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EDITORIAL NOTES AND COMMENTS:

NATURE STUDY AND BOY SCOUTS.

On the evening of Dominion Day, Col. W. Wood, the historian, gave an interesting illustrated lecture on nature study to the Boy Scouts, of Quebec, at Morin College Hall. Col. Wood is not only an historical writer, but is also a trained and enthusiastic student of wild life. His work regarding "animal sanctuaries" is well known. Most of the views thrown on the screen were photographs which he had taken of birds and animals from Quebec to Labrador. The lecture was a demonstration of the superiority of the camera to the gun in the study of wild life.

In these days when amateur photography is in the reach of all, it is not difficult to devise interesting methods of nature study for the schools. There are plenty of things worth "snapping" in every neighborhood from which some

NOTE TO TEACHERS — To interest the senior pupils and provide them with profitable reading a few pages of interesting selections and original items will appear in each issue of the RECORD. Please call the pupils' attention to these pages and ask them to read such parts as they prefer.—EDITORS.

lessons may be learned. Two views which were shown by Col. Wood were exceptionally interesting from the fact that everything was unfavorable to the taking of a good picture. They showed the attempted attack of a golden eagle upon a young deer, which escaped by getting between two others of the herd. The lecturer's advice was to snap anything remarkable the moment it is seen, regardless whether the light is favorable or not.

The boy scout movement will be helpful certainly by its alliance with modern methods of nature study.

MACDONALD COLLEGE ENDOWMENT.

The announcement made by Principal Harrison at the McGill Medical Convocation that Sir William Macdonald had added another million dollars to the endowment fund of Macdonald College, thus bringing up his total gifts to the institution to the magnificent sum of seven million dollars, was an event of supreme importance to Protestant education in this Province.

Macdonald College is the splendid realization of a wise and noble idea. The Protestant minority can only maintain their position and influence if, in town and country alike, they devote themselves in all earnestness to the cause of education. It is in virtue of trained intelligence that we can hope to keep our due place in the world of action.

It was in recognition of this practical truth that Macdonald College was founded. Its main purposes are to supply trained teachers for the Protestant Schools, to train young men in the principles and practice of modern farming, and to train young women in domestic science. Great work has already been accomplished, and greater still may be expected in the coming years. The institution is now understood. The prejudices due to lack of knowledge are passing away rapidly, and thousands are now looking with confidence to the work of Macdonald College as a great factor in the agricultural and educational progress of the Province.

It is safe to say that future historians of our country will recognize Sir William Macdonald as one of the Makers of Canada, and his beneficence will be directly visible to the future generation to whom the historians will speak.

DEFINITE STUDY.

One of the chief values of study under a regulated system of instruction is the insistent demand for systematic effort and definite results. This among other things is one of the values of a public school system as compared with a private school course, wherein there is much more liberty and less insistence on results.

It is readily observable, however, in our public school work, that much more could be done in the way of systematic work in each subject of the course. There is too much haze surrounding the lessons as to their meaning and therefore a consequent haze as to their application to the lives of the pupils. In this way much of the pleasure of study is lost and any value to be received from its influence on the lives of the pupils is greatly reduced.

First impressions are most abiding and it is an undisputed rule, that there is more value in the proper prescribing of a lesson than there is in the proper hearing of one. It ought to be the teacher's privilege to direct the pupils' efforts in the preparation of a lesson by a careful outline of its *origin*, its *contents* and its *purpose*. This is especially true of the lessons in English reading, but is also true of others such as geography and history.

What a sorry sight it is to see a class come up for recitation and find, that they have misunderstood the lesson and laboured to a great extent in vain. In material things, when any demolition takes place, the havoc can be readily seen, but it is not so evident when mental structures are destroyed. The violence is only experienced by the long suffering pupils, who are not aware of the loss and injustice done them by the teacher's defective methods of instruction. It may even happen, that the whole class shall pay a further

penalty by remaining after school to study the lesson aright after the belated directions have been given them for its preparation.

Lessons to public school pupils, that is of the Elementary classes, should never be assigned by the page, chapter or paragraph, but always by some reference to the lesson contents. Whatever the teacher has to say, concerning the subject matter of the lesson, ought to be said, when she assigns the lessons for next recitation. She will thus secure harmony of class work and save loss of time and energy on the part of all. The result will be confidence and delightful progress, so inspiring to both teacher and pupil and so productive of public esteem.

METHODS.

In all professions there are those who go to extremes in preferring certain methods of procedure to the exclusion of all others, and the teaching profession is not an exception to the general rule. In the opinion of such persons it is an error to introduce any supplementary method for the enlightenment of the pupils, when the general method has failed to reveal the truth.

In so far as teaching has to do with the child mind, it must be many sided in its presentation of the truth. Every successful teacher has fully realized this fact and has readily employed every possible means to make his instruction clearly understood. Even the Great Teacher himself presented his lessons in every possible way and from many points of view. It would thus seem folly then for any of us to close ourselves up to any one particular method of instruction.

Those subjects which suffer most from such exclusive methods in our school are reading in all its branches of study and arithmetic. In the former subject there are several good methods of instruction in the early stages of the study, but they all merge into one "later on." It is always best for each teacher to be mistress of her method, whether

her method be the one used by her confreres or not. We have seen serious failures in large classes of primary pupils, because the teacher was not successful in using the method prescribed in the system of school work. Either the teacher should be allowed to choose her method, or the authorities should be cautious in choosing the teachers, who shall have charge of the primary work, if a uniform method has to be followed. In arithmetic also exclusive methods are often found to have taken the place of old plans which were clear and rapid in the solution of problems. Such is the case for example in the calculation of interest by the fractional method instead of by decimals.

Every observation of teachers at work and the comparison of results obtained, leads to the conclusion, that all tried methods have their value and that the best results are had by the teacher, who is open to use any method according to the circumstances in which she is placed.

A WORD TO YOUNG TEACHERS.

Repeated observation has shown that *too much ardor* is a common fault with young teachers. The young lady has been looking forward through many years to the day when she will take charge of a school. The happy day at length arrives and the opportunity of obtaining her dearest wish, to be a good teacher, is at hand. She engages in her duties eagerly, laying many fine plans, without ever dreaming that she may not with resolution make them effectual. Her sole desire is to be a first class teacher. Nothing less will satisfy her ambition. This in itself is a laudable desire and worthy of emulation. So she commences, ardent and hopeful, and if the improvement of her pupils were proportionate to her ardor, in one short year they would pass from the a, b, c class to Grade III Elementary. However, very soon, ardor becomes impatience because the pupils do not learn. She is desirous to see their improvement from day to day, and as she cannot see a marked improvement in so short a time she becomes discouraged because her pupils are not making rapid progress in their studies. Brooding over her want

of success, she abandons the work of teaching altogether she possesses all the elements of a good teacher except *patience* and *perseverance*.

In order to achieve success in teaching your ardor should be well tempered with *patience*, and perseverance should be united with energy, remembering that it is *steady, persevering effort that ensures success*. Look for improvement of your pupils back through the months of time, if you would have it perceptible teach patiently, constantly, and the reward will certainly come. The improvement will be evident after many days.

Do not say that your pupils are dull, stupid, that they cannot learn quickly. Rather say that you wish you could make the matter so plain that they could more easily receive it. Do not be discouraged, though you may repeat the *same* to a pupil nine times; at the tenth hearing it may be indelibly impressed. Will you, then, have labored in vain? Do good for God's own sake—so shalt thou have a *better* praise, and reap a richer harvest of reward.

ARBOR DAY LETTERS.

The replies published in this number of the Educational Record, with regard to the manner in which Arbor Day was celebrated in our Protestant schools this year, are not numerous but they are most encouraging. The question seems to have been taken up in a practical and thorough manner, and the pupils could not fail to benefit from the work done. Let us hope that the example thus given will be followed up next spring by many more schools. Great national principles are behind the principle of forest conservation, and that is one of the great lessons of Arbor Day. With war now devastating Europe it is all the more necessary that our thoughts should be turned to the opposite idea—from that of the horrors of destruction to that of upbuilding.

Here, too, is a suggestion for next year. Our neighbors in the United States are now developing a Good Roads Arbor Day. The idea of instilling in the minds of the young the importance of good roads is commendable. Later on it may be hoped that they may be wiser taxpayers than their fathers in this connection.

INSPECTORS' CONFERENCE.

The annual conference of the Protestant Inspectors of the Province was held at Montreal on August 14th, 1914. There were present Inspectors Parker, J. M. Sutherland, Hunter, Honeyman, Rothney, Taylor, Gilman, McOuat, Kerr, McCutcheon and J. C. Sutherland, who presided. A long programme of subjects was discussed, and plans were made for the work of the present school year.

Among other subjects the autumn visits, teachers' conferences, consolidation grants, teachers' salaries, and physical exercises were considered, and a Committee was appointed to report on the question of the harmonizing of the courses of study in the Elementary and Superior Schools. Verbal reports were presented regarding the work of the teachers who have been trained at Lachute. Brief as the courses have been there, the Inspectors are of the opinion that they have been most beneficial. The great problem of making the teaching of agriculture in the schools more effective, was also fully discussed, and in this connection the conference was addressed by Principal Harrison and by Mr. McOuat of Macdonald College. The latter is a son of Inspector McOuat. Principal Harrison desires, through the means of the Macdonald College Magazine, to bring the work of the College more directly in touch with the rural schools. The Inspectors are to assist by sending him complete post office addresses of the teachers. We would suggest that the teachers might aid in this by sending their names and post office addresses at once to the Inspector of their district. The magazine is to be furnished free. Mr. McOuat, in a remarkably clear and well ordered address, gave an account of the work being done in Quebec and Ontario by the grad-

uates and students in Agriculture of Macdonald College and the Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph. Mr. McOuat had accompanied several of these experts in Western Ontario during the past summer in their work of visiting the schools where definite agricultural instruction is carried on. It is probable, indeed, that a great development of this important work may be soon witnessed both in Quebec and Ontario.

INSTRUCTIONS TO TEACHERS.

Inspector Parker has sent out to the Superior Schools the "Memoranda of Instructions to Teachers" for 1914-15. There are no changes this year, except the omission of "Selections from Tennyson" for Grade II Academy, this work being replaced by "Poems of the Romantic Revival" and the statement regarding Drawing on P. 37. Pupils in Grade II Academy may take this subject instead of Physics. The present edition of the "Manual respecting the Course of Study in Protestant Elementary Schools," is nearly exhausted, and a new edition will be issued after the forthcoming quadrennial revision of text-books, when new features of value to the teachers will be added.

UNIFORM TEXT-BOOKS.

The committee of convention, appointed at Sherbrooke last October by the Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers to consider the matter of 'Text-Books' and 'Course of Study,' has had several meetings and has made considerable progress. Its aim has been to choose one book in each subject for all the Protestant Schools of the province, but to recommend two books, one for the country and another for the city, where one book cannot be found to suit.

The chief difficulties in the way of one book for all schools are the *grading* and the *callings* of the pupils. In the city of Montreal there are 7 years of study in the elementary schools and in many of these schools the work is

taken up in half years, each half year counting as a class. In this way there are 14 classes, each under one teacher, doing the same work as has to be undertaken in the country school by one teacher with four grades. It will be readily seen, therefore, that the nature of the text-book has considerable influence on the treatment of the subject. Moreover, the business or calling to be followed by the pupils must receive some consideration in certain subjects.

When the list now being prepared has been finally approved by the Protestant Committee, it is expected that two separate lists will be printed, one for the use of the country schools and one for use in the city. This plan it is hoped will do away with all confusion arising from the use of different books in adjoining municipalities and will enable the merchants to keep the books without being subject to loss and annoyance, both to themselves and their customers.

This Committee of convention will report its recommendations to convention in October at the City of Quebec. It will then be made known what its preferences are and every member may post himself and express his opinion, when the report is being considered.

THE GUELPH CONFERENCE.

A Rural Teachers' Conference was held at the Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, from August 3rd to the 7th, which was a great success both in attendance and in the interest of the proceedings. The writer was present the first three days, and here offers some of the more significant details.

The purpose of the Conference was to bring before the teaching body of the Province of Ontario at large, through the delegates appointed to represent the County Teachers' Associations, a view of the new educational needs of rural communities and of the means of meeting these ends. There were 112 of these delegates in attendance from every part of Ontario. There was also a large number of teachers present who had been taking the special course in Agricul-

ture at the Macdonald Institute, Guelph. Every session of the Conference—occupying some six hours altogether daily—had an attendance of fully three hundred. The steady zeal and interest manifested afforded good proof that the aims, the needs and the possibilities of rural education in the sister Province are taken to heart by the rural teachers.

The dominating personality of the Conference was Professor S. B. McCready, the Director of Elementary Agricultural Education for Ontario. Professor McCready's whole efforts are directed to this one subject; and he shows himself familiar with every detail of it. The titles of his addresses were "Purposes and Plans of Teaching Agriculture in Ontario Rural Schools," "What Rural Teachers Might do for Betterment of Rural Education and what they should not do," "The Agricultural Instruction Act and the Present Development of Agricultural Education in Canada."

Another striking personality was that of H. W. Foght, the specialist in rural education at the United States Bureau of Education, Washington. Mr. Foght is a Norwegian by birth, and has visited Denmark nine times. His account of the Danish schools which have made Denmark famous, and incidentally which have made the farmers of that country rich, was of intense interest. Much as one may have read of these schools it was an education to receive the intimate description (illustrated by stereopticon views) of one who had studied them so closely. We were particularly struck with Mr. Foght's remark that it is not so much the technical instruction in agriculture, as the general culture afforded in the folks' high schools, which makes the farmers of Denmark successful. They have an extremely poor soil, but they have large brains, and these brains have been developed by a remarkably extensive study of literature, history and kindred subjects.

Still another inspiring personality was the Rev. John Macdougall, whose "Rural Life in Canada" the teachers were recommended to read before coming to the Conference. Mr. Macdougall is a poet of rural life and education, expressing himself in inspired prose, and occasionally mak-

ing exquisite use of appropriate verses from Canadian poets. He loves our Canadian poets and has apparently studied them all. Yet sound practical thought is at the base of his studies in rural life. His analysis of the census statistics of Ontario was masterly in its thoroughness, and in its grasp of the significant.

The discussion on Consolidation of Schools was full of interest. Miss Scott, of the Hudson Consolidated School in New Ontario was the first speaker, and gave a clear account of the working of the plan in that district. Mr. Macdonald, principal of the Macdonald Consolidated School, Guelph, gave the history of that institution. The reasons of the comparative failure there were fully explained. The cost of conveyance at the outset had been ridiculously high. But the school is still working well, and has a large attendance. Professor McCready explained the reasons which work against consolidation in Ontario, the chief one being the fact that the schoolhouses in general were too good to be abandoned. For successful teaching in agriculture, however, the plan was needed in Ontario. He called upon the writer for an account of the endeavors in connection with consolidation in Quebec.

During the week, addresses were given on special agricultural subjects by experts, among which we may mention that of Mr. Pettit on the "Beekeeping Industry of Ontario," Mr. Reed on "Live Stock," Mr. Crow on "Fruit Growing," Professor Dean on "Dairying." Mrs. H. B. Miller, assistant in Agricultural Education, spoke on the important subject of "Making the Country School the Neighborhood Centre." Mrs. Miller is a Quebec Province lady.

One of the most interesting sessions was that of the verbal reports given by the Field Agents for Agricultural Education. These are chiefly second year students in agriculture, and they had spent some time in visiting schools in different parts of the province, organizing school gardens and experimented plots and assisting the teachers in agricultural teaching generally. Their brief, bright addresses were fully appreciated.

This report is inadequate to give a full idea of the splendid work done at Guelph under the direction of Professor McCready, but it may serve to suggest that a similar Conference might be undertaken in our own Province.

The Department of Agriculture of Quebec was represented by Mr. Magnan, son of C. J. Magnan, M.A., Inspector General of Catholic Schools.

J. C. S.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY OF THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

THIRD PAPER.

We now come to the geological period which had the greatest effect in preparing and establishing the present surface conditions of the province. As was stated in the previous paper, the rock formations of the province are of Palaeozoic age and older, and upon these are placed various deposits of comparatively recent geological time—the Pleistocene. For many millions of years, therefore, this part of the continent remained above the sea. From the Palaeozoic to the Pleistocene of the Quaternary there was a vast gap of time, so far as the formation of rock was concerned. We can know but little of what was happening on this part of the continent, although we know much of what was happening in other parts of the continent. In the Acadian region, for instance, which includes Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Cape Breton Island we know that the land was under the sea for millions of years after our province had risen above it. The coal measures alone, which indicate slight submergence at least, took a long time for their formation, and above them are found Permian rocks, and above these are found Triassic rocks of the Mesozoic era. Then in British Columbia, rocks which are still younger are found, indicating that that province or part of it had been submerged in still more recent times.

All we can know of our own province during the vast time-gap is that the mountains—especially the Laurentians and the Appalachians—must have been much higher at the beginning than they now are, and that both they and the sedimentary rocks of the Laurentian lowlands must have undergone constant wear and tear by the action of running water and the atmosphere.

At last came the great Ice Age of Northern Europe and North America, which left so many interesting and striking memorials of various kinds on both continents.

When did it begin, and when did it end? Neither of these questions can yet be answered positively, and the answers may never be complete. A great deal of work has been done by geologists in this direction during the last half century, but uncertainty still prevails. The estimates of the duration of the period vary from 300,000 to 700,000 years, and the estimates as to the time when it came to an end, and the Modern period was ushered in, vary from 10,000 to 50,000 years. And that the estimates should vary is quite natural, as it is very plain that in different parts of the two continents there were variations in the phenomena themselves. The records of the Ice Age, for instance, in this province are not quite the same as those of western Ontario, and both differ somewhat from the records in the Maritime Provinces.

For a fuller discussion of the period than is given in the text books on physical geography the teacher should consult such works as Geikie's "Great Ice Age," Sir William Dawson's "Canadian Ice Age" and many special reports of the Geological Survey, Ottawa. Sir William Dawson's work is a most valuable one, although it is to be remembered that he attributed much more to the work of floating ice and icebergs, and much less to the work of land ice, than is usually conceded by the majority of geologists.

It is generally agreed, however, that the Ice Age was ushered in by a vast movement of land ice from the Labradorian area, and that this ice moved southwestward over a

large portion of the province. After a long period this ice mass gradually retreated and was followed by another advance from the direction of Hudson Bay, the markings of which are found notably in the Ottawa Valley. Lastly came the long period of submergence. Not only were the Lawrencian lowlands under the sea, but also considerable parts of the less elevated Laurentian and Appalachian hills. During this latest period it would also seem to be proved that glaciers formed on the higher hills—local glaciers sending boulders in every direction from their summits. It is possible, of course, that there were more than two advances and retreats of the land ice in the early part of the period. In Ontario, as at Scarboro near Toronto, there are distinct evidences of more than two interglacial periods, with remarkable changes of plant life in each, but if the succession was the same in Quebec the record has not yet been found. It is safest in science to take into account only the existing evidence, and we cannot assume that the phenomena were the same in both provinces.

The deposits of the period as a whole were tabulated by Sir William Dawson as follows:

(a). Lower stratified sands and gravel, representing land surfaces and sea and coast areas immediately anterior to the Boulder clay period.

(b). Boulder-clay or Till; hard clay, or unstratified sand, with boulders, local and travelled, and stones often striated and polished. It rests on striated surfaces.

(c). Lower Leda clay; fine clay, often laminated, and with a few large travelled boulders, probably equivalent to Erie clay of inland districts.

(d). Upper Leda clay, and probably Saugeen clay of inland districts; clay and sandy clay, in the Lower St. Lawrence, with numerous marine shells.

(e). Saxicava sand and gravel, often with numerous travelled boulders (Upper Boulder deposit), probably the same with Algoma sand, etc., of the West.

(f). Post-Glacial deposits, river alluvia and gravels, Peaty deposits, Lake bottoms, etc.

All of these deposits are seen in the vicinity of Montreal.

For the purposes of teaching, the brief and general outline given above is sufficient, provided that it is followed up by local field work. Not every district possesses all of the memorials of the Ice Age, as the vicinity of Montreal, but there are few which do not afford some of the evidences. If these are carefully studied by the teacher and the class, interested will be awakened, and habits of observation will be formed. A single visit will not disclose all that is to be learned. In the autumn especially there should be a number of "field days", and where there is a field of boulders, an esker, or abundant striae on the ledge rock, several trips should be made to the locality. It is a healthy form of acquiring knowledge, and the physical geography class which has had the experience of several excursions during the school year, in September and October, will undoubtedly make more progress in the subject than the class which has not had it. The chief things needed for an excursion are a hammer, a strong pocket knife, a pocket compass, and a small bottle of muriatic acid. The last mentioned may be required to distinguish limestone from other rock. Limestone effervesces when a few drops of the acid are placed on a fresh surface. With the knife the differing hardnesses of the rocks may be determined.

We shall now offer an outline of the various features which may be studied in the field, giving indications as far as possible as to what may be looked for in particular districts where Protestant schools are situated.

1. *The Boulders.*—These are the most widely scattered memorials of the Ice Age, and in almost every locality they are the first to call for study. The first thing to be noted about them, too, is whether they are local or have come from a distance. With the hammer break off the "weathering" and compare them with the ledge rocks of

the neighborhood. If there are slates, or shales, or other rocks in the vicinity in ledges, the chances are that the boulders, if similar, have been derived from the ledges. But if they are different the chances are, or rather the certainty is, that they have come from a distance. Then if they are gneisses (banded granites) or other rocks like those of the Laurentians, they have doubtless come from the Laurentian plateau. In most parts of the Eastern Townships the Laurentian boulders are found. Once in a while a boulder is met with which has come from the opposite direction. The writer once found a serpentine boulder near Richmond several miles north of the serpentine band. This was a puzzle, but the explanation was given by Sir William Dawson. It had been carried by one of the local glaciers, and Inspector Parker informs me that in the 14th range of the township of Leeds there are boulders of serpentine containing asbestos, and this is some distance north of Thetford. A local glacier had also doubtless formed near Thetford, and scattered its boulders in all directions.

2. *Smoothed And Polished Surfaces.*—Next study the ledges of local rock to observe whether they are smoothed and polished by ice-action. The harder the rock the more likely it is to be polished.

3. *Striae.*—The same ledges are to be examined for the scratches or striae, which have their origin in the pebbles carried under the ice-mass. The great majority of these striae in the Eastern Townships have the same direction, namely, from northeast to southeast. They vary in width from mere scratches to several inches, and are sometimes a quarter of an inch or more in depth. They are at about right angles to the "strike," or direction of the ledge rock. The compass should be used to determine their direction. Note also what has just been said about the prevailing direction of the ledge rock. This, throughout the Appalachians in eastern Canada and Maine, is nearly east and west. The Maine hunters find their way in the woods by means of their knowledge of this fact. Why is the direction so uniform? Refer to second paper of this series.

Eskers.—These formations are not as numerous as the boulders. They are long, more or less regular, heaps of gravel and sand, sometimes covered slightly with vegetable soil. They stand above the level of the country some fifteen or twenty feet and more, and their general direction is the same as that of the striae. There is a fine one about a quarter of a mile northeast of the waterworks reservoir at Richmond, and some others are visible at a distance from this one. Inspector Parker also reports one on the 8th range of Leeds township.

Terraces.—There are terraces of great interest in the valleys of the old rivers, such as the St. Francis, but they are mostly true river terraces, and not connected with the submergence period of the Ice Age. The latter terraces are to be studied chiefly along the St. Lawrence valley as it approaches the Laurentian plateau, and also along the lower parts of this plateau. These terraces mark the gradual recession of the waters as the land arose again. They are in abundant evidence in the northwestern counties of the province. There are seven distinct terraces at Mount Royal. The one known as the Waterworks terrace is 220 feet above sea level, and is the same one as that near the C.P.R. tracks at Lachute. In places, as on Mount Royal up to 625 feet above sea-level the sands of these terraces contain millions of shells. They are of the same species as those now living in the Arctic Sea and in the cold waters of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. They afford an impressive proof of the extent to which the land was lowered in the submergence period. No teacher who has the opportunity should fail to examine the collection of these shells, and of those found in the Leda clays, in the Redpath Museum at McGill University.

Leda Clay and Saxicava Sand.—These two deposits, of which the former is the older, form the main soil covering in the Lawrencian lowlands and in the lower parts of the Laurentian plateau. They do not always contain the fossils from which they have been named, but they are the result of the long period of submergence. No one travelling in

the St. Lawrence plain, as on the C.P.R. from Quebec to Montreal, can fail to note the great uniformity of the soil. It was sorted and deposited by the sea. The stretches of sand which here and there overlies the clay are very noticeable.

CONCLUSION.

Years ago the Rev. Charles Kingsley (in "Madam How and Lady Why") called the Ice Age the Ice Plough. It was plough work which the vast ice-masses accomplished. They ground down the hills, they scooped out the valleys, and dragged great quantities of rock from one place to another. This rock was of every size from boulders weighing tons down to pebbles and "rock-flour." Then the land sank, the sea invaded, and the waters assorted the materials into the positions where we now find them. If the farmer has been given much labor in removing the boulders, which were brought by the Ice Plough, he may reflect also that his soil was probably made for him by the action of the waters which flowed from the great glacier as it melted, or of the sea which overflowed the land.

In the next paper we shall consider the water stretches of the province.

J. C. S.

NOTE.—Teachers in Huntingdon county and vicinity are advised to write to the Geological Survey, Ottawa, for Mr. Goldthwait's report on the marine beaches of Covey Hill. This is an interesting local study, and the details could be followed on the spot.

ARBOR DAY OBSERVANCE.

In the first number of the year, the Educational Record offered suggestions for the observance of Arbor Day, and asked school principals to send reports of the extent to which the programme had been carried out at their schools. We print below the replies received.

Port Daniel Centre, P.Q.,

May 26, 1914.

Editor of Educational Record,
Quebec.

DEAR SIR,—

Port Daniel Model School celebrated Arbor Day with appropriate exercises and by the planting of ten trees, four lilac and five rose bushes.

Yours truly,

S. E. HALL, Model Teacher

M. E. YOUNG, Elem. Teacher.

Dunham, June 1st.

Educational Record, Quebec, Que.,

DEAR SIR,—

In reply to your request for information as to the keeping of Arbor Day, I should like to say:—

The pupils of Dunham Model School devoted an hour of the morning session to raking up and burning refuse in the schoolyard. In the afternoon the suggested programme was carried out and the pupils planted a tree with the aid of the Macdonald College demonstrator in the presence of the Commissioners. Prizes were given to the children who within three days had destroyed the greatest number of tent-worms nests. Total number was about 3,000.

L. PLAISTED, Principal.

Ayer's Cliff, Quebec, June 6, 1914.

Educational Record, Quebec, Que.,

DEAR SIR,—

Following the suggestion in the last number of the Record, I wish to mention that Ayer's Cliff Model School celebrated Arbor Day along the lines of the suggested programme.

Yours truly,

E. S. ANDERSON,

Prin. of A. C. M. S.

Quyon, May 20th, 1914.

Mr. G. W. Parmelee,

Manager of the Educational Record, Que.

DEAR SIR,—

We observed Arbor Day in this school (No. 1 Onslow Centre) this year by the following programme in the forenoon:

Meaning of Arbor Day	Teacher
Recitation of suitable poems	Pupils
Reading of Stories of trees	Teacher
Essays on trees written and read	Pupils

We went to the mountain in the afternoon and the boys got some maple trees, a balsam, some willows and some lilacs which we planted in the school ground. Most of them are leafing out well.

We also planted four beds of flowers, sweet peas, poppies and two beds of nasturtiums. They are coming up now.

Respectfully yours,

M. E. HAMMOND,

Teacher.

Granby, Que., May 20th, 1914.

The Editor Educational Record,
Quebec.

DEAR SIR,—

In the last issue of the Educational Record a request was made that all the schools observing Arbor Day should send in a report as to the manner in which the day was observed. For the past three years, the Granby High School has made a special feature of Arbor Day by connecting it with the exercises of the Graduating Class. In addition to the general programme in which the whole school has some part, the Class History was given by some member of the Graduating Class and this is followed by tree-planting on the campus. Our whole programme does not require more than an hour in general, but this year our programme took a somewhat different form than usual and as a consequence was much longer.

Following the suggestion given in the Educational Record, I thought it a splendid opportunity this year to give the whole school some practice in composition and knowing that pupils are much more interested in what they do for themselves, I resolved to leave the programme almost entirely in their own hands. Accordingly, about two weeks before the date for Arbor Day, I requested the school to prepare essays upon some topic in connection with Arbor Day and suggested as suitable topics such as: "Our Forests," "The Value of Trees," "The Maple Tree," "The Tree I Love Best," "The Pleasures of the Woods," etc. I took up some of the topics and showed how to make headings for the different paragraphs and how to arrange the thoughts under the various headings. I then requested that the essays be handed in in sufficient time for correction before Arbor Day and stated that the best essays would be read as a part of the programme.

The result was most gratifying, much better even than I had anticipated. Over eighty essays were handed in, and of these seventeen (17) were considered excellent and were

read by the pupils on Arbor Day. The essays came from all grades of the school, even Grade I. Elementary having a share in the programme. Of course, the essays from the Elementary Grades were not entirely original, being in part reproductions, but reflecting credit upon the young writers. The III. Academy Grade pupils were excused from the essay writing as they were busy on the Class History and the Class Prophecy. The following is the programme of Arbor Day, May 7th, 1914.

1. Chorus: "Where the Sugar Maple Grows," by School.
2. Exercise: "Arbor Day," by eight Primary Boys.
3. Essays, by Pupils.
4. Recitation: "Why Plant a Tree?"
5. Essays, by Pupils.
6. Class History: Miss Glenna Gage.
7. Song: Come Let Us Plant This Tree."
8. Tree Planting, by Class of 1914.
9. Class Prophecy: Miss Gladys Buzzell.
10. God Save the King.

The first six items were given in the Assembly Hall of the School: The latter part of the programme took place in the campus.

C. A. ADAMS,
Principal.

This notice appeared in the St. John's News:—

DUNHAM.

The Academy—Thursday, May 14th, was observed as "Arbor Day". On the three previous days a contest had been instituted by the teachers, two prizes being offered to the pupils who should destroy the greatest number of caterpillars nests in the immediate neighborhood. The young folks went heartily to work the juniors quite as effectually as the seniors and 2,800 nests were destroyed—the prizes were awarded to Leland Miner and Lucy Gilbert. The Arbor Day was observed thus. Scholars marched to places

to music played by Miss Guillet, a song God Bless our broad Dominion. Explanation of the occasion by the chairman, who was supported by commissioners, Curley and Selby, and Mr. Baker, (Sec.-Treas). The capital recitations on the good of tree planting by two pupils, two essays on trees and forestry, by two more of the scholars. An address on Re-Forestation, by Mr. McClintock (Macdonald Demonstrator). Awarding of the prizes as mentioned above, also another prize, to Lucy Gilbert from her teacher, Miss Guillet, for perfect lessons from Christmas to Easter. A pleasant surprise was at this point given the children. Mr. M. Curley and Mr. Baker having noticed the praiseworthy efforts of the scholars under the teacher's instructions to tidy up the school grounds, had a basket of oranges brought for distribution all around, and a half holiday also was granted by the Commissioners in token of appreciation. The proceedings concluded in the school yard by the planting of a maple tree, saluting the Flag with pledge of loyalty to the Empire, and then the National Anthem.

ACTION PICTURES OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

To counteract the influence of the objectionable kind of moving pictures, and at the same time to substitute something that will be really attractive, Mrs. Clark Murray, 20 McTavish St., Montreal, has inaugurated a movement for the placing of Action Pictures of the British Empire within reach of the schools.

The following from the circular letter explains the details:—

“It promotes the assembling of the children with their Teachers, in the Schools, for one hour each month of the Session, to enjoy an Exhibition of Imperial Films and Slides, selected from every part of The Empire, with a short and interesting description. As few of our Young People can visit The Empire, Our Imperial Work shall thus bring The Empire to them, and familiarize them, from early Childhood, with The Imperial Interests of The Empire, and The

Imperial Duties of Its Subjects. It is impossible to over-estimate The Imperial Outlook, The Imperial Training, and the Imperial Responsibility to be secured, through this Work, for The Rising Generation of Our Empire.

The First Public Inauguration of the Work was held in Westmount, Montreal, Canada, on April 27th, 1914: when a large audience was invited and a Series of Beautiful Imperial Pictures was thrown on the Screen. A message of Congratulation from Her Most Gracious Majesty Queen Mary was received and read,—the Audience standing and singing The National Anthem.

Projectors, Stereopticons, Films and Slides have been carefully examined, and favourable prices have been secured. The Machines shall be purchased from Head Office by the Schools, with cash payment, and become their own property. The Films, Slides, and Lecturettes, with full instructions for their use, shall remain the property of Head Office, and shall be exchanged from School to School at the lowest possible price: the prices varying according to size, subject etc. Schools are responsible for freight, and Customs Duties of 25 per cent, and should give special attention to Fire Precautions.

Newton & Co., of London; Popular Lantern for Small Class-Rooms, Home Work, etc., from \$16.00 to \$33.00.

Edison's Home Kinetoscope, which is also a Stereopticon, is easily understood: non-inflammable: and suited for a Class of 200: Price \$72.00 and \$90.00, according to the Lighting System specified. For brilliance a *metallic* covered screen of curtain should be used: each slide of ten Views takes five minutes.

Power's Cameragraph No. 6 A, also a Stereopticon, is suited for larger audiences: is fire-proof: Price \$225.00 and \$260.00 according to size: absolutely guaranteed for twelve months: may be used with Calcium Gas: orders should supply (a) distance from Machine to Screen: (b) size of Screen; (c) size of Picture desired, for focus; (d) is electric current *direct* or *alternating*; (e) if *alternating*, give

5. Place of Meeting—

Miss E. L. Gale (Con.)
 Miss Winn Inspector Parker, M.A.
 Mr. C. McBurney, B.A.

6. *Storage of Documents*—

Mr. Watson Bain, M.A. (Power to add to members)

COMMITTEES OF CONVENTION.

1. *Library*—

 Mr. Watson Bain (Con.)
 Inspector McOuat Miss I. E. Brittain
 Mr. H. J. Silver Mr. C. McBurney
 Mr. W. Dixon Mr. Rothney

2. *Committee on Text Books and Course of Study*—

Mr. McBurney (Con.) Inspector McCutcheon
 Mr. Chalk Mr. Lockhart
 Mr. Adams Miss Lawless
 Mr. Silver Miss Brittain
 Inspector Rothney Miss Drummond
 Inspector McOuat Miss E. L. Gale
 The Dean of the School for Teachers.
 The Representative on Protestant Committee.
 The Inspector of Superior Schools.

PROGRAMME.

THURSDAY, OCTOBER 8TH, 8.30 A.M.

Meeting of Executive Committee.

MORNING SESSION, 9 A.M. TO 12 NOON.

Reports—

1. Executive Committee.
2. Library Committee and Curator.
3. Finance and Audit.
4. Representative on Protestant Committee.

5. Pension Commissioners.
6. Text Book and Course of Study.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

2-2.30 Routine Business.

Nominations.

2.30-6 Excursion to Ste. Anne de Beaupré, Montmorency Falls, Kent House.

EVENING SESSION, 8 P.M.

Address—Hon. Sir Lomer Gouin, K.C.M.G., Premier of Province of Quebec.

Address—Dr. Wm. Peterson, M.A., LL.D., C.M.G., Chairman of Protestant Committee of Council of Public Instruction.

Lecture—"The Siege of Quebec," by Dr. G. W. Parmelee, Secretary of Protestant Committee of Council of Public Instruction, and Author-in-collaboration, with Dr. A. G. Doughty, C.M.G., of "The Siege of Quebec."

Music.

MORNING SESSION, 9 A.M.

9-9.30 Routine Business.

9.30 Lecture on the Teaching of History—Dr. C. W. Colby, M.A., Ph.D. ff

Discussion on Teaching of History, opened by Mr. Isaac Gammel, B.A., High School of Montreal.

11 a.m. "The Teaching of Oral English."—Miss Emma I. Johnston, Principal Brooklyn Training School for Teachers.

Discussion.

AFTERNOON SESSION.

2-2.15 Routine Business.

2.15-6 Organized Slight-seeing.

(a) Citadel, Cove Fields, Plains of Abraham, Spencer Wood.

or

(b) Sous-le-Cap Street, Church of Notre-Dame de la Victoire, Little Champlain street, "Where Montgomery Fell," Cove Fields, Plains of Abraham, Spencer Wood.

Return from Spencer Wood by St. Foy Road, Avenue des Braves.

EVENING SESSION, 8 P.M.

Address of Welcome—His Worship Mr. N. Drouin, Mayor of Quebec.

Address—Lt.-Col. W. J. Ray, Chairman of Quebec School Board.

Lecture—"Folklore": Lt.-Col. Wood, F.R.S.C.

President's Address—Mr. C. M. McBurney, B.A.

Music.

SATURDAY, OCTOBER 10TH.

MORNING SESSION, 9 A.M.

9-9.30 Routine Business.

Report of Scrutineers.

Unfinished Business.

Sight-seeing (unorganized).

Suggestions for Unorganized Sight-seeing:

- (1) The English Cathedral. Open at any hour of the day.
- (2) The Basilica. Open at any hour of the day.
- (3) Ursuline Chapel. Open from 2 to 4 p.m.

- (4) Laval University. Open to the public on Thursday afternoon.
- (5) Victoria Park.
- (6) Jacques Cartier Memorial.

NOTES.

1. The box will be open for the reception of ballots from 3 p.m. on Thursday (or as soon as the nominations are closed) until the close of the Friday morning session.

2. At all sessions the doors will be closed while papers are being read, or addresses being delivered.

3. Members are requested to deposit their ballots unfolded and to detach the same from their number slip in presence of the Scrutineer.

4. Transportation and Registration.—*Note Carefully:*

In order to secure reduced rates on the railways, purchase a first-class, one way ticket to Quebec; at the time of purchase of tickets, ask the agent to fill in and sign a standard certificate form or receipt form as enclosed with this programme. On arrival at the meeting place of convention, register as a member of the Association and deposit your standard certificate or receipt form for validation with person in charge of registration. On closing day of Convention secure your standard certificate or receipt form again and present it at the railway ticket office when you purchase your ticket for the return trip.

If these instructions are followed you will receive your ticket for return trip for at least one-third the regular one-way-fare; and if 300 certificates or receipt forms are presented at Convention, the ticket for return will be issued *free*.

Registration fee for ladies is 50c., and for gentlemen, \$1.00. In addition to this charge of 25c., will be made by the special agent for validation of certificates.

When you register at Convention you will be handed a ballot paper and membership card. You will be obliged to

show your membership card in order to gain admission to the sessions of Convention and to take advantage of the special rates for sight-seeing.

5. Persons not holding diplomas may become members on payment of regular fee.

PERIODICALS WHICH WILL BE ANNOUNCED
AT CONVENTION, 1914.

KINDERGARTEN—

Kindergarten Review.

PRIMARY—

Primary Education.

Primary Plans.

American Primary Teacher.

INTERMEDIATE—

Popular Educator.

ADVANCED—

Journal of Education.

GENERAL—

Canadian Teacher.

Normal Instructor.

Educational Record.

Educational Review.

Children's Encyclopedia.

Progressive Teacher.

The School.

ART—

The School Arts Book.

CURRENT EVENTS—

The World Wide.

The Daily Telegraph.

PEDAGOGICAL—

Educational Foundations.

Modern Language Teaching.

MANUAL TRAINING—

Manual Training.

N.B.—Sample copies may be seen at Convention. Members may subscribe for as many papers as they wish. Convention rates are allowed on the first paper subscribed for, and club rates on all others. Members are requested to subscribe or renew their subscriptions during the time of Convention. No subscription can be received after November 30th. For this purpose and for all business connected therewith, apply to the convener of the Committee on Publications, Miss Grant, at the Committee Room, City Hall, on Thursday, Oct. 8th, 9 to 10 a.m. and 1.30 to 2 p.m.; on Friday, Oct. 9th, 9 to 10 a.m. and 1.30 to 2 p.m.; on Saturday, Oct. 10th, 9 to 10 a.m.

HOTELS AND BOARDING HOUSES RECOMMENDED.

	Rates per day
Board and rooms:	
*Chateau Frontenac	\$5.00
*St. Louis Hotel, Quebec	2.50
*Clarendon Hotel, Quebec	2.50
*St. Ursule House, 72 St. Ursule street	2.00
*St. George's House, 18 St. Ann street	1.50
*Y. W. C. A., 125 St. Anne street	1.50
Mrs. Whelan, Dufferin Terrace House, 5 Genevieve Avenue	2.00
*Miss McCaffrey, 131 St. Ann street	2.00
*Mrs. Fontaine, 20 Mount Carmel street	2.00
*Mrs. Woodley, 12 Lee street	1.50
Mrs. Jackson, 10 St. Ursule street	1.50
Miss Verrault, 39 Genevieve Avenue	2.00
Rooms only:	
Mrs. Fitzsimmons, 25 Ursule street	1.00
Miss Bellew, The Crescent, 34 St. Anne street	1.00
Miss Bickell, 43 St. Louis street	1.00

Miss Forrest, 139 St. John street.....	1.00
Mrs. Gunn, 11 Haldimand Hill.....	1.00
Mrs. Hill, 51 St. Famille street.....	1.00
Mrs. Buckley, 47 St. Ursule street.....	1.00
Miss Lenehan, Burlington Rooms, 12 St. Stanislas St..	1.00
Mrs. Vincent, 105 St. Ann street.....	.75c and 1.00

Meals without lodging may be obtained at all hotels and boarding houses marked with star.

BOOK NOTICES.

Education and the New Utilitarianism, by Alexander Darroch, M.A., Professor of Education in the University of Edinburgh, Longmans, Green & Co., 1914, Price 3s. 6d. net, Pp. 169.

The title of this book is the title of the first of eight addresses on education more or less connected with the main ideas expressed in the first. Professor Darroch is well known to English-speaking teachers of the world for his "Herbart and the Herbartian Theory of Education," as well as for other works. He writes clear, good English, free from those startling mannerisms which mark so much educational literature to-day. He has definite principles to state, and he states them in direct language.

The other titles of the lectures are "Democracy and Education," "The Moral Education Problem," "Two Ideals of the End of Woman's Education," "The Place of the Domestic Sciences in the Education of Girls," "The School and the State," "Is a Science of Education Possible?" and "The Meaning and Education Value of History." All of these are vital and practical questions, and even those who agree most fully with his judgments can find much that is suggestive in the reasoning with which he presents them.

Education and Psychology. By Michael West, I. E. S. Longmans, Green & Co., London, New York, 1914. Price 5 shillings net. Pp. 341.

The style and methods of this work by Mr. West are very different from those Professor Darroch, reviewed in the foregoing. This is not a text book on the principles of psychology, and it does not profess to be such. It is an attempt, however, to illustrate the connection between these principles and practical education. The work is divided into five logical parts. Part I has five chapters entitled respectively "The Meaning of Educational Psychology," "The Scope of Psychology," "The Methods of Psychology," "The Nervous System," "Fatigue." Part II. has five chapters also headed "Attention," "Sensation and Perception," "Memory," "Intellect," "The Technical Subjects." Part III. has two chapters only, namely, "Imagination" and "The Liberal Subjects." Part IV. deals successively with "Feeling," "Instinct," "The Adaptive and Social Instincts," "Language and the Instinct of Self-Expression" and "The Self." The chapters of Part V. are on "Education for Action," "Ideal Construction—the Boy," "The Schoolmaster," "The School" and "The Alternative." It is plain from this list of subjects that the book is a comprehensive one. The style, as we have said, is not the same as that of Professor Darroch's book, and we rather prefer the latter. Mr. West is frequently abrupt in his thought, but that is a frequent characteristic of English writing at the present day. He uses, also, some phrases which would begin to pall as phrases if they were used as often as one may use the expressions of Shakespeare. But we do not remember coming across that execrable phrase "watertight compartments" so much used in English educational literature. And Mr. West uses abrupt methods, and startling phrases, for an apparent purpose. He does not, we think, wish to be as dogmatic as he seems. His purpose, we judge, is to provoke thought, and contradiction, if need be, to that end. To the teacher who has had some experience to compare with his statements, the book is unquestionably suggestive and helpful.

"Pictures from Canadian History for Boys and Girls" is the title of an admirable Canadian history reader just published by the Renouf Publishing Company, 25 McGill College Avenue, Montreal. The author is Katharine Liv-

ingston Macpherson, whose "Scenic Sieges and Battlefields of French Canada" is already well known. It is a work of 230 pages, and is admirably illustrated. It is inscribed to Earl Grey.

The great difficulty that the majority of teachers meet with in teaching Canadian history is that of awakening an interest in those features of our national development which appeal to the mature but hardly to the young. The earliest days of human history in the world shows that the heroic always precedes the philosophical. This repeats itself in the individual in every generation, and if a genuine interest is to be awakened in the minds of young pupils in Canadian history it must be through the heroic features of that history. These "Pictures," ranging from Columbus to the railway bridge builders in the rockies, should serve to stir the feelings and arouse the interest of pupils of every age. The selections and descriptions are admirable throughout, and afford excellent material for reading aloud to the class. Several of the plates are colored. The price is 50 cents post paid.

We have received from the Renouf Publishing Company, Montreal, a copy of "An Introduction to English Medieval Literature" by Charles Sears Baldwin, M.A., Ph. D. professor of rhetoric in Columbia University. It is a work of 261 pages and the price is \$1.25. It is intended to be a manual to open the main literary significances of the period to students not specially trained. Scholars, however, well acquainted with medieval literature and history, can equally appreciate the matter and form of this excellent handbook. The period extends from Beowulf to Chaucer. The epic is dealt with not only technically but as the living expression of the thought of the time, while full attention is given to such subjects as the development of Old English Christian poetry, Old English prose, romance poetry, fables, histories, satires and lyrics. The work is published by Longmans, Green & Co.

FOR THE PUPILS', NOON HOUR.

NOT WATCHING THE THERMOMETER.

A minister near whose parish there were several crews engaged in lumbering started out one Monday morning last winter and spent the week in the woods, preaching while on his trip to over one hundred men. When he reached home again at the week's end he was told that it had been the coldest week in the year, according to the thermometer.

Thermometers may be useful, but a good deal of necessary work would never be accomplished if men were held back by thermometers.

"He that observeth the wind shall not sow," and the men who watch thermometers are not likely to harvest good lumber crops.

Work has always been done in spite of difficulties and disadvantages, winds are not always favorable and frosts are often keen. But men can work amid frosts, and sow when winds are blowing.

It is only this class of men that are ever counted upon by anyone. And it is this class, whatever their calling may be, who are achieving the best. Temperatures and winds may baffle some people, but the men of the right stamp will be so strengthened and toughened by such contact as to be just so much the harder to daunt.—East and West.

WHEN SILENCE IS GOLDEN.

When little things irritate you, be silent.

When some one speaks sharply or unkindly to you, be silent. To report unkindly would only make the matter worse, beside causing a loss of dignity. Remember it always takes two to make a quarrel.

"Words better left unsaid come back and grieve us when we think them dead."

When slander is going on its rounds, keep still. If you cannot say a good word, be silent. There are times when silence is one of the greatest virtues conceivable.

It requires great strength of character to remain silent in the face of some things, but it is a battle nobly fought and won—a victory over self, and that is a great victory. To speak is easy, but it often means defeat.—Star of Hope.

SEWING WITHOUT THREAD.

“I like to sew when there is no thread in the machine; it runs so easy,” said a little girl just now.

A good many people, I think, are pretty fond of running their machines without thread.

When I hear a boy talking very largely of the grand things he would do if he only could, and if things and circumstances were only different, and then neglecting every daily duty and avoiding work and lessons, I think he is running his machine without any thread.

When I see a girl very sweet and pleasant abroad ready to do anything for a stranger and cross and disagreeable in her home she, too, is running her machine without any thread.

Ah! this sewing without a thread is very easy, indeed, and the life machine will make a great buzzing, but labor, time and force will in the end be far worse than lost.—Sunday School Advocate.

THE MAN WHO GAVE HIS OX.

In the country district of Korea a little band of Christians were building a church, but they lacked fifteen dollars to complete the last payment for the logs and plaster.

For a long time the building stood half finished, when an earnest young man named Pai Ni Il became so burdened about it he could scarcely sleep or eat. His possessions were

few; only a small piece of ground, a bullock, and the little mud hut in which he lived.

One morning after prayer he visited a neighbor, but soon returned and led away the bullock to his friend's house, who gave him in exchange fifteen dollars. The little church was finished, and the villagers far and near came to hear of the living God, and great blessing came upon all.

Springtime came, and the farmers began to plow their fields; but what about Pai Ni Il, who was without his bullock? He and his brother got into the traces and drew the plow, while his old father held the handles, and faithfully did they toil all through the long season.—Ex.

TO-DAY.

This little strip of light
 'Twixt night and night
 Let me keep bright
 To-day!

And let no fumes of yesterday
 Nor shadows of to-morrow
 Begin with sorrow
 To-day!

I take this gift of heaven
 As simply as 'tis given;
 And if to-morrow shall be sad,
 Or never comes at all, I've had
 At least
 To-day!

—Sel.

300 PER CENT.—AND MORE.

There is no one better informed on farm conditions in Ontario than Dr. George C. Creelman, President of the Ontario Agricultural College, and it was he who declared, in a recent public address, by the use of better methods, the farm products of the province could be increased by 300 per cent. That is to say, the soil is capable of producing three times as much as is now obtained from it.

Such a statement, from so high an authority, should catch the ears of every Ontario farmer. With so splendid a possibility in view, it were surely worth while to spend painstaking study on the sort of farming best adapted to a particular locality and farm, to select, with the utmost care, the variety of seed or the breed of live stock likely to yield the best returns, to learn from trained investigators the latest scientific plans for fighting weeds and pests, to work for better roads and to welcome opportunities of co-operation with other farmers.

It is a great promise that is held out, better farming—300 per cent.—and more. For of far greater importance than profits reckoned in dollars and cents is the type of men and women developed by agriculture carried on according to such intelligent and well-informed methods. The best brains are not too good for the farm, and no industry or profession affords a better scope for brains than is found on the farm. And what has been said of Ontario applies essentially to all the other provinces of the Dominion.

—East and West.

NICE MEMENTOES.

The late Lord Strathcona would never cash a cheque received for attendance at meetings of the directors of the Canadian Pacific Railway. At his death he had uncashed cheques covering thirty years, which are said to amount to

over \$40,000. It is reported that his executors will now endeavor to cash the cheques. It was the boast of Lord Strathcona that he had never received anything for his services as director of the railroad; all the cheques had been filed away as mementoes.

AREA OF CANADA.

(From our "5,000 Facts.")

"Do you realize how great a country Canada is? If you could pivot Canada upon its eastern seaboard, it would cover the northern part of the Atlantic Ocean, the British Islands, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, the northern part of France, the entire German Empire, and a considerable part of European Russia, and a man who lives in Halifax is a thousand miles farther away from Victoria than he is from London."—Right Hon. R. L. Borden.

Canada has one-third of area of British Empire.

Canada's area is one-third of that of Africa, and one-fifth of that of Asia.

Canada is larger in area than the United States, including Alaska, by 111,992 square miles (Canada, 3,719,665; United States and Alaska, 3,617,673). Canada's area in acres, 2,386,985,395.

Canada is as large as 30 United Kingdoms and 18 Germanys; twice the size of British India; almost as large as Europe; 18 times size of France; 33 of Italy.

Canada's proportion of population, nearly **two per** square mile; United States, 25; England and Wales, 558; British Empire (outside India), 4.

Canada is bounded by three oceans; its 13,000 miles of coast line nearly equal half circumference of earth.

Canada is 3,500 miles by 1,400 in area. The United States-Canada boundary line is 3,000 miles long; 1,600 by land, 1,400 through water.—Can. Teacher.

REMARKABLE.

The manuscript of the last journals of Captain Scott of the Antarctic are now in the British Museum. One who has seen them speaks of the remarkable fineness, legibility and beauty of the writing, done under such difficult conditions. Even the letters in the last agonized words, while larger than the other writing, are perfectly plain and scrupulously formed, showing wonderful self-control and unwearied perseverance.—East and West.

THE FROZEN THAMES.

Seldom has London, England, the rare experience of cold sufficiently severe to freeze the Thames. When this happens, as it has about half a dozen times in the last three hundred years, a Frost Fair has been held. Booths have been erected on the ice of the river, printing presses set up, and various sports and games indulged in. The first of these Frost Fairs was held in 1608, and a very famous one in 1683-4, which lasted from the beginning of December to the beginning of February. A spirited description of this is given in Evelyn's Diary. Among the distinguished visitors to the Fair were King Charles II. and his family. They have their names printed on a sheet of paper which is said to be still in existence. In 1716, 1740, 1788, and 1814, similar Frost Fairs were held.

WAR.

Everywhere throughout the Christian world thinking people are exercised over the thought that Christianity should be dishonoured by the spectacle of Christian nations warring against each other after nineteen hundred years of preaching of the Gospel of Peace. It is all the more appalling when the devilish ingenuity and power of the instruments of human destruction are also considered. Not only does Christian teaching seem for the time to have failed,

but what also about the spread of enlightenment? It is the greatest age of general education the world has ever seen, and no country has a greater record in this respect than Germany, the arch aggressor. The whole world has been taught to look up to the wonderful achievements of that country in science and literature, and to the marvelous perfection of her system of education.

The war is truly a trial of faith—of faith in the power of spiritual and intellectual influences to govern this world. Yet we may have faith that when all is over—which we trust may not be long after all—the world will possess many more thousands, and millions, who will turn from war with greater horror than ever before and who will demand that the teachings of religion, of common humanity, and of the higher interests of man in general, shall dominate more fully the policy of great states.

Such a policy Great Britain has, indeed, endeavored to follow. No one in any part of the Empire can doubt that Sir Edward Grey has put forth every possible effort to avert by diplomacy the awful conflict, and in these efforts he has had the moral support of the whole Empire. That he has failed has not been his fault. Great Britain has been forced into the war by the acts of the Kaiser, and her cause is righteous.

Canada, too, is doing her duty and the Premier and the Leader of the Opposition have joined hands to make the effort the response of a whole people. The Provinces, also, are answering the call, and the provincial governments are offering substantial aid. Our own Province of Quebec is sending four million pounds of cheese, at a cost of half a million dollars, for the soldiers. The gift is recognized as a wise and sensible one.

The teachers have an opportunity at the present time to instruct the pupils in the events and causes which have led up to this war; and the geography lessons will be more vivid when the countries involved are pointed out on the map and the places where fighting is going on.

But above all the great lesson of Reconstruction after the war is over is the one which should be impressed upon the young. It is here that history can teach us much. There have been wars in the past which have left countries desolate for centuries. Germany itself took fully one hundred years to recover from the effects of the Thirty Years War in the seventeenth century. It was this fact which led Frederick the Great to put forth every effort to repair the damages caused in the eighteenth century by the Seven Years War, and his work in peace is far more to his credit than his work in war. When this war ends there will be vast reconstructive work to be done. The machinery of modern civilization, so to speak, is far more delicate and complicated than it has been in any previous age and the energy and wisdom of millions of men and women the world over will be called upon to restore the world to its normal conditions.

"L'ESPRIT SCIENTIFIQUE"

ET LA METHODE DIRECTE

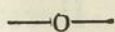
Le plus grave reproche que l'on fait à l'enseignement actuel des langues vivantes semble être celui-ci: il méconnaît le but de toutes les études secondaires; il sacrifie aux tendances utilitaires de la vie moderne la culture générale de l'esprit: or, "l'éducation que donne l'enseignement secondaire est toujours d'une utilité supérieure, mais sans utilité immédiate. Car c'est toujours une culture; pas d'enseignement secondaire qui ne soit, par définition, essentiellement désintéressé 1." Par définition aussi, la méthode directe, poursuivant avant tout la possession effective du langage étranger, se met en marge des autres disciplines. Mais il y a plus: on nous assure qu'elle porte préjudice aux enseignements parallèles; elle donne aux élèves, dit-on, des "habitudes d'imprécision" dont pâtit, entre autres, l'enseignement du français; elle est "anti-scientifique 2."

Il est toujours un peu vain d'opposer les définitions aux définitions ou les vocables aux vocables, le "sens des réalités", par exemple, à "l'esprit d'idéal". On peut se demander si le dogme pédagogique du désintéressement des études secondaires n'a pas fait son temps et si cette division du travail sur laquelle on semble vouloir fonder toute notre éducation nationale: l'enseignement des choses à l'école primaire, le maniement des abstractions au lycée, n'est pas devenue fort arbitraire. Je n'essaierai pas cependant de justifier le caractère très nettement et très franchement pratique de notre nouvel enseignement, mais je voudrais montrer que la méthode directe participe, elle aussi, à la formation des intelligences, qu'elle est bien une discipline de l'esprit, non un simple dressage des organes et un chargement de la mémoire, et que la réforme de nos programmes, accomplie officiellement en 1902, résultait d'une lente évolu-

1. Ch.-V. Langlois, *La question de l'enseignement secondaire en France et à l'étranger*, Paris, 1900, p. 75.

2. E. Abry, *Le français et les langues vivantes*, *Revue universitaire*, mai, 1907.

tion pédagogique à laquelle d'autres enseignements, en particulier celui des sciences naturelles et expérimentales, ont également dû s'accommoder.



Au temps où les matières d'enseignement n'étaient considérées que comme un moyen d'exercer l'intelligence des élèves, les langues anciennes et les mathématiques étaient les instruments favoris de la culture secondaire. Dans la hiérarchie des programmes, elles occupaient le premier rang et asservissaient à leurs méthodes les autres enseignements. Les sciences naturelles étaient dominées par les mathématiques et transformées en un enseignement doctrinal: on partait, en botanique, de la cellule en général, de la cellule abstraite, comme on part en géométrie de la ligne et du point, et, passant de la cellule aux tissus et des tissus aux organes, on construisait devant les élèves le végétal *en soi*, avant qu'ils eussent observé dans la réalité la structure de telle ou telle plante.—L'enseignement des langues vivantes s'étayait sur celui des langues mortes; c'était la pure méthode grammaticale, également constructive: on partait du mot isolé, du mot écrit, *abstrait* de la langue étrangère et simplement appuyé sur le mot correspondant de la langue maternelle; on l'étudiait dans ses variations mises en tableaux, déclinaisons et conjugaisons, comme on étudiait les variations de la cellule disposées en schèmes; du mot on passait à la proposition simple et de la proposition à la phrase, et l'on édifiait ainsi peu à peu la langue étrangère en l'adossant constamment à la langue maternelle, comme s'il existait entre notre parler français et l'idiome étranger une loi de dépendance, la convention tacite de tel rapprochement ou de tel écart que le professeur eût eu pour mission de révéler. Il semblait, en sciences comme en langues vivantes, que les exercices pratiques *juxtaposés* au cours, expériences de laboratoire et conversations, n'eussent qu'un but: montrer que l'exposé du professeur n'était pas un simple jeu d'esprit, mais qu'il se réfléchissait dans la réalité et que la nature fournissait bien une application des théorèmes physiologiques ou grammaticaux. Encore la conversation étrangère restait-elle

“de formation savante,” fidèlement attachée à la pensée française.

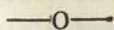
Pour tout dire en un mot, l'enseignement secondaire était dominé par la *déduction*. Il est facile de s'expliquer l'enthousiasme que manifestent bon nombre de mathématiciens pour une langue artificielle telle que l'espéranto: faire une grammaire dont les règles soient sans exceptions, comme les lois de la géométrie, construire une langue toute en ligne droite, dégagée des contingences, immuable dans le temps et dans l'espace, voilà qui est bien fait pour séduire des esprits déductifs.

“Ce pays, qui est surtout de génie idéaliste, disait M. Liard en 1904, a besoin d'un bain de réalisme 1.” La grande réforme, et le grand progrès, dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes aussi bien que dans celui des sciences expérimentales, a consisté à reconnaître cette vérité; on a restauré, en matière pédagogique, la nature dans ses droits; on a semblé découvrir que les mathématiques abstraites et la grammaire constructive n'étaient pas les seules formes de l'exactitude scientifique, qu'avant la précision du raisonnement il y avait celle des sens et que l'éducation des sens était peut-être, au point de vue psychologique, la meilleure assise de tout enseignement, même secondaire. On s'est avisé, par exemple, qu'un cours de sciences naturelles ne devait pas nécessairement commencer par une définition de la vie, mais qu'il fallait bien plutôt faire d'abord “voir, toucher, peser aux élèves les différentes parties de l'organisme 2”; on s'est dit aussi qu'une langue moderne, organisme vivant, ne pouvait être traitée comme une application de recettes grammaticales, mais que la grammaire n'était elle-même que la classification de faits linguistiques d'abord reconnus. Dès lors, l'enseignement des sciences naturelles devait se séparer nettement des mathématiques, celui des langues vivantes

1. *Revue de Paris* du 1er février, 1904 et *Revue pédagogique* du 15 février, 1904: Discours de M. Liard, vice-recteur de l'Académie de Paris, prononcé à l'ouverture des conférences du Musée pédagogique.

2. L. Brucker, professeur au lycée de Versailles: *De l'enseignement des sciences naturelles dans les lycées et collèges*.

s’affranchir de la tutelle des langues mortes, et tous deux, faisant retour vers les réalités, “vers les sources, vers les ruisseaux de la vie,” se rencontrèrent dans la même méthode.



Il nous faut mettre d’abord nos élèves en présence des faits et leur apprendre à observer. Mais tandis que le professeur de sciences naturelles peut user immédiatement de modèles de carton-pâte, de squelettes ou même d’organes d’animaux pour solliciter l’attention des élèves, le professeur d’allemand ou d’anglais est d’abord le seul dans la classe à percevoir la structure et le mécanisme de la langue étrangère dont il porte en lui-même le pouvoir. Une langue vivante se parle et s’écrit,—se parle avant de s’écrire; la méthode inductive, pour être vraiment scientifique, ne peut être fondée uniquement sur l’étude d’un texte, pas plus qu’elle ne peut, dans les sciences expérimentales, se contenter des illustrations d’un manuel, si exactes soient-elles. Il nous faut donner à notre enseignement une base *complète*, sur laquelle nous puissions ensuite résolument construire.

Il s’agit, en sixième et en cinquième, de faire parcourir au jeune Français, dans la langue étrangère, le chemin qu’à déjà parcouru, dans sa langue maternelle, le petit Allemand ou le petit Anglais qui vient pour la première fois à l’école; mais ce n’est pas là une course à l’aventure, avec des flâneries et des détours: l’itinéraire en est exactement tracé, les étapes doivent en être soigneusement réglées. En deux ans, à raison d’une heure de classe par jour, il faut que l’élève, guidé par le professeur, apprenne à désigner les objets qui l’entourent au collège et à la maison, à la ville et à la campagne, qu’il sache exprimer couramment les actions qui remplissent non seulement sa vie d’écolier, mais toute son existence d’enfant. Et la tâche du professeur se complique d’une autre nécessité: il lui faut adapter des organes vocaux qui accomplissent déjà un premier service, celui de la langue maternelle, à un second usage, celui de la langue étrangère; ces organes doivent se soumettre au contrôle de l’oreille, se rompre à de nouvelles habitudes musculaires, acquérir par une gymnastique de tous les instants un pouvoir nouveau.

Notre enseignement a donc une base à la fois psychologique et physiologique; nous exploitons la curiosité de l'enfant, sa spontanéité, la souplesse de ses organes. Et nous procédons ici comme le professeur de sciences expérimentales. "L'essentiel est que l'élève agisse par lui-même, autant que faire se pourra. D'abord pour voir. Au début le sait-il? Son oeil sait lire. Mais sait-il voir? Voir exactement? Il faut l'y habituer 1." De même nous disons: "L'enfant sait-il entendre? entendre exactement? Et ses organes vocaux obéissent-ils à son oreille? obéissent-ils avec précision? Il faut les y entraîner." La "leçon de langage" est une variété de la leçon de choses; dans l'une comme dans l'autre, il s'agit d'abord de l'éducation des sens et de "la mise en mouvement des énergies."

Les premières classes de langues vivantes offrent à la vérité un tableau très pittoresque et quelque peu déconcertant. Les exercices d'articulation, exécutés par une trentaine de petits hommes volontiers bruyants, gênent parfois les classes voisines. Il se peut que tel partisan de la pure gymnastique intellectuelle, passant un jour dans les couloirs du lycée et voyant par une fenêtre entr'ouverte professeur et élèves "danser, baller, faire cent tours de passe-passe 2", se soit demandé quelle étrange besogne s'accomplissait là et si les humanités ne recevaient pas ainsi le coup de grâce. Enfin, avouons que nous avons pu nous-mêmes, au début, commettre des exagérations et même des erreurs; quelques-uns des nôtres ont parfois déployé bien inutilement d'excellentes qualités de mime ou d'acrobate, "poussé à bout"—et égaré—la méthode directe; la partie de barres est un exercice fécond en sixième, elle perd de son intérêt pédagogique en quatrième, elle devient ridicule et compromettante avec de grands élèves.—Observation superficielle d'une part, zèle malencontreux d'autre part, erreur des deux côtés: voilà d'où viennent la plupart des attaques dirigées contre la nouvelle méthode, voilà sur quoi l'on nous condamne encore aujourd'hui, au nom de "l'esprit scientifique."

1. L. Liard.

2. Selon l'expression de M. Parigot, chroniqueur pédagogique au journal *Le Temps*.

A la fin du premier cycle, le “dressage”—car la gymnastique vocale est bien, en effet, une manière de dressage—doit être terminé; nos élèves sont désormais assez maîtres des sons étrangers pour que la traduction phonétique des mots écrits se fasse naturellement et s'impose à leurs organes: une faute de prononciation devient un accident individuel et provoque, dans une classe bien entraînée, un mouvement de surprise et comme une petite révolte; vite on la corrige, sans que le professeur ait besoin d'intervenir. Dès lors, le livre, plutôt gênant au début, est pour le maître un précieux auxiliaire. Les réalités environnantes n'intéressent plus guère les élèves; c'est vers les choses d'Allemagne ou d'Angleterre qu'il faut diriger leur curiosité; les lectures de quatrième sont déjà une initiation aux moeurs des peuples étrangers, le professeur commence à enseigner l'Allemagne ou l'Angleterre: guidés par lui, les jeunes Français pénétreront de plus en plus profondément dans la vie et dans l'âme des nations voisines.

Les adversaires de la méthode directe prétendent qu'il est impossible d'assurer la compréhension d'un texte sans recourir à la traduction. Qu'il me soit permis de citer ici une expérience personnelle. Après avoir appliqué pendant deux ans avec les élèves de sixième et de cinquième la “méthode pratique du langage” de M. Carré 1,—procédés d'école primaire introduits sans vergogne dans l'enseignement secondaire,—je lus à ces enfants de douze à treize ans une des plus belles poésies de Goethe: la ballade du “Roi des Aulnes.” Je n'eus pas même la peine de paraphraser le texte; c'était plaisir de voir aux jeux de physionomies des auditeurs, à certains gestes involontaires, à tel cri d'effroi à demi réprimé, avec quelle *intensité* ils comprenaient: c'est que les mots étrangers gardaient pour eux toute leur magie évocatrice; habitués à associer directement les sons de

1. Exposée pour la première fois dans cette Revue il y a quelque vingt ans, la méthode Carré est une des meilleures formes de la méthode directe. Voir la **Revue pédagogique** du 15 mars, 1888: “De la manière d'enseigner les premiers éléments du français dans la Basse-Bretagne,” et mon article, dans la **Revue universitaire** du 15 mai, 1905: “De l'emploi de la méthode Carré dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes étrangères.”

“anfassen” à l'action de “saisir”, les sons de “halten” à l'action de “tenir,” etc. (et non pas le mot “anfassen au mot “saisir,” le mot “halten” au mot “tenir”), ils assistaient vraiment à la scène.—Qu'on ne vienne donc pas dire que la méthode directe ne permet pas aux élèves de comprendre avec précision un texte étranger et les empêche d'en goûter toute la valeur littéraire: c'est le contraire qui est vrai.

Il y a dans notre enseignement, nous le reconnaissons volontiers, un tournant difficile: c'est lorsque nous passons du concret à l'abstrait. Il est alors essentiel d'observer dans le choix des morceaux une progression rigoureuse, de surveiller de très près la marche de la classe et d'attribuer beaucoup plus d'importance à la qualité du savoir qu'à la somme des connaissances enregistrées¹. Le professeur est obligé de jeter de fréquents regards en arrière pour s'assurer qu'il est bien suivi de ses élèves et non entraîné lui-même loin du gros de la classe par une avant-garde d'élite: la méthode directe *doit* être lente.

La méthode directe ne propage pas non plus chez les jeunes gens “l'indifférence des formes grammaticales”; elle enseigne la grammaire autrement que la méthode de traduction: voilà ce qu'il est juste de prétendre; et il nous est permis d'ajouter: elle l'enseigne d'une manière plus scientifique, plus naturelle, plus vraie.

Au début de la quatrième, les élèves possèdent assez de faits grammaticaux pour qu'il leur soit possible d'établir des comparaisons et de reconnaître les lois du langage étranger. La “leçon de langage” est une grammaire *en action*; nous l'avons d'ailleurs préparée dans ce sens. Ici encore, comme dans les sciences expérimentales, “l'idéal serait que l'élève,

1. Voir à ce sujet, dans la *Revue pédagogique* du 15 janvier, 1907, l'article de M. Bourgogne sur “Les méthodes pour l'enseignement des langues vivantes,” p. 22.

dirigé par le maître, trouvât tout ce qu'il doit savoir ¹". Après les "cahiers de classe" de sixième et de cinquième qui constituent une première documentation, intervient le cahier de grammaire qui est un premier essai de généralisation. Le mieux est sans doute de prendre pour champ d'études un morceau suivi, de préférence une pièce facile, une petite comédie en prose, par exemple, que les élèves ont apprise par coeur en cinquième, qu'ils ont souvent jouée en classe et qui ne représente plus guère pour eux un texte étranger, motif de traduction, mais est devenue l'expression familière d'une série d'actes précis. C'est sur ce fragment de l'idiome étranger, complété, s'il est nécessaire, par nos lectures, que nous induisons les élèves à découvrir personnellement les lois de la grammaire; en notant leurs découvertes, ils construisent eux-mêmes leur cours et rendent le manuel inutile.

Ici deux questions se posent.

Emploierons-nous le français dans l'enseignement grammatical? Donnerons-nous nos leçons dans la langue étrangère? Remarquons que l'emploi du français ne constitue pas nécessairement un abandon de la méthode directe. A condition d'étudier la structure de l'organisme étranger sur cet organisme même, nous restons fidèles au principe directeur. Mais il me semble qu'après avoir parlé uniquement l'allemand et l'anglais dans le premier cycle, pendant deux ans, nous pouvons nous risquer à employer la langue étrangère dans l'enseignement grammatical; nos élèves n'ont pas eu de peine à associer des sons nouveaux aux perceptions de leurs sens: ils associeront avec autant de facilité les expressions étrangères aux constations de leur intelligence. L'essentiel est d'être toujours clair, de bien faire choisir les exemples, d'éviter les minuties et surtout de ne jamais donner dans ce travers du langage: le *verbalisme*. La grammaire allemande possède une terminologie fort riche, variant d'un auteur à l'autre; comme celle des sciences naturelles, elle est d'une opulence un peu gênante. Mais si nous nous en tenons, pour désigner les formes grammaticales, à un petit nombre de

1. L. Liard.

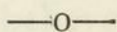
termes vraiment significatifs: Hauptsatz, Nebensatz, Satzgegenstand, Aussagewort, Bestimmungen zum Aussagewort, etc., et si notre grammaire est faite surtout de listes d'exemples, nous n'égarerons pas nos élèves et nous ne deviendrons pas des "professeurs d'imprécision."

On peut, en seconde lieu, se demander par où il convient d'aborder ce premier cours suivi de grammaire. Commencerat-on par les "parties du langage" ou par la syntaxe, par le mot ou par la phrase? Les déclinaisons et les conjugaisons, remarquons-le, ont déjà été apprises expérimentalement dans le premier cycle; rien ne nous empêche de les résumer maintenant en tableaux sur les premières pages du cahier de grammaire. Mais nous partirons ensuite de la phrase, nous isolerons les différents types de propositions; nous montrerons comment les subordonnées s'articulent sur la principale; puis, examinant une proposition simple, nous en ferons sortir, à l'aide du verbe, tous les éléments: le sujet sous ses différentes formes (substantif, pronom, adjectif pris substantivement, infinitif, proposition subordonnée...), les compléments indirects, directs, circonstanciels, les déterminations adverbiales, etc. Nous aboutirons enfin au mot isolé, nous en examinerons la composition et nous le replacerons dans son groupe familial. Ainsi le naturaliste va logiquement de l'appareil à l'organe, de l'organe aux tissus et des tissus à la cellule, dont il étudie finalement la structure et les variations.

On avait coutume, dans l'ancienne méthode, de découper la grammaire en larges tranches et de distribuer ces tranches le long des classes, de la sixième à la seconde; dans la méthode directe nous adoptons des *cycles concentriques* de connaissances grammaticales. Après avoir induit nos élèves à trouver les lois principales de la langue étrangère, nous les amenons, au cours de leurs lectures, à en observer de plus en plus près le mécanisme et à suivre le mouvement de la pensée allemande ou anglaise sous le tissu des phrases les plus simples et dans la trame compliquée des périodes. L'exercice de la version, que la méthode directe admet fort bien dans les classes supérieures, alors qu'elle rejette en tout

temps la fabrication des thèmes, peut les aider puissamment à reconnaître l'originalité de la langue étrangère. Ils arrivent ainsi peu à peu à en reconnaître “l'esprit,” de même qu'ils s'élèvent, dans l'étude des sciences naturelles, jusqu'à la conception des grandes lois biologiques.

Comme l'enseignement grammatical, la culture littéraire de la troisième période est pénétrée d'esprit scientifique: nous habituons toujours les intelligences “à ne pas penser par fragments, mais à comprendre que tout fragment n'est qu'une partie d'un tout.” A la fin de la troisième, nous avons déjà fait pénétrer nos élèves dans la vie des peuples étrangers: par l'étude des auteurs ils apprennent à connaître les principaux représentants de la pensée étrangère, les exemplaires les plus parfaits de la race, les expressions les plus fortes des joies, des douleurs ou des aspirations d'une âme allemande ou anglaise. Nous ne séparons pas les individus des milieux sociaux qui les ont produits et sur lesquels ils ont pu réagir: en expliquant le *Werther* de Goethe, nous enseignons l'Allemagne, et nous l'enseignons encore en lisant à nos élèves un discours de Bismarck. Une bonne explication de texte étranger complète fort bien enseignement: c'est à la fois une leçon d'observation, d'analyse et de généralisation 1.



“Des faits d'abord exactement perçus, et ce sera une culture de la faculté d'observation; puis des faits comparés, et ce sera une culture de la faculté de comparaison; enfin, à la suite de ces comparaisons, des liaisons positives, constatées entre des faits, et ce sera une culture de la faculté de généralisation, une première conception de la loi, un premier

1. Les élèves avec lesquels nous expérimentons actuellement la méthode directe dans les classes supérieures ont été formés en partie selon la méthode de traduction, peut-être ont-ils souffert aussi des tâtonnements inévitables du début: il n'est donc pas encore permis de porter un jugement définitif sur la méthode d'après les résultats obtenus dans 3e cycle. Il est évident, d'autre part, que cette méthode se précisera à mesure que les expériences se renouvelleront. **La culture littéraire dans la méthode directe** pourra faire alors l'objet d'une étude particulière, basée sur l'observation.

éveil du sens scientifique." C'est ainsi que M. Liard définit la méthode inductive dans l'enseignement des sciences expérimentales; cette méthode, nous l'employons aussi dans l'étude de ces organismes vivants que sont les langues modernes, et nous avons conscience de contribuer par là, pour notre modeste part, à la mission générale de l'enseignement secondaire qui est bien, en effet, de "former des intelligences ouvertes, éprises de rigueur positive."

Lorsque notre enseignement vivait caché, sous la protection un peu dédaigneuse de la méthode des langues anciennes, il vivait sans doute heureux, car nul ne songeait à l'attaquer. Il ne nous déplaît pas cependant de le trouver si souvent aujourd'hui, sous sa forme nouvelle, au centre des discussions pédagogiques. Nous nous contenterons de réclamer nous-mêmes de nos *opposants* un peu plus d' "esprit scientifique," non pas, certes, dans leur enseignement,—auquel nous devons beaucoup et dont nous ne songeons pas à suspecter la "probité,"—mais dans la méthode par laquelle ils prétendent juger, c'est-à-dire condamner la nôtre.

H. MASSOUL,

Professeur agrégé au lycée de Nantes.

Revue Pédagogique, 1914.

THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS OF DENMARK.

By *L. L. Friend.*

HISTORICAL SKETCH.

The origin of the folk high schools in Denmark dates back to the middle of the last century. At that time a great awakening was taking place among the people of Denmark, the principal manifestation of which was a desire on the part of the common people for greater political and religious liberty. One of the greatest and most farsighted leaders of that day was Bishop N. T. S. Grundvig, a noted divine, poet, and historian. Bishop Grundvig was in close sympathy with the common people and understood their aspirations and needs as perhaps no other man did. He saw, however, that the people were in need of education to fit them for the proper use of the greater liberties that they sought and to enable them to avail themselves of the advantages of freer institutions. He felt that greater liberties and extended political privileges might prove injurious to the real welfare of the people unless they were taught to use them with intelligence.

Bishop Grundvig was not in sympathy, however, with the classic spirit that predominated in the education of his day; at least he did not believe that the prevailing type of education was best for the peasants of Denmark. This, he believed, placed too much emphasis on learning for learning's sake and did not sufficiently provide either for the development of the inner life of the individual or for the improvement of his efficiency as a member of society. He believed that education should enable a man to know life and to know himself, that it should reveal his abilities and strengthen them, and that it should render him more capable of performing well his daily task. It should not, however, make him dissatisfied with his work. Grundvig's idea was that—

Education should not be rendered in such manner that it breeds despondency and contempt for work, but so that it

ennobles a man's work and heightens his ability to perform it well.

In order that education of this kind might be made available for the people of Denmark, Bishop Grundvig conceived the idea of establishing a great school at some suitable point in the Kingdom. He laid his idea before the King of Denmark and won his indorsement for the plan and his promise of financial aid. A location was decided upon, land was secured, and the undertaking was begun. Before it could be carried out, however, the King died and the project came to an end. Others had become acquainted with Grundvig's ideas, however, and were like him interested in the education of the people. Some years later, therefore, the school project was revived, though in modified form. The plan to establish one great school was abandoned, and assistance was not again sought from the King. The movement when revived became more distinctively a movement of the people and proposed the establishment of a number of schools of the type advocated by Bishop Grundvig.

The first folk high school was established in 1845 at Rodding, in the northern part of Schleswig, which was then Danish territory. In its organization and purpose it followed closely the ideas of Bishop Grundvig. A two-years' course of study was authorized. The principal subjects of instruction were Danish, history, physics, and agriculture. The aim of the school seems at the outset to have been fourfold: First, to awaken the intelligence of the people and to prepare them to obtain the greatest possible benefits from their new national constitution and to use in the most intelligent way the liberty granted by it; second, to arouse and maintain a strong spirit of patriotism, particularly in the Provinces of Schleswig and Holstein, where there was a faction disloyal to Denmark and in sympathy with Germany; third, to strengthen religious faith among the people; and fourth, to give a certain amount of vocational instruction, particularly for agricultural pursuits.

The school at Rodding for various reasons did not prosper to the extent hoped for. This was true also of Grund-

vig schools established elsewhere in the Kingdom during the early years following the founding of the school at Rodding. For nearly 20 years the movement did not really take hold of the people of Denmark. Then came the war with Germany in 1864, which had been long expected and which resulted in the loss of Schleswig and Holstein. This disaster humbled the pride of the nation and for the time being rendered the people almost hopeless. But with the passing of the first staggering effect of defeat the courage of the nation returned, and a movement began to regain the prestige which the nation had lost. This movement did not have for its purpose, however, the restoration of Denmark's strength in arms nor the regaining of the territory that had been lost. It was in awakening the intelligence of the people and the development of the resources of the land that the leaders of the nation saw the promise of restored national prestige and respect. This, it was believed, could be accomplished only through education. Therefore education became the watchword of the leaders of the people and a passion with the people themselves. This new faith in education turned the attention of the people again to Bishop Grundvig's plan for popular education and led at once to a recognition of the possibilities of the folk high school and to the real beginning of the high-school movement. The school at Rodding was moved across the new German border and reestablished at Askov. Other schools were established here and there throughout the Kingdom. Students began to flock to them in numbers, and their influence grew with great rapidity.

To-day there are nearly 80 folk high schools, with a total enrollment of almost 10,000 students. Over 10 per cent of the population pass through them. The young people of the country consider it a great privilege to spend a term in one of these schools, and at a number of the schools there are many more applicants for admission each year than can be accepted.

The folk high schools are not State institutions, but are the result of private initiative, supported by a strong popular desire for education. Some of them are owned and con-

trolled by individuals, and others by high-school societies. These have been aided by gifts and loans from the people of the communities in which the schools are located. They therefore represent the co-operative effort of the people to provide for themselves the kind of education that they need. They are inspected by the Government, however, and when they come up to certain requirements are recognized by the State department of education and receive small annual grants from the national treasury. At the present time the amount granted to each recognized school is 3,000 kroner (\$810). Deserving students who are not able to bear their own expenses while attending a high school may receive assistance from a fund appropriated by the Government for that purpose. The maximum of assistance so given to each aided student is 25 kroner (\$6.75) per month. Students pay 35 kroner (\$9.45) per month in winter and 32 kroner (8.64) per month in summer for tuition, board, and lodging. The accommodations provided are plain but comfortable.

ORGANIZATION AND WORK OF THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOL.

The Danish folk high school is not a high school in the sense that we understand the term in the United States; at least, it is very unlike the public high schools of this country. The folk high schools are always located in the country and are maintained primarily for country youth. Most of their students are therefore sons and daughters of farmers, though among them are found many young men and women from other walks in life. In some schools a few from the towns and cities are enrolled. They are, as a rule, from 18 to 25 years of age. A few are younger than 18, but students under that age are usually not expected. Bishop Grundvig, in planning for the school, understood, as educators well understand to-day, that it is at this age that the intellectual life can be most easily awakened, and that it is the best of all periods to arouse ambitions, to establish ideals, and to impart to the individual a knowledge of himself and a knowledge of life. Most of the students have completed the work of the elementary school several years prior to coming to the high school.

In most folk high schools two courses of study are offered—a five months' course in winter for young men and a three months' course in the summer for young women. At the outset a two years' course was planned, but it was found that comparatively few young men and women could be spared from the farm for that length of time, or could afford the expense necessary to complete a two years' course. Moreover, long continuance in school often tends to make the country youth dissatisfied with the tasks of the farm and with farm life. Such a tendency is directly contrary to the spirit and purpose of the folk high school. Its chief purpose is to open the eyes of its students to the possibilities for a richer, happier, more satisfactory life in the performance of the tasks with which they are already familiar. "We want our pupils," explained the principal of one of the larger folk high schools, "to say when they leave, 'Now I will go back to my work and more clearly see the meaning of it and more deeply feel the dignity of it.' We do not desire that they become so devoted to reading and to study as to become dissatisfied with their work." It was found by experience, therefore, that by offering short courses that come at a time when the young people of the country can best be spared from their tasks, it is possible for the folk high schools to reach a much larger number and to accomplish its aims in a much more effective way. Most of the students go back to their work after spending a term in a high school. A few return to the same school or, perhaps, after a year or two, go for a term to another high school. Some go later to Askov, the oldest and largest of the folk high schools, where more extended courses are offered. Many students of the high schools, after completing a term there, go to an agricultural school for technical instruction in agriculture and other pursuits connected with rural life.

The course of study in the folk high schools consists in part of a review of the more important elementary branches. In some schools there is also instruction in science subjects, such as chemistry, physics, and biology. History and literature, however, are the subjects to which the greatest importance is attached, and it is through these subjects that

the high schools seek chiefly to accomplish their aims. In a few schools instruction in agriculture and other subjects connected with rural life is given. In their early history, agriculture was included in the course of instruction in all of the high schools. It was found, however, that it was impossible in the short high-school term to give adequate instruction in agriculture and do thoroughly the more important work of the school. In most of the high schools, therefore, incidental attention only is given to vocational training. Some instruction in agricultural conditions is usually given, and there are sometimes classes in bookkeeping, drawing, and land measuring.

To meet the increasing demand for technical instruction in agriculture, there have grown up a number of agricultural schools. These are an outgrowth of the folk high schools and are closely affiliated with them. They are organized on the same plan as the high schools, having usually the same length of term and the same kind of organization, and following the same methods of instruction.

To give a definite idea of the work attempted in the folk high schools and in the agricultural schools, the course of instruction offered in a representative school of each class is here presented. The high-school course is that offered in the folk high school at Ryslinge, where 200 young men are enrolled in the winter term and about the same number of young women in the summer. The agricultural course selected is that given at Ladelund, where about 170 students are usually in attendance.

Course of instruction in folk high school at Ryslinge, Denmark, winter term, 1913.

	Hours per week.		Hours per week.
Danish and correct writing..	6	The constitution and laws of	
History of Denmark	6	the State	1
General history	6	Agricultural conditions	1
History of Danish literature..	2	Bookkeeping (24 or 25 lessons in	
Arithmetic	3	all).	
Geography	3	Penmanship (24 or 25 lessons in	
Nature study	2	all).	
Drawing and surveying.....	2	Reading and song every evening.	
Gymnastics	6	Patriotic and folk songs are sung	
		at the beginning of each lecture	
		hour.	

The three months' course for young women in summer does not include bookkeeping and the constitution and laws of the State. Instead of these it includes housework, plain and fancy sewing, patching, darning, etc.

Five-months' course offered in the agricultural school near Ladelund, Denmark, winter of 1913.

	Hours
Chemistry—as foundation for understanding of fertilizers, feeding, etc	75
Physics—as applied to machinery, heat, electricity, etc.	45
Drawing and land measuring	30
Study of soils	15
Arithmetic	50
Danish	60
Gymnastics, one hour each day.	
General agriculture:	
(a) Plant culture	55
(b) Soils and their treatment, fertilizers, rotation, plant diseases	120
Domestic animals:	
(a) Anatomy of domestic animals, feeding and breeding of cows and swine.	140
(b) Horse breeding	25
(c) Diseases of domestic animals.	25
Dairying	15
History of agriculture	15
National economy	15
Farm machinery and implements.	15
Electro technique and power machines.	15
Farm accounting	50

It is not the aim of the folk high schools to impart a certain measured amount of textbook information in a specified length of time. Alfred Paulson, principal of the folk high school at Ryslinge, says:

Books play only a subordinate part in the main work of the school. The mark to be aimed at is not to learn this or that much or little, but to be made prepared for the teaching of life. If this preparation is made, if the young man has been aroused to learn from books and men, he will certainly be able to help himself to that wisdom in life which he is most in need of; and if this intellectual awakening does not take place in the mind of the youth it will be perfectly useless to equip him with a larger or smaller stock of book learning or accomplishment, for they are in truth not his and he will never learn to use them rightly.

More than anything else the folk high school seeks to awaken the intellectual life of its students, to start new forces operating in their lives, to make them want to live more efficiently and nobly and to teach them how to do so.

As has already been said, history, particularly the biographical side of history, and literature are regarded as the subjects through which the chief aims of the folk high school can best be accomplished. More importance is therefore attached to these subjects than to any others. History is the subject which the students most enjoy, particularly the history of the north. Principal Alfred Paulson says: "It is for history that the pupils attend the high school, and if it were withdrawn the school would soon lose its character." The aim in teaching this subject is to present and interpret the facts and events of history and the lives of men who have participated in the making of history in such way as to enable the student to see the bearing of these on his own life and times and to be guided by the teachings of history thus revealed. On this point Herr Appel, formerly principal of the folk high school at Askov, and now minister of education in Denmark, says:

When we give students, through connected description, the embodiment and growth of intellectual and social life during the history of mankind, they will have a means of comprehending the intellectual and social facts which they themselves must face in the world to-day. The students will acquire the ability of recalling and living through again the

life of the past. They will learn of the growth of culture. They will become absorbed in the main events and movements of the world's history.

For the subjects of history and literature, teachers of power and personality are chosen—teachers who know how to interpret the meaning of history and make its teachings clear; who are able to reveal the spirit that operated in the life of a great man in such way as to make it react in the lives of those they teach; who know the truths and beauties of great books and poems and are able to bring them within the grasp of their pupils. These subjects are presented mainly by simple lectures, for in this way the power and personality of the teacher have the freest play, and the truths and beauties of the subject taught find the readiest entrance to the minds of his pupils. Besides the lecture periods, however, there are periods for discussion, when the students are encouraged to talk freely about the subjects presented in the lecture hours and to ask questions concerning them. The class discussion hour is growing in favor in many of the schools.

WHAT THE FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS HAVE DONE FOR DENMARK.

What can be accomplished in so short a time? This is a question often asked concerning the folk high schools by those who have heard of them but have not studied their work and methods. To answer this question it is necessary only to explain what has actually been accomplished by these schools among the Danish people. As a preparation for the acceptance of this explanation, the aim of the folk high schools, as elsewhere explained, must be kept in mind. It is not to make scholars of Danish youth, but to give them a knowledge of their powers and capabilities and to stimulate within them a desire for lifelong growth and improvement and for the enrichment of their lives through the intelligent performance of their daily tasks. It must be remembered also that under favorable conditions a long time is not necessarily required to stimulate and arouse the minds of young

men and women. Within a single hour forces may be set operating that will change the whole current of an individual's life. This is exactly what takes place in the lives of hundreds of Danish youth as the result of a five months' term or a three months' term in a folk high school.

The awakening of large numbers of individuals in such manner must necessarily have its influence on the intellectual life, the civic life, the religious life, and the economic life of a nation. The folk high schools have had a marked influence on all these phases of national life in Denmark.

Intellectually the Danes are the equal of any people in the world. The Danish peasantry is said by many to be the most intelligent in the world. Agriculture, which is the principal industry in Denmark, has since the war with Germany in 1864 raised the nation from practical bankruptcy to a position of independence and self-respect in spite of the fact that there are conditions in Denmark which make successful farming more difficult than in some other countries. This has been accomplished by the intelligence of the Danish farmer. He is constantly a student of his task, experimenting, testing, trying always to get better returns from the soil and from his dairy, and endeavoring to improve the products of his farm so that more people in England and other countries that buy them will want them. He reads more newspapers, agricultural papers, and magazines than any other farmer in the world. For this intelligence and its consequent prosperity, the folk high schools and the agricultural schools which have grown from them receive a large share of credit from the Danish people. The folk high schools have given them inspiration and the agricultural schools have given them definite preparation for their work. The work of these institutions in the education of their students does not end when they leave their halls, nor is it confined to their students alone. The high schools, in addition to their regular courses of instruction, maintain lecturing societies and hold annual high-school meetings for the intellectual improvement of all the rural population. The agricultural schools, besides giving short practical courses for farmers

and farmers' wives, prepare specialists whose business it is to advise farmers and give them assistance in working out their experiments and agricultural problems.

The influence of the high schools on the civic life of rural Denmark is easily discovered. They have raised the standard of intelligence of the people, and the people are therefore well informed in regard to questions of politics and government and are able to do their own thinking on such questions. The inculcation of patriotism is everywhere sought in the high schools. This is accomplished through the teaching of Danish history and literature and through other less direct means. Even the surroundings of the students in the high schools are made to contribute to the cultivation of patriotism. In almost every high school many pictures are found that commemorate great events in Danish history or represent characteristic phases of Danish life. Many of these are splendid works of art by noted Danish artists. On the grounds of nearly all the high schools statuary, tablets, and memorial stones commemorate the lives and works of men who rendered notable service to their country. But the patriotic teaching of the high schools is never of a sentimental and boastful kind. The patriotism of being true and noble Danes and of living lives of service in times of peace is emphasized more than the patriotism of serving the country in times of war. The men most frequently commemorated by patriots, tablets, and statues in the high schools are men who have rendered service to the people in social and economic improvement and moral reform.

The singing of patriotic and folk songs is also used as an effective means of cultivating patriotism. A book containing a remarkably rich collection of such songs has been compiled for the folk high schools and is in use in all of them. Many of these were written by Bishop Grundvig, the father of the folk high school. The work of each day is begun with prayer and song; at the beginning of each lecture hour a song is sung, the teacher leading; and often, after the regular work of the day is done, the students assemble before retiring and spend an hour in singing the songs that speak of their country and its history.

The religious influence of the folk high schools is of a most positive character, though no attempt is made to teach dogmatic religion. Separate lessons in religion are not given, and the church exercises no control whatever over the teaching of the high schools. Through the work of the school, however, particularly through history and literature, there is constant emphasis upon the underlying principles of religion. In the words of one of the high-school principals, "In the study of history in the high schools the hand of God is shown all through the evolution of the ages." The teachers are all religious men and women, and through their example also the spirit of religion is inculcated in the lives of their pupils.

On the economic side of Danish life the influence of the high schools also stands out conspicuously. The higher standard of intelligence established by the high schools has improved the condition of the Danish farmer amazingly and has made him the chief factor in Danish life. Though as a rule his farm is small, it almost invariably produces a good living for its owner and usually contributes something to the export trade of the nation. The export trade of Denmark consists chiefly in butter, cheese, bacon, and eggs. These go largely to the markets of England and are produced and marketed usually under the direction of the Danish co-operative agricultural societies. Co-operation is the watchword in all rural activities in Denmark. In co-operation in agriculture this little country has become an example for the rest of the world. In 1912 there were marketed through the co-operative societies eggs, butter, bacon, and meats to the value of \$121,000,000.

That the folk high schools have had an important part in the success of the co-operative movement is everywhere recognized in Denmark. Mr. M. P. Blem, the foremost authority in Denmark on Danish co-operation in agriculture, in a report on the co-operative movement in Denmark, on this point says:

The greatest of all exterior influences (on the success of the co-operative movement) may be traced to the Danish

high schools for the people, for at these a staff of young, able men and women are annually trained and sent out, men and women who with an open eye and undaunted courage go out into practical farming and with energy and understanding perform the work they have been trained and perfected in.

Everywhere those who have been in the folk high schools are leaders in the co-operative societies. Eighty per cent of those who fill positions as managers, superintendents, and other officials in these societies have been students in the high schools. Thus the high schools have helped to improve the condition of the Danish farmer and to raise the Danish nation to a position of economic independence.

THE TASK OF THE RURAL COMMUNITY.

WILBERT L. ANDERSON, D.D.

The high cost of living has led to much reflection upon the relation of rural communities to national welfare. When the consumer worries over the cost of living, he thinks chiefly of farm products—of meat and eggs and butter and milk, of flour and vegetables and fruits. Wool and cotton seem less significant because they appear in manufactured articles. Lumber—a rural if not a farm product—is a large element in rent, and even coal with its heavy burden to the family budget is from the earth. The result of the general consideration of the consumer's problem is a new vision of the dependence of the city upon the country.

The hardships of the consumer have attracted the attention of industrial leaders, from whose point of view the situation becomes serious when wages are forced upward. The struggle for the world market is acute, and on the cost of living the issue of international competition turns. For this reason boards of trade and chambers of commerce have taken up rural problems, railway corporations are promoting agriculture, private philanthropists are bestowing vast

benefactions upon the country, and state and national governments make lavish appropriations for agricultural education and the stimulus of production from the land.

These extraordinary efforts to increase farm production have availed nothing more than to offset partially the shrinkage in the volume of supplies as compared with the demand. The figures grow, indeed, but not so fast on the side of production as on the side of population. At this moment there is no adequate supply of food in sight, and there is an imperative call for an immediate enlargement of farm production on a vast scale. This is not a national but a world problem. This insufficient rural base is a cause of high prices, only less important than the change in the supply of gold. Too much gold and too little farm produce combine to raise prices, which would be high if there were not a tariff nor a truts in the world.

The present era is a providential opportunity for revising estimates of country life and readjusting the relations of country and city in the interest of national unity and the cooperation of all the people in a common industrial social order. On a rising scale of prices some items may be written in the program of rural progress for which falling prices would afford but a poor prospect.

What we may call a standardized farm life is favored by present conditions. It was a radical change when subsistence farming gave place to production for the market. Formerly what was not consumed on the farm was sold for any price that was offered without regard to its cost to the farmer. It is now proposed that farm accounts be kept, and when this is done, with proper charges for interest and depreciation and the labor of the farmer and other members of his family as well as for the more obvious items, the balance sheet, to show a profit, calls for a high selling price at the farm. That margin of profit is the only provision for that modern equipment and that worthier manner of life which are essential features of all plans for rural betterment. It is important that the economic system should be so adjusted as to leave the farmer an income generous enough

to support his household in accordance with modern standards of refinement and comfort. It must be remembered, also, that the farm laborer calls for higher wages and shorter hours and more suitable maintenance.

If rural life is kept at its proper level, there is no clear prospect that farm prices ever can be lower. There may be economy through increased efficiency and skill, but profit thus accruing may justly go to the improvement of life upon the farm. Urban consumers, therefore, should not expect to buy farm produce cheaply. Its production absorbs the full possibilities of a large proportion of our population, and their stake in happiness and in citizenship must not be regarded lightly. If any interest deserves subsidization, the farm as the foundation of national prosperity has the prior claim.

At war with this normal process of rural improvement are certain ominous tendencies and conditions. The excessive cost of placing the farmer's product in the consumer's home is the greatest disadvantage of the country. To this must be added the needlessly high rate of interest on loans secured by land. The speculative price of land, which now reflects the exhaustion of free and cheap lands, is a disturbing element in the rural opportunity. The rapid increase of tenant farmers, who reduce conditions to the low levels of a transient population, threatens a radical change in rural civilization. The invasion of the foreigner, who has extraordinary labor power in himself and his family while living is reduced to the lowest terms, is a serious menace to rural betterment. It is now a grave question whether land will be owned and operated by non-resident capitalists employing some form of cheap labor and by residents who are content with a lower status, or by farmers of the grade that has given distinction to American rural life. The crisis is approaching, and a few decades will determine whether peasants or intelligent and progressive farmers are to occupy the rural districts.

In these conditions the "country life movement" has incalculable significance. It is deliberately proposed to strive

for every kind of rural excellence. It is believed that the farm and the farm home and farm society and farm institutions may be perfected under the highest types in spite of the competitions of cheaper methods and the extortion of predatory commercial arrangements. In a word, there is confidence that if farmers can become sufficiently intelligent, efficient, and co-operative, if rural life can be made attractive enough to hold persons of this superior sort, then the noble destiny of our country, based on a superior rural life, will be secure.

It is definitely recognized by the wisest leaders that in efforts in behalf of rural progress nothing can succeed that does not enlist the country people themselves. There may be stimulus from outside, but a real local initiative must be developed. The vision of rural ideals must inspire the people who live in the country. For presenting, teaching, and urging these ideals, there must be some local agency. There is wide agreement that the country church is the most effective instrument for this task. It is also realized that highest efficiency in this new social service calls for a revision of aims and methods—in fact for a new country church. There is at first an inevitable crudity in the new proposals. Soon experience will afford guidance. In general, the country church, like every other church, will concern itself with the Christian gospel. On the large field of history it is worth while to demonstrate that the Christian spirit, finding new applications, is the indispensable factor in the right ordering of life throughout the vast region of rural change. Above all things the country people need a new ethics, a new idealism, a new content and hope, a new consecration to their appointed service. Without religion such moral renewing is impossible, and the country church may be the source of a new secular life without itself being secularized. Beyond all question the Church holds the center in the present rural propaganda.

The rural community is charged with heavy responsibilities for the national welfare. Great as is the economic service of the country, its political and moral and personal con-

tribution is not less momentous. Hence the alarm when recent decades strained rural life, as if the sources of national strength were imperiled. The "country-life movement" is the response to that deep concern. It gathers into some degree of unity a vast multitude of influences, and there begin to appear indications that the dreaded crisis may be safely passed. The rural community is called to an immeasurable task, and it must be revitalized at whatever cost. Service for the country may be less strategic than service for the city, but it is fundamental and essential.

VOCATIONAL OR CULTURAL EDUCATION—WHICH?

The Amherst Idea.

The growing tendency towards the intensely practical in education, and the growing tendency away from the purely chimerical in the same field, does not and cannot promote the general welfare. Education means something more than a mere livelihood, or the intelligent use of methods to secure it. Education means this, undoubtedly. But it is its incidental, not primary significance. True education, education in the broad sense of the term, must have in mind the individual and not the thing he is to do. This is, if you please, education, first of all, for life, education which has to do with humanity, with communities, with states, and nations. This must finally be the education which is championed and supported by the public.

One is naturally induced to inquire why is there so much discussion about vocational education? Is the tendency in its favor so pronounced as to be dangerous? Well, the emphasis which is placed upon an education which will serve to get a livelihood for its possessor, is certainly increasing with alarming rapidity. The talk is everywhere uppermost how we can provide our children with those things in the schools which will better serve them thereafter. This discussion is

well nigh universal. It is always found on the programs of educational meetings. It crystalizes into proposed legislation in many of the states. It finds a place in not a few courses of study in our common schools and in our colleges and universities. It is exemplified in the commercial, manual training, domestic science, engineering and agricultural courses. Vocational education is "in the air," and deny it, or conceal it, we cannot.

There should be no attempt made to minimize the material needs of the individual. These are important and necessary. But is not a broad and generous culture vastly more important to the community than the mere reaching out to gather in the shekels which in fairness and justice belong to a less fortunate, because not so shrewd, brother? And ought not the spirit of helpfulness to have greater emphasis, rather than a somewhat well-calculated effort to absorb all within one's grasp? It seems that this must be the ultimate outcome of all true learning.

One of the hopeful signs of the recent past is the effort of some of the graduate students of Amherst College to urge upon the trustees of that famous institution of learning "to take a distinctive public position as a representative of that individual training and general culture which was once the purpose of all American colleges." The address urges the trustees to emphasize work in the classics rather than in the sciences, to equip men, not for a trade or profession but offer, instead, a liberal education which will "stimulate spiritual responsibility for the service of humanity." These suggestions have found a generous response in the governing body of the college. And it is one of the most promising signs of the not far distant educational future, that the return to a purely cultural education, will find its exemplification in this small college of New England.

The address and the action of the trustees has caused a widespread discussion. And it is interesting to note that the comments are, almost altogether favorable to the action of the trustees. This is as it should be. We need educational leaders. We need many more than are at present available.

"The Amherst Idea," though not new, offers possibilities of great moment to the future welfare of this country. The plan proposed should not stop with Amherst. There are many other institutions of learning which could well afford to incorporate the idea in the future management of their colleges. The small college, particularly, would seem to here have its opportunity.

But ought a liberal education to be confined to the higher institutions of learning? Why should not some thought be given to generous culture in the public and high schools of the country? Why think of the child as a mere money-making machine before he has left the grades? Is this to be the ultimate hope of all education in about ninety-five per cent. of those children who get, at best, but an imperfect and insufficient education? If so, when and where is the spirit of hope to be cultivated, a hope for better things than were vouchsafed to the child's ancestors? In the eloquent language of the Amherst address: "There is a training which should be undergone for the sake of learning and for the benefit of the State." Some heed should be given to this in the common schools of the land, if for no other reason, in order to train the child to be a better citizen. This is of primary importance in a democracy.

In answer to some of the foregoing suggestions, it is said that the interest of the child and his attendance at school for a long period is impossible; that this so-called liberal education, if attempted, means, practically no education for the great majority of children. They will leave school at an immature age, seeking out such a livelihood as they may be able to command. They will drift at a much earlier age than under existing conditions, which, however, some are honest enough to admit are not ideal. When I hear objections of this kind urged, I at once commence an investigation of the teaching body with a view of ascertaining how well prepared it is for the work it has to do. I do not go far in an investigation before I learn that the lack of interest in the child comes from inadequate knowledge and insufficient preparation on the part of teachers. Here,

again, the Amherst address comes to the rescue and urges "the indefinite increase of teachers' salaries." This, it is insisted, will secure better teachers, teachers who are better equipped for their work, teachers, who will make the teaching profession, a life-work, for the salary will be attractive enough to hold them. If the child's interest cannot be secured and retained, something is generally wrong with the teacher. This is not universally true, but it comes close to it. We are constantly enacting more stringent laws with respect to compulsory attendance at school. Let us make the schools so attractive and interesting to the youngsters that they will wish to go to school from choice. This is the kind of sentiment to encourage in every community.

An opinion prevails among some people and in some quarters that too much learning is a weariness of the flesh and mind. It is known to exist in this country. It is unfortunate that this is so. Nevertheless, in a representative government, where every individual is a sovereign, where intelligence should figure largely in the political action of the citizen, this opinion should have no resting place. In the language of that great educator, Horace Mann, "ignorance is a crime in a republic." We should always remember that. And it should be our constant aim to eliminate it from every walk of life.

Specializing in education is not an ominous signal. It is one of the necessities in this modern, work-a-day world. It was certain to come. And most of us are glad that it is here. Many more hope it is here to stay. Let us make the most of it to the end that civilization will be the gainer thereby.

But let us also not forget that mere specialization is not the whole of the educational field. Indeed, the greater hope lies in some such carefully worked out effort as has been so unselfishly presented by the Amherst Idea. Let us lay hold of it to the betterment of all.—*"Education."*

MACDONALD COLLEGE
LIST OF GRADUATES IN 1914.
MODEL SCHOOL DIPLOMAS.

Mabel D. Price, Capelton; Lilian G. Dixon, Montreal; Lilian Chaskelson, Montreal; Mabel A. Young, Mansonville; Fannie Novick, Montreal; Bessie E. Radley, Montreal; Frances V. Demick, Barnston; E. Ruth Patton, Montreal; Gladys M. Jones, Huntingdon; Novah E. Brownrigg, Grande Ligne; Gertrude Butler, East Angus, Margaret McDonald, Gould; Jessie I. Lindsay, Gaspé; Mrs. Ruby M. Wharram, Waterville; Hazel O'Connor, Montreal; Mary E. MacDougall, Ormstown; Annie D. Moss, Montreal; Grace E. Hawthorne, Notre Dame de Grace; Amy F. Brown, Montreal; Ruth England, Dixville; Ethel Egg, Montreal; Janet R. Macfarlane, Huntingdon; Jennie E. Callaghan, Westmount; Mildred A. Goodfellow, Huntingdon; Eleanor E. Lang, Ormstown; Mabel Biltcliffe, Westmount; Dorothy M. Percival, Westmount; Alice V. England, Knowlton; xIsabel P. Dettmers, Westmount; xMargaret K. Millar, Drummondville; Olive M. Duncan, Notre Dame de Grace; Grace D. Bradford, Lachute Mills; Charles Williamson, Ste. Anne de Bellevue; Katie Wilson, Montreal; M. Joyce Raymond, Waterloo; Edna L. Keddy, Hemmingford; Harriet D. McCoy, Lachute; Marie E. McIntosh, Westmount; Helen S. Armitage, Sherbrooke; Martha H. Brooks, Westmount; Florence G. Howard, Montreal; Nort E. Lindsay, Montreal; xMargaret M. Brown, N. D. de Grace; xErmina C. Latham, Montreal; Helen R. McIntosh, Westmount; Frances M. Jos. Lachute; Amy M. Moore, Montreal; Adele M. Bardoff, Montreal; Isabelle LeMessurier, Montreal; xA. Marjorie Fetherstonhaugh, Montreal; xBertha A. Pomfret, Valleyfield; Pearl L. Bowers, Sherbrooke; Alice A. McCoy, Barnston; Marguerita C. Harrison, Montreal; Florence M. Bowker, Granby; Cassie Cleland, Hemmingford; Gwendolyn M. Norris, Cowansville; xLily M. Palliser, Lachute Mills; xJennie E. Smith, Sherbrooke; Hazel E. Robinson, Hatley;

Evelyn J. Quigley, N. D. de Grace; Edith F. Dudgeon, Montreal; Myrtle C. Standish, Rougemont; Madeline E. Sparling, Granby; Ada C. Cornell, Bedford; Marguerite Collins, Montreal; Mildred A. Nish, Montreal; Mildred E. Woolfrey, South Durham; Rose D. LeBel, Outremont; Matilda G. Dilworth, Lachine; Maude A. Fraser, Cookshire; Bessie F. Buddell, Waterville; Annie L. McCoy, Lachine; C. Ruth Windsor, Bedford; Jessie F. McIntyre, Inverness; Laura I. Hall, Eaton; Helen N. Barrie, Brownsburg; Annie E. Macleod, Galson; Helen G. Shedrick, Magog; xElga M. LeMesurier, Quebec; xV. Olive Tait, St. Laurent; Grace E. Purdy, Shefford Vale; J. Hilda Baker, Westmount; Winifred H. Cross, Montreal; Laura B. Hyde, Huntingdon; Frederica A. Posner, Montreal; Eunice V. Mason, Buckingham; xAmy A. Bothwell, Melbourne; xJeannette L. Hyde, Huntingdon; Mabel Dow, Port Daniel Centre; Ethel M. Way, Rawdon; Jessie M. Carter, Gaspe; Muriel D. Hastie, Ormstown; Emma V. MacLeay, Richmond; I. Rose Ward, Lower Ireland; Lily Hendry, Westmount; Gordon W. Gilson, Waterville; Matilda M. Brisbane, Westmount; xClara A. Miller, Richmond; Ruby M. Hooker, Huntingdon; Katherine A. Coursolle, Les Lacs; Jessie E. Niblock, Sutton; Christina M. Tannahill, Trout River; Roxana A. Ingalls, West Brome; Marion M. Kelly, Huntingdon; Elizabeth M. Thomson, Arundel; xLillie M. Hunter, St. Etienne de Beauharnois; xIda M. Moynan, Waterloo; Mrs. Sarah B. Gordon, Lorne.

Unranked: Claudine E. Crippen, Helena; Addie G. Schoff, Montreal; Florence K. Aylen, Westmount; Edythe F. Petts, Westmount.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL DIPLOMAS.

Myrtle R. Lay, Lorne; Evelyn B. Price, Sherbrooke; Mrs. Lena M. Roy, St. Sebastien; Mildred E. Craven, Montreal; Jean F. Penney, Valcartier Station; Myrtle L. Irwin, Shefford Mountain; Pearl A. Arthur, Rockburn; xTheodora B. Latimer, Montreal; xEdith M. Scott, Montreal; Pearl E. Harwood, Eustis; Estella J. Hodge, St.

Laurent; Christina E. Nicholson, Milan; Rita M. Henderson, New Richmond; Margaret A. Greer, Hallerton; Etta I. Duncan, Kingsey Falls; J. Carrie Brown, St. Louis Station; Maragret B. MacCaskill, Gould; Lillian K. Robinson, Maisonneuve; Ida T. Robson, Drummondville; Mabel G. Blampin, South Roxton; Cecilia J. Brooks, Franklin Centre; Irene E. Elmes, Farnham; Winnifred A. MacGinnis, Leeds Village; K. Phyllis Hodgins, Yarm; Ada M. Wilson, Danville; Elsie H. Boucher, Campbelltown, N.B.; Christina E. Morrison, Scotstown; Ethel H. Quigley, Westmount; Jessie A. Hamilton, Shawville; xA. Pearl Leet, Montreal West; xAnnie E. Mills, East Angus; Sidney M. Pitman, Montreal; E. Maude Cromwell, Cookshire; Elsie E. McLaren, Little Metis; Olive C. Graham, Brysonville; Muriel F. Ramsey, Quebec; Madeline H. Mosher, Noyan; Gladys E. Duffy, Gould; Winnifred M. Cooke, Arundel; Marjorie B. Travers, St. Godfroi; Irene W. Moore, Coaticook; Clement E. Ployart, L'Avenir; Edith M. LeGallais, Shigawake; Irene L. Alcombrack, Bedford; Mary E. Jameson, Bedford.

Unranked—Marjorie D. Harris, Montreal; Arminta C. McDowell, Shawville; Bessie Montgomery, New Richmond.

x Equal.

KINDERGARDEN DIPLOMAS.

Muriel Marshall, Abbotsford.
Winifred Planche, Cookshire.

GENERAL REPORT OF THE INSPECTOR W. O.
ROTHNEY FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR, 1912-1913.

Richmond, Que., 31st July, 1913.

SIR,—

I have the honour to submit my annual report for the scholastic year ending 30th June, 1913.

Territory.—My inspectorate includes the counties of Drummond, Richmond, Sherbrooke, Bagot, Shefford, except the townships of Shefford and Granby, and the township of Tingwick in the county of Arthabaska. There are in this district 30 municipalities, containing 102 schools. 5 of these schools are catholic and have been assigned to the catholic inspector. This leaves 97 schools under my supervision, two of which were not in operation during the year.

Bulletins and Reports.—All schools were visited twice during the year, except a few that were closed at the time of my spring tour of inspection. A report of each visit to each school was sent to the secretary-treasurer of the municipality to which the school belongs, and the required reports and bulletins were forwarded to the Department of Public Instruction.

Conferences.—During the months of September and October, teachers conferences were held at Danville, Richmond, Sherbrooke and Waterloo. These conferences were attended by 68 p.c. of the teachers in my inspectorate, and by 18 teachers from superior schools.

Consolidation.—The scheme of consolidation continues to work successfully in the municipality of Saint Pierre de Durham, where last year three schools were united in one. Consolidation is also in operation in the municipality of Melbourne and Brompton Gore, where one school has been closed and provision made to have the pupils attend another school.

School libraries.—In addition to the books placed in the schools by the Department of Public Instruction, there is now in this inspectorate a circulating library of 86 books, forwarded to me by Mr. A. Watson, Bain, curator and librarian for the provincial association of protestant teachers. These books are doing good service, and are much appreciated by both teachers and pupils.

School term.—34 p.c. of the schools in my inspectorate are summer schools, and I find that, generally speaking, summer schools do not do as good work as winter schools. The average length of term in rural schools is 7.9 months. Three schools were in operation less than six months.

Salaries.—In the rural schools of my inspectorate the average salary for 1912-13 was \$199.12 per annum; or \$24.65 per month. The highest salary paid was \$400; or \$40 per month. The lowest salary paid was \$19 per month. All municipalities pay their teachers monthly.

Course of study.—In 32 p.c. of the schools the course of study was not being followed in all the subjects taught, and in one school the course was not followed in any subject. This neglect was largely confined to the schools where unqualified teachers were engaged.

Qualifications of teachers.—26.2 p.c. of the teachers had no legal qualification to teach; 8.3 p.c. held diplomas from the Catholic Board of Examiners; 10.7 p.c. were teaching on Grade II Academy Permits; 28.6 p.c. held diplomas from the Protestant Central Board of Examiners; and 26.2 p.c. held diplomas from either the McGill Normal School, or Macdonald College.

Competency of teachers.—45.4 p.c. of the unqualified teachers were reported "incompetent"; 11.1 p.c. of those teaching on permits were reported "incompetent"; 12 p.c. of those holding diplomas from the Protestant Central Board were reported "incompetent"; none of the teachers holding diplomas from Macdonald College or McGill Normal School were reported "incompetent."

City of Sherbrooke.—The City of Sherbrooke contains 4 elementary schools with a staff of 14 teachers, and an enrolment of 472 pupils. The equipment is excellent, and all the teachers are competent; but the average attendance is only 68.2 p.c. of the enrollment. 10 teachers hold model school diplomas, 3 hold elementary diplomas, and one is teaching on a grade II academy permit. The average salary is \$469.64, \$46.96 per month.

Bonuses.—I have pleasure in recommending the following teachers as deserving of bonuses for successful teaching in rural schools; Misses S. M. Mitchell, Gertrude Kennedy, Florence Findlay, Mrs. Omer Jette, Misses M. C. Maxwell, A. M. McKenzie, M. D. Price, Nora Lay, Hazel M. Silver, Alice Baker, E. I. Norris, A. S. Ward, A. E. Fuller, Edna Wilson, Alice Dresser.

The following teachers secured bonus standing, but are debarred by the regulations from receiving a bonus this year: Mr. Walter O'Dell, Misses Mabel Martin, C. A. Miller, M. E. Libbey, A. A. Beane, M. J. Weed, M. A. Bachelder, Fanny Frost, E. M. Pennington, Grace Barton, Clara Woolfrey.

Ranking of Municipalities.—Following is the ranking of municipalities when classified according to merit in (1) the length and arrangement of the school year, (2) the condition of school houses, closets, and grounds, (3) the supply of apparatus, (4) the use of the course of study, (5) the use of a uniform series of text-books, (6) the salaries of teachers and method of payment:

Excellent: Sherbrooke, Melbourne village, South Durham, Kingsbury, Ste-Pudentienne (village).

Good: Ste. F. X. de Brompton, Durham Township, St. Elie d'Orford, New Rockland, St. Pierre de Durham, Orford, Tingwick, Kingsey Falls, Milton, North Stukely, South Stukely, Drummondville, Shipton, North Ely, South Ely.

Middling: Melbourne and Brompton Gore, Ascot, Ste Pudentienne (Canton), Windsor Township, Cleveland, Bromptonville, Ste. Theodore.

Bad: St. Joachim de Shefford, Actonvale.

Very bad: None.

The municipality of Ste. Pie is not classified owing to the fact that there were no schools in operation in that municipality during the year.

Temperance and health.—The subject of temperance and health is very much neglected in the rural schools. Generally speaking, the instruction is merely incidental, and no systematic attempt is being made to teach it scientifically. Prescribed work in some suitable textbook would, I think, remedy the defect.

Physical culture.—Physical culture is another phase of school work that is in a very unsatisfactory condition in the rural schools. In very few schools is there any attempt at physical training, and, in most cases where it is attempted, it would be better to let it alone. The failure seems to be due to the fact that teachers apparently have no adequate conception of the purpose of the different exercises, nor a sufficient knowledge of the subject to know when the exercises are properly performed. The teachers' methods, too, of conducting the exercises and giving the commands are anything but conducive to the best results. The failure is due to the fact that the teachers themselves have had no adequate training in physical culture.

Agriculture.—Another much neglected subject is agriculture. If the subject is to remain on the course of study, it would seem that some further provision should be made for efficient instruction in it. Prescribed work in a suitable text-book would certainly tend to improve the quality of instruction given in this subject.

Detriments.—As conditions that militate against the interests of education, I may mention the following: 1. The employment of unqualified teachers; 2. The lack of uniform-

ity of text-books for all municipalities; 3. The lack of uniformity between the courses of study in rural elementary, and in rural model schools, a condition of affairs which, while the two courses cover about the same amount of work, makes it necessary for a pupil who changes from one class of school to the other to lose a year of the time required to cover the work outlined in either course; 4. Irregular attendance on the part of pupils, due largely to the fact that many parents have no adequate conception of the importance of regular attendance at school. The average attendance at school. The average attendance in the rural schools of this inspectorate is only 66.5 p.c. of the enrolment. This irregularity seems to diminish the efficiency of the schools by about one half.

Encouraging Features.—The following comparison between the statistics of 1911-12 and 1912-13 shows signs of improvement: 1. Teacher's salaries in rural schools have increased 19 p.c.; 2. The number of unqualified teachers engaged has diminished 26 p.c.; 3. There has been a decrease of 30 p.c. in the number of teachers reported "incompetent."

I have the honor to be, etc.,

W. O. ROTHNEY,
School Inspector.

NOTICES FROM THE QUEBEC OFFICIAL GAZETTE.

Department of Public Instruction.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased by order in Council bearing the date the 31st July, 1914, to appoint Messrs. J.-B. Roy, commercial traveller, and Theodule Olivier, workman, school commissioners for the school municipality of Beauharnois (town), in the county of Beauharnois.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased by order in Council bearing date the 28th July, 1914, to appoint Mr. Edéas Beauvais, school commissioner for the municipality of Sainte Brigide, in the county of Iberville.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased by order in Council bearing date the 28th July, 1914, to appoint Messrs. A. J. Millier, physician, and Arthur Landry, contractor, school commissioners for the municipality of "Cote Visitation," in the county of Maisonneuve.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased by order in Council bearing date the 28th July, 1914, to appoint Messrs. Xavier Proulx, laborer, and Alfred Hardy, laborer, school commissioners for the municipality of Saint Romuald, in the county of Levis.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased by order in Council bearing date the 28th July, 1914, to appoint Messrs. Joseph Dussault and F. X. de Billy, school commissioners for the municipality of Victoriaville, in the county of Arthabaska.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased by order in Council, dated the twenty-fourth day of July, 1914, to appoint Messrs. Hector Parthenais and Arthur

Landry, school commissioners for the municipality of Cote Visitation, in the county of Hochelaga and Maisonneuve.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor, has been pleased, by order in Council, dated the twenty-fourth day of July, 1914, to appoint Mr. Louis Brault, school trustee for the municipality of the town of Saint Lambert, in the county of Chambly.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor, has been pleased, by order in Council, dated the twenty-fourth day of July, 1914, to appoint Mr. Arthur St. Aubin, school commissioner for the municipality of Notre Dame de Liesse, in the county of Jacques-Cartier.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor, has been pleased, by order in Council, dated the twenty-fourth day of July, 1914, to appoint Messrs. J. H. Brassard and Stanislas Brassard, school commissioners for the municipality of the village of Jonquieres, in the county of Chicoutimi.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor, has been pleased by order in Council bearing date the 6th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. Pierre Joseph, school commissioner for the municipality of Cox, in the county of Bonaventure.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor, has been pleased by order in Council bearing date the 6th August, 1914, to appoint Messrs. Arthur Alain and Adjutor Lemieux, school commissioners for the municipality of Saint David, in the county of Levis.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor, has been pleased by order in Council bearing date the 6th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. Jos. Bondu, school commissioner for the school municipality of Notre-Dame de Pont Main, in the county of Labelle.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor, has been pleased by order in Council bearing date the 6th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. Joseph Germain, school commissioner for the municipality of Saint-Chs-du-Bas-Sault, in the county of Hochelaga.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in Council bearing date the 6th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. C. Viau, school commissioner for the municipality of township Loranger, in the county of Labelle.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in Council bearing date the 6th August, 1914, to appoint Messrs. Treffle David, Adelar Mercier, Joseph Marchand, Ulric Beaupre, G. A. Lapointe, school commissioners for the municipality of Ville de Lery, in the county of Chateauguay.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in Council, bearing date the 8th day of August, 1914, to appoint Messrs. Louis Bourget and Rosaire Bernier, school commissioners for the municipality of the village of Bienville, in the county of Levis.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in Council bearing date the 6th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. Pierre Joseph, school trustee, for the municipality of Cox, in the county of Bonaventure.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in Council bearing date the 19th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. Alfred Racine, school commissioner for the municipality of Cartierville, in the county of Jacques-Cartier.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in Council bearing date the 6th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. Hormisdas Trudeau, agent, school commissioner for the municipality of the town of Saint Laurent, in the county of Jacques-Cartier.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in Council bearing date the 19th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. Wilfred Reeves, merchant, school commissioner for the school municipality of Pointe aux Trembles, partly in the county of Laval.

His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor has been pleased, by order in Council bearing date the 19th August, 1914, to appoint Mr. D. A. Lafortune, advocate, school commissioner for the municipality of Notre Dame de Vertu, in the county of Jacques-Cartier.