ANNIVERSARY ISSUE: 1881-1951

THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD

OF THE

PROVINCE OF QUEBEC

PUBLISHED
QUARTERLY

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A CHRISTMAS PAGEANT AT MACDONALD COLLEGE — 1950.

CHALLENGE

The three score years and ten the fates bestow
Are all too few to serve the eager soul
Whose every step reveals a farther goal,
Enticing on beyond the sunset's glow.
Since only striving gives the power to grow,
Each day relentlessly exacts its toll
Of laggard ones who leave unwrit life's scroll
That should the signs of effort clearly show.
The man of worth will ask no easy gain,
Nor fear to tread the paths with danger fraught;
And when life sharply wounds, will not condemn
The thrusts, but round about each burning pain
Will seek to build some precious pearl of thought,
As round the hurt the mollusk forms the gem.

James K. McLetchie,
Baron Byng High School.

THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD

January - March, 1951

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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. W. P. Percival, Editor, Department of Education, Quebec.

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Vol. LXVII *QUEBEC, JANUARY - MARCH 1951* *No. 1*

EDITORIAL

SPECIAL ANNIVERSARY ISSUE

THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD OF 1881

Anniversaries provide appropriate occasions for reminiscing and reflecting on changes that have taken place. A study of the past helps one to distinguish between those aspects of education which remain constant through the years and those which are ever changing, and thus provides a truer perspective for the future.

When the Educational Record began publication in 1881 Quebec Province was an expanding community of slightly more than 1,359,000 people, constituting almost one-third of the total population of Canada. At that time, in Quebec some 188,300 people were listed in the Dominion Census as being non-Catholic in religion. Though the three main religious denominations, Church of England, Presbyterian and Methodist, accounted for more than three-quarters of this number, more than twenty Protestant sects were listed in all.

According to the Report of the Superintendent of 1881 more than 235,000 pupils of all denominations were attending school in the Province. Children enrolled in these schools frequently were of different religions but, perhaps, 1,000 schools were under Protestant control. How many private academies, colleges and schools were also operating is a matter of conjecture. Superior Education grants were paid to nineteen academies and twenty-five model schools, exclusive of those in Montreal.

The Educational Record began as a monthly periodical of 48 pages selling at a subscription price of $1.00 per annum. A "Prospectus" printed in the first issue stated that the purpose of the new magazine was to serve "as the recognized means of communication between the Central Department of Education and the teachers of the Province, as well as a medium for the interchange of views between teachers themselves".

This purpose has remained largely unchanged. Our masthead tells that the Educational Record is "the medium through which the proceedings of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Education are communicated." In addition to the reports of examiners and of the Pension Commissioners, the high and intermediate directories and book reviews are published. The many original articles by teachers that appear in the magazine ensure ample opportunity for "interchange of views between teachers themselves".

Notable differences exist, however, between the Educational Record of 1881 and that of 1951. The early editions contained detailed reports of con-

vention proceedings and meetings of the "Teachers' Association", information which today is printed in *The Teachers' Magazine*. Articles in the early magazine were largely reprints from other publications whereas now only original contributions appear. The former practice of accepting advertisements was discontinued many years ago. Today's magazine is sent quarterly to all teachers and School Boards of Protestant schools.

The nature of the early periodical is best illustrated by examining a typical issue. With the contents of the February 1881 issue listed below, a number of excerpts are quoted. These enable readers to form some idea of the educational opinions common then and compare them with those of today.

CONTENTS OF THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD, FEBRUARY, 1881.

The Future of McGill University, Principal Dawson, 19 pages.

"Similar benefactions to that of Mr. Redpath, more especially if of such a nature as to permit the division of some of our present chairs, might enable us in like manner to open classes for women in Languages, Literature, Mathematics, Physical Science and Philosophy; and this without any of the embarrassments incidental to teaching both sexes in the same classes."

Teachers' Association, 1 page.

"The quarterly meeting of the Teachers' Association, held on January 21st in the hall of McGill Normal School, Belmont Street, was very largely attended. The President, Dr. Robins, occupied the chair. The real business of the meeting was the consideration of the recently passed Bill for the Superannuation of Teachers."

Revenue and Expenditure of the Protestant Board of School Commissioners (of Montreal), 5 pages.

"During June, 33 teachers were employed in the High and Senior Schools, 75 teachers were employed in the Common Schools (nine in number) and 5 teachers in schools subsidized by the Board...The total income for the year ended June 30, 1880 was $99,365.77."

The Study of Latin, E. W. Arthy, 4 pages.

"But I do not wish in this place to draw any comparison between the study of Latin and other subjects as educational instruments. In the great work of bringing out the varied faculties of the human mind there may be and is room for all; and there is no subject capable of being studied seriously and taught systematically, out of which there may not be forged an effective instrument for evoking and fashioning the forces of the mind on one or other of its many sides."

The Division of School Taxes, (An article featuring a letter from the Chairman of the Montreal Protestant School Board to the City of Montreal), 2 pages.

"Wherefore, we would pray Your Honorable Body to support us in an application to Parliament to amend the existing law so that all doubt on this point shall be removed, and so that parties whose property is inscribed on the neutral panel may contribute their taxes to panels No. 1 and No. 2, or to either of them as they may determine by a declaration in writing to that effect filed with the City Treasurer."

School Hygiene, W. Gardner, Professor of Medical Judisprudence and Hygiene, McGill University, 5 pages.

"An important point in the construction of girls' schools is that there shall be as few stairs as possible. It is most undesirable that school-girls in their teens at certain seasons should be subjected to the fatigue of climbing too many stairs. It is not only positively injurious in this way but it does harm by making them unwilling to go out and benefit by fresh air.

"The atmosphere of the average classroom is, in the majority of cases, very impure. Apart from its contamination by numerous breaths, it is fouled by the passage of poisonous gases through cast iron stoves, and rendered unpleasant by the absence of vapor of water, and by the charring of matters in the air of the apartment by contact with the superheated iron of the stove. All stoves, whose construction permits of direct contact of red-hot coal with iron exposed to the air of the apartment, are objectionable, as it is now clearly proved that poisonous gases, the product of combustion, may pass through red-hot cast iron."

The Examination of Teachers, a report of a Convention address by the Reverend E. I. Rexford, 4 pages.

"The testimony of those, who have been examined, is sufficient to show the bad way in which examinations are conducted:

"For example, an examination paper is given to the class some time during the morning; dinner hour arrives and the paper is not finished. The candidates are allowed to retire and finish the paper after dinner. At the hotel the candidates meet; they naturally compare notes as to the answers given, and then as to the questions that yet remain. A teacher who is present looking after the interest of his pupils explains the difficult points; these explanations soon become common property. The candidates return to the examination hall so thoroughly refreshed by their dinner, that they can revise their previous answers and finish the paper with the greatest ease."

Reviews, 4 pages.

Ilios, by Dr. Henry Schliemann; *Troy*, by S. G. W. Benjamin; *The Human Race — And Other Sermons*, late F. W. Robertson; *Some Elements of Religion*, Dr. Liddon.

Correspondence, 2 pages, featuring a letter from "Syntax" on "The Teaching of English".

"It is also a good plan to give the young a small portion of classical English prose to learn by heart, especially before they are going to compose. The ear becomes accustomed to the proper construction of sentences, and the selection of fitting verbs and epithets."

Literary Department, 2 pages.

"Those who take an interest in such matters always look forward to the able reviews of Continental Literature, given by *The Athenaeum* at the close of the year. A summary of these will be interesting."

There have been some great names in the educational system of Quebec over these years. Five in particular stand out, namely, Elson I. Rexford, Secretary of the Department of Education and of the Protestant Committee; Sampson P. Robins, Principal of the McGill Normal School; William Dawson and William G. Peterson, Principals of McGill; George W. Parmelee, Secretary of the Department of Education and of the Protestant Committee.

THE EDUCATIONAL RECORD — AN AID TO TEACHERS

The Educational Record is intended primarily to assist teachers. An examination of the titles that have appeared in issues of the past five years shows many contributions that are of direct aid in daily classroom work.

Certain articles are intended to help teachers of elementary grades; such as:

Making Arithmetic Meaningful	Elizabeth Sylvester	Jan.-Mar. 1950
Spelling in Grades II and III	Blanche Stewart	Oct.-Dec. 1949
Music Problems in Rural Schools	Ella Vibert	Jan.-Mar. 1948
Objectives in French to be Reached by the End of Grade VII	C. T. Teakle	Apr.-June 1949
Broadening Pupils Interests in the Elementary Grades	Mrs. Donald McCabe	July-Sept. 1950 Oct.-Dec. 1950
The Use of Films in the Teaching of Fractions	Mrs. Edna Cooper	Oct.-Dec. 1948

Others are directed to teachers of high school grades; such as:

Adolescents Can Write	J. A. B. McLeish	Jan. Mar. 1949
Enjoying Literature in High School	C. Wayne Hall	Apr.-June 1947
The Geography of River Valleys	Dorothy J. Seiveright	July-Sept. 1948
Canadian History in High Schools	G. F. Henderson	Apr.-June 1949
Films and Filmstrips as Aids in Teaching Geometry	W. J. Sargeant	Oct.-Dec. 1949

Typical of the many articles that help to develop the teacher's background of understanding of the educational process are those of a more general character, such as the following:

What do we Expect of Education?	R. F. Townshend	Apr.-June 1949
The Tyranny of the I. Q.	H. R. Matthews	Apr.-June 1949
Learning a Way of Life	Ruth Low	Apr.-June 1950
Education in the Kindergarten	Blanche Stewart	Jan.-Mar. 1950

The Educational Record publishes many articles of cultural and informational value of special interest to teachers. Topics related to Quebec and Canada receive special attention. The former are typified by such articles as:

The Growth and Importance of the Quebec Mining Industry	I. W. Jones	Jan.-Mar. 1950
Early Printers of Quebec	E. C. Woodley	Apr.-June 1949

Among the recent articles on aspects of Canadian life have been:

The Canadian Northland	P. D. Baird	Jan-.Mar. 1950
Challenging Canadian Teachers	Charles Clay	Apr.-June 1950
Newfoundland and Confederation	Dorothy J. Ross	July-Sept. 1949

Every school should keep in the library or office complete sets of the Educational Record. Many teachers keep their own file of back numbers of the magazine because of the many useful articles they contain. For convenience of reference, the magazine will include in future copies of the October-December issue a complete index of articles that have appeared during the year. Some schools have the four issues that appear each year bound into a single volume. Such a volume is not only convenient for reference, but the binding enhances the appearance of the magazines and ensures a longer life for the issues.

LACHUTE AGAIN TO THE FORE *

On behalf of the School Commissioners of Lachute and at their request I have great pleasure in declaring this school open. I am sure that everyone who sees this building is delighted with it, for this is one of the finest in the Province. I hope that the children and young people for whom this school has been erected will appreciate their advantages and benefit by the opportunities offered to them. I trust that this school will weld your communities more closely together and that many thousands will benefit by the foresight and unselfishness of those responsible for its construction.

The building of the new section of this school took a great deal of thought and labour. I can imagine all the bricks, wood, cement, sand and nails that have gone into its construction all piled together in a heap. Workmen had to shape the building from the materials according to a plan designed by an architect and according to specifications that fitted the plan. As it has been constructed, it is a source of pride and satisfaction to all concerned.

The Lachute High School of today is in three parts. The first, the former Lachute Academy, was built in 1892 and cost $19,968. The first addition was erected in 1933 at a cost of $50,000. This addition opened today cost over $550,000 and consists of eleven classrooms, assembly hall-gymnasium, library, board office, principal's office, commercial room, cafeteria, household science room, biology laboratory, visual education room, physics and chemistry laboratory, industrial arts room, additional playrooms, and locker rooms with showers, etc.

This school takes the place of many schools that were opened in this district previously. It also accommodates pupils in the High School grades who could not have secured High School education without it. To them it should be the greatest of blessings.

Your school commissioners had no easy task in visualizing all the details that went into every part of the structure so that everything would turn out as they wanted. To them I present your thanks and mine for all that they have done. They can sleep well at night now knowing that their task is completed and that they have the satisfaction that comes to those who have done a job to the best of their ability.

This is your building. The taxpayers of Lachute have undertaken to finance part of the cost. The Government of the Province has generously assisted with a liberal grant. The people of a wider community have banded together for its maintenance. Lachute and the surrounding districts now have the school facilities that they have needed and wanted for many years.

The opening of a school is a time for stock-taking. Let us make an assessment and see what we are trying to do in our schools. What are the purposes of a school? What effect does school have upon the children? Are schools today as good as they used to be?

The main purposes of the modern school are manifold. Chief among them are:

* Address delivered at the opening of the extension to the Lachute High School on November 3, 1950.

1. To assist a child to become more mature than he would be without school, to help him meet his moral and spiritual needs, to aid him in being a better companion and a more sociable person.

2. To teach him desirable habits and disciplines — in particular, to help him to be a clear and a clean thinker.

3. To enable him to produce a better output than he would do otherwise.

4. To prepare him to make a better living than he would do without a sound education.

5. To benefit the community.

For these purposes children must be provided with good conditions for learning. They must be able to develop themselves, with suitable help, according to their tastes and abilities. In order to do this, they must have certain options open to them in school and not be compelled to follow a curriculum that is fixed and rigid for all.

A school must therefore offer:

1. Suitable teaching, suitable teachers, and suitable companions.
2. Multiple curricula, suited to differing abilities.
3. Facilities for all round development.

A school thus required not only adequate classrooms, but also sufficient space in which to conduct enterprises and to make things in the junior grades, and for laboratory and other experimental work in the senior grades.

Large classrooms with moveable desks are therefore needed so that children can move about somewhat freely, be by themselves at times, work with other pupils in small groups on occasion, as well as being with the class in regular session. A classroom library is a necessity so that the child can select books at will. A central library is indispensable where a child can browse as he has opportunity.

We have gone a long way in education in recent years. As recently as two decades ago the majority of people doubtless thought that the sole purpose of the school was to teach Reading, Writing and Arithmetic. In fact I hear it stated rather frequently that the chief function of a school is for children to learn, to study these same three R's, and do it in classrooms that are just large enough to allow the pupils sufficient room to be seated comfortably. There is just enough truth in this statement to warrant attention being paid to it. It is still potent enough to raise a cheer from most audiences.

These sentiments, however, represent only a part of the function of the school of today. The full aim of the school is not merely a functioning one so that children can learn there to read, write and make simple calculations. The real purpose of a school is to develop the child in all his aspects, so as to enable him to be healthy, well disciplined, resourceful, wide awake, highly cultured, and possessing all the moral and social attributes of a highly developed human being. Only by this means are we going to be able to live in peace in this narrowing world. Only by the development in our people of right social qualities will our democracy survive. Only by making people understand that tyranny, oppression, wrong doing and the committing of atrocities will result in the destruction of mankind and the end of the human race can we hope for peace and survival *possibly within this generation.* This is the importance of schooling. This

is why we want good schools, good facilities and the wisest and longest headed men and women we can get to teach and manage our school systems.

It is for these reasons that we need facilities of all kinds in our schools, not only rooms in which children can be taught the fundamental tools of learning, but also rooms where they can gather together, talk together and play together. This is why we want many rooms in which pupils of different types of mind and differing abilities can meet together and work together. This is why we need large playgrounds outside and large assembly halls and gymnasiums indoors. We need the assembly hall where men and women of the highest type of mind can address our children and expound to them the meaning and purposes of life, and inspire them with the desire to do good and to be good. We need the gymnasium where groups of children can play together and exercise together both with the teacher, and independently of the teacher. By means of games children often learn best how to work together and play together. Through play they learn not only the lessons of cooperation but also those of self sacrifice. They learn, perhaps through defeat, that effort must be made, that play must be clean, that one must never try to take unfair advantages and that the rules of the game must be followed implicitly.

In the small school where the child has few colleagues of his own age and no play facilities, he may merely be able to look at the cattle in the adjoining field, or swing on the gate. How much better it is to learn to play in good surroundings according to the specifications named than to be so idle!

Many people, particularly those brought up in isolation, are like the fabled Mary who was a continent bounded on the North, South, East and West by Mary. Though she associated with others she was not influenced by any. She lived with Mary. She did not see the need for improvement because Mary seemed good enough for her. The world will never be improved by that type of person. The person who makes his mark in the world is not self centred but devotes his life to great thoughts, altruistic purposes and noble undertakings. This school has been erected in order to develop the minds of young people so that their thoughts will be expansive, their purposes unselfish, and their undertakings for the good of the whole.

Lachute is the centre of a large central school board. One of the prime reasons for the extension of this school is to make it a useful centre not only for Lachute but also for the surrounding districts, as well as to make it serve Lachute better. Argenteuil-Two Mountains is one of our best central school board units for it is working very successfully. Let us look at some of the things it is doing:

1. It is bringing many pupils to Lachute every day in convenience and comfort and on time to a large central High School. For this purpose a large fleet of six board-owned motor buses, twenty-nine privately-owned school buses, and eleven board-owned snowmobiles are ready for daily operation as needed.

2. These children from an area of perhaps a hundred square miles are brought to the centres of Lachute and Brownsburg. Here pupils from the surrounding country are able to attend the high school grades on the same terms as children from Lachute itself.

3. By reason of this central school the barriers — social and otherwise — between the various communities are broken down. Long existing cleavages between the various communities no longer exist or are not so wide as formerly. Pupils from over this wide area form part of this school. It is their school.

4. For the first time in the history of this school it is offering ample facilities for all who wish to come, and is providing a sufficient number of rooms and pupils to allow the optional subjects in the high school grades to be taught effectively and economically.

The high schools outside of the large cities should be no less serviceable than those within the cities. The tendency today is for people to live outside of big cities. But men and women with families will not live where they do not have adequate school facilities. They insist that they will maintain homes only where their children can receive the benefits of complete education. This school offers all the advantages desired.

In the old days in Lachute the school, of course, was heated by wood. It would take a lot of wood to heat the present spacious building, and a lot of men to feed the fires to have the thermometer read 68 degrees at 9:00 every morning. People today complain of taxes. In the early days in Lachute they not only paid taxes but the proprietors also worked for the school. They cut wood and had to have it corded at the school house door by April 1st "or be deprived of their privileges in the school". So as to ensure an equitable proportion being received from all there was appointed "an inspector of the wood". In spite of this, some schools were closed for want of fuel, "and that too in a district abundantly supplied with wood". Let all who object to the payment of taxes and who think the school of the past was better than the school of the present think on these differences.

There is one person I should like to see here tonight and, if he were, I should like to be in the position to watch his eyes as he opened them wide to contrast his school with this one. If he were here, he would see some of the fruits of his labour. This of course is not possible, but I should on this occasion like to revive the memory of the first schoolmaster of Lachute, John D. Ely, who was appointed in 1816. He kept school Monday through Friday and Saturday mornings for twelve months in the year except that he was given two weeks holiday in May and two weeks in November.

We grow so used to things as they are that we seldom make comparison by means of a backward look. Yet the backward look places the present in its true light. In spite of all that is alleged against schoolmen, the fact is that they have made tremendous advances during the past century for the betterment of the world. One of the outstanding features of school life of today is the very satisfactory relationship between teacher and pupil, which has resulted in both liking school better. If businessmen could say that they had improved their moral and personal relations with their associates as well as Canadian teachers have with their pupils we should hear less of labour disputes. If statesmen and legislators all over the world had improved their procedures as greatly as schoolmen have done theirs, this would be a safer world in which to live and we should not have as great fears for the destruction of mankind as we have today. A hundred or more years ago the treatment of pupils in many schools was often

very unkind — canings, whippings and blows on the head of pupils being every-day occurrences. Then the schools were destitute of equipment, furniture was rude and primitive, the textbooks consisted of a few testaments and a text-book or two which had to be passed around the class. Many rural teachers could scarcely read or write, and the long words in readers were often skipped because they were unpronounceable by either teacher or pupil. It is small wonder that children then went unwillingly to school. For present conditions many people must be thanked, especially our school board members and the public themselves, who have demanded and supported better conditions.

More and more pupils are lengthening their school careers in our Protestant schools. They are now staying in school from one to four or five years longer than they did ten or twenty years ago. The facilities provided for them are much better than they were even a decade ago. Our Province is becoming richer by reason of the sacrifices they make to improve the schools, for young people are making themselves more proficient than they formerly did. As they grow older such persons are better equipped to play a leading part in Canadian life.

Half a century ago High School graduates were comparatively few and university graduates were rare. In fact it was not until sixty-two years ago that the first women graduated from McGill University. Today most children who enter a High School like Lachute High School stand a fair chance of graduating, whether they be boys or girls. A fair percentage will obtain university degrees. Fifty years hence the standard of education will be much higher still and those children of normal ability who do not complete High School will be few indeed, and will be handicapped accordingly.

Before this school could be enlarged much discussion necessarily took place. It was essential that the citizens of Lachute should understand the need of such a large addition to the existing building and that they should appreciate its purposes. To bring this about, good leadership was essential. You have had such leadership both from the members of your local Boards and from the Central Board as well as from other friends of education.

I know that there has been much misunderstanding and much division of opinion here over educational matters. This is entirely natural and exactly what we would have. The same situation arises over the same cause in other communities also. That is democracy. People have different points of view and, in a free country, they must have the privilege of expression. That is democracy at its best. What we must avoid at all costs, however, is selfishness, bitterness, envy, distortion of fact and injustice to anyone. Such emotions are, unfortunately, too common in democracy. The people who indulge in such practices may not know where they lead, but their ultimate end is the destruction of democracy itself. Let no one make any mistake. He that soweth the wind shall reap the whirlwind. It is only on the most solid foundations of truth and justice that democracy can rest and those who flout these bases, whether in a community or a nation, will inevitably wreak destruction upon their own heads. That the differences have been settled in so amicable and satisfactory a manner as to result in this very fine building must be a matter of gratification to all.

There is one more reason why we should have good schools. When our world was big, and when every nation was autonomous and self sufficient, the need for learning was not so great as it is now. In fact before the days of the telegraph, the telephone, the airplane, the tank and the atomic bomb, it was difficult for us to find out what was happening in other countries. Today, however, when the world is so small, when news travels faster than the speed of sound, when new inventions are made that throw old machinery into the discard, and when ideas flow fast and freely, we must, for the sake of self preservation, know what others are doing and thinking — so far as we can find out.

It is good to live in Canada. In these days in which Fear rules in the hearts of millions of people in many lands, it is a great satisfaction to be born in a free land, a land where one can mould his life according to his own pattern, a land in which fellow citizens try to help one another and in which governments interest themselves in their people, a land in which communities can help themselves and formulate their own mode of living and not rely entirely upon the wishes of a central government.

Our schools must increasingly become centres for teaching the meaning of democracy and of freedom. Teaching the purposes of the school is done in some other countries on a very scientific basis. Here, where it is done at all, it is often done in a haphazard manner. It is difficult even for us to define democrary, and freedom is taken for granted. In many other countries their teaching on these topics is thorough and relentless. In some I am afraid it is warped. But it is done in such a manner as to make the young believe in it, and I fear that many of their elders also follow the propaganda as though it were fact. The Western democracies are scoffed at very often for their ineffectiveness, dallying and delay. But when people have full information and when the needs become well known, as has occurred here in Lachute and in many other centres in Quebec, there arises a unanimity of which we can be proud. Schools are then erected and taxes borne in a spirit that does credit to our people. Then the teachers and friends of the young must do their part and teach the meaning of freedom.

The world today is joined in a struggle that will go on for a long time and may not end in our generation. It is a struggle bound up with propaganda that is often difficult to sift. It is a struggle on the one hand for mastery of men's minds and bodies, and on the other hand for the freedom of thought and action for which mankind has always yearned and striven. What effect will this have upon youth? What effect will it have particularly on uneducated youth that has not been trained to think clearly or to analyse soundly? In Canada we seem to be so remote from the centre of the conflict that many people pay little or no attention to it. To many of those who do think of it, the call has an appeal and a lure. It is a call to the Land of the Lotus Eaters, a land where all things always seem the same, where there is no disturbance, no need of effort. Everything will be done for you. You will profit by the efforts of others. All people will have the same, we shall share and share alike — the workers and the shirkers. There will be wealth and security for all on equal bases.

How unreal! How foreign is this to the real nature of a true man! It may be pleasant to think of reaping the reward of other people's labour, but if

one cannot put forth great effort and secure the rewards of effort, what satisfactions are there in work or even in life?

The qualities that go to the making of good citizens are many. Honesty is one of the attributes that ranks high. Sincerity is another. Fortitude, strength of character and kindliness are others. People with these characteristics cause the heart to glow, and their presence is an inspiration. Others are selfish and merciless. They despise those who work for the benefit of their fellow men and trample them under foot as they have opportunity.

A school can help to mould either of the characters I have described. To neglect this aspect of school life would be much more disastrous in the long run than a defeat in battle. If this new school is to be used for the purpose of moulding the selfish it were better for it never to have been built. If, however, real teachers and thoughtful school mates mould people into the best patterns, this school will be a beacon of light that will guide aright not only the present school boys and girls but also the generations yet to be born.

So will our democracy grow and our land be one of the earth's fairest.

W. P. PERCIVAL.

TEACHING ENGLISH COMPOSITION IN 1882

Suppose my subject to be "The Richelieu", I first have a preparatory lesson, in which I furnish all necessary information, not at the command of the children. I often do this in the form of an *object lesson*. On the following day I give each a small piece of paper, say one-fourth of a sheet of foolscap, and instruct the children to write at the top the subject, — "The Richelieu". This done, they are next told to "define it", or give a full answer to the question, "What is it?" followed by "Describe it", "Give its uses", and lastly, "Give any incidents that will illustrate what you have said". A certain time is given to each division. All write the same part at the same time, all end at the same time. A creditable, orderly production is invariably secured. I then collect, correct carefully, and return the work to be re-written in the class; again collect, correct, and return for copying on note paper in a fair hand.

It seems to me that I have begun a work that cannot fail in accomplishing much good for my children. I have secured orderly arrangement of thought — no small victory; I have overcome the dislike of the children for the work — no less an achievement; I have given myself time for a careful examination and correction of the work of every child — a thing of the greatest importance to the success of any work.

But some one is ready with this objection, "It would take too long to get a composition finished." Better, I answer, one composition well done, and properly corrected and revised in a whole term, than four a week written as they are commonly done.

Educational Record
January, 1882

THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS SEVENTY YEARS AGO

D. C. Munroe, M.A., Director of the School for Teachers, Macdonald College

When the Educational Record was founded in 1881 the McGill Normal School was completing its first quarter century. It had opened its doors in 1857 at the same time as two other similar institutions for French-speaking teachers — the Jacques Cartier Normal School in Montreal and the Laval Normal School in Quebec. All were sponsored by the Provincial Government but, unlike the others, the English-speaking school was affiliated with a university and placed under the direction of the Normal School Committee appointed by the corporation of McGill. Similar arrangements had been proposed to Laval but the university authorities there were either unable or unwilling to assume the responsibility. The action of McGill must be attributed largely to its principal, who, in later life, was known as Sir William Dawson.

Dr. Dawson had been appointed Principal of the university in 1855, and one of his last acts as Superintendent of Education in Nova Scotia had been to establish a Normal School in that province. Thus he entered upon the new enterprise with the enthusiasm of one who recognized the important contribution which the trained teacher could make to society. He discussed the new project with Egerton Ryerson, who had founded a similar institution at Toronto in 1847, consulting him both about organization and the appointment of staff. His enthusiasm was sustained and contagious for several of the governors of the university gave remarkably generous and consistent support. Dr. Dawson himself was the first principal from 1857 to 1870, while Mr. Justice Torrence, the Honorable Senator Ferrier, Dr. George Cornish and John Redpath Dougall served for many years on the Normal School Committee, attending regularly the monthly meetings and giving their time and energy generously. Under this distinguished leadership the McGill Normal School had, by 1881, contributed a great deal to the improvement of the schools of Quebec. During the first quarter century it had presented one thousand ninety-seven candidates for diplomas and when, in 1884, Principal Robbins gave a statistical report on the activities of the graduates he computed with pardonable pride that they had taught a total of three thousand four hundred and four years in the schools of the province.

In 1881 the school occupied the Belmont Street building which accommodated not only the Normal School itself but also the two Model Schools under its direction. The maintenance of the buildings was supervised by the provincial Department of Public Works, and the correspondence reveals some problems characteristic of Victorian times and others that appear to be perpetual. In a city that was expanding rapidly, the committee complained that the school was situated on a lot less than two acres in area, providing neither adequate playgrounds nor room for expansion. Repairs were frequently postponed and at times there was difficulty in compelling the janitor to perform his duties to the satisfaction of the principal. It was reported, for example, that, "the rooms were not kept in order and cleanliness required nor were the outhouses," and

that he had shown himself "quite unfit by natural disposition and advanced age for his responsible position." The correspondence shows that the provincial department was reluctant to act, probably because it was difficult to provide a pension, and it was only after two years and a fire that the incompetent janitor was discharged.

At this time the annual enrolment was approximately one hundred. Three diplomas were offered — Elementary, Model and Academy — and it was not unusual for students to remain through two or even three years of the course. Both men and women were admitted, and there appears to have been a fairly even distribution between students from Montreal and those from the rural areas of the province. The latter were required to live in approved lodgings, from which they were on no account to be absent after half past nine o'clock in the evening, and the boarding houses were inspected monthly by professors of the Normal School. Every effort was made to ensure sober and serious behaviour among the students, who were warned that, "teachers-in-training guilty of drunkenness, of frequenting taverns, of entering disorderly houses or gambling houses, or keeping company with disorderly persons, or committing any act of immorality or insubordination, shall be expelled." They were also required to attend religious instruction given by ministers of the various Protestant denominations every Thursday after four o'clock and to attend public worship in their own churches at least once every Sunday.

The entrance requirements were certainly not impressive. Before the issuance of Normal School certificates by boards of examiners in various parts of the province, a system had been established which prompted one of the examiners to comment "I have assisted in the examination of scores of them (teachers) and have never come away from one of these examinations without being sorry for the poor pupils, sorry for the teachers themselves, and sorry for the children's parents who were foolish enough to believe that their children could receive any material benefit under such a system of instruction." In 1877, without completely abolishing the various local boards, the government appointed a Central Board of Examiners and thereafter it was through this body that candidates were admitted to the Normal School. It was customary for applicants to present themselves for examination before the Principal who would recommend to the Board those whom he considered qualified. Judged by modern standards this examination was certainly not exacting. The prospectus states "Candidates for admission to the class of the first year (elementary) must be able to parse correctly a simple English sentence, must know the continents, great islands, peninsulas and mountains, the oceans, seas, large gulfs, bays, straits, lakes, rivers, and the chief political divisions and most important cities of the world; must write neatly a dictation from any school reader with no more than five percent of mistakes in Spelling, in the use of capitals, and in the division of words into syllables; and must be able to work correctly examples in the simple rules of Arithmetic and in fractions." Candidates for each of the higher diplomas must have completed successfully the work of the previous year. It is true that the matriculation requirements in the Faculty of Arts and even in professional faculties like Medicine were also far below modern standards, but before we carry our comparison too far it is probably chastening to remember that Sir

William Osler matriculated and graduated under this programme and, in 1881, had begun his distinguished career as a teacher in the Faculty of Medicine.

At this time the first two years of the Normal School course, while providing some training and experience in teaching, was almost identical with the final years of high shcool. The subjects were similar and the standards were comparable. The Academy Course, on the other hand, was the equivalent at least of first year in the Faculty of Arts. Indeed in 1885 the Arts Faculty agreed "to admit graduates of the Academy Course in the McGill Normal School to second year without further examination." This recognition coincided with the admission of women to the university and, in the years immediately following, the number of Academy students declined. When women were not accepted in other departments of the university, the Normal School offered them the only avenue of higher education and, within three years of their admission to the Faculty of Arts, Principal Robbins expressed himself as "very doubtful of the present value of the Academy Class to the Normal School now that the doors of McGill University are open to ladies." The committee acted promptly upon his advice and the Academy Class was discontinued.

The year 1881 marked the opening of a lively controversy over the Normal School curriculum. On November 18th, the Reverend E. I. Rexford, President of the Teachers' Association, gave an address on "The Normal School Curriculum and its Relation to the Work Now Required From Teachers." As a graduate of the School with twelve years experience (some of which was in the Model School), as well as by virtue of his official position in the professional association, he could speak with authority. He declared his loyalty to the school and his admiration for its past accomplishments. "Her graduates" he said "have ever been ready to defend her against attack, to recommend her as superior to all other training institutions in the Dominion, and I for one have not hesitated to say that I would rather have the training represented by some of our Academy Diplomas than that represented by some of our B.A. degrees." For some years, however, the school had been on the defensive and the graduates had begun to recognize certain defects in their training.

The criticism was four-fold. The English course (which was a curious assortment of rather loosely related subjects) was considered too narrow, the Mathematics course too extensive and difficult, the Greek course superficial, and the professional courses impractical and inadequate. Speaking of English, Mr. Rexford said: "Coming then to the Department of English I find that no English subject is taken with the Academy Class. The English course of the Normal School, therefore, closes with the Model School year. This course of study is, I believe, as follows: (1) Geography—a detailed study of the Geography of the world in all its branches; (2) History—including English History to the end of the Tudor period, Canadian History, outlines of Old Testament History; (3) English proper—including grammar as in Bullion's, with exercises in parsing and analysis, composition, writing of short essays, English Literature, including lectures on leading facts in history of language, and on lines of English writers. This, then, is the complete English course of our Normal School." The course in Geography was considered satisfactory but the History was incomplete and the English even more inadequate. Turning to his second criticism the speaker

stated "We come now to the mathematical course which stands out in striking contrast to the English. In the first place, it extends over three years, and it covers three or four times as much ground as is ever required in any reasonable school curriculum." The course in Greek was described as not on the same footing as Latin and consequently as being too superficial to serve as preparation for the teaching of this subject.

It was against the professional training, however, that the most serious criticisms were directed. The statement was made that the practical training was limited almost entirely to "what one may learn by one's own effort, in teaching a class a few hours a week during the session." To correct this situation Mr. Rexford made several interesting suggestions: "In the first place there should be, I think, a systematic arrangement by means of which the heads of the different schools in which teachers are being trained should work both in harmony with one another, and in reference to the lectures on the art of teaching by the professors. I would have a regular system of model lessons arranged to be given by the heads of the schools in the presence of the pupil teachers. The groups of teachers in circulating from school to school would come in for the whole course of model lessons. Let us suppose, for example, that the subject of English History has been taken up by the professor and that the best method of introducing the subject to a class has been pointed out. Then let the method of introducing English History to a class be illustrated by a lesson given in the presence of the pupil teachers. The pupil teachers should not merely be invited to be present by the head of the school, as if they were present merely because there was nothing else for them to do at the time, but it should be considered a very important part of their work, upon which they are to take notes, etc. In this way all the subjects of a school course should be taken up and the method of teaching them illustrated by model lessons. Then in the second year, at least, if not in the first, the pupil teachers themselves should be called upon to take up lessons upon different subjects with a class in the presence of their fellow teachers and the head of the school. The points of excellence and the defects of the lesson might afterwards be pointed out, with a view to encouragement and improvement. This work, I think, should be as imperative as any other part of the curriculum. Pupils should be required to devote time and attention to the preparation of such lessons, availing themselves of the hint obtained from the lectures on art of teaching, and from the model lessons given by the heads of the schools." It was also stated that no instruction was given in the organization of mixed or ungraded schools. Since schools of this type were very numerous in the province at that time it was suggested "that the organization and management of this most numerous class of schools ought to occupy a prominent place in the professional training given." Since Principal Hicks was not present to hear Mr. Rexford's address it was decided to postpone discussion until the next meeting of the association.

When the Normal School Committee met in December the members expressed their displeasure and the chairman, Dr. Dawson, was requested to interview Mr. Rexford "and to represent to him, as President of the Association, the inexpediency in the present circumstances of pursuing such discussions or especially as not being required by the present state of the school nor conducive

to its interests." Within a week Dr. Dawson reported that his efforts had been unavailing. In the following month the Teachers' Association presented a resolution to the corporation of the university "that in the opinion of this association the curriculum of the Normal School requires revision and that the corporation of McGill University be respectfully requested to take such steps in this direction as will, in their opinion, best promote the interests of Education in this province." Mr. Rexford was then asked to prepare a concise statement of the nature and details of the suggested revision. This was submitted in May, and in January 1883, the committee finally replied declaring, among other things, "As to the Model Schools, the committee has satisfied itself that the most careful supervision is exercised over teachers-in-training and that they do actually practice teaching in the Model Schools for a large portion of their time and further that object lessons and practical management of schools are attended to as branches of the study and practice under the professors of the Normal School.

"In this part of the work of the school little remains to be desired and, as a matter of fact, advantages for practical training in the Model Schools are enjoyed in the Normal School to a greater degree than in any similar institution known to the committee on this continent."

While the Normal School Committee expressed its confidence in the programme and management of the school, it would appear that the incident had wide repercussions. Principal Hicks resigned within a few months, Dr. S. P. Robbins was appointed to succeed him, and some rather drastic revisions were made in the curriculum during the next few years. Meanwhile, Mr. Rexford had been appointed English Secretary of the Department of Public Instruction at Quebec and we find him acting in apparent harmony with Dr. Robbins, the new Principal, even to the point of giving an annual lecture on "the relationship of the pupil teachers to the Education office".

No doubt some members of the Normal School Committee and of the Faculty were aware of certain defects in the training programme. Then, as at the present time, it was impossible to crowd academic and professional subjects into a single session and this fact is mentioned in the various minutes and reports. Principal Robbins protested that members of his staff should not be expected to teach more than twenty hours a week and it was to reduce their teaching load that he recommended the discontinuance of the Academy Course. In making this proposal, he presented the following table to show the time allotted to the various subjects:

Subject	Hours Per Week			
	Academy	Model	Elementary	Total
Art of Teaching		3	3	3
English — Grammar, Spelling, Literature, Philosophy of English, Geography, History, Logic, Old English, Penmanship	5	6	8	19
Elocution	1	2	2	4
French	5	7	8	20
Mathematics — Algebra, Geometry, Arithmetic	2	4	4	10
Classics	6	5		11
Drawing	2	2	2	4
Singing	1	2	1	3
Science	1	2	2	3
Religious Instruction	1	1	1	1
Teaching in Model School	5	3	4½	12½
Total	29	37	35½	90½

This was certainly a rigorous course and not a few of the students, women students in particular, were compelled to withdraw during each session for reasons of health. Partly to meet this problem, the Principal, in 1884, requested that the session be closed each year at the end of May. In support of this proposal he gave the following arguments "(a) because the continued strain of a ten-month session is too great for young women; (b) because the shortening of the session would, pro tanto, diminish the expense of the students from the country; (c) because the Normal School professors could hold teachers' institutes in country parts during the month of vacation in conjunction with the Protestant Secretary of the Department of Public Instruction. This would be in the interest of the Normal School as well as of Education generally." The suggestion was approved and thereafter the session extended from the first week in September to the last week of May.

Looking back across seventy years we can see many changes. The enrolment has increased, the academic standards have been raised significantly, the curriculum has been steadily improved to a point that would probably have satisfied even Mr. Rexford, and the facilities and equipment of the school have been greatly extended. In 1907 the Normal School closed its doors on Belmont Street and was transferred to Macdonald College. Sir William Macdonald who, in 1887, had found it impossible to attend the meetings of the Normal School Committee and had asked the governors of the university to appoint someone to serve in his place, now showed a deep interest in primary education. He had first considered the establishment of a boarding school to which promising rural boys and girls might be brought for training in leadership. But that plan was discarded for a better one which would use the channel of the public school to spread the knowledge and encourage the virtues upon which a progressive society must be built. In this he expected the teacher to act as a missionary and a sound programme of teacher education was essential to the success of the plan. Consequently, in the college which he built at Ste. Anne de Bellevue he placed three important departments of the university — the Normal School which became the School for Teachers, the Faculty of Agriculture, and the School of Household Science. Thus was established the first residential normal school in Canada.

In its new surroundings the School for Teachers has steadily improved the quality of teacher education. Its curriculum has frequently been revised to meet the changing needs of the schools. With the assistance and in close cooperation with the Montreal Protestant Central School Board its students have been given excellent opportunities for practice teaching and further facilities have been provided at Macdonald High School, in Brome County, and other provincial schools. Its graduates are found in almost every school in the province, as well as in many administrative and professional offices connected with Education. During most of this time the direction of the school was in the hands of Dr. Sinclair Laird who served as dean for thirty-six years. To his foresight and leadership must be attributed much of its success.

Meanwhile, Bishop's University at Lennoxville had established in 1898 a department for the training of high school teachers and, with the removal of the McGill Normal School to Macdonald College, a similar department was

opened at McGill. In later years other departments of McGill University undertook the preparation of specialist teachers in physical education, domestic science, music, and art. Thus the training of teachers for all levels of the public school system was provided through the close cooperation of the government and the two universities. Much remains to be done, but the progress of the last seventy years should serve as an inspiration to those who now seek to provide a programme of teacher education to meet the needs of today and tomorrow.

DISCIPLINE IN THE SCHOOL

Moral suasion is not the remedy for bold and defiant violations of law, if we mean by that term the persuading of the culprit to return to obedience or the purchase of his allegiance by a promised reward. Rebellion should be met by stunning, crushing blows, such as will vindicate and re-establish authority and deter others from committing the same crime. Mildness is cruelty under such circumstances. All such cases demand instant and determined action. The time for conciliation is after the rebels are subjugated and the authority of the government is restored. But moral influence and kindness should attend every act of severity; never let the sun go down upon the wrath of a chastised pupil. See him alone, bring to bear upon him every moral power, treat him now with kindness and confidence, and thus restore him to duty and favor. Without the rod moral suasion might have been powerless, or, if successful, what was gained by persuasion was lost to authority. It must never be doubtful that the master has supreme control over his little kingdom.

Educational Record,
May, 1882

Excerpts from the *Preliminary Examination* for candidates for teaching diplomas. (1881)

What part of an acre is 7/8 of a square foot?

Write all you know about the soil and productions of the Province of Quebec.

Write a short essay on the law of "imitation in children".

Find the time of sunset at Quebec on the 1st. of February.

Subtract 2/3 of 5/6 from 1½ of 4/9 and divide the result by (2/3 — 4/7) x (4/5 — 5/8).

Find the square root of 15376.248001 and the cube root of 189119224.

Similar triangles are to one another in the duplicate ratio of their homologous sides.

Explain the assertion that the wheel and axle, as well as the pulley, is a mere modification of the lever; and illustrate the statement that whatever is gained in power by the use of the simple machine is lost in time.

SCIENCE THEN AND NOW

H. G. Young, B.A., Inspector of Superior Schools, Quebec

The beginnings of the teaching of science in Quebec Protestant Schools are largely hidden in inference and conjecture. In 1881 there was nothing corresponding to our present system of Departmental Examinations and in consequence there is no way of determining the number of schools which gave some kind of instruction in this subject. Students who wished to go to university took the matriculation papers or the Associate in Arts (A. A.) examinations given by McGill University. In 1881 thirty-one candidates passed the A. A. examinations. Twenty-four of these were from Montreal; six were from other provinces, and one was from "Lachute College." Optional courses in Chemistry and Botany were being offered by the High School of Montreal and there is evidence that at least some Natural Philosophy (mostly Physics but then taken as a branch of Mathematics) was also being given while no mention was made of the number of students who took science in the examinations of that year comments found in inspectors' reports make it appear that, in the academies scattered throughout the Province, the ancient Muses still held almost undisputed sway.

A reason for this seeming early neglect of science might be sought in the scholastic background of the headmasters of academies and other officials in charge of the educational policies of the day. Apparently they were mostly men of the Cloth. One is struck by the frequency with which the title "Rev." or "Rev. Dr." appears before the names of officials both in schools and educational councils. They constituted a heavy majority among the leaders and no doubt their training had been largely classical. It is interesting, also, to note how completely the teaching of science was ignored, both in early articles appearing in the Educational Record and in papers given at P.A.P.T. Conventions. Problems in the teaching of such subjects as Latin, Greek, Reading, Spelling and Arithmetic were discussed volubly and sometimes with acerbity, but little or no attention was given to the new and controversial Natural Sciences which, elsewhere, were challenging the imagination of the thinking portion of contemporaneous society.

For in 1881 the age of scientific discovery was approaching its fullest flow. The memory of the great pioneers of Natural Philosophy was still green in the minds of men. Dalton, Berzelius, Gay Lussac, and Avagadro, the men who had lifted science out of the realm of schemers, crackpots, and lonely visionaries, had all been alive less than a short half century before. Chronologically, the young men then entering college were closer to Faraday than our freshmen are to Edison, and people whose names were to become bywords in modern Chemistry and Physics were then in mid-career. Bunsen, Kirchoff, Crookes, Mendelejeff, and others had already published accounts of discoveries, hypotheses, or techniques which, with modifications, are still valid today, and the contributions of Arrhenius and Roentgen were soon to follow. Darwin had just died and, somewhat to the consternation of the righteous, had been buried in Westminster Abbey, though for many years the world would continue to rock with the rever-

berations of the bombshell which his "Origin of Species" touched off around mid-century. Pierre Curie was a practicing French scientist and Marya, Slodowska was a girl in Poland and neither dreamt, perhaps, of the discouragements they would face, the infinite patience they would display, and the stupenduous potentialities they would uncover in their united attempt to segregate, collect and concentrate a few scattered embers from the ashes of the earth's ancient atomic fires. Across an ocean, in the great Lone Land of the Territories, Dominion geologists had already begun those sweeping exploratory traverses which would lead them at length to the shores of Great Bear Lake and the cobalt bloom where, from inconceivable antiquity, the seeds of Hiroshima's moment of unearthly brilliance lay quiescent and dispersed.

Like the spreading spurs of Canada's burgeoning young railways, the pioneer investigators were pushing deeper and deeper up the valleys and over the uplands of the scientific unknown. Close behind, sometimes abreast, or even ahead, came the engineers and the inventors drawn by the spirit of conquest or the desire for gain.

It was, perhaps, in this field of applied science and mechanics, that current changes and future possibilities were the most apparent and startling. Motor cars were an old story, of course. More than a century had passed, as a matter of fact, since that day in 1770 when Cugnot had first wheeled his unwieldy but workable contraption through the startled streets of pre-revolutionary Paris. But this was all more than half forgotten now in 1881, when the stage was once more being set for the second entrance of the horseless carriage age. In Germany, five years earlier, Otto had perfected the first efficient four-cycle natural gas engine; complete with valves, spark plugs, water jacket and all. Five years later Daimler would add a carburator to adapt it to the use of liquid fuel. Thereafter the internal combustion engine was ready for the conquest of the living habits of the world. Lielenthal, in Germany, had stolen a leaf from Leonardo da Vinci's book and was riding his gliders toward the violent destiny that was to claim so many future men of his perilous calling. Langley was working on flight dynamics, and so was Maxim, but the Wright brothers and the internal, combustion engine were still just growing up. It would be a new century that would witness the dawn of sustained level flight.

Horse-drawn street cars were common, of course, and some people were even suggesting that electricity might someday be used for motive power. However, authorities on electricity were in general agreement that technical difficulties augured ill for the future of that enterprise. It was their considered opinion that, for many a Sunday to come, suffering horseflesh would continue to convey the righteous to the churches of their choice. Even the experts did not foresee that Edison's uncanny ability to apply Faraday's theoretical discoveries would produce workable tramways within the next five years.

A. G. Bell had built his first successful telephone six years before, and his company was now applying for a Canadian charter. The Imperial Oil Company of Canada had just been incorporated, and Edison's incandescent lamp was two years old. The telegraph and trans-oceanic cables were an old story and railways in Canada were beginning a second cycle of "boom and bust". One could travel from Quebec to Montreal, by rail, in five hours. Sir John A. MacDonald

and his party were back in the saddle after their sojourn in the political wilderness following the unfortunate Pacific Scandal. Sandford Fleming had been courteously eased out of the management of the C.P.R., and the way was open for Van Horne's westward surge of steel.

Thus each year saw a whole Arabian Nights Bazaar full of Aladdin's lamps discovered and opened, and a host of docile powerful genii going cheerfully about their tremendous tasks: docile for the most part, that is; though steam boilers occasionally showed a lamentable tendency to blow up — especially when the safety valve was tied down — and the nitro-glycerine so necessary in railroad building proved to be a bit unpredictable at times. Then as now, the new machine age occasionally paused to inscribe its initials on the tender epidermis of its vulnerable creators.

Such, then, was the spirit of the year 1881.

These sweeping changes could not fail to affect the universities. In Canada, McGill University, conscious of its obligation to interpret the abiding in terms of the contemporaneous was doing whatever lay within its power, and that power was growing swiftly. In 1855 it had been supremely fortunate in obtaining as Principal, Dr. (later Sir) William Dawson, a scientist of growing international repute and a man whose character and ability were destined, in the coming half century, to influence profoundly the course of education in the province. He came to a struggling little institution of some one hundred undergraduates. In 1893, when ill health forced him to resign from his duties, here left a university already grown to greatness and fame. Between 1881 and 1893 he had seen a chain of magnificent buildings arise to house one of the best collections of pure and practical scientific equipment then existing on the North American Continent. These were the donations which have linked indissolubly such names as Macdonald, Redpath, Molson, Smith, Workman and many others, with the story of McGill. They were also a measure of the man under whose guiding hand the university had moved forth from the shadows towards its splendid destiny.

Regrettably the attention given to science in secondary schools suffered painfully by contrast. In the academies and high schools throughout the province most of the students who studied science at all were taking Botany. This was not experimental Botany, or inductive, or microscopic Botany. It was just Botany — out of a Botany book.

Prospective high school teachers, who were candidates for the Academy Diploma granted by local Boards of Examiners, had to meet slightly more exacting requirements. They had to choose between a paper in Natural Philosophy (mostly hydrostatics, mechanics and kinetics, with a smattering of static electricity), or one on Scientific Agriculture. During these years one could go to McGill Normal School to obtain a teaching diploma, but that was not compulsory. A budding teacher could pass examinations. The papers were set by the Department of Education and read by local Examining Boards, and if at first you did not succeed you could try — try another Examining Board. Many did so. About 1884 Botany became the only examination in science required for the Third Class Academy Diploma granted by Examining Boards. Teachers

licensed under these conditions were naturally ill prepared to initiate or conduct a course in experimental science.

The first definite list of authorized text books seems to have been issued in 1882 by virtue of an act to that effect passed by the Provincial Legislature. The science books named in that list were as follows:

Gray: How Plants Grow
Gray: First Lessons in Botany
Science Primers of Chemistry, Physics, Geology, etc.
Dawson: Lessons in Scientific Agriculture
Dawson: Handbook in Zoology

As one wonders about the nature and contents of the books listed above the sombre reflection arises, that if there is anything "deader" than yesterday's newspaper it is the text which has just been removed from the authorized list. Such books pass through a period when their interest value is almost non-existent and their nuisance factor almost unlimited. In consequence, when, after the passage of many years, they have acquired merit from an antiquarian point of view they are all but unobtainable. The writer of this article has had occasion to regret the fact that not one of the books mentioned above can be found in the Departmental Archives or Library. Perhaps a few copies are still in existance somewhere but they are not here. One gathers, however, from the description of Roscoe's Primer in Chemistry, at least, that no systematic study of the subject could be based upon its well-written but meagre contents.

It is interesting to note that, at this period, inspection of academies and model schools consisted entirely of examinations prepared in advance, with sufficient copies to provide a paper for every pupil. These were given during the inspector's visit and every school received identical examinations. Since such visits went on over a period of several months — and, of course, mails were operating regularly — the situation could conceivably have placed painful stresses upon the professional ethics of some of the teaching body, especially since teachers were rated and grants were determined solely upon the results obtained. No mention of any science appears among the existing copies of these examinations nor is it listed in the elaborate tabulations of results published at the end of each year. There would be little incentive, therefore, for any academy staff to institute such a course.

In 1883 the first systematized course of study was drawn up by the Department of Education and published in the Educational Record. As in the past, school boards were expected to choose one text book for each grade subject and retain it in use for a minimum of four years. Botany and Chemistry were authorized as special optional subjects but, with the exception of the Faculty of Medicine, no science was required for matriculation to McGill. Though books in experimental science were beginning to become common the authorized texts remained unchanged.

In 1884 there were 979 pupils in high schools, 1666 in academies and 1525 in model schools. In the A. A. examinations the number of candidates electing Greek far outnumbered those taking "Natural History" — presumably Botany.

Science books remained the same except that Cutter's First Book of Physiology was added to the list of authorized texts and, to the consternation of the examiners, was about to initiate a wave of popularity for this inexact science. Geology, the favourite of the universities, and the darling of amateurs during the seventies, had all but disappeared. In 1887 only twenty-three pupils took Botany, while there were thirty-nine in Chemistry and one pupil took Physics. For a system of 37,484 pupils and 1,078 teachers, the number of science students was still pitifully small.

Two new text books which were destined to increase the popularity of the exact sciences first made their appearance that year. They were Gage's Introduction to Physics and Remsen's Elements of Chemistry. The former was one of the first successful attempts to synthesize the mathematics of Natural Philosophy with the later techniques of experimental Physics. A modern student would find the sections on electricity to be almost amusingly elementary, but those on Motion, Hydrostatics, Mechanics, Heat, Sound and Optics were well written and thorough. Remsen's Elements of Chemistry which remained, with revisions, the standard text in this subject for more than a quarter of a century was one of the best high school texts in this subject available anywhere. The arrangement of topics in this little book was similar to that in use today. The style of writing was economical and matter of fact, and the instructions for performing the some two hundred illustrative experiments were informal and concise. Graphic illustrations were in the form of three dimensional engravings. They were quite suitable for the portrayal of simple apparatus but were less successful in illustrating commercial processes then in use. On the whole, this book succeeded admirably in being what it set out to be: an intelligible experimental introduction to the fundamentals of Chemistry as they were understood at that time. It could not, of course, solve pupils' spelling difficulties. Then as now examiners complained of the prevalence of such variations as "oxegen", "solvable", etc. which marked the perennially unequal struggle waged between pupils and the formidable phonics of new scientific terms.

In the A. A. Examinations of 1889, eighty-four candidates took Botany and nineteen failed, while fifteen of the forty-seven who took Chemistry were unsuccessful. The number of science candidates now outnumbered the thirty-nine who still elected Greek. Only five candidates took Physics (the examiners still called it Natural Philosophy) — and three out of the five failed. The new science subject of Physiology was catching on like wildfire, as well it might. Among the ninety-two candidates who attempted the paper there were but two failures.

The list of Authorized Text Books issued in 1891 followed the groundwork laid in 1887 for a systemized study of the Physical and Chemical Sciences. The Primers had all disappeared and regular text books were now in use. The complete list for science was as follows:

Spotton: High School Botany
Gage and Fessenden: High School Physics
Remsen: Elements of Chemistry
Cutter: Intermediate Physiology

If the groundwork had now been laid it did not necessarily follow that a revolutionary change in the established customs of the academies would immediately follow. It was natural perhaps that Physiology as a subject should continue to gain popularity out of all proportion to that accorded to the other branches of authorized science study. Apart from the cost of acquiring wall charts of rather macabre and visceral appearance — or an equally startling mannequin — school boards were spared expenses for equipment. Students were also spared the mathematics inherent in the study of Chemistry and Physics. The requirement, promulgated in 1891, that henceforth fifty per cent of the marks in Botany would be awarded on the basis of a large number of specimens collected through the year dealt that subject a lingering death blow. People still preferred to take their science from a book, or, at the worst, from a handy chart that could be hung on the wall. However, quite probably because it was the only science that some academy teachers had learned, it lingered on while Chemistry and Physics gained slowly in popularity.

In 1894 one correspondent noted with understandable cynicism that equipment purchased by one teacher was too frequently neglected and lost on the following year by a successor who regarded the whole thing as just another passing fad. Inspectors' reports in that period sometimes mentioned, "Charts for Physiology and Physics hanging ready at the blackboard". That is probably as close to the experimental method as some instructors ever approached. From time to time the Educational Record listed: "Experiments which can be performed without the use of Apparatus". This again can be regarded as an oblique commentary on current methods and equipment.

When, in 1900, the earth rolled onward into the present era of dangerous enlightenment, Physiology, as a popular science subject, was on its way out and Physiography was on its way in. In 1901, the Protestant Committee found it necessary to insert the following notice in the Memoranda for Teachers: "The Committee desires to impress upon the minds of the teachers in connection with the Science work that there is very little educational value in any Science Course which confines the chief part of the pupils' time to the text-book, and, therefore, the Committee desires to discourage the study of Botany and Chemistry in schools where the teachers find it necessary to carry on this work almost exclusively as text-book work, and to recommend that only those schools which are provided with laboratories and apparatus necessary for a thorough course in laboratory work should take up the subjects of Botany and Chemistry." In order to implement this decision the Protestant Committee offered a grant of fifty per cent of expenditure for science equipment up to a maximum grant of fifty dollars. This offer was to stand for many years, until, at last, rising costs and a new concept of the type of equipment needed were to render it obsolete.

It would be interesting, but impossible, to follow all the shifting fortunes of the different science subjects during the following nine or ten years. Physics was made an Academy I subject for a few years. Gregory and Simmons "Physics and Chemistry" texts were authorized for a while and moved from one grade to another. Sinclair's "Practical Physics" for a time replaced Gage's "Introduction". The examination of 1911 was divided into three sections to allow for the authorized books written, respectively, by Gage, Gregory and Simmons, and

Sinclair. In these books electricity, which quite rightly occupies a prominent position in modern texts, then received much less space. Current electricity began with the voltaic cell and ended with the telephone. Wireless telegraphy was ignored and the whole field of electronics was then an unknown province. The topics selected in the Course of Study usually did not include optics, sound or electricity. Though the name of the subject had changed, the work being done was very similar to the old Natural Philosophy course of earlier years.

Physical Geography (or Physiography) began in 1902 with one of Tarr's text books. Later the Davis text was substituted. This subject was very popular in the first decade of the twentieth century and many well written books were available. Remsen's "Elements of Chemistry" bade fair to rival Tennyson's Brook. From revision to revision it went its unchallenged and solitary way.

In 1911, as the Educational Record entered its fourth decade of activity the situation in science as shown by the University School Results was thus:

Total number of candidates	238	No. passed	153
Number taking Chemistry	141		119
Number taking Physics	109		102
Number taking Botany	8		4
Number taking Physiography	124		121

One or two interesting facts can be deduced from this table in comparison with the practices of earlier days. The first is that no significant increase in the total number of candidates had occurred during the previous decade. (In 1900 there were 224 candidates.) The second is that, proportionately, and actually, a much greater number of students were taking science courses than in 1901. As a corollary of the foregoing the low failure per cent in Science (except in the dying Botany course) certainly should have proved attractive to the more observant and calculating students — and the ability to observe and calculate is, of course, a highly desirable characteristic even in young scientists. In spite of the action taken by the Protestant Committee in 1901, examiners still complained bitterly of the lack of evidence of experimental work to be found in most of the papers. In Chemistry such recurring spelling variations as "proporition" (proportion) and "chorline" still provoked outbursts of cynical humour on the part of the examiner. The question of spelling had been, was, and would continue to be a dominant theme in reports on this subject. The Botany examiner continued to exhort all and sundry toward a greater interest in this valuable science "the laboratory for which lies often just beyond the doorstep or even in classroom window boxes". All and sundry continued to be profoundly disinterested. The pass per cent was much better in other science branches — a relationship which even the dullest fledgling scientist was competent to observe and comprehend.

The year 1914 is next selected for examination partly because it marks that point in history where the civilized world finally turned its back upon an era of stability, order, and certain, perhaps illusory, but respected canons of international conduct — now vanished — and entered into a wilderness of disillusionment and violence of which the end is still nowhere in sight. The youngsters who, with youth's merry irreverence, headed their Chemistry papers with "Allah

is great, he burns our feet in the sands, may he protect me", or with deeper and perhaps more unconscious irreverence, simply "J. M. J." — and, as the examiner observed, "happened to get nothing" — were, perhaps, very soon to gain first hand experience with the properties of chlorine gas or the lethal characteristics of high explosives, all taken in the grim laboratory of unrestricted warfare.

Science subjects in 1914 were Chemistry, Physics and Physical Geography. The texts in Physics had narrowed down to Mann and Twiss "Physics" and the durable Gage's "Introduction". Those other hardy perennials, Remsen's "Elements of Chemistry" and Davis' "Physical Geography" (1902 Edition), were still in the lists. The total number of candidates had increased to 347. In Physical Geography 244 observant young scientists were enrolled. No doubt many had noted that, for the past five years, the failures in this subject had not exceeded three per cent. "Principles of Botany", by Bergen and Davis, was prescribed for the benefit of those interested in that subject. Apparently a handful of students still took Botany but the authorities no longer bothered to list the exact number. Judging by the examiner's report which, curiously enough, was printed with the others, even he was beginning to lose heart.

During the intervening period between 1914 and 1921 other changes occurred which cannot be traced in detail within the limits of an article of this nature. Among the more important was the formation in 1915 of a High School Leaving Board composed of nine members and commissioned to supervise the preparation of the papers which, in fact, constituted the only leaving examinations for all the high schools. The old classification composed of Model and Academy forms gave way to the present classification into eleven grades. In 1918 Physical Geography, as taught in high schools, was demoted from its former status as a matriculation subject. The following official comment of the Protestant Committee with reference to the universities' action in this matter throws a revealing light on the whole question of the teaching of science up to that time. "For various reasons the Protestant Committee has urged the choice of Physiography, the chief one being that the equipment required for Chemistry and Botany in particular is beyond the reach of most school boards." Judging from this and other references the condition of science teaching in country high schools remained substantially the same as that to which the Protestant Committee had objected in 1901. (In 1948, after many vicissitudes, the high school Geography course was recognized as a matriculation subject by the universities concerned.)

Remsen's "Elements" was finally replaced in 1915 by Evans "Elementary Chemistry". This remained as the authorized text book (with revisions) till 1937. Between them the two Chemistry texts had bridged an interval of more than fifty years. By 1921, Merchant and Chant's Ontario High School Physics shared with Lynde's "Household Physics" the authorization for this subject. There had been a general feeling during the decade that the Physics course should be simplified. This was responsible for the relatively short-lived authorization of Lynde's book which demanded less apparatus for experimental study.

There is little evidence to show that any definite change in the teaching of science subjects took place from 1921 to 1931. No doubt the occasional new town and city high schools which were built during the interval had improved

facilities for the teaching of science. These, however, reflected the almost universal tendency to consider demonstration experiments as sufficient for the needs of a high school science course. Such schools usually possessed one good set of the required apparatus along with a single laboratory table and adequate audience space. The role of the learner had progressed through the reading and lecture phases to the audio-visual stage, but it was still a relatively passive one. The final link of pupil participation had not yet been forged.

By 1931 the number of High School Leaving candidates had risen to 940. In sciences, Chemistry, written by 694 candidates, was becoming definitely more popular than Physics (555). Physical Geography had become a comparatively minor subject and rather unfortunately was beginning to be regarded as a science which required no equipment and no very great amount of study.

Influences were now at work which were to result in profound changes in educational practices in the extra-metropolitan areas of the province. A new impetus was given to consolidation as the most practicable means for offering wider and better opportunities for secondary education to the Protestant minority scattered thinly throughout numerous parts of the province. Though other factors entered into the situation the intensification of a programme of consolidation and the consequent disappearance of a great majority of the one-room schools contributed importantly to the fact that the number of pupils writing High School Leaving examinations increased by 100 per cent between 1931 and 1950, though the number of Protestant children in the province decreased by nearly 15 per cent during the same interval of time.

With the advent of large modern secondary schools the teaching of science also underwent something approaching a revolution. Inherent in the design of these new schools were laboratories planned, not only for demonstration purposes, but for active pupil participation as well. The increased number of students and the growth of Grade XII classes made practicable for the first time in many localities the addition of a Science Specialist to the teaching staff. As a further indication of the new approach toward experimental science in high schools the practice of having one specific authorized text was abolished and syllabi were introduced in their stead. The new specialists in their laboratories were given greater liberty in planning their courses within certain prescribed limits. As invariably happens, the much to be desired Liberty brought her formidable parent, Responsibility, to live with her, and the science specialists' ready adjustment to this new situation is evidence that Democracy has come to reside in the laboratory as well.

Apart from the experimental approach, a noteworthy practice is the modern tendency to link up more closely with current research and industrial practices the work now being done in the classrooms and laboratories. The specialist, with his advanced training, has made this possible, of course, and the school motion picture projector has widened his powers in this respect. It is not unusual now to see the greater part of a class period devoted to a spirited discussion centred around the type of apparatus and methods used "down at the plant" in putting to productive use some principle currently under study. In Physics a class may spend a few minutes speculating upon the possibility of designing a projectile to attain the magic speed of 25,000 miles per hour and so break

free from the earth's gravitational field — not Buck Rogers' dynamics, but possibilities in the light of current theory and practice. The "sonic barrier" discussions are past and almost forgotten so quickly does the modern age move.

On the more theoretical level the teachings of Mendelejeff, Arrhenius, the Curies, Ramsay, Rutherford and their successors are no longer considered as something to be studied only at an advanced level. They must form an integral part of a high school science course if the student is to be brought to an intelligent awareness of the world around him; and never has the need been greater. For physical science has pushed its advance columns so far ahead of such abstract sciences as those of human relations that the possibility of total collapse is no longer to be looked upon as an unthinkably absurd conclusion. The fundamentalists of seventy years ago who conceded rather morosely that science and the scientific method were, perhaps, useful so long as they confined their activities to the improvement of material conditions, and then added with gloomy foreboding, "but we cannot see how the teaching of a little more morality and a little less science would do the world any harm" may have been right in their premonitions but were wrong in the limits which they set. Any force which so completely revolutionized the living habits of hundreds of millions of people and placed such tremendous power at human disposal was bound to infringe on the domain of the philosophers and theologians. It could deny, with scientific aloofness any responsibility for the social problems it had created but the causal relationship was there for all to see.

Perhaps the explorer in the physical sciences has an advantage inherent in his craft that his discoveries are almost always tangible or demonstrable, so that each new apex of penetration can subsequently be used as a base or point of departure for a newer venture still deeper into the unknown. In contrast it seems to be appointed to those whose task lies in the search for the encompassing imponderables that each must make his own painful way toward the City Beautiful, repeating interminably the tragic errors of innumerable precursors, his own voice lost to the multitude behind. For in things of the spirit there seems to be no unfailing tongue wherein one generation may commune with another and be completely understood and, too often, wisdom, distilled from a lifetime of thoughtful experience, goes down with the grey head that gave it sanctuary because no other mind is ready to receive and interpret, the words in which it seeks to make itself known. The scientists, too, deal in things apart from the restless compelling forces that lie behind human behaviour and had their beginnings in the primordial ooze. Within the limits of scientific practice their knowledge of what is good or evil is sufficient for their needs. Opposed to this clarity, and especially in the fields of human relations, the other perplexed sons of Eve could well wish that she had restrained her curiosity or that (the penalty having already been incurred) she had eaten freely of the fatal fruit, so that they in their turn might see more clearly the shape and nature of the immense choices which novel circumstances and changing standards continuously force upon them. The Curies, Ramsays, Rutherfords and countless followers, have done their work well. They finally found the lamp, read the rubric, and called forth into the light the stupendous presence that now — his first terrible tasks lightly performed — awaits with impartial omnipotence the

word of his tormented liberators. In his shadow the ancient miasma of implacable and fear-begotten savagery again spreads slowly across the face of the earth.

There exists of course a Text Book whose principles, enunciated and verified long ago, are still widely accepted and generally conceded but not so universally employed as a basis for common experimental practice. Its science, if applied, could tame the strength even of the Genius of Hiroshimo and make him a servant of man. Very unfortunately, however, its standards of measurement have no common factor or power with many of those in current use so that its practical introduction would involve the scrapping of a substantial segment of the machinery now operating in the field of human relations — a flat alternative which has caused more than one seeker to go forth, sorrowing, into the night. Perhaps it has been so ordained that the formulae of this science must once again emerge from the catecombs, powerful and compelling and unequivocal as in the days of long ago. Perhaps new Daltons and Faradays of the spirit may yet arise before sunset to revive the brightness of its ancient promise. But the day grows late.

This, then, is the bewildering, awesome, and withal, fascinating world into which the schools, whether by Humanities or Science, are committed to introduce tomorrow's prophets, priests and commoners. It is, and will continue to be, the school's duty and high privilege to guide and encourage youth's eternal and irrepressible optimism — the optimism which even today still counsels them to, believe that the present grey light does not betoken nightfall, but bears with it rather, the promise of coming dawn.

REPORT OF TEACHERS' CONVENTION (1881)

Mr. Lloyd, of Bergerville, stated that he had been a teacher for twenty years, and when he was first appointed the salary was $360 a year, but since then the salary had been very largely reduced, and he should like to know how a man was to keep a wife and seven children on $280 a year.

HINTS TO TEACHERS (1882)

Be not noisy. Speak distinctly and quietly, so that children will listen to hear you; do not shout, so that they must hear you whether they will or no. Even if a busy hour of work (pleasant to hear) fill the room, do not raise your voice too much; call attention by a light stroke of the bell before you speak, then speak in the midst of a profound silence. Pointers and rulers were not made for banging desks with. Teachers' feet have other purposes than stamping on the floor.

Much aid to discipline is afforded by the drill of changing rooms, by simple calisthenic exercises and by exercise songs. But this is only secured by the enforcement of prompt and exact obedience. Hence, the lightest tap of the bell should be followed by immediate and intense silence, not, however, permitted to continue long. Hence, also, the first word of each command must be so chosen and given as to suggest what is to follow; the next and finishing word of the command must be the signal for the prompt, universal, and, therefore, simultaneous execution of the command. Hence, also no second command should be given until the first has been universally and precisely obeyed.

TEACHING WITH TOWN IN 1881

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In an address to the Ottawa Literary and Scientific Society in 1891, Archibald Lampman accused Canadian education of producing only "...smart lawyers, competent physicians, and able business men." He pointed out the fact that there had been little evidence of the development of a reading public who would turn to books for enjoyment and understanding. Whatever the causes may have been, there is no indication in the text books of the period that education was designed to interest any but the natural students or those aggressive individuals whose goal was the exploitation of others. This is further confirmed by a comment in the *Educational Record* in 1895 where it was implied that a teacher could succeed only "...wherever any pupil had a point of individuality to work upon, some taste or some talent."

The first course of study for Protestant schools in Quebec was adopted in 1883. Grade I pupils were required to have a First Reader, table card, slate and slate pencil. The series of readers is not named, but it is known that Town's Readers were in use in the Eastern Townships at that time. Reading loomed as the most important subject in the school, and a footnote on the course of study sheet stated that the work which was to be done in other subjects depended entirely on the reader which the child was using rather than on the grade level. It is possible that this stipulation gave rise to the practice which is still followed in some rural areas of the province where pupils are referred to as being "in the Fourth Reader."

Town's Readers were the work of Salem Town, LL.D. A Third Reader which was used in the Gallup Hill school was published in New York in 1877 for Albert Mason by Hurd and Houghton, but it was a reprint of a text which had been copy-righted in 1861. The revised edition is a book of 287 pages. It contains a few engravings, an introductory section with a long explanation of the phonic analysis of words, and seventy selections of which fourteen are poetry.

A study of these old readers reveals at once the seriousness and grimness of educational practice in the 1880's. Apparently the child was not regarded as a youngster with legitimate interests of his own but as a miniature adult who had to be trained at an early age to speak and think as a much older person might. In modern reading texts, the majority of the stories are about animals and other children, and they are usually happy in tone. Town's Readers, on the other hand, are made up almost exclusively of adult materials of a rather morbid type. Many of the selections are dramatic tales of hardships and death and most of them are based on moral teachings which must have been intended to produce a stern and sober generation.

One of the selections in Town's Third Reader is entitled *The Mother and Her Infant.* It tells of a mother who is kneeling beside her sleeping children when "...a cold shuddering fear came over her, lest those buds of life, so fair, might be touched with sudden decay, and go back, in their brightness, to the dust. She lifted her voice in prayer, solemnly, passionately, earnestly, that the Giver of life would still spare to her those blossoms of love, over whom her soul thus yearned... As the prayer died away in the weakness of the spent spirit,

a pale, shadowy form stood behind the infant sleepers. 'I am Death,' said the specter; 'and I come for these, thy babes. I am commissioned to bear them where the perils you deprecate are unknown; where neither stain, nor dust, nor shadow, can reach the rejoicing spirit. It is only by yielding them to me you can preserve them from contamination and decay.' A wild conflict, a struggle, as of the soul parting in strong agony, shook the mother's frame; but faith, and love which hath a purer fount than that of the earthward passions, triumphed; and she yielded up her babes to the specter." It is difficult to imagine that this story would have a wholesome effect on a child.

Another story in the same reader is called *The Pet Lamb.* It is a melodramatic account of a little girl, Clarissa, who had a pet lamb which "was the gift of a deceased sister; and the little girl was now an orphan." A kindly neighbour offered her a home but "...when the old lady died, her will felt into the hands of rogues who destroyed it and succeeded in getting possession of the property." Clarissa was once more destitute but, with undying cheerfulness, she made her way through life even though she was cruelly deprived of the company of the lamb. This and other stories such as *Remarkable Self-Possession, Filial Affection, Self-Denial,* and the *Widow and Her Son* set a tone quite different from that to which children today are accustomed in their reading.

Modern reading texts have a controlled vocabulary which provides for the gradual introduction of words for which children already have concepts. The vocabulary of Town's Readers was neither graduated in difficulty nor based on familiar expressions or experiences. The child was plunged into a strange world which must have made little sense and held little interest. However, Dr. Town did his best to meet the situation. At the head of each selection a list of the more puzzling terms was given with definitions, but here again the good Doctor found it difficult to come down to the child's level and he frequently provided definitions which must have presented as much of a problem as the terms themselves. For instance, in the Second Reader the following are listed at the head of a sermon called *The Way to be Happy:*

misfortune	calamity
aware	apprise of
convenience	accomodation
cultivating	improving

This is followed by a series of warnings to the teacher who is cautioned against allowing the pupils to read *mis-fort -in* for *mis-fort-une, friens* for *friends,* and *yer-self* for *your-self.* After such preparation, the little tots lined up in their pinafores and attempted to read: "You are little aware how much the happiness of your whole life depends upon the cultivation of an affectionate and obliging disposition. If you will adopt the resolution, that you will confer favors whenever you have an opportunity, you will certainly be surrounded by ardent friends."

Apparently oral reading preceded silent work in the 1880's. Today the teacher strives to develop ability to understand the printed symbol first and then to give expression to that understanding through the medium of the voice. The approach used with Town's Readers would seem artificial today because it tended to work for elecutionary patterns in many cases, one suspects, where the pupils were too young to understand what they were trying to achieve. A note

at the foot of *The Mother and Her Infant* directs the attention of the teacher and pupils to Rule I on page 50. This rule stated: "Language of a serious and solemn character should generally be read on the low pitch, with a grave tone, and a slow movement."

However, comprehension was not overlooked. At the conclusion of each selection there was a series of questions. In contrast to those which might be used today, these were usually fact questions which could be answered directly from the text without much thought. For instance, at the end of Part I of *The Pet Lamb*, the pupil was asked, "To what did Clarissa give herself up?" If he glanced at the paragraph on which this question was based, he would read, "For a time the deserted and unfortunate girl gave herself up to the destroying influence of a melancholy spirit." This correct answer must have been supplied on many occasions by pupils who had little idea of the meaning of the words which they were repeating.

Much of this material, and, indeed, the whole approach to English in the last century, is made clearer with the realization that the nineteenth century educator was not much concerned with his pupils as persons. Both in England and the United States, the popular concept was that pupils were sent to school to learn — not to be educated in the sense which the term is now used. At present, courses are designed to give the child satisfaction while he is still in school. They are based on his supposed needs and interests and they attempt to make the ten-year-old a better boy as well as to prepare him for adult life. In contrast, the texts of the last century indicate that school was regarded as a short period during which much that might be useful later had to be crammed. The child's attitude or understanding at the moment was of little concern. If he could be forced to learn at school, all would be made clear to him later on, because he would possess the magic key of learning. This is confirmed by a note to the teacher in Town's *Speller and Definer*. The author had introduced into this book the first attempt to associate spelling with vocabulary building and he was aware of the fact that he might be ridiculed for giving too narrow a definition to the terms. "Thus," he explained, "*acuteness* is defined by *sharpness*, without specifying to what it applies, whether the sharpness of a knife, of vinegar, of pain, of perception. But, when the student reads of the acuteness of a man's perception, the acuteness of sounds, or the acuteness of the pain in his tooth, he instantly perceives the particular sense in which *acuteness*, in each case, implies sharpness." In other words, the information that acuteness means sharpness was to be stored in the child's mind long before he was ready to use the expression. The author and teacher both presumed that when the need arose years later he could tap this fountain of knowledge and build his own association of words and ideas satisfactorily.

Town's *Speller and Definer* was a remarkable book in many respects and is still a tribute to the originality of the author. Town began instruction in spelling with two-letter words. The first six for a beginner were so, go, lo, no, ho, and he. Of these, the child would find little immediate use for so, and none at all for lo and ho. Today, early experience with spelling is based on words which a child can visualize and use. By the time the child reached Lesson V, he was taught bot, cot, got, dot, hot, jot, lot, and mot. Obviously, this was intended

to train the child in initial consonants, but what will the child associate with *bot*, and if he succeeds in spelling it correctly will he not have difficulty in distinguishing it from *bought*? Little attempt was made to instruct the child by making the work meaningful or purposeful. His task was simply to learn.

It is easy to see why so many pupils became discouraged and dropped out of school at an early age. Even spelling lessons could be terrifying when they were made up of such words as the following which had to be learned with the accompanying definitions:

armipotent	powerful in arms
asseverate	to affirm positively
balneary	a bathing room
anthology	a discourse on flowers
pimento	allspice
yeoman	a common man
stannary	a tin mine
encomium	panegyric

Nor was that the worst. Dr. Town was thorough. Each word was analysed with reference to the many definitions which were to be found in the introductory pages of the text. To make certain that this method was clearly understood by all, Dr. Town printed the following model:

Teacher.	What kind of word is *bark*?
Scholar.	It is a primitive and a monosyllable.
Teacher.	What is a primitive word?
Scholar.	It is the root from which derivatives are formed.
Teacher.	What is a monosyllable?
Scholar.	It is a word of one syllable.
Teacher.	Will you spell the word by elements? (sounds)
Scholar.	B a r k (Bark)
Teacher.	Will you now complete the analysis of it?
Scholar.	B is a sub-vocal; a is a vowel or vocal, having its second elementary sound; r is a sub-vocal; k is an aspirate; and the word means the rind of a tree or to bark as a dog.

Apparently much time was spent in this type of analysis. The first forty pages of Hillard's Fourth Class Reader consisted entirely of exercises and explanations of this system of orthoepy and it stipulated that every lesson in reading should be prepared for by an exercise of this type because "...the reading is sure to be executed better if the organs of speech be brought into vigorous play by some previous exercise of this sort." This fascinating old book was also in use in the Gallup Hill school in the 1880's. It was printed in Boston in 1857 and thus antedated Town's *Speller and Definer* which was copyrighted in 1863.

The texts of 1881 seem dull and difficult in comparison with those now in use. With their insistence on drill and abstract learning, they constituted a discipline which must have discouraged many young students. However, it is possible that the generation which they served valued them for that very reason. They were not intended to be easy. In those days, learning was not for all and elementary education served both as a background for advanced work and as a severe test of ability and determination. This may be what Lampman had in mind when he accused the educational system of producing only aggressive and self-centred professionals, a select class who had trained themselves rigorously to concentrate on making their own way to success. The schools of 1951 attempt far less in terms of pure learning, but they achieve much more in balance and good living.

THE CURRICULUM OF THE NEXT HALF CENTURY

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The last half century saw many revisions in the curriculum. There is no reason to believe that changes in the next fifty years will be any less extensive. Society around us is rapidly changing and the schools must train children to adapt themselves to the world in which they must live and work. The school is being called upon to accept ever increasing responsibilities for the development of good citizens. For this purpose, the curriculum is no longer limited to traditional subjects studied in the classroom but includes all the activities and experiences of the child within the precincts of the school. Instead of a rigid prescription of material to be studied the modern curriculum sets up a broad framework for the guidance of teachers.

The Curriculum and the New School Buildings.—Have you visited one of the new schools? Have you examined the modern equipment and noticed the new facilities for pupil activity? Perhaps you are privileged to teach in one of these new schools. The Director of Protestant Education recently reported that fifteen large new school buildings were formally opened in 1950. All of these schools, as well as the large number under construction, are completely equipped with the best of modern facilities.

Recently I visited one of the new schools in the Montreal area. In addition to the regular classrooms I found there an arts and crafts room, music room, activity room, rooms for community activities, cafeteria, gymnasium-assembly hall, and an attractive teachers' room. Each classroom is a self-contained unit with adequate space for children's wraps, running water, book shelves, display boards, tool box, cupboards, movable furniture, and ample supplies for the pupils' use.

Two questions came to mind over and over again during my visit: Are these excellent facilities being used to the fullest extent? What changes will be necessary in the curriculum of the future and in the methods of teaching so that each child will gain the maximum benefit from his school environment?

There is ample evidence that those responsible for the curriculum as well as a fairly large section of the public are awake to the necessity of studying and revising the curriculum constantly in order to provide increasingly suitable education for the young. In 1948 the Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education was established "to conduct a nation-wide survey on practical education". This is a "national committee, comprising representatives from national organizations in commerce, industry, agriculture, labor, the home, and education". Over fifty organizations combined to support the study and provide the necessary funds. During 1950 the Committee published three reports entitled: "*Your Child Leaves School*", "*The Education and Training of Employees in Industry*" and "*Education for Rural Boys*".

What are some of the important conclusions from these reports? First, that the reasons for most of the school drop-outs relate to the schools. "Lack of interest, lack of ability, and unsuitability of the curriculum were the most

important".[1] Secondly, that industry considers secondary school education desirable for sixty per cent of its workers, that is, for all except those engaged in "jobs requiring only physical exertion or manual dexterity in repetitive operations".[2] But it thinks that those in this latter category need a good general education, perhaps terminating at Grade X, and quotes the report of the Harvard Committee as follows:

> "For them particularly, though for all to some extent, the whole range of the school must be general education, sports activities, provisions for health, opportunities for avocation in part-time work, quite as much as courses. These are the young people for whom experience of this kind will mean higher standards, improved health, greater self-respect, and a wider experience of life".[3]

In the third place industry considers "the greatest deficiency in young employees is in character".[4] What has our curriculum to offer which helps students to gain a sense of responsibility, of ability to think, to analyze, and to express thoughts clearly, and an occupational goal suited to their abilities and aptitudes? Fourthly, those studying educational facilities in the rural communities expect the rural elementary school to provide an "adequate basic education" and a high school programme which will meet the needs of those who "will engage in agriculture and related occupations, those who wish to enter the professions, and those who wish to migrate to urban communities."[4] Is this not enough to give educators pause for thought?

It becomes overwhelmingly evident that more and more demands are to be made on the school in the interests of the child in a changing social order. Industry and the public generally are showing a grave concern about the "kind" of *person* who graduates from the school and less about the "kind of skills" he possesses. Educators must subject the curriculum to continuous appraisal and revise it in the light of experience, giving full consideration to the child's changing needs and the various factors which reflect public opinion.

The Curriculum and the Democratic Life:—There are two concepts of the school which have been evolving slowly through the years and which will effect the curriculum greatly in the next half century: the concept of the school as an agent for teaching the democratic way of life and as an agent of social progress. Let us look at these two functions briefly.

"Democracy in education" or "education in a democracy" is still a vague idea. Some think that the first function is made clear by the phrase "equal opportunity for all", which being interpreted means that the doors of all schools be open to all. It implies that all can benefit from entering therein. Can they?

Schools have gradually opened their doors wider and wider to the children of all the people. In spite of the many vast improvement, however, the schools of the twentieth century still fall far short of meeting the needs of all. We have compulsory attendance laws and all children must attend school, but have they equal opportunity to get an education suited to their needs? All children, rich and poor, whatever their race or religion, may attend school, but does this

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1 "*Your Child Leaves School*" — Report of the Canadian Research Committee on Practical Education, February 1950.
2 "*The Education and Training of Employees in Industry*" — Report of the same Committee, March 1950.
3 "*General Education in a Free Society*" — Report of the Harvard Committee.
4 "*Education for Rural Boys*" — Report of the C.R.C.P.E. Committee, June 1950.

provide equal opportunity? Has the under-clothed or the under-nourished child equal opportunity with the privileged child? Has the slow learner equal opportunity with the bright child? If our schools are to meet the needs of a democratic people, democratic economically and socially as well as politically, they must provide a programme which will enable children to obtain an education to the fullest extent of their individual abilities. This implies that the schools must help each child to know his capabilities. The schools must also help parents to appreciate the abilities of their children in order to avoid misdirected effort.

Too often "equal opportunity for all" is interpreted as the "same opportunity for all". Tickets to a hockey game go on sale to everybody, but the opportunity to see the game is limited by the capacity of the rink and even those who get tickets do not have equality of opportunity for witnessing the game. Some may have to be satisfied with standing room. If education is to be democratic it must provide enough opportunities to meet the child's needs. Not "equal opportunity for all" but "enough opportunities for all" is the requirement.

The second function, the school as an agent of social progress, is that which Plato contemplated in "The Republic". The Greeks faced the problem of whether to educate their children according to Greek tradition or to adopt changes in the light of new ideas gained from foreign merchants. Plato expressed the idea that part of the school's task was that "of progressively bringing the ideal society into existence".

The social-educational reformers of the nineteenth century, Pestalozzi and Froebel among others, expanded the theory of the school as an "agent of social progress" and their ideas greatly affected education on this continent. In our own day John Dewey, one of the greatest educational philosophers, has exerted a powerful influence toward this end. Much thought was given to this problem during the depression years when education was constantly being mentioned as the means of solving our social and economic difficulties. The Education Act of 1944 enacted by the British Parliament envisaged the school as an agent of social reform.

If the curriculum of tomorrow is to provide opportunities for helping their pupils to learn democratic ways of life, and ways and means of improving our society, it must be revised continually and each revision must receive the most serious thought. Educators must emulate the example of "New-Fist-Hammer-Maker" the educational theorist in Harold Benjamin's *The Saber-Tooth Curriculum* who was a "doer" and "also a thinker". He was a thinker when "Then, as now, there were few lengths to which men would not go to avoid the labor and pain of thought".

The Curriculum in the Elementary School:—The curricula of the nursery school and the kindergarten provides activities intended to assist the child to care for his physical and social needs. Obtaining greater knowledge of the child's needs, of the individual differences of young children, and of methods of cooperating with parents are problems that require further study. Increased understanding of the child and fuller cooperation between the home and school will enable the teacher to plan a programme to assist the child to become adjusted

within the group and to learn to plan the various activities in which he participates as a member of the group. Here he begins to learn to take responsibility for simple duties, to obey, to cooperate, to respect the rights and privileges of others and to be tolerant; to learn, in short, all the fundamentals of good citizenship.

The curricula of the primary and elementary schools of many school systems are very complete. The verbalized objectives are most impressive, and one wonders what more can be added. These objectives have as their aim the education of an enlightened democratic citizenry.

The elementary school must provide a sound basic education for children between the ages of five or six and eleven or twelve. This sound basic education is being provided now, but it is different from that of the past and will change in the future with the changing needs of society and in the light of increased knowledge of children and how they learn.

The basic skills of reading, writing, and number are learned, not for themselves alone, but that they may be used by the child in his daily life both in and out of school. These are the fundamental skills in communication and understanding that we commonly call the three R's. The child of tomorrow will find the curriculum planned more definitely around "centres of interest" based on a study of his needs. He will find many of the artificial partitions between subjects and barriers between grades removed. Revised curricula show that this demolition has already begun. The child will find himself concerned with such topics as "The Canadian Home", "The Canadian Community", "Canada! Our Country", "The World Beyond", and such questions as "Where do we get our food?" and "Can Canada be self-sufficient?"

He will find the timetable more flexible so that relatively long periods may be spent on these topics. He will find better equipped classrooms, libraries, and other facilities. He will find an opportunity to help plan how these topics are to be studied and the information recorded. He will find opportunities to assume responsibilities, to assign tasks, to cooperate with his classmates, and to appreciate the importance of a job well done. He will find work suited to his individual ability which will enable him to develop his talents without frustration. His parents will notice that he is showing more signs of independence and initiative, that he is learning high standards of personal conduct and concern for the general welfare, that he is learning to assume social responsibility and to cooperate, and that he is discussing community needs and how to meet them.

Learning develops out of experience, and the future curriculum will provide more opportunity for varied work experiences. We have seen a beginning of this in the Enterprise Method, the increased use of museums and Art galleries, and class excursions to other places of interest. Much more emphasis will be put on travel and social contact. This was urged by the French essayist Michel de Montaigne in the sixteenth century whose view is expressed by Brubacher in the couplet,

> "How much the fool that's sent to roam
> Excels the fool that stays at home".[1]

The Curriculum in the Secondary School:—The greatest single problem facing the secondary school is the problem of individual differences. This is the problem

1 Brubacher, J. S., — "*A History of the Problems of Education*" McGraw-Hill.

of ensuring that all students will get a good, sound, basic general education up to the limit of their respective abilities. The individual differences among the pupils in our secondary schools are so many and so varied that this is a problem of almost frightening magnitude. The greatest obstacle to its solution is the attitude of many of those most deeply concerned, the pupils, the parents, and the teachers.

There is a dismaying reluctance on the part of many parents and teachers, to break with the traditional single track, college preparatory course of the secondary school. Too many seem to think that anything which is not acceptable to the university is not good enough, or is watered down. This is a regrettably false assumption. Ask yourself this question: "Which should be of more value to a nurse, geometry or household science?". Yet household science is not accepted by many of the larger training schools for nurses as an entrance requirement.

The students in a secondary school may be divided into three broad categories: (1) Those whose formal education will terminate before they have completed high school. (2) Those whose formal education will terminate on graduation. (3) Those who will continue their formal education beyond graduation from high school.

On entering high school, few students know for a certainty at what stage their formal education will end, and fewer still know what occupations they wish to enter. The curriculum must therefore be very flexible and must provide ample opportunity for transfer from one course to another without serious loss of the student's time.

Some school systems in an attempt to solve this problem of individual differences are experimenting with a core curriculum, that is, a core of certain basic subjects which provide a good general education along with a wide choice of options of equal status or "equally honourable". Other school systems are trying different plans to reach a solution of the problem of individual differences. The Modern Schools of England, the Omnibus Schools of Scotland, and the Composite High Schools in Canada are all attempts to meet the varied needs of the high school students.

The basic principle underlying these plans is a "belief that the purpose of education is to provide the nurture and the environment which will enable the child to grow aright and to grow eventually to full stature, to bring to full flowering the varying potentialities, physical, spiritual, and intellectual of which he is capable as an individual and as a member of society".[1] The future holds the answer as to whether or not these efforts will be successful.

Whatever the school organization, changes in the curriculum must provide a good general education for the pupils of each of the categories mentioned above. For those pupils who are slow learners it may be desirable that the curriculum provide a course terminating at the end of grade IX or X with suitable outlets into industry either for apprenticeship training or full-time jobs. It is the responsibility of the school to maintain contact with its drop-outs and to facilitate their return to school for further education on either a full-time or a part-time

1 *Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools*, Report of the Secondary School Examinations Council, 1941.

basis. The cooperation of industry will be of great assistance in meeting the needs of those who leave school before graduation, and every effort should be made to coordinate the educational programme of school and industry.

In our efforts to meet the needs of the slow learners and the average students we have too often forgotten the bright child. A democratic country must have wise leadership, above all else, and it is to the above average group that we must turn. How long will it be before we meet the needs of the bright child and stop this wastage of human resources?

How can the secondary school provide a better general education? One immediate need is a willingness to re-examine and evaluate the subject matter of our present curriculum, and to break with tradition and drop what is not making a full contribution toward the fulfilment of the functions of the school. Other subjects may then be enriched and new ones added.

If the secondary school is to provide opportunities for the students to learn about and practice the democratic way of life there must be many more opportunities in the curriculum for gaining experience in the ways of democracy. Many of our so-called extra-curricular activities should become an integral part of the curriculum, and some which are now barely tolerated must become fully accepted. Sports, debating societies, dramatic clubs, and similar organizations should be fitted into the regular school programme. Excursions such as visits to the United Nations Organization and to our capital city should be more frequent.

Student councils provide definite practice in democratic practice. Guidance has proved its value and should be given parity with the other aspects of the school programme. How can all this be done when the school day is already crowded? Actually we are doing much of it and perhaps that is why the curriculum appears crowded. Would better organization help? Should we lengthen the school day? In our Protestant schools, should we add another year to the high school course? Would dropping some subjects help, and if so, which ones?

The school is being called upon to assume more and more of what was formerly the function of the home. For example, sex education is one topic for which the school may soon take more responsibility. Great care must be exercised in assuming this or any other responsibility and adding it to the curriculum. The school, in such fields, should not go beyond the wishes of the community and there are still many parents who feel that sex education should be taught in the home. Perhaps the first step should be for the Home and School associations to organize a course in sex education for their members so that parents may be better informed on the ways in which this topic may be explained to children.

It is generally conceded that character education, *per se,* is ineffective. The development of good character is a by-product of many learnings. Nowhere in the school should there be an opportunity for the child to learn that anything short of his best is acceptable, his best in conduct as well as in intellectual activity. Every activity of the whole school, from learning to read to participating in the major school activities, should contribute toward teaching the child good behaviour and the abiding spiritual values. Religious teaching, our Christian heritage, helps to provide the inspiration so that the individual will desire to do right, to do his best, and thereby gain real satisfaction.

SELF-HELP IN EDUCATION

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The Educational Record began to appear at the end of the second third of the Victorian era and, during the seventy years that have since gone by, has reflected the successive phases of what amounts to an educational revolution. Yet though since 1881 educational policies and practices have changed in some ways almost beyond recognition, it need not therefore be supposed that all the educational ideas of our grandparents have become either obsolete or irrelevant. In this article I propose to consider two writers who were at the height of their influence in the early eighties, one still well known, the other almost forgotten. A comparative study of their educational opinions may help to place in a truer perspective some of the problems of our own day.

Herbert Spencer (1820-1903) was a slightly younger contemporary of Samuel Smiles (1812-1904). Smiles had completed *Self-Help*, where his social gospel is fully presented, some years before he found a publisher for it in 1859. Spencer's *Education — Intellectual, Moral, and Physical* first appeared in book form in 1861. Though many of his opinions can be traced to Locke and Rousseau, Spencer assumes the pose of a daring innovator. Dr. Smiles, on the other hand, bases his advice on current practices and accepted truths. His books were enormously popular, and their popularity provides a fair gauge of what educational ideas were generally acceptable to the reading public of that period. How far, if at all, did these popular ideas differ from the views advanced by the reformer? This is a question of more than antiquarian interest, for we are prone to attribute the educational reforms carried out during the last three generations along the lines of Spencer's proposals to a fundamental reconstruction of our educational goals. If we are wrong in so regarding them, a different orientation may be necessary towards some of our most cherished practices.

The function of education, according to Spencer, is to prepare us for complete living. So too for Dr. Smiles education "should fit men for actual life and enable them to understand and take part in the daily business of common men." Spencer, who has been closely followed by subsequent formulators of "cardinal principles," specified five leading kinds of activities which constitute human life, and for each of these five areas he required definite provision to be made in the education of the young. What Smiles has to say on the objectives of education can conveniently be outlined under the same five heads.

(1) *Direct Self-Preservation.* Under this head Spencer placed physical education, the provision of a healthful environment, and instruction in hygiene, including physiology. His advice still sounds very sensible, but it would be wrong to suppose that in placing health among the major objectives of education he was doing something new. Most writers on education since Pythagoras have done the same thing, and in early Victorian days hygiene was receiving more conscious attention than ever before. Though Smiles soon abandoned his profession for a business career, he held an Edinburgh degree in medicine and started out as a country doctor. His first book, *Physical Education*, written

in 1836 when he was twenty-four, discusses such topics as nursing, ventilation, cleanliness, exercise and mental hygiene. It attacks the practice of cramming the youthful mind with unnecessary knowledge and recognizes the value of music, particularly of singing, for mental health. For fifty years and more Smiles kept recurring to the theme of his earliest work, and what Spencer says in 1861 about the need of education for health does not essentially differ from what Smiles had been saying since 1836.

(2) *Indirect Self-Preservation.* By this Spencer meant earning a living. While everyone admits the value of knowledge for this purpose, Spencer denounces the schools of his day for omitting to impart it and calls for the introduction of technical and vocational training into the regular curriculum. Vocational training is in a sense Dr. Smiles' primary interest. In *Self-Help* he presents biographical sketches of men who have achieved eminence in various callings and seeks to account for their success. The great figures of the Industrial Revolution are paraded before us one after the other, and something is said about the way in which each of them prepared himself for his triumphant career. Most of these men owed little or nothing to any formal education; their job was their school. In the earliest period of industrialism it could hardly have been otherwise, but though Smiles himself belonged to a later generation, which had inherited a considerable body of technological knowledge, he is not particularly concerned about the failure of the schools to offer organized instruction in this field. Differing conspicuously from Spencer, he advocates the introduction of manual training into the curriculum not so much as a preparation for a specific trade as because of its disciplinary value. For the children of the poor such opportunities did not have to be provided by the school; from work there was for them no escape. But it is this very necessity of working for their living that, according to Dr. Smiles, brings within their reach the best education of all. Working at a trade may awaken intellectual curiosity as with Hugh Miller, the stone-mason geologist. It may, as with Watt, the inventor of the steam-engine, provide a man with the tools and materials for experimenting. It can often, as with the many great sculptors and painters who have started as ordinary craftsmen, reveal native aptitudes and stimulate the development of artistic talent. Commercial life too is an education in itself. A man who succeeds in business has learned to be prompt in emergencies, to organize the labours of others, to acquire a mastery of detail, and to develop great strength of character. Such was the practical education that had made possible the vast industrial expansion of Victorian England. As time went on it would inevitably have to be supplemented by more formal instruction, but though success at a vocation was seen to require much specialized education, Dr. Smiles and most of the industrialists of his day had no desire to impose upon those not yet employed in industry the specialized training that their future vocation would itself supply.

(3) *The Rearing and Discipline of Offspring.* "Not one word of instruction on the treatment of offspring," says Spencer, indulging in a pardonable hyperbole, "is ever given to those who will hereafter be parents." Dr. Smiles, like Spencer, believed that the education of the young should include specific preparation for family living. In *Character* (1871) he urges that, instead of "the fleeting accomplishments on which so much time is now wasted", girls should acquire at school

such knowledge as will make them efficient housekeepers. He devotes a chapter of the same book to "Companionship in Marriage," where he regrets that, though the relation between the sexes is of universal and engrossing human interest, "the moralist avoids it, the educator shuns it, and parents taboo it." In *Thrift* (1875) he recommends that cookery should be made an ordinary branch of female education. This latter work may indeed be regarded as a sort of pioneer essay in consumer education. It has useful chapters on life insurance, savings banks and co-operatives, and gives sensible if rather vague advice on the purchase of food and clothes. *Thrift* was meant, of course, to be read by adults, and though Smiles certainly recognized worthy home membership as one of the objectives at which the schools should aim, it is not clear how detailed a treatment he would have considered appropriate in the regular course of instruction.

(4) *The Maintenance of Proper Social and Political Relations.* Citizenship training of one kind or another is carried on in every human society. Without it society could not exist. Spencer, however, maintained that the schools of his day failed to provide such training and, in particular, that the study of history, which should contribute to this objective, consisted of the mere memorization of uninstructive facts. For this he proposed to substitute what he called descriptive sociology, supplemented by the biology and psychology needed for interpreting social phenomena. The increasing emphasis on social history in the schools has followed and on the whole justified Spencer's recommendation, but this does not mean that there was in his day no awareness of the need for education in citizenship, an education that was actually provided though in a form very unlike what Spencer had in mind.

It is often asserted that the self-conscious nationalism that determined the course of educational movements in France, Germany and America during the nineteenth century exerted little influence on English schools. Yet English educational thought had its own national bias. As it was universally assumed that a distinctive national character had existed for centuries, its systematic cultivation seemed entirely superfluous. In fact, since individualism was considered the basis of the national character, it was a fair inference that the cultivation of this character could not be reduced to a system; and because elementary education was highly regimented in the interests of economy, it seemed to follow that the elementary schools could contribute little to the development of the traits that were considered distinctively national. For the ordinary citizen these traits had to be, and were, developed outside the school.

The gospel of Self-help is, in part, the product of this peculiar situation. Smiles differs utterly from Spencer in rejecting with abhorrence the mechanistic view of human behaviour. Though he knew of Robert Owen and Pestalozzi and, rather surprisingly, was a great admirer of Joseph Lancaster, he never mentions Froebel or Herbart, and his distrust of schools results in part from what he considered the failure of the elementary schools of his day to stimulate or even to tolerate individuality. Nevertheless he believed that the spirit of free action still pervaded all ranks and classes of society and that everyone could make up for the defects of his schooling by mixing in the daily life of the world and taking part in its affairs. This practical education could be supplemented by the study of history, but Smiles' view of history is that of Carlyle, not that

of Spencer. We never, he declares, feel personally interested in masses of men. For him it is biography that gives interest to history, chiefly because it is biography that provides us with models for self-culture. Smiles' own works consist partly of straight biographies, including his admirable life of George Stephenson, and partly of popular manuals of conduct consisting mainly of biographical sketches strung together to illustrate his social gospel. He confronts us with a great array of celebrities of every description, but the most engaging figures in his gallery are drawn from among those irrepressible cranks who have enriched and enlivened English public life in every generation by infecting it with their eccentric individualism. A fair representative of the species is Jonas Hanway, the eighteenth-century agitator who by combining blandness with pertinacity won notable triumphs for an astonishing assortment of humanitarian causes. But Smiles makes no attempt to associate Hanway's busy benevolence with any clearly thought out social philosophy or with any concern for the intellectual movements of the revolutionary era in which he lived. It was precisely for this neglect to work out a coherent philosophy that Matthew Arnold denounced the bourgeois reformers of his day as Philistines, and it is perhaps not unfair to trace a certain kinship between Smiles and the Philistines of a later age who extol the educational value of mere participation in community activities without always recognizing the futility of unintelligent participation.

(5) *Miscellaneous activities which make up the leisure part of life, devoted to the gratification of the tastes and feelings.* Spencer attacked the educational system of his day for being excessively concerned with elegance and refinement. "Accomplishments," he declares, "as they occupy the leisure time of life, so they should occupy the leisure part of education." He proceeds to assert that the highest art is based upon science and that a scientific education is the proper preparation for aesthetic enjoyment. The inference would seem to be that little special attention need be paid to the aesthetic development of those who are receiving the scientific training necessary for self-preservation. It is clear that education for leisure deserves more emphasis than Spencer gives it and that exclusive attention to scientific studies must seriously restrict the possible range of one's enjoyment. Dr. Smiles reveals a somewhat broader outlook. "Amusement," he says, "is an important part of education." Like Spencer, he looks askance at fashionable accomplishments and conventional refinement. Though he recommends music and art as recreation for all classes of society, he does not sympathize with the self-conscious cultivation of a taste for beauty. It is also characteristic of him that he hesitates to prescribe reading as a form of relaxation and speaks with much asperity of the habitual novel-reader. For Dr. Smiles self-culture meant not desultory reading or the discovery of pleasant short-cuts to learning but persistent, systematic study. Such study might be directly related to one's vocation but might equally well be undertaken for its own sake. During his lifetime Smiles was attacked for glorifying mere success, but the charge though plausible was ill founded. He devotes much attention to men whose avocations were their own reward, and two of his most readable books, the lives of Thomas Edward and Robert Dick, are biographies of men who were somehow able to achieve real distinction as naturalists though they worked at a trade all their lives and died in poverty.

It should now be evident that Dr. Smiles pays considerable attention to each of the five educational aims set forth by Spencer and implicitly accepts each of them as valid. Would he have considered this list of aims a comprehensive inventory? On the whole, yes. Practically everything that Smiles wrote had some bearing on what we now call character education, and his strong religious sympathies are vividly revealed in his two books about the Huguenots. Yet he did not think of morality or religion as a separate department of human activity, nor did he believe that formal instruction had much to do with the inculcation of either. Would Smiles have ranked the five heads in the same order as Spencer, placing health first, then vocation, parenthood and citizenship in that order, and ending with leisure? I do not think he would have approved of any such artificial arrangement. The fact that we cannot be parents or citizens without having achieved self-preservation and that social competence and the capacity for enjoyment largely depend upon health and economic independence does not mean that more time and effort must be given to the attainment of health and vocational efficiency than to the other educational objectives, and certainly does not mean that physical goods are more valuable than what may be called mental goods. In his anxiety to subordinate the ornamental to the useful Spencer almost seems not to have recognized that the usëful must be useful for something that is not merely useful but good in itself. He failed to see that it is an important, perhaps the most important, function of education to contribute directly to this ultimate good. Despite his special interest in industrial technology Dr. Smiles was careful not to exalt utility into an end and accordingly gives no support to the doctrine that the purpose of education is to train one directly for a vocation while making the worthy use of leisure the least urgent of its concerns. As we have seen, he thought that leisure activities could have enough intrinsic value to justify, at least sometimes, their being the primary concern of one's educational programme.

What attitude did Dr. Smiles' view of educational values lead him to adopt towards educational institutions? "Schools, academies and colleges," he says, "give but the merest beginnings of culture," and in saying so he was thinking not merely of existing schools but of any possible schools. He believed that learning consists in making discoveries of one's own rather than in receiving instruction from others, that maturity must come before education in the fullest sense is possible, that education is an endless process, and that there can be no substitute for the education that a man gives himself while engaged in the active pursuits of practical life. Educational reform has tended to make education more and more dependent upon the school on the assumption that it is mainly through the school that educational values are to be realized. Spencer would have approved of this development, but not so Dr. Smiles; and it is this that should make Smiles' writings peculiarly provocative to the twentieth-century reader. He not only shared our sense of values but believed that these values could be realized in practice; yet he neither foresaw the extension of public education that has come about since his day, nor would he altogether have approved of it had he foreseen it.

Have the vast expansion of our educational programme and the enormous increase in the numbers of its beneficiaries been attended by a corresponding

rise in the general level of education? Are our standards of craftsmanship higher? Do we lead a happier family life? Have human relations greatly improved? Are our recreations more satisfying? To none of these questions can our answer be an unqualified affirmative. The gospel of Self-Help is now buried in so deep an oblivion that few would feel impelled even to attack it, but our imperfect attainment of the objectives which we hold in common with its adherents obliges us to consider its possible relevance to our present situation. It is now often assumed that democracy in education means schools for everybody and that we can attain the democratic ideal by providing equal opportunities for all. But if democratic education is to prepare everybody for complete living and if this preparation has to be largely independent of institutional agencies, the elimination of inequality must mean more than providing a certain minimum course of study to which everyone has access and more too than allowing everyone to take part in whatever academic programme is most suitable for his special capacities. If education extends through life and if each person has to accept the major responsibility for his own education, Self-Help will always count for more than anything else in the educational process. How can we best help everybody to help himself? That was Dr. Smiles' central problem, and that is the basic educational problem that still calls for a solution.

THE TELEZONIA PACKAGE

The child of today is as familiar with the telephone as are his parents. Early in his school life he forms telephone habits and attitudes which will likely remain with him. In response to many requests from educational people a set of audio-visual aids has recently been developed to help teach children proper telephone habits, clear diction, courtesy and cooperation. Known as "The Telezonia Package" these materials are being offered to schools throughout its territory by local managers of The Bell Telephone Company of Canada.

The materials included in the package are intended for use in the elementary grades — among children from 8 to 12 years of age — and are so designed that each item may profitably be used independently or in conjunction with the others, as the teacher may wish or as school facilities permit. They include a Teacher's Guide which outlines the material and suggests ways in which it can be used, a small text book in booklet form for each pupil, two actual telephone instruments for class room practice, local telephone directories, a motion picture *Adventure in Telezonia* and a filmstrip *How We Use The Telephone,* both in colour.

NEW SCHOOLS FOR HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

During the five years 1945-50, 121 now special schools for mentally and physically handicapped children have been opened in the United Kingdom, and as a result the number of children in special schools has increased from 38,500 to 47,000.

POPULATION SHIFTS AND EDUCATION

E. C. Woodley, M.A., Montreal

The Educational Record began its long career as a Provincial journal of Protestant education in 1881, one of the quiet years in Canadian national life. The outstanding event witnessed was the ceremony of breaking ground for the Canadian Pacific Railway Company's transcontinental line. In the city of Quebec, the home of the Educational Record, however, the year was long remembered for the disastrous fire which destroyed a considerable part of the St. John suburb. The Governor-General of Canada at the time was the Marquis of Lorne while the Lieutenant-Governor of the Province of Quebec was the Hon. Theodore Robitaille.

In 1881, the Protestant population was a little over six thousand in Quebec and thirty-seven thousand in Montreal. Seventy years later, the Protestant population of Quebec City remains about the same, while the French-Canadian Roman Catholic population has vastly increased. In greater Montreal, however, the number of Protestants has grown to well over three hundred thousand in a city that now numbers over a million and a quarter.

In many counties of the Province the Protestants have always been a negligible minority, so far as statistics are concerned. But one part of the Province which, partly because of its proximity to the New England states, has always had a substantial Protestant population, is the area known as the Eastern Townships. In 1881 in the eleven counties which comprise this region there was a Protestant population of 70,028 representing thirty seven per cent of the total population of 187,257. According to the latest official census (1941) the Protestants (non-Roman Catholics) in the same area had decreased to 47,677, or about one-seventh of the total population of 316,881. This great change may be due to various evident factors. With the opening of the Canadian West, young men and women in large numbers left the Eastern Townships to seek their fortunes in the rich lands which were opened up by the construction of the Canadian Pacific Railway. The industrialization of such centres as Sherbrooke, Drummondville and Granby attracted workers, French-Canadian and new-Canadian, to the townships. Another important factor in bringing about the change has been the greater natural increase of the French-Canadian population.

Another area of the Province in which there has been a marked decrease is the region southwest of Montreal. In 1881 the Protestants in the counties of Huntingdon and Chateauguay numbered 16,208 in a population of 29,888 whereas sixty years later the number of Protestants had fallen off to 7,260 in a generally decreased population of 26,837.

In two parts of the Province, the figures for the Protestant population have varied only slightly in this long period. While the total population of the Gaspé Peninsula has advanced from 43,909 to 94,404, the Protestant population over sixty years has only increased from 8,424 to 9,585. In the county of Argenteuil in 1881 the total population was 16,062, with 8,870 of this number Protestant, while in the 1941 census the total was 22,670, with 8,020 Protestants.

Since 1881, two great new areas in the Province have been opened up, namely, the mining region in the north-west and the industrial region in the vicinity of Lake St. John. There is a considerable Protestant population in both areas but it is doubtful if much of it is due to shifts from the older settled parts of the Province. A large number of foreign-born immigrants, many of them Protestant or non-Catholic, have been attracted to these regions by the opportunities offered by the mining, pulp and paper and power industries.

The great increase in the Protestant population of Montreal from 37,168 in 1881 to 292,337 in 1941 probably partly accounts for the general decrease in rural areas. The attraction of the West, however, has ceased to be an important factor in population shifts in recent years.

The educational picture in Montreal follows the general trend. In 1881 the total Protestant school population of the Province was approximately 30,000; in 1948 it was 64,719. Of the latter number, considerably over half is found in schools on the Island of Montreal. In spite of the fact that the Protestant population off the Island of Montreal has decreased, there are now as many children attending school in these regions as there were in the whole province in 1881. The figures thus indicate that a much higher proportion of children must be attending school now than formerly. This condition might be expected with the provision of better school buildings, better equipment and more highly trained teachers.

On Montreal Island the change in school population in sixty years has been phenomenal. In 1881 there were 3,095 pupils in the schools under the Protestant School Board. In 1948, in schools associated with the Montreal Protestant Central School Board there were 34,534 pupils, with4, 600 more in the schools of Westmount and Outremont. The great growth of the cities of Verdun, Westmount and Outremont accounts in part for the increase. While in 1881 Verdun was only a village, in 1941 it had a total population of 67,349 inhabitants. Westmount had increased to 26,047, from a small uburbans municipality, and Outremont had grown to 30,751.

In 1881, for elementary school purposes, the city of Montreal was divided into six school districts, while no district boundaries were assigned to the High schools, the Senior school, or the small Mill Street school. The largest number of pupils came from the district served by the Sherbrooke Street School. This extended from St. Lawrence Street to the eastern limits of the city. An almost equal number living in the region between Richmond Square, St. Antoine Street to the western city limits and the canal attended the Royal Arthur School. The Ann Street School, now the William Lunn School, and the British and Canadian School on Lagauchetière Street near the head of Coté Street, had about the same number of pupils. The secondary schools were the High School for Boys, the High School for Girls and the Senior School. In 1881 the three secondary schools were attended by 634 pupils. In all, there were thirteen schools under the Montreal Protestant School Board.

An examination of the latest statistical report of the Montreal Protestant Central School Board shows that in 1948 there were 64 elementary schools and 13 high schools under the Board. Three elementary schools have been opened since. Added to these figures must be those of Westmount, with two high schools

and three elementary schools, and Outremont with one high school and two elementary schools. The total high school enrolment on the Island of Montreal in 1948 was over ten thousand pupils. This is a vast increase over the 634 secondary school pupils in 1881.

It is noteworthy that most of the larger elementary schools in Montreal are located in areas that were barely opening up in 1881, namely Rosemount (846 pupils); Iona (1,410) in the Snowdon district; Woodland (1,420) and Bannantyne (853) in Verdun; Willingdon (930) in Notre Dame de Grace; Fairmount (821), Edward VII (808), and Bancroft (853) in the north-central area.

The shifting nature of Montreal's population poses a difficult problem for school administrators charged with the selection of sites for new schools. Time has demonstrated that it is no longer sufficient to build a school in the centre of the existing population. As a consequence, a careful analysis of population trends has to be made prior to the erection of every new school to ensure that it will meet the needs of the district during the lifetime of the building.

In the regions outside of Montreal the decreasing rural population has hastened and made even more necessary than in other provinces the movement toward consolidation. As Protestants moved away from the rural districts it became apparent that if the children of those who remained were to receive a suitable education they must be brought to centrally located schools. While the consolidation movement has inevitably brought with it heavy costs for transportation, many children living in sparsely populated areas would have been deprived of an education without it. At the present time there are 64 consolidations, of which 40 have been effected since 1930.

The formation of County Central School Boards has resulted in a further advance by enabling students from widely scattered districts to enjoy the benefits of a complete high school education offering a wide variety of courses. There are now nine County Central School Boards off the Island of Montreal, while the Montreal Protestant Central School Board operates as the centralizing body for the school boards on the Island.

The County Central School Board adjusts taxes for its area, receives Government grants and, in general, secures a more equitable distribution of funds. This results in the improvement of the school buildings and equipment and makes possible the engagement of better trained teachers. The establishment of Central School Boards has done much to bring closer to fulfilment the maxim "An Equal Educational Opportunity For All".

PUBLIC EXAMINATIONS (1881)

The number of people that attend the annual public examinations of the High and Common Schools is a creditable testimony of the interest taken in educational matters by the public of Montreal.

So much has this public oral examination become a part of our school system in Canada, that it could scarcely be dispensed with, but it is open to many objections, of which, perhaps, teachers alone can see the force... Again, pupils are apt to take a low or high estimate of their teacher from the figure he cuts in such a ceremony, the "cheeky" teacher (to use a vulgarism) always getting most "kudos."

FRENCH FILMSTRIP — LE PETIT CHAPERON ROUGE

**Evelyn M. Eaton, M.A., Supervisor of French,
Montreal Protestant Central School Board.**

Although verbal teaching is still, and is likely to remain, the chief medium of instruction in French, it has become increasingly evident that the technique of using films and filmstrips must be explored and used if the teaching of French is to progress in an interesting and effective manner.

An effective filmstrip, however, must not only combine the interest-capturing features of the motion picture with the teaching effects of the phonograph record, but must also be based directly upon the course of study laid down. As such filmstrips do not exist in the commercial field, the Montreal Protestant Central School Board decided last year, as an educational experiment, to sponsor the production of a filmstrip, based on *Le Petit Chaperon Rouge*, a play unit in the pupil's text, "Jouons".

The task of preparing the filmstrip was undertaken as a pioneering venture by the Board's teaching and supervisory staff. Gundega Janfelde, a grade X pupil of the High School for Girls, under the direction of Miss Madelyn Robinson, Art Teacher, did a splendid piece of work in creating the drawings. The production assignment was carried out by a team consisting of Miss Helen Buzzell and Miss Ann Savage, Supervisors of Art; Dr. D. M. Herbert, Supervisor of Music; Mr. D. E. Pope, Education Officer; and The Board's Supervisor of French. The recording was made by Jacqueline Seizer, Grade VII pupil of Bancroft School; Dr. D. W. Buchanan; Mr. W. H. Chodat and Mr. R. A. Peck, Supervisor of French, Westmount. Mr. Peck also gave generously of his time and talent to the whole project. The unit was produced in collaboration with Mr. Ted Peat of Phoenix Films.

The unit, as produced, consists of: filmstrip in full colour with story text on each frame; accompanying record with musical background; teacher's handbook.

In the story text on each frame, careful attention has been given to vocabulary load, phrasing and sentence structure in order to make the filmstrip useful in class period.

The disc gives a high fidelity recording of French teachers speaking somewhat slowly but naturally and thus introduces several voices into the classroom situation. It can be used separately from the filmstrip to familiarize the pupils with the speakers' delivery. This allows the pupil to concentrate on sound, and thus to develop confidence in listening to normal, native French.

The handbook is planned to assist the teacher in presenting the unit for study by the pupils. It contains exercises based on the text of the filmstrip. The type and amount of exercises covered must, of course, vary with the ability of the pupils concerned. All pupils should have some experience in answering the questions provided for most of the frames. Before asking the questions the teacher discusses the frame briefly, drawing attention to the various objects in the frame as she speaks. The vocabulary listed to the right of the questions in the handbook is thus included in the teacher's talk and repeated by the pupils to enable them to answer when the teacher asks the questions.

Another worthwhile exercise is the showing of the filmstrip without the recording, the better pupils being encouraged to supply the commentary after they are thoroughly familiar with the filmstrip. This type of exercise could be developed as a group activity, involving composition of the script, rehearsals and performance before the class or other classes. The extra activities of the slow-learners might, perforce, be limited to using the filmstrip and recording outside class periods for additional practice on the story text which is drawn directly from the play unit to be mastered.

Careful teaching is necessary if pupils are to gain maximum values from seeing a filmstrip. The instructional filmstrip should be previewed by the teacher, the complete narration printed in the handbook should be read carefully, and the accompanying record played previous to its use in class. Arrangements for the showing should be made well in advance and equipment should be checked to be sure that it is ready for the showing. Pupils can easily be trained to act as projectionists and to operate the gramophone.

The work on the filmstrip begins with the direct preparatory work for the first showing. The teacher will probably want to discuss the filmstrip fully with the class the day before it is shown. She will wish to introduce the subject matter in as interesting a way as possible, probably giving a resumé of the plot. The vocabulary essential to understanding the recording and filmstrip should be written on the blackboard, explained in a few words, and pronounced by the teacher, followed by the class.

On the day of the showing the filmstrip should be introduced very briefly and then shown to the class. An informal classroom discussion should follow immediately after the first presentation. The teacher should use the discussion to find out whether the purposes for showing the filmstrip have been accomplished. Have the pupils understood the commentary? Were the preliminary vocabulary explanations sufficiently clear? The filmstrip should then be shown a second time. After the second showing questions in French or English should be asked to check comprehension. Pupils may also be asked to give any words or expressions they may remember from the film. These should be listed on the blackboard and used for further classroom discussion. The great benefit to be derived from the filmstrip lies not only in the motivational qualities the presentation develops but also in the fact that it provides a background for discussion.

It is hoped that *Le Petit Chaperon Rouge* will be the first in a forthcoming series of language teaching filmstrips. The Department of Education has always recognized the effective and universal appeal of audio-visual aids and has shown keen interest in the experiment conducted by the Montreal Central Board. The Department is presently considering the production of a full-colour filmstrip, "*Les Trois Mousquetaires*," to accompany a unit in the new Grade X text. Long range plans include the production of approximately twenty-four coloured filmstrips in the next three years to be based on units in the elementary and high school courses.

The Filmstrip — *Le Petit Chaperon Rouge* — may be ordered by writing to: Mr. Thomas Sommerville, Director of Education and Secretary-Treasurer, Montreal Protestant Central School Board, 3460 McTavish St., Montreal. The price of the filmstrip, recording and manual is eight dollars.

SCHOOL BROADCASTS - TO BE TAKEN AS DIRECTED?

**P. J. Kitley, M.A., Director of School Broadcasts,
Department of Education, British Columbia**

"*Full instructions for use enclosed*" might well be considered a representative slogan of this tabloid, time-wasting, time-hungry age, where only the aged and incapacitated have moments to waste in considering general principles and working from them to specific applications. Teachers have too often followed the trend. Instead of patiently building a consistent set of educational principles, we may only have been feverishly collecting a miscellaneous assortment of "gimmicks" that somehow get us through all but the major problems. Then suddenly we find ourselves face to face with something new and we stand quite helpless, unable to cope with either its problems or its possibilities. Such is the classroom use of radio, and I dare prophesy that the approach that teachers make to such devices will more surely mark them as real teachers or brand them as incompetents, than will any of the traditional teaching skills, no matter how intrinsically important they may be.

The implication is pretty clear, is it not? If you are a good teacher, you have no need to read further! But let us suppose that you wish, as most teachers do occasionally, to overhaul a section of your classroom principles. We shall take two or three of the most obvious of these as they relate to presentation of class material and see how they can be applied to school radio broadcasts.

1. *The classroom is a workshop and as such should be as completely ready for use as possible.* Plans must be well made. See to it that you make full use of all available literature and that you know what broadcasts are to be presented. It is a good idea to take half an hour at the beginning of the year or term and see just what programmes you hope to be able to use in the following months. This will enable you to map out a well-balanced listening schedule and to co-ordinate your year's teaching programme most efficiently with it.

Equipment must be in working order. Space will not allow a full discussion of classroom radio equipment here. Let us assume that you have given careful thought to the selection of a classroom receiver and have obtained one that is going to make school listening gainful rather than painful. Yet even with greatest care, accidents can happen. The set which can survive a fall to the floor will sometimes blow a tube on receiving nothing more than an ordinary jar. Overnight all sorts of misadventures have been known to befall school radios — and reception can be spoiled by things ranging all the way from moisture to mice.

See therefore that operation of the receiver is left in the hands of a competent classroom committee; keep the receiver under lock and key if necessary; do not leave it near the window overnight unless you are blessed either with unlimited heat or a sub-tropical climate; have tubes tested once or twice a year; and having done all that, turn on the receiver a reasonable time prior to the broadcast to make sure that it is still working and that your station is on the air. Then be sure it is in the best position for good listening, that the station is properly tuned in and that tone control is set at "treble". You may now turn the volume down till just before the broadcast begins.

2. *The class should be "ready to go".* First of all be sure that the class knows how to listen. This, of course, is probably the most fundamental item in the use of the radio. It relates closely to psychological problems of attention and as such merits a whole volume. Hearing is not listening, any more than looking is seeing. There is no reason why a child does not need to be trained to listen, just as he needs training in the use of any other of his physical and mental equipment.

The problem is aggravated for us because the rule of so many households is that the radio is turned on when the first in the family gets up and left running till the last one goes to bed. It comes to be accepted as casually as the pattern on the linoleum, and this conditioned response is all too readily transferred to classroom listening. All this is part of a large problem which we as teachers should recognize. We live in a world where skilled operators continually campaign for our attention. If we are to pilot any kind of sane course through this modern madness, we must learn what to accept and what to reject — and how to shut out what we have rejected. By teaching listening skills and critical discrimination, and by working patiently with your class, you will not only accomplish the better ordering of your own classroom, but you will provide your pupils with skills for practical living, which are at least as important as many which have graced the curriculum for many a hallowed year in the past.

To the end that listening be as productive as possible, make sure that the preparatory work directs the class attention to a few specific ideas in the broadcast and see that the activity reaches a satisfying conclusion by discussing the ideas later.

Class working conditions should be such as to make for optimum results. The reason some school broadcasts develop more kinks than kilocycles is often attributable to the old classroom bugbears of temperature, humidity, ventilation, seating, and so on. The practice of herding classes together for radio listening cannot be too greatly condemned. Second only in blame is the use of "special" rooms for listening, except for particular occasions. The ideal is the normal classroom surroundings, with special groupings for only two or three special reasons. If yours is a large classroom and a small radio, group the class as close to it as is comfortably possible rather than strain ears and receiver. If yours is a rural ungraded school, plan to have individual groups listen at close range while the rest of the class goes on with other work. The receiver, set at a volume level for intimate listening, will not be a disturbance.

The class must be prepared. There can be no prescription for this. What is the nature of the broadcast? Will it be an integral part of your regular class work? How important is introductory information to the understanding of the broadcast? Any one of these and other considerations will determine whether your preparation of the class takes two minutes or two periods. One thing is certain: you should plan definitely how you will introduce the class to the broadcast, and you should adjust your preparation to the degree and kind of follow-up work that you expect to have. A music broadcast, heard particularly for appreciation, might require little preparation. A social studies broadcast might involve understanding of people, times and places which would require detailed preparation. (As usual, the danger of illustration is that it may be taken too

literally; there is no reason why music should *not* sometimes require more preparation than social studies.)

The projected activity should have purpose. There can be no real readiness unless the activity is more than an end in itself. The aim, or the goal of the listening experience must therefore be clearly understood by all who are listening. No doubt there are still some teachers who feel that they suffer loss of dignity if they are called on to justify to the class what they are doing. Happily, most of us now give lip service at least to the idea that the class must believe what they are doing is worth while if they are going to put their best effort into it. Basically, the whole concept of education is of purposeful activity, intelligently directed. There have been mighty and protracted arguments about what constitutes an "educational" radio programme. This definition is at least practical: one to which you bring a purpose more serious than the mere passing of time.

Finally, check this list of possible activities as preparation for a broadcast:

(*a*) Arrange for a collection of such illustrative material as maps, diagrams, charts, pictures, and so on. and have these displayed.
(*b*) Clarify unfamiliar words, names or phrases. It is advisable to have these written on the blackboard.
(*c*) Discuss with the class the main theme of the broadcast.
(*d*) Have the class suggest questions they would like to have the broadcast answer.
(*e*) Ask members of the class to summarize for the group what they already know about the subject.
(*f*) Where possible, suggest specific things to watch for in the broadcast.
(*g*) Organize class committees to work later on some particular aspect of the material presented.
(*h*) Talk over activities to follow the broadcast.
(*i*) Where the broadcast will entail active physical participation by the class, it is advisable to establish a system of signals for use during the listening period. These will be particularly helpful in music programmes for lower grades, and could include visual signs for such things as: stand, sit, move around the room to the left (right), spread out, come to the blackboard, less noise, listen carefully, a general encouragement to do what has been asked, etc.
(*j*) Be careful not to overdo class preparation. Unless the broadcast has an element of novelty, the class may lose interest.

3. *The classroom experience should be conducted in an orderly, meaningful fashion.* The teacher must be certain that the class is keeping in contact with the activity throughout. This does not involve bustle and confusion on your part or elaborate note-taking on the part of the class. It does not even presuppose physical movement. There will be broadcasts, of course, where such activities will take place. It has often been found helpful to have the class look at maps, charts or pictures as they listen, but even these are a danger if they are likely to detract from rather than build attention to the broadcast.

Interruptions must be kept to a minimum. This is particularly important for good radio listening. Sometimes it is advisable to borrow a page from the considerate hotel, and hang a "Do Not Disturb" sign on the door handle.

Needed explanations should be filled in as required. This is a difficult technique. Some of the bolder spirits have recommended temporarily turning the radio off, if necessary, in order to make an explanation. Since roughhewn radio programmes are hardly likely to be the most successful, this is a drastic move and should not be needed if the programme is suitable and preparation has been adequate. During the broadcast you may:

(*a*) Point out locations or indicate pictures or words already on the blackboard, if this is necessary to the understanding of the programme.
(*b*) Unobtrusively, write on the board any unusual words that may have been missed by the class.
(*c*) Keep an ear on the receiver. It is well to form the habit of adjusting tuning and volume as needed. In many receivers the tuning tends to "wander" and there are often occasions demanded by the broadcast, when the volume should be relatively higher or lower.
(*d*) Stay near the radio, fidget as little as possible, and set an example in attention. (The marking can wait until later!)

Never pass up any opportunity to observe class reactions. Usually you are too much an integral part of the class situation to notice such things. A school broadcast not only provides a unique situation but gives you scope to diagnose individual and group reactions. This is comparatively unexplored territory, and happy the teacher who has hit on the device.

Here are one or two hints: Compare individual and group reactions to the radio with their reactions to you. Did the radio successfully put across something you could not, or *vice versa*? Why? Chart a simple interest graph for any or all members of the class. Does the class "include you in" when it reacts to the programme — i.e., look to you for corroboration, approval or otherwise? What radio devices gain and hold interest? Could you adopt any of these? Note the effect of the more impersonal nature of the radio presentation.

4. *Effort should be made to develop and integrate classroom experiences into a meaningful and productive whole.* The class should have an opportunity for evaluating the experience. No radio programme should left without a brief discussion of it as radio *per se*. One of the newer duties teachers have is to guide boys and girls in the proper and discriminating use of radio in out-of-school hours. Here is one good way of building up sound canons of good taste in radio.

Take time briefly to drive home and clinch new ideas, and follow up the programme with long or short term activities. These will depend on the nature of the broadcast, the needs of your class and your own final objectives.

Post-broadcast suggestions may be summed up in brief as follows:

(*a*) Answer questions or solve problems raised in the broadcast.
(*b*) Engage in handwork activity suggested by the broadcast. This may include making maps or charts.
(*c*) Have a short quiz on the subject matter of the broadcast. This activity should be used sparingly and with discretion, and never as a formal "examination".
(*d*) Keep a radio diary.
(*e*) Find pictures or other material relating to the subject of the broadcast.
(*f*) Look up further material and make a report to the class.
(*g*) Take care not to dull the sparkle in the listening experience by too great an insistence on a formal follow-up. No radio programme should consist of material which is to be minutely examined, and formal tests have no place in it.

There is nothing either radical or revolutionary in what has been said. It resolves itself into a thoughtful application of teaching principles you have accepted for so long that they have become a part of you. The following are a few additional points, which experience has shown to be valuable:

(*a*) If your class is restless during the broadcast, try to diagnose the difficulty. Is lack of attention due to lack of preparation? physical discomfort? poor receiving conditions? (More difficulties are due to inadequate receivers than almost any other cause) interruptions? unsuitable maturity level of material? If your class is unused to listening, discuss positively the few habits of good radio listening, and give the pupils time to become familiar with the new situation.
(*b*) Those who are directing the school radio programmes share the frustration of all radio people in that they know too little about listener reaction. How can the public get what it wants unless it is articulate? Send your reactions to those in charge of your school broadcasts.

(*c*) In remote schools do not expect good reception without a good outside aerial and a secure ground connection.

(*d*) Organize your classroom for good listening. Set up class committees to handle "publicity", take care of equipment, etc. Teachers need reminding, too.

(*e*) Familiarize yourself with your class receiver. Learn how to tune it properly (Are you *sure* you know?), learn how to replace tubes, learn to keep connections tight, become acquainted with the little set screws often found on controls. If one comes loose, "the knob turns and nothing happens", yet a nail file will often do wonders as a screw driver to tighten the offending set screw.

(*f*) Don't let yourself be ridden too hard by the three old men of the sea: the class unit, the grade unit, the subject unit. Let small groups use the radio at times, reporting back to the class if it is advisable. (This is particularly useful in the one-room school). Notice that published material often does no more than set an approximate grade level. Even material intended specifically for one grade can often be of good service to adjacent grades. Examine the content as well as the title of the broadcast in the teaching guides you have. Radio does a grand job of breaking down subject distinctions, and who can say where English, science, music, social studies and the rest blend into one another?

(*g*) Remember that if the educational panacea has ever been found, it goes only by the name of "teacher". Only *you* can teach. Do not expect devices, be they "the humble piece" of chalk or the magical video-classroom of the future, to do the work that can be done only by flesh and blood and the human spirit. Radio is only a tool. It can be a good tool, if you keep its edge sharp and use it wisely.

POLITENESS A LOST ART

In those days, under the direction of parental authority, children kept their places, regarded their instructors, and observed all the little acts of civility which throw a charm around the family circle. Not so now. Rudeness characterizes all their movements at home and in school. With their heads covered, they lounge about the house, intrude themselves into company, interrupt conversation, dispute with superiors, and make themselves disagreeable in every way. At school the bound and scream which follow the word of dismissal remind one of incipient savages; and in the streets the teacher may not expect from schoolboys, as a rule, respectful attention and courteous behavior, but rather insulting words, and even snowballs or mudballs if they chance to come in their way.

Educational Record, July, 1882

EXCERPT FROM A PETITION OF THE (MONTREAL) PROTESTANT BOARD OF SCHOOL COMMISSIONERS TO THE CITY COUNCIL (1882)

That to secure the additional income needed for the maintenance and improvement of schools, an augmentation of the city school tax to the very moderate sum of three-tenths of one per cent is requisite.

Your petitioners therefore respectfully pray your worshipful body to use the influence which you possess with the Legislature of Quebec for the purpose of securing the increase of tax above indicated.

A LESSON IN GEOGRAPHY (1884)

Another method of stimulating observation and ready recollection of facts learned is in Horace Mann's Geography Game...

...Take, for instances, the capes on the atlas studied. Call on the boy first named on the roll to go to the blackboard and write the name and location of any cape he pleases, and immediately call on the next to go, and, from memory, write name and location of a cape beginning with the final letter of the last cape. The following is a list of capes — locations omitted here — written by a class under the writer's charge: Cape Henry, York, Kinnaird, Delgado, Ortegal, etc.

JUNE EXAMINATIONS

TENTATIVE TIMETABLE 1951

Grade	Morning		Afternoon	
	THURSDAY, JUNE 14th.			
XI	Music	9 to 11:30	XI Instrumental Music	2 to 3
	FRIDAY, JUNE 15th.			
XI	Art and Crafts, Courses A, B and C	9 to 11:30	XI Art and Crafts, Courses A and B (continued)	2 to 4:30
XII	Art	9 to 12		
	MONDAY, JUNE 18th.			
X	English Literature	9 to 11:30	X History	2 to 4
XI	" "	9 to 11:45	XI English Composition	2 to 4:30
XII	" "	9 to 12	XII " "	2 to 5
	TUESDAY, JUNE 19th.			
X	English Composition	9 to 11	X French	2 to 4
XI	French	9 to 11:30	XI History	2 to 4:30
XII	"	9 to 12	XII "	2 to 5
	WEDNESDAY, JUNE 20th.			
X	Geometry	9 to 11	X Chemistry	2 to 4
XI	Chemistry	9 to 11:30	XI Geometry	2 to 4:30
XII	"	9 to 12	XII Analytical Geometry	2 to 5
	THURSDAY, JUNE 21st.			
X	Algebra	9 to 11	X Geography	2 to 4
XI	Spanish	9 to 11:30	XI Elementary Algebra	2 to 4:30
	Trigonometry	9 to 11:30		
	Typewriting and Office Practice	9 to 11:30		
XII	Trigonometry, Course I	9 to 12	XII Extra English	2 to 5
	" " II	9 to 12	Biology	2 to 5
	FRIDAY, JUNE 22nd.			
X	Physics	9 to 11	X Latin	2 to 4:30
			Household Science	2 to 4
XI	Intermediate Algebra	9 to 11:30	XI Physics	2 to 4:30
	Household Science	9 to 11:30	Bookkeeping	2 to 4:30
	Industrial Arts	9 to 11:30		
XII	Algebra	9 to 12	XII Physics	2 to 5
	MONDAY, JUNE 25th.			
X	Biology	9 to 11	X Extra English	2 to 4
XI	Latin Prose and Composition	9 to 11:30	XI Latin Poetry and Sight	2 to 4:30
			Agriculture	2 to 4:30
	Stenography and Secretarial Practice	9 to 11:30		
XII	Latin Authors	9 to 12	XII Latin Composition and Sight	2 to 5
	TUESDAY, JUNE 26th.			
XI	Biology	9 to 11:30	XI Geography	2 to 4:30
	Non-Specialist French	9 to 11:30	Greek, Coulson and Grammar	2 to 4:30
	Greek, Allen and Composition	9 to 11:30		
	WEDNESDAY, JUNE 27th.			
XI	Extra English	9 to 11:30	XI German Grammar and Translation	2 to 4:30
	German Authors	9 to 11:30		
XII	" "	9 to 12	XII German Grammar and Translation	2 to 5

BOOK REVIEWS

Canadians All is a series of Junior Social Studies Readers containing information on one page and a photograph on the opposite page illustrating it. The photographs are all Canadian and are excellent reproductions. Four books have been published to date, namely, The Milkman, The Fireman, The Policeman and The Postman. Others of the series now being written include The Air Pilot, The Sailor and The Engineer. The author is Miss Marian D. James, of Victoria, B. C. and Dr. Joyce Boyle is a Consultant Editor. All books use vocabularies suited to children of Grades I to III. The photographs are inserted to create interest in the worker described, to detail his duties and to illustrate his usefulness to the community. The books as a whole satisfy these requirements and should be of great interest both to teacher and pupil. Published by J. M. Dent and Sons, 32 pages each, 50 cents per volume.

Boswell's London Journal, 1762 to 1763, edited by Frederick A. Pottle, is the first to be published of a series of forty-five volumes, from manuscripts recently found, and acquired by Yale University, and which may place Boswell in first place as the world's leading biographer. The fact that they have only just been discovered is due partly to family pride for in many pages Boswell's conduct is not to his credit. As he proved to be a very ready talker and good companion, Boswell was received into the best families in London and became intimately friendly with David Garrick, David Hume, Oliver Goldsmith, Sheridan and other eminent figures of London society. Finally he met Samuel Johnson who took him readily into his own inner circle. Then arose that friendship which has made them both such well known literary figures. In addition to revealing characters, the London Journal reveals much of the life of England's capital. Published by McGraw, Hill Book Company, 370 pages, $4.25. (British Book Service, Toronto, agents.)

As the World Wags On, by Arthur R. Ford, though his own biography, is at the same time the story of the Expansion of Canada from 1903 to 1950. Nearly all the important names in Canada are mentioned in this volume — Sifton, Dafoe, Woodsworth, Asselin, Sam Hughes, Laurier, Borden, King — because Ford knew them all. The book is full of anecdotes: Sir Daniel Mann was challenged to a duel in Russia. As he had the choice of weapons he chose Canadian broad axes. That ended it, "as the Russian did not relish the idea of being chopped to pieces". The details are told of the formation of the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan, the Reconstruction party of Mr. Stevens and the lonely life of the Hon. R. B. Bennett: "He had no hobbies; he played no bridge; golf or any sports were out of his line; he never danced".

This is a striking array of historical facts told in the very readable language of a first class journalist. Every teacher of Canadian history should own a copy. Published by the Ryerson Press, 228 pages, $4.00.

Humanism in Action, by Claude W. Thompson, of Sir George Williams College, is a philosophical treatise of the problems facing society today. The basis of the humanistic studies is defined as the comprehension of man — to know his achievements and failures, to try to understand why he succeeded or failed and to seek the ways of pleasantness and those paths that are peace. Almost every phase of life is scanned — mankind itself, civilization, our heritage of ideas, education, marriage, the home, God and man, the road to freedom. "The study of the humanities becomes more of a necessity as life becomes more complex." "Modern living needs the scientist-artist-philosopher — the giver of good things in pleasing form and directed to a good use."

Each topic in the book is outlined in telling fashion and all who think should benefit by reading the penetrative analysis and constructive criticisms of life. Newer and richer meaning is given in these pages to many of life's problems. A useful bibliography is appended. Published by Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, 275 pages, $3.75.

The Great Adventure, by Donalda Dickie, is an illustrated history of Canada for Grades VI, VII and VIII. The words used are all contained in Thorndike's Twenty Thousand Word Book and the chapters were read and discussed by the pupils in the grades for which the book is intended. A workbook based on the text will be ready shortly.

The history is written in story form with a vigour that should appeal to any child and make Canadian youth proud of their country. The titles of the various sections are well named and arouse a desire to read on. The pen drawings contained on almost every page are apt and illustrate the adjoining text. Published by J. M. Dent and Sons, 469 pages, $1.95.

The Picture Gallery of Canadian History, Volume 3, by C. W. Jefferys, covers the subject from 1830 to 1900. 219 of the 252 pages of the book are photographs or drawings; the remainder are notes and index. No one can examine these pages without having his knowledge of Canadian history greatly broadened. Almost everything that one can think of during the period is pictured: historic homes, an immigrant ship, Lower Fort Garry, rebels marching down Yonge Street, Toronto, Battle of Ste. Eustache, Notre Dame Street, Montreal, whipping prisoner in Toronto Gaol, Montreal hotels, banks, heating stoves, Hudson's Bay Company Posts, McGill in 1861, Lake and river steamboats, woman skater, lacrosse and baseball clubs, stage coaches, ocean steamships, locomotives of 1854 and 1870, streetcar on runners, Chief Crowfoot, Father Lacombe, Big Bear, Poundmaker, gatling

gun, heaters, farm implements, etc. Any teacher with a good knowledge of events could hold a class spellbound for hours with this book. Published by the Ryerson Press, 252 pages, $2.75.

Words Have Wings, by Alan Meiklejohn, is a twenty week programme that will help pupils to use words correctly, construe sentences, make precis, and write notes on prose passages. The extracts are taken from good writers so as to provide models for writing and stimulate interest in good literature. The study of pairs of words together like accede and exceed, accept and except is very greatly needed. Words like navvy and navy, notable and notorious need long explanation and much study for many pupils. Dangling participles and improperly composed sentences are inserted with good effect as well as most other imperfections of speech. Published by the Ryerson Press, 72 pages, paper cover, $0.65.

Working With English, by W. A. Rennie and S. A. Anderson, is a course in composition and grammar for Grades IX and X, based on pupil activity, the purpose of which is the writing of better English. Each lesson is in three parts, the first two being for reading and the third for writing. Attention is paid to spelling and sound, though many rather uncommon words are used such as falcon and Oedipus. The stories are generally interesting and anyone who follows the work conscientiously should develop a very good word sense. Published by the Ryerson Press, 252 pages, $1.25.

At My Heart's Core, is a play by Robertson Davies, laid in Peterborough, Ontario and played successfully there by Michael Sadlier. Using the background of Upper Canada in the days of the MacKenzie rebellion, the author shows how three women were tempted there by the Devil of Discontent in the Canadian backwoods. Comments are made by the players upon the difficulties encountered by the early settlers and their customs. Some of the lines show wit: "Wouldn't your very presence (that of Thomas Stewart) put behaviour on a skunk." "I have often reflected that the conversation of ladies alone is like a peal of bells without the support of the great bell; it readily becomes a clangour". "It's what ye call the impartiality o' the artist — rejoice and mourn with everybody and hit both sides a good clout if ye can". Published by Clarke, Irwin and Company, 93 pages, cloth boards $2.00.. paper binding $1.50.

A Gentlewoman in Upper Canada, edited by H. H. Langton, but mostly written by Anne Langton, is a record of the Langton family, mainly from 1837 to 1844 in the Sturgeon Lake district of the Kawartha lakes in Ontario.

Anyone interested in diaries, the life of over a century ago, the modes of travel and the taming of the wilderness, as seen by the feminine eye, will be fascinated with the descriptions here given. Nothing is too small to notice — the daily round, the details of the neighbours and the growing community, the maids, the candles, the embroidery — and of course the weather. Published by Clarke, Irwin and Company, 249 pages, $3.00.

Christmas Without Johnny, by Gladys Hasty Carroll, is a novel about a nine year old who is neglected by busy parents and an overworked teacher. It is just an every day story. The father is busy earning a living for the family, the mother attending to the household chores and the boy's teacher treating more or less alike the forty members of her class. Her prejudice against Johnny is not restricted only to class but extends also to Sunday School. A kind minister and an understanding Superintendent of Schools cope with usual but delicate situations. There is some good psychology in the book. Published by Macmillan Company, 230 pages, $3.25.

The Child and His Curriculum, by J. Murray Lee and Doris May Lee, is a revision of the 1940 text by the same authors. In this volume recent research studies in child development have been examined, new courses of study have been analysed and new examples of teaching practice recorded. There are chapters on the child as a growing organism, the child and his developing emotions, the child as motivated by his purposes and interests, organizing life and learning, resources for learning, social experiences, learning to use language, developing quantitative thinking, providing for healthful living and evaluating changes in the child. There is a good section on audio-visual education. This suggests building up a picture department in a school and the exchange of pictures, typing stories, review lessons and texts on cellophane and projecting them. Some advantages and disadvantages of films are tabulated and advice given as to how to use films effectively. Published by Appleton, Century, 710 pages.

The Story of a Red Deer, by J. W. Fortescue, is a delightful book both for boys and girls. In it is described not only the life history of a red deer but of very many inhabitants of the wood and the river. Children who are fond of "animalness" will find interest in most of its pages. Published by the Macmillan Company, 212 pages, $1.10.

A Walk in the City, by Rosemary and Richard Dawson, is a most attractive modern looking book for children aged 6 to 8. It describes the places a child and his mother visit and the sights they see. The illustrations are excellent. The cover plan of the journey is bound to deepen the child's interest. Published by the Viking Press, 31 pages, $2.50.

Mr. Mushroom, by Louis Slobodkin, is a gay little picture book that will please children of 4 to 6 years of age for it awakens their curiosity with its frequent question "What do you think?". The illustrations also will arouse their interest. Published by the Macmillan Company, 30 pages, $1.50.

MINUTES OF THE SEPTEMBER MEETING OF THE PROTESTANT COMMITTEE

Offices of the Montreal Protestant Central School Board; September 29th, 1950.

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

Present: Dr. G. G. D. Kilpatrick in the Chair, Mr. Howard Murray, Mr. R. Eric Fisher, Dr. R. H. Stevenson, Dr. C. L. Brown, Mr. Leslie N. Buzzell, Dr. F. Cyril James, Mr. George Y. Deacon, Mr. Harry W. Jones, Dr. S. E. McDowell, Mrs. T. P. Ross, Dr. W. Q. Stobo, Rt. Rev. John Dixon, Hon. G. B. Foster, Mr. W. E. Dunton, Hon. C. D. French, Mr. John P. Rowat, Mr. John G. Rennie, Dr. W. L. Shurtleff, Mrs. A. Stalker, Mr. T. M. Dick, Dr. J. S. Astbury, Professor D. C. Munroe, Mr. K. H. Oxley, and the Secretary. Dr. Sinclair Laird was present by invitation.

Apologies for absence were presented from Mr. A. K. Cameron, Mrs. R. Thomson, and the Superintendent of Education.

The minutes of the meeting of May 4th and of the special meeting of September 5th were approved.

The report of the Director of Protestant Education contained the following information: (1) Nineteen plans for new school buildings or additions to present schools have been submitted to the Superintendent of Education since July 6th. Of these six have been approved as follows: Dolbeau, Montarville, Chambly-Richelieu, Grande Fresnière, Cookshire and Lennoxville. A few other plans have received preliminary study but thirteen remain to be approved as follows: *New Schools:* Aylmer, Chambly County (St. Lambert), Magog, Mansonville, Port Daniel-Shigawake, and Shawville. *Extensions to existing schools:* Cox (New Carlisle), North Hatley, Macdonald Central School Board, Rock Island-Stanstead, Shawinigan Falls, Sherbrooke, and Valleyfield. (2) An additional grant of $25,000 per annum for the next four years has been promised by the Government to McGill University for the School for Teachers, making a total grant of $75,000 per annum for teacher training during the time specified. It is understood that the grant is offered by the Government without creating a precedent and without modifying directly or indirectly the Act 7 Edward VII Chapter 26. (3) One hundred and ninety-seven candidates have been admitted to teacher training during the current session at Macdonald College, McGill University, and Bishop's University. (4) In the Richmond-Drummond-Arthabaska Central School district 525 pupils are conveyed to school daily of whom 385 are met at their home gates. There are seven Board-owned vehicles for the transportation of the pupils and ten persons have been awarded contracts for conveyance. The length of the road one way averages 10.4 miles, the shortest being four and the longest 18.7 miles per day. (5) Many complaints are being received in the Department from individuals who think that their children should be educated free of charge particularly in the city of Montreal. In each case it has been necessary for the Department to explain the right of school boards to charge fees according to law and that the compulsory attendance act has limit-

ations. (6) The Provincial Association of Protestant School Boards has decided to present awards of merit to members of school boards who are deserving of recognition. At its meeting on September 22nd awards were made by the Association to the following charter members: A. E. Akhurst, Coaticook; H. S. Bean, Beebe; J. E. Connors, Magog; Dr. C. S. Harris, Magog; A. E. Leet, Danville; Sydney A. Meade, Coaticook; A. H. Slack, Ayer's Cliff; A. E. Smith, Magog; B. R. Stevens, Bedford; and Dr. R. H. Stevenson, Danville. (7) The report contained the recommendations (1) that, owing to the increase in the number of examination papers in Grades XI and XII and the broadening intricacies of the course of study, regulation 97 of the regulations of the Protestant Committee be amended so that the word "six" be replaced by "not more than twelve" and (2) that the High School Leaving Board should also be allowed to coopt certain specialists in subjects such as Science, Art, and Industrial Arts, and to receive the benefit of their opinion without necessarily sitting at the Board meeting, the annual expenses of such members to be paid and an annual honorarium not to exceed $35.00. On the motion of Professor Munroe seconded by Mr. Dick the report was received and the recommendations adopted.

On the motion of Mr. Munroe seconded by Mr. Oxley it was resolved to record in the minutes of the Committee appreciation of the increased grant awarded by the Government for teacher education.

Reports were read concerning the summer schools held at Macdonald College. The reports were received on the motion of Mr. Munroe seconded by Mr. Dick.

A telegram was read from the Rev. D. A. McCraig, of the Greenfield Park United Church, and a resolution from the Board of School Commissioners of Greenfield Park protesting against the increase in school taxation in that municipality charged by the Chambly County Central School Board. It was resolved on the motion of Mr. Jones to refer the documents to the Legislative Sub-Committee and also to the Finance Committee if the Legislative Sub-Committee considered that the advice of the Finance Committee would be helpful.

A second request was received from the Provincial Association of Protestant School Boards asking that representation be accorded to the Association on the Protestant Committee. On the motion of Mr. Dunton seconded by Mr. Jones it was resolved that the request be granted and that, if necessary, representation be made to the Government to amend the law to allow for the granting of the application. The motion was lost.

A report of progress was received by the special sub-committee on Sex Education on the motion of Dr. Astbury seconded by Mr. Oxley.

The report of the Education Sub-Committee contained the following recommendations: (1) That Cycle 3 of the selections of "Latin Prose Selections" and "Latin Poetry Selections" be authorized for 1951-1952 and 1952-1953. (2) That the new edition of Hayes, Moon and Wayland's "World History" (1950 edition) be authorized and that the examinations be based on the new text. (3) That the Geography Sub-Committee set up by the Director of Protestant Education be reconvened to continue the study of Geography texts and to make new recommendations for Grades X and XI. (4) That "Living Arith-

metic" be authorized for Grades V and VI for 1951-1952, the former at $1.35 and the latter at a small increase acceptable to the Director of Protestant Education. (5) That whenever in the future the experimental issue of a textbook is authorized, the experiments should be conducted within narrow limits and that measures be taken to improve the experimental procedure. (6) That no further action be taken concerning the correspondence between the Montreal Protestant Central School Board and the Director of Protestant Education with regard to the non-authorization of "Using Our Language" in Grade IV during the current school year. (7) That further study be given to the introduction of General Science into Grades X and XI. (8) That a comparison be made in syllabus form of what is proposed in a General Science course for Grades X and XI and the content of the present full course in Physics, Chemistry and Biology. (9) That the Chairman of the Sub-Committee and the Director of Protestant Education prepare an agenda and submit it to a special meeting of the sub-committee, to which should be invited representatives of McGill and Bishop's Universities, the Science Committee of the P.A.P.T. and a representative of the Montreal Protestant Central School Board to consider the textbook in Grades VIII and IX and the possible authorization in principle of a course in General Science for Grades X and XI. It was further decided that this meeting should be held in the Board Room of the Montreal Protestant Central School Board. (10) That the new textbook entitled "Basic Course in Pitman Shorthand" be authorized in Grade IX at $1.25 less 20% f.o.b. Montreal. The report was received and the recommendations adopted on the motion of Mr. Dick seconded by Mr. Oxley.

The report on the distribution of the Superior Education Fund was presented as follows:

The amount of $413,115.00 available for distribution for 1950-1951 is $9,745.00 greater than the amount distributed in 1949-1950. Of the amount available $312,855 is for High Schools and $100,260 for Intermediate school grants.

It is recommended that:

(1)—Franklin and Gaspé Bay North Consolidated Schools be raised to the status of intermediate schools.

(2)—Onslow Consolidated and Ste. Rose (both in process of building) Schools be raised to the status of special intermediate schools.

(3)—Malartic be reduced to elementary status inasmuch as pupils are now conveyed to Percival County High School.

The request of the Trustees of Ste. Agathe des Monts that its intermediate school be raised to high school status was not acted upon inasmuch as no Grade XI is being taught during the session 1950-1951.

The amount of $18,100.00 is available for 1950-1951 from the Poor Municipality Fund. The grants from this fund are as follows:

Share of Legislative Grant for Poor Municipalities	$ 7,400
Transferred from Released Normal School Fund	7,000
Share of Marriage License Fees	3,700
Amount available	$ 18,100

These grants are made upon the recommendation of those inspectors in whose areas there are poor municipalities. Municipalities in which schools are open or which have made arrangements for the education of their children and with property valuations not in excess of $50,000 per classroom are recommended for grants from this fund. The reports were adopted on the motion of Dr. Stevenson, seconded by Mr. Deacon.

A request was received from the Board of Trustees of the Val d'Or-Bourlamaque-Malartic High School asking that the name of the School be changed to the Percival County High School. On the motion of Dr. Stevenson seconded by Mr. Dick, the request was granted in accordance with regulation 37 of the regulations of the Protestant Committee.

On the motion of Mr. Munroe seconded by Mr. Oxley, it was resolved that a special sub-committee be appointed by the chair to recommend appointments to the High School Leaving Board and that not more than nine members of the High School Leaving Board be appointed for the session 1950-1951. The Chairman named Mr. Munroe, Mr. Dick, and Mr. Oxley as the members of the Committee.

A petition was read from the thirteen Protestant non-Indian temporary residents on the Indian reservation in the village of Caughnawaga asking that a sufficient grant be made to enable the twenty-one of their children to receive education. This petition was supported by letters from Rev. J. I. MacKay, Superintendent of Missions, Quebec and Eastern Ontario, of the United Church of Canada and the Ministers of three Protestant churches in Lachine. It was also reported by the Protestant Foster Home Centre that children in certain communities surrounding Montreal were not receiving the benefits of education because they were unable to meet the outsiders' fees charged by certain school boards. On the motion of Mr. Rennie, seconded by Mr. Dunton, it was resolved that, pending the solution on a permanent basis, the government be asked to make a grant towards the fees demanded provided that the children be accepted at once by the school boards concerned. It was also decided to refer the question to the Legislative Sub-Committee with a view to finding a permanent solution.

For the sub-committee appointed at the last meeting on September 5th to make a study of the administrative changes in the Protestant side of the Department of Education that would make it possible to administer its own affairs to better advantage, the Honourable C. D. French reported as follows:

That the Finance Committee be requested to take the following action:

(a) To review the financial position of the Protestant section of the Department of Education.

(b) To assist this section of the Department of Education in the preparation of the annual budget to be requested from the Government.

(c) To recommend to the Protestant Committee that such budget be endorsed by the Protestant Committee.

(d) To recommend that the Protestant representative in the Cabinet be requested to discuss such recommended budget with the Provincial Secretary.

On the motion of Mr. French seconded by Mr. Buzzell the recommendation was adopted.

A further recommendation by the special sub-committee was that a Building Committee be appointed for the following purposes:

(a) To study the plans of projected school buildings in consultation with the Director of Protestant Education.

(b) To recommend the execution of such plans by the Protestant Committee.

(c) To submit such building plans to the Protestant representative in the Cabinet for discussion with the Provincial Secretary.

The recommendation was adopted on the motion of Mr. French seconded by Mr. Buzzell. The naming of the committee was left to the chairman.

The following notice of motion was given by Mr. Buzzell:

"Whereas this Committee is of the opinion that a survey of the whole administrative structure of Protestant education in the Province of Quebec should be made at this time;

"Now, therefore, be it resolved that this Protestant Committee instruct the Chairman to appoint a Special Commission of Enquiry of nine members, of whom seven shall be members of this Committee, with power to engage such professional or other assistants as they may deem necessary.

"Be it further resolved that this Special Commission of Enquiry be instructed to study carefully the relevant provisions of the Education Act, the Regulations of the Protestant Committee and the procedures that have developed since Confederation, in order that it may recommend to the Protestant Committee such amendments of the Education Act and such modifications of present procedure as seem to it necessary for the satisfactory functioning of Protestant Education in the Province of Quebec."

There being no further business the meeting then adjourned to reconvene on Friday, November 24th.

W. P. PERCIVAL, Secretary. G. G. D. KILPATRICK, Chairman.

INSUBORDINATION TO AUTHORITY CHARACTERISTIC OF THE PRESENT DAY

The present is an age of insubordination, and can we doubt that this has resulted from the loss of authority in the family and school? Parents and teachers have abandoned the principles of government established by our fathers. They no longer enforce obedience, but attempt to purchase it by a promised reward. Money, sugar plums, or some other desired indulgence is offered, and given, as a condition of submission. Educational Record, March, 1882

DIRECTIONS FOR TEACHING UNGRADED SCHOOLS (1884)

When they are not reciting, assign your classes textbook lessons, or some piece of definite work on slates or blackboards.

Take an hour weekly for select readings, dialogues and lessons on morals and manners.

Occasionally give your class a written examination.

Train your pupils to correct and credit the papers of the younger ones, and let the oldest girl play teacher occasionally.

TIME

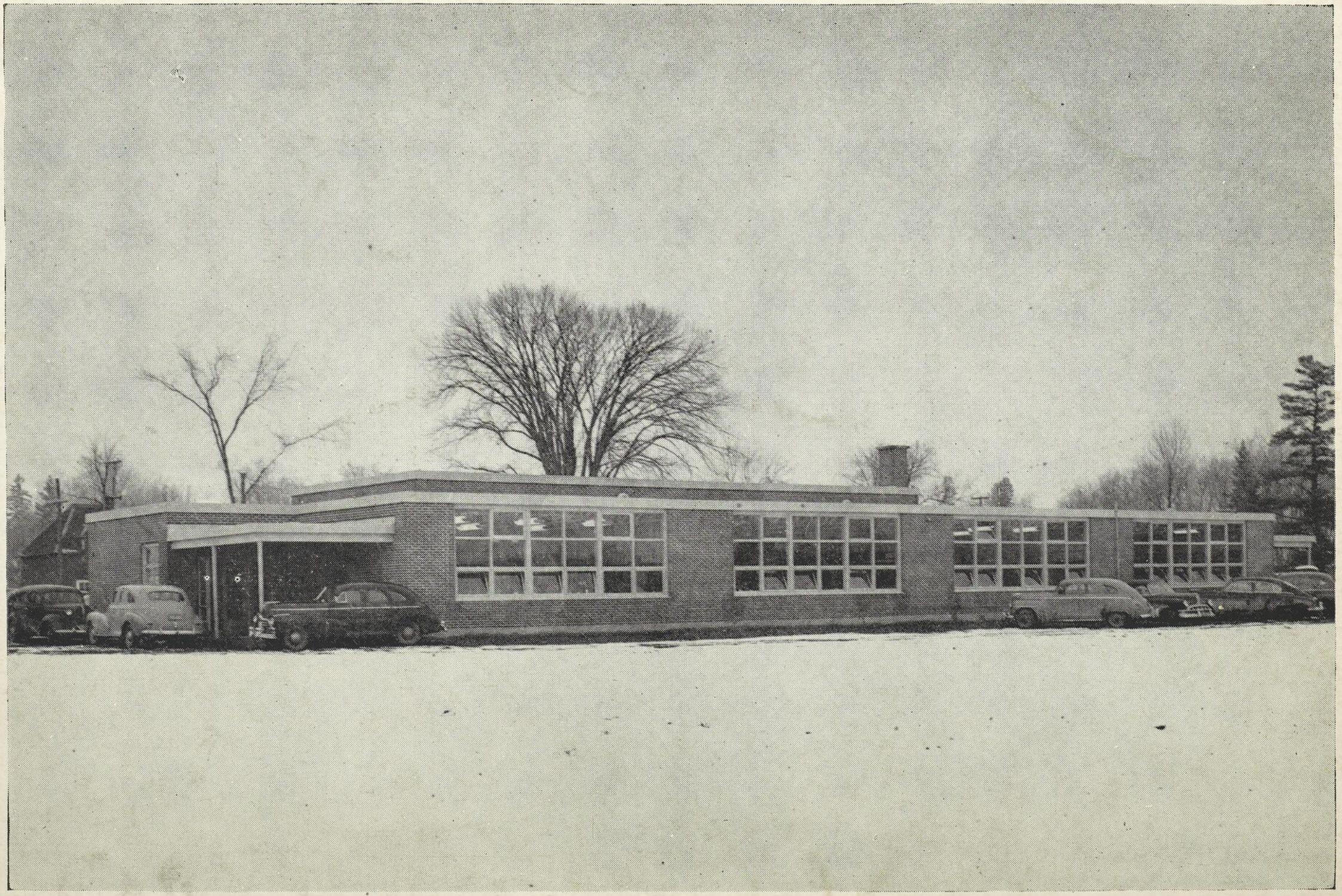
The mouse whose name is Time
Is out of sound and sight,
He nibbles at the day
And nibbles at the night.

He nibbles at the summer
Till all of it is gone;
He nibbles at the seashore;
He nibbles at the moon.

Yet no man not a seer,
No woman not a sibyl
Can ever, ever hear
Or see him nibble, nibble.

And whence or how he comes
And how or where he goes
Nobody dead remembers.
Nobody living knows.

Robert Francis.



ONSLOW INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL: Opened November 29th, 1950.