THE B. C. TEACHER

Official Organ of the B. C. Teachers' Federation

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Editorial

The Four-year High School Course

THE primary fundamental objective of our educational system is that it shall make every possible provision for the students of our schools to obtain the best education suitable to their individual needs and capacities. Every change which has been made in recent years has been based on this generally accepted fact. Time was when our system was rigid, stereotyped, and narrow: when the only pupil to receive adequate consideration was the one who was to be privileged to proceed to the University to be prepared for entry into the recognized professions. Periodical examination barriers were erected to separate the so-called successes from the so-called failures. We prided ourselves on the brilliance of the "few" who graduated from our High Schools and University, and we had little or no thought for the "many" who fell by the wayside, and were thus denied the benefit of further education.

Experience, however, has long shown that those whom the school system branded as failures were by no means the least successful when they came to take their places in the adult world, and it has consequently been borne in upon us that, generally speaking, it was not so much that the pupils were failures as it was that the system itself was a failure. It became abundantly evident that the school must be made to suit the pupil instead of foolishly expecting that every pupil must fit the school. British Columbia has gone far in its recent educational development to give practical effect to this

new doctrine, and, as a result, occupies a leading position in the educational world.

The curriculum and examination changes in the Elementary School led the way; then followed the major development in the establishment of Junior High Schools, with their enriched courses, and their many options, making possible "pupil exploration along the lines of their special aptitudes." The extension and further development of technical and commercial education also contributed to the general progress of the new ideal.

The next logical and imperative step was obviously the adjustment of the Senior High School courses, so that they might be correlated with the programmes of the Junior and Elementary Schools.

The Department of Education has made provision for this adjustment in the Four-year High School Course which has now been adopted. In taking this step the Department has brought the whole of the Provincial Education System into harmony with the central dominating principle which recognizes the pupil's individual needs as the fundamental factor to be considered insofar as is practical.

Unfortunately, the Department did not find it possible to complete the details of the four-year course before making announcement of the change. The first year's programme only was made available. While this met the immediate needs, yet it resulted in many uninformed criticisms from those who had not grasped the significance of the changes which were contemplated. Hasty conclusions were reached regarding the cost of instituting the four-year course, and the financial side of the question assumed a greatly exaggerated importance. No attempt was made by the financial critics to offset the increased expenditure by the tremendously important factor of increased efficiency of the whole educational system, nor by the incalculable gain which will be made by the **majority** of our High School students, who will now be able to secure an education which will equip them to a far greater degree to enter successfully upon their life's work, no matter what their future career may be.

Any business man is willing to expend money if he realizes that such expenditure will increase efficiency and lead to a better output. He knows that his extra expenditure will be returned to him many fold. All the successful undertakings of today have been built up on this basic principle. It is realized that money must be spent if money is to be earned.

It is not different with education, and we feel very confident that if the Four-year High School Course is studied seriously, and all its wider aspects are taken into consideration, there will be a tremendour response in its favour. There may be some temporary difficulties in making the necessary adjustments in some places, but they are by no means insurmountable, if they are faced in the right spirit by both teachers and school boards. All great advances in any field of endeavour have met with opposition from those who would not take the "long perspective view"—steamships, airplanes, electric appliances, radio, talking pictures, the printing press, in the scientific field

—were all looked upon as "costly fads" which would never become practical; in the fields of medicine and theology, all departures from traditional beliefs and practices have had to fight against the prejudice of those who always wish to leave things as they are. As we look back we see how futile and absurd were such early criticisms of achievements we now hail with pride. We feel confident that the day will soon come when the Four-year High School Course, with its wonderful possibilities for sane advancement, will be accepted by all as an outstanding accomplishment and a landmark in the progress of the educational history of British Columbia. To this end, however, it is essential that those in charge of our education, and all connected with it, shall stand firmly against any narrow criticism which seeks to discredit or destroy the thing to which they have set their hand. All must stand by the courage of their convictions.

An Important Resolution:

AS the question of the Four-year High School Course is of such great importance, and in view of the somewhat persistent opposition of some of the school boards, the Federation devoted considerable time to the subject at its Executive meeting held on Saturday, March 15th. It was felt that the teachers' position should be made very clear, and, therefore, it was decided to forward to the Minister of Education a resolution and memorandum outlining the stand taken by the Federation. At this meeting there was a large attendance present, representative of all sections of the teaching profession. The report adopted by the Federation was entirely in harmony with, and was largely a summary of, the views strongly supported by the High School Teachers of the Lower Mainland in meetings at which the question had been previously discussed.

As it is essential that every teacher in the province should be made fully acquainted with the matter, we are publishing a copy of the letter sent to the Ministe rof Education on behalf of the Federation.

The Hon. Joshua Hinchliffe, March 19th, 1930.
Minister of Education, Victoria, B. C.

Dear Sir:

The following resolution was passed unanimously by the Executive of the British Columbia Teachers' Federation at its meeting on Saturday, March 15th, in the Hotel Georgia, Vancouver, B. C.:

> "Resolved, that this Federation Executive expresses to the Minister of Education its most emphatic approval of the principle of the Four-year High School Course, as adopted by the Department of Education, and pledges its full support in bringing it into effective operation in every High School of the province."

In support of this resolution, we beg to submit the following memorandum of vital and fundamental facts in connection with the question:

1. The adoption of the Four-year High School Course is one of the greatest educational advances ever made in the history of education in British Columbia.

2. It is in line with the practice in the majority of efficient educational system in Europe and North America.

3. It will provide a remedy for the cramming, fact-memorizing type of education which has been necessary in the past, and will permit effective modern methods of teaching to be used.

4. It will provide for a wider, richer, and saner education for the pupils, and, by reason of the decreased pressure, will give them far more opportunity for health-giving recreation, the study of music, the pursuit of hobbies, general reading, etc. It will largely reduce the home-work grind which has been so much in evidence, and which has robbed many students of health and vitality at an all-important period of their lives.

5. We are convinced that, as soon as the benefits accruing to the four-year students are realized, there will be little demand from any thoughtful parents for any shortening of the course. *It is noteworthy that the parents have uttered no protest, but have generally seen the wisdom of the change.*

6. The only pertinent criticism of the Course yet made has come from certain School Boards, and is concerned with its cost. We feel that these Boards have made an exaggerated estimate of the probable additional cost of the new Course. No account has been taken of the retardation which already exists in the Three-year Course. This amounts to between 40 per cent. and 50 per cent. No account, also, has been taken of the tremendous loss caused by the elimination as failures of so many of the students who could not be successful in the Three-year Course. Much of this failure will be removed in the Four-year Course. Further, we believe that a few Boards have been responsible for spreading the idea of heavy costs, and have influenced other Boards to protest before they had any knowledge of the advantages of the change, or even understood what it involved. *Even though there may be a slight increase in cost, this will be more than repaid by the increased efficiency of our High Schools.*

7. Under the new Four-year Course, the student will be allowed to stay in High School one, two, three, or four years, and whenever he leaves (for any reason) he will be given a diploma stating the number of years he has successfully completed. This will, undoubtedly, encourage many students to renewed effort, even if they can take advantage only of a limited amount of High School education.

8. With the inception of the Junior High School as an integral part of our educational system, an additional year is required in accordance with its enlarged programme of studies: *and it is to be noted that, where the Junior High School is established, the Senior High School will still be a three-year organization.*

9. There appears to be an impression abroad that the new Four-year Course is only the old Three-year Course thinned out and spread

over an additional year. This is decidedly an erroneous view. The new Course differs in content from the old Course, has increased materials, and demands more individual effort on the part of the student. Further, the average student, on completing his fourth year, will have attained not only Junior Matriculation standing, but may have, in addition, Senior Matriculation standing in several subjects.

10. It is to be noted that the new Four-year High School Course breaks away from the old stereotyped form of High School Curriculum. It is designed:
    (*a*) to allow students to select the subjects of study in accordance with their interests, needs, and aptitudes;
    (*b*) to free them from the necessity of shaping their course according to University requirements only;
    (*c*) to permit the student to graduate with a recognized diploma, certifying as to his accomplishments;
    (*d*) to enable a student to specialize in subjects in which he is particularly gifted, or for which he has a particular need;
    (*e*) to break away from the over-emphasis on purely academic studies and to give an opportunity even to students who aspire to a University career to avail themselves of some of the courses in practical arts;
    (*f*) to provide the superior student with an enriched course, in which he will find satisfaction for his interests and opportunity for the development of his capacities.

    These aims fully justify the new Four-year Course.

11. We feel most strongly that the adoption of the Four-year High School Course is, as a matter of educational policy, *the strict prerogative of the Department of Education,* and is not, therefore, within the field of the School Trustees, who are not given any powers to initiate or control educational policies. We believe, also, that the School Boards cannot be expected to give any authoritative opinion on the many intricate and complicated educational issues which are involved in curriculum making. It is our opinion that, where School Boards and their paid officials are opposed to the Four-year Course, such opposition is due, almost entirely, to a lack of appreciation of the fundamental educational issues involved, and a distrust of all things new, without regard to their merit.

(*Signed*) B. C. TEACHERS' FEDERATION,
GEORGE S. FORD, *President*,
HARRY CHARLESWORTH,
General Secretary.

Standard Certificates

BE SURE, when purchasing your one-way fare to the Convention, that you get a Standard Certificate signed by the agent from whom purchase is made. This will be essential in getting a refund for travelling expenses at Convention.

Public Schools Act Amendments

(*With Notes by* HARRY CHARLESWORTH)

THE following amendments to the Schools Act are of special interest to teachers. They were passed during this session of the Legislature.

Powers of the Council of Public Instruction

Section 12 of said Chapter 226 is amended by striking out clause (j), and substituting therefor the following:

"(j) To prescribe courses of study and select, adopt, and prescribe a uniform series of textbooks and authorize supplementary readers for the public schools and normal schools of the province."

Powers and Duties of Board of School Trustees

Section 50 of said Chapter 226 is amended by adding to clause (a) of subsection (1) the words "but it shall not be incumbent on the Board to provide school accommodation for a child seeking admission to Grade 1 in any school, unless the child presents himself for admission within two weeks of the time the reclassification of that school is made at the beginning of a term."

General Powers and Duties of Boards of School Trustees

Section 133 of said Chapter 226 is amended by striking out clause (a) of subsection (1), and substituting therefor the following:

"(a) To investigate any complaint made to the Board regarding the conduct of a pupil, and to suspend or expel the pupil if, after investigation, it is found that he is persistently disobedient to his teacher or is addicted to any vice likely to affect injuriously the character of other pupils; but if the pupil so suspended or expelled gives the Board and his teacher satisfactory assurance of reform, he may be readmitted to school on probation."

The first amendment deals with the subject of textbooks. The section as it stood previously read as follows:

"To prescribe courses of study and select, adopt, and prescribe a uniform series of textbooks and supplementary readers for the public schools and normal schools of the province."

From this it will be seen that the Council of Public Instruction was made responsible for the selection, adoption and prescribing of a *uniform series of supplementary readers*. This was, of course, not done in practice, for there was no attempt made to obtain uniformity. Such a course was not desirable in any event.

Under the present section, the Council of Public Instruction is empowered to *authorize* supplementary readers. They need not be uniform all over the province.

(Continued on page 42)

A Visit to Soviet Russia

(*By* Prof. A. F. B. Clark, *University of British Columbia*)

A Definition of "Bolshevik"

At a convention of the Russian Socialist Party, in 1903, the committee of the party divided into the Bolsheviks (meaning the majority), with twenty-six members, and the Mensheviks (meaning the minority), with twenty-five members. The Bolsheviks aimed at the immediate establishment of the soviet system, rejecting an intermediate form of democracy; the Mensheviks demanded a democratic republic in which the proletariat would co-operate with the bourgeoisie.

Since the advent of the Bolsheviks to power, the word has become practically synonymous with Communist).

I HAVE been asked to say something about a visit I made to Soviet Russia a little over a year ago. Things are moving so rapidly in Russia that I am afraid any report I may give of conditions in that country will be somewhat behind the times. Many remarkable steps have been taken by the Soviet Government since the time of my visit—for example, the inauguration of the five years' industrialization scheme, which is making factories spring up like mushrooms all over the vast Russian territory; the attempt to socialize agriculture by grouping peasant-holdings into vast government farms on which the peasants work as employees, and the introduction of the so-called non-stop industrial year by which the Sunday holiday is abolished, and the wheels of industry never cease to hum. Besides, Russia and England are again on speaking terms diplomatically, as they were not at the time of my visit. Moreover, my stay in Russia was very short, I had no acquaintance with Imperial Russia on which to base comparisons, my knowledge of the Russian language was limited and we were most of the time (though not always) in the hands of guides. Yet, so few are the travellers from the West who penetrate into Russia at all—and those from Canada must be very few indeed—that perhaps even a belated and meagre report—yet a report of things seen at first hand—may have some interest for a Canadian audience.

In one respect the view we obtained of Russia was a comprehensive one—in the area of territory covered. In five weeks we spanned European Russia from the Gulf of Finland to the borders of Persia, and from the Polish frontier to the easternmost bend of the Volga, visiting Leningrad, Moscow and Nizhni-Nougorod in the north, sailing for four days down "Little Mother Volga," traversing the Kalmuck desert where the camel-train still competes with the railway, motoring over the Caucasus mountains to Asia, crossing the Black Sea from the tropical vegetation of Batoum to the Italian landscapes of the Crimea, and thence returning through the steppes of the Ukraine to Moscow.

Safety of Travel

And just here I may begin my description of Russia by saying that the widespread idea that it is unsafe for foreigners to travel in Russia is quite erroneous. It is true that we personally travelled under the combined auspices of an American travel bureau and the official Soviet tourist agency and therefore our safety was guaranteed anyway; but we met several foreigners travelling on their own account. For example, a young American woman, without knowledge of a word of Russian, left our boat alone at a small station on the Volga River, travelled cheapest class on trains for two days across central Russia, slept at night on her baggage in cars crowded with peasants, and wrote us afterwards that she met with nothing but helpful kindness. Never in street cars or in stores did we meet with the rudeness which is quite common in big cities of Western Europe like Paris. We traversed without molestation the primitive regions of the Caucasus where the men go about with a girdle of daggers at their waists. In the cities we wandered about as we would in Paris or Berlin without guides.

Only one episode in the whole trip reminded us that we were travelling in a country where fires of suspicion are smouldering under the surface ashes. One day we were sitting with some Russians on the deck of the Volga steamer, when a sailor came rushing up, muttering some words I could not catch. Immediately our Russian friends rose and moved towards the door of the cabin, which the sailor locked behind us. We wondered whether an accident had occurred. We looked out of the window and saw a great steel railway bridge spanning the river a hundred yards ahead of us. Then it was explained to us that it was a rule of navigation that no passengers shall be allowed on deck while a ship is passing under a bridge, for fear someone might throw a bomb and destroy it.

Is Russia comfortable to travel in? There are no hotels de luxe, but there are good hotels in Leningrad and Moscow, and fairly tolerable ones in some other places. Sleeping-cars on through trains are excellent; ordinary day-coaches are rather poor. The Volga steamers are quite well-equipped for a country in Russia's state. Food is excellent everywhere, particularly soups and fruits. Beds are less likely to contain vermin than those in some countries west of Russia. Sanitary arrangements at the best are hardly ever more than just tolerable.

The People

What is the appearance of the people? Do they look happy? One's first impression is of the extraordinarily drab appearance of the crowds in the streets. There are no fashionably dressed people—the men wear black shirts and caps, the women mostly shawls on their heads. But they look healthy and well-fed. There is a certain sullenness in the Leningrad crowds, but not in those of Moscow, while the people of the South are bright and gay.

The streets are a fitting frame for the crowds. They are nearly always abominably paved, and, in Leningrad, grass is often growing between the cobble-stones. The buildings are often in sad disrepair, with great pieces of stucco peeling off the facades. The store windows are

dirty and dusty, the lettering on them half-obliterated, and the articles displayed remind one, in quality and arrangement, of those in a third-rate village store. One is struck by the absence of motor-cars (of which there are only 20,000 in the whole Union), but there are excellent street-cars and motor-buses built in Russia itself.

Are things being done efficiently? The trains and boats, in our experience, kept well to schedule. The cities are served by good street-cars and bus systems. The Bolsheviks seem pathetically anxious to attain perfect efficiency; American civilization is, from that point of view, their ideal. But they have not discarded the inheritance of bureaucracy and red tape handed on to them from the old Imperial government; it takes an enormous time to get a visa for your passport. The service in hotels, tourist offices, etc., is very slow, and, in general, one gets the impression that Lenin has not succeeded in overcoming the natural indolence of the Russians as Mussolini seems to have really overcome a similar defect in the Italians.

What do the guides show you in Russia? They do not overlook the sightseer's usual bill-of-fare—museums, palaces and churches (all of which have remained almost undamaged by the Revolution and are being remarkably kept up and improved by the Bolsheviks—a record that no other revolution can equal); but what they delight to show are the achievements of the new regime along economic and sociological lines—the factories, the hospitals, the workmen's rest-houses, the recreation parks, etc. One thing often said of Russia—that such institutions shown to travellers are just faked—I can stigmatize as a ridiculous falsehood. We saw too many of them in different parts of the country. The hospitals and rest-houses are admirably equipped, often occupying the houses of the nobility, or, in the case of the Peasants' Tuberculosis Sanitarium on the Crimean coast, the summer palace of the Tsar himself.

It must be clearly understood that these social welfare works are not matters of sentiment, of charity, of humanitarianism in Russia, but simply an evidence to the worker and the peasant that he now is the ruling class, and that the government of the country is being administered in his favour, for, of course, the advantages of the schools, hospitals, rest-houses, etc., are not available for the bourgeois.

Some Misconceptions

Many misconceptions about Soviet Russia, which are prevalent throughout the world, are swept away when one visits the country. The most widespread of these misconceptions is the idea that Russia is living under a system of communism, economically. The truth is that Russia is working under the same system that Canada would be working under if we extended to our whole economic life the principle of public ownership under which the Canadian National Railways and the Ontario Hydro-electric already operate. We do not call that communism. Goods are not held in common in Russia; when you go to a store, you pay a fixed price for an article, as you do here. Workers are paid salaries, and varying salaries, just as they are here. The employer, of course, is, in nearly every case, the government itself.

Yet it is also a misconception to suppose that there is no private industry or trade in Russia. There are quite a lot of small manufacturers

and tradesmen, and there are some capitalists on a grand scale, mainly the foreign *concessionaires,* who have been granted by the Soviet government "concessions" to run factories for a certain number of years. This concession to private capitalism was made by Lenin in order to get industry on its feet in Russia. When that result has been obtained, these private factories will be taken over by the government. On the whole, it would appear that private capitalism is losing in the battle with state capitalism.

The Russian State

Very vague ideas are also prevalent regarding the nature of the Russian State, politically. The official name of the State is the "Republic of the Workers and Peasants," a fact which is symbolized by the famous insignia of Soviet Russia, the hammer and the scythe. This title means that only people who actually do work are entitled to the rights of citizenship. No employer of labor enjoys any such rights. A small shop-keeper who runs his own shop is classed as a worker and may vote; but, if he hires any help, he becomes a capitalist and is disenfranchised. Capitalists are heavily taxed, cannot send their children to the public schools, and are, in general, social outcasts. A workman pays much less for the same article in a store than a capitalist would pay, and, similarly, he gets great reductions on theatre tickets, entrance fees to museums, etc. Besides, he has access to the hospitals, rest-houses, and other social welfare institutions of the Soviet Union.

You often hear people say, "But the Bolshevik Revolution has merely substituted for the tyranny of the Czar a worse tyranny of the Communists." How much truth and how much falsehood is there in this statement? It is true that Soviet Russia is a dictatorship and not a democracy in the sense that it refuses the right of citizenship to that percentage of the population which is not classed among the workers and the peasants. But it must be remembered that the workers and peasants number about 95 per cent. of the total population. Therefore it is hardly true to imply that the Bolshevik tyranny is, in that sense, worse than the Imperial tyranny, which represented only about 5 per cent. of the population.

But there is another aspect to the question. The Bolshevik government is elected by the workers and peasants. Now, all the members of the supreme ruling body of the Soviet tenion—the so-called Commissars of the People—are out-and-out Communists. Do they, in that respect, represent the mass of the people? Absolutely not, for the number of Communists in Russia does not amount to 1 per cent. of the total population. How is this discrepancy between the political colouring of the electorate and the elected to be explained? It is to be explained by the fact that the Revolution was the work of a determined and fanatic band of Communists who, in framing the Constitution, had no intention of letting the ultimate purpose of the Revolution step out of their hands, but who knew, at the same time, that the vast bulk of the population, including all the peasants, were utterly indifferent to Communist ideals. They therefore constructed a most ingenious electoral law, which, while leaving great power to the non-communists in all local elections, swings the balance of power steadily over to the communistic city workers, the higher and more central the body to be elected is. Thus, in the village soviets there are hardly any Communists, but in the provincial soviets quite

a few will have been contributed by the towns; when you reach the All-Russian Congress of Soviets (which is the parliament of Russia), the majority of the members are Communists, and, as I said, when the pinnacle of the structure is attained, we find the People's Commissars to be all Communists. Thus Soviet Russia, though in theory a Republic of the Workers and Peasants, is, in fact, a Communist Dictatorship.

Revolution Still in Progress

Yet, though the government is actually a government by Communists, communist principles have not, as I showed before, been consistently put in effect. But the Communists intend that they shall be some day. And to bring that day nearer, they are bringing to bear on the people of Russia —and particularly on the younger generation—a stream of propaganda which can only be compared to the pressure of commercial advertising to which we are subjected in America. One's most vivid recollection of Russia, a year after one's visit, is of this steady pressure of propaganda, to which even the foreigner is subjected while in the country. Wherever you look on the streets you see, not advertisements (for, as there is almost no competitive industry in Russia, there are very few advertisements), but red streamers floating from towers and gates bearing the revolutionary slogans, such as "Workers of the World Unite," "Religion is the Opiate of the People," "Imperialism is the Cause of All Wars." If you go to the theatre you will in all probability see a play dealing with the Revolution, in which the White Russians are the villains and the Reds the spotless heroes; even the famous Russian ballet is utilized, incredible as it may seem, to spread communist propaganda. If you visit an Art Gallery, an attendant will show you the pictures, impressing on you the fact that the whole development of the world's painting was leading up to the glorification of the proletariat. Processions of young Communists or of the Red army parade constantly through the streets and public squares, keeping alive the militant instincts of the people. The whole effort of education is devoted towards instilling communism into the young; the Bolshevik hostility towards the churches is partly explained by their passionate desire to keep the formation of the mind and character of the young in their own hands. In fact, what you see in Russia is not a country which has got its revolution over and done with, but one in which the revolution is still in progress. The old order has been overturned, but the new order has not yet been established. Russia is in the tadpole state between capitalism and communism.

Will the present regime succeed in completing the task it has begun? On that point one man's guess is about as good as another's. A visit of five weeks to Russia hardly justifies one in playing the prophet. But I might say, in closing, that I met a few of the men of the ruling class, genuine Communists, and that I was impressed by their quiet, confident demeanor. They are not the wild-eyed, long-bearded stage-villains that people abroad picture Bolsheviks to be. They are mild-mannered men, who suffered for their beliefs in the convict settlements of Siberia during the old regime. They give one the impression of being aware of the gigantic difficulties of the task they have undertaken. If they lack what most men call religions, yet they are animated by a passionate faith. Whether it is a faith which can move mountains, time alone can tell. Meanwhile, I would advise anyone who wants to see history being made to keep his eye on Russia during the next few years.

The Native Races of B. C.

(*By* Prof. Charles Hill-Tout, F.R.S.C., F.R.A.I.)

EVER since the days of Columbus the aborigines of this continent have been known as Indians. They were thus named under the mistaken impression that they were inhabitants of India, Columbus imagining he had reached that country when he first touched the shores of this western continent. The term was rather an unfortunate one, confusing, as it did, two people entirely different in origin, in culture and in geographical position.

In order to distinguish them from the natives of India we had later to speak of them as "Red Indians" or as "American Indians." Both phrases are clumsy terms and altogether inappropriate. In the first place, the typical American native is not really red, but rather a light brown, sometimes so light as to make the individual indistinguishable from a European. In the second place, the term "American Indian" is distinctly misleading in its connotation, for the native races of America have less affinity with the natives of India than we have ourselves.

To get over this difficulty of names an eminent ethnologist, some years ago, suggested the term "Amerind," which is a contraction of the longer phrase "American Indian."

This word is now commonly employed by students of the native races of this country and will doubtless, in course of time, find its way into popular usage and probably supersede the older term altogether.

As soon as it was once definitely ascertained that the land discovered by Columbus formed no part of India, much speculation arose concerning the origin of the natives of the New World. From what country had they come, and what was their former history? One writer made them Trojan refugees, who had fled hither after the sack of Troy. Another sought to relate them to the ancient Phoenicians. Still another brought them from China. And others again made them Jews, and saw in them the lost ten tribes of Israel.

But probably the most naive and whimsical of all the origins suggested for them was that propounded by Dr. Cotton Mather, a learned divine of the 18th century, who is best known to us as a zealous hunter of New England witches. He declared that the appearance of man on the American continent was due to the direct agency of the Evil One, who, seeing in the spread of Christianity his loss of power over mankind, conceived the crafty notion of seducing a portion of the race to this continent, where, in the language of the learned author, they would lie hidden and be out of sound of the silver trumpet of the Gospel, and where he would have them entirely for his own to the end of time.

Modern inquiry into their origin conducted on somewhat more scientific lines, by American students of man, brings them originally from

Eastern Asia, and classifies them as members of a proto-Mongolian stock, the distant ancestors of the modern Mongolian peoples of that region.

When we first came into contact with them they occupied the whole continent, from end to end. We found them segregated into numerous tribes and nations characterized by all degrees of culture, from the rudest savagery of Tierra del Fuego to the relatively advanced refinement and civilization of Mexico and Peru, and exhibiting a diversity of language truly bewildering.

In recent years scholars have given much attention and study to them and have ranged or classified them into a number of distinct groups or stocks, on the basis of their language. Some one hundred and fifty of these linguistic groups have been recognized. Of this number, ten are found within the confines of Canada; and of this ten, six, or more than half, have their habitat, in large part, in British Columbia.

British Columbia Groups

It is customary to divide these six stocks into two divisions: the Coast and Island tribes, and the Interior tribes.

The Coast tribes, reckoning from north to south, comprise: (1) the Haidas of the Queen Charlotte Islands and part of the Prince of Wales archipelago; (2) the Tshimshians, inhabiting the Nass and Skeena rivers and adjacent islands; (3) the Kwakintl-Nootka, who occupy the whole coastal region from Gardner Channel to Cape Mudge (with the exception of the region round Dean Inlet, where an isolated band of Salish Indians from the Southeast has established itself), and the greater part of the west coast and northern portion of Vancouver Island. South of these regions, on both Island and Mainland, we find the coastal divisions of (4) the great Salish stock. The Interior of the province is divided between the Inland divisions of the Salish, who occupy all the southern portion west of the crest of the Selkirk range; (5) the Kootenay tribes, who inhabit the valley of the Upper Columbia and the Kootenay Lake and River; and (6) the Dene or Athapasan tribes, which occupy all the northern portion of the province and extend beyond it to the confines of the Eskimo.

Each of these stocks is again divided into a greater or less number of subdivisions or local groups. Some of these differ so sharply from one another in customs, and especially in their dialects, that a casual observer would be easily deceived into regarding them as distinct and unrelated peoples.

It has been said that an Indian taken from one portion of the continent could easily be mistaken for an inhabitant of some other portion. This is because of the strong facial resemblance the natives commonly bear to each other. This general likeness, this distinctive pan-American visage would seem to consist in the main of a well-formed ovaloid face in which a decidedly aquiline and somewhat pointed nose forms the chief feature, dark eyes and hair, and a brownish skin which, at times, has an undertone of red running through it. This general type seems to exist all over the continent, both north and south, but variations from it are far from uncommon, and some of these are so extreme as to point to, or suggest, the existence of a secondary type. This type is, in most of its facial features, the direct opposite of the primary or truly American type. It is characterized by an unusual breadth of face, the nose is con-

cave and spreading, the cheek-bones high and prominent, the mouth coarse, and the colour a palish yellow.

In British Columbia we seem to meet with a cast of countenance that partakes of the characters of both types, approximating here more nearly to the characteristic American type and elsewhere to the adventitious or so-called Mongoloid type. This would seem to indicate that the native races of British Columbia have received a later infusion of East Asian blood than the natives farther east and south. This view is entirely in harmony with the opinions commonly held by American students, the consensus of opinion now being that this continent was peopled from Eastern Asia, but that these Asian hordes did not enter the country in one great wave, but rather in a succession of minor waves; and that, therefore, the natives of British Columbia, being presumably of the latest comers, are more closely allied to the present mongoloid peoples of East Asia than are the stocks farther east and south.

Those who have observed the strong facial resemblance between many of our Indians and the Japanese, who are both members of the mongoloid division of mankind, and Chinese in our midst, can have little doubt on this head. This likeness is, at times, so strong and striking that the Indians themselves perceive and comment upon it.

We cannot say, even approximately, when these invasions from Asia took place; we only know that they were not of recent date, and that the mongoloid peoples living in Eastern Asia at the present time have only a very indefinite ethnic relationship to the natives of this continent. Both they and the present mongoloid peoples of East Asia are probably derived from an older proto-mongoloid stock which inhabited that part of Asia some thousands of years ago.

Moral Qualities

In all moral qualities, save that of courage, the Indians of British Columbia ranked high before contact with the White man. Apart from lack of courage, their many other virtues stood out conspicuously. They were proverbial for their honesty and for their hospitality, and, in pre-trading days, for their chastity. We gather this not only from the accounts of the early traders, explorers and missionaries, but also from their own folk-tales and tribal traditions.

We are sometimes too prone to imagine that life among primitive peoples like our Indians is wholly debased and vile; and that paganism has no redeeming features. That nothing could be farther from the facts of the case their ethical teachings and precepts make perfectly clear.

The following precepts taken from the Thompson Indians are worthy of our interest and regard. Thus:

It is bad to steal.

People will despise you and say you are poor. They will not trust you; they will call you "thief." It is bad to be unvirtuous.

It will make your friends ashamed of you. You will be laughed at and gossiped about.

It is bad to lie.

No one will believe anything you say. They will call you "liar."

It is bad to be lazy.

You will always be poor, and no woman will care for you.
You will have few clothes, and you will be called "lazy one."
It is bad to boast if you are not great. People will dislike you and laugh at you. They will call you "coyote," "vain one."
It is bad to be cowardly.
People will insult and mock you. They will impose upon you. Women will not want you for a husband. They will call you "coward."
It is bad to be quarrelsome.
People will have no dealings with you. Your wives will leave you.
On the positive side they say:
It is good to be honest, truthful and faithful.
It is good to be brave, industrious and grateful.
It is good to be hospitable, liberal and friendly.
It is good to be modest and sociable.
Your family and friends will be proud of you, and everybody will admire and esteem you.

People who inculcate such sound, practical morality and such virtues in the minds of their children as these precepts set forth can scarcely be called debased, nor can they be considered to be greatly in need of ethical instruction from ourselves.

Religious Beliefs and Practices

Of religion, in the ordinary meaning of the word, the British Columbia natives had none. They recognized no Supreme Being who controlled the universe, no High Gods who ruled the destinies of man, nor even a "Great Spirit" such as is ascribed, at times, to some of the eastern tribes, to whom they could pray for protection and help. The nearest approach they made to anything of the kind was found among some of the Interior Salish, who, at times, invoked the Spirit of the Dawn, one of the many "mystery spirits" with which they peopled their universe.

They believed in a multiplicity of spirits: Every object in the universe had a spirit or ghostly side, which was distinct from the body or material form and which could separate itself from the latter and live an independent existence. Thus the spirit world was a very real world to them, ever-present and ever-encompassing them; was, indeed, the source of all the ills and pleasures of their existence.

Whatever good luck might befall them was due entirely to the benevolence of the "spirits," as, in like manner, all their ill-luck and misfortunes were due to their malevolence. They were, they believed, ever at the mercy of the ghosts of things, whose pity must be implored, anger propitiated and goodness recompensed.

Out of these beliefs and attitudes of mind sprang their practice of acquiring totems or spirit helpers. To secure these the individual went apart alone into the recesses of the forest or mountains, and there entered upon a course of training or preparation. This consisted in prolonged fasts, repeated bathings and other exhausting bodily exercises. With the body in the enervated condition consequent upon such severe treatment, the mind became abnormally active and expectant, and dreams and visions

came to them readily. It was a peculiarity of these spirit helpers, according to the Indian belief, that they always appeared in the dream or vision in human guise, no matter what the bodily form might be. It might be that of an animal or some inanimate object. Certain animals or objects were more desired than others, because they were supposed to possess greater "mystery" power, but the seeker after ghostly help had no choice in the matter. Whatever spirit first appeared in the dream or vision became the individual's totem. Thereafter, between the totem-seeker and his ghostly friend, a peculiar and binding relation existed; help and protection on the one hand, respect and reverence on the other.

Social Organization

Early in our studies of primitive races we discovered that their social organization often differed in many interesting features from our own. The Indians of this province are no exception to this rule, for we find among them at least three distinct forms of family grouping or organization. The earliest and most primitive of family groupings is that in which descent is counted through the mother only. This is called matriarchial or matrilineal organization. The second and later form is that in which descent is counted through the father only. This is known as patriarchal or patrilineal organization. The third is that in which descent is counted through both sides of the family, and which has been termed kindred or co-parental organization. This latter is the organization we ourselves live under and are familiar with.

The northern coastal tribes reckon descent exclusively through the mother; with them the husband or father is an outsider, having only the status of a favoured or privileged visitor in the mother's clan, and possesses no authority whatever over his own offspring or family. Under this condition of things the mother's eldest brother is the head of her family and has control of her children. Under this form of family organization, the father is unable to leave or transfer any of his property or belongings to his own offspring. All he possesses belongs to the children of his sister or sisters, they being members of his clan, the property of the individual being also the property of the clan to which he belongs, and it cannot be alienated from the clan. It was probably, in great part, this inability to transmit to his own offspring his personal possessions and honours that led to the breaking down of the earlier matrilineal descent and the substitution therefor of the patrilineal, or father-right, condition of things. This form or organization is found among the Kwakiuth.

Under patriarchal rule, the mother's relations are not regarded as the kinsmen of the children. She, under this rule, is an intruder or visitor in the husband's clan, and should he die before herself her relatives come and take her away.

The third and latest form of family organization is best found among the Salish tribes. Here we find, especially in the Interior, that co-parental family grouping has superseded the other two earlier forms, and descent with them is counted equally on both sides of the house, as among ourselves.

Sketches of Canadian Authors

By M. C. Cowie, *Aberdeen School, Vancouver, B. C.*

Constance Lindsay Skinner

HERE in British Columbia we sometimes forget one of the province's native daughters, who most certainly hasn't forgotten her birthplace. Perhaps, if she would come home and spend a little time with us, the renewal of intimacy might be good for both Miss Skinner and British Columbia. A story of our own coast from her pen would be well worth reading—and writing!

Constance Lindsay Skinner was born at a fur-trading post in the Cariboo, and, from her earliest days, was familiar with pioneer life. After some time her family moved to Victoria, where most of her education was received. Still later they came to Vancouver.

She had every reason, if heredity counts for anything, for desiring to write. To an ancestor of hers (Cyriac Skinner), who was a pupil of Milton, that poet addressed two sonnets; Charles Read was a relative of her father; and Sir David Lindsay, poet and historian, and Lady Anne Lindsay, ballad-writer (among her songs is the well-known "Auld Robin Gray"), were members of the Lindsay family to which Miss Skinner's mother belonged.

Music and drama attracted the daughter of the Cariboo factor, and, after some desultory work for newspapers, she became musical and dramatic critic for a Los Angeles paper. Later she went to Chicago, thence to New York, and steadily she increased her literary output. Her earliest novel, "Good-morning, Rosamond," is a delightful, sprightly little tale. The Forest Theatre in the artists' colony of Carmel, California, was inaugurated in 1910 by her poetic drama, "David." (One wonders—did Miss Skinner ever discuss drama with Jack London? It must have been a lively conversation, if she did).

Miss Skinner's Indian poems have gained high praise from the critics —also prizes from the "London Bookman" and the "Poetry Magazine." Two volumes, "Adventurers of Oregon" and "Pioneers of the Old Southwest," are included in "Chronicles of America," an American series dealing with the history of the United States. Miss Skinner was naturally better-fitted to write of the trading posts of Oregon than most people, owing to her first-hand knowledge of post life and her familiarity with Hudson's Bay Company customs.

To teacher-librarians, two other of Miss Skinner's books should prove a godsend. "Silent Scot" appeals to both boys and girls—the ex-pirate, the young scout Andy, Tuleko the Indian lad, and, most of all the Scalping Scot, win all youthful hearts. Who could resist the twins, with their six years, their absurd combination name of "Scalping Scot," their fearlessness, and, it is to be feared, their naughtiness? And "Roselle of the North" is an excellent answer to the occasional cry from the twelve or thirteen-year-old girl, "Can't you give me a good girl's book? I've read all the 'Anne' books." "Roselle" has not yet failed me, at least, as a reply to that request.

A Few of Our Poets

(*By* M. C. Cowie, *Aberdeen School, Vancouver, B. C.*)

TO pick out a few Canadian poets from the many writers who have chosen this mode of doing service to humanity (since beauty is surely that) is a difficult undertaking—especially as one's conscience will certainly trouble one for weeks, whispering, "Why did you omit ———?" So it would be well to call attention to the fact that this article is far, far from being either complete or satisfactory. It is merely an attempt to show that Canadian poets are doing a good deal of very creditable work.

Isabel Ecclestone Mackay left some love[illegible]to keep her memory green. "The Shining Ship," her volume of [illegible] verse, has recently been re-issued in an enlarged edition. Even [illegible] of "Fires of Driftwood" shows her poetic gift. Everyone is familiar with the work of Pauline Johnson, and with that of Bliss Carman, beauty-lover and great-hearted friend. In Charles G. D. Roberts' poems, there is a distinct change of subject and of treatment to be noticed, if his early work be compared with that of later years. The swinging lilt of "The Laughing Sally" is entirely unlike "Wayfarer of Earth":

"Up, heart of mine,
Thou wayfarer of earth!
Of seed divine,
Be mindful of thy birth."

The early death of Norah Holland, a few years ago, left empty the place of a charming singer. Born in Collingwood, Ontario, of Irish descent (she was a relative of the Irish poet, W. B. Yeats), Miss Holland began to write at a very early age. Her two books of poems, "Spunyarn and Spindrift" and "When Half-Gods Go," show high ability. "The Little Dog-angel" could not fail to touch the heart of any owner of a four-footed chum; "The Sea-Wife" has a special meaning for the coast dwellers of any race; and, if a drop of Celtic blood is needed for the full appreciation of "The Rider of the Sidhe," yet few will be unable to grasp the mood of its closing lines:

"No terror shall touch the quiet dead,
Tonight, O Vanithee."

Born in Chilliwack, B. C., Eloise Street has written some verse of high quality. Some dainty trifles lead us to hope for a book of children's verse from Miss Street.

"The fairies' umbrellas,
I haven't any doubt,
Are little, new green maple leaves
When they first come out."

Another native of British Columbia, Miss Mary E. Colman, has just published a little chap-book entitled "The Immigrants." It contains some very creditable work by this young author, whose poem, "Tears," included in the chap-book, won the prize offered by an Easterner last year.

Also a British Columbian by birth, Elspeth Honeyman Clarke is by no means dependent on local scenes for her inspiration. But—doesn't a seaport town know the truth of the following hit from "The Tiger":

"Out in the gathering darkness
The water is flecked with white,
And the muttering voice of the ocean
Breaks through the quiet night."

I wish I had space to quote the whole of this poem. Mrs. Clarke now lives in Summerland, and it is to be hoped that she may find time to gather her work into book form.

Most of us are familiar with at least one or two of Arthur Stringer's novels, but not as many know his poetry. Having read some of his beautifully finished verse, one is tempted to wonder if Mr. Stringer ought not to have left prose alone. His poetry shows greater artistry by far than his fiction.

Another young writer, Frances Beatrice Taylor, born in Brussels, Ontario, and for some time one of the staff of a London, Ontario, daily, has published a little volume, "White Wings of Dawn," of whose contents the following is a fair example:

"Now these, maybe, are sorrowful,
With all their goodly story told,
Yet they have treasured store to keep,
As robbers hoard their gold,—
But, oh, I was not ever young,
Who now am grown so old."

Laura Goodman Salverson, born in Winnipeg, is best known as an interpreter of Canadians of Icelandic and Norse descent. She has written a small quantity of musical verse, however.

Arthur Bourinot, the Ottawa lawyer, Lloyd Roberts, son of Charles G. D. Roberts, Beatrice Redpath of Montreal, Grace Blackburn of London, Ont., Louise Morey Bowman, F. O. Call of Lennoxville, P. Q., "Katherine Hale" (Mrs. John Garvin), Loftus MacInnes, Archibald Macmechan of Dalhousie University, are all distinguished for the high quality and slender output of their work. Only their best is permitted to appear in print. They are all Canadians by birth, as are many others whose names are omitted only because of lack of space.

Many "Canadians by choice," as Miss Colman puts it in the dedication of "The Immigrants," are also doing the literature of their country excellent service via the poet's path.

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The Teachers' Bookshelf

By W. M. ARMSTRONG

Wellington; Oliver Brett. Doubleday, Doran & Co.; $3.50.

Our idols are falling about us everywhere. The Hon. Oliver Brett's "Iron Duke" is not that of Alfred Tennyson. It would seem that much of the "glory and greatness of Wellington" has come down to us because the brilliant Lord Mornington, that important political figure in the councils of Pitt, happened to be Wellington's brother!

At an early age, Arthur is the despair of his mother: "I vow to God I don't know what I shall do with my awkward son, Arthur." At Eton, he was a "slow-witted and idle fellow" and "a failure, either as a student or as a good fellow."

But destiny was not to be cheated. The stars were fighting for him. In spite of "lethargy, inefficiency, stupidity and welfulness," he was destined to become a great military chieftain. The appointment of his brother, in 1797, as Governor-General of India prepared the way. On every opportunity he was pushed, forward; much to the chagrin and resentment of the senior officers. Disagreeable and undignified squabbles with old and tried public servants resulted.

India, and nine years. Apart from the engagement at Poona, no reputation had been made. Castlereagh's influence brought him a lieutenant-generalship and the command in Portugal. But there was tremendous opposition. Even the King was opposed to this move.

Brett admits, however, the success, from a military standpoint, from this point to "the classic victory of Waterloo."

But politics proved to be his undoing. He proved to be a hidebound aristocrat firmly convinced that the earth was made for gentlemen of the blood. The hero of Waterloo is stoned in his home, and, in his carriage, pelted with mud. He lived long enough to become a legend, and to see most of his direful prophecies of doom seem ridiculous.

He is accused by his biographer of being cold and unfeeling, not only to friends, but to his nearest kin, his mother included. His chivalry did not extend beyond his marriage. He treated his wife wretchedly, and his "marital derelictions were a public scandal." He had none of the breeding and culture of the class to which he was proud to belong.

Strangely enough, after marshalling his facts, the author appends a conclusion that Wellington was, withal, a great character and personality. The evidence presented and the conclusion reached are so far apart, however, that one wonders whether the author has not added this appendix because of some sense of duty rather than because of a sincere conviction.

—W. M. A.

George Washington, 1777-1781, by Rupert Hughes; New York; Morrow, $5.

Now that the tumult aroused by his previous volumes has subsided, Rupert Hughes, "debunker" of history, now adds one more book to the series, dealing with the life of the first President during the years 1777-1781. This period is bounded on the one side by the battle of Trenton, Washington's first victory, on the other side by the surrender of Cornwallis, which practically ended the military aspect of the War of Independence.

Described, on the title page of this book, as "The Savior of the States," Washington continues to be a somewhat dubious hero. In Mr. Hughes' own words: "He was infinitely human, incessantly guessing wrong, making innumerable false prophecies, countless mistakes, losing his temper, regaining it, being coerced into defeats and dragged away from them, driven into victories in spite of himself, and driving others to heights they could not otherwise have attained. I find him eternally fascinating and various."

One might say of the author's style that it, too, is "fascinating" —often more so than fiction. But again and again the thoughtful reader must ask himself: "Cui bono?" Why should so much space be devoted to proving that Washington did not play at Valley Forge or did swear at Monmouth? Is it really necessary to dwell at such length on every mistake, to perpetuate the sordid tales of petty criticisms made by those who surrounded him? If, as Mr. Hughes admits, Washington is so tremendous a figure that he towers above his contemporaries, does it add to one's appreciation of his greatness to be carried through the account of his every failing? If the answer to these and like questions be in the affirmative, then surely we must revise our conceptions of the function of biography.

Of course, no one today desires a return to the style of Parson Weems; no one would think of reading that worthy's curious production except for technical purposes or for the sake of sheer amusement. But one cannot help wondering if the biographical iconoclast of the present era is not as much inclined to go to extremes as the eulogist of a century or so ago. Surely there is a "golden mean" somewhere; though few seem able to keep to it—or, for that matter, even to discover it.

However, Mr. Hughes has not devoted his entire space to depicting trivialities, errors, shortcomings; that, in the nature of the case, would be impossible, even if one desired to follow such a method. And yet, although he has not deliberately attempted to discredit the subject of his work, there are times when it would almost seem as if Mr. Hughes had succeeded in doing just that—however unconsciously he accomplished it.

In his "Afterword," the author remarks: "My first volume managed to get Washington through his first 30 years. The second, though much larger, hardly compassed 15 years. This third volume, still longer, is strained to embrace four years. I might seem to be working out the exact formula of Achilles and the hare, but the worst is not over."

Four years—but how significant both in the life of Washington and of the struggling colonies! They saw the fortunes of the American cause in every stage, from the nadir of Valley Forge to the zenith of Yorktown. Through these long months, Washington's reputation passed through corresponding vicissitudes. In spite of all the emphasis placed in this book upon the General's shortcomings, one cannot but be amazed at this man who led—or, to be more correct, almost dragged his countrymen—to victory in the face of appalling odds. No mere fortuitous concurrence of events, or even of persons, could have produced such results. If Mr. Hughes marvels at his subject, the reader may be the more pardonable if he cannot help seeing Washington's greatness—often in spite of his biographer.

Opinions about this book will vary as widely as they have with regard to the other volumes of the series. The advocates and connoisseurs of "de-bunked" history will rise to proclaim it the finest life of Washington ever written. The "patriots" of a certain type will denounce it with equal vigor as totally libelous and shameful. The moderate conservatives, if they read it, will take certain sections cum grano salis—and then turn to some other biographer, like that of Shelby Little.

—C. S. M.

New Light on the Youth of Dante, by Gertrude Leigh, London: Faber & Faber, 15s. net.

As a result of 30 years' study, Miss Leigh propounds the theory that the "Inferno," which in the present volume is her main concern, is strictly autobiographical; though, of course, in the guise of allegory. She examines the first part of the great trilogy in detail, canto by canto, almost stanza by stanza, and, unwrapping the disguise of their incidents, shows how closely these can be made to correspond with the known facts of the poet's biography and of the history of his time. It must be admitted that the analogies which she urges are often extremely striking.

Her second position, however, is even more interesting; for its acceptance implies a complete remodification of our conception of Dante's character. It has hitherto been generally taken for granted that, however enigmatic might be his personality, he was a faithful son of the Church of Rome, accepting its doctrines in all their medieval implications. To that notion Miss Leigh throws down a direct challenge. She contends that the "Inferno" is a satire as bitter and profound as "Gulliver's Travels."

"There is no escape," she writes, "from the dilemma that the ostensible, literal meaning of the 'Inferno,' as crystallized in men's minds for the last 600 years, is wholly irreconcilable with the profound religious philosophy which Dante set himself to teach his generation." And again: "There is no way of escape from the fact that the entire trend of Dante's philosophy was directed to give the lie to that doctrine of eternal torture for all outside the Church which hits men in the face on opening the 'Inferno'."

Gallipoli, by Brig.-Gen. C. F. Aspinall-Oglander; Vol. I. Inception of the Campaign to May, 1915; 380 pp.; Heinemann; 15s; Maps and Appendices. 76 pp. 4s. 6d. Reviewed in "Everyman" (London).

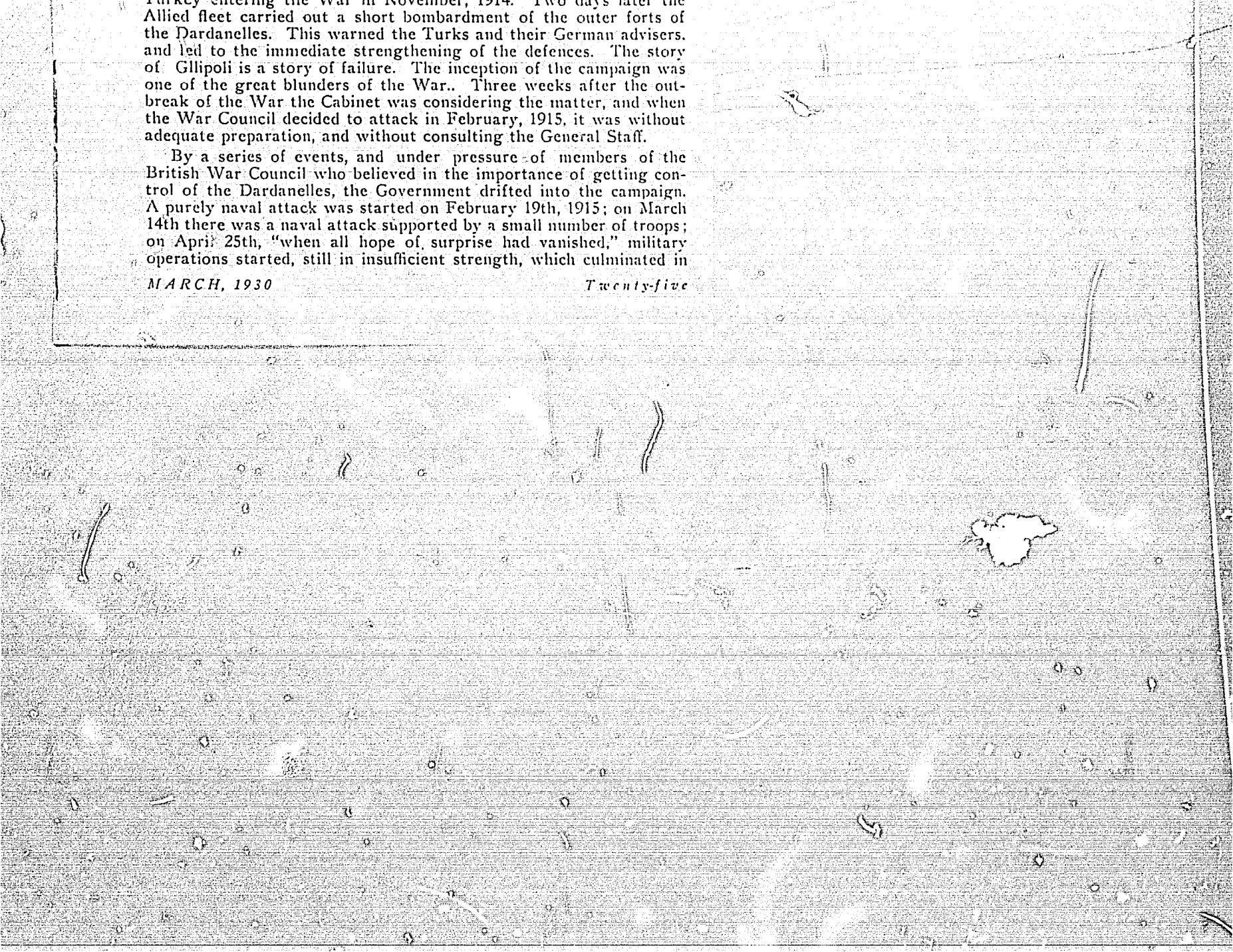
The study of war is important to all who wish to understand the workings of human society. War itself is a great disaster, and an evil from which the world is longing to be freed. But in war we can see States devoting themselves to the achievement of a single end. War is a condition in which the highest energies of States are called for, so that the study of political conditions during war, and the examination of the kind of direction that government is capable of giving, are extraordinarily significant. In war the qualities of a people are tested, not merely the personal qualities of its individual men and women, their bravery, devotion and self-sacrifice, but its qualities as an organized state.

The histories of the Great War that are being published should receive the careful attention of thoughtful readers. They can do more to help the political education of the ordinary man than perhaps any other aspect of contemporary history. The Gallipoli campaign is a part of the Great War, not too complicated for thorough study, in which the Great War itself in its general political principles can be examined. The Great War was on such an enormous scale that it is a large task to study it as a whole; the Gallipoli Campaign gives it to us in miniature and with most of its salient features displayed.

The story is told in two volumes, of which the first has just been published. Considering the size of the volume and the amount of matter it contains, the price of 15s. is very reasonable. The volume before us is part of the official History of the War and has been prepared by direction of the Historical Section, Committee of Imperial Defence. Therefore we must expect it to be dry and dull, and it is. It is not the business of the author of such a work to be romantic; he has to give us the documents and present the facts. This he does clearly and well.

The author gives us a brief historical sketch of the importance of the Dardanelles. He then describes the incidents that led up to Turkey entering the War in November, 1914. Two days later the Allied fleet carried out a short bombardment of the outer forts of the Dardanelles. This warned the Turks and their German advisers, and led to the immediate strengthening of the defences. The story of Gllipoli is a story of failure. The inception of the campaign was one of the great blunders of the War.. Three weeks after the outbreak of the War the Cabinet was considering the matter, and when the War Council decided to attack in February, 1915, it was without adequate preparation, and without consulting the General Staff.

By a series of events, and under pressure of members of the British War Council who believed in the importance of getting control of the Dardanelles, the Government drifted into the campaign. A purely naval attack was started on February 19th, 1915; on March 14th there was a naval attack supported by a small number of troops; on April 25th, "when all hope of surprise had vanished," military operations started, still in insufficient strength, which culminated in



a great military campaign for the capture of what was at last "a veritable fortress." The present volume deals with the inception of the campaign to May, 1915, the second battle of Krithia. The concluding volume will deal with it from that date to the final evacuation.

The campaign was started with the idea that if it was not immediately successful it could be abandoned quietly and without loss of prestige. It was embarked upon half-heartedly, and without sufficient preparation or forethought. Mr. Winston Churchill, who was actively interested, believed in the value of unaided effort by the fleet, against the opinion of the naval experts, and it was only after the failure of the naval attack that he was convinced that a combined operation was essential. When "this new and difficult military enterprise" had at last been decided upon:

"No estimate of the probable scope and duration of the operations had been drawn up for discussion by the War Council. . . . For everyone in authority at home, therefore, this new undertaking was an unmeasured leap in the dark."

That a campaign entered upon under such circumstances should have been a failure is not surprising. Lacking proper plans, sufficient troops, adequate ammunition and, most important of all, the determination to succeed at all costs, it was doomed from the start. "There is," says the author, "abundant proof today that in 1915 the problem of the Dardanelles was by no means incapable of solution." But it was attempted in the wrong way and with wrong political direction.

The attack upon the Peninsula was started on April 25th, 1915, under Sir Ian Hamilton, and is a story of amazing heroism and endurance. The areas occupied by the troops were a barren wilderness. There was, for a long time, a great shortage of water. The temperature ranged from intense cold to tropical heat, and, in the three summer months, there was an indescribable and revolting plague of flies. There were no adequate rest camps; and scarcely a corner of the ground was immune from hostile shelling. Gallipoli was a forlorn hope, and the story which General Aspinall-Oglander relates so modestly, without a word of his own part in it, is a thrilling drama of men throwing their lives away at the call of duty. It is a story that everyone should read.

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Arguments on School Radio

ADVANTAGES and disadvantages of radio in classrooms and in adult education have been pointed out in a report by the Advisory Committee on Radio appointed by Ray Lyman Wilbur, Secretary of the Interior for the United States, with the approval of President Hoover, and are now being analyzed by the Federal Office of Education.

Among the objections to the use of the radio in schools, listed in the report, are the following:

Radiocasting to schools constitutes an additional sales pressure put on school officials; it is a dangerous vehicle of commercial propaganda; it is both expensive and experimental; it subordinates teaching to dial twisting; it disrupts, interrupts, and overcrowds the schedule; it encourages teacher laziness; available programs are not properly correlated with the curriculum; the radio is of no more advantage than a phonograph record since the teacher must supply instruction before and after; too many teachers are incompetent to select radio programs wisely and use them skilfully; it threatens to bring in more mass education and standardized thinking.

On the other side, the report states, the following arguments are advanced in favor of the radio:

It enriches the curriculum; vitalizes instruction; adds variety, stimulates more attentive listening; awakens intelligent curiosity; stirs ambition; increases appreciation of the subjects studied; supplies personality and authenticity not felt in textbooks; results in increased voluntary research and study; its lessons bring the teacher new ideas, new lesson plans, new methods, and new exercises; it relieves the strain of continual direction of class work; and it enables the teacher to study her class and observe individual differences more effectively than is possible when she is doing the actual teaching.

Most of the objections to it are said to be like all objections to new methods; inspired by inertia or uncertainty, and will vanish.

In regard to educating adults by radio, the committee finds objections raised on the grounds that the average person does not want education and resents the implication that he needs it; that the effect is largely passive and adds little stimulus to thought, encouraging the fallacy that listening means acquisition of education; that no proven technique has been developed and that the listener loses the advantage of maps, diagrams and other visual aids.

The advantages claimed for radio as a means of education for adults cover a wide field. It is argued, the report says, that the radio "democratizes" higher learning by removing obstacles that now make it available to a small percentage of Americans and removes obsta-

cles of age, sex, color, race, creed, special academic prerequisites, social status or economic conditions; it makes it possible for the able teacher to reach multitudes of listeners and multiplies the beneficent influence of those teachers; it multiplies the effective reach of the endowment dollar by eliminating the need of expensive halls and dormitories in the use of this medium; it provides the swiftest means yet known for the spread of ideas; opens the treasury of the universities to all on the same conditions; increases the public appreciation of education, thereby raising the educational and cultural standards of the nation.

The radio compels essential brevity and point, the report continues, a long-lost art among college lecturers; it forces the teacher to visualize his instruction to the highest degree of interest and value; it advances the whole educational attitude toward the goal of self-education by ridding it of experimental discipline and evasions; makes room for the amateur teacher who has no place in the formal academic plan, but who finds in himself an aptitude for teaching and an accumulated wisdom worth sharing.

Laurel Poisoning in B. C.

A RECENT case of Laurel poisoning in British Columbia renders it desirable to give publicity to the following facts in the hope that it may prevent other cases of poisoning from this source, especially in view of the fact that there are so many so-called "Laurel" hedges in the province.

Probably one hundred per cent. of the "Laurel" hedges in and around gardens here are not true Laurel, nor even related to it. Indeed, true Laurel is very rare in gardens, and is not found wild in B. C. The familiar Hedge Laurel belongs to the Cherry family, and is correctly known as Cherry-laurel (Prunus Lauro-cerasus). a plant well-known for its poisonous properties, since the bruised leaves on decomposition yield hydrocyanic acid. There have been many narrow escapes of poisoning by persons who intended to use the leaves (Laurus nobilis), but who took the precaution to have their identification verified before using them.

The common wild Cherry and Choke-cherry leaves also yield hydrocyanic acid on decomposition, though not to the same extent as Cherry-laurel. Goats can eat a greater variety of plants than most other animals with impunity; they may browse on the fresh leaves of wild Cherry, but suffer poisoning if they eat wilted leaves, such as from branches chopped off a Cherry tree.

Closely related to the wild Cherry, and often mistaken for it, is The Indian Plum (Nuttallia cerasiformis), sometimes called the Osoberry. This shrub is a common native plant in the Coast area of the mainland and on some of the islands. It also is poisonous.

The native wild Laurel (Kalmia polifolia), known as Bog-laurel when found in bogs, and as Mountain-laurel when found in Alpine regions, is closely related to the American Laurel (Kalmia latifolia) of our parks and gardens. Both are known poisonous plants and are not true Laurels.

Extending the Reign of Law

During the Tenth Assembly no fewer than fifteen States—Australia, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Greece, India, the Irish Free State, Italy, Latvia, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Peru, Siam and South Africa—signed the Optional Clause (Paragraph 2 of Article 36) of the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice, by which they recognize the right to summon or be summoned by all other signatories before the Court on all disputes arising out of questions of law or fact or treaty interpretation.

The compulsory jurisdiction of the Court is now recognized by thirty-three States, including four (France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy) of the five Great Powers, members of the League. Nine years ago, when the Statute of the Court was adopted, it was freely predicted that no great power would ever give up the privileges of force and put itself on equal terms with small States before the law by accepting the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court.

A good many of the new signatures exclude disputes arising out of past events from the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court and reserve the right to have recourse to the League Council in the first instance, and to appeal to the Court only if the Council fails to settle the matter to the satisfaction of both parties. Great Britain, India, and the Dominions, with the exception of the Irish Free State (which signed without any reservation), have reserved disputes between members of the British Commonwealth and questions within their domestic jurisdiction. Greece has reserved disputes affecting her territorial status or sovereignty. By Paragraph 4 of Article 36 of the Court Statute, which, not being "optional," has been accepted by all the signatories from the moment they became parties to the Statute, "in the event of a dispute as to whether the Court has jurisdiction, the matter shall be settled by the decision of the Court."

Some States, not satisfied with the striking advance made in accepting the reign of law through acknowledging the compulsory jurisdiction of the Court, went farther and announced their intention to accede to the comprehensive treaty for conciliation, compulsory jurisdiction of the Court, and arbitration of all disputes not settled by these means, known as the General Act for the Peaceful Settlement of International Disputes, framed and opened to signature only a year ago by the Ninth Assembly, and in force after the accession of Belgium, Norway and Sweden. By the end of the Tenth Assembly, the following ten States had acceded or announced their intention shortly to accede to the General Act: Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Finland, France, Greece, the Irish Free State, Latvia, Norway and Sweden.

Increasing the League's Power to Keep the Peace

The Tenth Assembly revealed the growing tendency to emphasize that keeping the peace while a dispute is being considered, and immediately stopping hostilities that may break out, is the most practical way of dealing with the danger of war. This tendency was illustrated by the discussion on the model treaty for strengthening the means to prevent war, originally suggested by Germany and recommended to all governments by the Ninth Assembly a year ago. By the model treaty, States would undertake to recognize the powers of the Council, when a dispute arises threatening peace, to order the parties to refrain from any measures of mobilization or movements of troops that might aggravate the crisis, to withdraw their troops from the frontier, to accept a commission of enquiry on the spot, etc. At this Assembly it was decided to convert the model treaty into a draft general convention. This will be the work of one of the many League standing committees—that concerned with Arbitration and Security—which has been instructed to prepare this draft convention for reference to governments in time to enable them to decide on its adoption at the eleventh session of the Assembly in September, 1930.

The Draft Treaty of Financial Assistance, also referred by the Assembly to the Arbitration and Security Committee, comes in somewhat the same category as the model treaty, for its guiding idea is to enable the Council, if unanimous, to use the power of granting or withholding credits as a method of persuading recalcitrant States to keep the peace, or alternatively, to restore peace immediately when hostilities have broken out. The use of this power in the early stages of a conflict will, it is hoped, reduce the chance of matters reaching the stage where sanctions have to be applied under Art. 16. The draft treaty, that is, is based on two articles of the Covenant, namely, Article 11, which states that "any" threat of war is a matter of concern to the whole League, and the League shall take any action that may be deemed wise and effectual to safeguard the peace of nations;" and Article 16, by which, in case of the Covenant being violated by resorting to war, the members of the League agree that "they will mutually support one another in the financial and economic measures" undertaken to restore peace. On the basis of these two articles, it provides a guaranteed credit scheme by which, if the Council is unanimous, it may put these credits at the disposal of a State which it considers to have been attacked or to be in danger of attack. The liability of each guarantor State under this scheme is small and strictly limited.

The final text of this draft treaty is to be circulated to the governments in time for adoption at the 1930 Assembly.

Dr. Stresemann and the League.

The Secretary-Treasurer of the League of Nations took part in the funeral of Dr. Stresemann in Berlin and made a declaration to the press on the great part played by the late German Foreign Minister in the League:

"Gustave Stresemann belongs not only to the history of his own nation; he is for all time intimately connected with the history of the League of Nations, for which he worked with all his idealism and devotion until the last hours of his life, in spite of his severe illness. Dr. Stresemann has not only earned the gratitude of his nation, which he brought into the League and for which he secured the important place which it now occupies at Geneva through his energy, resource and personal charm; Dr. Stresemann has also strengthened and helped to develop the League, to which he wholeheartedly devoted his great gifts. He was always the fearless champion of the League and never tired of proclaiming his profound belief in the necessity of friendly co-operation between all nations and his faith in the idea of the League."

The second number of the "Educational Survey," published by the Secretariat of the League of Nations, has now appeared. This publication is intended to provide a medium for the discussion of the problems arising from the attempt to inculcate a new and wider international spirit in education and to give some instruction in the organization and aims of the League of Nations. This number contains atricles on how French school children are taught about the League and peace, and what is being done to give instruction on the League in Australia, Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, Great Britain, Wales, Roumania and Switzerland. A section is devoted to the declarations made by a number of governments at the last Assembly, emprasizing the importance of developing instruction on the League.

The official section contains a report by Mr. P. Collier, Premier of Western Australia, on the steps taken in that State to give effect to the Assembly's resolution.

Professor F. H. Soward contributes an article on instruction on the League of Nations in Canada; Mr. G. H. Huntington writes on "American Colleges in the Near East."

The B.A. Course for Teachers

WHAT does the future have in store for the people who plan to make teaching a profession? There is no doubt that, unless they raise their academic standing, they will find their positions threatened by the more recent arrivals in the profession.

By extra-mural and summer school study, Queen's University has been helping many men and women teachers to higher qualifications. In the long list of graduates throughout Canada may be found former extra-mural students who are now in the very front rank of the teaching profession.

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Ramblings of Paidagogos

On Making Speeches.

A teacher never gets any credit for making a good speech—though he is sometimes held in sorrowful opprobrium for making a bad one. On any occasion, at any notice, and on any subject, he is expected to speak with easy assurance, and to roll well-chosen periods of dignified English from his tongue. It is of no manner of use for him to protest that he is no speaker, that indeed he has fewer opportunities for platform expression than such of his fellows as belong to Service Clubs and Lodges; the layman regards him as a man bulging with information, and an orator in his own right by virtue of the polished dialectic with which he is supposed to regale his classes for five hours every day.

How often do we suffer at the hands of some fatuous creature who calls upon us at the eleventh hour to lead the discussion, or to propose a toast to the ladies—and how frequently do we slink home thereafter, minds ablaze with new-found fecundity, conning over the sparkling witticisms and unblushing gallantries with which we would have fired the company—had we been allowed the common decency of five minutes' preparation!

But it is much more usual for us to be asked to move a vote of thanks to the speaker of the evening. That appears to be our main job. Just as bank managers always become treasurers, so teachers are invariably wakened up at the close of an address to speak with simulated earnestness about the glad response of an address which that noble utterance has found in every hearer's heart. As a precautionary measure the wise teacher polishes up a vote of thanks every time he goes to a meeting—and it is a matter for regret that many of the finest of these have been lost to the world through the inopportune attendance of a clergyman or a school trustee.

Such trials, however, pale into insignificance when we are faced with the nerve-racking necessity of addressing a convention. Even the choice of a subject brings us out in a cold sweat. Shall we stun the assembly with a profound dissertation on the philosophy of Herbart, or shall we delve down into the modern mystery of intelligence? Apparently, we shall do neither, because one week before the event, and while we are still meditating, word comes from the secretary to say that the committee has been lucky enough to secure the services of Professor Yap, Ph.D., of the University of Bangkok, and that we have been assigned third place in a discussion of preventing tendencies in Siamese education. We receive the letter with mingled sorrow and thankfulness, knowing very well that the turn of the third speaker never arrives.

But for the teacher there is sometimes another and more harrowing occasion for public speech. This occurs when the confidence reposed in him by his associates is so great that he is elected to address his school board on a salary question. His best effort is always made in the association meeting, where he assures his fellows with touching ingenuousness that he is the least among them, and in no degree fitted to bear the weight of responsibility, the dignity of leadership, which they would lay upon him. He points out, with some emotion and a trembling finger, that there are members of outstanding ability numbered among them, to any one of whom he would entrust his putative salary increase and cheerfully surrender his exalted place. He dwells upon the academic distinction of James Jones, and the seniority of Thomas Smith, to say nothing of the personal charm of Mabel Johnson; but it is all vanity and vexation of spirit; nobody pays the slightest attention to his pleadings, his humility, or his wiles.

In due season his hour arrives, and he stands at the head of the delegation, fortified by strong coffee and irrefragable statistics. On being called upon by the chairman in a suspicious sort of way to explain just how many of the teachers he represents, he musters up his suaviter and his fortiter and plunges with considerable assurance into his presentation of the case. Occasionally he has the desolate experience of listening to his own voice and words, whereupon he stumbles a bit and returns to his notes. But in the main he does extremely well—far better than he expected.

Having resumed his seat, he hears the chairman—from what seems to be a great way off—make some observations about ratepayers, or about tomorrow being the last day for submitting estimates, or about taking the matter under advisement with a view to revising next year's schedule. As these references to the Greek Calends appear to close the matter, he retires from the board room, slightly puzzled but with his colors still flying, and decides there and then—after the precedent of James Jones and Thomas Smith, to say nothing of Mabel Johnson—that the leading of delegations is a job that must and shall go round.

We need add but one example to this catalogue of well-intentioned cruelty; the teacher is always in great demand to address Young People's Societies of the local churches. The train is set in motion by the charming telephonic invitation of a sweet young thing who capitalizes the fact that she is a former pupil. The natural hesitancy of her voice fairly sweeps the teacher off his feet: he capitulates with a touch of grave paternal humor, and is immediately undone. On returning to his fireside with a glow of geniality and a pleasant expansion of self-esteem, he imparts the intelligence to a slightly cynical wife. Almost at once he is plunged into melancholy cogitations.

The evening appointed for his martyrdom having arrived, he betakes himself—a little flushed but otherwise calm—to the meeting

place, and discovers, as he feared, that "Young People" is a most inclusive term: one third of the audience is of a ripe maturity, and most of the others are still playing tag among the chairs. Panic and the desire for flight seize him; he considers several dishonorable subterfuges, and toys with the idea of having an epileptic fit, but the chairman advances upon him at this point and he remembers the dignity of his calling. He is introduced—quite needlessly, as is attested by an outbreak of self-conscious giggling in the first five rows—and stands miserably up to deliver himself of an address on "The Significance of the Youth Movement in Germany." When about halfway through, he concludes the subject abruptly, murmurs something about a sick baby, favors the audience with a ghastly smile, and is on his own doorstep before the Young People realize that the Roman holiday is over.

Here we may as well leave him, since he is probably become too gloomy for any society save that of his wife—and we, happily, are not his wife. Let us, however, console ourselves with the reflection that, although the teacher cannot escape the incubus of speech-making, at least he is not expected to sing.

Changing Symbology.

In that far-off time when Paidagogos was a boy, the abbreviated skirt, the tinted countenance, and the aromatic cigarette were deemed by all properly constituted people to be the very emblems of wickedness and the visible signs of a brazen effrontery. The linkage was taken to be as close as that between Neptune and his trident—and was probably equally mythological.

Behold, however, the change! The emblems of unrighteousness are now the very symbols of intellectual freedom, of release from the bondage of Mid-Victorian inhibitions, of individual rights in thought and action.

Yet, such is the basic changelessness of humanity and so great is its sensitiveness to the current mode, that the symbols are as unreliable as ever: many a true woman seeks peace behind the haze of a cigarette, and many a foolish word is traitor to the intellectuality of carmine lips. Today, as of old, the lamb may innocently assume the hide of the wolf, and the donkey bray from under the lion's skin.

IT'S HARD

To apologize,
To begin over,
To admit error,
To be unselfish,
To take advice,
To keep on trying,
To think and then act,
To profit by mistakes,
To forgive and then forget,
To take a deserved blame,—

BUT IT ALWAYS PAYS, AND IT'S GOOD SCOUTING.

Quickening of Canadian Interest in International Affairs

By PROF. F. A. SOWARD, B. Litt., Department of History, University of British Columbia.

IT IS not surprising that, in pre-war days, interest in world politics was confined to comparatively small groups in Canada. As a pioneer people, still in the extractive stage of national economy, Canadians were inevitably engrossed in such pressing domestic problems as railways and the assimilation of immigrants. The French-Canadian, whom three centuries had rooted deeply in the soil of his beloved province, was even more aloof from the wider world than his English-speaking compatriot. His idol, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, well expressed the habitants' inarticulate dread of entanglements when he expressly refrained from accepting a share of responsibility for British commitments in international affairs lest Canada should be drawn into "the vortex of European militarism." However, it is well to remember that, in general, the British Government was as unprepared to offer Canada an adequate voice in foreign relations as Canada was unready to accept it.

In our schools and colleges, those portions of history selected for study dealt chiefly with the civilization of Greece and Rome, the history of Great Britain and of Canada. Naturally, European history received considerable attention in our universities, but even there (as was probably the case in more than one country) a student was liable to be far better informed about Luther than about Bismark, or to be better acquainted with Richelieu than with Napoleon III. The majority of our graduate students, especially in English, economics and science, gravitated to the United States to continue their researches, where they received a warm welcome and often permanently ensconced themselves. James Shotwell, Jacob Schurman, Isaiah Bowman, William Osler and W. B. Munro are among the many Canadian scholars who have left their impress upon American scholarship and life.

A small band of graduates did venture across the Atlantic, some going to Germany for light in philosophy and science, others, chiefly from Quebec, directing their steps to the halls of the Sorbonne. The Rhodes Scholarships ensured a group of nine students at least proceeding annually to Oxford for three years of study. As these returned, many entered university teaching, especially in classics and history, and strengthened the connection with English universities and the interest in Europe.

The world war inevitably hastened our economic, political and intellectual development. Canadian manufacturers expanded under

the kindly rays of war contracts, and in the post-war period fought with considerable success to keep their place in the sun. The Canadian farmer discovered that he was a world producer, whose influence on the price of wheat steadily expanded with the gradual withdrawal of his American competitor from export markets. Through pressure of adversity, necessity, ever the mother of invention, drove him on the prairies to build up the Wheat Pool as a co-operative enterprise which is now the largest single business in Canada. It is teaching its members to study world conditions from the angle of crops and prices. In the same fashion, Canadian mines and forests are becoming of international importance and influencing the outlook of their owners. In the realm of politics, our statesmen were compelled to study Imperial and international problems, because of the new recognition of Canada as an international entity that had been won by the sacrifices of our soldiers and the wisdom of our war-time Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden. The thousands of young veterans who returned to resume their studies or professional careers, with a dearly bought practical experience of what part of Europe was like, assisted in stimulating the new interest in international relations that soon made itself felt. This interest found reflection in education, in new organizations and in the press.

Under the Canadian federal system of government, education is a provincial matter, and it is therefore necessary to examine the policies of the nine provinces. If we take interest in the League of Nations as an indication of the new order, we can report grounds for optimism. According to a survey made in 1928 by the League of Nations Society in Canada, seven of the provinces make the League an object of study in their schools, some in the secondary schools, some in both elementary and secondary schools. The two other provinces provide facilities for instructing the teacher and leave the use of his knowledge to his discretion. A valuable medium of information of League matters is a pamphlet prepared by educational experts for the League of Nations Society, entitled "A New World or The League of Nations." Since its publication, 25,000 copies have been distributed, chiefly among teachers and students. In Nova Scotia each high school student receives a copy from the Education Department. Manitoba requires every student in the second grade of high school to read it. British Columbia presents a copy to every student in the junior matriculation grade, to every teacher of history in the high schools, and to every teacher in the senior grades of public schools. British Columbia has also created a valuable precedent in making the League of Nations the subject of an obligatory question upon the junior matriculation examination in history. In June, 1929, some 2,100 students were required to answer the following question, to which was assigned one-quarter of the value of the paper:

> "Account for the creation of the League of Nations. Do you think it has justified its existence? Give reasons for your answer."

The textbooks used in the history curricula of Canadian high schools also reflect a wider appreciation of what F. S. Marvin has

termed "The Unity of Western Civilization." Three provinces, for example, use a textbook entitled "World Progress," written by an American scholar and revised for use in Canada by Dr. Mack Eastman, now attached to the International Labor Office. The newer histories of Great Britain and Canada used in the elementary schools and junior high schools contain special sections on Canada's relation to the League of Nations and to the British Commonwealth of Nations.

The universities show a similar expansion of interest. We still lack in them special Chairs of International Relations, but far greater stress is now laid in the upper years upon courses in Comparative Government, International Law and Modern European History. "Survey courses" of European history from the close of the Middle Ages to the present day are increasingly common for first and second year students, and in these the League is naturally discussed. Students attempting an Honors Degree are occasionally offered special seminar courses upon the problems created by the world war or are allowed to write essays upon them. The support given to the League of Nations Society by university professors from coast to coast has been of considerable value. Among the students, an increasing interest in the League and in world affairs was stimulated by the lectures of Sir Herbert Ames, for seven years Treasurer of the League, who addressed the students of every Canadian university. In the last two years two student "Model Assemblies" have been held. At Ottawa, in June, 1928, students from the central Canadian universities held such an assembly, while the students of the five maritime universities undertook with marked success a similar project in March, 1929.

Direct contact with Europe has greatly increased with the encouragement afforded by special student and teacher tours which our steamship companies have offered in imitation of their American rivals. Although, as in the past, the majority of our graduate students still proceed to the United States, the number proceeding overseas has increased, this increase being assisted by a number of new scholarships created since the war. No accurate figures are available as to the comparative numbers, but the ratio in favor of the United States would be at least six to one. Of those who do go abroad, the majority naturally study in Britain, where language is not a handicap and where many have relatives. Oxford and London are the most favored, and the chief subjects studied are law, medicine, history and science. Through the generous co-operation of the French government in offering scholarships, the flow of students to Paris has markedly increased. A wealthy citizen of Montreal was largely responsible for the Canadian hostel in the new area for national student residences that the French government has created. Our Minister to France, the Hon. Philippe Roy, has stated that approximately two hundred Canadian students are now in Paris in the various faculties. Of these, at least half will be from the province of Quebec. Germany, until very recently, has attracted fewer students than in the past, but the number is gradually increasing.

In educating the general public, one of the greatest factors has been the League of Nations Society in Canada, to which reference has already been made. Led successively by Sir Robert Borden, Sir George Foster and Dr. H. M. Tory, President of the National Research Council, it has patiently labored to spread the gospel of international co-operation and world peace. Its growth has been very gradual, even now it has barely 20,000 members in a population of almost ten millions, but its influence has been effectively exerted in the circles where public opinion is formed. It has been endorsed by the leaders of our political parties, has received valuable support from the Governor-General, Lord Willingdon, and has the co-operation of several influential national organizations. A newer society of importance is the Canadian Institute of International Affairs, of which Sir Robert Borden is the first president. It is affiliated to the Royal Institute of International Affairs and is endeavoring to build up a chain of picked groups in the chief Canadian cities, which will seriously study international affairs and which will offer a small informed audience for distinguished visitors to Canada, who should welcome a respite from the strain of uttering only public platitudes. The Canadian Institute is especially interested in the Pacific, since many of its charter members originally belonged to the Institute of Pacific Relations.

The keener interest in academic and political circles in contemporary politics has had its effect upon the field of historical writing and has won recognition abroad. In the past ten years statesmen and scholars have produced volumes with the following significant titles: "Canada and World Politics," "The British Empire and World Peace," "Canada in the Commonwealth," "Empire and Commonwealth." Canadians have been invited to lead discussions in the United States on international affairs at the Williamstown Institute of Politics, at Chicago, in the Harris Foundation lectures, where J. W. Dafoe, the distinguished editor of the Manitoba Free Press, made a valuable contribution, and at similar gatherings. More than once a Canadian has been invited to address the Royal Institute of International Affairs. From the outset, Canadians have been present at the successive meetings of the Institute of Pacific Relations at Honolulu and elsewhere.

The Press of Canada deserves honorable mention for the public spirit it has shown. Almost without exception it is friendly to the League and has devoted generous space to League news, especially since the election of Canada to the Council and the visit to Geneva of the Canadian Prime Minister. The average Canadian paper devotes much more space to foreign politics than does its American counterpart. We have no paper of national influence or circulation because of the handicaps of space and time. Thus we lack the equivalent of The Times of London or New York to set a standard in journalism. But, on the other hand, we have no Hearst Press or Rothermere Press.

As the Canadian public has become more alive to world politics, the Canadian parliament has devoted more time to debates on im-

perial and international questions, though there is great room for improvement. In the Senate, Sir George Foster and Senator Dandurand have done much to stimulate discussion. The recent debates in the House of Commons upon the ratification of the Peace Pact of Paris set a new standard of debating and interest. The practice of sending in rotation members of the Cabinet to Geneva has proved a valuable one in making friends for the League. The Department of External Affairs, which is attached to the office of the Prime Minister, is steadily expanding its personnel, as it is required to meet the needs of the Legations and Offices in London, Geneva, Paris, Washington and Tokio. When, last summer, competitive examinations were held for two vacancies, there were some seventy candidates.

It would be folly to claim that the people of Canada have a constant active interest in international questions. The 4,000 miles of sundering seas which separate us from Europe and from Asia are a mighty barrier psychologically as well as physically. But the memory of our 60,000 war dead has left among the Canadian people a sober determination to do their part in building a new world order. Of the measure of our success it is for Geneva to judge.—(From the Educational Survey, League of Nations.)

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Education Subject of Club Speech

ONE of the most intensely interesting addresses ever heard in Prince Rupert was delivered recently to the Women's Canadian Club, a few men being also present, by Harry Charlesworth, general secretary of the B. C. Teachers' Federation, his subject being "Educational Development in B. C." Mrs. Roy McNaughton, president of the club, presided, and there was a good attendance of members and visitors. The speaker was in good form and gave a clear and fluent exposition of the modern trends of education.

Mr. Charlesworth made it clear that education was not a static thing. It was changing in every part of the world rapidly, and the changes had become revolutionary in the past twenty years. Every place was affected by these changes, and it was desirable that Prince Rupert should keep abreast of the times. What was good enough a few years ago was not good enough now.

The old idea of education was built from the university downwards, and the same idea still prevails to a large extent. In place of this, Mr. Charlesworth outlined the "present fundamental objectives of modern education," which were, briefly:

Sound health and safety.

Worthy home membership.

Mastery of the tools, technic and spirit of learning, such as teaching how to observe, study, think, plan, judge and act.

Vocational and economic effectiveness, such as learning to spend wisely less than is earned.

Faithful citizenship, such as learning to make the school, community, province, country and world more beautiful and better governed, with the motto of "each for all and all for each."

The wise use of leisure. This was very important, because the working hours of the nation were gradually decreasing and the leisure hours increasing. A wise use of fresh air, sunshine, play, and devotion to the arts, such as music and literature, were part of the work of the teacher.

The final object was the search for the highest values, such as honesty, integrity, sincerity of purpose, and those things which were necessary to the building of character. This was the work of the schools.

In order to reach these objectives, changes of method had to take place. The teacher no longer considered the imparting of knowledge the great thing. He became the guide, philosopher and friend of the pupil, and not a person of superior authority.

Mr. Charlesworth then made the most startling statement of his address, in which he hinted that, while many brilliant students had been produced, many had been prevented by the schools from becoming brilliant. Talented children had been cramped, discouraged and destroyed.

In education today the child is encouraged in asking questions. Discipline should not be militaristic superimposed, but a self-imposed regulation and restraint. The important thing was not so much how the pupils behaved in the school room as how they behaved after they left the class room. Self-government in the schools was a preparation for self-government in after life.

One of the greatest weaknesses of modern democracy was its inability to make well-considered judgments, Mr. Charlesworth said. People are always liable to be stampeded by propaganda. With people educated to discriminate, and that education based on scientific truth, this would be impossible.

Mr. Charlesworth then spoke of the value of the Junior High School in connection with the working out of modern ideas. It gave pupils an opportunity to find out what they were fitted for.

Finally, the speaker defended the proposed four-year high school course, which would tend to prevent the cramming at present practiced, and for the brilliant students parallel studies would be provided so that they would not be kept back. Pupils would be expected to read extensively and also study the arts. The high school teachers who had been called into consultation by the department were unanimously in favor of the new course. This course would be made public before Easter, and he felt sure would be acceptable.

At the close a vote of thanks to the speaker was moved by Mayor Orme, seconded by J. S. Wilson, and carried by acclamation.—(From The Prince Rupert Daily News.)

A PRAYER

Where the mind is without fear and the head is held high;
Where knowledge is free;
Where the world has not been broken up into fragments by narrow domestic walls;
Where words come out from the depth of truth;
Where tireless striving stretches its arms toward perfection;
Where the clear stream of reason has not lost its way into the dreary desert sand of dead habit;
Where the mind is led forward by thee into the ever-widening thought and action—
Into that heaven of freedom, my Father, let my country awake.

—TAGORE in "Gitanjali."

PUBLIC SCHOOLS ACT AMENDMENTS

(Continued from page 8)

Furthermore, it will be noted that (contrary to a more or less general opinion which has erroneously got abroad), the Council of Public Instruction is not seeking the sole right or power to make selection of such books. They reserve the right of authorizing their use, but it is quite in order for any teachers or groups of teachers, or School Boards, to make suggestions to the Council of Public Instruction concerning any supplementary reader which it is considered would be beneficial and acceptable to our schools, and such suggestions will receive full attention. The general practice of the Department has been to seek the co-operation of our leading teachers in this matter, and this practice will doubtless be continued. In fact, such assistance is being given at the present time.

The main concern of the Minister of Education and the Council of Public Instruction is, as we gather from several interviews on the subject:

(a) That there shall be a rigid examination of all supplementary readers to ensure that there is no objectionable content from the point of view of Canadian ideals and citizenship.

(b) That, as far as possible, such readers shall be produced in Canada, or at any rate in the British Commonwealth.

(c) That, where it is deemed advisable to use a book from outside of the British Commonwealth, and where the anticipated sale warrants it, to secure the Canadian rights of such book, and to print a Canadian edition.

(d) That where no suitable Canadian or British publication is available in any field, the best available book from any country should be considered.

This explanation, we trust, will remove much misunderstanding on this issue.

The second amendment is one which has long been sought by the Trustees, and Primary Grade Teachers. It will simplify the work in the Receiving Class, for no pupil will be more than two weeks behind the general class in commencing school life.

The third amendment is a very important one, and was suggested by the Federation after a consideration of the recent court case involving the question of a pupil's suspension. Previously the Act provided that the teacher must make the complaint. In the amendment, this power is given to any person. A parent, for example, may know of a pupil who is addicted to some vice which is affecting injuriously her own child. The matter may be concerned with something outside of the school hours or premises, and may not be known to the teacher at all. Such a parent may now make a formal complaint directly to the School Board, without the teacher being in any way involved. Such provision should also be of great value in cases where children are conveyed by bus to a central school. The driver will, under this section, be empowered to report any case where a pupil's habits or actions warrant such action being taken.

The old section made no provision for a "probationary period" following satisfactory assurance of reform. In case of a repetition of the offence, the same procedure of dismissal and suspension would have to be followed a second time. This is now remedied, and a pupil's stay in the school will depend entirely upon a continuation of good conduct. In connection with this section we would suggest that all teachers note carefully Article 8 of the Rules and Regulations. The Principal of a graded school, or the teacher of an ungraded school, is required to *dismiss* (not suspend) any pupil whose conduct or character warrants such action, and to report the case immediately to the Trustees. The power of suspension or expulsion rests with the Trustees. The word "dismiss," used in this article, clearly has the same meaning as is contained in the "dismissal of the schools" referred to in Article 1, Clause 2. The school is dismissed only until the next session. Obviously the pupil dismissed and reported to the Board is under a different form of dismissal, for he cannot return until he has given the Trustees and Teacher assurance of reform, and it might take several days before the Board could be assembled to consider his case. The commonly accepted meaning of the word "dismiss" goes further than either of these. A person dismissed from office is usually removed permanently. For the purpose of clarifying the regulation, the Federation has suggested that the Principals or Teachers be allowed to "temporarily suspend" such pupil rather than "dismiss." The Board could then, after consideration, confirm or lift the suspension, or could expel, if circumstances warranted such drastic action. This suggestion has been favorably received and will probably be incorporated in the Rules and Regulations.

Important Federation Notices

EASTER CONVENTION:

All teachers are asked to make every effort to attend the Convention this year. Excellent programmes are now complete. An added feature of great interest will be a "Model Assembly of the League of Nations," to be given by students of the Victoria High School, assisted by students from the Vancouver High Schools. This remarkable school project aroused tremendous interest when it was given recently in Victoria. The addresses of the Tenth Assembly are given in the various languages by students representing the several countries, and are afterwards interpreted as is the custom in the Assembly. The seating of the delegates, interpreters, reporters, etc., is in strict accordance with the arrangements followed at Geneva.

GROUP INSURANCE:

The Federation Group Insurance plan is meeting with a very good response. All teachers desiring to join are asked to forward their application cards at once, so that the first available group may be covered immediately.

EXECUTIVE MEETING:

An excellent Executive Meeting was held on Saturday, March 15th. Much business was transacted. A full report will be given in the April issue.

TEACHERS' PENSION ACT AMENDMENTS:

Four amendments to the Pensions' Act were passed by the Legislature last week. They were drawn up as a result of the year's experience of the Pensions Board, and they will improve the Act in several regards. The complete amendments, with notes, will appear in the next issue.

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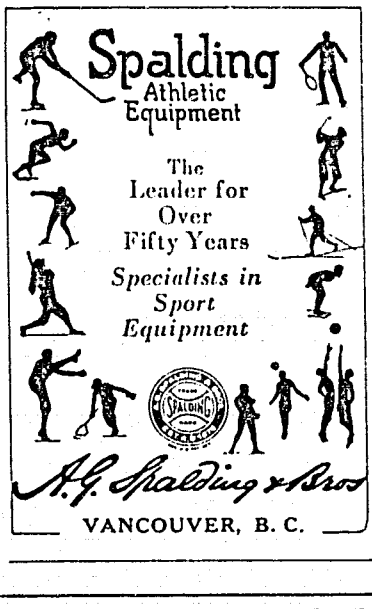

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