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Is Teaching a Profession?

(By HARRY CHARLESWORTH, General Secretary, B. C. Teachers' Federation.)

There can be little doubt that in the minds of many teachers the question "Is Teaching a Profession?" would be quickly answered in the affirmative, and the questioner would probably be regarded as a fit and proper subject for investigation by means of the various Intelligence tests now so much in vogue, while, if anyone should be bold enough to make the definite and positive statement that "Teaching is not a Profession," then such person would be considered as entirely without reason, or else a deliberate enemy of all teachers, actuated by malice aforethought.

In spite, however, of these terrible consequences, I feel in duty bound at least to raise the question even if only to have teachers do a little fundanmental thinking on the proposition. At any rate, the fact that I have spent some years in the service of the Teachers' Federation of British Columbia, and also the Canadian Teachers' Federation, during which time my whole efforts have been in the interests of teachers, will, I hope, remove any suspicion of uncharitableness, and will be taken as sufficient proof of the worthiness of my motive in asking the question. It might also be well to state that my position as General Secretary of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation has brought me into very close contact with a large variety of matters bearing on the subject, and has provided many unique experiences from which to draw very definite conclusions.

In the first place, much of the teaching, as we knew it of old, was of a 'dogmatic nature,' which made very definite assertions and expected as a kind of Divine prerogative that all who heard such statements would accept them without question, merely because "if teacher said it, it was so." Various generations of teachers and of pupils have held fast to this wonderful tradition, through the ages. That it is not dead even yet is shown by the following incident: A few weeks ago, the daughter of a very learned astronomer, now resident in B. C., came home from school and astounded her father by stating that "day and night were caused by the sun travelling round the earth each day." The father endeavored in a diplomatic way to correct the error, but only to be met by a sharp rejoinder: "You must be wrong, dad, for teacher told us the other way. She said that the sun rises in the East, travels round the earth and sets in the West—and it does."

Now this spirit of assertion and acceptance would seem to exert a tremendous influence upon teachers themselves, for seeing their pupils accept without questioning from them, they in turn are prone to accept without questioning from others, particularly if the acceptance is comforting, while the questioning or rejection would involve mental and moral effort, leading more or less to uneasiness.

It is probably owing to this fact that teachers have so readily taken for granted that teaching is a profession. Have we not been told over and over that not only is teaching a profession, but it is also the profession—the most glorious profession on earth, and that no other can approach it for nobility. Furthermore, have not these things been said by even Kings, Presidents, statesmen, and national leaders, as well as by educational officials and school board members? Surely, then, it must be so! It might repay us, however, to investigate a little before reaching such a conclusion. There can be only one scientific way of really determining this question, and that is by carefully weighing all the evidence. First of all, a real profession demands certain fundamental things, some of which may be summarised as follows:

(a) High qualifications for entrance.
(b) A long period of efficient training in thoroughly up-to-date institutions, both in the theory and the practice of the profession;
(c) Ample provision for post-professional training;
(d) A continuous professional spirit or attitude towards the duties involved;

(e) Observance of a strict code of ethics;
(f) Absence of deadening control by too rigid inspection, rules and regulations;
(g) Freedom for initiative and research;
(h) Control of the profession by the profession;
(i) Respect of the profession by the public, etc.

In view of these essentials which would seem to be more or less complied with in other professions, what is the position of teaching? It should be at once apparent, that no general answer can be given, for we are immediately confronted with the fact that there is no uniform standard of teacher, as there is in say the professions of medicine or law. Teachers are divided into groups by reason of their certificates, academic, first and second class, etc., the qualifications and training differing in each instance. These divisions mark a fundamental difference between teachers, and members of the recognized professions, and they constitute an undoubted difficulty in obtaining a real professional recognition for the teaching body as a whole. We have in our system many teachers whose academic qualifications and length of university training exceed the requirements for either law or medicine, but on the other hand we have a large number who fall very far short in comparison, and the general public conception is based on the larger number. In order to remedy this situation, some of the more advanced school systems have made provision whereby every teacher, irrespective of the grade taught, can take an equally long and thorough course of specialized professional training, so that there is no difference in the professional standing of the High School Teacher and, say, the Junior Grade Teacher. Where this system has been adopted, there is also no distinction made in the salary paid in the various departments, but what is known as the single salary schedule operates.

A further complication, which is often overlooked, lies in the fact that, whereas members of most other professions set up as individual practitioners, teachers are almost all employed by various educational bodies, and, what is of vital importance, by public bodies, who pay teachers' salaries from public funds.

Again, many teachers spend only a comparatively short time in teaching, which constitutes one more fundamental distinction from the general run of professions.

These factors make it impossible to take in toto any other profession as the model upon which to build, when we are considering teaching as a profession.

It would seem to be the wiser course to adapt the essential features which determine a profession, to the peculiar circumstances and needs of teaching. This would make teaching a real profession in a much higher degree, and in a much shorter time, than would be the case by simply trying to force theoretical ideals to impractical conclusions.

Such a course has been consistently followed by the Teachers' Federation of British Columbia. One of its outstanding aims has always been to make teaching a profession, not exactly like other professions, but distinct and different with standards just as high. During the eight years of its existence, remarkable progress has been made, as will be seen from a brief resume of what has been accomplished under the fundamentals previously expressed.

On the general questions of entrance qualifications, professional training, and post-graduate work, the Federation records show that we have always advocated and worked for everything leading to a raising of standards, and our work has met with much success, as the abolition of Third Class Certificates, the extension of the Normal Course to one year, and the provision of Summer School work in connection with the University of British Columbia, will show.

The professional spirit and attitude to teaching has greatly improved as a result of the Federation's activities. Association meetings and conventions have brought about a fellowship which has been productive of much good.

Remarkable things have also been accomplished with regard to the ethical conduct of teachers. Many examples could be cited to show where teachers have, at a great sacrifice to their own personal advancement, exhibited a standard or professional conduct unsurpassed by members of any other profession. In this connection, however, there is need for some concern, particularly with regard to those entering the ranks of teachers for the first time. In their anxiety to obtain positions, some of the younger teachers have given no thought to the ultimate consequences, and have agreed to accept positions at salaries which scarcely compare favorably with the wages which the Minimum Wage Board forces employers to pay to female help. Thus, their years at High School and at Normal School are evidently considered as of no monetary value. To give concrete examples: Under the Minimum Wage Act of B. C. a girl eighteen years old, without experience, if employed in a store, must be paid a salary of $9.00 per week, increasing $1.00 per week each quarter; after one year's experience she must receive $12.75 per week or $663.00 per year. There are a few cases in British Columbia where teachers, after all the time and expense of their four or five years' training, are teaching for $697.00 a year. Fortunately such cases are rare, but unless Normal graduates themselves set a higher value on their services there are likely to be more.

A School Board, which believes that a good teacher is worthy of a respectable salary, and which also believes that an unprofessional teacher is not the best person to be entrusted with the development of the character of children, recently caused to be forwarded to me an original letter from a Normal graduate applicant for a position, in which the following statement occurs: "The salary is of secondary importance to the experience, and I would be willing to accept a lower salary." It is to the credit of the Board that she was not appointed.

With regard to rigid inspection, and the undue stressing of uniformity, with its subsequent killing of initiative and research, a good beginning towards im-

provement has been made. Time was when all teachers were expected merely to carry out rules and regulations in their teaching, even to the extent of the methods used. This might have been necessary in past days, but recently, many teachers have taken a much broader view of teaching, and have carried out extensive studies in the most advanced and approved developments, with the result that they are in a position to improve greatly upon much of the old time routine. This fact is now being generally recognized and there is every reason to believe that in the near future the system of inspection will be such as to allow greater freedom to those whose teaching efficiency is beyond question and greater attention will be paid to those who have been content to drift along in the old-fashioned ideas.

For reasons already indicated, it will probably not be possible for the control of the profession to be in the hands of the profession, as is the case in medicine or law, and even to a great extent in the Church, but there is not the slightest reason why the teachers should not have an officially recognized part in many of the matters affecting educational affairs. In some countries, and in some cities in Canada, the teachers have been conceded the privilege of having teacher representatives sitting with the School Board at all meetings, and such representatives are expected to give advice and assistance when matters concerning the teaching profession or the inner working of the schools are under consideration. The success of this scheme is such that its extension will no doubt in time be general. In all probablity also, a movement will be initiated in Canada for a Teachers' Registration Council, after the pattern of that now functioning so excellently in England. Under this system, the teachers will have a body similar to the Medical or Law Society to which only members of approved qualifications and efficiency will be admitted, and from which any member guilty of departing from recognized standards of service and professional conduct would be removed.

All of these movements more or less defined are indicative of the desire of the teachers themselves to raise their status, from within, and even what success has been accomplished already has resulted in such a marked improvement in efficiency, service and possibilities for future advances in the interest of educational progress, that the more intelligent portion of public opinion has already greatly increased its respect for those engaged in the development of the character and intelligence of the children of our Dominion.

There is, at the present time, a distinct call and a challenge to every teacher to enlist in a great forward movement seeking to elevate teaching.

When every teacher in the Province realizes his or her responsibility to the teaching body, and assists in the solution of the problem by at least being professional enough to join the organization which is bringing teaching into its rightful place as a profession of great importance, then there will be little need to ask "Is Teaching a Profession?"

Types of Courses of Study

Extracts from "Public School Administration" by Ellwood P. Cubberley,
Professor of Education, Leland Stanford University.

[In view of the fact that the teachers of British Columbia are preparing recommendations on the above topic, for presentation to the Educational Survey Commissioners, the following statements from Professor Cubberley's "Public School Administration" (published by Houghton Mifflin Company, New York) are of great interest for they give a fundamental conception of educational courses, stating the problem very largely as it exists in British Columbia.—Editor.]

In general, and disregarding minor variations, courses of study group themselves about two main types, though with many courses lying in between and shading more or less into one or the other. These two types may be designated as (1) the information or knowledge type, and (2) the development type.

1.—Information or Knowledge Courses

The pedagogical conceptions as to the purpose of education which lies back of the construction of this type of courses of study are that it is the mission of the school to pass on the accumulated knowledge of the past to the next generation, that the mere process of acquiring such knowledge gives good mental discipline, and that knowledge is synonymous with power. Facts, often of no particular importance in themselves, are taught, memorized, and tested for, to be forgotten as soon as the school-grade need for them has passed. Tool studies, as opposed to content studies and constructional activities, are greatly overemphasized, and are made ends in themselves. Years of a child's life are often spent in learning supposed uses for a tool for which there is no use outside of the school room itself; weeks, months, and even years are spent in drilling on problems of a type no man in practical life ever solves, and which can be of no use to any one except a school teacher.

Arithmetic and formal grammar are greatly overemphasized in such courses; reading is taught as an end in itself, instead of as a tool to unlock biography, history and literature, and to lead to pleasure and enjoyment; the composition work is dull, formal, and unproductive; geography is a book geography, while the world before the eyes of teacher and children remains unread and almost unknown; drawing and music are formal; science is minimized, and used largely as a disciplinary study; and any real enrichment of the courses of instruction is wanting. Grade instruction continues through the eighth grade, and the secondary-school courses also are bookish, somewhat limited in scope, and uniform for all types of students. Bookish and abstract work dominates the courses of instruction, to the serious injury of that large minority of children, if not actual majority, who must be educated largely through contact with concrete things.

Dependence upon text-books.—Such courses of study usually reveal a large dependence upon text-books, with little or no supplementary or collateral material supplied. Often such courses are carefully subdivided into parts, and the pages in the specified textbooks which are to be taught, in each segment of the course, are enumerated. Often the courses of study depend so thoroughly upon the adopted text-books that they are very brief, and consist almost entirely of a specification of certain pages in certain books, giving to teachers no other directions or suggestions than are contained in such books. Such a plan actually gives little liberty to principals or teachers, and hence relieves them of all responsibility in the matter of the adaptation or development of the work. The courses are handed down from above as finished products, and criticism of the courses is usually not especially welcomed by those who prepared them. The result is that both principals and teachers feel that they are relieved of any responsibility for what they contain, or their educational result; the instruction tends to become formal and routine and perfunctory in type; and the teaching force tends slowly to go to sleep, so far as thinking about what they are doing is concerned.

The administration of such courses.—Such courses are also charcterized by an almost deadening uniformity, and the work of each teacher and school is usually carefully checked up by supervisors who act as inspectors, and by periodical written tests sent out from the central office. The administration of the courses of study becomes the running of a machine. So much work is laid out to be done, and the proof of the doing of it is to be found in the reports of progress and the quarterly or half-yearly written tests. Anticipation of the examination dominates the work of instruction; fact reviews are frequent; teachers keep lists of the questions for years preceding, and carefully coach their pupils on the points it is thought may be asked for; and the standing of the schools and teachers is in large part determined by the promotional records. The almost inevitable result is that both teachers and pupils lose sight of the real aims in school work and the purposes of education; the important ends of instruction are subordinated to the cramming of facts; the real abilities of teachers and children are in no way measured by the results; the retardation and elimination of pupils in the system is high; and the paralyzing effect of such an administration of instruction extends through all branches of the school sys-

tem and is evidenced in the character of the final output of the schools.

Effect on the instructing body.—The knowledge theory dominates everything; the supervision becomes inspection; the chief educational function of the central office is to say what is to be done and to test the results; the principals become keepers of records and handers-out of chalk and supplies; and the teachers do their part in a passive and routine manner, thinking little as to the educational significance of what they do, and without interest in educational procedure, so long as their pupils pass and they are let alone by the inspecting authorities.

The preparation of such courses of study requires but little thought. To be sure, the knowledge theory underlies their construction, but they could nevertheless be prepared by mathematically dividing off the pages of the textbooks, or by copying what had been prepared elsewhere. The effect of such courses on the schools is as bad as their preparation is easy, and the promulgation and administration of such a type of courses of instruction for the schools is one of the best recipes that can be given for producing an unthinking and professionally inactive body of principals and teachers. There may be an appearance of smooth-running machinery and an absence of friction, but such quiet activity is due rather to the professional death on all sides than to the quiet hum of a professionally interested teaching body.

2.—The Development Type of Courses.

Entirely different conceptions as to the nature and purpose of education underlie the preparation of this type of courses of study. Instead of being fixed and finished products, this type of courses remain living and developing things. Instead of facts being conceived as important in themselves, they are regarded as of no real importance until they have been put to use. Knowledge is conceived of as life experience and inner conviction, and not as the memorization of the accumulated knowledge of the past,—as a tool to do something with, and not a finished product in itself. The whole conception of the school is, in consequence, changed from that of a place where children prepare for life, by learning certain traditional things, to a place where children live life, and are daily brought in contact with such real life experiences as will best prepare them for the harder problems of life which lie just ahead. The children in the community who present themselves for education, and not the more or less traditional subject-matter of instruction, are regarded as the real educational problem. Of course, under such a working conception, nothing can remain very fixed or very final.

The principal and teacher in such a school system.—The principals and teachers in a school system where the courses of instruction have been worked out on a basis of such modern educational conceptions, naturally occupy quite a different position from that of principals and teachers in city school systems which follow the other and older type of courses of study. It now becomes the business of all to think over and study the problems of instruction, with a view to adapting and adjusting the school work to the needs and capacities of the pupils to be instructed. The chief purpose of the school principals, in so far as their work with teachers relates to instruction, and the chief purpose of the teachers in the classrooms with the children, now becomes that of acting as stimuli to thinking over the problems at hand.

The principal proposes methods of procedure to his teachers, and these are considered and tried out. The teachers propose problems to their pupils, and guide them in thinking, studying, and examining them. In each case the solving is the real thing; not the memorizing of some one else's solution.

In a way, both principals and teachers stand as stimuli to individual activity, as whetstones upon which those stimulated may bring their thinking to a keener edge, and as critics by whose help young people may develop their ability to reason accurately and well. The purpose of instruction is changed from the memorization of facts, to that of fitting pupils for personal responsibilities; from that of accumulating information, to that of training young people to stand on their own feet; from that of transmitting to them the inherited knowledge of the past, to that of preparing them for social efficiency in the life of tomorrow.

Mere drill—often meaningless and unintelligent drill—is largely replaced by lessons involving appreciation and expression; problems that prepare for efficient participation in the work of democratic government are emphasized, and training in solving them is given and the social relationships of the classroom and the school are directed toward the preparation of socially efficient men and women. The teacher's main duty becomes that of guiding and directing the normal processes of thought and action on the part of pupils, of extending their appreciation into new directions, of widening the horizon of their ambitions, and of stimulating the development of larger and better ideals for life and for service.

The final test for all such work naturally cannot be the term or the quarterly written examination, but must be the judgment of principal and teacher as to whether the pupil has developed sufficiently, under such a course of training, as to be ready to attempt the problems which will meet him in the next grade school.

Such courses, growing courses.—As was said above, nothing can be very fixed or very final in the courses

of instruction in a school system actuated by such conceptions as to the purposes for which it exists. There will, of course, be certain constants in instruction, which will be more or less generally required of all normal children. Certain alternatives also will be proposed, from which schools and teachers may choose. Certain optionals will also be included, which may be taken up or omitted, as the needs of the classes or of the brighter pupils may seem to require.

The courses, though, will be regarded as dynamic rather than static, in the sense that year by year they will be subject to change to meet changing needs, or to bring them more into harmony with the results of the best experience, either within or without the city. The needs of the community and of society are ever changing and growing, while the needs of children vary much, and the adaptation of schools, teaching, and subject-matter to meet these changing needs is one of the most important problems connected with the supervision of instruction.

Experimental rooms or schools.—A superintendent of schools ought to have no hesitance in permitting teachers or schools to try new experiments in instruction, under regulated conditions. On the contrary, he ought to encourage such experimentation. Connected with every school system there ought to be a few experimental rooms. Even if the results prove no better than the methods in use, or even prove unsatisfactory, the effect of such experimentation on the teaching force is good. It keeps principals and teachers thinking, and tends to prevent the oncoming of that mental crystallication which seems to settle gradually over so many principals and teachers like the hardening of a plaster cast.

Under the direction of superintendent and principals a few of the more reliable teachers should try new experiments in instruction. If these turn out well, it is then easy to introduce them into the schools; if not, they can be let alone. Growth comes from such an open-minded attitude toward new methods and ideas, and not from standing still, repeating the same operations and following the same methods day after day and year after year.

In both elementary and secondary education there are many opportunities for the elimination of waste in instruction, and for the economy of time in passing pupils along. In part this calls for eliminations in courses, in part for the introduction of new types of educational tools, and in part for adjustments and differentiations in instruction to meet individual and community needs.

The Effects of Forest Fires

By T. H. Wilkinson, Forestry Dept.

Damage to Reproduction

A considerable portion of our fire damage is the destruction of the young trees and reproduction which must be depended upon for the Forests of the future. This young growth, which is commonly called "Christmas Trees" by boys, is very inflammable during the dry season. It may not appear to have any value at the present time but remember, the big trees which we are using to-day were once small "Christmas Trees" A fire travelling through this young growth kills it outright, and although it may stand for a considerable time, it is eventually blown down or weighted down by snow and becomes an exceedingly bad fire trap. One of the worst features of the young growth destroyed by fire is the fact that the trees have not yet grown old enough to bear and scatter seed, and so the chance of another crop is very materially reduced.

Damage:—Effect on Waterflow.

Did it ever occur to you that the Forests have a very great effect on waterflow? You quite frequently take your school geography and trace some mighty river to its source and you note that the river, although wide at the mouth, is sometimes difficult to trace, because it appears to have one mass of tributaries which narrow down to pin points as in the case of the great river.

You know, of course, that the river increases in width towards the mouth, because of the supply of water received from the tributaries, but have you ever wondered where and how the supply reaches the tributaries? It is because each and every stream taps a watershed and we have ample proof that the presence of Forest Growth on the watersheds renders their flow more equable, decreases erosion, lessens the tendency towards destructive floods, and thus increases the value of the stream for navigation, water power or irrigation.

The influence of the Forests on the water-flow is due to the innumerable obstacles, the trunks of the shrubs and trees, the twigs, the dead leaves and the matted network of roots of which break up the rainfall and delay the run off water. But the greatest influence of all is the absorption power of the layer of dead leaves, debris, moss and humus, which forms the Forest Floor. The water penetrates slowly to the soil and the run off is even. Imagine this as a great sponge. This forest floor can be utterly destroyed by fire and cannot be replaced for many years after a fire.

Damage to General Business

You have been told of the great industries which are dependent on the Forests for their existence. You can therefore readily appreciate that those people who earn their living in the pulp and paper mills must suffer.

No timber means no sawmills, shingle mills, box factories, wooden ties, wooden poles, mine props, fence posts, cordwood. In fact, you cannot think of an industry which is not vitally effected when forests burn.

The trapper must also suffer when his fur bearing animals are destroyed or driven afar by fire.

The hunter no longer finds game plentiful and the muddy streams of unregulated waterflow no longer appeal to the fisherman.

PROVINCIAL ASSOCIATIONS OF TEACHERS

NAME	When organized	Membership	Annual Meeting	Secretary	Organ	Teachers in Province
B. C. Teachers' Fed'n.	1916	1900	Easter	Harry Charlesworth, Victoria	B. C. Teacher	3,000
Alberta Teachers' Alliance	1917	2200	Easter	J. W. Barnett, Edmonton.	A.T.A. Magazine	5,000
Sask. Teachers' Alliance	1917	750	Easter	J. M. Thomas, Conquest.	S.T.A. Bulletin	6,200
Manitoba Teachers' Fed'n.	1919	1525	Christmas	E. K. Marshall, Winnipeg.	Man. Teacher	4,000
Ont. Fed'n of Women Teachers	—	3600	Easter	Miss E. Carr, Hamilton.	W.T. Bulletin	10,000
Ont. P.S. Men Teachers' Fed'n.	1919	600	Easter	L. J. Colling, Hamilton.	O.P.S.M.T.F. Mag.	1,500
Ont. Sec. Sch. Teachers' Fed'n.	1919	1500	Christmas	S. H. Henry, Toronto.	O.S.S.T.F. Bulletin	2,000
Prov. Ass'n. Prot. T. Quebec	1864	1350	Oct.	A. W. Lang, Montreal.	The Teachers' Mag.	2,000
N. B. Teachers' Ass'n.	1918	800	June	C. T. Wetmore, Hampton.	Educ'l. Review	2,215
N. S. Teachers' Union	1921	1150	Thanks'g.	Rev. M.M. Coady, Antigonish.	Bulletin of N.S.T.U.	3,200
P. E. I. Teachers' Union	1918	400	Easter	Miss Jean Tait.	Educ'l. Review	650

All the above named units are included in the membership of the Canadian Teachers' Federation, with the exception of those from New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. Thus the Canadian Federation binds together about 14,000 members. New Brunswick had a visiting delegate at the Victoria Convention, and it is confidently hoped that by next summer the Canadian Teachers' Federation will include every province of the Dominion.

The British Association for the Advancement of Science

SYNOPSIS OF ADDRESS

Educational Section

The British Association for the Advancement of Science held its 92nd Annual Meeting in Toronto, Canada, from the 6th to the 13th of August. The Association had met in Canada on three previous occasions, viz., in 1884, 1897 and 1909.

More than 500 leading British and European scientists were present at the meeting, which was organized in thirteen sections as follows:—Mathematics and Physics (including Meteorology), Chemistry, Geology, Zoology, Geography, Economics, Engineering, Anthropology, Physiology, Psychology, Botany, Education, and Agriculture.

Recent advances in science were discussed at the sectional meetings. In addition, many popular lectures were delivered to members by leading scientists. Four "citizen's" lectures and three children's lectures were open to the public, and free.

The meeting afforded an exceptional opportunity for intercourse between American, British, Canadian and European workers in science, and all who, while not engaged in scientific pursuits, are interested in the results of scientific endeavor.

Brief reports of some of the addresses follow.

ANALYZES EXAMS MATHEMATICALLY

Researches on intelligence which are receiving attention at the Ontario College of Education were reported at a joint meeting of the educational science and psychology sections of the British Association by Prof. Peter Sandiford, of the University of Toronto. It is necessary to combine educational theory with statistical methods before it is possible to evaluate the answers which candidates give to a uniform set of questions, Prof. Sandiford indicated. "The investigations at the Ontario College of Education have shown that the marks made by pupils in specially prepared standard tests for High School physiography and physics are due not only to their knowledge of science, but also to such factors as reading ability, intelligence, age, and the like," he said.

The method adopted for sorting out the contribution which each of these factors makes to a pupil's answers to examination questions, is the use of "partial coefficients of correlation" formulae," which have been devised by mathematicians to permit the determination of the independent contribution which is made by each of several variable factors to a given result. The equations have been in use among economists for some time for the prediction of crops, for example, but they will have to be utilized also by educators and psychologists, before much further progress can be made in the quantitative aspect of the science of education.

"By taking age into account and by the use of tests for reading and intelligence, followed by the calculation of partial co-efficients of correlation, it is possible to free the results of a trial examination of this kind from the influence of age, intelligence and reading ability, leaving those mainly due to the knowledge of science," stated Prof. Sandiford. The methods which are being developed for this purpose can be applied to other fields also, the speaker indicated.

PUTTING THE CALIPERS ON CHILD'S MENTALITY

Methods by which school staffs can estimate the mental age of pupils without the application of formal intelligence tests were outlined to education section of the British Association by Dr. S. B. Sinclair, inspector of auxiliary classes in Ontario schools. According to the procedure recently introduced by the Department of Education for the separation of backward pupils for the special classes and schools, a preliminary selection is made by the local school staff consisting of inspector, principal, teacher, nurse and physician, and about twice the number to be assigned to the special class are set aside for subsequent examination by specialists.

Records of the mentality estimates formed by such an examining board after study and observation have been kept, and they show very fair agreement with the subsequent findings of an examination made by the formal test, it appears. The teacher's approximations have proved valuable in the recognition of cases which benefit by transference to other classes where they receive special treatment and attention.

DISTURBS YOUR COMPLEXES WHEN YOU WRITE TOO FAST

The well known observation that the faster one writes, the more mistakes one makes,has been made the subject of experiments reported in the psychology section of the British Association by Prof. A. A. Roback, of Harvard University, whose researches show that under pressure of increased speed, there is loss of control, the results being explainable as the workings of two complementary processes in the nervous system, designated by the psychologist as perseveration and assimilation. "The first of these factors refers to the tendency of a movement to be repeated whether in substitution for another or superfluously," said Prof. Roback. "The second process relates to the tendency of one movement to resemble another in close proximity, and in accordance with certain cues which would favor such assimilation."

Prof. Roback investigated the subject from the

point of view of the movements in writing, the sensations accompanying the physical act of forming pothooks and hangers, and finally, the effect on the process on concentration on the part of the subject of the experiment, and he has concluded that the writer's attention becomes diverted from the idea of the word, to the muscular system called into play in reproducing it in letters, the result being confusion of the movement.

"Consonants have a greater chance of occurring than vowels," said Prof. Roback in telling of types of mistakes which have been found common in writing at high speed. "That is to say, vowels are more frequently omitted than consonants.

"The more pronounced a consonant is, the more chance it has of presenting itself. Letters like f, g, y, are favored in preference to l, c, or t.

"Down strokes and circular movements are preferred to other types of movement.

"The same subject tends to break down at the same place in writing a given sentence or series of figures many times, which would show that the psychical processes possess some uniformity."

Increased pressure on the writing ability tends to bring out characteristics of a particular handwriting in an exaggerated form, the scientist stated. Large handwriting tends to become still larger, under the abnormal conditions, and "loopy" characters are accentuated.

ONE SOURCE INADEQUATE FOR EMPIRE LITERATURE

No uniform standard can be set for the teaching of history and geography of the British Empire in the schools of its varied Dominions, according to Prof. G. M. Wrong, of the University of Toronto, who addressed educationists at the British Association. In pointing out that individual texts and specially adapted teaching are required for each special outpost of the little League of Nations, Prof. Wrong said:

"History moulds the traditions of a people; geography tends to determine their occupation, and with this, in part, their mentality. The British Empire manifests itself differently in five continents. There is no real New England anywhere. In every part of the Empire the British tradition is modified by local experience and by the influence of environment.

"The teacher has to explain how the British Empire came into being, and why geography has made it so varied; why, for instance, a man of English descent in Canada, in Australia, and in South Africa is far from being an Englishman. Special sympathy and understanding are required to explain these differences. English history and literature are pervaded by the English climate. The English literature respecting Christmas requires explaining in Australia, where Christmas comes in the warm season. It is not easy for an Englishman, living within easy reach of the sea, to understand the problems of life on the Canadian prairie, hundreds of miles from the sea.

"For effective teaching of history and geography each country requires an adequate literature, adjusted to the needs of the pupils in that country. It is probable that an Australian of understanding can write the history of England for Australians better than an Englishman, who would not comprehend the different angle at which an Australian must survey English history. The British Empire needs a copious literature, created not in one part but in all parts of the Empire. Another need is the instructive and sympathetic teacher, free from the patronising assumption that the best and truest are to be found only in his part of the Empire. A world-Empire needs a world-spirit in its teachers."

NEED TO HUMANIZE GEOGRAPHY TEACHING

"The teacher of geography should regard his subject as a preparation for a sane and sympathetic outlook upon the peoples and problems of the world." So said Ernest Young, of the education committee of Middlesex in his address on Modern Tendencies in the Teaching of Geography at the British Association meeting. He continued:—

"Geography, taught on sensible lines, is the foundation of rational internationalism, balanced patriotism, and efficient citizenship. The method of laying the foundation is, firstly, to deal with the whole world in the course of the school life, and to deal with it as a coherent whole and not as a number of independent and disconnected fragments.

"Secondarily, it must be treated as a collection of independent 'natural regions.' The third point to be borne in mind, is the necessity for giving to each region a human interpretation."

School schemes in geography should be as carefully organized as schemes in arithmetic, Mr. Young pointed out. "They should be characterized by progressive difficulty of ideas, as well as by increased number of facts," he stated.

SENSE OF HUMOUR IN CHILDREN

(By Dr. C. W. Kimmins, Univ. of London.)

"In all the important crises of life, the ability to bring to bear on a difficult situation the eternal spirit of childhood is a very great solace which is denied to those in whom the sense of humour is lacking." So said Dr. C. W. Kimmins, of the University of London, in his address on the Sense of Humour in Children in the education section of the British Association. Dr. Kimmins has carried out an extensive investigation into the nature of the situations which are the cause of laughter in children, and in rating a sense of humour as a priceless possession, to grown-ups as well as to boys and girls, he said: "An investigation of the sense of humour in children at different ages and the conditions which are favorable to its play and development becomes, therefore, a matter of more than ordinary interest."

The scientist derived the bulk of the material for his investigation by analyzing thousands of funny stories and jokes which were obtained from children in the schools of London in answer to the request to give an account of the funniest story they had ever read or heard, and of the joke which made them laugh the most.

The questions were also tried on children too young to give written replies, and their answers were noted down by careful observers.

After the classification of many thousands of answers certain generalizations were made, and particular types of funny stories were found to exert the greatest appeal at certain definite ages. The information which was obtained in this way sheds light on the mental make-up of boys and girls of the different ages, Dr. Kimmins pointed out, and is invaluable to those who seek to probe the workings of the child-mind.

The experiment has been tried in America also on the extensive scale necessary to produce significant results, with the outcome that a general similarity in the mirth-provoking element is found on both sides of the Atlantic but there are certain well marked differences. Dr. Kimmins has recently extended his investigations to France and Germany.

In showing the development of the faculty for appreciating a humorous situation, with increasing years, Dr. Kimmins stated that the funny remarks of very young children are frequently unintentional, and consequently they must be discounted in tracing the development. He said: "The appreciation of humour by very young children must not be confused with their smart and witty sayings, which are said without any intention of their being humourous or producing laughter. It is naivete pure and simple.

"To the psychologists the study of naivete is of the greatest possible importance, as it gives valuable indications of the child's racial inheritance and indicates several directions in which the education of young children might be modified. This study is a somewhat neglected field of research, Dr. Kimmins reported. "There are several well known accounts of the first year of a child's life, but the period from two to five years of age is more or less an unworked field," he said. The question is receiving attention from psychologists in America, however.

Situations of the purely visual type are the first to appeal to the humourous side of infants, Dr. Kimmins has found. This was his explanation of the laughter-producing effect of slapstick comedy: "The irrestible appeal of Charlie Chaplin to young children is due to the fact not only that he is a clever artist but that he is breaking all the conventions of society, and is doing in a very amusing way, the things that children are forbidden to do. The continual movement, variety and change of action, so dear to the child mind, increase the effect."

Of articles of apparel as ingredients in a funny situation, the hat would appear to be the one about which much of the fun centres. "A big man with a small hat, or a small child with a man's hat never fails to provoke laughter," Dr. Kimmins reminded the scientists. The appeal of the hat is not confined to children, as it is an important part of the stock in trade of the clown and of every comic artist.

"A hat blown off, providing it is not your own, causes amusement; and the position of the hat on the head produces great changes in the general appearance. A suit of clothes, unless of extravagant design, rarely provoked laughter, it simply appears as a natural extension or suburb of the body. Not so with the hat, which is more of the nature of a foreign body.

"When children reach seven years of age, the records show a transition from the purely visual type of humourous situation to an elementary playing with words.

"At this stage there is a marked difference between the boys and the girls. The stories of the boys mainly consist of movie and fairy tales, and many of the jokes have for their basis the misfortune of others.

"On the other hand the stories of the girls are almost exclusively fairy tales, a large percentage of which are about the story of 'the three bears' which retains its appeal to children far longer than might be expected.

"Girls are much more introspective than boys and in their records there are many riddles and much play on words, while these elements are missing from those of the boys.

"When children 8 years of age are examined, it is

noticed that the boys begin to take pleasure in riddles, but they are still far behind the girls in this respect.

"The feeling of superiority as a fertile source of laughter now makes its appearance in the accounts of the mistakes of younger children. The girls here, as at other ages, associate stupidity with the boys, but there is no reciprocal action.

"here is now a marked increase in the domestic and curiously, those based on boisterous fun nore common with the girls than with the is particular age."

time the children are nine years old, a taken place in their outlook, Dr. Kimmins

"The intelligent child of this age has e difficulties connected with reading and voracious reader, and is rapidly acquiring nd of useful knowledge.

and girls at this period are particularly in- ted in funny stories and jokes. The domestic story improves, and accounts of comic incidents from well known books are quoted. The feeling of superiority is increasing, and stories and jokes of amusing mistakes of younger children are very popular.

In comparing the results of the investigations conducted among English children and children in American schools, the scientist told how fairy stories persist longer on this side of the Atlantic as the theme of the funny stories, and similarly, domestic situations are quoted more freely here as the basis of jokes. The greatest differences have resulted, however, in the appeal to superiority, and the frequency of the playing on words. Stupidity serves as the point of the story on this continent twice as often as in England, while with American children from 8 to 11 years, playing on words is commonly the foundation of the witticism. "This is due to the great mixture of races and the mistakes made by children endeavouring to make themselves understood," the speaker stated.

"Exaggeration stories among English children are confined almost entirely to 12 and 13 years of age, but with American children, it is a stock form of humour from 11 to 18.

"But the most marked difference between the two countries is that stories and jokes of gross absurdity are far more common with American children and there are fewer of the smart retorts.

"In both countries, the misfortunes of others fall off as an element of humour after 10 years of age, and likewise, boisterous fun reaches its maximum at the age of 12."

Interesting comparisons were drawn between the laughing propensities of colored and white children. "The childish outlook remains very much longer with coloured than with white children. Coloured boys have a much keener sense of humour than the girls, in many of whom, the sense is lacking. The coloured children are three years behind the whites in the sense of humour. Subtlety rarely occurs, and the humour is of the most primitive nature. The coloured child laughs more readily than the white, but the play-interest is dominant.

"Laughter is more contagious with coloured than with white children, though many have not the faintest idea of what they are laughing about. If one child laughs the others join in. They have less facial control than other children. From 12 to 15, coloured children are very keen on Irish stupidity stories.

Commenting on the fact that fairy stories hold an important place in the records of the funny stories of children, Dr. Kimmins said: "This hold of the fairy story on the child's imagination finds expression also in the funny sights seen in the behaviour of animals. In the fairy story, the animals talk and give every indication of possessing a high level of intelligence. In the domestic life of the child the dog and cat are retained on their pedestal and are endowed by the children with a much higher range of ability and intelligence than is granted to them by adults.

"Their quarrels, love affairs, and their power of dealing with difficult situations approximate to those observed in human behaviour, in the children's imagination." Citing stories in which animals are endowed with human intelligence, Dr. Kimmins inferred: "The domesticated animals thus take an important position in the kingdom of the child. At all ages, the cat, dog or parrot, plays an important part in the percentage of funny sights." Allied to their greater preference for fairy stories, is the popularity of tales of this kind with girls.

The feeling of superiority, or recognition of stupidity, according to the viewpoint, is a prominent factor in the humourous situations, Dr. Kimmins has found. "In verbal humour, this feeling of superiority at some ages runs rampant," he said. "In visual humour it holds an important position." Children who are themselves the object of the humourous situation may join in the laugh. "On testing a large number of boys who had recently left school and had entered employment it was found that the element of superiority in the funniest sights had increased enormously."

As the converse of this, is the case in which the laughter is at the adults, as the children's normal superiors in situations in which the child takes no part except as the onlooker. The aunt frequently appears as the mirth provoking element in such cases.

"At ten years of age the affairs of the school are of great interest to the child and the popular teacher produces possibly an exaggerated effect in his mirthful moments.

"At school performances in which the teacher takes part, his success is the occasion of flattering references in the children's records of funniest sights they have ever seen.

"On the other hand children frequently criticize their parents, and rejoice at the failure of the father, but they rarely criticise the mother." Among the answers to the questions was the remark from one girl that "it takes a lot to make father laugh, but even he had to join in," while after her father's unsuccessful attempt to amuse the baby in the absence of the mother a girl says: "I am afraid if baby always had to play with father, he would not get much amusement."

Travel scenes frequently give rise to childish fun.

Dr. Kimmins agreed with Stephen Leacock in that the real sense of humour, in grown ups, differ very little in America and in England. "But the material on which it operates differs widely," he said. "Thus we get clear distinctions between English and American humour. The appreciation of a humourous situation depends upon the type and extent of the culture of the individual affected.

"The nature of the environment, social outlook, and the advance of civilization must of necessity have a profound effect on the things we laugh at. Nothing illustrates this better than the change of humour from century to century and the folly, of which so much advantage has been taken, of discussing the definitions of experts who have written on humour and laughter from age to age under widely different social conditions.

"A study of laughter provoking material in people of different stages of civilization makes this abundantly clear. The humanization of laughter accompanies the progress of higher ideals in national life. Our laughter at the misfortune of others no longer includes deformities and situations involving actual or possible loss of life.

"It stands to reason that as environment, history, and tradition have such a great effect on the laughter-provoking material of a people, there must be a great difference between English and American humour. A new country without outstanding professional humourists, such as there are, primarily newspaper men, with a comparative absence of tradition and convention and therefore with every opportunity for great freedom of expression, must of necessity have a different type of humour from that of an old country bound by tradition and anxious above all things to keep well within social conventions.

"The rapid growth and extraordinary prosperity of America have produced a fertile soil for the development of a habit of exaggeration and what has been termed 'an exuberant love of lying.' The point which has not been sufficiently emphasized is the wonderful influence of the professional humourist as represented by the Mark Twain school with its enormous publicity through literature and lecturing platforms in giving a very definite stamp to American humour.

"There has never been any corresponding movement in England."

Among the minor comparisons which the scientist drew between the humour of children of the two countries, are the facts that certain stories have wide popularity, often with local variations; and the same type of story is common to children of the same age in each of the two races. The Mark Twain school has left a distinct impression on the sense of appreciation of American children however, and their development along humourist lines has been further modified by the admixture of races.

"There is a wide literature on the subject of laughter," said Dr. Kimmins in conclusion. "All experts are agreed as to its physiological value, but there are widely marked differences as to the exact nature of its psychology.

"It has been said that as we reach a higher state of civilization and become more materialistic, there will be less laughter.

"This would be unfortunate, for provided always that the springs of laughter are pure, the longer we retain the spirit of the child, the better."

Okanagan Valley Teachers' Association Convention

(By A. S. Towell, Kelowna.)

The Annual Convention of the Okanagan Valley Teachers' Association was held at Kelowna on Thursday and Friday, October 23rd and 24th, with an attendance of about a hundred teachers.

The preceedings opened with the annual business meeting of the Okanagan Valley Schools Athletic Association, at which reports were adopted and a new executive elected. The very successful track meets of last year was briefly discussed, and the treasurer reported a small cash balance in the bank, but arrangements for next year's meets were left for the special meeting to be called in the spring. The new executive consisted of President, L. B. Boggs, Penticton; Secretary-Treasurer, R. Lyons, Penticton, and committee composed of one delegate from each Public, Superior, and High School in the Valley.

The members of the O.V.T.A. then gathered in the auditorium of the Public School for registration, appointment of committees, and other business. Owing to the shortness of the time available the President's address was omitted, and the other business was at once proceeded with. After reading and adoption of minutes and reports of committees, Miss F. McNaughton, Kelowna, was appointed chairman of the nominations committee, L. B. Boggs, Penticton, of the pooling committee, and S. A. McDonald, West Summerland, of the resolutions committee. Messrs. C. T. Lees and A. G. Smith of Kelowna had previously been appointed by the President to attend to all local arrangements.

The meeting then adjourned to the Wesley Hall where an excellent banquet was served by the Ladies' Aid of the United Church. Mr. L. B. Boggs acted as toastmaster. The toast to the visitors, ably proposed by Mr. Fulton of Vernon, was responded to by Dr. G. G. Sedgewick, head of the Department of English at the U.B.C., and by Mr. John Kyle, Provincial organizer of Technical Education. The former spoke on "The Teacher as a Corrupter of Youth," ironically pointing out the uncomfortable and even disastrous effects that would probably ensue if all teachers conscientiously carried out their duties of teaching people really to think, and of inculcating high ideals of character and duty. He explained that since it is also the business of the teacher to prepare pupils for the world in which they have to live, it is necessary to bear in mind that for success in life one is almost compelled to accept the present order of things without thinking too deeply about them. He showed that while the school is supposed to teach a high standard of character and ethics—yet even the best of our people often failed to live up to such a standard themselves. Consequently the student who really thought would at least be disturbed and puzzled. He pointed out that when people said that it was the duty of the schools to teach pupils to think, they often really meant "to teach pupils to think as I think." Free, untramelled, independent thinking was too disturbing for the general mass of people.

Mr. Kyle, the next speaker, carried on the same ideas by pointing out how without thought the institutions of our world gradually become corrupt like a stagnant puddle, needing a freshening and revivifying current of ideas and ideals to sweep away that which was dead and useless. The addresses of both Dr. Sedgewick and Mr. Kyle were enthusiastically received by their auditors.

The toast of the B. C. Teachers' Federation was proposed by Mr. McIntyre, West Summerland, and responded to by Mr. Harry Charlesworth, the Secretary of the Federation, who gave a most lucid and interesting address on the aims and accomplishments of the organization, naming some of its many friends, and answering the criticisms of its few enemies. In the intervals between the speeches, music was provided by Messrs. McGinnes, Smith, Griffiths, and Daniel. The termination of a very successful evening was proveded by a dance in the Elks' Hall.

Friday morning was taken up by sectional meetings of the teachers, where various educational problems were discussed. In the High School Section a good deal of time was spent on the topic of Entrance Examinations. The presence of Mr. Charlesworth proved of great assistance, and he undertook to lay before the Federation Committee preparing the report of the Commissioners of the present educational survey the results of the deliberations, which were briefly that the present system was unsatisfactory, but that the meeting did not favour a return to the old style examinations.

The Senior Grade teachers heard the report of Mr. Mathieson, Penticton, on the committee appointed last year to prepare a spelling list for the Public Schools. Mr. Mathieson then gave an excellent address on "Project Work in the Public Schools" for which he was tendered a hearty vote of thanks.

The Junior Grade and Manual Art sections were addressed by Mr. Kyle on "Manual Arts," and Inspector Hall spoke to the Rural Teachers' Section on "The Management of Rural Schools."

On Friday afternoon addresses were given in the Auditorium to all the teachers by Messrs. Charlesworth and Kyle. The former spoke mainly on the subject of security of tenure of teachers, giving many instances of their having been unjustly deprived of their positions, and explaining the efforts of the Federation to have a written form of contract prescribed

by the Education Department. The second speaker, Mr. Kyle, made a plea for the reorganization and amplification of the present courses of study to bring them more in touch with modern life, and to give more scope for the varying talents of different children to find expression.

At the general business meeting which followed, the Nominations Committee proposed the following executive for the ensuing year: President, Mr. C. W. Lees; 1st Vice-President, Miss E. McNaughton; 2nd Vice-President, Mr. L. Howlett; Corresponding Secretary, Mr. A. G. Smith; Recording Secretary, Miss E. Davies; Treasurer, A. S. Towell; Rural School Representative, Miss Owen. All the above except Mr. Howlett, of Rutland, and Miss Owen, of South Okanagan, are from Kelowna, it having been found convenient to have all the executive residing in one centre. The report of the Resolutions Committee was then read and the Convention adjourned after votes of thanks to all those whose assistance had made it so successful.

The Dalton Plan

(Some Impressions by Miss E. M. Brookes, Invermere, B. C.

All educational papers have published articles on the American experiment in teaching, now known far and wide as "The Dalton Plan." Several schools in England are trying out the method to see how far it is suited to a different environment, some working from A to Z on the original lines, others adopting it in part only or adapting it.

On Feb. 6th, 1922, with about sixty other students from the London Day Training College, I visited the County Secondary School at Streatham, a school of 775 girls ranging from eleven years to nineteen years of age. This school and the Blackfriars school for boys are the two most noteworthy on the English side of the experiment.

As frankly I did not become an adherent, although I think I started with an open mind, perhaps the fairest way to arrange this article will be to give criticism first and finish with notes on the address given to us by Miss Bassett, the head-mistress, so letting the last impression (if this paper makes any impression!) be that of the enthusiast.

The whole school was thrown open to us and senior girls had been appointed to direct us to such class-rooms as we wished to visit. I asked first for a history class-room, then for geography, and spent about 40 minutes in each. I was allowed to question girls, look at text-books, exercise books, etc. The assignment cards that I studied showed subjects set in alternate weeks for preparation and written report. For instance, this was one of four questions set for a class of thirteen-year-olds, to be prepared during the first week of the month and written on during the second week. "Find out all you can about (a) the character; (b) the acts of Cromwell. Study him as A, a young man in 1628; B, a member of Parliament 1628-42! C, a soldier 1642-53; D, ruler of England 1653-58." At the foot of the assignment card was a note naming suitable reference books which would be found on the shelves in the history-room. Personally I had two objections to this monthly assignment:—

1. I did not like this inelastic scheme for settling lessons for a month ahead—lessons for children are not like lectures for adults.

2. The amount of clerical work involved for each mistress was appalling—charts to be made out each month showing each pupil's record on each assignment (for very close check has to be kept that there may be no evasion and slipping through)—there seemed to be an endless procession of essays to be corrected—and the hectographing of the assignment cards alone must mean many hours of work.

A modern language mistress of many years' experience (like myself a temporary student of the Training College) gave her opinion that five periods of private work to one of oral instruction was not a fit proportion for her subject. There were many other criticisms from students but during the following week we were able to persuade an L. C. C. inspector to give us his private opinion, though he made us understand clearly that he had not visited the school officially.

Good Points

1. The Dalton Plan develops the power of independent work, for difficulties must be faced by the pupils themselves.

2. It does tend to prevent the better girls from marking time and it gives duller children an opportunity to do something.

3. There can be unbroken work when interest is aroused.

4. It has a good effect on discipline.

On the Other Side

(But the experiment should be given at least a five-years' run before it is condemned.)

1. There may be a tendency to overstrain on the part of conscientious girls.

2. There is decidedly too much strain on the staff; there is need to lessen the machinery of reports, duplicating, etc.

3. There must be difficulties in assessing the capacities of the girls individually, in securing adequate revision and in co-ordinating the work.

4. Possibly accuracy may suffer and writing, spelling, speech-training and oral work in English and modern languages.

5. In the Dalton Plan the inspirational teacher has no scope—her gifts are wasted.

6. Prefects fear that there is a falling off in esprit-de-corps.

Notes on Miss Bassett's Address

The Dalton Plan (still in the experimental stage.)

At the beginning of each month every girl receives a syllabus of work to be done in each subject.

One lesson at least is given in each subject during the week, the subject matter to be taken in these lessons being usually indicated in the syllabus.

The whole of Tuesday mornings and part of three afternoons are devoted to class lessons, in addition to this the third form have lessons on Thursday mornings; thus the greater part of the school have Monday, Wednesday and Thursday morning for free study. There is group work on Friday mornings. Each mistress announces beforehand the topics to be dealt with, she may perhaps summon some individuals to attend but in the main attendance is voluntary.

Subjects as far as possible are studied in subject rooms where the subject mistress may be consulted. Each girl is expected to see the mistress at least once a week, apart from set lessons; she may of course stay the whole session in one room if she wishes—the mistress is always there to advise her or to correct her work. There are subject libraries in the subject rooms.

Every girl is expected to be at the set lessons, but apart from this she may arrange her working time at school and at home as she pleases, her free time at school is 34 periods minus set lesson periods, her home-work periods should not be more than 4-12 in each week according to her position in the school. (N.B.—A period is 40 minutes.) She is responsible for giving the right proportion of time during the month to all the subjects in the curriculum and she indicates on the charts in the subject rooms the time she has given and the amount of work she has done.

A girl must satisfy the subject-mistress before she begins the next syllabus; this may be by test or any method that the mistress finds most suitable for the girl.

Assignments

Assignments are now given in three parts in each subject:

1. **Lower**—this should be within the range of the slowest girl in the class and must be done by all;

2. **Middle**—this gives opportunity for wider reading and deeper thought;

3. **Higher**—this encourages the brilliant girl to study as far as she can go.

Nos. 2 and 3 do not encroach on the next month's assignment. Girls choose grades for themselves (but the weakest have sometimes to be advised not to attempt too much.)

The Dalton Plan pre-supposes a greater interest in the child than in her subject and its objects are to give good conditions for growth and to enlist co-operation.

Class teaching, with all its good points, has tended to foster the crowd-spirit of the average person, who follows the latest demagogue, sings the latest catchy song, etc. Another sign of failure is shown when the average person on leaving school drops all educational pursuits from sheer lack of interest.

There is an attraction to the child in having a big view of the work—the eleven-year olds planning for a week, the higher classes for a month—also in having choice of method, working either by herself, with a friend or in a group.

There are some failures; some girls are too nervous, a few too inert; these have to be dealt with carefully but on the whole the system shows that there is more care taken over weak subjects, dislike of single subjects disappears and, as a good impartial test there is noticeably less absence from school.

ARE YOU A SALESMAN?

(From the Seattle Grade Club Magazine)

A few weeks ago I had the privilege of attending a joint meeting of the High School retail selling teachers and the managers of our stores where our pupils are assigned for salesmanship work. The purpose of the meeting was to discuss the course of study so that instruction given in the schools might correlate with the problems that confront the pupils when they are engaged in actual selling work in the stores.

One of the outstanding points of the discussion was the need of developing our young people into salesmen, rather than order takers. I was impressed how that same rule, slightly changed, applied equally well to the school teachers in their work. We are likely to become order givers, rather than salesmen. Children in school are much the same as patrons in a store. They are attracted or repelled by the attitude of the person with whom they are dealing.

Early in September, I was conversing with a fifth grade boy, and asked him how he enjoyed going to school this year. He replied, "You know I always liked Miss ————, my teacher last year, but Miss ————, my teacher this year, makes the work much more interesting. She smiles, and that helps a lot, too."

I am wondering if we are giving enough thought to the value of the "smiles" and the effect of pleasant mannerisms on the work of the pupils. Let us endeavor this year to cultivate the art of the real salesman.

THOMAS R. COLE,
Supt. Seattle Schools.

British Party Programmes

SCHEMES FOR EDUCATIONAL REFORM

The election manifestos of the three leading political parties all contain references brief or extensive, to the necessity for a continuous policy of educational development. The Unionist Party early this week produced a detailed programme of the educational scheme which it has formulated.

Mr. Baldwin's election address, published last week-end, contains the following references to education and social questions affecting the young:—

Education

Believing that the object of any education policy should be the welfare of the child rather than the forwarding of some plan of educational progress based on social theories, and keeping in mind that our immediate aim should be to develop our existing national system on practical lines, and to link up elementary education more closely with the various forms of advanced study, so that no child which can profit thereby shall be debarred from doing so by reason of the inability of the parents to pay fees, we are in favour of:—

The carrying out of agreed schemes as between local education authorities and the Board of Education which shall ensure, among other matters:—

(1) A progressive reduction in the size of classes.

(2) The improvement or, when necessary, the replacement of insanitary schools.

(3) The development of central schools and other forms of education above the elementary school stage, with an adequate supply in the number of secondary school places, and a corresponding increase in the number of scholarships and free places, applicable to all advanced courses.

(4) The maintenance, by agreement between local education authorities and the teachers, of such scales of salaries as will secure efficient teachers and attract the best men and women to the profession. Such scales, when they have been accepted by local education authorities, to be obligatory.

(5) The systematic promotion of schemes of adult education under the local education authorities and the further development of all kinds of technical education.

(6) The maintenance of the rights of parents to have their children brought up in the religion to which they are attached.

Women and Children

In addition to such questions as housing and widows' pensions there are certain other reforms affecting women and children that I desire to see carried out. The probationary system for dealing with offenders should be developed, a Bill to amend and consolidate the Factory and Workshops Acts should be passed, children born out of wedlock whose parents have subsequently married should be legitimized, the law relating to separation and maintenance orders should be amended, equal rights should be ensured to women in the guardianship of children, adoption should be legalized, the number of women police should be increased, and the penalties for criminal assaults against women and children made adequate to the offence.

Juvenile Unemployment

Pending the restoration of trade, our duty will be to continue to take all the special relief measures in our power to ease the situation. More particularly do I feel that the grave problem of juvenile unemployment requires fuller and more careful consideration than it has received from the present Government.

A National System

Mr. Baldwin has further sent us a statement "on behalf of and in the name of the Unionist Party," which, he points out, "in common with all who have the welfare of the nation at heart, desires to see functioning in the State a sound and complete system of national education. It believes that the stability of the State and the happiness of the community, as well as of the individual, depend largely upon the spread of education. With this in mind the Unionist Party, with the help of prominent educationists, has formulated a definite and comprehensive scheme of national education that, besides remedying the obvious defects of the present system, makes provision for a progressive development toward a high educational ideal. This scheme has been made the basis of the approved official educational policy of the Unionist Party. The chief points of this policy are briefly enumerated in the following memorandum:—

The Unionist Party puts in the forefront of its educational policy the three following principles which it considers to be axiomatic:—

(1) No child should be debarred from full educational facilities by reason of the poverty of his parents. The number of free places in secondary schools should be adequate to meet this principle. State scholarships should be established in sufficient numbers, as supplementary to L.E.A. scholarships (not to relieve rates), to enable the best pupils to go to the universities.

(2) The material circumstances in the schools must be such as to ensure that the best possible return is obtained for the effort expended. The Unionist Party desires a progressive reduction in the size of classes. In primary schools the maximum number of pupils in a class should not exceed 40 in urban and 48 in

rural districts. The Unionist Party calls for the modernization and enlargement, where necessary, of existing schools, many of which are ill-equipped and unsuited to modern needs.

(3) There must be a highly trained and adequately remunerated body of teachers who can count upon stability in the material conditions of their work. Where a local education authority has accepted the Burnham Committee scale of salaries and has subsequently departed from it, that authority should be made to adhere to the scale by the Board of Education.

It is possible (the memorandum continues) to sketch the outline of a national scheme of education in harmony with the fundamental principles enunciated above.

(1) **Secondary Schools.** — Sufficient secondary schools with adequate provision of free places should be provided. At the age of 11 the best pupils from the primary schools should proceed to the secondary schools, there to remain as free-place holders up to the age of 16. The best of these again should remain up to 18, and State scholarships should be provided to enable the most promising of these to proceed to the universities.

(2) **Central Schools.**—The Unionist Party will extend the provision of these schools with the object of accommodating all those primary school pupils between the ages of 11 and 15 (16 where possible) who are not accommodated in the secondary schools. Transfer from central to secondary school should be made easily possible.

(3) **Technical Schools.**—At the age of 15 or 16 the best pupils from the central schools should be enabled to proceed to technical schools providing advanced technical instruction and training.

(4) **Adult Education.**—No scheme of school and university education, however highly developed, can do more than prepare the mind for the pursuit of knowledge. It must therefore be completed by a system of adult education. The object of such a system must be not to give cheap instruction to those who have been denied the advantages of higher education, but to enable all classes to use and enjoy the faculties developed by school or university training. We attach the utmost importance to the development of facilities for adult education by close co-operation, with the assistance of the State, between local education authorities, universities, and voluntary effort.

(5) **Training of Teachers.**—(a) The Unionist Party would discourage the further appointment of teachers without adequate qualifications. (b) Definite and adequate qualifications should be recognized and required for each category of employment. (c) The premature selection of young people to become teachers, whether by scholarships or otherwise, should be discouraged. (d) The standard of qualification for entry into training college should be gradually raised. If reasonable academic qualifications could be counted upon, more time could be devoted to training in the technique of teaching. The most important part of the training course should be actual teaching under supervision in school.

(6) **Religious Instruction.**—No educational system can be satisfactory which does not include the provision of adequate religious instruction for all children in the schools.

The Unionist Party, it is stated, is confident that the system of education outlined above will receive national support. "In these difficult days we cannot afford to waste the intellectual power of the country's future citizens, and the Unionist Party is convinced that by this programme the most valuable of the State's resources may be developed."

Liberal and Labour Manifestos

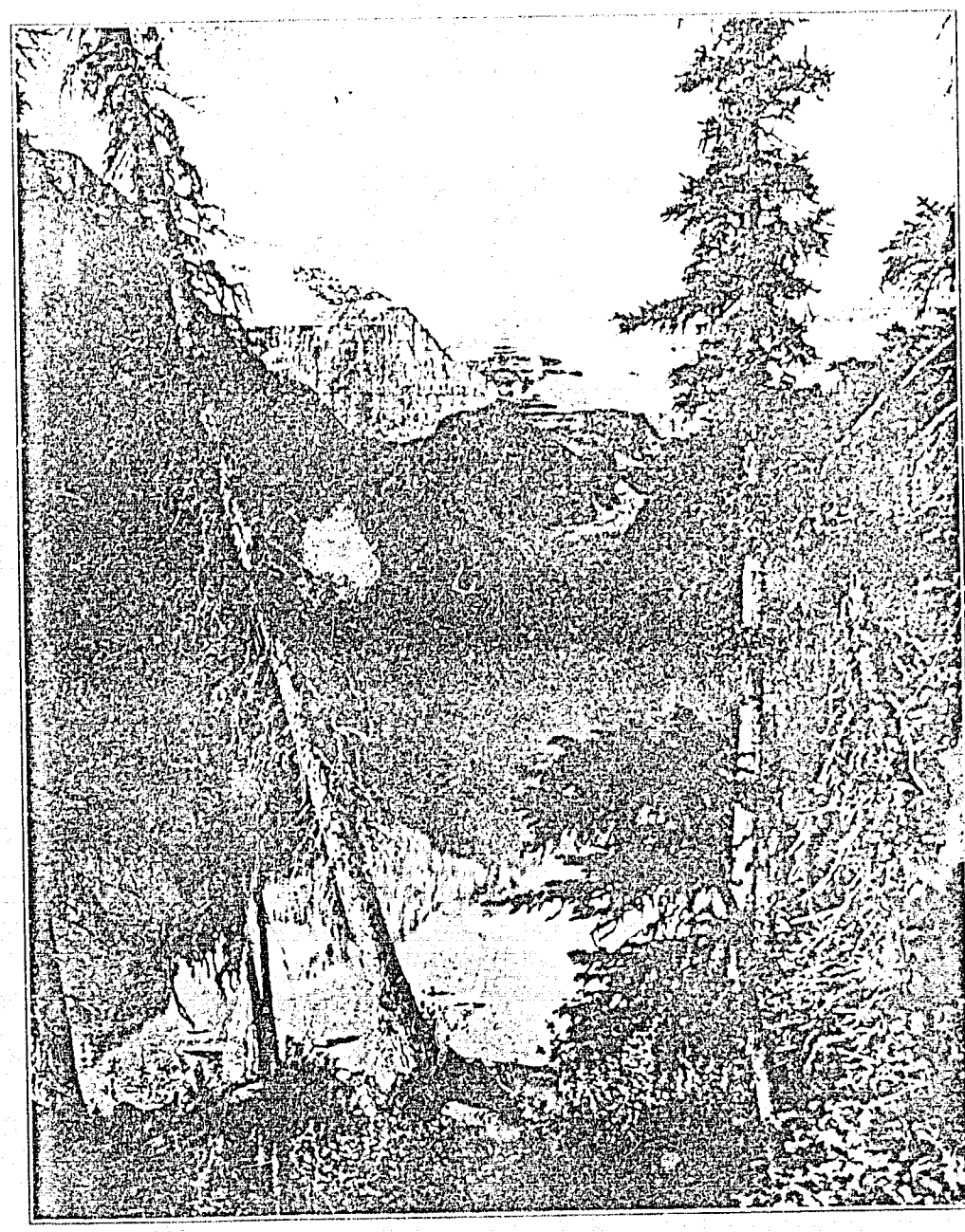
The Liberal Party, in its election manifesto, states that it "has worked out a ten years' programme of educational advance. If it comes into power it will wipe out the arrears of educational reform which have accumulated in unprogressive areas; it will get rid of the worst buildings, and will reduce the size of the classes in elementary schools. It will effect much-needed reform in rural education, and improve the qualification of teachers. With special concern for young workers in and out of work, and for more secondary schools, it will press for large additional provision for pupils over 14 years of age, with maintenance allowance in suitable cases. It will extend provision for university education, and as regards technical, evening, and adult education, it will seek to collaborate with employers and employed in making a determined effort to increase the efficiency of all schools which prepare the youth of the nation for their vocation in life, and fit them for their responsibilities as future citizens. It recognizes that the fulfilment of these aims demands such conditions of service and such payment of teachers as shall secure a constant and increasing supply of properly qualified men and women, and believes that satisfactory conditions as regards remuneration can best be secured by national agreement."

The title of the official Labour manifesto is "What Labour has done for the People." Under the cross-heading "What it has done for Education," it states that "Labour's intention to 'give every child equality of opportunity in education' has begun to be fulfilled in the drastic change of the policy of the preceding Government. The Labour Government has been insisting on smaller classes, an increase in the number of fully qualified teachers, new schools, maintenance for the poorer children, more free places in secondary schools, and scholarships to the university—all practical steps towards the ideal of securing to all children the same chance of advanced education as the children of the rich. The Labour Government has been steadily working towards progressively higher qualifications for teachers, and, consequently, of no niggardly treatment of teachers' salaries. Shall this policy (it asks) now be reversed?"

—Times Educational Supplement, London.

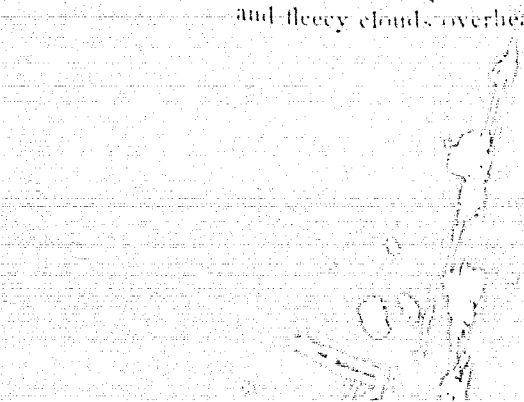
LAKE LOUISE--on the Canadian Pacific Railway

The greatest poets and writers of our era have poured out their souls in attempting to describe this liquid lyric, dreaming away up in the mountains at an altitude of 5,670 feet. But none has described it adequately for its baffles description. "Probably the most perfect bit of scenery in the known world," someone called it. "A lake of the deepest and most exquisite colouring, ever changing, defying analysis, mirroring in its wonderful depths the sombre forests and cliffs that rise from its shore on either side, the gleaming white glacier and tremendous snow crowned peaks that fill the background of the picture, and the blue sky and fleecy clouds overhead."



On the shores of the lake is the magnificent Chateau Lake Louise, built on the chalet style, which harmonizes so perfectly with the surroundings, having accommodation for nearly 300 guests. With this perfect place as a centre one may enjoy many attractions similar in character but otherwise entirely different to those of Banff, thirty five miles to the eastward. And it is equally convenient in situation for, too, it is on the main line.

Many people like to sit on the verandah of the hotel all day long; just watching the marvellous Kaleidoscope of colour. But others are eager to be out on the trail, either on foot or on the back of a sure-footed pony.



There is a delightful walk along the westerly shores of the lake to the boat landing, with splendid views of Castle Crags, Mount Lefroy and Mount Victoria. From the Chateau one may climb the trail to Mirror Lake and thence to Lake Agnes, with charming views along the way and a rest and tea-house awaiting one at Agnes. Thence, again, one may scale a zig-zag path to the Observation House on top of the mountain known as the Big Beehive.

Four miles from the shore of Lake Louise are the Victoria and Lefroy Glaciers, reached by a path necessitating guides and proper equipment. The hawing teeth of these great ice formations are extraordinarily impressive, and the floor of ice is 250 feet thick. The summit of Mount Victoria is five miles distant, in an air line, from the Chateau.

None of these trips take more than a few hours, either on foot or pony.

Possibly the most interesting feature of the more strenuous mountain-climbing jaunts, visits to glaciers or journeys through the passes is the presence of the Swiss guides, who are always on the job from Chateau Lake Louise. With these men in their company, lovers of the European Alps have no difficulty in fancying themselves back in the neighborhood of Mont Blanc. But the yodel rings more clearly here and the mountains are far more impressive and majestic.

CHRISTMAS HOLIDAYS

As there have been a few cases of misunderstanding in recent years concerning the dates of the Christmas Holidays we beg to draw attention of all teachers to the following clause from the Rules and Regulations as contained in the latest revision of the Manual of The School Law:

"The winter vacation shall comprise two weeks immediately following the third Friday in December."

This would place the vacation this year from Friday, Dec. 19th, 1924, to Monday, Jan. 5th, 1925.

THE BRIDGE BUILDER

An old man, going a lone highway,
Came at evening, cold and gray,
To a chasm vast, and deep, and wide,
The old man crossed in the twilight dim;
The sullen stream had no fear for him;
But he turned, when safe on the other side,
And built a bridge to span the tide.

"Old man," said a fellow pilgrim near,
"You are wasting your strength with building here;
You never again will pass this way;
You've crossed the chasm deep and wide,
Why build you this bridge at evening tide?"

The builder lifted his old gray head,
"Good friend, in the path I have come," he said,
"There followeth after me to-day
A youth whose feet must pass this way.
This chasm that has been as naught to me
To that fair-haired youth may a pitfall be;
He, too, must cross in the twilight dim;
Good friend, I am building this bridge for him."

—From "School Life."

PLANS FOR WORLD FEDERATION MEETING

London, August 23.—In July, 1923, at San Francisco the World's Federation of Educational Associations was formed with the following officers: Dr. Augustus C. Thomas, State Department of Education, Maine, President; P. W. Kuo, Shanghai, China, and E. J. Sainsbury, President National Union of Teachers, England, Vice-Presidents; C. H. Williams, University of Missouri, Secretary. The great object of this World Federation is "to formulate plans for international good-will and mutual understanding among the nations through the work of the schools." The constitution calls for a meeting every second year, and in June last, through the Educational Institute of Scotland, a preliminary meeting was called to form a Scottish National Committee for the purpose of inviting the World Federation to hold its next meeting in Edinburgh in 1925.

At this meeting representatives from many bodies were present, and the Scottish National Committee was constituted to take full charge of the proposed conference so far as local arrangements were concerned. At a later meeting it was decided that the conference should be held in the week beginning July 20, 1925. It was agreed, that, while Edinburgh should be the host, yet the committtee should be national, and should represent both teachers and education authorities. The committee is raising £5,000 for the expenses of the world conference, and Edinburgh will do her best to make it a great success.

The personnel of this Scottish National Committee includes many men and women of prominence. The principal officers are:

Honorary Presidents—Rt. Hon. Sir William Sleigh, Lord Provost of Edinburgh; Rt. Hon. Lord Haldane, Lord Chancellor; Rt. Hon. William Adamson, M.P., Secretary for Scotland. Presidents Rev. D. MacMillan, Chairman of Education Authority, Edinburgh; Miss Mary Tweedie, M.A., President-elect of the Educational Institute of Scotland. Joint Chairmen—J. W. Critchley, ex-President Educational Institute of Scotland; Prof. Alex. Darroch, National Committee for the Training of Teachers. Joint Secretaries—John Clark, M.A., Director of Education, Glasgow; George C. Pringle, M.A., General Secretary, Educational Institute of Scotland.

Canada to be Represented

It is evident from this preliminary action that Scotland is preparing to give a great welcome in 1925 to the representative educationists from all over the world. Canada will doubtless be represented, as the Canadian Teachers' Federation was the second member of the World Federation, the membership being limited to national organizations. The National Education Association of the United States was the first member, and the Educational Institute of Scotland the third. Mr. Harry Charlesworth, British Columbia, ex-President of the Canadian Teachers' Federation, is one of the six Directors of the World Federation. It would seem fitting that the 1927 meeting should be held in Canada.

—The Globe, Toronto.

The following extract from the October issue of the Seattle Grade Club Magazine is very timely for a number of our readers. May it be effective.

"COME BACK"

The Secretary says:

"Forget the slander you have heard,
Forget the hasty, unkind word,
Forget the quarrel, and the cause,
Forget the whole affair, because
Forgetting is the only way.
Forget the storms of yesterday,
Forget the chap whose sour face
Forgets to smile in any place.
Forget the trials you have had,
Forget the weather if it's bad.
Forget the knocker, he's a freak,
Forget him seven days a week,
Forget you're not a millionaire,
Forget the gray streaks in your hair;
Forget the coffee when it's cold,
Forget the kicks, forget to scold.
Forget the plumber's awful charge,
Forget the iceman's bill s large.
Forget the coal man and his weighs,
Forget the heat in summer days,
Forget to ever get the blues,
BUT DON'T FORGET TO PAY YOUR DUES"

TESTS FOR SCHOLARSHIPS AND PROMOTIONS

Synopsis of Address by Dr. Cyril Burt.

I. Psychological tests for use in schools may be broadly classified as follows:

(A) **Tests of Inborn Intellectual Capacity.**—(1) Tests of general intelligence. (2) Tests of special aptitudes.

(B) **Tests of Acquired Attainments.**—(1) Tests of educational attainments. (2) Tests of vocational attainments.

Tests of the foregoing types may be cross-classified according to procedure, as (a) written group tests, (b) individual oral tests, (c) individual performance tests.

II. Such tests may be used at various stages in the child's school career:—

1. **Tests for Departmental Promotion.**—In England most children are promoted from the Infants' Department to the Senior Department at the age of seven or eight. This is a neglected but crucial stage in the elementary school child's life. His subsequent success in the scholarship examination may depend upon it. At this point the most valuable tests are individual and oral tests of general intelligence, such as the Binet-Simon Scale.

2. **Tests for Class Promotion.**—Within one and the same department promotion from class to class is likely to depend more upon attainment than upon capacity. Tests of acquired educational attainments are here, therefore, most serviceable to the teacher. Above Standard II. they may be administered by the group procedure.

3. **Tests for Transference to Central Schools and for Scholarships to Secondary Schools.**—Such transferences are generally arranged after a scholarship examination in educational attainments, such as arithmetic and English. To supplement examinations of the traditional type, however, group tests of general intelligence have of late been widely used in Great Britain.

4. **Tests for Entrance to Trade Schools.**—Here an over-emphasis upon attainments in English and arithmetic is apt to give a misleading result. Intelligence tests, particularly those of a performance type, would be of greater value. Tests for special aptitudes and for vocational attainments may be used for supplementary purposes.

Advertisers assist you by their patronage. May we ask you to show your appreciation by reciprocating the patronage where possible. Kind and courteous attention and satisfactory service await you.

AN IMPERIAL ANTHEM

To the Daughters of the Empire and all loyal Britons, who believe in Imperial unity, this Anthem is respectfully dedicated,
By the Author

Tune: God Save the King.

O God of Heaven, we raise
To Thee our hymns of praise;
Long may we sing
One song of victory,
One realm of liberty,
One Empire—great and free—
One sceptred King.

Unite our armaments,
Unite our parliaments,
Make discord cease;
In air, on earth, and main,
Our righteous cause maintain,
And usher in the reign
Of wide-world peace.

God, make Britannia's might
A beacon-flame to light
This world renewed;
Wherein mankind shall see
Their glorious destiny,
In faith and unity,
And Brotherhood.

H. M. Stramberg.

August, 1924.

INTELLIGENCE TEST RESULTS IN PORTLAND SCHOOLS

Portland has finished a thorough rating of four thousand school children by means of the Illinois test. A resume of the results are, briefly:

"Children who have made low Intelligence Quotients are being given individual mental tests with the expectation of providing instruction suited to their capacity, next year.

"The tests show a wide variation in the ability an achievement of children in the same grade and of the same grade in different schools.

"Splendid achievement is shown by children of low mentality but at the expense of those of high mentality, who are not progressing in proportion to their ability." —The Bulletin, Portland Grade Teachers' Association, June, 1924.

"Teaching of Geography"

(S. OSWALD HARRIES, Principal, Port Alberni, B. C.)

Should teachers of children of Elementary school age aim to develop the rational faculty by direct training and as a separate factor in consciousness, or follow more psychological methods paralleling human evolution?

Formalists would have us place reasoning power or thinking power so-called, as the main aim of education even in the Public School grades. Psychologists are becoming more and more inclined to modify this idea on the ground that reason is the latest power yet developed in the evolution of human faculty. If the evolution of the individual (ontogeny) broadly recapitulates the evolution of the race then the training of sense perception or impression ideation, motor activity or expression ideation, and emotional reaction, should precede the direct training of the reasoning power, for the optimum period of reasoning power certainly does not occur before the age of 21, if then. Even adults base most of their conclusions directly on perception or emotional bias rather than on intellectual determination. Much so-called reasoning is knowing or supposed knowledge. Even much of the so-called reasoning in Arithmetic, Grammar, Geometery or Geography, becomes after a little practice, mere repetition of known ideas.

The teaching of Geography with its branch subject Nature Study, is usually regarded as being one of the best subjects for training in "thinking." Geography is weak in appeal to the interest of most children because minimum importance is attached to development of primary faculties as perception, motor activity, and emotion, and maximum stress laid on reason, a power normally developed at a much later age.

Children love the perception phases such as pictures, photos, postcards, cinema views of other lands, descriptive readers, illustrated guidebooks, and objects from foreign lands; they love the motor activity of map making and coloring, collecting materials for project or product map, or pottering about making false impressions in plasticine, clay, or sand. The emotional appeal of stories of other lands awakens instinctive curiosity, love of travel and adventure. Such descriptive stories can engender entranced attention and vivid recollection.

But when it comes to formal reasoning, to tracing cause and effect, or hypnothesizing about unknown lands in formal terms, one of two things usually happens, the whole process become a tolerated mechanism based on previous argument or direct telling, or as is more usual, the process degenerates into monotonous boredom.

Three Distinct Changes

With the changing aims of child education the teaching of Geography has undergone three distinct but overlapping changes.

The first method of teaching Geography was the memory process more or less supplemented by illustrated interesting reading material. The children were interested in the illustrations and reading, but this was the sugar coating of the pill that followed. Tedious summaries of capes, bays, mountains, rivers, climate, products, and other groupings were memorized much to the disgust of all concerned. Nor is this process yet dead for after criminal proceedings had been taken against the method in one country after another, it escaped to Western Canada and is not yet buried.

Most teachers now rightly regard this memory gymnastic as unintelligent boredom. All the material could be obtained easily from an atlas when needed. Formalism had said that a child leaving school ought to know all that stuff so, for years that process was the rule. The change of ideas is well illustrated by the story of a test given in an English County examination during the transition period. The question was: "Write down all the stations on the London North Western Railway between London and Crewe." One answer paper gave all but two. The next paper had "Consult a Bradshaw." (timetable).

The memory school was succeded by the school of formal logicians. The former school said, "Children ought to known these facts;" the second school of formalism said, "Children should be taught to think. The data is useful only insofar as it is used to stimulate the thinking faculty. Why burden the mind with junk soon forgotten? Why not utilize the subject matter for training children to THINK, to trace cause and effect, and so recognize the beauty of scientific law throughout the material universe?"

Both schools of thought were equally unpsychological but the second phase did bring in a vast amount of perception work, motor activity, and emotion incidentally, but tended to spoil all this by over-emphasizing reason.

Text-Books and Relief Maps

One of the best, probably the best, text-book of the newer method is that of L'Estrange's "Comparative Geography," published by Philip & Son. A shorter course is "Junior Geography," by L'Estrange, and a valuable supplementary course is "Practical Outdoor Geography," by Unstead, published by the same firm. Issued about twenty years ago this scheme or one similar to it is about to invade British Columbia, the advanced guard having arrived.

(To be continued)