveal valuable data.

The wonderful work of the airmen as scouts is possible chiefly on account of the unforgettable record of the camera. Special aeroplanes, called cameraplanes, are used for obtaining pictures. Owing to their greater weight, which is necessary for steadiness, and their slower speed, these cameraplanes are nearly, or quite, useless for fighting; and, as the crew must give their whole attention to the securing of the best possible pictures, the cameraplanes are accompanied on all expeditions by smaller and much faster battleplanes.

Originally the ordinary hand camera was used. Lenses with much longer focus are now employed so as to secure larger images and greater

detail. Very cumbersome cameras, four feet and more long, are in use and the tendency is towards still larger sizes. These are built into the plane and exposures are made through a well in the bottom. To hold any camera over the side of an aeroplane against the terrific wind pressure is very difficult. Many were torn from the photographer's hands in the early days. An ingenious scheme recently perfected is to have in the corner of each exposure the photograph of a compass needle. Motion picture films with upwards of seven hundred possible exposures are being used with success.

Before an offensive thousands of pictures are taken. The information is collated by experts and the commander's maps are brought up to the minute. This will show such enemy activities as new railways, batteries, communication-trenches, and "pill-boxes".

Before leaving their destination, air raiders are supplied with photographs on which are marked certain areas which require their special attention. It is customary for bombing planes to make exposures before and after their work so as to show the measure of success attained. Drum-fire ranges are often secured from photographs. So expeditious is this branch of the service that, in some cases, it is only a matter of minutes from the taking of the pictures till the negative is before the reader.

Much of the aerial activity on the Western front is caused by the attempts of cameraplanes to secure photographs. This, of course, results in conflicts between the accompanying battleplanes and the enemy's planes.

CANARIES FOR MILITARY USE.

The engineers who do such splendid work in "elevating" the enemy have taken a leaf from the book of the coal-miners. The dread foe of the latter and former alike is an invisible, inodorous gas—carbon monoxide. This substance is one of the products of the explosions. If the enemy's tunnel is close at hand, the gas may penetrate that in which the Allied soldiers are working. At times a tunnel is fouled by the explosions set off within it and the members of the working-party succumb to an insidious foe. Since birds feel the poisonous effects of the gas before human beings do, they are carried in cages held above the head, because the gas is slightly lighter than air. The canary falls over on its back in the presence of the gas, giving the men ample warning of their danger. The return to fresh air revives many of the birds, some being veterans of several attacks. This seems to some a very cruel process, but the birds are just "doing their bit." They are saving men's lives and, of course, the life of a man is of much more value than the life of a canary.

The War and Neutral Nations

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TRULY the lot of the neutral is hard and as the war goes on will become more and more difficult. The rigorous methods at last adopted by the Allies, after months of procrastination and costly delay, have closed many of the ordinary channels of commerce. Numerous trade restrictions imposed by the belligerents have hit hard the industrial life of neutrals. The warfare of the great powers exposes the little neutral nations to the danger of being economically crushed between the battling giants. International agreements present new difficulties and conflicts of interests, and injure national industries. As a consequence, the cry of the conscientious neutral is raised against the so-called dictatorial conduct of the British fleet in its interpretation of international law as regards neutral rights.

This business of neutrality is a serious affair for any country and one of which the possible penalties have never been fully understood. Does the neutral consider the great cause for which Britain is fighting? Britain is fighting to establish the greatest of all neutral rights—the right to freedom. International law, like all human law, must have a certain elasticity and must conform to facts. Neutral commerce has received a blow that was inevitable because a great war cannot be strictly delimited. The infractions of neutral rights concern the non-essentials, whereas the great struggle concerns the fundamentals. An article in the *Round Table* expresses this idea. "When one of these fundamentals has been challenged, there ought in principle to be no neutral rights and no neutrals. . . . No nation is entitled to say that its rights entitle it to obstruct those who are endeavouring to defend international right and liberty." In time of peace the seas have been free for all countries. This freedom was won by the British fleet, three hundred years ago, and it has been maintained by the British fleet ever since.

While the Allies fight together and trade together in increasing friendship, the neutral countries, Switzerland, Finland, Denmark, Holland, and Norway, are experiencing an isolation of increasing coldness. Yet those neutral nations are facing a dilemma. Their economic existence is just as dependent on importation of coal and iron from the Central Powers as upon overseas importation of foodstuffs and raw materials from the Entente countries. Neutrals, therefore, have until the present been supplying Germany freely with various necessities.

They seem to have depended upon the certainty of the Allies long-suffering tolerance as against an equally sure knowledge that Germany will stand no trifling, and will inflict speedy and severe punishment for disregard of her behests. Neutral nations not only fail to lend a helping hand but they put obstacles in the way of the Allies. Britain's sons and brothers are being killed at the front in hellish carnage; her seamen are sent to their deaths by all manner of devilish piracies; her women and children are murdered from the skies in a ruthless endeavour to terrorize her; and yet she is expected to listen patiently to complaints that neutrals are not allowed to carry on "business as usual". It is surprising to see neutral nations themselves accept from Germany murder, rapine, and insult, patiently and even politely; while they raise an almost greater protest because the Allies insist on inspecting their commerce and maintaining a postal censorship.

Consider the export policy of Holland alone. That country sustained and encouraged the universal enemy by supplying him in the most prodigal manner with foodstuffs and other things which he needed badly for carrying on the war. This roaring trade with Germany had finally deprived the Dutch people themselves of a sufficient share of their own foodstuffs, besides at the same time provoking resentment among the Allied nations. The moral policy in regard to boycotting Germany was not compatible with neutrality. Strict impartiality has not been shown. Germany has been favoured, simply because she offered the Dutch the highest prices and probably enforced her offers with threats.

Official statistics reveal that in two years the total quantities of the principal Dutch products exported to Germany amounted to 1,176,961 metric tons, while to England the exports amounted to 72,087 metric tons. Figures for nine months show that Holland's exports to Germany exceeded by £24,000,000 her imports from Germany. What is the result of this policy of Holland? To-day Holland is flooded with German money and as Germany long ago stopped sending gold to Holland, the balance was largely paid in notes which are likely to become "scraps of paper". In the case of potatoes, Holland produces far more than she needs for home consumption. Ordinarily ten pounds of potatoes are consumed weekly per head of population. Now the government is compelled to ration the people because of the export to Germany, and some people are receiving one pound per week while many others are entirely deprived of potatoes; the same condition obtains with regard to eggs, vegetables, beans, and peas. Of course, Germany bullies Holland unceasingly. The rulers of Berlin dislike Dutch neutrality and keep an envious eye on the Scheldt, because in case of the loss of Zeebrugge, their submarine base could be removed to Antwerp. Dutch neutrality bars this waterway effectively and Germany can make use of

the Scheldt only by violating Dutch neutrality or pushing Holland into the war on her side. Queen Wilhelmina in a recent speech from the throne said: "Our people may yet be called upon to exercise their utmost strength for their freedom and independence."

The situation in Switzerland, the little mountain nation, is also interesting. The new president of the Republic, Felix Calonder, in a speech delivered in Geneva after his election for the 1918 term, affirmed the determination of his country to maintain its neutrality at all costs, although he saw the Swiss facing commercial disaster. An appeal was made to the Great Powers who hold the regulation of the Republic's imports in their hands to exercise a sense of justice and save the country from economic ruin. In the President's speech are these words: "We demand from the outside world the right as a peaceful, independent, strictly neutral nation, to maintain our life through our labour. We cannot be drawn into the war on the side of one of the powers without forfeiting our independence. We are not inclined to become dependent upon any one state. We are in sympathy with the new system of international law. We regard as our sacred duty the promoting, the elevation, of humanity to happier conditions of life based on international friendship and justice."

The little Alpine Republic seems proud to maintain undiminished her noble traditions and to continue to afford a secure place of shelter for political refugees. But Swiss hospitality has been shamefully abused by injurious and disintegrating foreign practices, such as usury, espionage, and anti-militarist propaganda. All foreigners who behave respectably may still enjoy Swiss hospitality. Switzerland asserts that during the continuation of this terrible misery she can do nothing better nor worthier than to maintain her Samaritan-like service in behalf of the peoples scourged by war.

In order to make the blockade of Germany more effective, the export policy of neutral nations has had to be adjusted to new conditions. The War Trade Board has negotiated export agreements with Switzerland, Finland, Denmark, Holland, and Norway. These neutrals have made these agreements because of their own needs; and, because they foresee Germany's inevitable defeat, they dare to act now in defiance of Germany's threats.

If Norway, the last to negotiate a trade treaty with the Allies, were actually taking part in the war, her losses would not exceed those which she has suffered as a neutral. German submarines have sunk more than 700 Norwegian ships and taken the lives of 5,000 men on board of them. Up to the present, more than one-third of Norway's merchant tonnage is destroyed. Now Norway agrees to send no food to Germany except 48,000 tons of fish in the year. No fish-oil, and no preparations of fish,

may be made by the aid of supplies from the Allies. Copper may be sold only in return for manufactured goods. Ores rich in sulphur are forbidden. No nickel is to be exported, nor is any importation to be passed on to the Central Powers. Norwegian ships, 300,000 tons in all, nearing completion in the private yards of the United States have been commandeered by the American Government, the full price being paid in advance.

Holland agreed to grant to the Government of the United States for six months the use of eighty-two of her ships now lying idle in American ports. The Swiss have declined the offer of help from the Teutons because of the expected American shipment, although Germany and Austria offered 5,000 waggon-loads of grain to relieve the shortage. It is now agreed that Swedish ships lying in United States harbours will go into trade with South America. Some will carry supplies to Sweden. Thus by determination and firmness, neutrals are brought into line.

There seems to be a widespread fear that the Allies, besides establishing punitive tariffs against enemy states, will grant to one another such preferential treatment as will seriously injure business with neutrals. It is by no means certain that such a course will be adopted, but if it should be, who can deny its justice? People who have fought together are likely to trade together, and those who stand aloof from the pains and penalties of war cannot legitimately expect to pluck the prizes of post-bellum commerce.

Diary of the War

FEBRUARY, 1918.

- Feb. 1. *Sir Eric Geddes announces his belief that we are now sinking submarines as fast as Germany can build them; the U-boats are being held; and our tonnage losses are now less than they were before Germany's unlimited submarine warfare began. Greek troops mutiny at Lamia; the mutiny is soon suppressed and M.M. Skouloudis and Lambros and other adherents of ex-King Constantine are arrested. British repulse a German raid west of Arieux-en-Gohelle. The Ukraine Republic is recognized by Berlin. Strikes on the decrease in Germany. Italians, by a sudden attack at daybreak, advance their lines to the head of the Telago Valley.*
- Feb. 2. German newspapers attribute the strikes to an Anglo-American plot and allege that the sum of \$60,000,000 was subscribed in Washington for the purpose.
- Feb. 3. Mr. Baker, American Secretary of War, announces that American troops are now occupying certain parts of the West front. It is announced that the Versailles Conference decided that, in view of the speeches by Counts Hertling and Czernin, the only thing to do was to prosecute the war vigorously. An enlargement of the Council's powers also announced. Great air activity on West front; ten hostile machines announced brought down. Civil war raging in Finland. British forces pursuing Germans in Mozambique; they occupy Utarika, and Lujenda Valley; the main body of the enemy retreats eastwards.

- Feb. 4. Trial of Bolo Pasha for treason begins in Paris. General Kaledin renounces leadership of Don Cossacks in favour of General Alexeieff, who, with 30,000 men, moves towards Moscow.
- Feb. 5. The *Tuscania*, carrying 2,179 American troops is sunk by torpedo off the north coast of Ireland; 166 missing. Germans repulsed by French in an attack on the Chemin des Dames in the Aisne sector. French air raiders drop bombs on the Saarbrücken railway junction.
- Feb. 6. Germany gives Roumania four days in which to enter into peace negotiations; this is subsequently denied, but the Bratiano cabinet resigns. Rome announces that Austrians continue air raids on Venice, Mestre and Treviso.
- Feb. 7. French repulse two attacks near Banholz. *Mr. Bonar Law announces that the German U-boats have slain 14,120 non-combatant British men, women, and children.*
- Feb. 8. Admiral Jellicoe records his hopes that the submarine menace will be killed by about August, 1918; he recalls Lord Fisher's warning in 1911 that Germany would employ submarines against merchant shipping. British destroyer, *Boxer*, sunk in Channel as a result of collision; one missing. German attacks north of Chemin des Dames and in the Woevre repulsed by French. General Gaetano Giardino succeeds General Cadorna as Italian member of the Versailles Military Committee. No actions of importance on the British front.
- Feb. 9. *The Ukraine Rada concludes a peace with the enemy powers*; in the new Ukraine State parts of Poland and Grodno are included. General Averescu forms a Roumanian Cabinet. The Foreign Office announces that the embargo on Dutch commercial cables is provisionally raised.
- Feb. 10. *Russia out of the War.* M. Trotsky states that a state of war with the enemy powers is ended, although no formal treaty of peace is signed. Two Austrian raids repulsed by Italians near Doane-Chiese, in the Asiago sector. Metz is bombarded successfully, ten tons of explosives being dropped; one machine is missing. Lord Beaverbrook appointed Minister in charge of Propaganda in succession to Sir Edward Carson.
- Feb. 11. Violent concentration of fire and offensive thrusts on either side of Frenzela Gorge defeated, and an attempted landing at the Zenson loop of the Piave driven off by the Italians. *Berlin announces 31 air raids on Germany in January, with a total of 14 casualties.* The death of Abdul Hamid, the former Sultan of Turkey, is announced. President Wilson addresses a reply to Congress to the speeches of Counts Hertling and Czernin; no general peace can be obtained by method of separate negotiations; all the nations in the war must join in a settlement. M. Trotsky announces that although Russia will fight no longer, neither will she negotiate for peace; he protests against impossible German terms, but states that Russia cannot continue a war begun by czars and capitalists, nor can she continue to fight against Austrian and German workmen and peasants. Demobilization of the Russian army commenced.
- Feb. 12. *Canadians conduct raids near Hargicourt and Lens.* Great air activity. British raid on Offenburg; French raids on Thionville, Conflans, Chambley and Metz-Sablons. Germans bomb Nancy. Scandinavian refugees reaching Stockholm recount terrible stories of massacres by the Red Guards in Helsingfors and Tammenfors. Mr. Lloyd George, in a stirring speech, defends the decisions of the Versailles Council, which, he states, were unanimous.

- Feb. 13. The French, aided by the Americans in their artillery preparations, win the German salient between Tahure and Butte du Mesnil, Champagne, on a 1,500-yard front, penetrating to the German third line; 177 prisoners. General Kaledin commits suicide. General Alexeieff and his Don Cossacks defeated by the Bolsheviks.
- Feb. 14. *Canadians raid near Lens.* Teutons transfer large forces from the Eastern to the Western front. Austrians celebrate the Russian peace by the flying of flags and holding of thanksgiving in Vienna. Bolo Pasha condemned to death for treason. General Allenby advances on a front of six miles to a depth of two on either side of Mukhmas, east of the Jerusalem-Shechem road.
- Feb. 15. Bolsheviks gain domination in many parts of Finland. Russians agree to give up the soil captured from the Turks. Eight British craft, consisting of a trawler and seven drifters searching for a submarine in the Straits of Dover, are sunk by a flotilla of at least ten large German destroyers. Dover is shelled by a German submarine; one killed and seven wounded.
- Feb. 16. Sir Wm. Robertson resigns his position as Chief of the General Staff and is succeeded by Sir Henry Wilson. German aeroplanes raid London; of six which made the attempt only one managed to penetrate the defences; eleven killed, four injured. A later raid on Dover is driven off and one enemy machine brought down. General Ivanoff reported killed at Kieff. *Canadians commemorate the arrival of the First Contingent at the front lines in France three years ago.*
- Feb. 17. Two more air raids on London. One machine out of six or seven penetrates the defences; 19 killed, 34 injured. British machines raid Conflans and bomb the railway. Germans concentrate forces against the Bolsheviks and announce that the Russian armistice expires on the 18th.
- Feb. 18. Russian Government demands the evacuation of Bessarabia by the Roumanians. *Germans invade Russia.* An army crosses the Dwina and occupies Dvinsk and Lutsk. In the south at the invitation of Ukraine, the Germans make progress towards Kovel. Russians evacuate Armenia and Turks reach Platana, eight miles from Trebizond. Violent artillery engagements along the whole Italian front. French defeat an enemy attempt to recapture the ground lost near Tahure in Champagne. British airmen raid Tréves and Thionville twice within 36 hours; two machines missing. Germans try to raid London but fail to penetrate the defences. British carry out a raid in Houthulst Forest.
- Feb. 19. The Teuton army from Riga penetrates into Volhynia; 2,500 prisoners and many hundreds of guns taken. General Allenby advances on a front of fifteen miles to a depth of two in the direction of Jericho. A serious crisis arises in the political situation in Great Britain through the resignation of Sir Wm. Robertson. Mr. Lloyd George defends the Versailles arrangements and announces that Sir Henry Rawlinson has been appointed to Versailles.
- Feb. 20. Many raids on the British front. French make extensive raid in Lorraine, east of Nancy and take 525 prisoners. German advance in Russia continues in the directions of Reval, Petrograd, Moscow and Kiev; 9,000 prisoners to date. General Marshall advances up the Euphrates and occupies Khan Abu Rayat, fourteen miles north of Ramadie; patrols reach within ten miles of Hit. General Allenby drives north of Jerusalem on a four-mile front along the Shechem road. He reaches within four miles of Jericho.

- Feb. 21. *General Allenby captures Jericho.* British establish on the line of Jordan threatening the Hedjaz railway and the Turkish troops between them and the forces of the King of Hedjaz. *German peace terms with Russia announced:* Poland, the Baltic Provinces, Lithuania, Ukraine and Finland to be surrendered; the army to be demobilised, and warships, including those of Great Britain and France to be disarmed and interned; the Russo-German treaty of 1904 to be revived. German forces occupy Hapsal and Minsk; they move eastwards fifty miles and reach a point sixty miles from Reval. Turks reconquer almost the whole of Armenia; many massacres.
- Feb. 22. Viscount Milner at Plymouth deprecates so much talk about war aims and advocates a vigorous prosecution of the war. Forty-five German warships approach Reval. German penetration of Russia proceeds on a 500-mile front; civil war rages in Russia.
- Feb. 23. Turks retreat northwards from Jericho; they still have access to the Hedjaz railway *via* a bridge across the Jordan.
- Feb. 24. *Turks capture Trebizond.* German raider *Wolf* returns to Pola after a voyage of 15 months; she has sunk 11 vessels of a total tonnage of upwards of 32,000 in the Indian, and Pacific Oceans. Germans take Dorpat; 3,000 prisoners. In the Ukraine they reach Zhitomir. Viscount Motono states that if Russia concludes a separate peace "Japan will take steps of the most decided and most adequate character to meet the occasion". Memorandum on war aims published by Inter-Allied Labour Conference at Westminster.
- Feb. 25. *Fall of Pskoff to the Germans;* more resistance from the Russians who announce their determination to defend Petrograd. Bolsheviks defeated in the Ukraine by Linsingen. Peace negotiations between Roumania and Germany begin at Bucharest.
- Feb. 26. The hospital ship, *Glenart Castle*, outward bound, is sunk by submarine in the Bristol Channel; 162 lost out of 200. British patrols in Palestine reach the Dead Sea.
- Feb. 27. German advance in Russia continues. Artillery activity increases on the Western front.
- Feb. 28. Shipbuilding output in Britain shows welcome increase for month over that of January. The German concentration between Arras and Laon continues. British said to expect a blow in this sector very shortly.

The Russian Revolution—The First Phase

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BY the beginning of 1917, it was plain that Russia was facing a tremendous political crisis. The Tsar was showing an unmistakable tendency towards a reactionary policy. General Shuvaiev, who had the full confidence of both the Duma and the Army, was removed from his post as Minister of War. Prince Golitzin, an avowed reactionary, was made Premier. To him the Tsar issued a rescript, outlining the duties of the government. This practice had been dropped

since the granting of constitutional government in 1905, and its revival was taken by all Russia to indicate the Tsar's determination to revert to autocratic government.

In addition to the gloomy political outlook, many other considerations were gradually uniting the people of Russia in opposition to the Court and the malign influences which were paramount there. Chief among these may be mentioned the monk Rasputin, whose name so stank in the nostrils of all true Russians that his assassination by a few nobles caused a wild outburst of rejoicing in Petrograd. His ascendancy over the Tsar had alienated the affections of many of the best and most patriotic of the nobility. The people in all the larger centres were suffering from lack of food because the government was absolutely incompetent to supervise the transportation system in such a way as to secure an equable distribution. The army at the front suffered not only from the inevitable difficulties arising from poor transports, but even more from the dishonesty and inconceivable corruption of Petrograd officialdom. The soldiers in the ranks had fought machine-guns with bayonets, because the shipments of machine-guns from England so sorely needed at the front were given to the police in Petrograd to keep the city from revolt. Time and again the army leaders had seen the fruits of victory elude their grasp because the government through supineness or actual treachery had prevented necessary supplies from reaching them. The nobility, the commons, and the army, were all ripe for a movement to end the conditions which had grown intolerable for all.

Through January and February the people of Petrograd, in which the revolution naturally began, remained quiet under all provocation. In March, however, the food situation became very serious, and hunger began to make the people impatient. On March 9th, Petrograd was filled with huge crowds, still quiet and still good-natured. The soldiers and Cossacks fraternized with the crowds and assured them that they would never fire upon them even if ordered.

The next day, Saturday, the street-cars stopped running, and the air grew tense with expectation. The workmen who had finished their week's work helped to swell the crowds which still surged aimlessly through the streets.

On Sunday the Government acted. The military governor of Petrograd announced that the police had orders to clear the streets and that any workman refusing to return to work on Monday morning would be sent direct to the trenches. Regular troops were brought in to assist the police; during the day the crowds were fired upon and some two hundred people killed. One company of the Pavlovsk regiment mutinied when ordered to fire upon the people; this was significant as an indication that the Army, upon which the success of the revolution depended, would not defend the government.

On that same day the Premier, Golitzin, prorogued the Duma. The Duma, however, refused to rise and elected a Provisional Committee which continued in session. The President of the Duma, Rodzianko, declared that the Duma was now the only constitutional authority in Russia:

The next day proved to be the crucial point in the revolution. Early in the morning the crack regiment of the Household Troops were ordered to fire on the mob; their reply was to shoot down their own officers. Another regiment was sent to deal with them and also mutinied. The whole garrison of Petrograd eventually joined them. The soldiers spent the day in capturing the arsenal, all the prisoners, and the fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul. By night-fall the revolution in Petrograd was complete.

Rodzianko had already telegraphed to the Tsar an account of the situation in Petrograd on March 12th. By the 14th, General Ivanov was on his way to quell the insurrection with troops from the northern army. His train never reached Petrograd and after some ineffectual attempts to enter the city he returned to Pskov.

The Tsar also was prevented from reaching the capital and returned to Pskov. On the morning of March 15th, he sent for General Ruzsky and informed him that he would grant a constitutional government and a responsible ministry. By Ruzsky's advice the Tsar communicated with Rodzianko and the other army leaders by telephone and was convinced by them that the only course was to abdicate. On the evening of the same day Guchkov arrived from Petrograd, and received from the Emperor a written proclamation of his abdication in favour of his (the Tsar's) brother.

In Petrograd two organizations were already beginning to direct the affairs of the nation. The one, the Duma Committee, was composed of sane and moderate men who desired a constitutional monarchy to replace the old autocracy. The other, the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates, consisted largely of ignorant peasants or artisans who wished a republican form of government, as far as they considered the question at all. As a body, they were much more concerned with the rights of the lower classes than with the reform of government, and for them revolution offered a splendid opportunity to push to extremes their socialistic theories.

The Duma committee began its task of establishing a working authority by appointing a Provisional Government until a constitution could be formulated and elections held. The outstanding figures in this Government were Prince Lvov as Premier and M. Kerenski as Minister of Justice. This arrangement was accepted by the Council of Delegates by a vote of 1,000 to 15 but only on condition that the Grand Duke

Michael, in whose favour the Tsar had abdicated, should resign the Regency at once. This was done and all power was vested in the Provisional Government until a Constituent Assembly could decide upon the future.

In one short week autocracy had been swept from its throne. The revolution had triumphed at a lower cost in human life than any other movement of the same magnitude in history. The cause of its quick and almost bloodless success was the adhesion of the army. Upon the army rested the future of Russia, for it was obvious that only with its consent could any stable government be secured.

Unfortunately, the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' delegates chose the army as the most promising field for its pernicious activities. Emissaries were sent from Petrograd to "democratize" the army. This campaign resulted in the thorough demoralization of Russia's fighting force. Discipline no longer existed; men refused to obey their officers; the protection of Russia no longer was a duty. Military camps were converted into electioneering districts, and a splendid army was gradually reduced to a rabble. With this destruction of the army vanished Russia's one hope of emerging from the war and the revolution with an honourable peace and a stable government.

Greece and the War

PROFESSOR PETER SANDIFORD, M.SC., PH.D.
Faculty of Education, University of Toronto

GREECE'S part in the war has been determined in a large measure by the "Middle Europe" policy of Germany and the project of the Bagdad railway. In the late 'nineties' Germany supplanted England as the protector of Turkey against Russia. The Kaiser visited the Holy Land in 1898 and, in a speech made at Damascus, assured the three hundred million Mohammedans scattered over the globe that "the German Emperor will be their friend at all times."

In 1902 and 1903 Germany obtained concessions from Turkey for the construction of a railway to Bagdad and a little later proposed an extension to the Persian Gulf. This railway became a political, as well as an economic, weapon pointed at British rule in India.

With the railway scheme matured the Middle Europe policy of Germany. She aimed at a loosely-federated combination of Central European states under the hegemony of Germany. The German Empire and Austria-Hungary were to be the leading partners, but it was also to include the Balkan States and Turkey, together with all the neutral

states—Roumania, Greece, the Scandinavian Kingdoms, and Holland—that could be drawn within its embrace. The federation was for purposes of offence and defence, military as well as economic.

Pursuing this policy Austria-Hungary annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908. Serbia was too weak to retaliate and Russia was too much exhausted from her war with Japan to render any effective help.

In a more subtle way the Middle Europe policy of Germany was furthered by the formation of Hohenzollern alliances with each of the Balkan rulers, except King Peter of Serbia. King Constantine of Greece married the Kaiser's sister, thus making the court of Greece a hotbed of Hohenzollern intrigue.

One man in Greece withstood the flattery and bribes of Germany. This man was Venizelos, one of the world's greatest statesmen. He had vision and integrity, and looked forward to the time when Greater Greece would include the Greeks then living under the yoke of the Turks.

Towards this end he patiently pursued his course. He realized that the dead hand of Turkey must first be removed from Christian Europe. He formed a secret league of Greece, Serbia, Bulgaria, and Montenegro whose object was the expulsion of Turkey from Europe and the liberation of their fellow-Christians from Turkish misrule. The league declared war on Turkey on October 16th, 1912. In this, the first Balkan war, their object was almost achieved. By the Treaty of London, signed May 30th, 1913, only Constantinople and the surrounding territory to the Enos-Midia line remained to the Turks. The division of territory left everyone dissatisfied. Serbia was denied her much-desired outlet on the Adriatic and requested compensation in that part of Macedonia claimed by Bulgaria. Germany and Austria fomented the consequent feud and the second Balkan war was the result. Greece, Serbia, and Montenegro, joined later by Roumania, utterly defeated Bulgaria. By the Treaty of Bucharest (August 6th, 1913) most of the territory conquered from Turkey was given to Greece, Serbia, and Montenegro, though Serbia, through pressure from the Triple Alliance, was refused an outlet on the Adriatic. Greece held Salonika, giving Serbia certain rights of outlet through it. Roumania acquired part of Dobrudja. Bulgaria lost Adrianople to Turkey, and Albania was made a principality under the German ruler, William of Wied. Germany and Austria had "guessed badly", had supported the losing side, had weakened their hold over the Balkans, and had seriously impaired their "Middle Europe" plan. A new assertion of power on the part of Germany and Austria, principally against Serbia and Greece, was made practically certain.

The new assertion came suddenly. The murder at Serajevo supplied the pretext. Austria wanted a corridor to Salonika; Germany to Constantinople.

What part would Greece play? King Constantine was the idol of militaristic Greece on account of his conquests in the Balkan Wars. He was strongly Germanophil in sentiment and confidently believed in the ultimate success of German arms. Venizelos was opposed to him, seeing that the crushing of Serbia meant the certain loss of Salonika to Greece. If Greece sided with the Allies all the aspirations of the pan-Greeks could be fulfilled. Greece was also bound by secret treaty to Serbia. This treaty secured the assistance of the second party should one of them be attacked by Bulgaria. The treacherous Constantine read the treaty in one way; Venizelos in another. According to the King "The Greco-Serbian Treaty deals with a Balkan War, and a Balkan War alone. It was to come into force only in case either Greece or Serbia was attacked by Bulgaria alone. Clearly it did not refer, and was never intended to refer, to the case of Serbia being attacked by two of the great military powers of Europe as well as by Bulgaria." In vain Venizelos urged that Greece was "called to participate in the war, no longer in order to fulfil simply moral obligations, which, if realized, will create a great and powerful Greece, such as not even the boldest optimist could have imagined a few years back." He was prepared to make adequate concessions to Bulgaria. He would even "sacrifice Kavala in order to save Hellenism in Turkey and to ensure the creation of a real Magna Grecia." Constantine rejected these arguments and he was supported by his General Staff. Instead of having the active co-operation of Greece and Bulgaria in the Dardanelles Campaign of 1915, the Allies were left to struggle as best they might.

Certain it is that the Dardanelles campaign would not have been undertaken unless the Allies had felt confident of intervention by Greece. The treacherous Constantine, in defending his attitude, stated "The pitiable condition of Belgium was always before my eyes. I desired at all costs to keep my country from sharing the perils and disasters of the great European conflagration."

Venizelos continued to press unsuccessfully for intervention and in March, on the eve of the Dardanelles attack, he resigned office and appealed to public opinion on behalf of the policy for which he could not obtain the approval of the King. The Government found means to postpone a general election and soon afterwards the King's illness further delayed it.

There is no doubt that the duplicity of Constantine and his entourage, who were certainly in German pay, led to the failure of the Dardanelles campaign and brought in Bulgaria on the side of the Central Powers. What a different story could have been told if Greece had followed the advice of Venizelos, or later, had kept her treaty obligations with Serbia!

To return to Venizelos. In spite of the efforts of the pro-German Greek Government to remain in power, the Greek Parliament had at last to be called. On August 16th, 1915, the Venizelists were returned to power and Venizelos became Premier once more. He kept in close contact with the Entente Powers and, as the failure of the Dardanelles campaign became more pronounced, strove to keep Bulgaria out of the war. But in vain. On September 21st, 1915, seeing that Bulgaria was determined to enter the war on the side of the Germanic powers, he invited France and Britain to send 150,000 men to Salonika, and gave the express undertaking that Greece would mobilize. Circumstances were against him. The King, after signing the mobilization decree, afterwards repudiated it, and on October 5th, Venizelos was once more forced to resign. Serbia, without Greek support, was left to bear the brunt of a frontal invasion by Germany and Austria and a side attack from Bulgaria. How she succumbed to the terrific onslaughts was told in *THE SCHOOL* of January, 1917.

The invitation of Venizelos to send troops to Salonika was, however, acted upon. Anglo-French contingents began to arrive on October 3rd, 1915. The numbers increased too slowly to save Serbia. The Entente army, however, remained at Salonika. General Sarrail was in command and drew his lines to the greatest advantage for the defence of the city. The Central Powers were thus prevented from securing a valuable submarine base on the Aegean. Constantine was deterred from throwing his forces into the arms of the enemy. Salonika became the gathering ground for Allied forces. Early in 1916 contingents from Italy and Russia and the remnants of the Serbian army, which had been refitted on the Kaiser's island of Corfu, arrived. The Salonika army had become a force seriously to be reckoned with.

(To be continued).

Egypt—A British Protectorate

PRIOR to the war Egypt was a tributary state of the Turkish Empire and was ruled by an hereditary prince with the style of Khedive, a Persian title regarded as the equivalent of king. Since December 18th, 1914, the country has been a British Protectorate, recognized by France, Russia, Belgium, Norway, Serbia, Greece, and Portugal.

Egypt became tributary to Turkey in 1517 when it was conquered by Sultan Selim in the great Turkish invasions which carried the Turks into Europe, and as far westwards as the gates of Malta. Napoleon con-

quered it at the beginning of the nineteenth century, but Nelson at the Battle of the Nile showed that Egypt could be held only by a nation having control of the sea.

Hussein Kâmil Pasha, the first Sultan of Egypt under British protection, was the eighth ruler of the dynasty of Muhammad Ali. The latter was appointed Governor of Egypt in 1805, and by force of arms made himself absolute master of the country in 1811. The title given to Muhammad Ali and his immediate successors was the Turkish one of *Vali* or Viceroy, but this was changed to that of Khedive in 1866.

Hussein Kâmil Pasha was the son of the famous Ismail Pasha, a clever man, who, however, could not manage the finances of the country. The mis-government of Ismail and the precarious position of the Egyptian bondholders brought in the Western Powers, France and Britain, and a dual control was established over the administration. Ismail was deposed in 1879. A nationalist rising under Arabi soon took place. Alexandria was bombarded and the battle of Tel-el-Kebir was won by Wolseley. As France had left Great Britain to cope single-handed against Arabi, the government of Egypt was, from 1882, practically in Britain's hands. She restored the Khedive's power, reconquered the Sudan, and placed the country's finances upon a secure basis.

At the outbreak of the war Egypt was a prosperous and, on the whole, a contented country. Still, Khedive Abbâs Hilmi, grandson of Ismail, went over to the enemy and retired to Constantinople. Consequently, a British Protectorate over Egypt was declared and next day December 19th, 1914, the following proclamation was issued: "His Britannic Majesty's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs gives notice that, in view of the action of His Highness Abbâs Hilmi Pasha, lately Khedive of Egypt, who has adhered to the King's enemies, His Majesty's Government has seen fit to depose him from the Khedivate, and that high dignity has been offered, with the title of Sultan of Egypt, to His Highness Prince Hussein Kâmil Pasha, eldest living Prince of the family of Muhammad Ali, and has been accepted by him."

There has thus been no annexation, although the shadowy suzerainty of Turkey has disappeared. The word "protectorate" is the vaguest of political terms, and may involve anything from virtual sovereignty to an almost complete absence of control. In this case it means that Britain has made herself wholly responsible for the defence of Egypt and for her foreign relations. She will continue the tribute to Constantinople since that tribute is ear-marked for the interest on the Ottoman debt and is paid direct to the bondholders. In this dignified yet effective way Great Britain has defeated Germany's plan "to place her heel on the neck of the British Empire."

The May Competition in Art

THE members of the committee were somewhat disappointed in the work submitted for Competition B and offer the following suggestions: (1) Attention should be given to the foreshortened appearance of the circle in its different relations to the observer's eye. (2) More practice should be given in drawing freehand ellipses. (3) No surface which is shaded should show a visible outline other than the edge of the tone itself. In most of the drawings submitted these outlines were clearly defined and in some cases had even been strengthened.

The drawings in the Lower School and the Middle School competitions this month required a careful application of the principles of perspective. Many students failed to produce a correct drawing because they made the receding lines of books, rack, and table vanish at different levels, or made the receding lines of the two doors converge to points not in the same level as had been chosen for the converging line of the floor and the ceiling.

Many practised no recognized system of pencil handling. The drawings of these in consequence showed the extremes of slovenliness or of prettiness.

A. Forms I and II.

First Prize—Harvey McCallum, Ryerson Public School, Owen Sound. Teacher, Miss Helen Shaw.

Second Prize—Bertha Matthews, Alexandra School, Moose Jaw, Sask. Teacher, Miss A. B. Jones.

Third Prize—Myrtle Stephens, King Edward School, Moose Jaw, Sask. Teacher, Miss E. Reuter.

Honourable Mention for Merit—Harold Williams, Mary Russel, Victor Veal, The George Syme School, Runnymede. Stephen Kitney, Flora Cameron, Jack Shaw, William MacKay, Wallace Monroe, Walter Oke, Bobbie Thomson, Prince Arthur School, Moose Jaw, Sask. Ruby Swenson, Grace Poole, Reta Burgess, Margaret Fraser, Ursula Walmsley, Edith Romans, Alexandra School, Moose Jaw, Sask. Frank Richardson, Bertie Price, Empire School, Moose Jaw, Sask. Josephine Hargreaves, Beatrice Laycock, Jack Saunders, King Edward School, Moose Jaw, Sask. Florence Habart, Gordon Legate, Lucille Green, Clifford Goldsmith, Lillian Harrison, Florence Peel, Ryerson Public School, Owen Sound. Clara Fraser, Sadie Wollrich, Raeburn Nixon, I. Fraser, Strathcona School, Owen Sound. Josephine Aussem, Lois Duffy, Ernest Delorme, Georgina Guay, Jack Delorme, Monica Boyes, Winston Hamilton, St. Patrick's School, Hamilton.

B. Forms III and IV.

First Prize—Neil Campbell, Ryerson Public School, Owen Sound. Teacher, W. Douglass.

Second Prize—K. Batty, Dufferin Public School, Owen Sound. Teacher, James Shaw.

Third Prize—Caroline Bociek, St. Ann's School, Hamilton. Teacher, Sister Bertrand.

Honourable Mention for Merit—Leo Kelly, Dolores McCarthy, Veronica Sullivan, Marjorie Sauve, Viola Gillem, St. Lawrence School, Hamilton. Frank Adams, Nellie McKay, Loretta Crecine, Olive English, Douglas English, F. McMurphy, Ryerson Public School, Owen Sound. May Wright, Grace Wilson, Fred Hamlin, Janet Barclay, Lillian Marchant, Herbert Taylor, Perth Avenue School, Toronto. Roy Taylor, Annie Pickell, Madeline McMeekin, Garfield Paterson, Barrett Wilcox, Etta Flanagan, Dufferin Public School, Owen Sound. Stanley King, Mabel Vincent, David Hilt, Nellie Alexander, Perry Smith, George Flute, Ethel Brown, Strathcona School, Owen Sound. Stella Malec, Florence Finan, Annie Bociek, Salvatore Padrone, St. Anns' School, Hamilton. H. Sweeney, Jack Keely, St. Lawrence School, Hamilton. Stephina Karzewska, James Hamilton, Lillian Shea, John Dowler, Arthur Samson, Marguerite Johnson, St. Ann's School, Hamilton.

C. Lower School.

First Prize—Sam Kamin, Jarvis Collegiate Institute, Toronto. Teacher, A. E. Allin, M.A.

Second Prize—Majorie McKeown, Collegiate Institute, Hamilton. Teacher, Geo. L. Johnston, B.A.

Third Prize—Margaret Althouse, Continuation School, Winona. Teacher, Miss Mabel Van Duzer, B.A.

Honourable Mention for Merit—Oliver Austin, Pauline Brown, Fred A. Hall, Jarvis Collegiate Institute, Toronto. Lottie Avery, Margaret Finlayson, Olive Stirling, Janet Welsh, High School, Kincardine. Verna M. Lewis, Emma Camps, Anna Nugent, Continuation School, Winona. W. Smith, E. R. Beatty, Margaret Morris, N. Smith, W. Patterson, W. A. Minden, Collegiate Institute, Hamilton. Gertrude Flanagan, Marguerite Hanlon, Hanna Dwyer, Anna Woods, Margaret Flanagan, Marie Keating, Loretto Convent, Stratford. Elizabeth Hooey, Grace Rose, High School, Port Perry. Mary Robinson, Edna Honsberger, Addie Wiley, Gladys Mathews, Harvey Stevens, Marguerite Kane, Edith Clark, Collegiate Institute, St. Catharines.

D. Middle School.

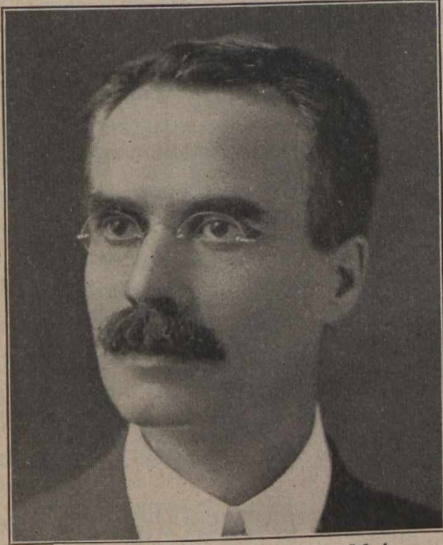
First Prize—Byne Ball, Collegiate Institute, Barrie. Teacher, Miss I. K. Cowan, B.A.

Second Prize—Sylvia L. Brown, High School, Kincardine. Teacher, Miss Agnes Hamilton.

Third Prize—Elizabeth Whaling, Loretto Convent, Stratford. Teacher, Sister Theodosia.

Honourable Mention for Merit—Mary Farrell, Doris Fair, Jessie Bell, Violet Hartwick, Ruth Nephew, High School, Kincardine. Mary Gaunt, Nellie De Courcy, Louise Longeway, Mary Walsh, Bertha Carbert, Mary O'Leary, Loretto Convent, Stratford. M. Nelson, Blanche Carruthers, May Grant, Gladys Hickling, M. R. McCuay, Collegiate Institute, Barrie. William Milne, High School, Durham. Louise Gilmore, High School, Alliston. Gertrude Henderson, Helen Gayman, A. Bowslaugh, Collegiate Institute, St. Catharines.

Leading Manitoba Educationists IV.



PRESIDENT J. B. REYNOLDS, M.A.
Agricultural College, Winnipeg

Black, B.A. In February, 1912, the College was granted degree-conferring powers, but in 1916 an Act was passed amending this and providing for re-affiliation with the University of Manitoba.

In recent years the College has entered upon a new phase of life under the Presidency of Mr. J. B. Reynolds, who succeeded Mr. Black. The earlier efforts are now bearing fruit; the earlier graduates are now able to tell of the benefits to be secured from the training, and altogether a wonderful interest in the work of the College is the result. A vigorous policy has been pursued whereby in many ways the College is linked up with industrial and agricultural life in all its phases.

Mr. Reynolds is an Ontario man of thorough training and wide experience. He was born on December 25th, 1867, in Durham County, was educated at the village school and then at Oshawa High School and in 1885 he obtained his Second Class certificate. In 1886 he matriculated into the University of Toronto with first class honours in mathematics, graduating in 1893 with first class honours in mathematics and physics. In the meantime he had experience in farm work during the summer and also taught very successfully at Enfield from 1888 to 1890.

After graduation in 1893 he was appointed Dean of Residence at the Ontario Agricultural College and was lecturer in physics and English

until 1906, when he became professor of English. This position he held until October, 1915, when he was appointed President of the Manitoba Agricultural College, the position he now holds.

It would take a very long article to deal justly with the institution and the activities of its staff, and it is possible to touch upon only some of the things President Reynolds is attempting to do. The attendance this year is 160 men and 100 women. This is very satisfactory when one thinks of the demands made upon manhood these times. In addition to the established course, many additional courses are given throughout the year and the College is in continuous session. For example, some 240 teachers took the special Teachers' Course. Just now attention is being paid to returned soldiers, some seventy being in attendance.

President Reynolds keeps the college in close touch with the rural schools and it now offers a three-year B.S.A. course to teachers with First Class certificates. Correspondence courses in engineering, poultry, and botany are being tried, and courses for young women in institutional management for hospitals, Y.M.C.A. work, nursing, domestic science, etc., are offered.

President Reynolds is more than a college Principal; he is a public-spirited man who spares no time, no effort, no thought which might help forward the movement for rural welfare. He is a talented speaker with the knack of presenting questions and problems in such an attractive manner as to win hearty co-operation. The business men and farmers of the West have learned to trust him and he is generally recognized as one of the strong men of the time.

This brief sketch is concluded with two short quotations from his public utterances. "The College believes that a man who has had the advantage of a course at the Agricultural College may be something more than a farmer privately profiting by the instruction he has received. He may be of public service if he has acquired also the skill to tell what he knows." . . . "The profit of a college course, long or short, is not to be measured only in dollars and cents. There are friendships made, ambitions awakened, capacities developed for reading, observation, and research. These may not give any immediate return in money, may never give any such return; but they broaden and enrich the life, and thereby secure the highest result of education."

E. K. MARSHALL.

Young Arthur was wrestling with a lesson in grammar. "Father," said he, thoughtfully, "what part of speech is woman?"

"Woman, my boy, is not part of speech; she is all of it," returned father.—*Milwaukee Sentinel*.

Recent Educational Books

[The books listed here have been received from the publishers during the past month. Reviews of most of them will appear in forthcoming issues.]

Visual Geography, Book III, Many Lands, by Agnes Nightingale. 48 pages. Price 10d. Messrs. A. & C. Black, London, Eng. By means of simple pictures this book aims at cultivating the power of "visualization" or "thinking in shapes" and helping to develop the geographical imagination. The book has been so arranged that there is "something to do" as well as something to see and read about.

Selected Poems of Coleridge and Tennyson. Edited by Professor J. F. Macdonald. Price 25 cents. Oxford University Press, Toronto. This is a most excellent text published in the convenient and attractive form in which this firm is issuing its Canadian text-books. The introductions to the poems of the two authors are bright, well-written, and deal only with such facts as will help the pupils. The notes are clear and are in every way adapted to the needs of the matriculation student. There is a series of questions based on the poems and a number of poems for sight work. These latter are chosen in the main from the work of modern poets. A feature that should be very popular is the simply written but most interesting essay on the ballad. This will prove very helpful to both teacher and student when studying "The Ancient Mariner." All together, Professor Macdonald's little book is a worthy contribution to Canadian scholarship.

The World's Battle Fronts at a Glance. 44 pages. Price 1s. 3d. net. Messrs. George Philip & Son, London, Eng. This is a book of war maps, and very excellent maps they are.

English Literature in the XIXth Century, by Wm. Henry Hudson. 309 pages. Messrs. G. Bell & Sons, London, Eng. A comprehensive survey of English literature during the nineteenth century. Many minor authors who are little read now-a-days are included. The teacher of English will find this a useful and interesting book.

Outline of Economics, by R. E. Nelson. 154 pages. Messrs. G. Bell & Sons, London, Eng. A useful book for the teacher or student of economics. The material is arranged in very convenient fashion.

The Teaching of History, by Chas. H. Jarvis. 240 pages. Price 4s. 6d. net. Oxford University Press, Toronto.

Lessons in English History, by H. W. Carter. 208 pages. Oxford University Press, Toronto. This volume contains useful outlines for nearly seventy topics in British history. In many cases the outlines are accompanied by maps, plans, and extracts from sources. A bibliography suggests for each lesson the books which the teacher will find most serviceable.

The Glory of the Trenches, by Coningsby Dawson. 141 pages. Price \$1.00 net. S. B. Gundy, Toronto. This is a war book of the more serious type. It presents the higher and better side of the soldier's nature; indeed, it is almost a "soldier's creed." This "religion of heroism" which is the "Glory of the Trenches", and how it lays hold of all true men, is described in a manner which cannot fail to inspire everyone who reads the book.

The World we Live In, Vol. IV. Edited by Graeme Williams. 984 pages. The Waverley Book Co., London, Eng.

First Spanish Reader, by E. W. Roessler and Alfred Remy. 248 pages. American Book Co., New York.

Business English, by G. B. Hotchkiss and Celia Anne Drew. 376 pages. American Book Co., New York.

War Addresses of Woodrow Wilson. 129 pages. Messrs. Ginn & Co., Boston, Mass.

The Making of a Man, by W. D. Flatt. 154 pages. Wm. Briggs, Toronto. This is a very interesting narrative of the adventures of a young Scotchman who left his home in the Orkney Islands to enter the employ of the Hudson Bay Company. The book will make a strong appeal to boys—and girls. It is very appropriate for the school library.

Economy in Food, by Mabel Thacher Wellman. 36 pages. Price 30 cents, net. Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, Mass.

Hints for the Library

A Child's Own Book of Verse. Compiled by Ada M. Skinner and Frances Gillespy Wickes of the St. Agatha School. The Macmillan Co., Toronto. 1917. Three volumes containing approximately 275 choice selections. Prices, 40 cents, 45 cents and 50 cents. One of the richest and most attractive fields of literature in existence to-day is that which lies within the interest and comprehension of the young child. But children's literature is only beginning to take shape and form; the field is still largely untilled. In their endeavour to collect and classify literary material suited for use during the four primary years, Miss Skinner and Miss Wickes have made a real and much needed contribution to the subject. These books make most delightful and entertaining reading either for the young or for those maturer people in whom the child heart and child imagination still linger. Many of childhood's merry jingles, nursery rhymes, folk songs, and literary gems are to be found therein. After putting these books to the real test the reviewer unhesitatingly recommends that they be given a place in every school library and in every home where there is a child.

F. E. C.

An Introduction to the Study of International Relations, by A. J. Grant, J. D. I. Hughes and others. The Macmillan Co. of Canada, Ltd. 1916. Pp. vii, 207. Price 75 cents. There are six chapters and an appendix in this very interesting and instructive little work. Chapter I, "War and Peace since 1815", is an admirable summary of European politics by Professor Grant of Leeds. "Wars shall cease: Did ye not hear that conquest is abjured?" was the message of the French Revolution to their English sympathiser of that time, the poet Wordsworth. Yet in a few years all Europe had to combine against Napoleon just as now the whole world is lining up against the Central Powers which at that time were playing a noble part. The chapter is divided into: (a) Early Efforts to secure European Unity; (b) the Revolutions of 1848 and the new forces in Europe, which were Socialism and Nationalism; (c) Cavour, Napoleon III, and Bismarck; (d) Hopes and fears since 1871; (e) the Past and the Future. Though necessarily brief the matter is very clearly arranged. The second chapter which deals with "the Causes of Modern Wars" shows what part "national aspirations" have had in bringing about conflict and also demonstrates that if we abandon the idea of a "static" world, we must have a foreign policy. If that is true, then we must set our own house in order and by our example help to make the moral issue predominant in international relations. Mr. Urquhart in this chapter is working along lines similar to those followed by Professor Grant. Chapter three, by Mr. A. Greenwood on International Economic Relations, is the longest in the book. It puts forward no constructive proposals but it shows how difficult the problem will be, and suggests an international economic commission to deal with all the difficulties which may and doubtless will arise. International law is dealt with by Mr. J. D. I. Hughes in chapter four; and in chapter five the editor of the *Round Table* deals in his well known manner with the problem of the "Political Relations between Advanced and Backward people". The closing chapter, "International Relations and the Growth of Freedom" and the appendix are by Mr. Greenwood. At the end of each chapter is a brief annotated bibliography which adds very greatly to the value of the book.

L. E. H.

The Library, The School and the Child, by J. W. Emery. The Macmillan Co., Toronto. 1917. Price \$1.25. The public library has been the subject of a considerable literature, the larger part of which is, however, in library journals and other periodicals. Indexes and bibliographies make this magazine literature accessible, if one is near a large library; but even with the best facilities, it means the expenditure of much time to delve into it. Consequently a book which deals comprehensively with a library theme is a welcome addition to the comparatively small library of books on the library. This book is especially welcome, for Dr. Emery has chosen a theme of vital interest to educator and librarian. He places the child, and views the school and the library from the standpoint of their interpretation to the child's needs. He discusses the problem also from the standpoint of the educational administrator, and finds that there is a good deal to be done by Departments of Education. Dr. Emery's study of the question has produced an excellent book. He has familiarised himself with his subject and both the historical and the expositional chapters are well worked out. The bibliographies are helpful, and the section devoted to Normal School library training is very timely and suggestive. A wide reading of the book by the teachers of Canada would be very profitable.

E. A. H.

Notes and News

Dr. Silcox, Principal of Stratford Normal School, writes: "My attention has been called to the fact that the school year in Saskatchewan does not end on June 30th, as stated in my article, page 638, of the May issue, but on December 31st. Please make this correction."

A. M. Overholt, M.A., who has been Principal of Sarnia Collegiate Institute for the past five years, has been appointed to the principalship of Brantford Collegiate Institute; A. W. Burt, M.A., who has been Principal in Brantford for twenty-five years, takes the headship of the department of English in the same Collegiate.

Miss Elsie K. Beaman, formerly of Deseronto, is now Principal of Harrow Continuation School.

Miss Clara E. Cawsey, B.A., of last year's class in the Toronto Faculty of Education is on the staff of Tottenham Continuation School; Miss Roberta M. Hayes of the same class is at R.R. No. 4, Bowmanville.

The Ontario Department of Education has distributed to the teachers of the Province a book of 95 pages entitled *Canada's Part in the Present War*. This book contains a programme for the celebration of Empire Day and the material with which to carry out this programme. There are concise articles on "Why Canada entered the War", "The New National Consciousness", "Canada's Contribution in Men", "Canada's Contribution in Money"; vivid descriptions of the battles of St. Julien, Festubert, Givenchy, Courcellette, Vimy Ridge, Lens, Passchendaele Ridge; articles on "Trench Life", "The Schools and the War", "Conservation and Production", "Education after the War"; a "Diary of Canadian Activities", photographs and brief biographies of the Canadian generals, and a number of selections of poetry and prose which have a direct bearing on the present war. This is a most attractive and valuable book and will be preserved, no doubt, for general class work long after Empire Day has passed.

David Breslove, B.A., of Fort William Collegiate Institute is now on active service.

John Northgraves, for two years Principal of Neustadt Public School, enlisted with the 63rd battery and has been overseas for some time. Miss Ruth Rannie, formerly of S.S. No. 11, Carrick, is teaching at Pontypool. Miss Cassie Russell of last year's class in Stratford Normal School is Principal of Neustadt Public School. Miss Charlotte Weinert is teaching near Neustadt. Miss Esther Boese is on the staff of Victoria Public School, Kitchener.

At the Pittsburgh meeting of the National Education Association (June 30th to July 6th, 1918) Dr. Joseph Swain will deliver an address on "Our Profession Shall Not Go Into Bankruptcy". "He will present eye-opening facts showing how salaries have not kept pace with the increase in the cost of living. He will also face the problem courageously and point the way out." His committee have issued the following as a guide to thought and discussion of the problem: "Present salaries will not meet the ever-increasing cost of living. Teachers are leaving their schoolrooms by the thousands. They are taking up war work or entering industrial occupations. Their places are being filled, if at all, by unprepared and inexperienced recruits. Only our best efforts can maintain present standards. Our children need the best the country can provide. Democracy must have enlightened civilization through education. The United States Bureau of Education is supporting this movement".

J. T. M. Anderson, M.A., LL.B., D.Paed., Inspector of Schools, Yorkton, has published a book entitled "The Education of the New-Canadian". This is an intensely interesting and inspiring volume, dealing with one of Canada's most pressing problems. There are sixteen chapters. Teachers will enjoy especially those chapters dealing with the work that has been done among the foreign children of the West. Readers of *THE SCHOOL* will be familiar with the chapter on "The School Fair as a Factor in Racial Assimilation" and will be glad to read more of the same kind of material. There are other chapters dealing with "The Teaching of English", "The Type of Teacher Needed", "The 'Foreign' Teacher", "Parochial Schools," and similar topics. This book may be purchased from Messrs. J. M. Dent & Sons, 27 Melinda Street, Toronto.

In every issue of *THE SCHOOL* the advertisement of the Oxford University Press appears on the inside of the front cover. It appears there this month; but so large is the number of books this firm has for teachers' use that an additional page has been taken this month and a great deal of valuable information will be found on page X, the page immediately preceding the editorial notes.

Of the recent class in Calgary Normal School, Miss Henrietta Thornton is teaching at Stavely; Miss H. Carswell at Crossfield, Miss Alice Gilmer at Green Glades.

Miss Gladys A. Buchanan, a recent graduate of Camrose Normal School, is teaching at Maunders.

Miss Mary McAvella of last year's class in Peterborough Normal School, is teaching at Spring Creek.

T. E. Bailie, formerly of Calgary, is teaching in Medicine Hat.

Fred E. McCann of Niagara Falls South has enlisted with the 71st battery. His successor in the school is Miss Louie K. Lamont.

Miss Eva J. Martin, of a recent class in Yorkton Normal School, is teaching the Athlone School at Foam Lake; Miss Florence Riddall of the same class is at Esterhazy.

On May 14th, the organization of the Principals' Assistants' Association of Toronto was completed. The officers for the ensuing year are: President, Miss A. Katharine Kenyon, B.A.; Vice-President, Miss Grace Mitchell; Secretary-Treasurer, Miss Grace A. Anthes, 92 St. George Street, Toronto; Executive, Misses C. Malone, E. Legge, M. Skilling, J. L. Jameson, M.A., and M. R. Walker. This Association is formed for the purpose of encouraging social and professional union and efficiency of work pertaining to the Principals' Assistants' duties of the Toronto teaching staff.

W. N. Bell, B.A., D. Paed., Principal of Paris High School, is the author of a new book entitled *The Development of the Ontario High School* which promises to be a standard work on this subject. The historical development of the secondary schools of Ontario is traced in a most thorough manner. The book is published by the University of Toronto Press.

Alberta.

Among the resolutions of general interest passed at the recent Convention of the Alberta Educational Association held in Edmonton were the following:

RESOLVED that the Alberta Educational Association, in convention assembled, hereby expresses its approval of the organization of a Dominion Bureau of Education whose object shall be to collect such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several Provinces and Territories, and to diffuse such information respecting the organization and management of school systems and methods of teaching as shall aid the people of Canada in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

Further that this Association would urge upon all in authority in the Dominion and in the several Provinces the advisability of taking steps to effect an organization for this purpose in the near future.

And to this end, that copies of this resolution be forwarded to the various Provincial Educational Associations in Canada, to the Dominion Educational Association, to the Minister or the Superintendent of Education of each Province, and to the Honourable the Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden, also to the Honourable the Minister of Trade and Commerce, Sir George Foster. (Carried unanimously).

RESOLVED that in as much as this Association is saved the expense of an outside speaker for this year, and in as much as this association is in favour of the organization of a Dominion Bureau of Education this Association authorize the expenditure of a sum of money not exceeding Two Hundred and Fifty Dollars (\$250.00) for the purpose of providing representation from this Association at the other Provincial Associations throughout Canada with a view to securing their endorsement of and co-operation in the plan of seeking to induce the Dominion Government to organize a Dominion Bureau of Education. (Carried unanimously).

RESOLVED—1. That the Association reaffirm its position taken a year ago with reference to the Association's relationship to THE SCHOOL magazine.

2. That the general editor for the year be C. Sansom of the Calgary Normal School, and that the committee be: C. Sansom, Chairman; G. Fred McNally, L. F. Munro, J. T. Cuyler, W. Everard Edmonds. (Carried unanimously).

RESOLVED that whereas the Committee on Teachers' pensions has completed its work and has ceased to exist, and whereas it does not seem advisable that the consideration of the scheme of teachers' pensions should be allowed to remain in abeyance, and whereas because of the lack of the necessary organization to bring the matter before the various local bodies of teachers throughout the Province an apathy, which is only apparent, is alleged, the Alberta Teachers' Alliance be requested to take over the question of teachers' pensions. (Carried).

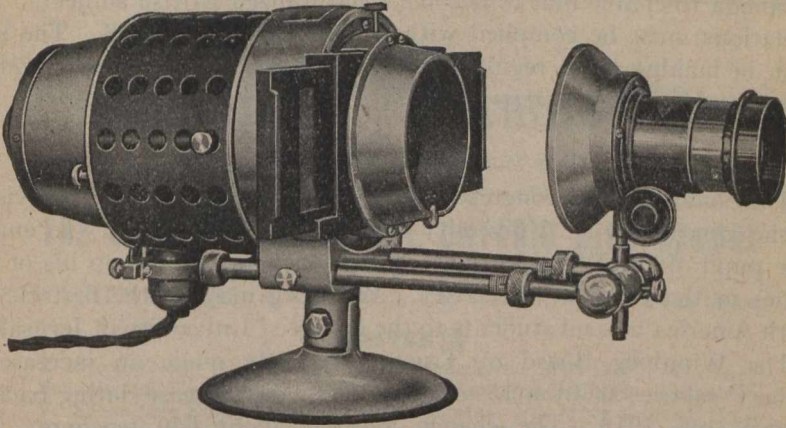
RESOLVED that whereas the membership of the Alberta Educational Association varies greatly from year to year owing to the difficulty and expense involved in reaching the place of meeting, and whereas other conventions have largely overcome this drawback through a system of pooling railway fares, this Association instruct the executive to investigate the working of this system and empower it to take any action which its findings may warrant after getting the opinions of local conventions held during the fall.

The graduating students of the Calgary Normal School for the spring term, 1918, organized themselves into an Alumni Association. The following were elected officers of the Association for the forthcoming year. President, Miss F. Avis; Vice-President, Miss M. McLachlan; Secretary, Miss E. Lawson; Treasurer, Miss L. Loucks. Councillors: Mr. A. J. Heywood, Miss S. Kennedy, Miss O. Forbes.

On May 2nd and 3rd, the Ministers of Education and Deputy Ministers from Manitoba, Saskatchewan, British Columbia, and Alberta, met in conference at Calgary. Arrangements were made for the adoption of uniform text-books in most of the Public and High School subjects. It was agreed that, beginning with 1919, the training course for Second and First Class certificates should be of thirty-three weeks' duration, and that the necessary qualification for admission to these courses should be Grade XI and Grade XII standing, respectively, or their recognized equivalents. The urgent desirability of a national bureau of education for Canada was discussed.

Saskatchewan.

Under regulations issued on March 22nd, it will be necessary for all teachers holding a certificate or licence to teach to take the Oath of Allegiance and to file the same with the Deputy Minister of Education not later than June 30th, 1918. All persons making application for a teacher's certificate must also take the oath, and no permanent certificate will be issued to any person who is not a British subject by birth or naturalization. Persons who are not British subjects may be granted provisional certificates only, but they also must take the Oath of Allegiance covering the time they are teaching, and the certificate will not be renewed beyond the date on which the applicant has completed the period of residence



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in Canada to enable him to become a naturalized British subject. The regulations must be complied with before June 30th, 1918. The step taken in making these regulations has been received with approval on every hand.—*Public Service Monthly*.

Manitoba.

The Shaarey Zedek congregation of Winnipeg recently made provision for the creation of a "University of Jerusalem Scholarship" to enable some pupil of the Winnipeg Hebrew Free School to take up his or her studies in the Hebrew University. Winnipeg may be the first city in North America to send students to the proposed University of Jerusalem.

The Winnipeg Board of Trustees recently made an increase in teachers' salaries of from 15 to 25 per cent, the increase dating back to January 1st 1918. The change affected about 650 teachers. The schedule for Principals of High Schools is \$3,000 to \$3,600; for male assistants, \$2,000 to \$2,800; for female assistants, \$1,200 to \$2,000; for male Principals of Public Schools of 10 to 16 rooms, \$2,000 to \$2,800 (larger schools to \$3,000); in all these cases the annual increase is to be \$100. For Public School assistants teaching in Grades I to IV the salary begins at \$800 and in eleven years reaches \$1,250; for teachers of Grade V the increase in the same time is from \$825 to \$1,275; Grade VI, \$850 to \$1,300; Grade VII, \$900 to \$1,350; Grade VIII, \$950 to \$1,400. Public School teachers receive no increase in their second year, but an annual increment of \$50 thereafter.

New Brunswick.

The Legislature has passed an Act respecting vocational education. It is to be administered by a Vocational Education Board consisting of seven members, the Superintendent of Education, the Principal of the Normal School, the Secretary of Agriculture, and four others, including a representative of capital and a representative of labour. The legislation is permissive in its character, the cost of maintaining the vocational school to be borne by the city, town, or municipality establishing it, as may be seen from the following section quoted from the Act.

"In cities and incorporated towns, the board of school trustees may apply on the recommendation of the common council, city council, or town council, as the case may be, and in districts where the school trustees are elected, the ratepayers may at any annual meeting, by resolution request the trustees of such school districts to apply to the Vocational Education Board for power to establish, equip, and maintain a vocational school, and the nature of the instruction desired, setting forth and including in such application the plans of any proposed building, and upon such application being approved of by the Vocational Educa-

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tion Board, the city, town, or school trustees so applying, shall have the power to assess and collect a sufficient sum for the purpose of establishing and equipping a suitable building or for otherwise carrying on the work, and for maintaining the same and for the payment of tuition fees and in all respects carrying out the provisions of this Act and, for the purposes aforesaid, shall have all the powers of a board of school trustees, under the Schools Act, Chapter 50 of the Consolidated Statutes or under any amendment thereof."

The Act authorizes the Vocational Education Board to provide facility at the Normal School or elsewhere for the training of vocational teachers.

Among the items of advanced legislation passed at the recent session of the Legislature is a Public Health Act, one of the provisions of which is that all the schools of the Province shall be visited by a medical health officer at least twice each year.

Nova Scotia.


In common with the other Provinces, Nova Scotia finds difficulty in filling its High School positions adequately. Older men are resigning; young men are not available; and not many women have equipped themselves in advance for principalships of High Schools and Academies.

Lawrencetown is the first town in Nova Scotia to engage a teacher whose whole time will be devoted to gardening and other home-making subjects. Miss J. Aileen Henderson is in charge of that department. Earlier in the year she was employed by the Government to do similar work in a number of schools in Cumberland County.

The salaries of High School teachers and town teachers generally have been materially advanced this year. Rural teachers, however, are still *helping* support themselves by accepting the nominal salaries in vogue in pre-war days.

A successful Teachers' Institute for Cumberland County was held at Parrsboro, March 26th and 27th. Small Rural Science Institutes have been held in a dozen centres within the last month.

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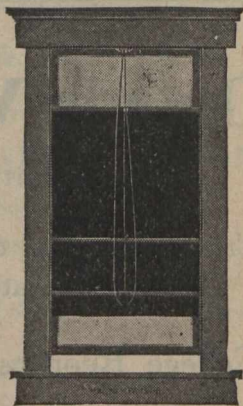
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VOLUME VI.

SEPTEMBER, 1917, TO JUNE, 1918.

Editorial Board—The Staff of the Faculty of Education,
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