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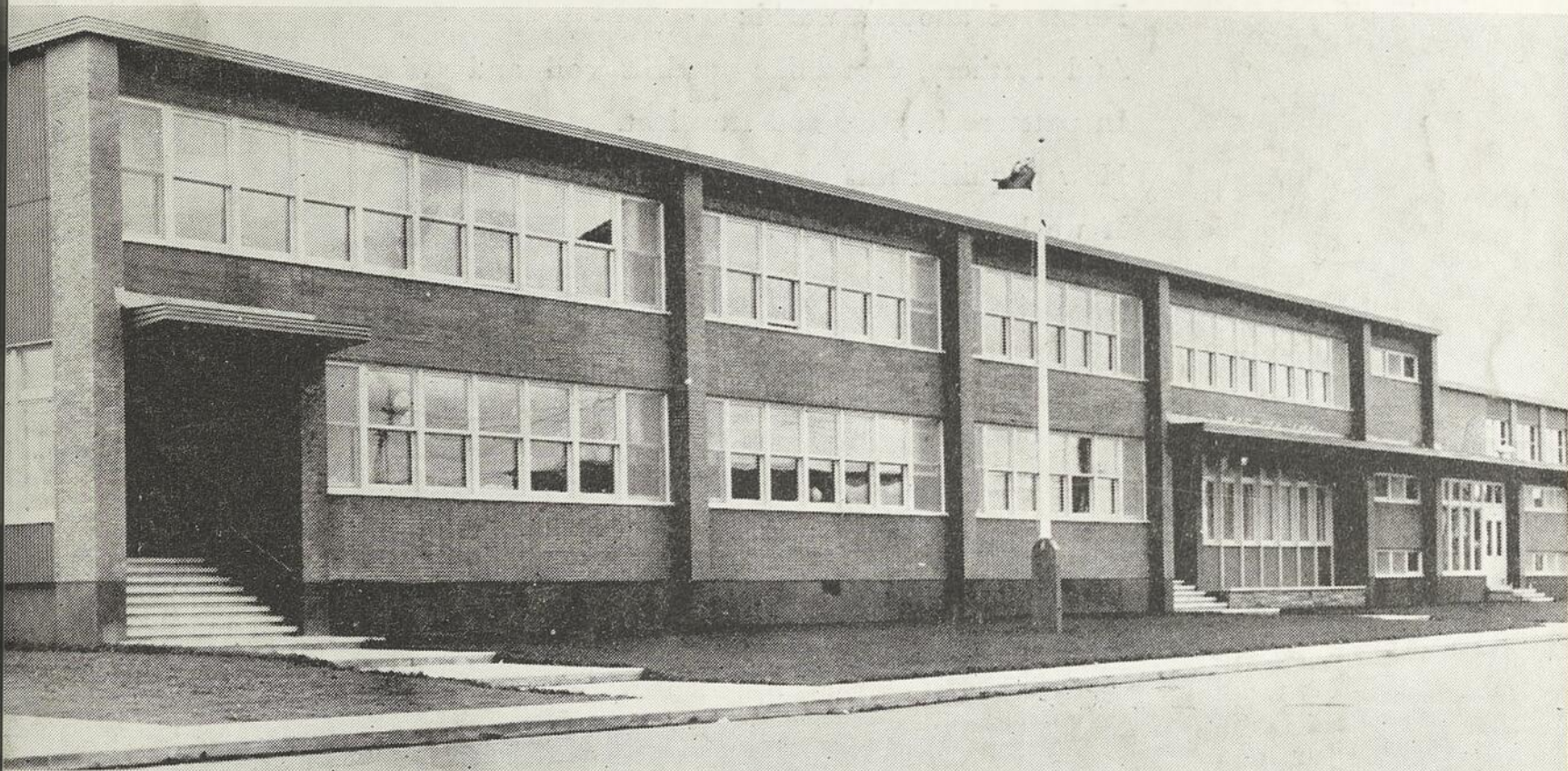
THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD

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OCTOBER-DECEMBER, 1961



ST. JOHNS HIGH SCHOOL, ST. JOHNS

FROST FANTASY

Impaled in tranquil beauty here before my eyes,
Upon the window-pane,
A myriad scintillating stars of silvery hue
Trace in point-lace a wraithlike loveliness —
Forms of another world ;
And feathery, frond-like tendrils coil and twist
In patterns fugitive and transient.
How exquisite this frosty whiteness is
If we have eyes to see !

—A. Olga Jackson

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THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD

A quarterly journal in the interest of the Protestant Schools of the Province of Quebec and the medium through which the proceedings of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Education are communicated, the Committee being responsible only for what appears in the Minutes and Official Announcements.

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Vol. LXXVII

QUEBEC, OCTOBER-DECEMBER 1961

No. 4

ANNOUNCEMENTS

SUPERVISORS OF ENGLISH

It is expected that an opening for the appointment of one or more Supervisors of English will occur in the Department of Education at the beginning of the 1962-1963 school year. Those interested are invited to apply to the Director of Protestant Education for further information.

The activities of English Supervisors include the general supervision of the teaching of English in Protestant schools. The qualifications of candidates should include the Class I diploma, or its equivalent, and postgraduate study in English or in some related field.

CHANGES IN THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR 1962-1963

Kindergarten

The *Teachers' Guide for Kindergarten* issued by the Greater Montreal Board has been given general authorization.

Ginn Basic Reader, Grade IV

Adventure Awaits, the Canadian Ginn Basic Reader for Grade IV, is authorized to replace, for supplementary reading, *Roads to Everywhere*, which, however, may remain in use in schools that have copies on hand.

Southern Lands

The 1961 edition of *Southern Lands* is authorized for use in Grade VI as an alternative to the original edition, which is expected to go out of print in 1963. The two editions cannot conveniently be used in the same class. School boards, when ordering, should specify which edition is needed.

French (Grade XI)

Contes Français et Légendes Canadiennes, to be published by the Macmillan Company of Canada, is authorized to replace *Quatre Contes Choisis* in September 1962. Two stories from this text will be assigned by the Director of Protestant Education each year to be studied for the oral and written examinations, and two additional stories to be studied for the oral examination will be chosen each year by the teacher.

Elementary English Literature

The two texts now assigned for study by all pupils in each of Grades IV-VII will be removed from the course of study after June 1962. A minimum of five books in Grades I-III and a minimum of four books in Grades IV-VII will be read to the class by the teacher, these books to be selected from the list that appears below. The teacher will present to the class every week one or more poems, which may, but need not, be selected from one of the recommended poetry texts. The books on the recommended lists, including the poetry books, are to be regarded as library books to be purchased by the school boards with the library grant. The memorizing of poetry is required as before in Grades II-VII.

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE TEXTS**Grade I**

- Bromhall, *Belinda's New Shoes*, McClelland, \$2.75
 Bromhall, *Princess and the Woodcutter's Daughter*, McClelland, \$2.75
 Haywood, "*B*" is for Betsy, Longmans, \$3.50
 Haywood, *Two and Two are Four*, Longmans, \$3.50
 Gag, *Millions of Cats* (Library edition), Longmans, \$2.52 (net)
 Kahl, *Duchess Bakes a Cake*, Saunders, \$2.95
 Slobodkina, *Caps for Sale*, Saunders, \$3.00
 Arbuthnot, *Time for Poetry*, Gage, \$3.00

Grade II

- Clark, *Looking-for-Something*, Macmillan, \$2.65
 Clark, *Poppy Seed Cakes*, Doubleday, \$3.00
 Credle, *Down, Down the Mountain*, Nelson, \$2.00
 Crowley, *Azor*, Oxford, \$3.00
 Dalglish, *Bears on Hemlock Mountain*, Saunders, \$2.95
 McCloskey, *One Morning in Maine*, Macmillan, \$3.25
 Milne, *Winnie-the-Pooh*, McClelland, \$2.95
 Arbuthnot, *Time for Poetry*, Gage, \$3.00

Grade III

- Coatsworth, *Away Goes Sally*, Brett-Macmillan, \$3.00
 Davis, *Wild Birthday Cake*, Doubleday, \$3.00
 Godden, *Impunity Jane*, Macmillan, \$2.00
 Kipling, *Just So Stories*, Macmillan, \$3.50
 Lattimore, *Little Pear*, Longmans, \$3.50
 Lattimore, *Little Pear and His Friends*, Longmans, \$3.75
 White, *Charlotte's Web*, Musson, \$2.95
 Arbuthnot, *Time for Poetry*, Gage, \$3.00

Grade IV

- Atwater, *Mr. Popper's Penguins*, McClelland, \$4.00
 Barrie, *Peter Pan* (Thrushwood Books), McLeod, \$1.98
 Berrill, *Wonders of the Wild*, Dodd, Mead, \$3.25
 Carlson, *The Talking Cat and Other Stories of French Canada*, Musson, \$2.50
 Estes, *The Moffats*, Longmans, \$3.75

- Freuchen, *Eskimo Boy*, Ambassador, \$3.25
 Gall and Crew, *Ringtail*, Oxford, \$3.00
 Lewis, *The Lion, the Witch, and the Wardrobe*, Collins, \$3.00, or Penguin, 65¢
 Mukerji, *Hari, the Jungle Lad*, Clarke Irwin, \$3.50
 Parrish, *Floating Island*, Musson, \$3.95
 Riley, *Train for Tiger Lily*, Macmillan, \$2.50
 Salten, *Bambi* (Companion Library), McLeod, \$1.29
 Sauer, *Light at Tern Rock*, Macmillan, \$2.75
 Stevenson, *A Child's Garden of Verses*, McLeod, \$3.75, or Penguin, 50¢

Grade V

- Arbuthnot, *Time for Fairy Tales, Old and New*, Gage, \$5.00
 Brink, *Caddie Woodlawn*, Brett-Macmillan, \$3.00
 Carroll, *Alice in Wonderland and Through the Looking-Glass*, Dent, \$2.25
 DeJong, *The Wheel on the School*, Musson, \$3.00
 Enright, *The Saturdays*, Holt, \$3.25
 Knight, *Lassie Come Home*, McLeod, \$1.98
 Lofting, *The Story of Dr. Dolittle*, McClelland, \$3.00
 Nesbit, *Enchanted Castle*, Longmans, \$3.50
 Norton, *The Borrowers*, Penguin, 50¢, or Longmans, \$2.75
 Ransome, *Swallows and Amazons*, Clarke Irwin, \$2.95
 Seredy, *The Good Master*, Macmillan, \$4.00
 Syme, *Bay of the North*, McLeod, \$3.50
 Graham, (ed.), *Puffin Book of Verse*, Penguin, 50¢

Grade VI

- Chalmers, *Red River Adventure*, Macmillan, \$2.50
 Clark, *Secret of the Andes*, Macmillan, \$2.75
 Dickens, *A Christmas Carol*, Brett-Macmillan, \$2.50
 Garnett, *The Family from One-End Street*, British Book Service, \$1.00
 Gates, *Blue Willow*, Macmillan, \$3.25
 Grahame, *Wind in the Willows*, Saunders, \$2.95
 Houston, *Nuki*, Longmans, \$3.25
 Macdonald, *At the Back of the North Wind*, Dent, \$2.25
 Roberts, *Red Fox*, Ryerson, \$3.00
 Robertson, *Henry Reed, Inc.*, Macmillan, \$3.25
 'Mark Twain', *Tom Sawyer*, Dent, \$1.98
 Wood, *The Mapmaker*, Macmillan, \$2.50
 Daringer and Eaton, (eds.), *The Poet's Craft*, Longmans, \$3.00

Grade VII

- Bolton, *Son of the Land*, Copp Clark, \$1.25
 Carter, *Captain Scott* (Lives of Achievement), Longmans, \$1.25
 Eyre, *Song of a Thrush*, Oxford, \$3.00
 Gallico, *Snow Goose*, McClelland, \$1.50
 Harnett, either *The Woolpack* or *Load of Unicorn*, Ryerson, \$3.00 (each)
 London, *Call of the Wild*, McLeod, \$1.98
 McCrady, (ed.), *Legends and Myths of Greece and Rome*, Longmans, 70¢

- Mitchison, *The Land the Ravens Found*, Collins, \$2.25
Scotland, (ed.), *A Mirror of Our Times* (Book I), Nelson, Foster and Scott, \$1.25
Stevenson, *Treasure Island*, Dent, 55¢, or \$1.98
Sutcliffe, *The Lantern Bearers*, Oxford, \$2.50
Trease, *Thunder of Valmy*, Macmillan, \$2.75
Daringer and Eaton, *The Poet's Craft*, Longmans, \$3.00

INFORMATION CONCERNING THE CONVEYANCE OF PUPILS

GENERAL DIRECTIVES TO SCHOOL BOARDS

It is not recommended that school boards buy buses; it is preferable that they use public transport or a private contractor. Nevertheless, school commissioners and trustees may assume the necessary expense for the purchase of such vehicles but no grant is available for this purpose.

Tender and Contract

In conformity with Section 223c of the Education Act, no contract for the conveyance of pupils may be awarded or renewed until after tenders have been called by notice posted for at least seven clear days, specifying all the conditions of the service as well as the routes to be travelled.

The school commissioners and trustees themselves must award the contract directly to the lowest tenderer, if the latter fulfils the requirements of the laws and regulations.

The term of a contract cannot be extended. The school board must always call for new tenders.

No school commissioner or trustee may, directly or indirectly, operate a conveyance for pupils for a school board of which he is a member. This also applies to his wife.

Forms for the call for tenders and contracts are now available to school boards and will be forwarded upon request.

Conditions

The contractor must:

- (a) Convey, without expense to the parents, pupils and such members of the teaching personnel as are designated by the school board;
- (b) Conform to the Auto Code of the Department of Transportation and Communications and to the Regulations of the Department of Education;
- (c) Own all vehicles to be used and agree not to transfer, in whole or in part, his contract to one or more sub-contractors;
- (d) Possess a chauffeur's licence for himself and his employees, as the case may be;
- (e) Provide, at his own expense, the vehicles necessary for the conveyance of the pupils in the event that his vehicle cannot be operated due to mechanical failure; otherwise the school board reserves the right to engage the services of persons to carry out the conveyance at the expense of the contractor.

Duties of Commissioners and Trustees

The school commissioners or trustees must establish routes which are as short as possible. They must **limit** the conveyance to pupils who live beyond a reasonable distance from the school. They may oblige all pupils residing on a side road off one or other of the designated routes, **up to a distance of one mile**, to meet the bus by their own means. In the case of pupils who live on a side road **more than a mile** from the main route, over which the bus travels, especially if few in number, the commissioners or trustees may offer their parents some compensation for conveying their children to and from a determined place on the established route.

The school board may, if it is deemed necessary, and before the termination of the contract, change the routes and modify the cost of transportation proportionate to the number of pupils conveyed and the distance travelled.

The school board must make a detailed report to the Department of Education of all accidents, irrespective of their nature.

Grant

In conformity with the School Boards Grants Act, every school board whose territory comprises all or part of a country municipality shall receive a grant **not exceeding** seventy-five per cent of the cost of conveyance, morning and afternoon, or one hundred dollars per pupil in the high school course conveyed from one municipality to another, and sixty dollars per pupil in every other case.

Permit

Any person who conveys pupils for a school board, in conformity with a contract that has been awarded to him, must obtain special licence plates by applying directly to the Motor Vehicles Bureau, Department of Transportation and Communications, 360 Charest Boulevard East, Quebec. This does not apply to autobus companies which already possess a permit from the Transportation Board or to proprietors of taxis.

Extracts from the Education Act, the Auto Code of the Department of Transportation and Communications, and Regulations of the Department of Education concerning conveyance appear below.

EDUCATION ACT

Powers of School Boards Respecting the Transportation of Children to Schools

223b. Any school board may provide for the transportation of children to a school under its jurisdiction or, in the case of secondary school or high school children, to a school under the jurisdiction of an adjoining school board and incur all expenditure necessary for such purpose.

223c. The contract for the transportation of children shall be granted after tenders have been called for by means of a public notice specifying all the conditions of the service to be operated for a period not exceeding five years.

SCHOOL BOARDS GRANTS ACT**Section VIII**

11. Every board whose territory comprises all or part of a country municipality within the meaning of the Education Act, every board that conveys its pupils to the school of another municipality, and every regional school board shall receive, for the conveyance of pupils **morning and evening**, an annual grant equal to seventy-five per cent of the amount spent for such purpose.

This grant shall not exceed one hundred dollars per pupil in the high school course conveyed from one municipality to another, and sixty dollars per pupil in every other case.

Section XI

18. The grant for the conveyance of pupils shall be paid each year on receipt of a copy of the contract between the board and the contractor, or a certified statement of the expenses incurred for that purpose.

**AUTO CODE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION
AND COMMUNICATIONS**

36b. 2. The driver of an autobus or of any vehicle conveying school children shall come to a stop at least twenty feet from any level crossing ; after making sure that he can cross the same without danger, he may set his vehicle in motion again and shall keep it in low gear until he has crossed the tracks.

The obligation to stop shall not apply if a peace officer authorizes the driver to ignore it.

36d. 1. When a motor vehicle overtakes or meets an autobus used in transporting school children, duly identified as such, which is stationary to take on or discharge school children, the driver of such vehicle shall not pass or drive beyond such autobus until it is again put in motion ; nor shall he do so until the children have boarded the autobus, or have left it and reached the side of the road.

Such autobus must be equipped with signals by means of which the person in charge shall give warning as long as the children are not in safety.

2. Any autobus used for such purpose shall :

1. have a seating capacity for at least ten school children and be painted yellow, if used exclusively for the conveyance of school children ;

2. be equipped with :

(a) at least two doors, one at the front and the other at the rear or side, or one door at the front and windows specially equipped to enable the vehicle to be quickly evacuated in case of accident ;

(b) a chemical fire-extinguisher of a type approved by the Department of Transportation and Communications ;

(c) a light of at least two candle-power to light the interior at night ;

(d) a notice placed in front and another at the rear, in letters at least eight inches high, bearing the words "school bus" or "écoliers" ; the letters

of such notices shall be black on a white or yellow background and shall be clearly legible ;

(e) two intermittent amber lights in front, placed as near as possible to the top of the vehicle with a space between them.

Such lights must be visible by day and at night, at a distance of five hundred feet and shall not be put in operation by the driver except when school children are boarding or leaving the vehicle.

When the autobus is not conveying school children, the notices mentioned in paragraph (d) shall be removed and covered.

44. 1. The chauffeur of an autobus must :

(a) be at least twenty-one years of age ;

(b) have demonstrated in a practical test before an authorized officer of the Department of Transportation and Communications that he is competent to drive an autobus ;

(c) be of sober habits ;

(d) refuse to speak to the passengers, except to advise them of the movements of the vehicle, or for any urgent reason ;

(e) have enough space at his disposal to manoeuvre ;

(f) stop the autobus on the right side of the road, and not in the centre, to allow passengers to board or leave the autobus.

2. The chauffeur of an autobus used in transporting school children must, in addition to the requirements of sub-paragraphs (a), (b), (c), (d), (e), and (h) of sub-section 1 of this section :

(a) be able to furnish his employer each year with a certificate of health and good behaviour ;

(b) never accept more passengers than there are seats available or than there is space to seat all the school children ;

(c) carefully watch over the safety of his passengers at all times.

REGULATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION CONCERNING THE CONVEYANCE OF PUPILS

1. The contractor, or his chauffeur, must :

(a) provide adequate supervision for the maintenance of discipline and for the safeguard of morals ;

(b) take on or discharge pupils at stopping points fixed by the school board ;

(c) seat the boys on one side and the girls on the other side of the vehicle ;

(d) arrange for each pupil always to occupy the same seat ;

(e) make a detailed report to the school board of all accidents, irrespective of their nature ;

(f) refrain from denying conveyance to a pupil who is insubordinate or constitutes a disciplinary problem, without official notice from the board.

2. The contractor must provide a permanent insurance policy for a minimum for each vehicle and each accident of \$5,000 for damage to property

of others and \$50,000/\$100,000 covering public liability including passengers. The original copy of the insurance policy must be in the possession of the school board before the contract is signed, as well as a written notice from the insurance company stating that it will be responsible for notifying the school board directly, by registered letter, of the cancellation or non-renewal of the said policy.

3. Every vehicle used for the conveyance of pupils must be :

(a) maintained in good mechanical condition and inspected periodically as often as is deemed necessary by the school board and, in no case, less than twice a year (steering assembly, brakes, horn, front and rear lights, identifying signal and direction lights, windshield wipers, tires, emergency exit door, chemical fire-extinguisher, etc.) ;

(b) kept in a state of cleanliness conforming with the health laws and free from all hazards to the comfort and security of the pupils ;

(c) equipped with the following accessories : rear-view mirror, speedometer, defroster, snow tires or chains (unless there are double wheels), chemical fire-extinguisher, First Aid kit.

HIGH SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS, JUNE 1961

	Grade XI	Grade XII
Number writing complete examination in June	3,941	302
Number successful in June	2,897	222
Number writing supplemental examinations in June	668	19
Number of successful candidates in supplemental examinations	216	1
Number writing partial examinations in June	1,060	24
Total number of candidates in June	5,669	345
Number writing supplemental examinations in August — September to obtain certificates	519	45
Number successful in August — September	257	24
Number writing in August — September to improve standing	975	106
Total number writing in August — September	1,494	151
Total number of certificates issued (June and September)	3,370	247

For the session 1960-1961 there was an increase over the previous year of 1,013 candidates writing complete or partial Grade XI High School Leaving Examinations.

ADMISSIONS TO TEACHER TRAINING

The registration of new students at the Institute of Education (Macdonald College and McGill University) for the session 1961-1962 is as follows:

Class I (one-year course)	104
Class II (one-year course)	92
Class III (one-year course)	147
First year B.Ed. course	79
First year Class II course	104
First year Physical Education course	31

Students continuing their courses in the second year :

Second year B.Ed. course	71
Second year Class II course	88
Second year Physical Education course	23

Also in attendance are 112 students enrolled in the third and fourth years of the course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Education.

At Bishop's University 8 students are enrolled in the Class I course.

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA FELLOWSHIPS 1962-1963

Several research and teaching fellowships in Educational Psychology, each of a value of \$2,500, will be awarded for graduate study at the University of Alberta during the 1962-63 intramural year. Prospective applicants may obtain further information by writing to the Chairman, Division of Educational Psychology, Faculty of Education, University of Alberta.

Also offered for competition in 1962-63 is the W. J. Gage Limited Research Fellowship, of a value of \$3,000, for a suitably qualified student in a Ph.D. program for research in concept formation in and through language, preferably in children.

Additional information is obtainable from the Administrator of Student Awards, University of Alberta, Edmonton. This competition closes on March 1, 1962.

DOCTORS OF TOMORROW

The Canadian Medical Association has just issued a revised edition (ten pages) of its booklet, *Doctors of Tomorrow*, containing information about medical careers in Canada.

High schools may obtain any desired number of copies by ordering direct from Mr. Kenneth C. Cross, Secretary, Public Relations, Canadian Medical Association House, 150 St. George Street, Toronto, Ontario.

HISTORICAL METHOD AND HISTORY TEACHING

George S. Tomkins, M.A., Associate Professor,
College of Education, University of British Columbia

Professor Collingwood has suggested in *The Idea of History* that the basic questions concerned in the study, teaching and writing of history are what the subject is, what it is about, how it proceeds, and what it is for. Few history teachers would deny that these questions, involving the nature, object, method and value of their subject, should inform its teaching at all levels. Yet, in practice, this seldom happens and, as Mr. Neil Sutherland has suggested, we have been altogether too naive in our view of both the nature of history and our method of teaching it. In his words, "We tend to look upon history as something fixed and immutable, having an existence of its own, a body of pre-existing facts that must be collected, organized (and) mastered . . ."

Among the many reasons for this situation a major reason, in the writer's view, is that in their own university studies of history and in methods courses in teacher training, our teachers have had too little opportunity to consider the philosophy of the subject and the related matters of historiography and historical criticism. In *The Teaching of History*, Professor Johnson has stated that, "A study of history that leaves the pupil unconscious of historical method can scarcely be called a study of history at all." There is much evidence that our teachers themselves have gained little consciousness of historical method. Small wonder, then, that their pupils leave school viewing history as a collection of facts to be reproduced in an examination and then promptly forgotten.

Even when teachers have been aware of the problem posed here, they have done little to solve it, claiming lack of time, an overcrowded syllabus and the exigencies of examinations. Moreover, they have felt inadequate to deal with such a large problem and have been convinced that few, if any, of their pupils are capable of coping with it. As a result, they have taken refuge in the traditional task of teaching "solid" facts in an "objective" manner and have gained solace from their difficulties when their pupils have recolled a reasonable number of these facts on an examination.

To be sure, this kind of teaching, leavened by a reasonable effort to interpret the facts and carried on by an enthusiastic, capable teacher, has produced excellent results and awakened in many pupils a real liking for history. Nevertheless, this preoccupation with teaching "solid" facts is not history teaching and is a particular example of the *naïveté* to which Sutherland has referred. It ignores the vital question of what constitutes an historical fact; it raises the equally vital one as to whether history teaching, even when confined to the facts alone, can be truly objective. A consideration with our pupils of these questions, at least at a rudimentary level, is a first step in the teaching of historical method and thus history itself.

It is a salutary exercise for both teachers and pupils occasionally to examine the authenticity of the simplest and most apparently incontrovertible historical fact. Professor Dance has subjected to this process the familiar statement, "The Battle of Hastings took place in 1066 A.D." He points out that the battle actually occurred seven miles from Hastings; the date is open to question according to whether we accept the Christian era as starting in 1 A.D. or 4 B.C.; finally, the statement implies a religious prejudice, for it requires a Chinese or an Arab scholar to base his historical studies on a system of Christian chronology. When the writer and his class of university students dealt with the innocent question (so often found in our objective examinations), "When was the C.P.R. completed?", surprising difficulties manifested themselves. Many history texts tell us that the C.P.R. was completed in 1885. To be sure, it was in that year that the famous last spike was driven home at Craigellachie. Yet the line did not reach its objective of salt water until 1886 and only reached its present terminus at Vancouver in 1887. One student pointed out that the C.P.R. was (and is) not synonymous with a single transcontinental line and that, in a real sense, it has never been "completed".

Barraclough has stated that the so-called facts of history are really a series of accepted judgments. In this category would be the well-known statement, "At Tours in 732, Charles Martel saved Western Christendom from the Saracens." It is highly unlikely that this statement gains much mention in Moslem history textbooks. It is certain that the interpretation implied in the word "saved" would be unacceptable to any Moslem historian. Moreover, it is pure speculation to suggest that Western Christendom would have been destroyed and replaced by Islam had Tours gone the other way. It is often stated that the fall of Constantinople in 1453 led to the Renaissance because Greek scholars fled to Italy from the East. The voyages of discovery have also been ascribed to the fall of Constantinople. Although such "facts" have been largely demolished by modern research, they are still found in our textbooks and still dutifully taught and learned in our schools.

We speak of Caesar's crossing of the Rubicon as a fact. The truth is, of course, that it *was* a fact and no longer has an objective existence. It is often forgotten that history deals with the *evidence* of its facts, not with the facts themselves. What we call the past consists of historical remains that provide evidence that the past *did* exist. A further reason for believing in the impossibility of a truly objective study of the past is the fact that, as Sutherland reminds us, "history cannot be separated . . . from the historian." In this sense, even the evidence of the past has no objective reality, but is a creation of the historian. As E. H. Carr has observed:

It used to be said that facts speak for themselves. This, of course, is untrue. The facts speak only when the historian calls on them: it is he who decides what facts to give the floor, and in what order and context. The only reason why we are interested to know that the battle was fought at Hastings in 1066 is that historians regard it as a major historical event. The historian is necessarily selective. The belief in a hard core of historical facts existing objectively and independently . . . of the historian is a preposterous fallacy . . .

If pupils are to develop the critical attitude towards history implied here, it is evident that they will need to take a critical attitude towards the sources from which they study the subject in school. This requires a critical look at the textbook for a start. Teachers have no doubt long realized the need to point out errors of fact and interpretation in the books they use. Increasingly, we find more than one authorized text available in the average high school class. Pupils are thus able to make comparisons between the viewpoints of various authors and to determine wherein and why different authors present different interpretations of a particular event. Some teachers make studies in depth of sub-topics in a course to demonstrate the vast amount that may be known about a single historical event, and to indicate the complexities that surround what the textbook may treat as a simple happening. In Canadian history, for example, pupils will be fascinated by the detailed account of the battle of Quebec that is provided in Stacey's *Quebec 1759*.

It may well be objected that the cultivation of a critical attitude towards historical facts in general and towards that compendium of facts called the textbook in particular will breed an unhealthy scepticism such as to undermine the pupil's confidence and interest in history. This was recognized by Washington Irving long ago when he stated: "There is a certain meddling spirit which, in the guise of learned research, goes prying about the traces of history, casting down its monuments and marring and mutilating its fairest trophies." Professor Johnson notes this objection when he states that "for children and the reading public generally, history, to be read at all, must be something definite to believe about the past..." The same writer, however, points out that "the treatment of history as assured knowledge prepares for the treatment of history as assured knowledge." This vitiates the claims of the subject to any value as a citizenship study, for only by teaching our pupils to discriminate between facts and to sift and weigh evidence can we hope to produce a generation emancipated from the modern tyranny of the printed page. A constructively critical approach can achieve much in this direction and the wise teacher can learn to steer a middle course between the Scylla of uncritical acceptance and the Charybdis of corrosive doubt. A healthy scepticism should be our aim, with the object of producing citizens who can, in the words of the great English historian, J. R. Green, "tell which are the big facts and which are the little ones."

Simple exercises involving the critical study of apparently simple facts, a constructively critical attitude towards the textbook, studies of particular topics in depth—these, then, are a few devices that will create greater awareness of the historical process. Beyond these, the modern history teacher must address himself to three further, major tasks. First, he must rethink the whole basis of the traditional school history course that has Western Europe as its focus; secondly, he must consider how the structure of his subject may be taught in line with recent advances in learning theory which have already had such influence in the teaching of science, mathematics and geography; finally, and

closely related to the preceding task, he must consider how he can utilize the raw material of history in the classroom.

The need for a rethinking of the traditional school history course has been underlined by Barraclough in *History in a Changing World*. Space permits reference to only a few of his brilliant insights but these may be sufficient to make clear how inadequate and parochial is the content of our present world history courses. The events of World War II, in Barraclough's view, "made a total revision of European history imperative." As yet, this revision is hardly in sight in our schools. Whatever criticisms may be made of Toynbee, says Barraclough, his work has at least taught us that a return to universal history is essential. A brief summary of some further views of Barraclough may be suggestive :

1. The concept of the continuity of medieval civilization derived from classical Rome is fallacious. The Roman Empire drew its sustenance from eastern, non-European sources. The importance of such non-European centres as Alexandria, Carthage, and Nicaea is often overlooked. As late as the seventh and eighth centuries, half the popes were Greeks or Syrians. The real fountain-head of Roman imperial tradition was Byzantium, "for 800 years the chief Christian state in the world."

2. The unity of the Middle Ages is largely a fiction, resulting primarily from the fact that the Church eliminated its opponents and burned their writings. There is much evidence of vigorous anti-Catholic thought. Our studies of the Middle Ages give short shrift to Islam. Yet, in the ninth century, Bagdad was more important than Rome or Constantinople. In the eleventh century, "Cordova, not Paris, was the true seat of Western Civilization."

3. The fall of Constantinople in 1453 was an event of immense significance, but not necessarily for the reasons suggested by our textbooks. Moscow became the "third Rome" and entered the mainstream of European history. Ivan the Great adopted the double-headed eagle of Byzantium as his coat of arms, thus symbolizing that the legacy of Constantinople would henceforth be part of the Russian tradition. The Europeanization of Russia thus began long before Peter the Great. Asiatic influences on Russian thought and character have been much exaggerated.

4. American history has too often been taught parallel to—but separate from—European history. Traditionally, the French Revolution is stressed over the American, ignoring the fact that the latter inaugurated a new era in global politics. The resources of the New World as a vital factor in the capital formation necessary to the Industrial Revolution have been almost totally ignored. As evidence of how the impact of the United States continues to be disregarded, the present writer is convinced, from his own experience, that because we still stress the study of the unification of Italy, pupils continue to graduate from our schools knowing more about Cavour than they know about Franklin D. Roosevelt.

One of the most significant books on education to appear in recent years has been *The Process of Education* by Jerome Bruner. The implications for teaching history that emerge from Bruner's ideas are fundamental. Bruner begins with the assumption that the activity of the child in the classroom is the same as the intellectual activity of the scholar or scientist at the frontiers of knowledge: there is no difference in the *kind* of thinking that goes on from the one to the other. From this assumption, he makes three suggestions for the improvement of teaching. First, if a subject is to have any permanent value to the pupil, then he must learn something of its structure. Secondly, the child is ready when he enters school to grasp this structure if it is presented to him in a form that he can understand. The teacher must avoid formalized statements of structure, concentrating instead upon "the intuitive grasp of ideas and upon the use of these basic ideas." Finally, Bruner believes that intuitive thinking, defined as "immediate apprehension or cognition", is greatly underrated in our schools. We put too little emphasis on "hunch" thinking, failing to see that a child may learn more from discovering the wrong answer than from memorizing the right one. To Bruner, inductive discovery by the pupil of structure in a subject is more fruitful than deductive presentation of structure to him by the teacher.

What are the implications of the foregoing for the teaching of history? Teaching the structure of history involves an awareness by teachers and pupils of the basic questions propounded by Collingwood and stated at the beginning of this paper. How this may be done has been indicated by Mr. Neil Sutherland in a brilliant paper and in a very practical and useful publication of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation. Sutherland quotes Walsh to the effect that "teaching . . . history is not so much a matter of communicating facts as of imparting a certain technique for establishing and interpreting them." Structure in history is best revealed through the historian's method. As Sutherland says, "Through his attempts to solve simple historical problems, the child should learn the skills of the historian and through using these skills, gain an insight into (the) structure (of history)." This involves presenting to the child primary sources, the raw materials of history, in the form of diaries, letters, log-books, travellers' accounts, magazines, newspapers, pictures, the texts of treaties, and constitutions, etc. From these raw materials, the child must learn to frame his own conclusions, not only, says Sutherland, "about the events of the past, but also about the the nature of historical thinking."

The study of primary sources, of the very stuff of history, will be but one aspect of the history teacher's method. Much can be achieved by leavening the traditional method of teaching history with the judicious use of some of the fine collections of sources now on the market. How much more real will seem a study of child labour in the Industrial Revolution to the pupil who is presented with some of the testimony related to factory conditions given before the Commission of Enquiry of 1833. Cartier's own account of the forbidding appearance of the St. Lawrence north shore in 1535 will be much more

interesting than vague references to the inhospitable impression the area made on him.

It should be emphasized that in the process of becoming his own historian, the pupil must be presented with carefully selected documents and must be guided by the teacher in making his discoveries. Good history teaching must become, to a large degree, like good science teaching, wherein the pupil makes or observes simple experiments from which he discovers principles for himself. How this may be done is illustrated by Sutherland in three sample lessons in the British Columbia Teachers' Federation publication already mentioned. His extensive bibliography makes clear that there is no dearth of good source material. Reid, McNaught, and Crowe's *Source Book of Canadian History*, published by Longmans, is of particular value. Blackwell of Oxford has published four volumes that cover the whole range of British History under the title, *They Saw it Happen*. D. A. van Nostrand Company's series of Anvil Books comprise probably the most extensive and inexpensive series of historical documents on the market.

By some of the means suggested in this paper, the writer believes that teachers can revitalize their history teaching and, in the process, gain new insights for themselves into the nature of the subject and the best approaches to the teaching of it. Student teachers at the College of Education, University of British Columbia, who have tried out these methods with pupils have found a ready response in the classroom. Basically, the approach implies the teaching of what Gustavson calls "historical mindedness" and is one that will prove enjoyable to the pupils and will enhance the value of history as a training in critical thinking and citizenship.

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The author would particularly like to acknowledge his debt to Mr. Neil Sutherland of the College of Education, University of British Columbia for his critical comments and for permission to quote from "History in the Elementary School", a paper delivered by Mr. Sutherland to the Conference of Elementary Principals held at the University in July, 1961. The following brief bibliography may be of value to teachers of history:

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THE OLD ORDER CHANGETH

A change was coming upon the world, the meaning and direction of which even still is hidden from us, a change from era to era. The paths trodden by the footsteps of ages were broken up; old things were passing away, and the faith and the life of ten centuries were dissolving like a dream. Chivalry was dying; the abbey and the castle were soon together to crumble into ruins; and all the forms, desires, beliefs, convictions of the old world were passing away, never to return. A new continent had risen up beyond the western sea. The floor of heaven, inlaid with stars, had sunk back into an infinite abyss of immeasurable space; and the firm earth itself, unfixed, from its foundations, was seen to be but a small atom in the awful vastness of the universe. In the fabric of habit in which they had so laboriously built for themselves, mankind were to remain no longer.

And now it is all gone — like an unsubstantial pageant faded; and between us and the old English there lies a gulf of mystery which the prose of the historian will never adequately bridge. They cannot come to us, and our imagination can but feebly penetrate to them. Only among the aisles of the cathedral, only as we gaze upon their silent figures sleeping on their tombs, some faint conceptions float before us of what these men were when they were alive; and perhaps in the sound of church bells, that peculiar creation of mediaeval age, which falls upon the ear like the echo of a vanished world.

—James Anthony Froude

History of England.

A MATTER OF FORM*

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There is more to mathematics than finding the correct answer to an assigned problem. There is the highly important matter of communicating the solution to others. If this is to be done so that there is no ambiguity, and so that the reasoning involved may be readily ascertained by anyone with the proper background, the form of presentation becomes vitally significant. Since it is usually necessary or desirable to communicate to others the result of mathematical effort, form becomes a necessary or desirable part of mathematics.

One of the most important instances of the need for communication is that between teacher and pupil, and this must be a two-way communication. Thus, it is important for teachers to emphasize form when teaching mathematics. This means that teachers should observe the best form when presenting their work. Also, they should require the pupils to observe good form in their work, in turn. Not only will good form make it possible and even pleasant for the teacher to appraise the pupils' work, but will also make the pupils' work more meaningful and useful to themselves.

What do we mean by form? For one thing, *form is not method*. There may be several valid ways to solve a given problem, and pupils should be encouraged to find as many ways as they can, but in each case, good form should be maintained. There are three main aspects of good form: clarity, logic, and concision. Each is important in itself, but they have a sort of mutual interdependence and must be blended to produce good form.

Clarity refers to the careful assigning of meaning to the terms used. In algebra, for example, the meaning of the variable should be so specified that no ambiguity can result when the variable is replaced by a numeral. Expressions such as "let x = the field" are absurd, and "let x = the length" is ambiguous. The units, or other appropriate information, must be given. References to tables or diagrams should be indicated, so that material does not appear "out of the blue". In geometry, the given and required parts must be stated fully; vague general data should never be permitted. For example, one sometimes sees this: "Given: Triangle ABC is similar to triangle DEF." Later, there appears " $\angle A = \angle D$, given." But this is false, for no mention was made in the particular enunciation of which angles were equal to which. Again, clarity requires a reasonably large, neatly drawn, representative diagram, carefully lettered. The use of a straightedge to draw straight lines, and of compasses to draw circles, is a must. Numbered angles increase clarity, and

* This article originally appeared in *Chalk Talk*, a publication produced by the Montreal Men Teachers' Association.

are thus part of good form in geometry. Neatness is an aspect of clarity and must be considered a requirement of good form.

Anything which distracts from the main trend of the argument destroys clarity. Incidental calculations should not occupy the same place as essential steps of the solution or proof. If a complicated multiplication has to be done in order to proceed, this should be indicated, but the actual calculation should be neatly placed to one side. All such calculations should be carefully put down so that easy reference to them can be made if need be, but they should not clutter up the main development. Some textbooks err in this respect, and introduce extraneous material into the main body of proof, whereas good form would dictate the presentation of this material as lemmas.

Clarity will reveal logic, or lack of it. Logic may not seem to be an attribute of form, but rather of method. However, we must treat it as an aspect of form because logical presentation is a requirement of communication. Pupils must be taught to proceed logically from one step to another. Any step should evolve from preceding material. This is usually, if insufficiently, emphasized in the teaching of geometry, but often omitted in the teaching of algebra. Yet both subjects are fundamentally deductive.

Let us consider some aspects of logical form in geometry first. The pupil frequently feels that a logical order of statements is all that is required. He puts in half-hearted references because he will lose marks if he does not. He must be made to appreciate the fact that the references are integral parts of the proof, and that a reason must accompany any deductive step. Otherwise, there is no deduction at all. The references and statements must be clearly evident. One widely used plan is to divide the page where the proof is given by a vertical line about in the middle, so that statement and reason can be clearly distinguished and recognized. But the main point is that each statement should be accompanied by a reason. Crowded and incomplete references should not be accepted; no reference at all is to say "statement given for no reason". Good form in geometry requires that proper indentations and other amenities of good exposition be observed; the statement and reasons must not be allowed to wander in and out of the left margin area like drunken sailors.

Logical presentation of algebra is less often carefully observed than is the case in geometry, probably because it is not emphasized or is not understood. Let us consider some examples of illogical procedure and other instances of poor form in algebra. One may see at the beginning of a problem "Let x years be Tom's age". An equation is set up, and finally $x = 12$ appears, and that is all. Now, if for no reason but common courtesy, a verbal question requires a verbal answer, so that the answer should be: Tom's age is 12 years. But there is more to it than that. Strictly speaking, $x = 12$ is not even a solution to the original equation. It is merely the simplest equation equivalent to the original. Twelve is a root of the equation if and only if the substitution of 12 for x in the original problem yields a true statement. Suppose the

original equation were $3x - 20 = 16$. Adding 20 to each side and then dividing each side by 3 yields the equivalent equation $x = 12$, the solution of which is trivial. Pupils must have this fact emphasized: $x = 12$ is not the solution, but 12 is. But 12 is a solution *after* it has been substituted for x in the original, and not before. Too often, the check, which actually completes the solution, is omitted, or treated as a nuisance. But the solution is incomplete logically without the check, and it must be made. Of course, if the problem is verbal, the solution to the equation must also satisfy the problem.

Two equations are said to be equivalent if and only if they have the same roots. Equivalences result if: the same number be added to or subtracted from both sides or if both sides are multiplied or divided by the same non-zero number. Sometimes it is necessary to perform operations on both sides that do not produce equivalent equations. Omission of a check in such cases may lead to grief. Consider $x^2 - 2x = x + 2$

$$\frac{\quad\quad\quad}{x - 2}$$

Misunderstanding of the nature of equivalent equations may lead to the invalid assumption that $x^2 - 2x = x^2 - 4$ is equivalent to the original. But the second equation has 2 for a root while the original has no root. Pupils must be taught that they are performing an exercise in logic. Thus a logical form should be observed. The above example means this: Find the root of equation No. 1 if it has a root. The second equation was created on the assumption that x was not equal to 2, since multiplication by $x - 2$ assumes that $x - 2$ does not equal zero. There results the equation $x = 2$. This says that if equation No. 1 has a root, the root is 2. But, while 2 satisfies equation No. 2, it fails to do so in equation No. 1. Since 2 is the only possible candidate, the first equation has no root.

The pupils must realize that what has happened has happened logically, and that logic belongs to the presentation. They must know whether a step they are taking has created an equivalent equation or not. If a series of equivalent equations has developed, then, by the definition of equivalent equations, the ultimate equation has the same roots as the primary. That is, they know that, barring mechanical errors, the final logical step of checking will reveal the root. But, as seen above, some equations have to be solved by creating non-equivalences, and the ultimate equation may or may not have the same roots as the primary. Omitting the check would then be not only an error in logic, but would actually be fatal. If pupils were taught to observe logical form, many of their difficulties would disappear.

The third aspect of good form, concision, requires that suitable notation and standard abbreviations be taught. Concision must never supersede clarity or logic. On the other hand, without it, clarity is often lost. Symbols must be such that they are easily recognized and cannot be confused with others. The symbol " $=$ " is occasionally misused for implication. This is particularly true when equations are being solved. One sometimes sees pupils doing this:

$2x - 6 = x - 2 = 2x = x + 4 = x = 4$. This is illogical. Thus, it is advisable to discourage indiscriminate use of horizontal equal signs, for $x = 5 - 2 = 3$ may be logically correct, but it may lead pupils to assume that the other case is also correct. Vertical presentation of solutions is preferable in all respects. Consider $3x - 7 = x + 1$. Here is a vertical solution. The remarks on the right are merely explanatory and are not part of the solution.

	$3x - 7 = x + 1$	(The original should be stated.)
A_7	$3x = x + 8$	(A_7 is a notation for "add 7 to both sides." It could be used extensively with beginners, but may or may not be continued later, according to discretion.)
S_x	$2x = 8$	
D_2	$x = 4$	
Check :	$3(4) - 7 = (4) + 1$	(The actual substitution should be shown.)
	$12 - 7 = 4 + 1$	
	$5 = 5$ is true	
	4 is the root of $3x - 7 = x + 1$	

The style of check used in your school may not be the one given here. You may wish to work each side out separately as an identity. However, style is not form; the point here is that the check is integral to the solution and must not be omitted, for no solution logically exists without it.

Good form is important, and, like many important things, takes time to develop. The mathematics teacher should consider the teaching of form as important as the teaching of any other part of the course. At all times the teacher should observe good form in demonstrations, and should demand good form from the pupils. Continual checking of form will be necessary in all grades. In any school, the style should be reasonably uniform, so that pupils may not be confused by different styles with different teachers. Style is not form, but in order to unify the teaching of form, some standard style might be worth developing. Schools which have a department head have an advantage in this respect. Some basic agreement on style should not be too hard to obtain. In any case, if the three main characteristics of form, namely clarity, logic, and concision, are practised faithfully, the pupils will probably develop a good style as well.

A few concrete suggestions on form may be helpful. We can consider a few basic criteria of good form for algebra and geometry.

- Algebra :**
1. A clear statement of the meaning of the variable.
 2. Checking considered as integral to a solution.
 3. Avoidance of indiscriminate use of horizontal equivalences, particularly of equal signs.
 4. Verbal answers to verbal questions.
 5. Logical justification for steps.
 6. Calculations separated from argument.
 7. Reference to tables, diagrams, etc., properly indicated.
 8. Correct symbolism.

- Geometry:**
1. Diagram large, drawn with straightedge and compasses, but not necessarily formally constructed. Representative figure drawn in pencil, lettered in ink.
 2. Numbered angles, visible construction marks.
 3. Division of proof into clear-cut statements and references. References by word rather than by number.
 4. Suitable abbreviations where applicable and unambiguous.
 5. Strict adherence to logical development.
 6. Observance of the rules of indentation.

In conclusion, it may be stated that an appreciation of form by the pupils is not instinctive; it must be taught. However, the majority of pupils will respond to an honest effort to teach them the fundamentals of form, and will in most cases learn to take pride in work well done. The time to start is at the beginning of the course, but it is never too late, even in Grade XI, to teach form. If properly begun in Grade VIII, for example, good form should become a habit for the pupil if the teacher has done his duty thoroughly. It may be hard work, but the cause is a worthy one and the achievement of it is rewarding.

STYLE

The appreciation of the structure of ideas is that side of a cultured mind which can only grow under the influence of a special study. I mean that eye for the whole chessboard, for the bearing of one set of ideas on another. Nothing but a special study can give any appreciation for the exact formulation of general ideas, for their relations when formulated, for their service in the comprehension of life. A mind so disciplined should be both more abstract and more concrete. It has been trained in the comprehension of abstract thought and in the analysis of facts.

Finally, there should grow the most austere of all mental qualities; I mean the sense for style. It is an aesthetic sense, based on admiration for the direct attainment of a foreseen end, simply and without waste. Style in art, style in literature, style in science, style in logic, style in practical execution have fundamentally the same aesthetic qualities, namely, attainment and restraint. The love of a subject in itself and for itself, where it is not the sleepy pleasure of pacing a mental quarter-deck, is the love of style as manifested in that study.

Here we are brought back to the position from which we started, the utility of education. Style, in its finest sense, is the last acquirement of the educated mind; it is also the most useful. It pervades the whole being. The administrator with a sense for style hates waste; the engineer with a sense for style economises his material; the artisan with a sense for style prefers good work. Style is the ultimate morality of mind.

—Alfred North Whitehead

THEN AND NOW IN QUEBEC SECONDARY SCHOOL MATHEMATICS*

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Mathematics teachers, you will see by the journals, look largely to the future, in this 1961-1962 academic year. They speak of *solution sets* and of *space perception*, of *linear programming* and of *topological networks*. Their *variable* has a *domain*, their geometry thinks less of *superposition* and more of *co-ordinates* and of *vectors*, their trigonometry becomes analytical—and there's little to be learned from lengthy logarithmic solution of triangles, they assert. Their colleagues, or a goodly number of them, clutch just a bit closer to the prescribed textbook. Mathematics education is in a state of flux. The future seems anything but secure.

It is good that we should look to the future; it might be argued that too much of our educational thinking tends to dwell on the past. Our contemporary textbooks in algebra, geometry, and general mathematics, are compared, generally unfavourably, with the earlier contributions of Messrs. Hall, Stevens, and Knight. An older generation would have admitted no comparison between the diluted treatments of the Hall group and the stiffer disciplines of Todhunter's *Euclid* and of the prolific pen of the nineteenth century Cambridge scholar, Hamblin Smith. Schoolmasters of a still earlier vintage might have questioned whether Todhunter's great horde of "originals" (we would call them "deductions") really contributed to the basic classics provided by those distinguished leaders in British geometry, Professors Simson and Playfair, whether Playfair's tampering with Euclid's parallel postulate didn't distract from the eloquence; indeed, whether there was virtue in having translated the scholarship of Euclidius from the Greek (or Latin) to a vernacular tongue.

As is fitting, in 1961-1962, we shall look to the future, but not without first permitting ourselves one leisurely backward glance. When the *equation* is broadened to the *sentence*, and knowledge of *domain* demands some understanding of *sets* (made frightfully hard, when they needn't be), it is understandable that many who profess to "know their subject" will feel insecure. But, *do* we find security in the past? Let me phrase that question in a number of considerably more specific forms:

How are you on *centesimal measure*, that French method of the eighteenth century by which the right angle was divided into 100 equal parts, each called a *grade*, further subdivided into 100 minutes and 100 seconds? Hamblin Smith asks, in his [1886] *Elementary Trigonometry*, in an introductory chapter:

One angle of a triangle is 2 in circular measure, and another

* Address delivered at the Montreal-Ottawa Regional Meeting of the Canadian College of Teachers, Macdonald College, December, 1960.

is 20° : find the number of grades in the third.
Cited as a value of π is that remarkably precise fractional approximation, today seldom seen, $355/113$.

For teachers aspiring to the 1890 counterpart of the High School Diploma, the trigonometry requirement was eleven chapters of Hamblin Smith.

Of your algebra you no doubt feel a little more certain, but you might share my timidity at the sight of this *sixth root*, from Smith's *Elementary Algebra*, 1877 Canadian Edition :

$$m^6 - 12m^5 + 60m^4 - 160m^3 + 240m^2 - 192m + 64.$$

I *also* recognize binomial coefficients, but the class of Victorian adolescents would not at that point have met them, but would have extracted the cube root of the square root. How many teachers, today, would hazard even an arithmetic cube root?

The great stumbling block in algebra, for most of our pupils, would be what American writers refer to as "word problems". We term them simply "problems". I wonder how *our* youngsters would react to this matriculation problem of 1876, cited by Smith :

A and B are to race from M to N and back. A moves at the rate of 10 miles an hour, and gets a start of 20 minutes. On A's returning from N, he meets B moving towards it, and one mile from it; but A is overtaken by B when one mile from M. Find the distance from M to N.

Geometry in the nineteenth century was Euclid : on the Quebec syllabus the two words were interchangeable. The earliest Course of Study (Protestant) preserved in the records of the Department dates from 1883, and is printed on the inside cover of a School Register. (This is the Course of Study depicted by Percival, facing page 49 in *Across the Years*.) It provides, in geometry, the following limits for the three Academy grades :

- I Grade : Definitions, Book I, 1-26.
- II Grade : Books I and II.
- III Grade : Books I, II, and III.

Those grades correspond to our present eighth, ninth, and tenth years of schooling, matriculation being at the end of the tenth year. Books I, II, and III—of what author? Euclidius—no nineteenth century schoolmaster needed ask ! Yet do we realize the full implications? Consider this question from the 1882 examination for what we would call an Intermediate [teaching] Diploma :

Draw the figures of the 4th, 8th, and 24th propositions in Book I, the 11th in Book II, and the 9th in Book III.

(Compulsory, 20 marks.)

Or, perhaps,

Give the general enunciation of the 5th proposition in each of the Books.

Just why, when you stop to think about it, do we teach geometry? What, exactly, do we attempt to impart? Do such questions measure what we want to measure? Do the questions on the examinations we set today?

The oldest file of what we now would call High School Leaving Examinations known in the records of the Department is the set for June of 1888. This is an examination on which it is possible for a candidate to receive a mark of 100 per cent on memorization of propositions—not so much as a definition is included. You are surprised? In the Courses of Study on file at the Department in Quebec it is not until 1900 that we find the traditional entry relating to Euclid (still present in 1898) so modified that the first-year limits consist of the first twenty-six propositions, *plus at least five easy deductions*. Ten deductions were to be taken in the second year, fifteen in the third. The first three books of Euclid contain no less than ninety-nine propositions.

The course was narrow, you would say,—the accent on memorization. I agree. I believe in taking rather carefully with my geometry classes the attributes of a good definition. They recognize, as I'm sure we all do, the necessity of *primitive*, or *undefined*, terms. Yet it took a teacher of strong conviction, I'll wager, first to turn to those initial lines of Euclid:

I. A point is that which hath no parts, or which hath no magnitude.

II. A line is length without breadth;

and to suggest that such an approach might be improved. I still feel a trifle uneasy with respect to definitions when I know that the teacher certification examinations of 1862 required knowledge of *superficies* in general; *curved, concave* and *convex superficies*; *contiguous* angles; *homologous* vertices; the *apotome* of a polygon; the *superficies* of a *lozenge*. I'm rather happier with the *Euler diagrams*, the *group postulates*, and the binary algebra of George Boole.

Quebec arithmetic, it may be surprising to learn, always has, despite its British leaning toward "apartment-house fractions" and mixed numbers with frightening denominators, shown a strong bias toward the practical. Money and land measures were in local units, and the matters under discussion far more realistic than the type of algebra which Leacock spoofed in his "A, B and C." Yet senior work demanded a hardy constitution. An arithmetic published in Quebec City in 1836 (in the French language) offers, for compound interest, this elaborate relation:

$$r = c \left(\frac{100 + d}{100} \right)^t - c \left(\frac{100 + d}{100} \right)^{t-1}$$

What the formula does, of course, is to state that the amount, r , of interest earned in the year t is the sum of money accumulated at year t diminished by the sum at the end of the previous year. I still feel it might have frightened me at age thirteen!

Let us return to the present: in our work in mathematics education, I think you will agree that we have come a fair way. Are there symptoms that we have yet further to progress? I suspect so, and yet formal evidence is remarkably difficult to produce. The newer concept of universal education dictates to us the responsibility for offering a suitable agenda for a type of pupil who, two or more generations ago, might or might not have remained in class. I do not refer to the chronically lazy or the maladjusted, but to the youngster who genuinely cannot cope with the pace of academic work. Statistically, he is illusive, for he may "pass". He struggles for 50 in algebra through memorizing problem types, which a merciful examiner may fail to vary on the final. His geometry he memorizes: from 94 propositions and 30 corollaries, some 968 deductions and countless exercises, he hopes he can select and retain sufficient for "a pass". "Forty per cent for propositions, up to twenty for construction": he knows the pattern, and hopes.

If a parallelogram and a triangle are on the same base, and between the same parallels, the parallelogram is double the triangle.

I have seen a youngster spend forty minutes running his finger over the proof of that fact, during a "spare period" prior to an examination. I doubt that its truth or its logic will have carryover into his life after school. A high school leaving course in general mathematics, of which we have heard something said, would seem a definite need.

What of the pupil—perhaps in the majority—who can cope with today's requirements: is his time being put to most effective use? That is a question which many now seek to answer, and recent trends and movements in the United States and on the Continent, even as close as Ontario, are receiving much of the attention they deserve. Such interest, no doubt, has sparked the growth of the young Provincial Association of Mathematics Teachers. It has produced capacity attendance at convention sessions and extension lectures on contemporary mathematics. Let me but pose a few related questions:

Transposing [means] "placing across". *Rule.* A term may be transposed from one member of an equation to the other, provided its sign is changed.

Rule. To subtract one number from another, change the sign of the subtrahend and add the resulting number to the minuend.

Is this enough? After three or four years of contact with algebra, is this as full an understanding as our average and better pupils can have? Research tends to show that a more basic appreciation improves the work of our better students, and produces as good results in the average. Yet, how would *you* explain to a better pupil the logic of "invert and multiply" when he needs to divide by $\frac{3}{4}$? There is much to be done, and I, personally, am convinced that what is done cannot be started later than Grade VIII.

To question our adequacy in geometry, we must, again, look to our purpose. Why do we teach this major subject? Ninety per cent of our

candidates have written it in recent years. Is the factual knowledge of Euclidean geometry so essential: do not I recall but a dozen or so basic properties as being all I needed for analytic geometry, calculus, and differential equations? What other purpose might the teaching serve? Is this purpose best furthered by our present policy of requiring a large number of theorems, all *plane*, or might we draw the *solid* analogies, extend locus concepts, welcome an algebraic approach, employ *co-ordinate*: proofs?

We say geometry trains the mind, develops orderly thinking. I'll not challenge that, though some would. Let me leave with you a problem; one at first glance so simple that it would be easy to underestimate the mental effort implied.

Take an orange. Cut it once, straight across. You have two pieces. Reassemble them, and you again have an approximate sphere. Make a second cut, *plane*, across. You might have three pieces. The maximum, I think you will agree, would be four. Reassemble. Make a third cut. Reassemble. A fourth. What is the maximum number of pieces into which your orange might now be cut?

The answer is *not* sixteen.

In 1860, that question would have been a trick puzzle, not school-work. Today, it might be a conversation piece, lifting a child's eyes off the plane and into a real world of three-dimensional space. Tomorrow, I suspect, it may find a place in curriculum. We have come a long way. Mathematics continues to extend, unfold, develop. We who teach it in high school recognize, I believe, that there remains a good way to go.

I write with less confidence and less knowledge of what is wrong with the teaching of mathematics. That something is wrong seems certain. Most young people who are excellent at problem-solving and make perfect scores on the mathematical achievement test do not begin to understand what modern mathematics is about until well into their college careers. What does the vast majority who never go beyond plane geometry have?

The high-school teaching of mathematics seems to reflect the same concentration on rules and exercises that blight the study of language. It needs a shift in emphasis that will introduce all students, at different levels of competence, to the concepts of quality and space they will encounter throughout their lives.

Oscar Handlin

NEW DIMENSIONS IN MATHEMATICS TEACHING*

Dr. Floyd G. Robinson, Research Director,
Canadian Teachers' Federation

The other evening my neighbour arrived at our door, bearing a sheet of paper and an expression of complete bewilderment.

The trouble, it seemed, was his youngest son's mathematics homework. The father is not a mathematician, but his recollections of algebra, geometry, and trigonometry had been sufficient to help his three older children. Then some months ago his youngest son entered Grade X, and soon began to bring home some formidable homework exercises.

At this point my neighbour showed me the sheet which he was clutching. It listed a number of problems, including the following:

$$\text{Given: } S_1 = \left\{ (x, y) \mid 2x + 3y = 12, x, y \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

$$S_2 = \left\{ (x, y) \mid x - y = 1, x, y \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

Find: $S_1 \cap S_2$

I recognized the difficulty at once—my neighbour had been overwhelmed by the “new look” in high school mathematics. In fact, when I had pointed out that the problem merely asked for the solution of the equations $2x + 3y = 12$ and $x - y = 1$, he readily produced the solution $x = 3, y = 2$.

The ornate symbolism of the “new look” has become the trademark of a potential revolution—a revolution in the content and outlook of the high school mathematics curriculum. The source of this revolution is a reform movement which has developed in the United States within the past few years. During this time, university mathematicians and high school teachers have taken a long look at the traditional high school mathematics curriculum and have emerged with two disturbing conclusions.

In the first place, they argue that the content of the present curriculum is so far behind the times that it predates Newton's discovery of the calculus in 1666, thus giving the student a false impression of the field of knowledge in which mathematicians are now engaged.

The current curriculum also deprives the student of an opportunity to acquaint himself with such “modern” topics as symbolic logic, non-Euclidean geometry, the theory of probability, and statistics—all of which are important forces in shaping the course of modern science and civilization.

It would be both possible and profitable, claim the modernists, to clear much of the “deadwood” from the traditional high school mathematics

* *C-I-L OVAL*, Vol. 30, No. 4. Used by permission.

curriculum—including large parts of the present algebra and geometry courses—and devote the time saved to introducing some of the newer ideas.

A second criticism, perhaps even more devastating than the first, is that the traditional curriculum has emphasized too often a combination of rote learning and memorization, while tending to neglect the understanding of the logical structure of mathematics.

Mathematics, say the critics, should be presented to the student not as a set of formulae and recipes, but as a body of knowledge which is developed by first stating all one's assumptions and definitions, and then applying logical rules to those assumptions.

This latter "axiomatic" method is one of the chief characteristics of modern mathematics. One might summarize the intention of the reform (or "modern mathematics") movement by saying that it seeks to establish a closer relationship between the high school mathematics curriculum and the content and structure of present-day mathematics.

In the United States, this movement is now in full swing, with such bodies as the School Mathematics Study Group producing high school curriculum outlines which emphasize the ideas and approach of modern mathematics. Progress in Canada has been slower, but the flood of reform ideas and literature from across the border could not be long ignored.

Probably Ontario has made the most obvious gesture in this direction. In that province last year, for example, an experimental text was prepared for Grade IX and is currently being tried out in some 40 schools. Although the changes proposed are far less radical than those recommended in the United States, the Ontario experimental course does give considerable emphasis to basic concepts and the axiomatic approach, while still advocating accuracy and precision in mechanical computation.

However, there is not unqualified and universal acceptance of a modern mathematics curriculum for the high school: a substantial number of mathematicians and educators have reservations about the new approach.

In the first place, many objections have been voiced against the extensive terminology and symbolism of the "set" approach which figures prominently in the modern mathematics movement. In lay language a "set" is merely a collection of objects. For example, I can denote the set which consists of myself, my wife, my son, and my daughter by the symbol F ; in mathematical notation this would be written :

$$F = \{ \text{father, mother, son, daughter} \}$$

The set F can be broken into *subsets* where each subset contains some, but not all, of the elements of the original set. For example, the particular subset of F whose members are males could be written :

$$F_M = \{ \text{father, son} \}$$

Since each "element" (i.e., each item) of F_M is contained in F , we would say that the set F_M is contained in the set F . This relationship could be expressed by the notation $F_M \subset F$ where the symbol " \subset " means "is contained in".

The modernist terminology would next define the "intersection" of two sets to be those elements which are common to both sets. The symbol employed for intersection is " \cap ". If now we denote the set of all females in the universe as W , then it would follow that $W \cap F = F_F$, where F_F is the subset of F containing only females. ($W \cap F$ is read as "the intersection of W and F ").

In simple language, that merely says that the persons who are both female and who belong to my family are the female members of my family—hardly a startling observation! Similarly, since W and F_M have no common elements, we could write $W \cap F_M = \emptyset$, where \emptyset represents the "null" set, or the set with no elements.

At this point the non-technical reader might observe that in a few paragraphs he has added five new terms ("element", "set", "subset", "intersection" and "null set") as well as four new symbols ($\{ \}$, \cap , \subset , \emptyset) to his mathematical repertoire. At the same time he might wonder in what way this has made his thinking about families or females more precise!

There appears to be a danger here that the proliferation of definitions and symbols, while an interesting pastime, may be proceeding at a much faster rate than the development of ideas. Some mathematicians think that while esoteric symbolism is useful at advanced levels of mathematics, the elaborate "set" terminology is not essential to the development of mathematical ideas in the high school curriculum.

Another query often advanced by educators is whether the "axiomatic" approach in its most exact sense is really suitable for the high school student. Stated in general terms this question becomes: what kind of content and what level of reasoning are appropriate to each stage of development of the student? Many a mathematician does not realize that the answers to this and related problems lie in the realm of psychology rather than in mathematics.

For example, while it appears likely that the bright high school student will profit from the modern emphasis on underlying structure and logic, one wonders what the impact of such an approach will be upon the average or dull student. Psychological research in other areas has sometimes shown that rote learning produces a higher degree of efficiency in the academically dull.

But that prompts us to ask whether or not the average or unpromising student of mathematics should continue that subject in high school, and if so, what benefits he is supposed to derive from this study. The criticism is often made that the modern mathematics movement is directed principally toward university-bound students—a group which constitutes only about 10 per cent of the present high school population. Before we make curriculum changes which

will affect all students, there should be more experimentation by groups which include members with a comprehension of the psychological as well as the mathematical issues involved.

Despite these reservations, there is much to commend in the modern mathematics movement, and the support it is receiving makes it likely that the next half decade will witness substantial changes in the present mathematics curriculum. The spirit of the times was reflected in a recent national seminar on school mathematics which recommended establishment of a Canadian association of mathematics teachers, one of its chief functions to be the rewriting of existing mathematics curricula from the modern point of view.

So my neighbour will not be the only one obliged to revamp and update his mathematical repertoire. Most of our present Canadian classroom teachers were trained in the traditional approach and will require refresher courses in modern mathematics. A start has already been made on this "inservice" training program, and several Canadian universities, colleges and local school boards are now offering such courses for high school mathematics teachers. Some of these refresher courses receive financial assistance from Canadian industry, which stands to benefit from having employees school-trained in methods coming into use in industrial applications of mathematics.

To judge from the reaction of my neighbour, the next decade may become known as the "era of the perplexed parent". However, if present trends continue, it may also be the most challenging and fruitful era in the history of mathematics education.

Some years ago I was teaching Euclidean geometry to a Grade 10 class in a Winnipeg high school.

One reason for studying geometry, I told the students, was its logical, questioning approach to what seems obvious in the world. I recall saying: "Don't even believe what I'm saying to you now without thinking about it. It isn't true merely because I'm saying it."

Next morning the principal called me from my class. He told me gently that one of the parents had phoned to find out what I'd been telling her daughter. What was this about not believing anything?

"Do you honestly think," she had said to him, "that it's good for children to be exposed to that sort of teaching?"

He had answered that he honestly thought it *was* good for the children.

"But, my dear," he explained to me. "Be careful what you say to your class. I know what you mean, I agree with you and will uphold you. But don't trample on people's convictions."

I still find myself being careful — perhaps too careful.

Sybil Shack

INTERPRETING THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION THROUGH THE SCHOOL SHOP

T. G. MacGregor, B.Sc., Lachine High School

In illustrating the changes typical of those brought about by the Industrial Revolution, historians frequently refer to the transformation which took place in the textile industry, beginning with the domestic system (where work was "farmed out" into the workers' homes), as represented by the woolen industry, and ending in the factory system as exemplified by the cotton industry. There are many good reasons for choosing these examples. In spite of initial discouragement arising out of government opposition and the virtual monopoly of domestic spinning by the woolen industry, the cotton industry experienced a rapid growth unequalled by any of the others, resulting from an abundant supply of raw material and popular demand for cotton goods. Progressive industrialization was fairly clear and straightforward, cotton thread being strong enough to withstand the processing of crude, experimental machinery. Moreover, since it was a new industry, the introduction of machinery was not so seriously opposed by the workers as in other industries where machines were beginning to replace men. We may say, then, that although by relation to the textile industry as a whole, the new techniques were revolutionary, the cotton industry within itself experienced only a rapid evolution. The adaptation of the spinning jenny, water frame, the mule, the flying shuttle, and the power loom to the other textile industries, however, completely revolutionized them.

One feels that the illustrations referred to above might well be supplemented by another example from the Industrial Arts—the woodwork industry. It seems reasonable to suppose that boys who have already gained some understanding by the processing of wood in the school Industrial Arts laboratories should be able to profit from such illustration to a degree well-nigh impossible in the preceding ones. The writer, therefore, though fully realizing his inexperience in the field of research, will attempt to outline in this article the development of the woodwork industry. This presentation is intended to be suggestive rather than exhaustive, and is submitted in the hope that others may glean a few leads toward further research of their own.

By the woodwork industry we mean that which uses wood as the primary raw material from which finished articles are made, excluding the building industry. Improvements in technique in the one have necessarily influenced the other, but even today there is no absolute distinction between manufacturing and building. The term "building" is usually reserved to describe the construction of relatively large units in which there is considerable handwork or "fitting" during the assembling of the parts. Manufacturing has a connotation of quantity production of units from pre-fitted parts.

Previous to the nineteenth century, however, there was no manufacturing in this sense. It was all building, all manufacturing, all "making by hand", all craft. What we would refer to today as the woodwork industry had its wheelwrights, its shipwrights, and its cartwrights just as the metalwork industry had its goldsmiths, locksmiths, and gunsmiths. But to a large extent every householder had to provide both implements and those amenities which would correspond to our furniture, both for himself and his family. We can have no doubt as to the crudeness and harshness of his construction; but his creations were useful and, for the most part, necessary. Comfort for the masses is a very youthful concept; it is the story of the evolution of the specialist.

There is some evidence that the Normans were better woodworkers than our Anglo-Saxon ancestors and that the conquest had an ameliorating effect on woodworking. This evidence is in our language. The "axe", "hammer", "saw", "knife", "spokeshave", and "drawknife" are tools whose names have descended from Old English roots. But the names of the other common woodwork tools, as "hatchet", "mallet", "plane", "square", "rule", and "chisel" are derived from Old Norman French. By noting that the cutting tools in the former list are mainly of the rough-cutting class (the cutting edge being sharpened on both sides) and that we have in the latter list the smooth cutting tools (edge sharpened on one side only), it would seem that the Normans had superior smooth cutting tools, supplanting any the Anglo-Saxons may have had.

Subsequently the "cartwright" became the "carpenter"—a name the Normans absorbed from the Latin and equivalent to "wagon-maker". The "arkwright", too, we suspect, lost out to the "cabinet-maker". But, possibly because the Normans were no better than the Anglo-Saxons at wheelmaking, nor shipbuilding, the words "wheelwright" and "shipwright" have persisted into the twentieth century. Such words as "keel", "rudder", and "felloe", "spoke"—all of pre-Norman origin—tend to confirm this. In contrast we have the Anglo-Saxon words "chest", "cupboard", "bench", "horse", and "stool" to refer to objects constructed primarily for utility; while we use the terms "trunk" or "cabinet", "table", "trestle", and "chair"—all of Old French origin—to indicate furniture with more pretensions to beauty. Significantly, even the word "throne" is of Old French origin.

The first attempt at organization was the creation of the craft guilds; exclusive, tightly-knit groups of specialists, each possessing a monopoly of its craft within a certain area. The jealousy with which each guarded its monopoly is well illustrated by the fact that the "bowyers" and "arrowyers" of London kept close watch to ensure that the members of the one did not encroach on the monopoly of the other. This action was not motivated by the idea of profit-making, unlike our modern combines, but rather by the philosophy of Thomism. Considerable time was to pass before this neatly dovetailed privilege pattern of industry was to become superseded by a freer, competitive system. Indeed, traces of it are still seen in the royal endorsement by which some British firms grace their products.

Furniture making before 1800 was a luxury craft; only the rich could afford to buy furniture. London, after its ordeal of 1666, became the main centre of the industry. The importation of mahogany in quantity from Central America during the eighteenth century greatly influenced both demand and design, as the wood was novel and beautiful and its strength made lighter construction possible. A further cause for boom times was the sellers' market for British goods in the expanding American colonies.

During this period, the second half of the eighteenth century, craftsmanship and design reached a new high with Chippendale, the Adams brothers, Hepplewhite and Sheraton. But it was still luxury trade, and furniture had become a general measure of worldly success even as it continues to do so today. Usage became secondary to display as the socially-ambitious and newly-rich increased during the nineteenth century. Their demands on the industry camouflaged the functional aspect of furniture design. The essential trinity—good material, good workmanship, and good design—was disregarded in catering to their poor taste; just as the insensitivity to shape, prevalent today, fathered "modern" furniture—its counterpoise.

The earliest use of power machinery in woodwork was in the conversion of timber into boards during the sixteenth century. There is probably no better example of the retarding influence of tradition on progressive invention. As late as the nineteenth century the traditional method was in wide use. It was the "pit-sawing" method, where the log, suspended over a pit, was sawn into boards by a two-man saw, the "top-sawyer" standing on the log and the "pitman" in the pit. The machine copied this action faithfully, the saw being the reciprocating type driven by animal treadmill, or better by water-wheel.

We should note that with this saw man had solved the problem of converting rotary motion into reciprocating motion. Three hundred years later, in spite of the spinning wheel and treadle lathe, he was to have difficulty in solving the reverse problem. This saw, we should also note, is a very slow and inefficient type, as only a few teeth do the cutting, becoming dull more rapidly. Even if the teeth are the most efficient type for the purpose (rip saw type), each tooth cuts on only one stroke, that is, half the time.

Today, reciprocating saws have been largely replaced by more efficient cutting saws. Surviving, though, in woodwork are (1) the jig scroll saw—there is not as yet a better machine for cutting curves of small radii in thin wood—and (2) the gang saw with several blades properly spaced to saw a "cant" (a log with two opposite sides slabbed) into a number of boards simultaneously. In metalwork, the machine hacksaw is a reciprocating saw.

Perhaps the only other woodwork machine in use before the Industrial Revolution was the wood-turning lathe. It had an interesting evolution. Probably its earliest ancestor was the "bow drill"—similar to a Boy Scout's fire-making apparatus. We might speculate upon the *gestalt* that some unknown genius experienced while drilling some hole—a realization that wood could be

shaped while being turned. We might trace its development through the bow lathe; the tree lathe, where the work was pivoted between two trees and rotated by a foot-treadle, tied by a rope (looped around the work) to an overhanging branch which supplied the restoring torque; the great wheel lathe, which made use of the momentum of a wheel, rotated by a slave or serf; and, later, the treadle lathe, maintaining the momentum of a wheel with a foot pedal by means of an eccentric, as in the spinning wheel; and, finally, the power lathe of which the modern lathe is an example. But that is a story in itself.

It is sufficient to our needs to point out that, while man learned very early to revolve the work against a stationary cutting tool, it is only within comparatively recent times that he thought of revolving the tool against the work. The transformation in the technique of shaping wood that evolved from this concept constitutes the Industrial Revolution insofar as it concerns woodwork.

On the threshold of the revolution we should pause to consider some of the difficulties man faced when he began to make machinery. The sciences of draughting and engineering did not exist. A tolerance of "the thickness of an old shilling" described the acme of accuracy. Measurements were largely relative: an inch might vary considerably with locality. Progress was slow because industries were not able to develop independently. The slow development of the iron industry, both in metallurgy (the production of materials to make machinery) and in technology (the development of techniques to make machinery) hampered man's efforts to realize his visions.

The story of the interplay of man's conquest of substances with his conquest of power is fascinatingly illustrated in the lock step development of the coal, iron, steam, and machinery manufacturing industries. We do not wish to consider this in detail but there were two problems whose solutions gave such an impetus to machinery manufacturing that they can hardly be omitted.

As the Darby process of coke smelting was replacing charcoal smelting in the first half of the eighteenth century, it became evident that it would be more efficient to have smelters near coalfields. But rolling mills and forge hammers were operated by water power, so this was not usually possible. There was need for a more independent source of power.

Further, this increase in the use of coal, coupled with its increasing use as a fuel due to deforestation, put pressure on the coal industry where production was hampered by water in the pits. Newcomen's steam engine, which was very slow and so inefficient that only coal mines could afford to use it, had been in use since 1712 for pumping water. There was a need here for a better pump engine.

Watt and his co-workers solved the latter problem in 1776 with his condenser, reducing the coal consumption of the steam engine by seventy-five

per cent. He solved the former problem in 1782 with his rotary yoke, converting the reciprocating power of the steam engine (pumping had not required any such conversion) into rotary motion, thus freeing industry from the tyranny and vagaries of water power, opening up the possibility of efficient industrial centralization, but giving mankind a new set of social problems.

So far as invention in the field of woodwork is concerned, we can be certain that the vested interests of the craft guilds would cause their members to oppose any such innovations. Wood being an amenable working medium and possessing a tradition of appropriate methods of working by hand tools dating back to the pre-Christian era, innovations were bound to jar the natural conservatism of long-established institutions. But inventions came, though the first two were more curious than practical.

In 1776 Hatton invented a planing machine. Just as the earliest power saws faithfully copied the action of handsaws, so we might expect the earliest planing machine to imitate the action of the hand plane. And it did. It was a longitudinal planer. It was not practical, perhaps due to the "grain" or fibrous nature of wood. The germ of Hatton's idea is seen today in two metal cutting machines: the metal shaper, where the cutting tool is moved across the stationary work, and the metal planer, where the cutting tool is held fast and the work is moved back and forth under it.

In 1777 the first circular saw was seen in a curious machine invented by Samuel Miller of Southampton. This was the first continuous cutting saw, but its potentialities went unrealized for a further twenty years since mechanical help to guide the work was not considered.

But the event which revolutionized the woodwork industry was the discovery, in 1791, by Sir Samuel Bentham, of the principle of rotary cutting in which the cutting tool is revolved against the work—the reverse of the lathe principle previously discussed. In following up this discovery, he invented a rotary planer which proved to be a practical machine. Direct descendants of this machine are the modern rotary-cutting woodwork machines: jointer, surfacer, shaper, moulder, router, matcher, wood milling machine, and others, along with several metal work machines. Although each of these machines does a different type of work, the cutting principle of each is identical.

A little later Bentham invented the circular saw fence and mitre guide, methods of guiding the work while sawing, and made the circular saw a practical machine.

In 1808 Joseph Newberry invented the bandsaw, the fastest cutting woodwork saw, and the second continuous cutting saw. From his small model have evolved the large bandmills for converting logs into lumber. These are more efficient than the circular mills, not only because they cut faster, but also because they waste less in sawdust—a far cry indeed from the toil of "pit-sawing". The modern band scroll saw is a direct descendant, its relatively narrow blade enabling it to cut curves in thicker wood.

The foregoing is not meant to imply that these machines immediately transformed the industry. Rather, their introduction was slow. It is an enlightening if sad commentary on human nature that Bentham's machines were first proven in prison workshops before they came into general use. This was due partly, no doubt, to the opposition of the guilds, but partly too to the influence of John Howard through Sir Samuel's brother, Jeremy Bentham, both advocates of prison reforms.

It would be difficult, if not impossible, in an article of this length to describe the general evolution of woodworking machinery. For example, no mention has been made of tenoners, chain-mortisers, and abrading machines, nor of the development of the portable machines in the twentieth century. Mention of the greater safety of operation obtained by better engineering and by the use of individual electric motors has been similarly omitted, as has been reference to the greater efficiency of bearings, direct and more practical drives, or the improved steels by which cutting speeds have been so greatly increased.

There is the hope, however, that even passing reference to the evolution of machines usually found as standard equipment in a school woodworking shop will help to show how the Industrial Revolution transformed the woodwork industry, also, and led to the establishment of factories for the manufacture of wooden articles; how woodworking became more of a science, if less an art, as it moved toward the quantity production typical of the other new, manufacturing industries.

THE ARTS IN AMERICA

There is always a multitude of persons whose wants are above their means, and who are very willing to take up with imperfect satisfaction, rather than abandon the object of their desires altogether. The artisan readily understands these passions, for he himself partakes in them: in an aristocracy, he would seek to sell his workmanship at a high price to the few; he now conceives that the more expeditious way of getting rich is to sell them at a low price to all. But there are only two ways of lowering the price of commodities. The first is to discover some better, shorter, and more ingenious method of producing them: the second is to manufacture a larger quantity of goods, nearly similar, but of less value. Amongst a democratic population, all the intellectual faculties of the workman are directed to these two objects: he strives to invent methods which may enable him not only to work better, but quicker and cheaper; or, if he cannot succeed in that, to diminish the intrinsic quality of the thing he makes, without rendering it wholly unfit for the use for which it is intended. Thus the democratic principle not only tends to direct the human mind to the useful arts, but it induces the artisan to produce with great rapidity many imperfect commodities, and the consumer to content himself with these commodities.

Alexis de Tocqueville

Democracy in America.

THE GRADE X EXAMINATIONS: JUNE 1961

W. C. McCulloch, Inspector of High Schools,
Department of Education, Quebec

Grade X general proficiency certificates are awarded to pupils who obtain 100 marks of a possible 200 in each of the subjects English and French and at least 50 per cent in each of four other subjects. Failure in one subject of the aforementioned minimum course is overlooked if the pupil obtains a general average of 65 per cent.

The number of pupils writing this year for a Grade X general proficiency certificate was 1,736. Of this number 1,513 were high school students and 223 were from intermediate schools. Of the high school candidates 69.7 per cent were successful; in the intermediate schools 69.9 per cent obtained certificates of proficiency. Altogether, 1,212 pupils passed the examinations.

The number of candidates and the results obtained in the various subjects examined were as follows:

SUBJECT	No. OF PUPILS	No. FAILED	FAILED PER CENT
English Literature	1,761	204	11.5
English Composition	1,764	234	13.2
French Oral	1,783	181	10.7
French Written	1,744	358	20.5
History	1,679	268	15.9
Algebra	1,704	368	21.5
Geometry	1,436	382	26.6
Chemistry	1,637	366	22.3
Physics	969	194	20.0
Geography	833	160	19.2
Biology	925	174	18.8
Latin	121	13	10.7
North American Literature	504	99	19.6
Home Economics	340	52	15.2

The following comments from examiners may be of interest to teachers of Grade X.

English Literature

It is the opinion of the examiners that the examination question paper tested very well the students' knowledge of the texts and accuracy in comprehension.

Generally, the good students showed an improved facility in dealing with appreciation, while the weaker students seemed less capable than ever. On the whole, the paragraphing, syntax, spelling, and neatness were excellent.

The examiners felt that if students had paid greater attention to the demands of the questions, the marks would have been about twenty-five per cent higher. In the prose selections, the tendency was simply to reproduce the stories with little or no reference to the questions asked. It is interesting to note that in answering the question on *Julius Caesar* a number of students followed the instructions for the questions on *Twelfth Night*.

English Composition

Pupils require every opportunity to develop creative work and a broader sense of originality. This was evident in the answers to Question 3.

The common fault of failing to read the instructions carefully was noticeable in both Questions 3 and 4. The majority did not realize that they were asked in Question 3 to make the explanation suitable for "a ten-year old", and in Question 4 to begin with the required construction.

The compositions were, generally speaking, lacking in atmosphere and individuality. Many did not have a definite purpose, or objective, which resulted in lack of coherence. Some took the liberty of changing a title and were penalized accordingly. Others wrote on a topic which had apparently been prepared in advance but their efforts to adapt to the required title were often unsatisfactory. More stress is needed on the ways and means of organizing essays and the proper use of paragraphing. Neatness and correct spelling always demand attention.

French

This examination was on the whole very applicable and well done by the candidates. There seemed to be a wide margin between the pupils who knew their assignments well and those who had only a fair knowledge.

It was difficult at times to understand the reason for the poor results in the dictation as many words were taken from the text. It is felt that not enough practice has been given in that type of work.

The verb question was on the whole well done, but it was evident that more attention must be given to the meaning and proper use of verbs in the daily class drills. Verbs such as *rencontrer*, *connaître*, *savoir*, and *acheter* and *vendre* were very often confused one with the other.

Question 7, which was a test of comprehension, was very poorly done. Only the very good pupils grasped the meaning of the passage and understood the vocabulary. Certainly teachers ought to give this type of exercise more attention.

Chemistry

The following comments are designed to assist teachers to achieve a better training of their students in chemistry. Once again it is a pleasure to remark on the improved standard of work produced by many of the intermediate schools. The answer booklets from some schools show unmistakable evidence of commendable work, but unfortunately others show unmistakable evidence of desultory work.

The following observations indicate common weaknesses which teachers may seek to remedy :

1. More drill is required to pinpoint the meaning of common terms used in chemistry and to define accurately both these terms and the fundamental laws of chemistry.

2. More practice is necessary in the drawing of neat, accurate, and fully labelled diagrams of the various laboratory procedures.

3. More training is recommended in the writing of precise yet complete statements concerning characteristics, properties, uses of materials.

4. Oxidation and reduction from the electronic standpoint need to be taught more effectively.

5. The making of careful observations during laboratory periods should be stressed.

6. Equations must be balanced both as to type and number of each atom present.

Physics

After marking 969 papers in this subject, the examiners have come to the conclusion that the following comments and suggestions could assist teachers in doing more effective work :

1. Of the pupils who failed in the examination, practically all of them did so because they could not solve the problems. Many demonstrated such a poor knowledge of arithmetic that it is doubtful whether they should have been permitted to study physics without having this condition rectified first.

2. Problems stated in metric units should be worked in that system. Conversion to the English system is time-consuming and conducive to errors.

3. The answers to Question 4 indicate that in the majority of schools the pupils have little conception of the principles of experimentation. Instead

of outlining an experiment which would enable them to arrive at a conclusion, most pupils merely used the conclusion as a premise on which to base the validity of a statement. Pupils should be given more instruction on how to interpret the results of an experiment.

4. A diagram deserves a title and must be fully labelled.

5. Many are still unaware of the fact that an Imperial quart equals 1.14 litres.

6. A pupil should be required throughout the year to spell accurately all terms encountered in learning this subject.

Geography

There is a tendency in many schools for the students to treat an answer in geography as a descriptive paragraph in composition. While good grammar and sentence structure are desirable, the marks of many pupils would improve if candidates would state the facts and answer the question asked.

Too few candidates explain answers with the use of a diagram or sketch, even when they are requested to do so. Often marks were awarded for an answer because a diagram provided an impression of correctness even though a written explanation may have been incomplete.

The students in some schools answered the map questions very badly. Map work is fundamental to good geography teaching and continued practice is recommended.

Biology

The paper presented little difficulty for candidates who were interested in the subject and had covered the prescribed course. It is a pleasure to note that the percentage of candidates securing first class (approximately 18 per cent) standing was much higher than that of recent years.

Low marks in many cases were caused by failure to read the questions carefully. Many candidates apparently do not realize that the question "Describe with the aid of a diagram..." means a diagram and a description. Poorly labelled drawings were often given without additional information.

Outside the completion question, all others required answers of the essay type. The use of tabulation is, of course, very acceptable where the information can be handled better in this manner, but suitable headings should be used. Random notes, carelessly jotted down, are not adequate.

When parts of questions concerned experimental work they were frequently not answered, even though the question was chosen, indicating that this phase of the work is not receiving the attention it merits. A common weakness was

inability to indicate in adequate terms the appearance of an organ or a tissue. This ability should be the outcome of first hand observation.

Once again, the examiner wishes to stress the necessity of training students to use sketches and diagrams whenever possible.

History

1. As so many students believed July 4 to be Canada's national holiday it appears essential to give more stress to the importance of July 1 in the study of Canadian Confederation.

2. Candidates should realize the importance of reading questions slowly and carefully. This would avoid the common errors of naming a Scot as the first French Canadian prime minister, indicating Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island as western provinces and confusing Mackenzie King with William Lyon Mackenzie.

3. Teachers should instruct pupils to be concise and to answer the question asked rather than to write rambling accounts of all that is known. This was particularly noticeable in Question 3 where many students gave exhaustive accounts of the causes and effects of the War of 1812 instead of confining themselves to accounts of the war on the boundary.

4. Many students knew causes of the American Revolution and the reasons for Confederation in Canada, but were unable to relate these to effects or actual events.

5. Teachers should emphasize more strongly the conditions governing eligibility to vote in a federal election. Large numbers of students believed that a property or tax qualification was necessary in order to have this right.

Algebra

There were many students who worked the questions carefully and systematically. They copied questions correctly, worked them out neatly and legibly showing the necessary solution steps, understood the use and meaning of signs, and made sure the answers were in simplified and/or conventional form. These students often attained marks higher than the teachers' estimates.

Many other students showed the same weaknesses as their predecessors in Grade X. The following is a partial list of those weaknesses:

1. A lack of knowledge of Square Root and Radicals, (Chapter XV in the Textbook, pp. 353 to 367) was apparent. Many students failing to transpose in Question 6(c), attempted to square the left side as separate terms instead of as a binomial expression. This, of course, was incorrect and of no value.

2. Students did not state clearly what the unknown was in the problems of Question 7. A common error in part (a) was to let x equal the first sum and in part (b) was to let x and y equal the amounts of money invested and then to treat them as representing the incomes.

3. A lack of knowledge of the meaning and use of the minus sign and/or the careless use of it was the cause of many errors in Question 3.

4. The clearing of fractions in Questions 3(b) and (c) was often faulty.

5. It was not sufficient simply to write the answers, except when so instructed as in Question 1. It was of little value to the student if he wrote the digit "5" as an answer to Question 4(b). It was necessary to show how the number "5" was found.

6. Failure to make sure the final answer was in its most simple and correct form was discovered frequently. Common errors were: writing 6 instead of ± 6 in Question 1(c); arriving at $-9x = 9$ correctly and then concluding that $x = 1$ in Question 5(b); stating it follows from $5F = 9C + 160$ that $F = \frac{9}{5}(C + 32)$ in Question 4(a).

Careful checking by the teacher of the students' written work should greatly improve the standard.

Geometry

The results of the paper this year were singularly disappointing. The purpose of the examiner was to provide a standard which could be readily met by a candidate with a reasonable understanding of geometry and which at the same time would provide a challenge to the superior student.

In the graphical exercises, relatively few candidates showed familiarity with the method of reducing a quadrilateral to a triangle of equal area and, despite explicit instructions, construction lines were often omitted. The adoption of suitable scales, compatible with the size of the examination sheet, was seldom done. Problems calling for constructional procedures were often turned into graphical exercises, and the perennial error of assuming regularities was much in evidence. In theoretical propositions, on the other hand, many elaborate constructions were developed which complicated rather than expedited the proof. Particular enunciations were too frequently incomplete and in many cases missing entirely.

In general it was evident that many pupils are attempting a study of geometry without a clear concept of what is involved, and are substituting memory for understanding, thus failing to observe accuracy and clarity of statement.

Specific recommendations include :

1. More practice in the use of instruments and in working to scale should be given.

2. The use of pencils should be confined to drawing diagrams, while the use of ink should be encouraged for lettering and write-ups.
3. Particular enunciations for lettering and all write-ups should include all data.
4. The concept of LOCUS should be introduced early in the school term.
5. More practice in writing should be provided, emphasizing the drafting of a logical and concise presentation.
6. Training in the minimal use of construction to derive a proof is recommended.
7. The memorizing of exercises should be avoided since this practice defeats the purpose of the subject.

Latin

One of the objectives of the Latin course is the developing of ability to read simple Latin prose, and this ability is tested by the "unseen" translation. Pupils who had been trained to obtain the general meaning of a passage before writing anything down gained the highest marks. Comprehension questions based on the prose passages of the first part of the Grade X work are probably the best preparation for this ability.

In general, the grammatical forms were better known than in former years, showing the value of frequent drill. More attention to Latin composition continues to be needed.

North American Literature

North American Literature is apparently considered an easy course in some schools and is not taught properly. Many weaker pupils appear to be relegated to this course because they are unlikely to succeed in others. In the larger schools, the course should be treated as an optional subject for the strong literature pupil. In the case of the smaller school where there are no alternative subjects, North American Literature should be given the same importance as other optional subjects.

The examination revealed a general weakness in the fundamentals of literature. Many pupils were unable to distinguish between prose and poetry, the essay and short story. They did not know the meaning of such terms as "dialect", "theme", "mood", poetic qualities and literary methods.

More attention should be given to the poetry selections from *Prose and Poetry of America*.

Pupils should be taught to budget their time and efforts according to the value of the question being answered.

Home Economics

Pupils should use diagrams wherever possible. Answers should be much clearer and should leave no doubts concerning the pupils' understanding of terms being used. In their answers, candidates repeatedly confused "grain-line" and "straight of goods", and a similar confusion occurred in references to notches and darts. Diagrams would be a great help when making pattern alterations and garment constructions.

Many pupils also confuse the French seam and the flat-felled seam, both in construction and use.

Pupils failed to state the specific function in the body of each food nutrient found in the foods.

REVERSING THE CYCLE

There are a number of young people who no longer seek fame and monetary success or even ease of life but look for a life of service in the more challenging jobs that service people or ideas rather than things. Rejecting uncongenial intellectuality, they want to work with people, to help people; they are less concerned than most college professors are with sheer mental endowment and more concerned with personality and with the total gamut of the child's development. Some will become psychiatrists, but others, democratic in spirit, uncompetitive, unethnocentric, will become teachers and may find as great a challenge in working, for example, with slum children as missionaries in an earlier day found in working with preliterate tribes. Indeed, as the ministry loses its attraction for the zealous, or gets redefined as another sort of working with people, the schools for the ethnically and intellectually underprivileged—indeed, the schools in general—find themselves with new possibilities for recruitment. Thus, while understandably a very large proportion of teachers will continue to look to their profession for status, it seems to me that we can expect an increase in the ranks of those teachers who enter the profession not in search of status but in search of a meaningfully useful life. There are now many such teachers in the private schools, and a great many more in the public schools than uninterested parents and overbearing school boards "deserve."

David Riesman

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- LAKE MEGANTIC: Mr. Donald Switzer, Mrs. Gladys Parsons.
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- ILE PERROT: Mr. Harold Smithman, Mrs. Myrtle J. Beebe, Miss Jane M. Vivian Graham Benson, Miss Nancy R. Burgess, Mrs. Louise Burke, Mrs. Leila A. Callen, Miss Joyce D. D. Cassidy, Dr. Jane Catterson, Mr. C. William Crowell, Miss Ann Dilley, Miss Evelyne H. Dreyfus, Mr. Michael Drury, Mrs. Ruth Ellison, Mrs. Frederica Hurrell, Mrs. Wilma Maloney, Miss Beryl L. H. Parks, Mrs. Sybil Peckover, Mrs. Carol M. Ross, Mrs. Maureen B. Teasdale, Miss Ann J. Whiteside, Miss Esther L. Wright.
- ISLAND BROOK: Mrs. Hazel L. Kerr, Miss Ruth R. Morrow, Mrs. Alma L. Quinn.
- JOLIETTE: Mr. Donald F. R. Wilson, Mrs. Jean M. Anderson, Mrs. Nina Regent, Mrs. Lillis Tinkler, Mrs. Evelyn R. Wilson.
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- LAKE OF TWO MOUNTAINS:
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Mr. J. Allan Young, Mrs. Eileen Elder, Miss Donna Foster, Miss Margaret Higgins, Miss Alice Ingalls, Miss Mary McLenahan, Mrs. Eleanor Miller, Mrs. Ailsa Montgomery, Mr. Harold Murray, Mrs. Janet E. Oswald, Mrs. Ida Painter, Miss Betty Shannon, Mr. Stanley Swannack, Miss Jeannie Wightman, Mr. Melbourne Yach.
- LAKE OF TWO MOUNTAINS:
St. Eustache
sur-le-Lac
Mr. William F. Hine, Mrs. Barbara Bedard, Mr. James Connell, Mrs. Caroline French, Mrs. Ruby Gordon, Mrs. Janine Hart, Mrs. Janet Hazel, Mrs. Isabelle Johnstone, Miss Dilys Loose, Mr. Gary Lovely, Miss Ruth MacCollum, Mrs. Dorothy Mattson, Mrs. Annie Silverson, Mrs. Sarah Warwick, Mrs. Marilyn J. Whelan.
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Miss Hazel K. Cross, Miss Esther E. Gilbert, Miss Marjorie McElrae, Miss Gloria A. Stout.
- LONGUEUIL:
Mackayville
Miss Audrey S. Allin, Miss Nancy A. Gillies, Mrs. Margaret Holmes, Mrs. Laura M. Inglis, Mrs. Kathe Lawn, Mrs. Elizabeth Remanent, Miss Catherine Stephens, Mr. Henrik Weizenberger.
- LONGUEUIL:
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Mr. Bruce M. Benton, Mr. Doran G. Armstrong, Mrs. Janet Brown, Mrs. Jean Cameron, Mrs. Winona Craig, Mrs. Roberta Dale, Miss Irene Dunfield, Mr. John V. Foulkes, Miss Carol LeBlanc, Miss Anna G. McIver, Mr. Bruce A. Middleton, Mrs. Donna R. Parsons, Miss Ann Smith.
- LONGUEUIL:
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Mrs. Inez E. Curren, Miss Margaret Boa, Mrs. Roubina Coudari, Mr. Yves Coudari, Mrs. Eleanor Gamble, Miss Wendy Green, Mrs. Sandra Marchand, Mr. Jeffrey Murphy, Mr. Levi Pauley, Mrs. Clara D. Peever, Miss Robin Ross, Miss Carolyn F. Sandell, Mrs. Florence Shaw.
- LONGUEUIL:
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- NORANDA:
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Mrs. Jean McLatchie, Miss Audry Baillie, Mrs. Elsie Graham, Miss Kathleen Kentish, Mrs. Cora Lake, Mrs. Mary Moulard, Mrs. Edna Ollivier, Mr. Thomas Wright.
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- POINTE CLAIRE:
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Mr. Thayne C. McGilton, Mrs. Hazel Birnie, Mrs. Beulah Bunnell, Mrs. Liette Butrym, Miss Dorothy Davis, Mrs. Margaret Dickson, Miss Penelope Foreman, Mr. John Henderson, Miss Eileen Hersey, Miss Mary Hocquard, Mrs. Grace Leclair, Mrs. Marcia Lidstone, Mr. Edwin Martin, Mrs. Joyce Montgomery, Miss Kathryn Nolting, Miss Janet Savage, Mrs. Lynn Sulyok, Mrs. Sherrill Wells, Mrs. Florence Willard.

- POINTE CLAIRE:** Miss **Dorothy Brayne**, Mrs. Doreen Archambault, Miss Dora Beck, Mrs. Marguerite Morkill.
Beaurepaire
- POINTE CLAIRE:** Mr. **E. A. Robert**, Miss Barbara Bole, Mrs. Marlene Burgess, Mrs. Elsie Cadogan, Mrs. Mabel Craib, Mrs. Gladys Davis, Mr. John Dorrance, Miss Maureen Hogge, Miss Sally Kemp, Mrs. Grace Lamb, Mr. Dudley LeMaistre, Mr. Raymond Louttit, Mrs. Marjorie McFarland, Mr. Colin Nelson, Mr. Claire Lyle Purdy, Miss Margaret Rennie, Mrs. Barbara Scruton, Mr. John Swaine, Mr. Leslie Thornley-Brown, Mrs. Myra Willie.
Briarwood
- POINTE CLAIRE:** Mr. **William B. Fleming**, Mr. Roy Baillie, Mrs. Faye Baker, Mr. James G. Beatt, Mrs. Alison Berridge, Mr. Douglas A. Brown, Mrs. H. Meredith Cargin, Miss Joyce Irene Daniel, Mrs. Margaret Douglas, Mrs. Jane B. Dunn, Mrs. Anne Fisher, Miss Patricia Machin, Mrs. W. F. S. Macrae, Miss Vivian J. Mann, Mrs. Grace Mathewson, Miss Marion V. McDonald, Miss Patricia J. McGlashan, Miss E. Elizabeth Moore, Miss Mary Nutter, Mrs. Edwina Osler, Miss Isabel Robinson, Miss Anne Ropars, Mrs. Penelope Ann Sadeek, Miss Patricia Simpson, Mr. Walter H. Stairs, Mrs. Ruth Stockwell, Mr. Reginald Watts, Mr. Duncan A. Weir, Mrs. Ellen June Wernecke.
Cedar Park
- POINTE CLAIRE:** Mr. **Eric A. King**, Mrs. Florence Angell, Miss Phyllis Baird, Mrs. Jane Bernard, Mrs. Joan Berry, Miss Marion Capel, Mr. Wayne M. Clifford, Mrs. Irene Craig, Mrs. Ida A. Cregan, Miss Marguerite Eaton, Mrs. June C. Fraser, Miss Catharine Gurd, Miss Sheila M. Hunt, Miss Donna E. Hutton, Mrs. Frieda Mason, Mrs. Luena Mabe, Miss Sherran MacCallum, Miss Kristine L. Pitcher, Mrs. Eileen Richardson, Mrs. Evelyn Rose, Miss Linda Ross, Mr. Herbert H. Steiche, Miss Barbara Strom, Mrs. Dorothy Taylor, Miss Barbara Todd, Mrs. Marilyn Waugh, Mrs. Irene West, Miss Norma Williston, Mrs. Beverly Wyatt.
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- POINTE CLAIRE:** Mr. **Knute Bjorndahl Sorensen**, Miss Elinor Rosalie Allen, Mrs. Patricia Baird, Miss Mary Ellen Blevins, Miss Winona Inez Brooks, Miss Marilyn C. Cameron, Miss Joan Cox, Miss Sheila Currie, Mrs. Barbara Dick, Miss Mary Dodds, Mrs. Marjorie M. Finlayson, Mrs. Iris Gordon, Mrs. Hilda Kathleen Green, Mrs. Grace Hanson, Mrs. Gillian Ann Lawton, Mr. Daniel Lesar, Miss Glenna McDonald, Miss Marina A. Moshonas, Mrs. Elizabeth Myers, Mr. Frank Ambrose Page, Mrs. Alice M. Rogers, Mr. Eric H. Rumsby, Mrs. Ann L. Sanders, Mr. Rubin Sirkis, Mr. Alexander F. Spence, Miss Geraldine Stairs, Mr. E. Ralph Start, Miss Jean A. Straight, Mrs. Estelle Bell Walsh, Miss Norma E. Weitz, Mr. Michael Wills.
Northview
- POINTE CLAIRE:** Mr. **Keith L. Farquharson**, Mrs. Juliette S. Bartolini, Miss Margaret L. Brewer, Mr. Robert O. Brewer, Mr. Darrell Davis, Mrs. Jennie E. Davis, Mrs. Blazena Farra, Miss Wanda P. Henderson, Mrs. Edith Herring, Miss Katherine J. Knight, Miss Shirley M. Layton, Mr. Allan MacArthur, Mr. Donald E. Maddison, Miss Geraldine L. C. Mahoney, Miss Lois E. McLellan, Mr. Russell A. Norman, Mrs. Dorothy M. C. Pawlett, Miss Ellen C. Stewart, Mrs. Elizabeth L. Watters.
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- POINTE CLAIRE:** Mr. **Edgar W. Caron**, Mrs. Shirley-Anne Bastien, Mr. James R. Bonnell, Mr. John Burnside, Mr. H. Arthur Calvin, Miss Lynda Darling, Mrs. Gloria P. Dorrance, Miss Joan Gaunce, Mr. James D. Gore, Mrs. Eileen Goring, Mrs. Gladys M. Gough, Miss Gail Grandmaison, Mrs. Jean Grant, Mrs. Sue O. Green, Mrs. Dorothy Gyton, Miss Elizabeth Henrion, Mrs. Lilly M. Hinchcliffe, Mr. John N. Hoble, Mrs. Viola Hodge, Miss Gladys Hunter, Mrs. Margaret Manson, Mrs. Doreen Morrison, Miss Florence M. Petrie, Mrs. Joan Reibmayr, Miss Lorraine Riddell, Miss Heidi M. Schmidt, Mrs. Viola G. Theroux, Mrs. Dorothy Whittaker, Miss Irma Williston, Miss Joan P. Yorke.
Valois Park School
- PORT CARTIER:** Mr. **Don B. Reicker**, Miss Norma Ferguson, Mrs. Rowena Grant, Mr. Norman Greer, Mrs. Diane Hutton, Miss Beryl Langley, Miss Pierrette LeBel, Miss Winnifred Pibus, Mr. Roger Reader.

- QUEBEC:**
Holland Miss Hazel S. Sinclair, Mr. Ronald T. Boyd, Miss Wanda Crawford, Miss Marilyn Ferguson, Miss Jean Fitzpatrick, Miss June L. Fordham Miss Elaine B. Fraser, Miss Suzanne Garneau, Mr. Reginald J. Godfrey, Mrs. Florine Goodfellow, Miss Colette Gosselin, Mrs. Margaret Hatch, Mrs. Evelyn Lower, Mrs. Mary MacIntyre, Miss Linda Martel, Mr. Douglas McCarty, Mr. Cornelius Westland, Mrs. Elizabeth Whitehead, Mrs. Florence Young.
- ROUYN:** Mr. Harry Morris, Miss Margaret Franklyn, Miss Agnes Langille, Miss Barbara Oulton, Mr. Robert Sabo, Mrs. Isobel Whitman.
- ST. BRUNO:**
Courtland Park Mr. Ralph R. Craig, Mr. Alvin E. Bethune, Mrs. Emma F. Chapman, Mrs. Ethel I. Friberg, Miss Kaija Hirvokoski, Miss Kathleen H. Howard, Miss Margaret J. Murdoch, Miss Elizabeth D. Webster.
- STE FOY:** Mr. Alexander Bayne, Miss Mary Bisson, Mrs. Cora Fontaine, Mrs. Evelyn Foster, Mr. Harry Gourley, Mrs. Madeleine Hardie, Mrs. Joan Law, Mr. Lorne Law, Miss Charlotte Moore, Miss Ruth Morrison, Mrs. Norma Murray, Mrs. Arlene Neilson, Mrs. Elsie Rockwell, Miss Blanche Stewart.
- ST. HILAIRE:**
Mountainview Mrs. Sylvia Glenwright, Miss Judith Budgeon, Mrs. A. Rachel Carswell, Miss Marguerite Flaschner, Miss Janis Guignon, Miss Judith Guignon, Miss Molly Hawryluk, Mrs. Doreen Leonard, Miss Ethel MacKenzie, Miss Annabelle McEwen, Miss Helen Pike, Mrs. Robena Rowland, Miss Norma Searle, Miss Alma Tvys.
- ST. HUBERT:**
Royal Charles Mr. Russell E. Irwin, Miss Mary E. Andrews, Mrs. Bernice Campbell, Miss Lorna E. Clark, Mr. Viesturs Kalniš, Mrs. Catharine Kelly, Mrs. Winnifred Lawrence, Mr. Frank Liebmann, Mr. Philip A. Mallory, Miss Carol E. Miller, Mrs. Cynthia Newson, Miss Donna G. Patterson, Mrs. Jane Paul, Miss Angela E. M. Peacock, Miss Elizabeth A. Sawyer.
- ST. HUBERT:**
Royal Oak Mrs. Ruth A. Matheson, Mrs. Arlie F. Lammeron, Miss Sheila D. Price, Miss Sharon A. Webb.
- ST. JOHNS:**
Dorchester Mrs. Kathleen Stewart, Mrs. Marguerite Brownrigg, Miss Gloria Emrick, Mrs. Theresa McKenzie, Miss Catherine Molony, Mrs. Wanita Upton.
- ST. LAMBERT:** Mr. R. Ronald Brigden, Mr. W. J. Leslie Anderson, Mrs. Angel Ashikian, Miss Judith Beaudreau, Mrs. Elizabeth Bishop, Miss Christina L. Brown, Mrs. Helen Bulmer, Mrs. Gwendoline Dennis, Mr. Henry Duerksen, Miss Elspeth I. Fraser, Miss Dorothea Graham, Miss Dorothy J. Harding, Miss Winona Harvey, Miss Marjorie J. Innes, Mrs. Edna James, Mrs. Eleanor Johnston, Miss Henrietta M. Kay, Mr. Wendell J. MacLean, Miss Jessie J. Malkin, Mr. Eugene E. Marks, Mrs. M. Elizabeth Merrill, Miss Mary E. J. Neate, Mrs. Marion Phelan, Miss Phyllis E. Powell, Mr. Horst Rothfels, Mrs. Freda Savage, Mrs. Betty M. Thompson, Mrs. Ann White, Mr. Robert G. White.
- ST. LAMBERT:**
Margaret Pendlebury Mrs. Grace L. Walker, Miss Wendy Board, Mrs. Jeanette Brigden, Mrs. Ethel Brown, Mrs. Pearl Harris, Mrs. Leola Sandell, Miss Norma Thompson, Mrs. Marjorie Topham, Mrs. Irene Weir.
- ST. LAMBERT:**
Victoria Park Mrs. Esther Marshall, Miss Evelyn Crozier, Mrs. Barbara Murdoch, Mrs. Lilian Osborne, Mrs. Edith Raham, Mrs. Katharine Rylander, Mrs. Betty J. Taylor, Mrs. Grace V. Thon, Miss Lila E. Winter.
- ST. PAUL'S RIVER:** Mr. Gordon Springle, Mrs. Gloria Nadeau, Mrs. Leatrice Roberts.

- STE ROSE
DE LAVAL:** Mr. John A. McKindsey, Miss Donalda J. Amos, Mrs. N. Lucy Atkinson, Miss Dorothy C. Beattie, Mrs. Dorothy C. Beecraft, Mrs. Ileana Burns, Miss Natasha Gibson, Mrs. Doreen I. Jenkinson, Miss J. Elizabeth Martin, Miss Audrey Morrison, Miss Joyce R. Nickerson, Mrs. M. Irene Oldroyd, Mr. Robert S. Seto, Mrs. Jessie Smith, Mrs. Ellen H. Stuart.
- STE THERESE:**
Eleanor McCaig Mrs. I. Aileen Bryerton, Mr. James R. Adrian, Miss Shirley Alcock, Miss Rita M. Anderson, Mrs. Jean L. Booth, Mrs. Barbara Braseau, Mr. Ronald E. Davidson, Miss D. Ellen Dennis, Mrs. Elizabeth O. Dey, Mrs. Ivy Farmer, Mrs. Hilda M. Grandison, Miss E. Ann Hodge, Miss Pauline A. Hunter, Mrs. Elizabeth A. Kunzli, Miss Marilyn P. Lawson, Mrs. Freeda L. Lenkletter, Miss Patricia Mallory, Miss Judith McMillan, Mrs. Elsie Montgomery, Mrs. Muriel M. Paradis, Mrs. Thelma G. Paterson, Mrs. Elizabeth Schermerhorn, Mrs. Esme Southwell, Mrs. Marjorie Toulson, Mrs. Beulah Tudor, Miss Marion E. Wilson.
- SENNETERRE:** Mr. Jacob L. Weimer, Mrs. Bertrand Bouchard, Miss Eileen M. Veals.
- SHAWBRIDGE:** Mrs. Gertrude Brown, Mrs. Grace Henderson, Mrs. Carol Morrison.
- SHERBROOKE:**
East Ward Mrs. Edith T. Lemire, Mrs. Grace Rich, Mrs. Elizabeth Wright.
- SHERBROOKE:**
Lawrence Miss Verna Hatch, Mrs. Olive Carter, Mrs. Mabel Clark, Mrs. Marjorie Cruickshank, Miss Marilyn Fleming, Mrs. Eva Sawyer.
- SHERBROOKE:**
Mitchell Mr. George E. McClintock, Mrs. Lois Bégin, Mrs. Ruby Berry, Mrs. Wenda Broadhurst, Miss Diana Brock, Mrs. Margaret Erskine, Mrs. Faith Guay, Mr. R. Douglas Guthrie, Mrs. Norma Harrison, Miss Frances Henson, Mrs. Irene Howes, Mrs. Irene Humphrey, Mrs. Elizabeth Kerr, Mrs. Margaret Kogler, Mrs. Louise A. Mack, Miss Jennie Mariasine, Mrs. Muriel Mayhew, Mrs. Beulah McCourt, Mrs. Mabeth McKeon, Miss Alene Morrison, Mrs. Beverley A. Noble, Miss Ardyth Painter, Mr. David Peterson, Miss Annie Riley, Miss Margaret Skinner.
- SILLERY:**
Bishop Mountain Mrs. Dorothy Langelier, Mrs. Doris Brown, Miss J. Constance Champion, Mrs. Katherine Crawford, Mr. Lauria W. Jones, Mrs. Bertha Lennon, Miss Pauline Payne, Mrs. Doris Styles, Mr. Carl Turgeon, Miss Joyce Wood.
- VAL D'OR-
BOURLAMAQUE:**
Queen Elizabeth: Mr. Ralph Turner, Mrs. Ann Alexander, Miss Evelyne Amyot, Miss Betty Avery, Miss Delamary Barker, Miss Jessie Dunn, Mrs. Ada Evans, Miss Elizabeth Frank, Mr. David K. Rivers.
- VALLEYFIELD:**
Gault Elementary Mr. Carl Glenn, Miss Edna Brooks, Mrs. Lois Garneau, Mrs. Eunice Godin, Miss Frances Hulme, Mrs. Martha MacDonald, Miss Goldie Smith, Mrs. Frances Thompson.
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BOOK REVIEWS

The Conquest of Disease by Lealon E. Martin is a readable and interesting book. The author has written an exciting and challenging story of man's everlasting conquest over disease. It is intended for adolescents, ages from twelve to fifteen years or even older.

One is struck by the large number of original and eye-catching photographs and illustrations in the book although, some pictures are included without any reference in the text.

The focus of interest is on the children who, directly or indirectly, have made a contribution to medical research and it is written in such a way that any enthusiastic, enterprising student might be encouraged to follow one or another of the healing arts as a career.

If there is any weakness at all, it is perhaps the weighting of the importance of the various health 'herocs'. But, in a short overview of hundreds of years of the history of medicine, limitations had to be made.

This book should be in every high school library. It would also be useful for teachers in the upper elementary grades who need a good source for reference on the history of medicine. Published by Longmans, Canada, 121 pages, \$3.50.

Short Cuts in Computing and Computing Devices, both by Donovan A. Johnson and William H. Glenn, are two further booklets in the series *Exploring Mathematics on Your Own*, and both would be worthwhile and inexpensive additions to a classroom or mathematics club library shelf. The short cuts are those applicable to special cases, but their algebraic justification is important and instructive in itself. Such "manipulative tricks", of course, quite often can be brought into play, once mastered, and their mastery may lead to rather careful examination of our number processes. Such checks as "casting out nines" are presented and justified. The treatment of computing devices is pleasingly historical, and introduces a number of underlying principles, with a look at binary computation. Suitable for individual reading at Grade X level or above. Published by Webster Publishing Company (Longmans, Canada), 46 and 55 pages, 95 cents and \$1.00.

The Language of Mathematics — Exercises by Frank Land, supplement to the author's wholly praiseworthy book on understanding of mathematics, sets out to be timely, while the basic volume is intended to be quite undated a generation hence. The arrangement is agreeable. The *Exercises* are the numerical applications of the surprisingly non-quantitative basic text (itself remarkably easy and fascinating mathematical reading), and most of the questions lift themselves above the average by some clever or unusual twist. The prices, the velocities and the context are 1961, and subsequent editions of the *Exercises* are anticipated when the data are obsolete, while the basic text, which deals with fundamental concepts of mathematics, can go unchanged. Attractively and inexpensively produced by John Murray. (Longmans, Canada), 64 pages, 70 cents.

Greg's Choice by Gregory Clark is a group of about fifty short stories and Mr. Clark's favourites from those that first appeared in *Weekend Magazine*. He draws upon many sources for he is a man of many interests. The stories are all very short, simple tales of ordinary people, but witty with Mr. Clark's own special brand of humour. Published by Ryerson Press, 184 pages.

The Red Serge by Harvard Steele is a collection of short stories about the Royal Canadian Mounted Police with stories that are roughly representative of the history of the R. C. M. P. The stories are exciting, the descriptions vivid and often poetic, but the characters are too often stock characters and the humour runs thin when we are habitually confronted with such nomenclature as "Constable Sinister" and "Inspector Slaughter". Mr. Steele is at his best when he tells a straight story rather than attempting to humanize his characters with humour that is too often deliberate. Graphic illustrations would enliven most chapters. Published by The Ryerson Press, 265 pages, \$4.50.

Tarka the Otter by Henry Williamson tells the life story of a male otter from his joyful youth to his tragic, yet heroic, end two years later. Even though the style is sometimes heavy and many of the British names for plants and animals will be uncommon, the Canadian nature lover will be thrilled by the otter's many escapes from his enemies, especially the hounds, and will be amused by his leisurely antics. Mr. Williamson is most at home when describing animals and their habitat for when he brings humans into the picture the results are often grotesque. Graphic illustrations by John Barber add vividness to the tale. Published by Longmans, Canada, 239 pages, \$1.00.

Building Your Home Life by Inez Wallace and Bernice McCullar is written directly to the modern teenage girl who is interested in herself and her future as a homemaker. The subject matter covers many major home economics fields: foods and nutrition, sewing and grooming, child care and home nursing. The first section is an invaluable one which discusses learning about oneself and understanding others with specific reference to family living. This book would be an excellent choice for any home economics library. Published by Longmans, Canada, 550 pages, \$5.65.

Education and the Teacher by B. J. Chandler is designed as a text for introductory courses in education at college level. It gives a comprehensive, up-to-date picture of teaching in the U.S.A. for those who are considering, or beginning, preparation for a career in education. Part I describes the history and structure of education in America; Part II deals with preparation for teaching; Part III concerns the work of the teacher; and Part IV treats matters of professionalism. There is a great mass of useful information here, and if the student can be persuaded to dig it out, he will doubtless profit by it.

Unfortunately, there are other features which would seriously affect the value of this book for use in teacher training. In the first place, there are factual mistakes: e.g. the author confuses the concepts of "class" and "caste" when talking about India; e.g. he repeatedly misspells the name of C. S. Peirce. Secondly, his command of sources is uncertain: e.g. he cites Arthur Bestor as a recent critic of education, but gives as a reference only a 1953 article in the *New Republic*, and nowhere mentions any of his books, such as *Educational Wastelands* or *The Restoration of Learning*; he cites also Dorothy Thompson, another important critic, but the sole reference he gives of hers is an article in the *Ladies Home Journal*. Thirdly, too much of the writing is loose, verbose, and often unclear. For example, the author of the book consistently uses "to author" as a verb; he appears to be another victim of educational jargon; his punctuation often fails to clarify.

Most open to criticism, however, is the author's seemingly apocalyptic view of history. He gives the impression that all of the past has been a steady and inevitable unfolding leading to the U.S.A. of 1961. His optimistic and, perhaps, uncritical belief in progress leads him to imply that the millennium has arrived in American classrooms. This sometimes induces him to make a travesty of the past (e.g. "Not many years ago, inert facts were drilled into the minds of all pupils, by equal rates and in equal quantities." p. 115) and to distort the true picture of other contemporary systems (e.g. "In Russia, intensive educational training for an intellectual and political elite group is emphasized." p. 114). All this may, as he intends, attract more young Americans into teaching, but they could find when they arrive there that they have been misled. Published by Dodd, Mead, N.Y., 403 pages, \$5.00.

The Battle of Steam, by Showell Styles, is a very comprehensive study of the growth of steam power through the ages. Written for students of secondary schools, the book is, in actual fact, a history of steam and contains only a minimal amount of physics. Commencing with the early experiments of the Greek philosopher Hiero, the author traces the progress of steam down through the ages and its continuing effect upon men's thinking. The reader sees and understands steam's ceasing to be a novelty as it becomes an actual working force harnessed by man for his own advantage; popular misconceptions concerning the contributions of men like Watt, Newcomen, and Stephenson towards the development of steam power are clarified. The author then leads the reader through the Industrial Revolution and into the Atomic Age illustrating both the effect of steam on Progress and the effect of Progress on steam. Published by Constable & Co. London, 176 pages, \$2.50.

The four volumes of **May We Recommend**, Books III to VI, of six radio plays each, represent the remainder of a series, the qualities of the Introductory Book and Books I and II having been published in the previous issue of *Educational Record*.

The plays continue to be based on high points in stories which are established material for young people. While the impression that the editors have adhered to a rigid format is strengthened by the examination of the plays in these four remaining texts, the justification of this rigidity is also clearly demonstrated.

The purpose of this series is to interest young people in certain literary works. The method of achieving this interest is the production of short, effective radio broadcasts. The selection of material and the methods suggested to assure its purposeful use are based on sound production methods.

Book V contains an eleven page script with the title "The White Company". Thirteen characters have speaking parts. There is room for sound effects, music, and studio management. May we recommend this one play as a starter for any group wishing to engage in an interesting activity. Published by Longmans, Canada. Price 60 cents per book.

Success of a Mission by Eric Koch and Vincent Tovell, with John T. Saywell, is a collection of three plays presented by C.B.C. Television during the month of December 1960. Dealing with Lord Durham and his short but historically important stay in North America as Governor of Canada, the three plays quite successfully illustrate the various problems with which he was faced both before and during his appointment. While they do not add to that which is already known about Durham nevertheless they do succeed in their mission of re-introducing him to the layman and thus liberating him from historical imprisonment; or at least confinement. It is heartily recommended that teachers of Canadian History obtain a copy of *Success of a Mission* and make it available to their students. This could only create further student interest in Canadian History. Published by Clarke, Irwin & Co., 61 pages.

Adventure Story by Terrence Rattigan is a three act play which portrays the historical Alexander of Macedon. The events and episodes of his astounding career which are represented in this play give a very complete picture of Alexander.

The author has occasionally ignored the historic order of events but such transposition does not misrepresent the important facts or what they revealed of Alexander. This book should be of particular interest to teachers of English and history of the junior high school grades. Published by Longmans, Canada, 149 pages, 90 cents.

The Wonderful World of Engineering by David Jackson is another of "The Wonderful World" series. It portrays a vivid picture of the part played by the civil engineer in many of the major engineering feats of the world such as the transforming of the Nile River into a grand irrigation system, the bridging of vast areas of water, the building of skyscrapers, and the construction of modern power dams and the great St. Lawrence Seaway. Each project is introduced by a brief historical sketch with diagrams or prints of primitive methods, followed by a statement of modern developments beautifully illustrated in both colour and black and white. A most illuminating reference book for boys and girls who want to know more about the Zuider Zee, the Suez Canal, the Panama Canal, how houses were moved when the St. Lawrence Seaway was built, and many other achievements of the civil engineer. Published by Doubleday, 91 pages (nine and one-half by twelve and one-half inches), \$3.49.

The Jungle Secret by Ingram See is the story of George Roberts, aged seventeen, who, when his father became sick, took on the job of finding out what was wrong on his father's rubber plantation in Brazil. Posing as a collector of bugs and butterflies he had many exciting adventures including a fight with a Boto and an alligator. His most difficult task was to decide whom he could trust at the plantation. A fascinating, rapid-moving, mystery story for boys and girls of eleven plus. Illustrated by John Floherty, Jr. Published by Doubleday, 141 pages, \$2.75.

Anything Could Happen by Phyllis Brett Young is a delightful story in which Mrs. Young portrays the many adventures that she, at the age of thirteen, encountered during a summer holiday at her family's cottage. Her holiday was enlivened by various situations, such as, the dog Lucy, investigated a visiting skunk, and Mrs. Young's father ran the new motor boat aground. It is a book that should be enjoyed not only by teenage girls but also by adults for whom this story is certain to bring back memories they thought never to live again. Published by Longmans, Canada, 236 pages, \$4.50.

Though, **Great Canadian Disasters**, by Frank Rasky, may, by its title, cause some apprehension in the minds of certain prospective readers, they will probably find that the book makes for very entertaining reading. The author has obviously spared no pains in gathering information concerning what he considers to be the ten greatest disasters in Canadian history. His approach is not a journalistic one, as he tends to dwell lightly on the events, themselves, stressing, rather, the actions and reactions of the people involved. As all the tragedies in the book took place in the twentieth century, the author has been able to draw extensively upon eye-witness accounts and Royal Commission reports.

It is perhaps unfortunate that some of the most dramatic and gripping stories appear near the front of the book, so that their impact tends to weaken the effect of other good stories appearing later on. Nevertheless, this book would serve well in high school libraries, for it does give the reader another view of Canada — a Canada in trouble. On the whole, one is encouraged by the results. Published by Longmans, Canada, 234 pages, \$5.50.

**MINUTES OF THE MAY 1961 MEETING OF THE
PROTESTANT COMMITTEE**

3460 McTavish Street, Montreal, Que., May 19, 1961

On which day was held the regular quarterly meeting of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Education.

Present : Mr. L. N. Buzzell, Dr. C. L. Brown, Mr. A. K. Cameron, Mr. R. J. Clark, Brig. J. A. de Lalanne, Hon. G. B. Foster, Prof. J. U. MacEwan, Dr. C. E. Manning, Dr. S. E. McDowell, Mr. K. H. Oxley, Hon. J. P. Rowat, Dr. R. H. Stevenson, Mr. T. C. Urquhart, Mr. E. T. Webster, Dr. J. S. Astbury, Mr. T. M. Dick, Mr. G. A. McArthur, Prof. D. C. Munroe, Mrs. A. Stalker, Mrs. Roswell Thomson, the Secretary and Mr. C. W. Dickson by invitation.

Apologies for absence were received from the Superintendent of Education, Mr. W. H. Bradley, Hon. W. M. Cottingham, Most Rev. John Dixon, Sen. C. B. Howard, Dr. F. C. James, Mr. J. R. Latter, Dr. Ogden Glass.

The minutes of the previous meeting were approved on the motion of the Hon. Mr. Rowat, seconded by Brig. de Lalanne.

On behalf of the Committee, the Chairman congratulated Prof. Munroe on his appointment as a member and Mr. Dickson as Assistant Secretary of the Royal Commission on Education.

The report of the Director of Protestant Education contained the following information :

(1) Twenty-two school boards have been annexed to adjacent school municipalities and at least ten more will be annexed before June 30th.

(2) Grants totalling \$38,892 were paid to secondary and graded elementary schools in April to assist in the purchase of books for school libraries. The budget item for 1961-62 is \$75,000.

(3) It is expected that grants for the transportation of pupils, the second during the present school year, will be paid before June 30th.

(4) Miss Blanche Stewart, who has been in the employ of the Department of Education since 1950, has resigned to resume teaching.

(5) The number of pupils taking each optional subject in high school grades in 1960-61 will be published in the *Educational Record*.

(6) The median salary of the 2,195 full time teachers in all schools under control that are outside the School Board of Greater Montreal is slightly over \$4,000 this year.

(7) During the fiscal year 1960-61 ending March 31st, 32 new schools, or extensions to existing buildings, were completed. The number of additional classrooms totalled 389; the number of gymnasiums is 12.

The report was received on the motion of Dr. Manning, seconded by Dr. Astbury.

It was moved by the Hon. Mr. Rowat, seconded by Mr. Cameron that Scotstown High School revert to intermediate status as of July 1st, 1961.

It was moved by Mr. Dick, seconded by the Hon. Mr. Foster that the following Sub-Committee, with power to add, be appointed to prepare a brief to the Royal Commission on Education: Mr. K. H. Oxley, Convener, Dr. J. S. Astbury, Mr. G. A. McArthur, Dr. Ogden Glass, Mrs. Roswell Thomson, Hon. J. P. Rowat, Mr. W. H. Bradley, Brig. J. A. de Lalanne, Mr. L. N. Buzzell and Dr. E. S. Giles.

The report of the Education Sub-Committee contained the following recommendations:

(1) That *The New Times and Places* (Grade IV) and *The New Days and Deeds* (Grade V) be authorized in the Canadian edition on the understanding that *Times and Places* and *Days and Deeds* in the old edition remain authorized as alternative texts and are not to be replaced until September, 1963, in classes that have sufficient copies.

(2) That the Greater Montreal Board be permitted to continue the experimental course in Physics with selected classes in Grade X in 1961-62 and in Grade XI in 1962-63.

(3) (a) That the revised syllabus submitted by the Grade XII Physics Committee be authorized. (b) That, in accordance with the recommendation of the Grade XII Physics Committee, the following statement be inserted in the Supplement to the Handbook for Teachers: "Students taking the Grade XII Physics course should normally have completed Grade XI Physics and should also have taken or be taking Trigonometry (Course 1) and Intermediate Algebra. Any students admitted to Grade XII Physics without having passed the Grade XI Physics examination should receive an additional weekly period of instruction in the subject. Suitable guidance should be given to pupils entering Grade X who are likely to need Physics to meet university or professional requirements."

(4) That Cycle III in *Latin Prose Selections* and *Latin Verse Selections* be authorized for Grade XII beginning in September, 1961.

(5) That a committee consisting of Professor Gerald Vallillee (chairman), Mr. T. H. G. Jackson, Mr. J. D. Lawley, Miss J. MacLeod and Miss M. Prew be appointed to review the Latin course of Grades VIII-XI with special reference to the Grade XI assignment.

(6) That Regulations 81, 82 and 85 of the Protestant Committee be revised to read as follows:

Regulation 81: Written examinations shall be held annually in Protestant high schools. For the conduct of the annual examinations in each school the school board shall appoint, subject to confirmation by the Department of Education, a presiding officer and, when required, additional invigilators, who shall not be teachers at that school.

Regulation 82: Examination papers in Grades X, XI and XII shall be sent only to high schools which remunerate the presiding officers and any additional invigilators required.

Regulation 85: The presiding officer shall have full authority and responsibility for the conduct of examinations in accordance with the rules for presiding officers supplied by the Department of Education.

(7) That the Department of Education be asked to review the question of departmental examinations in Grade X.

(8) That approval be given to the proposals of the Youth Protection Committee of the Montreal Council of Social Agencies concerning the second year programme of the course for institutional personnel and the award of a certificate to those who complete the course.

(9) That a committee consisting of Miss Winifred Thompson (chairman), Professor E. O. Callen, Mr. C. James, Miss D. E. King, Mr. G. O. Lee, Dr. H. D. Lead, Mr. H. R. Matthews and Miss F. Wallace be appointed to review the syllabus in Biology for Grades X and XI.

(10) That the 1961 edition of *A New Analytic Geometry* be authorized in Grade XII as an alternative to the old edition.

(11) That the Director of Protestant Education should ascertain from the Director of Education of the Greater Montreal Board what provision can be made by the Board for using the French language as the medium of instruction for French Protestant pupils, with particular reference to high school education.

(12) That a committee consisting of Mr. Henry Wright (chairman), Mr. A. D. Lennon, Professor J. U. MacEwan, Mr. G. A. McArthur, Mr. L. R. Patch, Mr. S. N. Pergau and Mr. B. N. Shaw be appointed to study the Grade XII curriculum

The report was adopted on the motion of Mr. Dick, seconded by the Hon. Mr. Rowat.

The Board of the Order of Scholastic Merit reported that the following teachers, principals and administrators have been awarded the degree of the

Order, the ceremony to be held at a joint meeting of the Board and the Provincial Association of Protestant Teachers next October :

First Degree :

- Miss Doris E. Boyd, John Grant High School, Montreal, Que.
- Mrs. M. Florence Cooke, Arundel Intermediate School, Arundel, Que.
- Mrs. Maude M. Marchmont, Lorne School, Montreal, Que.
- Mrs. Margaret C. Mayhew, Bury High School, Bury, Que.
- Miss Margaret Perowne, Rosemount High School, Montreal, Que.
- Miss Elizabeth E. Powell, New Richmond High School, New Richmond, Que.
- Miss Ruby H. Primmerman, Brownsburg High School, Brownsburg, Que.
- Mrs. Reta M. Staniforth, Cartierville School, Montreal, Que.

Second Degree :

- Miss Grace H. Campbell, Supervisor of Art, School Board of Greater Montreal, Que.
- Miss Irene W. Dombroski, Mount Royal High School, Montreal, Que.
- Mr. John E. Fisher, Shawinigan High School, Shawinigan, Que.
- Mr. F. H. J. Royal, Principal, Lachute High School, Lachute, Que.
- Mr. J. F. Stewart, Principal, Strathcona Academy, Montreal, Que.

Third Degree :

- Dr. F. K. Hanson, Institute of Education, Macdonald College, Que.
- Miss Ruth M. Low, Remedial Consultant and Helping Teacher, Pointe Claire and Beaconsfield School Board, Pointe Claire, Que.
- Miss M. P. Maybury, Principal, Ahuntsic School, Montreal, Que.

Mr. Buzzell will preside at the ceremony, Mr. McArthur will present candidates for the first degree, Dr. Glass for the second degree and Prof. Munroe for the third degree. Miss M. P. Maybury will be asked to reply for the recipients.

It was moved by Brig. de Lalanne, seconded by Prof. MacEwan and agreed that the report of the Technical Education Sub-Committee be approved.

Brig. de Lalanne stated that Prof. MacEwan had accepted the task of studying the problems of those high school graduates who are unable to proceed to university. The Hon. J. P. Rowat informed the Committee that the Protestant School Board of Greater Montreal was submitting a brief to the special Committee appointed by the Government on Technical and Vocational Training.

It was moved by Mr. McArthur, seconded by the Hon. Mr. Rowat that Regulation No. 3 of the Regulations of the Protestant Committee have the following words added :

“or any two days upon which an educational conference may be held at the request of a local teachers’ organization to the school board concerned”.

On behalf of the Sub-Committee on Central School Boards, Prof. Munroe moved, seconded by Brig. de Lalanne, that the draft legislation on the formation of regional school boards be approved and that the Chairman be requested to obtain the attitude of the Government with a view to having these proposals implemented. The motion was approved.

Mr. C. W. Dickson spoke on his studies of various regions of the Province and enlarged upon the information submitted to the Protestant Committee in the memoranda which had been presented to them. He also recommended the revision of Regulation 40 of the Regulations of the Protestant Committee. This regulation has to do with the conditions which have to be fulfilled for a school to be recognized as a high school.

The resolution of the Quebec Association of Protestant School Boards concerning the membership of the Protestant Committee was referred, on the motion of Mr. Dick, seconded by Dr. Astbury, to the Sub-Committee on the Reconstitution of the Protestant Committee.

The resolution of the Quebec Association of Protestant School Boards concerning sales tax was referred, on the motion of the Hon. Mr. Rowat, seconded by Mr. Cameron, to the newly formed Sub-Committee that will prepare a brief to the Royal Commission on Education.

The resolution of the Conseil Général des Anciens de l’Externat Ste-Croix Inc. concerning the teaching of French Protestant pupils was also referred, on the motion of Mr. Cameron, seconded by Mr. Clark, to the Sub-Committee that will prepare a brief to the Royal Commission on Education.

There being no further business the meeting then adjourned to reconvene at the call of the Chair.

E. S. GILES,
Secretary

L. N. BUZZELL
Chairman

MINUTES OF A SPECIAL MEETING OF THE PROTESTANT COMMITTEE

3460 McTavish Street, Montreal, Que., June 30, 1961

On which day was held a special meeting of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Education.

Present : Mr. L. N. Buzzell, Mr. W. H. Bradley, Dr. C. L. Brown, Mr. A. K. Cameron, Mr. R. J. Clark, Brig. J. A. de Lalanne, Hon. G. B. Foster, Dr. C. E.

Manning, Dr. S. E. McDowell, Mr. K. H. Oxley, Hon. J. P. Rowat, Dr. R. H. Stevenson, Mr. T. C. Urquhart, Mr. E. T. Webster, Dr. J. S. Astbury, Mr. T. M. Dick, Dr. Ogden Glass, Mr. G. A. McArthur, Prof. D. C. Munroe, Mrs. A. Stalker, Mrs. Roswell Thomson and the Secretary.

Apologies for absence were received from the Superintendent of Education, Hon. W. M. Cottingham, Most Rev. John Dixon, Sen. C. B. Howard, Dr. F. C. James, Mr. J. R. Latter, Prof. J. U. MacEwan.

The Chairman requested the Secretary to state the purpose of the meeting which was to determine the conditions under which secondary independent educational institutions are to be recognized by the Protestant Committee in accordance with Bill 83 (9-10 Elizabeth II, Chapter 33), Section 13(a) which reads as follows :

“The Roman Catholic or Protestant Committee, as the case may be, may recognize, on such conditions as it shall determine, an institution as an independent secondary school.”

After long discussion it was moved by Mr. Cameron, seconded by Dr. Stevenson and approved that the Executive Committee examine the conditions for recognition of these schools and report to the Protestant Committee at a special or general meeting, the date to be determined when applications for recognition are received.

There being no further business the meeting then adjourned to reconvene at the call of the Chair.

E. S. GILES
Secretary

L. N. BUZZELL
Chairman

No satisfactory substitute has yet been found for keen local interest in schools and for local pride in their efficiency. These give body and meaning to sound educational procedures; they identify the school and the community in an inimitable way. With the retention of local interest, educational progress may be slow and spotty; it is almost never temporary. Gains once made are consolidated, for they are indigenous improvements. This is the real reason that Canadian education has seldom gone to the extremes that are seen elsewhere; it is the reason, too, that we have had few ignominious retreats to make. Local interest has provided wholesome, down-to-earth, critical analysis of the experts' enthusiasms. Both factors are necessary, the enthusiasm of the theorist and the hard, practical evaluation of his suggestions.

—Dr. J. G. Althouse

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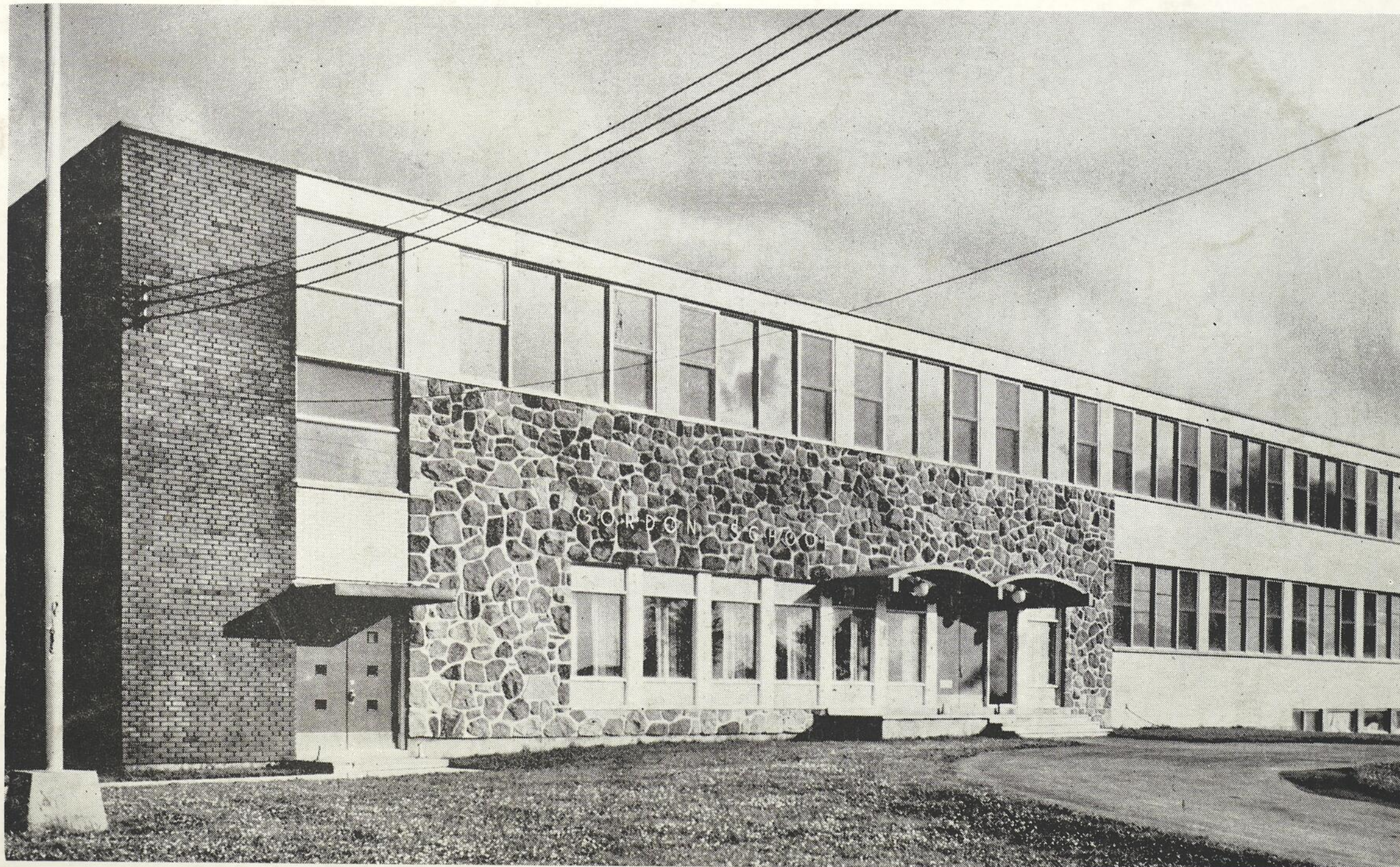
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IMPRESSIONS OF SAN MIGUEL (MEXICO)

The street crawled up from market place to town,
Cobbled and narrow, framed on either side
By doors and walls, high, blank — not open wide
To air and sun — but here and there a form
Gnarled, bent, and black-robed in a shadow's fold,
Quiescent, peered at life, a passing show ;
Deep in the sombre eyes a smouldering glow
Gave hint of burdened life, or grief, age-old.

Atop the hill, against the cloud-flecked sky,
Tall cactus candles leaped to meet the sun ;
A patient burro, laden high with hay,
A sun splashed door, a flower of deep red dye —
A child's brown face — a smile — our hearts were won.
"Buenos dias !" and we went our way !

—A. Olga Jackson



GORDON ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, LES ECORES, DUVERNAY