

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

THE DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY
IN THE SCHOOLS OF MANITOBA
1818 - 1968

by

MALCOLM STUART COWIE

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF CURRICULUM:
HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

WINNIPEG, MANITOBA

AUGUST 1975

"THE DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY
IN THE SCHOOLS OF MANITOBA
1818 - 1968"

by

MALCOLM STUART COWIE

A dissertation submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of
the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements
of the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

© 1975

Permission has been granted to the LIBRARY OF THE UNIVER-
SITY OF MANITOBA to lend or sell copies of this dissertation, to
the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this
dissertation and to lend or sell copies of the film, and UNIVERSITY
MICROFILMS to publish an abstract of this dissertation.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the
dissertation nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or other-
wise reproduced without the author's written permission.

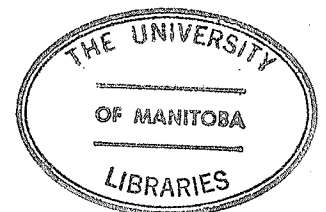


TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	viii
CHAPTER 1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	1
Delineation of the Problem.	
Significance of the Problem.	
A Discussion of Terms.	
Steps in Procedure.	
The Significance of the Study.	
CHAPTER 2. DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AS AN ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE	14
CHAPTER 3. DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AT THE RED RIVER SETTLEMENT. 1808-1870.	32
Courses of Instruction in Geography 1818-1870.	
Geography Texts 1818 - 1870.	
Examinations in Geography 1818-1870.	
CHAPTER 4. DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY IN MANITOBA SCHOOLS 1871-1890.	46
Geography under the Separate School System.	
Courses of Instruction in Geography 1871-1890.	
Geography Texts 1871-1890	
Examinations in Geography 1871-1890.	
Summary.	
CHAPTER 5. DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY IN MANITOBA SCHOOLS 1891-1945.	83
Geography Courses 1891-1945.	
Summary.	
Geography Text Books 1891-1945.	
Examinations in Geography 1891-1945.	
Summary.	
CHAPTER 6. DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY IN MANITOBA SCHOOL 1946-1968.	150
Social Studies Courses.	
Social Studies Courses Grades Seven to Nine.	
Social Studies Courses Grades Ten to Twelve.	
Geography Textbooks 1946-1968.	
Summary.	
Examinations in Geography 1946-1968.	
Summary.	

CHAPTER 7.	SUMMARY.	207
BIBLIOGRAPHY	212

LIST OF TABLES

1.	Number of students studying Geography in Protestant Schools, 1871-1879	48
2.	Geography Students in Catholic Schools 1877-1878	52
3.	Geography in Rural Schools compared to City Schools in 1886	54
4.	Number of Pupils in Manitoba 1886-1890	55
5.	Programme of Study	56
6.	Course of Study	59
7.	Course of Study	60
8.	Manitoba School System 1891-1922	85
9.	Manitoba School Proposed System 1891-1922	85
10.	Manitoba Re-organised School System 1923	86
11.	Programme of Study 1896	87
12.	Programme of Study 1912	91
13.	School Apparatus	92
14.	Classification of Pupils	93
15.	Classification of Pupils	94
16.	Geography Courses in Grades One to Eight 1896-1939	98
17.	Programme of Studies	101
18.	School Equipment	140
19.	Social Studies Curriculum Grades Ten to Twelve 1948	174
20.	Geography in Manitoba Schools 1946-1968	202
Examinations:- Examination I - Geography		77

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to examine the development of geographic education in the schools of Manitoba from 1818 to 1968. This development of Geography is traced through an examination of Department of Education publications (including Annual Reports and Programmes of Study), past and present textbooks, examinations, course outlines, Manitoba educational publications, material contained in the Provincial Archives and private interviews. Any trends which became obvious were stated and related to developments that occurred in Great Britain, the rest of Europe and the United States.

Geography is first examined at the Red River Settlement schools from their establishment in 1818, up to 1870 when Manitoba became a Province. During this period Geography followed the British traditions as most of the teachers and texts had their origins there.

The establishment of a Provincial Education System in 1871 began the next period. This had a dual nature for it had two sections, one being Protestant and the other Catholic. The period ran from 1871 to 1890 when the Separate School System was legislated out of existence and was replaced by a totally secular one. During this period of twenty years Geography continued as it had in the past being mainly a matter of memorization of places and products from textbooks which were little more than gazetteers of place names and information.

From 1891 to 1945 the status of Geography fluctuated in Manitoba. In the early part of the period Physical Geography continued in importance though it was gradually superseded by studies of a regional nature. Geography now began to decline in importance so that between

1919 and the early 1930's it was to almost all intents and purposes non-existent in Manitoba.

The growth of Social Studies in the late 1930's did nothing towards the improvement of Geography and indeed helped to perpetuate the domination of History. This importance of History having developed in the void created by the decline of Geography during the 1920's and the early 1930's.

After 1946 little change if any occurred in the status of Geography. It was not until the Manitoba Royal Commission on Education released its recommendations in 1959 that any change was stimulated. Even then it was the middle of the 1960's before any new courses were developed in Geography, though after this time they were produced in profusion.

Thus, in one hundred and fifty years Geography courses in Manitoba have moved from place-name Geography to relational thinking allowing an improvement in individual intellectual development. This has encouraged an easy acceptance of the modern geographic ideas that have been incorporated in the new courses.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

A research study of these proportions requires the assistance of many people. The writer is grateful to the following for their assistance in making this study possible.

Professor D. King and Professor K. Osborne for their guidance during the writing.

Also to the following people for their time and helpful comments:-

Canon T. C. B. Boon

Mr. J. Bovey

Mr. T. Bredin

Miss Combass

Mr. Lionel Dorge

Mr. V. Dotten

Miss Florence

Miss Gunter

Soeur de Moissac

and all others who helped in any way.

Finally, to my wife, Valeria, for her typing and proof reading ability but more especially for her tolerance, understanding, fortitude and moral support.

CHAPTER 1

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In 1959 the Royal Commission on Education in Manitoba published its Report in which it made some specific recommendations. It stressed, . . . that greater emphasis be placed on the core subjects in the elementary grades.¹

(Social Studies was one of these.)

. . . that commencing in Grade V the term Social Studies be replaced by the terms History and Geography.²

. . . that fifteen percent of a pupil's time be allotted to History, Geography, and Civics.³

Though these were not startling recommendations in the light of modern developments they were a response to the creation of Social Studies in all Manitoba schools. At this time there was interest, coupled with dissatisfaction with these subjects. This fact can be evinced from the number of briefs and presentations which were made to the Royal Commission by many interested parties. The brief presented by the Social Studies Departmental Heads of the City of Winnipeg High Schools illuminated some of the dissatisfaction when it said,

Whereas there is a lack of continuity in the Social Studies program from Grade VII to Grade XII and whereas

¹Manitoba, Report of the Royal Commission on Education, (Winnipeg: Queen's Printer 1959): p. 152.

²Ibid., p. 153. ³Ibid.

there is a little differentiation in the courses . . .¹

The brief also examined the treatment of subjects (Geography, History, and Civics) within the curriculum and suggested remedies for the various problems which were noted.

To understand fully all the implications for Geography in this Report involves a close examination, not only of the present position of Geography in Manitoba schools, but also an examination of the position of geographic education in the past one hundred and fifty years in the Province. This involves a review of the situation from the time of the establishment of continuous schooling in the Red River Settlement in 1818 until the year of 1968.

By 1968 in Manitoba, Geography, along with History and Economics, were the major entities in the field of Social Studies, though some pilot schemes in Anthropology and Sociology were in process of development. In Manitoba today the trends in Social Studies are for courses to be non-sequential and for relationships to be stressed. This, however, is difficult to accept when the courses are subject matter orientated and are not shown in the Programme of Studies to be inter-related. Even in the Junior High area where, for each year, Social Studies programmes are half History and half Geography there are two separate and unrelated textbooks for each part of the year's work. In the Junior High School it is also possible to find geographic concepts as they relate to the General Science course but again the

¹C. S. Simonson. A Brief Prepared for the Royal Commission on Education by the Social Studies Departmental Heads, City of Winnipeg High Schools, 1959.

units, although they are found in each of Grades Seven, Eight and Nine, are mainly optional and there is no attempt anywhere to relate the Science and Social Studies programmes. This lack of relationships, was, no doubt in part at least, due to the fact that curriculum committees tended to operate in isolation from each other.

Many of these points are the result of the past status of Geography in Manitoba, where, for many years, it was treated at the best as a poor relative of History and, at the worst, almost completely ignored.

Delineation of the Problem

This thesis will study the evolution of the geographic content of the curriculum in Manitoba by reference to course outlines, past and present textbooks, Department of Education publications (including Programmes of Study and Annual Reports) and material in the Provincial Archives of Manitoba as well as the Royal Commission Report and certain unpublished theses. It will trace the development of Geography as an academic subject, from the time of the early schools at the Red River Settlement and continuing after the establishment of the Provincial School System in 1871, examining Geography in both the Protestant and Catholic Schools from 1871 to 1890. Following the time of the Manitoba School Question it will trace the progress of Geography in the schools under the Provincial Department of Education up until the Royal Commission in 1959. Thereafter, it will examine the changes which were stimulated by that Commission up until 1968, by which time all courses containing Geography in the Province had been thoroughly revised.

The author makes no apologies for the utilization of a behavioural science model for Chapter One of this thesis. It was selected after much thought as the best method of approach to the study in that it allowed the writer to examine factors such as definition of terms without a consequent interruption of the logical thought processes of the reader. This would certainly have occurred if terms had been continuously defined as they were used, in the body of the thesis.

Significance of the Problem

Perhaps in Manitoba the oft expressed dissatisfaction of the previous years is now not as apparent, at least not in the last five years, following the proliferation of Geography courses that has occurred since 1965.

However, the problems of the past were highlighted by N. V. Scarfe when he wrote in the Canadian Geographer¹ that "there was little or no variety of program or point of view". He pointed out how Geography suffered from "rigid uniformity imposed by central authority" and it was this which "damps down initiative, enterprise and enthusiasm". He followed this up by stating that in Western Canada Geography was "inadequately taught", nowhere was "it thought to be very important", and that those who could teach often looked upon Geography's main function as being to "help make history more comprehensive."² Consequently Geography "is an unpopular subject with poor teaching,

¹N. V. Scarfe, Canadian Geographer No. 5, 1955: p. 1.

²Ibid.

inadequate textbooks and a lack of materials, facilities and visual aids."¹ Indeed, in 1957, Scarfe, in an address to the United Nations Association of Canada, stated that "Geography is the worst taught subject in North American Schools."²

A Discussion of Terms

Geography.

As the study and discipline of Geography has developed, there have been many attempts to define it. It is relevant to define the term 'Geography' for in various places it is often found disguised under the term Social Studies or intermingled with subjects such as Science, History, and Civics to name only some of the most common.

'Geography' can be traced to a Greek word meaning literally 'description of the earth'. As a discipline it attempts to utilise some of the branches of knowledge and to discover meanings for the many very complex relationships between differing phenomena found on the earth. It follows that, because geographic phenomena are also studied in other disciplines, it has no distinct body of knowledge which it can claim as uniquely its own, thus it is especially difficult to define.

Preston's reference to Geography "as the study of the earth including its physical structure, its resources and its life"³ is

¹Ibid., p. 2.

²Vancouver Sun, 12 September 1957: p. 10 quoted by W. Topping in his "A History of Geography Teaching in British Columbia", M.A. thesis, University of British Columbia: p. 4.

³Ralph C. Preston, Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School, (New York: n.p., 1950): p. 156.

perhaps typical. Van Riper calls it "the science of spatial interaction"¹--that is the study of the processes by which forms and phenomena interact through their spatial arrangements on, or near, the earth's surface especially as to how, and why, these arrangements change in time, and with an emphasis on their human implications. Hartshorne said that the Geographer's task was "to describe and interpret the variable character from place to place of the earth as the world of man"² and Broek and Webb have stated that "Geography is a meaningful way of looking at the earth not a mere inventory of its contents."³

All of these definitions, along with the definitions inherent in various Geography and Social Studies curricula, imply that Geography is a study in which the earth and man are in close relationship. Indeed, perhaps the last one is a very close approximation to the trend which will be observed in geographic education within Manitoba, particularly in the last few years.

One peculiarity in Manitoba is that geographic objectives and concepts have been found in many widely dispersed curricular areas. Typical of this in Social Studies are those found in History, and also in the optional units of Junior High Science programmes. This implies

¹Joseph E. Van Riper, Man Physical World, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971): p. 1.

²Richard Hartshorne, Perspective on the Nature of Geography, (New York: Rand McNally and Company, 1963): p. 47.

³Jan O. M. Broek and John W. Webb, A Geography of Mankind, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1968.)

that any consideration of what is meant by Geography, in this Province, must take into account the wide ranging interdisciplinary nature of the subject itself.

The comparison of definitions is important but must always be done with reference to the time in which they were utilized.

Social Sciences.

The term 'Social Sciences' has been applied to those disciplines which centre on basic human activities in various settings. Their major focus may range from man himself, through his position in settings of ever increasing size--the family, the state, the global context--and to the interrelationships which consequently develop because of individual and group interaction. The major disciplines in this field are Geography, Anthropology, Economics, Political Science, Sociology, Social Psychology and History. The latter discipline however, as at the University of Manitoba, is sometimes referred to as a humanity.

Social Studies.

This is a term fraught with confusion here in Manitoba as well as elsewhere. Richards¹ commented on this in his 1970 work on the teaching of Geography in Saskatchewan. In 1940 in Manitoba Baragar²

¹L. Richards, Teaching of Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools with particular reference to Saskatchewan, M.Ed. thesis, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon Campus, September 1970.

²Fred D. Baragar, "Should Geography and History become Social Studies?", report to the 32nd Annual Convention of the Manitoba Education Association, Winnipeg, Department of Education, Easter, 1940.

and Garland¹ discussed whether there should be separate subjects (Geography and History--as supported by Baragar) or whether they be integrated and called Social Studies--as supported by Garland.

Perhaps one of the best definitions was that given by Douglas² when he said that "a social study is any inquiry which has as its central focus the study of one or more aspects of man's relationships with his fellow man."³

Douglas, however, did define it very exactly when he said,

. . . when one inquires into the historic antecedents of our own society; into the functions of any of a number of institutions such as the family or government; into geographic relationships in the community, state or nation; or into the nature of other cultures and their connections with our own, he is engaged in a social study.⁴

This implies that Social Science and Social Studies are synonymous terms. Indeed many accept the Social Studies as "Social Sciences simplified for teaching purposes." Even now in Manitoba the definition is unclear. It appears that no matter what theoretical niceties are used to explain it, in practice it is taken to mean whatever happens to be the case.

¹Aileen Garland, "The case for a Social Studies Programme in Manitoba Schools", report to the 32nd Annual Convention of the Manitoba Education Association, Winnipeg, Department of Education, Easter 1940.

²M. P. Douglas, Social Studies, (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1967): p. 5.

³Richards, Teaching Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools: p. 8.

⁴Douglas, Social Studies, p. 5.

Elementary School.

This term, as used at present in Manitoba, refers to Grades One to Six. However, historically, before the introduction of the first Canadian Junior High School at Earl Grey School in 1919, it referred to Grades One to Eight.

Secondary School.

At present, in Manitoba, Secondary School refers to education from Grade Seven through to Grade Twelve. Grades Seven to Nine being referred to as Junior High and Grades Ten to Twelve referred to as Senior High. Prior to the establishment of Junior High Schools, however, it referred to education from Grade Nine upwards and the terms Collegiate and High School were synonymous with this level of education.

Steps in Procedure

The problem of the location of research material for this study while not of any great magnitude from 1946 to 1968 certainly became more difficult with the widening time span.

Material with reference to education in the time of the Red River Settlement 1811 - 1870 is now only readily available in the Provincial Archives of Manitoba. There is, however, material available at the Archives in the Archbishop's Palace in St. Boniface with reference to education in the early Catholic schools.

However, with the establishment of the Province in 1870 material became more readily available. The Board of Education

produced the Annual Superintendents' Reports (which are available in the Provincial Library). These contained Inspectors' Reports (inspectors usually being local clergy before 1888 and Department Inspectors after that date) and they gave a great deal of background material on the teaching of subjects. Texts and examinations then also became more easily accessible and provided further information on the philosophies within Geography in Manitoba at the time.

From 1891 to 1945, besides the Annual Reports of the Department of Education, textbooks and examinations, many more sources were open. These included the Educational Journal of Western Canada (which later became the Western School Journal), the Manitoba School Journal, the Programmes of Study in the schools as laid down by the Department of Education and even personal interviews with people who were teaching in the system in the later years. As might be expected the most easily located material was that for the years 1946 to 1968. All the material previously described, as well as course outlines which are distributed to teachers, was readily available.

Useability of all the material available from 1811 to 1968 varied considerably for, at times, it was notable for its brevity, while at others it was so full of verbiage that it became a monumental task to sift the useful material from the useless.

This study follows a chronological sequence and is divided into six chapters. It first examines its own need for existence followed by an examination of the development of Geography as an academic discipline. It then studies the teaching of Geography at Red River (1818-1870)

followed by its development (after the establishment of the Board of Education in 1871) in the Catholic and Protestant Schools from 1871 to 1890. From 1891 to 1945 the progress of Geography is followed either as a subject in its own right or as a facet of Social Studies. The revisions, after the Second World War, begin the section from 1946 to 1968. This provides a different division to the one proposed by Wilson¹ where he calls 1916 to 1959 the era of "Educational Stagnation". For this no apology is made, for progress began to be made in Geography after the 1946 to 1950 revision period though it did require the Royal Commission of 1959 to allow it to gather full momentum.

The Significance of the Study

The study is of personal significance for the writer is presently teaching High School Geography and has consequently been affected by the changes in Geography teaching in Manitoba since 1965.

Also, to date no study of this type has been carried out in Geography or the Social Studies in Manitoba. There was, however, a brief study of the Manitoba Elementary Grades Four, Five and Six Social Studies Programme carried out in 1953², while in 1963 a study

¹Keith Wilson, The Development of Education in Manitoba, Ph.D., Michigan State University, 1967.

²Hilton C. Harper, A Comparative Study of Elementary Geography Programmes in Various Parts of Canada and the United States of America, M.Ed. thesis, University of Manitoba, November 1953.

was carried out in British Columbia,¹ and further studies have been carried out for Canadian schools² in Newfoundland³, in Ontario,⁴ and in Saskatchewan.⁵

These have been concerned with both historical development and current trends which have developed within particular school systems. There have been other studies reported⁶ but none in the broad spectrum followed by those previously mentioned.

¹W. Topping, A History of Geography Teaching in British Columbia.

²R. C. Oulton, Teaching of Geography in Canadian Schools, 1840-1955, M.A. (Education) thesis, McGill University, 1955.

³L. B. Braine, Historical Survey of Social Studies Curriculum in Newfoundland, M.Ed. thesis, University of Alberta, 1965.

⁴A. R. Grime, Geography in Secondary Schools of Ontario 1800-1900, M.Ed. thesis, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, November 1968: E. Quick, Development of Geography and History Curricula in Elementary Schools in Ontario, 1946-1966, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

⁵Richards, Teaching Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools.

⁶Patricia Charlier and Roger H. Charlier, "The Place of Geography in French Education", The Journal of Geography, 1960, Vol. LIX: pp. 322-326. J. D. Chapman, "The Status of Geography", The Canadian Geographer, Vol. 10, June 1966: pp. 133-134. A. Chiste, "The Development of the Elementary Social Studies Programme in Alberta", Master's thesis, University of Alberta, Edmonton: 1963. O. J. R. Howarth, "A Survey of the Present Position of Geography in Schools", The Journal of Geography, Vol. 38, 1953: pp. 267-273. Spencer Inch, "The Place of Geography in our Schools", Educational Review, No. 80, November 1965: pp. 17-22. E. C. Marchant, "Geography in Education in England and Wales", Geography, No. 49, 1964: pp. 173-191. R. A. McNeilly, "An Analysis of Geographic Education in the Protestant High School of Montreal", Master's thesis, 1963, McGill University, Montreal. J. A. Morris, "Reality in Geographical Education", Geography, No. 51, 1966: pp. 87-98. R. G. Putnam, "Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools", Canadian Geographer, Vol. 11, 1967: pp. 230-234. F. C. Robertson, "The Status of Geography Education in the Two-Year Colleges of the United States", Doctor thesis, Brigham Young University, Provo. 1968. J. L. Robinson, "Growth and Trends in Geography

in Canadian Universities", Canadian Geographer, Vol. 11, 1967: pp. 216-229. N. V. Scarfe, "New Directions in Geographic Education in North America", Geography, No. 51, 1967: pp. 198-209. Dudley Stamp, Geography in Canadian Universities, 1951, Ottawa Canadian Social Science Research Council, 1951. Harold A. Wood, The Teaching of Geography in Canada, Rio de Janeiro, Comissao de Geografio, 1953, Publicacao No. 197.

CHAPTER 2

DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AS AN ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE

Many geographers have found it possible to justify the development of Geography as an academic discipline within the school curricula. Fleure said,

Geography offers a most hopeful line of work for a better understanding between the peoples of the world. A generation of education on geographical lines is needed with the idea running through it, that the people of each region have special problems and must solve them in various ways . . . ¹

while Fairgrieve stated that "we cannot have an education worth the name without geography."²

These ideas have been followed up in the 1960's where geography, in the words of Kohn, is now included in the curriculum so that

. . . students are being taught how to observe and interpret the character of places so that they might develop the skills and abilities to study regions by and for themselves later on in life.³

Justifications such as these for the inclusion of a discipline called Geography within the school curricula are also supported by the

¹H. J. Fleure, "An Apology for the Study of Human Geography," quoted in James Fairgrieve, Geography in School, (London, England: University of London Press Limited): p. 9.

²Ibid.

³Richard J. Chorley and Peter Haggett, Frontiers in Geographical Teaching, (London, England: Methuen and Company Limited): p. 300.

age and stature of the subject. Baker said that "the history of Geography is long and honourable. No geographer need apologise for it or be ashamed of it."¹ This statement supports the words of H. R. Mill in 1901 when he said

. . . consider the present position of Geography as the outcome of the thought and labours of an unbroken chain of workers, continuously modified by the growth of knowledge, yet old in aim, old even in the expression of the ideas that we are apt to consider most modern.²

The Greek meanings of the word 'geography' attributes to its antiquity, for although it would obviously have earlier beginnings (when an early hunter scratched a primitive map in the sand or when the ancient Egyptians recorded the distribution of land holdings on maps) it was the Greeks with their observational ability who began the real development of geographic ideas in the western world.

The first recognition of a Greek geographer came in the Sixth Century B.C., with Thales, who brought back from Egypt geometric ideas which were utilised there for the measurement of land. The shape of the earth was still conceived as a disc and it was not until the time of Aristotle in the Fourth Century B.C., that the earth was shown to be a sphere. Aristotle, however, was not just concerned with the shape of the earth for it was he who proposed the idea of the climatic conditions in the southern hemisphere as being the same as those of similar latitudes in the northern hemisphere. These ideas of

¹J. N. L. Baker, "Geography and its History", *Advanced Science*, 1955, No. 46: p. 198 quoted in T. W. Freeman, *A Hundred Years of Geography*, (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company): p. 28.

²H. R. Mill, Address as President, Section E. of British Association 1901. B.A., Report 1901: p. 70, quoted in *Ibid.*, p. 28.

Aristotle were really just extensions of the theoretical ideas of Parmenides. The basis of these postulations was that the 'torrid zone' was too hot for habitation while the 'frigid zone' was too cold and that habitation was found only in the 'temperate zone'.

Further development of geographic ideas occurred when Eratosthenes utilised the positions of Alexandria and the well of Syene to calculate the earth's circumference. This he did with a remarkable degree of accuracy.

Although initially the Greeks were particularly interested in Geography for its practical applications, they gradually developed a discipline containing both knowledge and philosophy. Much of this resulted from an aggregation of ideas which developed because of travels, observations in the field and (as Herodotus did) evaluation of the great accumulation of geographical documents.

To the Romans Geography was of practical concern (particularly military). Perhaps this was best exemplified by Strabo in his encyclopaedic work. He described the known world in seventeen volumes by utilising his own observations as well as the observations of others.

Approximately one hundred and fifty years later Ptolemy, a mathematician, astronomer and geographer¹, who lived in Alexandria during the Second Century A.D., synthesised the knowledge of the Greek geographers. Although he unfortunately discarded Eratosthenes' results he did accept Hipparchus' division of the equator into 360 parts and thus helped lay the basis of latitude and longitude which assisted him

¹p. E. James, "Geography", Encyclopaedic Britannica: p. 152.

in the production of his map of the world on a modified conic projection. Theoretically his approach to Geography was such that he suggested three different routes to study it.

Geography he called the study of the world as a whole; chorography¹ the study of parts of the earth; and topography the study of small localities in detail.²

With the collapse of the Roman Empire and the arrival of the Dark Ages, the knowledge that was Geography, the inheritance from the Greeks sank into the morass of ignorance which pervaded the known world.

Strict theological interpretations brought again an understanding of the earth as a flat surface with Jerusalem at its centre. Geography, as yet though, was not a scientific study rather it would be more correct to refer to it as a Cosmology.

Fortunately, however, the ideas of Ptolemy, among others were translated into Arabic and consequently were not lost to the world. The mathematical ability of the Arabs enabled them to accurately recalculate the length of a degree and to make new discoveries in astronomy and trigonometry.

The mathematics of the Arabs gradually disseminated, and this enabled seamen to develop the Portolano Charts in the Fourteenth Century. These were made

¹The 'chorography' of Ptolemy would now be described as Regional Geography.

²James, "Geography".

about a revival of maps and map making. The reacceptance of the earth as a sphere, the ideas of Ptolemy, and the use of latitude and longitude led to the production of new maps such as that developed by Gerardus Mercator in the latter half of the Sixteenth Century.

The many voyages and travels helped in the acquisition of copious amounts of detailed information and it was this information that began to have a distinct effect upon "the content and organisation of geography."¹

This interest in exploration and travel brought first of all an interest only in descriptive geography of continents, countries and places. Gradually, however, the close examination, classification and organisation of geographic knowledge became more scientific. One of the first publications of this type was the 'Geographia Generalis' by Varenus (Bernard Varen) in 1650. He divided the subject field known as Geography into two parts--'the general' and 'the special'. Varenus himself described the general or universal geography as "a science which considers the earth as a whole and explains its properties".²

The special geography or chorography he defined as "instruction which concerns the constitution of the individual regions".³ This is, perhaps, more clearly explained by Hartshorne when he said,

... using terms which one or more of his predecessors has used, Varen defined 'general geography' as that part of science (scientia) which 'studies the earth in general, describing its various divisions and the phenomena which affect it as a whole'. It provides

¹Ibid., p. 23.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., p. 24.

the 'foundations' and 'general laws' of geography which are to be applied to the studies of individual countries which form 'special geography'.¹

The early death of Varenus only allowed him to deal with general geography as it did not give him time to explain his views on special geography. However, such was the import of his work that while it was an 'accepted authority' for over a century the legacy of his dual approach still remains in geographic method but not in geographic content.

Exploration and travel still remained the major aspect of geography but gradually during the latter half of the Eighteenth Century there came a different approach to what was understood as Geography and geographic method.

This was developed by the German School of Geographers. Perhaps the foremost of these was J. R. Forster² who was the first of them to apply scientific method to the study of Geography. This was further refined by the logical thought processes of the great German thinker Immanuel Kant (1724-1804).³ He perhaps more than any other is responsible for the placing of Geography "in the overall framework of organised objective knowledge" (science).⁴

¹Richards Hartshorne, "Perspective on the Nature of Geography", Association of American Geographers, Rand McNally, 1962: pp. 108-109.

²Johann Reinhold Forster (1729-1798), accompanied Captain Cook on his second voyage around the world.

³Immanuel Kant, German Philosopher: famous for his Critique of Pure Reason: 1781.

⁴James, "Geography".

Kant analysed knowledge from three differing viewpoints. He firstly developed the 'systematic sciences' where he sorted facts into distinct bodies of knowledge. Typical of these would be what are now referred to as subjects, e.g. Geology, Botany, etc. He then observed facts to "see them in their relationship through time".¹ He referred to these as 'Historical Sciences' while the third method covers the 'geographical sciences'. This is where things are studied "as they are associated in space"² (spatial relationships).

Although in modern times Kant's ideas are often challenged it is interesting to note that Kant's idea was to study peoples via Physical Geography, this being "the basis not only of History but also of all other possible geographies".³

The other geographies to which he refers are mathematical, moral, political, commercial and theological.

He, therefore, associated man with Physical Geography. This statement is supported by the fact that (as reported by J. A. May⁴) in 1775 his course announcement for Physical Geography was entitled 'on the different races of man'. His differentiation between the spheres of history and geography is, perhaps, best described by the words of Hartshorne,

¹Jan O. M. Broek and John W. Webb, A Geography of Mankind: p. 6.

²Ibid., p. 14.

³James, "Geography".

⁴J. A. May, 'Kant's Concept of Geography and its Relation to Recent Geographical Thought', University of Toronto, 1970. Review from The Canadian Geographer, Vol. XVI, No. 1., Spring 1972: p. 77.

... description according to time is history that according to space is geography - - - History differs from Geography only in consideration of time and area. The former is a report of phenomena which follow one another and has reference to time. The latter is a report of phenomena beside each other in space. History is a narrative, Geography a description. Geography and History fill up the entire circumference of our perceptions, Geography that of space, History that of time.¹

Thus, Kant in defining geography began the erasure of confusion and misunderstanding as to what Geography is and indeed perhaps began the main stream of its modern development.

Kant, therefore, provided the basic framework (philosophy) of Geography in which both the physical aspects of it and those of regional studies and descriptions were able to exist in close proximity. This opened the way for the work of two great geographic scholars, Alexander von Humboldt (1769-1859) and Carl Ritter (1779-1859).²

Humboldt's concentration was on Physical Geography and it was in this field that he began to make effective use of all the thoughts and ideas that have emanated from the new geographic thinkers of the latter part of the Eighteenth Century. Of all those who wrote about Humboldt, James is perhaps the most concise when he said that,

Humboldt's great contributions to geographic procedure were two. First he applied his knowledge

¹R. Hartshorne, 'The Nature of Geography', Association of American Geographers, 1958: p. 135.

²Alexander von Humboldt, Voyage aux regions equinoxiales du Nouveau Continent, 30 vols. Also well known for his series of lectures at the Royal Academy of Sciences in Berlin, 1827-28, published under Kosmos, 5 vols. Carl Ritter, founder of Gesellschaft fur Erdkunde zu Berlin (The Berlin Geographical Society) his major scholarly achievement was Die Erdkunde, 19 vols. 1817-1859.

of physical and biological processes to the systematic classification and comparative description of the phenomena he and others observed: second He devised methods of measuring the phenomena he observed.¹

Thus did Humboldt attempt to understand landscape inter-relationships--looking at them in whole and in part--hoping to build up a "rational description of the earth by applying the regional method of description."² This momentous step moved geographic thought from mere 'qualitative encyclopaedic description to quantitative systematic description.'

Ritter, unlike Humboldt who emphasized the physical aspect of Geography, emphasized the human aspect. He looked for the relationship of the human race to the physical environment. It was in his great work Die Erdkunde³ where he employed this strategy for he divided the earth into what can be referred to as natural regions and these he analysed as to their purpose for the societies occupying the area. Within this analysis he developed a teleological approach due to his deeply religious attitude. Despite this Ritter made two most important contributions to geographic method

First he insisted that one should proceed from observation to observation not from opinion to hypothesis to observation . . . Secondly his approach was regional rather than systematic, emphasizing unsystematically associated phenomena rather than systematically related phenomena.⁴

¹James "Geography".

²Richards, Teaching Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools: p. 23.

³Ritter, Die Erdkunde, 19 vols. 1817-1859.

⁴James, "Geography".

The combination of the work of Humboldt and Ritter is of particular import as it is perhaps here that the final foundations of modern Geography were laid. Note the fact that in regional studies the physical environment is examined and then the work of man is inserted to show how he uses and adapts it. This method of teaching is still followed by some for dualism in Geography is still an ever present problem.

Since the middle of the Nineteenth Century, however, the arm chair approach to Geography is no longer accepted, encyclopaedic description has dissipated and we now have "an organisation of material relevant to a specified purpose or objective."¹ From this time there developed a number of related fields of study to the main line of geographic development.

However, in attempting to follow further the main development of Geography it is necessary to look at the work of two further German geographers, Ferdinand von Richthofen and Alfred Hettner,² in the 1880's and 1890's and that of the Frenchman Paul Vidal de la Blache³ in the early part of the Twentieth Century. All three of these scholars attempted to solve the dualism which occurred, following the ideas of Ritter, by developing the regional approach as the main focus of

¹Ibid.

²Baron Ferdinand von Richthofen, geologist, involved in the introduction of new geography into the universities of Germany. Alfred Hettner developed his methodological ideas in published papers in the *Geographische Zeitschrift*.

⁴Paul Vidal de la Blache, introduced the new geography into France; founder of La tradition vidalienne: at his death was in the process of writing his definitive work *Human Geography*.

Geography.

The over emphasis of Physical Geography also brought about in the latter half of the Nineteenth Century the development of a school of Human Geography. It claimed as its field the relationships which can be found between man and the natural physical environment.

The geographer who had perhaps the greatest influence within the field of Human Geography was Friedrich Ratzel.¹ His work followed the ideas of evolutionary change which had grown following the publication of Charles Darwin's work, 'On the Origin of Species'.

The society of man was defined as an organism surviving by adapting to the demands of the natural (physical) environment. This approach became known as environmental determinism. It became of extreme importance in the geography of American scholars and consequently it spread into Canada and certainly made its presence felt in the curricula of Manitoba in the early part of the Twentieth Century. Ratzel in his work on human distribution and its relationships with the environment was concerned with the quantification of his feelings. This, as Richards has explained, forced him to consider three main problems,

. . . the distribution and groupings of human population on the earth's surface; the dependence of these distributions on the physical environment and as the result of human migrations; and the effects produced by the physical environment on individuals and societies.²

These three problems being an integral part of his

¹Friedrich Ratzel, Anthropogeographie, 1st ed., 1891.

²Richards, Teaching Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools.

Anthropogeographie which was where Ratzel said that "man is a product of his environment". However, in the second volume which was published in 1891 he did re-adjust many of his earlier ideas. Perhaps of most significance was the introduction by Ratzel of method into the study of Human Geography.

Ratzel has been condemned by some for the doctrine of environmental determinism. It was, however, his pupil, Ellen Semple, who was guilty of this more extreme deterministic view of the environment. In her book she said,

Man is a product of the earth's surface. This means not merely that he is a child of the earth, dust of her dust, but that the earth has mothered him, fed him, set him tasks, directed his thoughts, confronted him with difficulties that have strengthened his body and sharpened his wits, given him problems of navigation or irrigation and at the same time whispered hints for their solution.¹

Semple was much more extreme than Ratzel, so much so that she ignored his changed thoughts which he presented in his second volume of his Anthropogeographie. The translations of these ideas of Ratzel by Semple were further perpetuated by William M. Davis² in the early part of the Twentieth Century. The dualism which he introduced to North American Geography in the first thirty years of this Century consisted of two major parts. Firstly, Physical Geography which was the study of

¹Ellen Churchill Semple, Influence of Geographic Environment, Blaisdell, 1963: p. 1., quoted in Dicken and Pitts, Introduction to Human Geography, p. 25.

²William Morris Davis introduced professional geography into the United States of America; founded the Association of American Geographers.

all the natural features and secondly Human Geography as the inter-relationship between the physical environment and man's activities. This influence was so strong that even today it is possible to find facets of it remaining in some elementary and secondary school curricula.

By the beginning of the Twentieth Century Geography was of importance in four major areas--Germany, Britain, France and North America (mainly the United States with Canada following). Each of these countries has developed its own geographic method and has supplied differing themes to the development of the discipline.

The growth of Geography in Germany has already been alluded to by reference to the work of geographers and thinkers such as Forster, Kant, Humboldt and Ritter and later by Von Richtohofen and Hettner.

In France, however, the major emphasis in the development of Geography was in regional studies. The most important geographer here was Paul Vidal de la Blache. He stressed the need for detailed regional studies and from them the development of comparative studies. This chorographic tradition as developed in France and Germany allowed the "correlation of physical and human conditions in their spatial interrelations."¹ This was the theme which in a few years developed into 'possibilism' and thus provided a balance against the 'environmental determinism' which was rife in the first part of the Twentieth Century. This tradition was further extended by such geographers as

¹Richards, Teaching Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools.

Martonne, Gallois, Demangeon, De Fontaines and Monbeig.¹

Great Britain also has followed the path of regional studies. Initially its Geography teaching revolved around Physical Geography particularly in the 1880's and 1890's. However, in 1905 Herbertson's 'Synthesis of Natural Conditions to define Natural Regions' brought about a great and enduring effect on Geography in Britain. In it he synthesized ideas of

. . . climate, vegetation, animals and human life which while it accounted in reasoned fashion for the unity of our environment, also allowed for its variations according to our location on the earth's surface.²

From this he showed how regions were not separate entities but merged into each other. Herbertson has been described as the "father of modern geography"³ in Britain and perhaps it was he more than any other who stimulated its vigorous growth in Britain. This regional approach has remained long with Geography not only in Britain and Europe but also in North America. It has provided a cohesive quality to the many facets of Geography. At the same time it has provided a counter balance to the effects of Physical Geography, as well as encouraging

¹Emmanuel de Martonne, Traite de geographie physique, 1909; 1 vol. expanded and revised 4th ed., 3 vols., 1925-57; Europe Centrale and LaFrance physique published in Geographie universelle: Lucien Gallois ed., of Geographie universelle and Annales de Geographie: Pierre Deffontaines, introduced French geographical ideas to Brazil, 1934-1938: Pierre Monbeig successor to Deffontaines, specialist on the study of Brazil.

²Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, The Teaching of Geography in Secondary Schools, (London, England: George Philip & Sons Limited, 1952): p. 3.

³Ibid.

objective thinking and reasoning and consequently allowing pertinent generalisations to be made.

In the United States following the work of Semple and Davis Physical Geography and the man/environment theme have been the most dominant, Davis' work being particularly long lasting especially his development of the 'cycle of erosion' and his 'evolution of land forms'. This preponderance to Physical Geography was, by 1925, balanced by the ideas of Carl O. Sauer¹ on the 'cultural landscape'. Sauer defined Geography as the study of landscape--the natural landscape (physical) and the cultural landscape (man made features).

At the same time, both 'possiblism' and 'determinism' remained as major factors within the field of Geography. The environmental approach was sustained by the work of geographers such as Huntington² and Griffith Taylor³, while 'possibilism' had support from Louis Febvre when he stated that man can react in many ways to a particular environment.

Since the late thirties and particularly since the late fifties

Geographical writing and research has in recent years lacked any generally accepted overall view of the subject

¹Carl O. Sauer, The Morphology of Landscape, 1925.

²Ellsworth Huntington, Civilization and Climate, 1915.

³Griffith Taylor, first Head of the Department of Geography at the University of Toronto, 1935.

even though techniques have proliferated.¹

Note particularly the development of quantitative techniques in the last five to ten years. This lack of overall view has been a persistent problem to Geography. Even Ritter was only able to survey part of the world he was unable to give an overall view. This suggests that the only way around this dilemma is to adapt "toward the question of method in Geography"² an 'eclectic' approach, and adopt the best and most useful of all methods.

Summary

Geography as a part of education is mainly a phenomenon of the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries. Its major areas of development have been in Germany, Britain, France and the United States. Due to its closeness to the United States, Canada has exhibited the same traditions as the United States.

Britain was fortunate in that it had both Herbertson and Fairgrieve as geographers. Consequently the chorological tradition is strong and since the conclusion of the First World War Geography has grown rapidly in stature as a curricular subject particularly in secondary schools. Herbertson stressed three major types of questions which all students of Geography should understand--

where is it?
 why is it there?
 what results follow from its being there?³

¹Chorley and Hagget, Frontiers in Geographical Teaching, p. 17.

²Ibid.

³Richards, Teaching Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools:p.31.

At last students were being guided from the known to the unknown.

These ideas of Herbertson on the regional approach were then developed and refined further by Fairgrieve.

In the United States, however, such good fortune did not follow Geography. Its success as a subject has waxed and waned through the Twentieth Century and the advent of the term 'Social Studies' almost sounded the death knell for Geography. Fortunately however, teachers such as Guyot, Sauer and Davis kept it alive and each in his own way has influenced Geography teaching in the United States though perhaps the most dominant trends are those which have been physical and environmental.

Having, therefore, considered (if somewhat briefly) the history, philosophy and nature of Geography as an academic discipline it is now possible to examine the emergence of Geography in Manitoba and how it has developed and been affected by the main stream of geographical ideas particularly in the rest of Canada and the United States as well as in the traditional areas of Europe.

This last statement is, perhaps significant for the educational system in Manitoba certainly shows through time (historically) the inherited influences of European ideas while more recently the influence of the United States is more apparent.

CHAPTER 3

DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AT THE

RED RIVER SETTLEMENT

1808 - 1870

The present state of Geography as an academic discipline in the schools of Manitoba is a product of the past, resulting from the many curricular revisions and changes which have occurred following the inception of the Public School System in 1871.

However, prior to this time schools had been viable institutions in Manitoba. For over fifty years schools had been established and amongst the subjects in their curriculum was Geography.

The first indication of schooling came in 1808--

. . . the first Europeans and Metis at Red River were neither entirely ignorant nor were they devoid of any desire for schooling for their children. The Hudson's Bay Company did not neglect its servants entirely; in 1808, it sent out James Clouston, Peter Sinclair and George Geddes to act as teachers at some of the posts, paying each of these schoolmasters an annual salary of £30.¹

As the Hudson's Bay Company tended to send the teachers to the Canadian North-West so the early schools of Ruperts Land were confined to Company posts and even then were spasmodic and unsuccessful.

Thus, by 1813 Lord Selkirk, in a letter to Governor MacDonnell

¹C. J. Jaenen, "Foundations of Dual Education at Red River 1811-1834", Transactions of the Historical and Scientific Society of Manitoba, Series III, No. 21, 1965. Winnipeg: p. 35.

said

. . . there is so much of a laudable spirit in their (referring to the settlers) desire that it must be attended to, and it is in every view time that a school should be established. K. McRae is well acquainted with the improved methods which have been invented or introduced with such wonderful effect by Jos. Lancaster, and he could in a few weeks organise a school on his plan, if you can pick out from among the settlers a steady young man of a cool temper to be employed as a schoolmaster. Arithmetic with reading and writing in their native tongue¹ are the branches to be first attended to.²

Selkirk's intention was that McRae should supervise and not teach.

. . . If McRae remains at the settlement he can examine the school from time to time to see that it is properly conducted; or at any rate he can give the Schoolmaster the necessary instructions for carrying it on and give you such information as to the method and principles of the system you can be at no loss to judge whether this plan is properly pursued and to check any neglect.³

Education, although inextricably bound up with religion in these early days, did not really develop because of the fact that there was no school for McRae to supervise and also due to problems between MacDonnell and McRae.

The first actual school to open was that operated by John Matheson a Selkirk settler.

Jan. 10, 1815 - Engaged John Matheson, Jr., for schoolmaster, the school for the present kept at the Old Huts, which are to be immediately in repair.

¹Gaelic most likely.

²E. H. Oliver Ed., "Selkirk to Miles MacDonnell, The Canadian North-West, Its Early Development and Legislative Records, Vol. 1, Ottawa 1914: pp.52-53.

³Ibid., p. 53.

Jan. 14, 1815 - John Matheson, the schoolmaster, came up with his wife to the school house.
 Mon. Jan. 16, 1815 - Our school began today.¹

However, in June of the same year the Nor'Westers attacked the settlement and Matheson was made a prisoner and the school was closed. This act perhaps determined the future of education at the Red River for

. . . the settlers who are now going out have expressed much anxiety about the means of education for their children.²

Little mention is made of early curricula, texts or educational aims let alone geographical studies. However, the first text which did rate a mention was in 1815,

. . . the arrival of the fourth contingent of settlers saved the colony in 1815. Among the new arrivals was a schoolmaster George McBeth, who during the Atlantic crossing had started a school on board ship. Schofield comments that "it proved a source of entertainment to the adults as well as a benefit to the children."³ The lessons were given on deck in fine weather; hours were from 11 a.m. to 2 p.m.; English Bibles were the only textbooks used.⁴

Perhaps at this time the most valuable lessons being taught in education are best expressed in the words of Alexander Ross when he wrote his comments on life in the colony about 1825. He notes the

¹George Melvin Newfield, *The Development of Manitoba Schools prior to 1870*, M.Ed. thesis, University of Manitoba, 1937: p. 12.

²W. B. Ready, "Early Red River Schools", *The Beaver*, December 1947: p. 34.

³F. B. Schofield, *The Story of Manitoba*, Vol. 1. (Toronto: S. J. Clark, 1906): p. 127.

⁴Jaenen, "Foundations of Dual Education at Red River 1811-1834": p. 35.

... placid and tranquil atmosphere of the colony, and it is this atmosphere and among these people that schools were to rise, which show a later generation how tolerance and education could proceed together in a community made up of diverse racial elements and different religious beliefs. However, great was the improvement in school buildings, in the technique of education, after Confederation, the later schools of Manitoba could never excel the record of the early Red River schools in what must always be a fundamental principle of education - the act of living peacefully together in a community, of maintaining cultural and social diversities in an overall unity.¹

Courses of Instruction in Geography
1818 - 1870

The establishment of schools in this area began under the auspices of both the Catholic and Anglican Churches. In 1818 the first Catholic school was opened by Father Provencher. It had no prescribed curricula as far as can be ascertained. In fact, no indication is given about what was taught until a letter, written in 1824, by Father Provencher to Father Plessis stated of the students that

L'un a dix ans et l'autre 13. Mes deux autre écoliers ont expliqué à présent tout l'építome. de viris illustribus. Cornelius Nepos, les quatre Evangiles, les Actes des Apôtres et la moitié de l'Imitation. Ils commencent à comprendre la versification, ont vu un abrégé de géographie et écrivent les belles lettres pour les voir cet été. Je les pousse autant que je puis pour en tirer service.²

This would be taught during the winter of 1823-24, the letter having been written in the spring ready for summer transportation to Eastern Canada.

¹Ready, "Early Red River Schools".

²Letter to Father Plessis from Father Provencher, Rivière Rouge, les Juin 1824. Bulletin de La Societe Historique de St. Boniface, Vol. III, (St. Boniface Manitoba: 1913): p. 94.

This is the first mention in Manitoba of a course in Geography and it would be a fair assumption to believe that it had been taught in Red River since the opening of the school in 1818. It is unfortunate however, that no indication is given as to what the compact introductory course in Geography consisted of.

The first Anglican school was established by Reverend John West in 1820. Again there is no indication of what was taught, though there is no doubt that textbooks were in use for in May 1820 a letter was sent to the Reverend John West from Aldershot in England which stated,

. . . I have given Mr. Harrison your note respecting the books from the Bartlett Building Society. Mr. Harrison requests you will write to him at Guys Hospital stating the books you have already procured for the Colony and a list of the school books you consider necessary for the school to be established there.¹

The first indication that Geography was a subject is contained in a Report produced by Reverend Messrs. Jones and Gockran which was received by the Church Mission Society in England in October 1836, so presumably it was written during the summer of 1835.

Seminaries at the Upper Church; only remain to be noticed under this heading. They are under the care and superintendence of Mr. and Mrs. Jones; and were organized two years ago with the view of affording the means of education to the children of the gentlemen engaged in the Hon. Hudson's Bay Company's service. This establishment at present affords board, lodging and education to 53 pupils, viz. 25 young ladies and 30 young gentlemen; both these institutions when organized were committed to the charge of a Tutor and Governess from England. The course of instruction in

¹Letter to Reverend John West from W.S. Aldershot, near Farnham, England. Rupertsland Archives, No. 1008. Provincial Archives of Manitoba.

the young ladies' school embraces reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, the use of the globe, history and catechetical information. In the young gentlemen's school progress is made in reading, writing, arithmetic, bookkeeping, algebra, mathematics, Latin, Greek etc. The younger ones read Belectus and study grammar, history etc., while the new comers are in the New Testament and Catechisms of various sorts.¹

It is of interest to notice that Geography and the use of the globes were only given to the young ladies--could this be an indication of a rather low regard for Geography as an academic subject?

Anglican and Catholic parochial schools had continued to proliferate during these early years for by 1827 there were four Catholic schools, while by 1844 there were nine Anglican schools and also a few private schools. The level of education was confined to elementary work although there was a growing demand for a system of higher education.

Geography as a subject was part of the curriculum taught at this time in both the parochial and the private schools. What was taught would, no doubt, reflect the British tradition for most of the teachers and incumbents had been schooled under it. Here Geography, in the words of Hughes², was basically physical and Geography which dealt with the world rested mainly on Astronomy and on Geology. The way it was taught it was "considered to be a dull and laborious subject."³. This was due in no small measure to first the fact that

¹Church Mission Society, Reel No. A.77. Provincial Archives of Manitoba.

²William Hughes, 1817-1876, an exponent of the unity of Geography who wrote a number of school manuals on the subject.

³Preston E. James, All Possible Worlds, A History of Geographical Ideas, (Indianapolis: The Odyssey Press a division of Bobbs-Merrill Company Inc., 1972): p. 255.

teachers were generally untrained and uninspired, and secondly that pupils were expected to do nothing more than memorize lists of places and products. Typical of the weekly plan of lessons taught in the private schools was that followed in Miss Matilda Davis' School in Oakfield. The following is her weekly lesson plan as written in her 1847 notebook.

Lessons.

- Mon. Spelling, Poetry, Geography, Ancient History,
Questions.
Tues. Spelling, English, History, Grammar, Questions.
Wed. Spelling, Poetry, Composition, General History,
Period.
Thurs. Spelling, Geography, Mythology, Questions,
Tables.
Fri. Spelling, Poetry, Astronomy Dates, Letters,
Parsing.¹

Geography was thus taught on Mondays, and Thursday and, if astronomy is considered under mathematical geography, also on Fridays.

Miss Davis also stated that in 1847 she

. . . received a limited number of young ladies as boarders or daily pupils, who are instructed in the English and Greek languages, writing, arithmetic, history, composition and geography with plain and ornamental needlework.²

Geography was thus considered as an integral part of the curriculum though no prescribed course was laid down.

The first Presbyterian school was opened under John Inkster in 1849 and during the next fifteen years it was said to be the best equipped of all the parish schools in the Red River.

¹Matilda Davis, Teachers Books, January 1847: Provincial Archives of Manitoba.

²Ibid.

. . . the subjects taught included Grammar, geography, English, history, English composition, arithmetic, and the elements of Algebra and Geometry.¹

Geography was thus recognized as an integral part of the curriculum sharing equally with the other subjects for time allotment.

However, this was really true only in the private schools for they began to place

. . . more emphasis on mathematics, geography, history, music, classics, and deportment. The schools they developed were similar to the English Grammar School.²

In the parochial schools which were still conducted by religious enthusiasts, religion was the major factor emphasized, and Geography (along with other subjects) tended to be de-emphasized.

This was probably due to the 'competencies' of the teachers most of whom were of religious background only and consequently in the average parish school religion was the main point of the curriculum while only a "few teachers are known to have taught history, geography and grammar."³ Originally most incumbents were not competent in subjects such as Geography and its status only began to improve with the arrival of better qualified teachers.

In contrast, during the late 1850's and 1860's, when schools could afford to pay more for teachers, instruction in Geography, along

¹George Hasted Dowker, Life and Letters in Red River 1812-1863. M. A. thesis, April, 1923. University of Manitoba.

²George M. Newfield, The Development of Manitoba Schools Prior to 1870. M.Ed. thesis, 1937. University of Manitoba: p. 71.

³Ibid., p. 85.

with the other subjects, was better. For example, at St. Pauls where

. . . there is an excellent education afforded in British History, grammar, geography and arithmetic with the elements of general history.¹

The exact content, and methodology in the various Geography courses offered in the schools of the Red River Settlement have been difficult to ascertain except by inference because of the dearth of extant material, lack of any central control of Education, and lack of a defined curriculum. However, an examination of texts in use at the time could lead to a greater insight.

Geography Texts 1818 - 1870.

There were no textbooks prescribed for use in the schools of the Red River Settlement. It remained for the teachers to request, from sources in Eastern Canada or in Great Britain, those books with which they were familiar. The Reverend West certainly requested books in 1819 from England (though unfortunately no trace of the list remains), while Father Provencher would have brought in his books from Quebec.

It was not possible to ascertain what texts or other printed material may have been used in the schools until the year 1847. It was in this year that Miss Matilda Davis stated in her Teacher's Book that she had had supplied

. . . Exercises on Globes with Miscellaneous Questions,
An outline of Geographical Exercises,
A Key to Geography Questions and

¹Dowker, "Life and Letters in the Red River 1812-1863".

A Key to Bartholomew's Globes.¹

The exercises on the globes and maps would most probably have been the text written by W. Butler and entitled Exercises on the Globes and Maps². No further copies of her records are available until 1854 when she remarked in her notebook that she had had

. . . supplied by the Church Mission Society.
 1 Linen map of the World and 10 maps.
 While supplied by the Religious Tract Society,
 was one book, "The Earth".³

In the year 1855, however, Matilda Davis makes specific reference to textbooks---

Books ordered -

A New Introduction to Geography by J. O. Butler.
 Outline of Physical Geography by W. Hughes.⁴

These texts, in line with most of the Geography texts in use at this time, consisted in the main of a glossary of terms relating to Physical Geography. They really did nothing to make Geography a subject of interest or enjoyment. The text by Hughes, like many others in Britain, Eastern Canada and the United States, contained a definition of Geography which was followed by a section on mathematical

¹Matilda Davis, Teacher's Book, January 1847: Provincial Archives of Manitoba.

²William Butler, Exercises on Globes and Maps, (London, England: T. Bourn, 1827.)

³Matilda Davis, Teacher's Book, 1854: Provincial Archives of Manitoba: Although this refers to the textbook 'The Earth' there is now no trace or any further reference to it.

⁴Ibid., 1854. The reference to these two textbooks appears to be incorrect as was very common in these old records. A New Introduction to Geography was, in fact, a New Introduction of Geography by William Butler and published in England; Outline of Physical Geography was by William Hughes but correctly titled Class-Book of Physical Geography, (London, England: George Philip & Sons.)

Geography and then a section on Physical Geography.

In all sections the presentation was encyclopaedic-- a typical example being

The earth's Axis is the imaginary line upon which it turns. Its extremities are called the Poles of the earth. 4. The earth also revolves around the sun once a year. This motion causes the four seasons, Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter, and is called its Annual Motion. The exact time of the earth's rotation on its axis is 23h 56m 4s. The exact time of the earth's revolution round the sun is 365d 6h 9m 10s.¹

The surface of the earth is divided into land and water. 1. Land occupies little more than one-fourth and 2. Water nearly three-fourths of the whole. The total area of the globe is estimated at 197,000,000 square miles, of which land occupies 51,500,000 square miles, and water 145,500,000 square miles.²

Pieces of information such as these were intended to be read and remembered and repeated orally in parrot like fashion. The oral work was very important for little was provided in the way of teaching aids. It was possible in some schools to find only a globe while, in others, there was sometimes a wall map and a blackboard.

Geography taught from texts such as these and in such pedantic repetitious fashion was the predominant feature of the teaching of the subject in the schools of the Red River Settlement prior to 1870.

Examinations in Geography 1818 - 1870

Examinations, like textbooks and curriculum, did not exist in any prescribed form due, of course, to the fact that there was no

¹Hughes, Class-Book of Physical Geography: p. 3.

²Ibid., p. 6.

centralised education authority.

Any tests of understanding would be at the whim of the teacher in charge of the school. It is unlikely that they would be written, particularly in the earlier years of the settlement, for with the very limited finances and shortage of school equipment paper would, in all probability, not be readily available. In fact, slates and slate pencils were common place.

The little children who were beginners had cards with the alphabet and little words on them. At the school we had slates and slate pencils. A boy or girl who had no pencil used a lump of clay instead, and if there were little pieces of stone in it they scratched the slate and you could rub the writing off, but not the scratches.¹

Any examinations, therefore, would, in all likelihood, consist of an oral recitation of the facts learned from the textbook prescribed by the teacher.

This use of oral questions for examination was noted in a revised edition of Hughes' book which included a selection of questions after each section.

They (referring to the questions) are mainly designed, as the teacher will at once perceive, for oral use; and have been framed under the conviction that frequent oral examination - pursued with constant reference to Maps drawn upon a large scale - is the soundest test of a learner's advancement in geographical knowledge.²

This did not preclude the use of them in a written fashion for

¹W. J. Healy, Women of the Red River, (Winnipeg: Russel, Lang & Company, 1923).

²Hughes, Class-Book of Physical Geography.

the author goes on to state--

But the greater number of them are equally adapted for the purposes of written examination.¹

However, no matter which form of examination was undertaken the author stated that "the use of the Map is indispensable".² It did not matter which question form (written or oral) was used for the result consisted of nothing more than a recitation of factual information. Questions typically were of the 'what and how' variety. There were no questions of the 'why' variety. Hughes, in his text, asked questions such as:-

3. Name the continents.
4. Which of the continents belong to the Old, and which to the New world?
5. What (in round numbers) is the area of each continent.³
3. What is the exact shape of the earth?
4. What is the dimensions?⁴

They required no reasoning ability or application of the facts and all that the student need be endowed with was an excellent memory.

Summary

The status of Geography, therefore, (as viewed now) was, to say the least, unsatisfactory, consisting, in the main, of material which was to be "read, remembered and repeated preferably in the words of the book."⁵ Very little in the way of teaching aids was available to the teacher in the Red River Settlement. In the early years, in particular, blackboards were almost unknown while "wall maps were a

¹Ibid. ²Ibid. ³Ibid., p. 10. ⁴Ibid., p. 6.

⁵Grime, Geography in Secondary Schools of Ontario.

CHAPTER 4

DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY IN MANITOBA SCHOOLS

1871 - 1890

Geography under the Separate School System

In 1870 Manitoba became a Province and in 1871 the Provincial Legislature passed a law establishing a system of schools. The Board of Education had two sections, Protestant and Roman Catholic, with charge over twenty-four districts--twelve being Protestant and twelve Roman Catholic.

Each of these two sections had control over the schools in its jurisdiction with respect to discipline, management, curriculum, examinations, the grading and licensing of teachers and of religious textbooks. However, within the academic fields the selection of textbooks in the school's was under the whole Board's jurisdiction,

At its inception the Provincial School System had thirty-three schools in operation, which, by 1876 had grown to fifty-two (thirty being Protestant and twenty-two Catholic) with 2,734 students enrolled. A period of sustained growth followed so that by 1883

. . . there were forty Roman Catholic schools with 1,941 in attendance, and two hundred and seventy-one Protestant schools with enrolment of 10,831.¹

¹A. Shortt and A. G. Doughty Canada and its Provinces, (Toronto: T. & A. Constable, Edinburgh University Press, Publishers Association of Canada, 1914): 427.

This growth continued so that by 1890

. . . there was 90 districts under the Roman Catholic section of the boards, and 629 under the Protestant section, or 719 in all.¹

The year 1890 is of further significance for this was when the Provincial Legislature abolished the denominational system of public education and made the Protestant and Roman Catholic schools districts subject to centralised Provincial authority. This, of course, had a distinct effect upon the curriculum of schools, which, prior to this time, had been largely governed by the religious section of the Board to which the school belonged.

During the years 1871-1890 education was not compulsory and suffered from many other problems:-

There was no minimum equipment for a school; text books were difficult to obtain; school furniture was often primitive and handmade; teachers were hard to find and had little training; roads were often mere cowpaths across the prairies; child labor was important in the home or on the land. Schooling was a vision present only to those with eyes to see.²

Yet, despite these obvious problems, not only did education begin to flourish in an ever widening circle across the Province but Geography as a subject flourished within its encompassing arms during these early formative years.

It requires only a glance at table 1 to see the growing importance of Geography. No apologies are made for what may appear to

¹Ibid.

²A. A. Herriot, "School Inspectors of the Early Days in Manitoba", Transactions of the Historical and Scientific Society of Manitoba, Series III, No. 4:29.

TABLE 1
 NUMBER OF STUDENTS STUDYING GEOGRAPHY
 IN PROTESTANT SCHOOLS
 1871 - 1879

Name of School	Geography						Comparison of Geography and History: 1877		Geography	
	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	Geog.	Hist.	1878	1879
Winnipeg: Senior Division
Winnipeg: Intermediate	13	4	8	..	27	60	76	199
Winnipeg: North Ward	38	..	25	50
Winnipeg: South Ward	25
St. James	18	8	18	..	31	36	48	8	..	37
East Kildonan	26	29	35	..	60	55	67	36	..	52
West Kildonan	35	38	24	..	35	31	36	13	..	25
St. Paul's	12	13	10	..	12	24	30	10	..	30
North Springfield	4	..	18	28	8	3	..	17
Sunnyside	23	10	..	29
Cook's Creek	5	4	1	..	3
Park's Creek	13	16	8	..	24
Central St. Andrew's	38	20	33	..	29	34	14	2	..	36
North St. Andrew's	19	21	24	..	22	14	20	16
Mapleton	12	21	26	..	40	24	26	4	..	35
Peguis North St. Peters	..	8	6	..	8	8	16
Dynevov South St. Peters	..	14	19	..	19	..	9	4

TABLE 1-Continued

Name of School	Geography						Comparison of Geography and History - 1877		Geography	
	1871	1872	1873	1874	1875	1876	Geog. Hist.		1878	1879
Woodlands	40
Headingley West	.	5
Riv. aux Sturgeons	.	2
Rat Creek Road	24
Rockwood	0
Livingstone	21
Plympton	3
Victoria	22
Selkirk	30
Total	259	309	309	.	564	507	741	176	.	801

SOURCE: Manitoba Board of Education, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1871-1879.

be obvious omissions, but in the early years reports by principals, inspectors, and even the Board of Education were often incomplete. Due to this, and the fact that students in the first class took no Geography, it is not possible to calculate the percentage of students in the schools who studied the subject. Also it was only as settlements moved into an area that schools became a necessity and, therefore, all schools listed were not necessarily open in 1871.

Even with the proliferation of schools and school districts and the sub-division of established areas a steady increase in students is apparent. A comparison has been given for 1877 between the number of students studying Geography and those studying History. It can be seen from these figures that History, at this time, was of much less importance than Geography.

In schools under the Catholic section of the Board of Education a growth pattern for Geography can be seen in table 2 which is similar to that exhibited by the Protestant schools. Only two years of statistics are available, but it is still apparent that Geography was mainly studied in Classes Two, Three and Four and only in a few schools were there enough students to study it in Classes Five and Six. Geography, as a subject, was not offered in Class One.

In 1886 Geography was as important a subject in the rural areas as it was in the City of Winnipeg and the other small urban centres as can be seen in table 3.

This growth of the subject continued over the next few years so that, by 1890, 15,717 students were studying Geography in the Province of Manitoba. This compared favourably with the other major

TABLE 2

GEOGRAPHY STUDENTS IN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS
1877 - 1878
(CLASSES NOS. 2 - 6)

Ecoles	1877 Classes					1878 Classes			
	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Winnipeg: Ecole Ste Marie (Garcons)	. .	13(3)	9(2)	16	11
Winnipeg: Academie Marie (Filles)	32(21)	26(21)	10(2)	9(6)	7(5)	28	22	21	19
St. Boniface Ecole des Garcons	. .	3(5)	4(4)	20	14
St. Boniface Ecole des Filles	. .	16(3)	13(3)	13(1)	6(2)	22	6	15	11
St. Boniface Sud	. .	6	7
St. Vital	. .	10	11
St. Norbert No. 1	11	6	7
St. Norbert No. 2	. .	22	10	20	9
St. Norbert No. 3	8	6	6
St. Norbert No. 4	12	7	6
St. Agathe	14	8	8
St. Jean- Baptiste	12	4	4
Deux Petites Pointes	6
St. Pie	8
Dufferin	3
Lorette Ouest	6	2	2

TABLE 2-Continued

Ecoles	1877 Classes					1878 Classes			
	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Lorette Est	15	11	7	7	7
Ste Anne Ouest	15	11	7	16
St. Charles	16(14)	19(8)	9(6)	18	11
St. Francoise- Xavier Est	14	9	16	12
St. Francoise- Xavier Centre	20	12	12	10
St. Francoise- Xavier Ouest	17	23	..	10	..	24	16	9	..
Baie St. Paul Est	10	8	10
Baie St. Paul Ouest	4	6
Riviere Sale, Baie St. Paul	12	10
St. Leon	6
St. Laurent, Lac Manitoba	23(24)	14(7)	17
St. Anne Est	13	5	5
Total	295	274	98	39	20	317	126	45	30

SOURCE: Manitoba, Board of Education, Annual Reports of the Superintendent of Catholic Schools, 1877-1878.

NOTE: The number in parenthesis indicate Geography students studying in English. All other students studied in French. The final total gives the combined number of students studying the subject.

NOTE: In the year 1878 there is no 2nd class quoted as no statistics were reported by the Superintendents.

TABLE 3

GEOGRAPHY IN RURAL SCHOOLS COMPARED
TO CITY SCHOOLS IN 1886.

Towns and Cities	Students Studying Geography	Number of Municipalities	Number of Rural Schools	Students Studying Geography
Winnipeg	2,925	74	483	6,738
Portage la Prairie	400			
Emerson	170			
Morris	19			
Selkirk	51			
Gladstone	52			
East Selkirk	48			
Pilot Mound	43			
Neepawa	40			
Brandon	450			
Birtle Union	115			
Rapid City	70			
Minnedosa	46			
Nelson	0			
Total	4,479	74	483	6,738

SOURCE: Manitoba Board of Education, Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1886.

TABLE 4

NUMBER OF PUPILS IN MANITOBA
1886 - 1890(ALL SCHOOLS BOTH
RURAL AND CITY)

Subject	1886	1889	1890
Reading	16,205	20,489	21,898
Spelling	14,774	19,014	20,080
Composition	13,140	17,854	18,781
Grammar	10,303	10,522	11,625
Arithmetic	15,258	20,340	21,376
Book-keeping	2,779	2,649	3,616
Writing	15,851	20,389	21,621
Geography	11,217	15,744	15,717
History	5,658	6,922	7,842
Hygiene	2,263	13,907	15,259
Literature	o o o	o o o	o o o
Algebra	o o o	o o o	o o o
Physics	o o o	o o o	o o o
Morals	o o o	17,443	17,933

SOURCE: Manitoba Board of Education,
Annual Reports of the Superintendent of Schools,
1891.

subjects and was double the number studying History as shown in table 4.

Courses of Instruction in Geography
1871-1890.

Geography, as with the other courses, of instruction, continued as a product of the past and no major revisions or changes occurred with the appearance of a centralised education authority. Indeed, it was not until 1876, five years after the establishment of the Board of Education, that a Programme, or Course of Study, for Protestant Public School in Manitoba was defined.

Courses in Protestant Schools.

There were six classes, or levels, of instruction in a school

TABLE 5
PROGRAMME OF STUDY

Class	Content
First	No geography taught.
Second	Cardinal points of the compass and general definitions.
Third	Definitions--Maps of the World--America, and Canada generally.
Fourth	Maps of Europe, Asia, Africa, Canada, Ontario, Manitoba.
Fifth	Physical and Political Geography with use of Globes.
Sixth	Geography including mathematics with the use of Globes.

SOURCE:- Manitoba Board of Education, Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1876: Apendix E.

although Geography courses were found in only five of the classes.

Within the same Programme of Study elements of Geography were also to be found in the Linear Drawing Course in the Fourth, Fifth and Sixth Classes. Here the students were expected to be able to produce the outlines of maps on paper along with other common objects.

The philosophy which governed these courses is, perhaps, best summarized in the words of the Superintendent of Schools in his report of 1875-1876¹, where he said:-

Geography is chiefly taught with maps, and if children are not taught how to use them, they perhaps, may never understand them. They will look at the position of the several countries on the map, but be ignorant of their location or the extent of territory which they represent.

From this may be seen the importance of first notions in geography. In these notions our object must not be to give only a general idea of the earth, and a more complete knowledge of the country we live in. But above all children must be made to represent the localities on paper, and to trace on a sheet of a given size countries more and more extensive. They must be also taught to take their reckoning either on the ground or on the maps, so that they may have an exact idea of the position in the country or in the world of the localities and of the countries read of.

This study of geography, which must not take precedence over studies of far more importance, and the only useful study for our school children, must be effected only by taking what they know as a starting point, and leading them to what they are ignorant of, that is, from the topography of the school room, to the knowledge of the form and the dimensions of the earth, of the country they live in, which they must become specially acquainted with, and then follow with other countries.

Spheres alone can show the exact configuration of our planet--they alone can give us an exact idea of the form, size and locations of the continents and of the

¹Manitoba Board of Education, Report of the Superintendent of Catholic Schools, 1875-76: p. 15.

seas. In short, they alone put us in a position to calculate with accuracy the distances extant between the several points of the globe. The study of geography ought not to be entered upon without a knowledge of the sphere, from which study (when the mind is acquainted with the real shapes and forms) one may pass on to that of maps.

The use of object lessons was also utilized and it was at this time that what we now refer to as Physical Geography was brought into the classroom.

Object lessons are an excellent way to bring variety in teaching and to instruct children by attracting their attention awakening their curiosity and exercising their judgment. They are a sort of conversation or dialogue between the master who questions, and the pupils who answer on all subjects likely to give to the pupil some useful and practical information.¹

These covered such topics as meteorological phenomena (ice, snow, heat and cold--temperature, rain, dew, hail, storms, thunder, lightning, wind and fog) and physical phenomena (creeks, rivers, earth and elements of the earth) as well as the use of meteorological instruments such as the thermometer, barometer and hygrometer.

This Programme of Studies in Geography continued for the next nine years for it was not until 1885 that a revision of any importance was made in the courses for the Protestant Schools. At this time elementary education was divided into five standards with senior division work after this.

For the first time a percentage time allotment was given to courses the amount given being dependent upon the length of time a school was in operation in a school year.

¹Manitoba Board of Education, Report of the Superintendent of Catholic Schools, 1875-1876: p. 18.

TABLE 6
COURSE OF STUDY

Standard	Content
One	Idea of place developed; points of compass; location of objects; ideas of maps developed.
Two	Elementary definitions; local geography; boundaries countries and leading physical features in Manitoba.
Three	Definitions; map of the world in outline; North America; South America.
Four	Europe; Canada; United States.
Five	Asia; Africa; British Isles.

SOURCE: Manitoba Board of Education, Programme of Studies for Protestant Schools as quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1885.

In rural, city or town schools which were open for the whole school year, Geography was allotted seven percent of the total time as against those of Reading--sixteen percent, Composition--ten percent, and Arithmetic--sixteen percent, but more than History which was given six percent. In rural schools open only for part of the year, however, Geography was not classed as an essential subject and thus had to share only twenty-five percent of the total time allotment with all the other non essential subjects. Essential subjects were given an appropriate allotment out of the seventy-five percent of the time allotment remaining.

Thus, from a geographical point of view the student who attended an elementary school open all year had, perhaps, twice as much time devoted to the subject of Geography than a student whose

school only was open for part of the year.

Courses in Catholic Schools.

In the earliest years (1871-1878) the Catholic Schools in the secular courses (of which Geography was one) followed a programme similar to that of the Protestant Schools. However, in 1879 the Catholic Board of Education developed a few changes in the Programme of Studies. It had seven divisions rather than six, although Geography was only found in five of them as shown in table 7.

TABLE 7
COURSE OF STUDY

Division	Content
1st	No geography.
2nd	No geography.
3rd	Geographical definitions.
4th	America especially the Dominion of Canada.
5th	Geography of Europe.
6th	Geography of Asia, Africa and Oceania.
7th	Notions of Geology and especially of the Canadian Provinces.

SOURCE:- Manitoba Board of Education, (Catholic Section)
Appendix to the Education Law, 1879.

These courses continued through to 1882 with no change though it was suggested, at this time, that the course in drawing should include:-

5th Division--drawing of outlines of maps on slates.
 6th Division--drawing of outlines of maps on paper
 should occur.¹

This situation in the Catholic schools was perpetuated through to 1890 with no change of any consequence.

Courses in Higher Education.

Courses in Geography in the collegiates and colleges of Winnipeg and St. Boniface faced a rather lean future. Geography was required as an entrance requirement to both--"a general knowledge of the subject physical and political"² as well as being required for "preliminary university examinations, teachers certificates and entrance examinations for medicine and law".³

At the University itself, however, no Geography courses were taught (it was not a subject until 1949). An exception to this actually occurred after 1878 when St. Boniface College, which was affiliated to the University of Manitoba in 1878

. . . offered subjects of instruction which were Latin, ⁴
 Greek, English and French Languages, Geography, History.

¹Manitoba Board of Education (Catholic Section), Appendix to the Education Law, 1882.

²Manitoba Board of Education, Report of Principal A. Bowerman quoted from the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1885:64.

³Manitoba Board of Education, Annual Inspectors Report of D. McIntyre quoted from the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1885:68.

⁴Manitoba Board of Education, (Catholic Section), Report of Superintendent Bermer, 1884:54.

. . . These subjects are taught to students preparing for graduation in the University of Manitoba.¹

In any of the schools, Catholic or Protestant, it was accepted that there was a need for apparatus and equipment in the classroom to make the teaching of the courses an easier task for the teacher. Certainly by 1877 the Superintendent of Catholic Schools stated that the following equipment was necessary for teaching Geography.

A map of the Province of Manitoba showing the subdivision of the Province into Counties.
 A map of the Dominion of Canada showing the boundaries of each province.
 A map of the World showing the various continents.
 A Terrestrial Globe.²

However, it was 1885 before the regulations legislated what should be supplied, particularly with reference to Geography.

Each school shall be supplied with the necessary maps and apparatus which shall be under the care of the teacher who shall be responsible for the preservation from injury.

The following articles shall be considered necessary to the equipment of every school.

One or more sets of reading charts.
 Maps of the world, Canada and Manitoba.
 A supply of chalk or crayons for blackboard use.
 N.B. In choosing maps trustees are required to procure only those of Canada and Manitoba that have the latest divisions properly marked.³

¹Ibid.

²Manitoba Board of Education, Report of the Superintendent of Catholic Schools, 1877-78. p. 15.

³Manitoba Board of Education, "Regulations--Maps and Apparatus" quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1885, pp. 17-18.

These regulations did not, however, improve the teacher's task that much, for the teacher had no control over what maps were selected--this tended to be done by the trustees, and as they were not educators, they were guided in selection by monetary expediency.

The teacher also had pressure on him to care for the equipment and this often discouraged its use as it was expected to be in as new a condition at the end of the school year as it was at the beginning. This tended to encourage the teacher to put it in the cupboard and to keep the cupboard locked.

Geography Texts 1871-1890.

The establishment of a centralised Education Authority in 1871 brought with it the establishment of a six year ungraded school system, modelled on ideas which had spread west from Ontario.

By 1872 the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, in his Annual Report¹, announced not only what subjects and courses were being studied but also the methods and textbooks which were being utilised. In the case of Geography two texts were authorized. These were "Lovells' Easy Lessons in Geography" and "L'Atlas et la Geographie".²

¹Manitoba Board of Education, Annual Report of the Superintendent for Protestant Schools, 1872-73. p. 29.

²Many early textbooks were difficult to locate due to the incorrect titling in the Annual Reports. The former book, although entitled "Lovells' Easy Lessons in Geography" was, in fact, written by J. George Hodgins of Ontario, printed by John Lovell of Montreal in 1864. The latter book was referred to in other Provinces as "Modern School Geography and Atlas" and after an extensive search the only reference that could be found to the author was under the name of the publishers, James Campbell and Sons, Canada Publishing of Toronto and dated 1877.

There remains in Manitoba (as far as could be ascertained by the author after an exhaustive three year search) no trace of either text. The text "Easy Lessons in Geography"¹ was, however, typical of its time. The first twenty-five percent of the book, like that of Hughes², (quoted in Chapter Three), was concerned with Mathematical and Physical Geography (directions, earth, latitude and longitude etc.) The remaining seventy-five percent of the book consisted of a listing of information of the major continental areas--'Place name' Geography, which lacked description and interpretation and was only required to be committed to memory.

As with other contemporary texts the introduction began with a definition of Geography:-

1. The word Ge-og-ra-phy (which is derived from two Greek words) means a 'writing about the Earth'. We now understand Geography to be a description of the Earth, of its people and products . . .³

and then followed by discussing the three divisions into which Geography can be divided.

4. For convenience, Geography has been divided into three parts. The first part is called Math-e-mat-i-cal or As-tro-nom-i-cal Geography, because it relates to the connections of the Earth with the Sun, Moon and Stars; the second part is called Phys-i-cal Geography, because it relates to the land and water division of the Earth's surface; and the third part is called Po-lit-i-cal

¹Ibid.

²Hughes, Class Book of Physical Geography.

³J. George Hodgins, Easy Lessons in Geography, p. 6, quoted in Topping's History of Geography Teaching in British Columbia: p. 4.

Geography, because it relates to the various nations of the Earth, and to the boundaries of different countries.¹

The remaining parts of the book then discussed the continents of the world from both their physical and political points of view, and then attempted to enable the student to memorize the facts by asking a series of general questions (answers supplied) on the preceding material.

The author's intent was to develop a new and original approach to Geography as was shown in his introduction where it stated that

. . . he has, in the first place, sought to embody, in easy and familiar language, a Conversational Sketch of each division of the subject to which the attention of the pupil is directed. He has then inserted a series of questions on the principal points of that sketch; and has supplied where deemed necessary, appropriate answers to those questions.²

Despite these good intentions, it did not change the major function of the ability to memorize facts which was demanded by the educational system of the day. This particular statement was borne out by the comments of the Inspectors (in 1876) on the teaching of Geography in the Winnipeg Public School when they stated:-

. . . while of geography and grammar almost nothing was known and the little that had been learned was of such a loose and indefinite kind that it was but a poor equivalent for the vicious habits of study by which it had been acquired.³

There was then a change of principal at the school and the Inspectors stated that:-

¹Ibid. ²Ibid., p. 16.

³Manitoba Board of Education, Inspectors' Report quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1876: p.14.

. . . though the classes in geography had to be begun at the very beginning of the subject, yet the juniors had mastered with astonishing minuteness the physical features and political divisions of America while the seniors showed a thorough knowledge of definitions and also of the mountain ranges, rivers and river slopes, lakes, seas, islands, capes, bays, isthmuses, straits and peninsulas, flora, fauna and climate of each continent as a continent together with much incidental geography from their other studies.¹

The two books by Campbell and Hodgins² continued as the only authorized texts until 1877 when a group of further Geography texts were authorized for use in the education system.

The Superintendent's Report for Protestant Schools in 1877 listed--

Lovell's Easy Lessons in Geography
Modern School Geography and Atlas
Lovell's General Geography.³

for use in the teaching of Geography while the course in Natural Science⁴ listed two other Geography books--Physical Geography and Geology⁵. This was later followed, in the same report, by the

¹Ibid., pp. 15-16.

²Campbell, L'Atlas et la Geographie. Hodgins, Easy Lessons in Geography.

³Ibid. Campbell's text it will be noted is now referred to as Modern School Geography and Atlas. J. George Hodgins, General Geography, (Montreal: John Lovell, 1872), quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1877.

⁴The course of Natural Science quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1877: p. 76.

⁵Archibald Geikie, Physical Geography, (London, England: MacMillan and Company 1873, reprinted: 1884 and 1886): Archibald Geikie, Geology, (London, England: MacMillan and Company, 1873: reprint 4th ed., 1902).

recommending of another text, also called Physical Geography¹, for the use of the teachers. Thus, the Geography texts provided no real change of direction in the teaching of the subject even with the addition of General Geography by J. George Hodgins.²

However, the introduction of Geikie's books was, perhaps, the beginning of the development of the physical aspect of Geography in Manitoba. The reason for this scientific growth is, most likely, to be found in the fact that the major advances in geographical thinking were now occurring along the scientific background of the subject. Hopefully this would mean a movement away from the simple description of geographic facts towards the explanation of their causal factors. Geikie's ideas were along this line when he stated that--

Physical Geography may be made a valuable instrument of education. To give it such importance, the most advantageous method is to make use of the common knowledge and experience of the pupils, and starting from this groundwork, to train them in habits of observation and in scientific modes of thought and inquiry among every-day phenomena. From the very outset the instruction should be as far as possible practical. A shower of rain, the growth and disappearance of a cloud, the flow of a brook, the muddy water of a river, the shape of a cliff, the outlines of a mountain, the undulations of a plain--these and the thousand other common features of landscape should be eagerly seized by the teacher and used as vivid illustrations of the broad fundamental principles which it will be his main object that his pupils should thoroughly master. Thus employed, Physical Geography is not learnt as an ordinary task, but rather becomes a delightful recreation, in which, however, the observing faculty is exercised, the power of induction

¹David Page, Introduction to Physical Geography, (London, England: William Blackwood and Sons, 1875).

²J. George Hodgins, General Geography.

cultivated, and the imagination kept constantly active. Having been long convinced that such a method of instruction would place this branch of science upon a firmer and broader footing in our education system, and would moreover prove a great service in fostering a spirit of observation and reflection even among children . . .¹

His hope was that the students would have awakened in them--

. . . a taste for such pursuits, and lead them to carry on the study of their own accord, than to try to charge their memories with dry facts and figures which, in the absence of intelligent and suggestive teaching, are too commonly meaningless and repulsive.²

Similarly his book on Geology attempted to follow the practical method of instruction for he realized that--

. . . the young learner primarily needs a class-book which will awaken his curiosity and interest. There should be enough of detail to enable him to understand how conclusions are arrived at. All through its chapters he should see how observation, generalisation, and induction go hand in hand in the progress of scientific research. But it should not be overloaded with technical details which, though of the highest importance, cannot be adequately understood until considerable advance has been made in the study. It ought to present a broad, luminous picture of each branch of the subject, necessarily, of course, incomplete, but perfectly correct and intelligible as far as it goes. This picture should be amplified in detail by a skilful teacher. It may, however, so arrest the attention of the learner himself as to lead him to seek, of his own accord, in larger treatises, fuller sources of information.³

This gradual movement toward Physical Geography was perpetuated, particularly in Manitoba, because the prescribed text for teachers was

¹Geikie, Physical Geography, Preface, pp.vii-viii.

²Ibid., p. ix.

³Geikie, Geology, Preface to the 1st ed., 1886: p. vi.

one of Physical Geography.¹ It again consisted of a series of short statements with some maps to help move the student beyond memorization of facts. This was not seemingly possible for the teachers, who had been taught to teach in this way, and who further perpetuated the idea that the main educational objective was to memorize a mass of factual information.

From this time on (1877) there were no changes or additions to Geography courses or texts in schools or teacher colleges (with one exception) until the end of the time period under consideration. The only exception to this statement was in 1884 when a text, for first class teachers, by Pillans² was introduced into the course. According to Pillans

Geography, however, may be made eminently attractive to young minds at an earlier stage than that which is contemplated in the larger work; and, when applied from the very outset to the illustration of the classics read, it contributes not a little to give interest, acility, and permanence to the instruction conveyed. It is with this end in view that I have put together these 'First Steps'.³

Three principles guided Pillans' development of this text.

1. When the main object is to throw light upon the classics and give an interest to classical studies, it is neither necessary nor desirable, in any ordinary course of school or college training, to go beyond the countries, some portion of which is on the shore either of the Mediterranean itself, or of one of those seas which are in truth part of it set foot on the soil of a new country, we quit the coast for a time, and explore the

¹Page, Physical Geography.

²James Pillans, First Steps in the Physical and Classical Geography of the Ancient World, (England: Arrowsmith, 1831; reprint 12th ed., Edinburgh Scotland: Adam & Charles Black, 1878).

³Ibid., Preface to 2nd ed., (The College of Edinburgh, 1855)p.iii.

interior in every direction; noting, as we go along, those physical characters and localities which are most fertile in classical associations, and to which interesting illusions are most frequently made by the writers and especially the poets of antiquity, or by the most admired poets of our own island.¹

The author then implies that the process being so developed will give--

. . . a local habitation and name to everything that is memorable, and give it a hold upon the imagination and a facility in being recalled, which no arrangement according to civil divisions can possibly attain.²

The third principle to which he alluded in his text is to select

. . . the things worthy of note, that no town or locality shall be inserted, to the mention of which is not appended some fact, circumstance, or peculiarity, which may not only give it a chance of being treasured up in the memory, but be likely to awaken in enquiring minds a desire to know more about the place and its history. These little touches indeed are intended as texts for the teacher to prelect and enlarge upon; and if this be done dexterously and felicitously, the impressions made will be both pleasing and permanent, and will furnish land-marks for the learner to steer by, should he afterwards wish to acquaint himself more fully with the country they belong to.

In every stage of geographical instruction, where the student receives his knowledge from others and does not work it out for himself, all names of places which are inculcated without such appendage as I now speak of, or with nothing more than assigning them to the shire or county they are in, are little better than useless rubbish. They are indeed worse than useless; for these voces et praeterea nihil serve only to encumber the memory and disgust the learner with a subject which, if properly treated, is full of interest to a young mind.³

From these three principles may be extracted the main ideas of all geographical knowledge which in the words of Pillans "ought to be acquired by the learner, and communicated by the teacher".⁴

¹Ibid., pp. iv-v.

²Ibid., p.vi.

³Ibid., pp.vi-vii.

⁴Ibid., p.iii.

Geography thus

1. is useful in giving interest to classical studies
2. is best not studied until it is referred to in classical writings,
3. requires the memorizing of the locations and relative positions of many places
4. requires to be made interesting by the addition of historical facts.

It is of interest here to note that Pillans realized the uselessness of just memorizing the positions of many places but felt that adding some further facts about the places made them interesting and consequently easier to learn.

These maxims of Professor Pillans are followed to the letter throughout his sixty-two page text. Typical of this is his description of Pontus:-

7. In PONTUS we meet with Amasea, b.-lp. of Mithridates and Strabo the Geographer. Below it 'Zela' where Caesar defeated Pharnaces, son of Mithridates (B.C. 27), announcing the victory in his well know despatch, 'veni vidi, vici'.¹

The text itself, is therefore, typical of the others in use at the time, consisting of nothing more than a list of names with a few appended facts. It allowed for nothing more than the memorizing of place location and consequently teachers so trained would thus teach ad infinitum.

From the examination of all the foregoing texts used in

¹Ibid., p. 54.

Geography from 1871-1890 it would appear that the study of the subject consisted of nothing more than memorization of facts. It would, however, be fair to comment that the memorization of facts was axiomatic of the whole educational system and not just of Geography. This apparently was a response to the demand, at that time, for factual knowledge.

Examinations in Geography 1871-1890

The term 'examination' is used here in the widest possible context. It refers not only to written and oral examinations for the pupils but also to the examination taken by prospective teachers for their third, second or first class certificates. The teachers were also examined on their mode of teaching by inspectors who visited different schools during their tours of duty.

These various forms of examination throw further light on the development of Geography as a course of study and also on its teaching methodology.

Examinations by Inspectors 1871-1890.

As professional inspection of public schools in Manitoba did not begin until 1888, it is very difficult to use the comments of the person doing the inspection (usually the local incumbent) prior to this time. This was because inspection was both "haphazard and sporadic, and done by laymen"¹ who really were amateurs in education.

¹Herriot, School Inspectors of the Early Days in Manitoba, p.26.

. . . in Westbourne School--the third class read and answered questions in geography pretty well.¹

By 1876 some improvement occurred in the Report and also in the teaching of Geography for--

. . . the manner in which the pupils acquitted themselves in the reading geography being equally creditable to themselves and astonishing to the visitors . . .²

By 1884 the inspectors realised that Geography teaching required more than just expository expertise. Thus the Reverend A. Matheson noted in his inspection tour that--

. . . at North St. Andrews--wall maps would be of practical benefit.³

while at

. . . Clandeboye--a few wall maps are very much needed.⁴

This development continued into 1886 and along with it an improvement is to be noted in Geography teaching methods at least in certain areas of the Province for D. McIntyre stated that, in Winnipeg, Geography

. . . had been studied with considerable success. It is possible so to deal with this subject as to couple much

¹Ibid., p. 15.

²Manitoba, Board of Education, D. McIntyre (City of Winnipeg), Inspector's Report quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1876: p. 14.

³Manitoba Board of Education, Rev. A. Matheson Inspector's Report quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1884: p. 66.

⁴Ibid., p. 67.

useful information and high intellectual training; satisfactory progress has been made in this direction.¹

While J. H. Morrison at Shoal Lake and Russel noted that

Most schools well supplied with maps. Some creditable attempts have been made in the construction of apparatus for the purpose of illustrating the fundamental principles of Natural Philosophy, Astronomy and Geography.

There is likewise a noticeable improvement in the method of presenting the subject of Geography. Many fine models have been constructed for illustrating the various definitions. Excellent outline and topical blackboard maps drawn with colored crayons are to be found in many of the rural schools.²

After these gradual improvements came the development of an official group of inspectors in 1888. However, it was not possible to notice any improvement in geographic education for Reports from now until 1890 were only printed in a condensed form on the recommendation of the Select Standing Committee on Printing.

No mention of any importance was made in the Catholic Board Reports in the whole of the time period 1871-1890. The main comments gave information only as to the number of students studying Geography and gave no information on methods or the status of the subject.

Examinations for Teachers 1871-1890.

From the inception of the Board of Education in 1871 until about 1882 most of Manitoba's teachers came from Eastern Canada. It

¹Manitoba Board of Education, D. McIntyre (City of Winnipeg), Inspector's Report quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1886: p. 42.

²Manitoba Board of Education, J. H. Morrison (Shoal Lake and Russell) Inspector's Report quoted in the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1886.

was not until 1882 that Winnipeg established a High School Department (students were over thirteen years of age) that provided courses for university matriculation and for instruction in teachers courses.

In the same year Normal School training was provided in St. Boniface while it was begun in Winnipeg in 1884. This meant that teachers needed to be certified and to do this they had to write examinations. This was true with Geography as with any other subject.

The oldest copy of teachers' examinations remaining in the Province is for the year 1875. As shown in examination I the type of geographic knowledge required to answer these questions was the memorization of a mass of meaningless details of place and location (capes and bays Geography at its worst).

By 1877 the teachers' examinations in Geography, as in the other subjects, were divided into three classes which led to either a first class, second class or third class certificate, depending upon the number of years of study the student had completed. The examinations only reflected the Examination Programme required for teachers. Here, for example, is the requirement for the first class certificate.

Geography--To have a good knowledge of geography in its branches. In particular, to know the boundaries of the continents, relative positions and capitals of the countries in the world, and the positions etc., of the chief islands, capes, bays, seas, gulfs, straits, mountains, rivers and river slopes. To know the form of Government, religions, and the natural products and

EXAMINATION I

GEOGRAPHY

Time--One hour and a half

1. Define Physical, Political and Astronomical Geography.
2. Mention the different countries of Europe, and any recent changes in the map of that part of the world; and give the principal cities of each country, distinguishing the capitals.
3. Trace the mountain ranges of Europe and America and mention the principal rivers, their courses, and where they empty.
4. What are the principal rivers, lakes, and capes of Africa; and the names of some of its great travellers and explorers?
5. What are the principal countries of Asia, and their exports?
6. Mention all the colonies and dependencies of Great Britain, the time and occasion of their acquisition, and their principal exports.
7. What provinces compose the Dominion of Canada? What are their chief cities, their rivers and lakes, and exports?
8. Give the different States and Territories of the American Union, showing those bordering on the Dominion of Canada; and mention the principal cities and towns in that country.
9. What are the inlets on the west coast of England?

SOURCE:- Manitoba Board of Education, Protestant Section, Examination of School Teachers, 1875.

manufactures of the principal countries of the world.¹

Typical questions are the following drawn from the January, 1877 Examination for the First Class Certificate--

1. Name the planets in their order beginning with that nearest the sun.
2. Give the diameter of the sun, the earth, and the moon; the distance of the earth from the sun and the distance of the moon from the earth.
12. Name the Colonies and Dependencies of Great Britain.
17. Mention the canals and principal lines of railway in Canada.²

Questions for the Second and Third Class Certificates were no improvement as can be seen from the questions that follow.

2. Name and trace the course of the principal rivers of North America.
6. Name the second rate powers of Europe with their capitals.³
2. Name the Continents and parts of the same, and the Islands found north and south of the Equator.
5. Name the principal rivers of Africa and South America, and state where they empty.⁴

By 1885 the influence of textbooks, such as that of Pillans

¹Manitoba Board of Education, Examination Programme for Public School Teachers, (adopted September 1876) quoted from the Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1877: First Class Certificate: p. 42.

²Manitoba Board of Education, Protestant Section, Examination for School Teachers, January 1877: First Class Certificate quoted from the Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1877: pp. 58-59.

³Ibid., Second Class Certificate: pp. 59-60.

⁴Ibid., Third Class Certificate: p. 60.

or of Page¹, were beginning to be reflected in the examination questions--

5. Where are the following found in the greatest abundance: gold, silver, coal, petroleum? Show by historical reference the effects of the discovery of these upon the settlement and wealth of countries in which they are native.
6. "Man's material nature, his religious sentiments, his poetic feelings, his love of liberty, his social government, are all less or more tinctured by the nature of his geographical surroundings."--Page. Discuss this statement.²

At least by now the students were beginning to be asked to use some of their knowledge to explain factors rather than just regurgitating a plethora of memorized facts.

Even for the Second Class Certificate some thought provoking questions were being asked:-

5. Why does the valley of the Amazon support so luxuriant a growth of vegetation?³

These statements, however, seem to be true for only the Protestant Section of the Board as the Catholic Section continued to ask questions which required only the memorization of facts.

Geographie--quelle est la capitale de l'Angleterre?
 Nommez ses villes principales. Où est située l'Egypte?
 20. Quel est l'objet de la géologie? Qu'appelle-t-on terrain d'alluvion, terrain de sédiment?⁴

¹Pillans, Physical and Classical Geography of the Ancient World. Page, Physical Geography.

²Manitoba Board of Education, Examination for School Teachers, 1885, First Class Certificate: p. 95.

³Ibid., Second Class Certificate: p. 100.

⁴Manitoba Board of Education, Catholic Section, Examination for School Teachers, 1885: First Class Diploma: p. 24.

Geographie--10. Que comprend l'Empire Britannique? Quelle est la capitale de l'Angleterre, de l'Irlande, de l'Ecosse, de la France? Dites un mot du climat de ces divers pays. 20. Quelle presque île est formée par la Méditerranée et l'Adriatique? Nommez sa capitale. 30. Qu'avez-vous à dire sur les antiquités de l'Egypte?¹

This remained the tenor of geographic examination until the end of the period under discussion. There was a continuation of questions which required only memorized information. However, questions, which made some intellectual demands on the students, in so far as they required the appending of historic information to the geographic fact, were beginning to appear.

Summary

During this period Geography, as a subject in the separate schools, flourished. This is at least true statistically if we consider the number of students taking it as a subject in the elementary schools. However, it suffered from the fact that its main characteristic was that of requiring the memorizing of facts. These large numbers of geographical places and physical features were usually only to be recalled for a particular examination.

The first decade of the twenty years under consideration contained, in the field of Geography, nothing more than the combination of statistical geography with political geography. During the second decade, however, two trends did begin to develop. Firstly, historical fact was added 'to make geography interesting' and secondly, with the development of Natural Science, Physical Geography began to become more

¹Ibid., Second Class Diploma: p. 25.

important. Geography thus had very little in the way of scholarly appeal and so students were never able to develop a real interest in the subject.

One of the major problems faced by Geography was that it was not possible to study the subject at University. This, combined with the fact that the teachers' courses in Secondary and Normal School were just a regurgitation of the textbook, meant that teachers were forced to teach from the textbook and thus perpetuate the uninteresting Geography with which they had been inculcated.

The inspectors were also unable to alter this situation. Until 1888, at least, they were usually only local incumbents and, therefore, had no deep knowledge of the subject. They, like everyone else, were isolated from all of the new developments in Geography. There was no time between 1888, when official inspectors were appointed, and 1890 at the end of the period under discussion, for any improvements to be noticed.

The textbooks were in use from 1871-1890 were generally reprints of earlier works that contained only a compendium of geographical facts on location and place. Towards the end of the period, added to the gazetteer like facts, were points of historical interest (to interest the pupils). None of the works, however, contained 'geography' which was likely to engender in the pupils studying them a quest for further knowledge.

It would, therefore, perhaps be correct to say that from 1871-1890 Geography, as a subject, in the schools of Manitoba stood still.

As in Eastern Canada and elsewhere it may actually have begun to regress thus paving the way for its slow development in schools in the twentieth century.

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY IN MANITOBA SCHOOLS

1891 - 1945

The year 1890 brought an end to the Separate School System in Manitoba with the abolition of the Protestant and Catholic Sections of the Board of Education. Many were the ramifications of this factor but it would not be valid to discuss them here for they had no effect on the subject of Geography which, along with other secular subjects, had been a total Board responsibility since 1871.

The reason for commencing this chapter with the year 1891 is its significance in the educational system of the Province of Manitoba. It was in this year that a committee was set up to organise secondary education. Prior to this time only elementary education (Grades One to Six) was recognized as a Provincial responsibility. Secondary education, however, had gradually crept in with the establishment of Collegiate Institutes at Winnipeg, Brandon and Portage la Prairie. These Institutes were responsible for preparing students for university entrance, while in most towns Intermediate Schools were established covering Grades Seven to Ten. In the early years of this period the Intermediate Schools trained teachers for the Elementary Schools. Successful completion of two years work gave the candidate a Third Class Teaching Certificate; completion of another year gave a Second Class Certificate; and the successful completion of a fourth year gave

a First Class Teaching Certificate.

This method of training teachers for schools changed with the alteration in Normal School training just after 1900. Grade Ten students then completed an eleven week course to qualify for their Third Class Certificate. Later after

. . . some successful teaching and the passing of Grade 11, they could return for a 20-week course and be licensed for life as second class teachers. In 1916, the 20-week course was extended to a full year and, in 1933, two summer school courses were added.¹

However, although many such changes did occur in the organization of the school system between 1891 and 1945 Geography continued to be taught by grades and consequently the methodology and the material taught were little affected by the fluctuations in the system.

Table 8 summarizes the state of the Manitoba School System as it existed between 1891 and 1922, while the proposed re-organization is illustrated in table 9. By 1923 however, the system had been re-organized into a pattern, as can be seen in table 10, which remained in being until 1945.

Geography Courses 1891-1945.

Despite the official recognition of the development of secondary education in 1891 no change occurred in the Geography courses. The material and methods of the past remained in vogue for the next five years until 1896. The educational philosophy of the Manitoba School System had its roots in England and was mirrored (with some

¹"Early Teacher Training in Manitoba", Winnipeg Free Press, 30 October 1971: p. 39.

TABLE 8

MANITOBA SCHOOL SYSTEM 1891-1922

Age	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
School year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Elementary															
Secondary															
Higher															

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education, S. E. Lang, Secondary School Report as quoted in the Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1916-19.

TABLE 9

MANITOBA SCHOOL PROPOSED SYSTEM 1891-1922

Age	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
School year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Elementary															
Secondary															
Higher															

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education, S. E. Lang, Secondary School Report as quoted in the Annual Report of the Superintendent of Schools, 1916-17: p. 212.

TABLE 10

MANITOBA RE-ORGANIZED SCHOOL SYSTEM 1923

Age	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
School year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Elementary															
Junior High Intermediate															
High School Collegiate															
Higher															

NOTE: No actual source, or table is available. However, the information given in table 10 was developed from information contained in the Department of Education, Programme of Studies for 1923 and succeeding years.

Canadian overtones) in Ontario. This of course, was to be expected as during these early years, many of Manitoba's educators had an Eastern Canadian or English background.

Geography Courses in Grades
One to Eight 1891-1945.

The year 1896 saw the development of new course outlines for Geography and was the first such revision of course content since 1885. These new outlines must have satisfied the needs of at least the educators, if not the students, for in the first eight grades the outlines were to remain unchanged until 1912.

The outlines for Grades One to Eight, shown in table 11, will be seen to reflect the geographic development in which Geography was

TABLE 11
PROGRAMME OF STUDY
1896

Grade	CONTENT
One	No Geography
Two	No Geography
Three	Development of geographical notions by reference to geographical features of neighbourhood. Elementary lessons in direction, distance, extent.
Four	<p>(a) Review work of Grade III. Lessons to lead to simple conception of the earth as a great ball, with surface of land and water, surrounded by the air, lighted by the sun, and having two motions.</p> <p>(b) Lessons on Natural Features, first from observation, afterwards by means of moulding board, pictures and blackboard illustrations.</p> <p>(c) Preparation for and introduction of maps. (Review of lessons in position, distance, direction with representations drawn to scale). Study of map of vicinity drawn on blackboard. Maps of natural features drawn from moulded forms. Practice in reading conventional map symbols on outline maps.</p> <p>(d) General study from globe and maps. The hemisphere, continents, oceans and large islands, their relative positions and size. The continents, their positions, climate, form, outline, surrounding, principal mountains, rivers, lakes, the most important countries, productions, people, interesting facts and associations.</p>
Five	Simple study of the important countries in each continent. The position of the country in the continent; its natural features, climate, productions; its people, their occupations, manners, customs; noted localities, cities, etc. Manitoba and Canada to be studied first. Moulding boards and map-drawing to be aids in the study.

TABLE 11-Continued

Grade	CONTENT
Six	<p>(a) The earth as a globe. Simple illustrations, and statements with reference to form, size, meridians, parallels, with their use; motions and their effects, as day and night, seasons; zones with their characteristics, as winds and ocean currents; climate as affecting the life of man.</p> <p>(b) Physical features and conditions of North America, South America and Europe studied and compared; position on the globes, position relative to other grand divisions, size, form, surface, drainage, animal and vegetable life, resources, causes determining growth of cities; inhabitants, their occupations and social condition; important localities, cities and towns.</p> <p>(c) Observation to accompany the study of Geography - apparent movements of the sun, moon and stars, and varying time of their rising and setting; difference in heat of the sun's rays at different hours of the day; change in the direction of the sun's rays coming through a school room window at the same hour during the year; varying length of noonday shadows changes of the weather, wind and seasons.</p>
Seven	<p>Physical and Political Geography of the countries in Europe and North America.</p> <p>General review of the physical features of the grand divisions; position of the countries in the grand divisions; surroundings, surface, climate, animal and vegetable life; resources; inhabitants; their occupations and social condition; important localities, cities and towns.</p>
Eight	<p>Physical Geography.</p> <p>General review of the continents with special reference to British Possessions.</p> <p>Topics as in Grade VII.</p>

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education, Programme of Studies as quoted from the Annual Report of the Department of Education, 1896: 4-11.

defined as "the study of the earth as the home of man".¹ This showed the relationship between man and the earth's surface and the ways in which it conditioned his daily life. These ideas followed the early ones of Friedrich Ratzel² when he developed his thoughts about environmental determinism.

As can be seen from table 11 no Geography was taught in the first two grades. This was, no doubt, a response to the way in which Geography was taught. The memorization of a large number of facts that had to be repeated was, even in the 1890's, not considered suitable for very young children. It was better that their "powers of observation and imagination should be called constantly into use".³ Consequently the teacher should make use of object lessons to "fix the children's attention and fire the imagination".⁴ This would then allow them to "begin to observe and find out things for themselves."⁵

These ideas were seemingly carried on into Grade Three when children studied Neighbourhood Geography and in Grade Four when, after a review of the Grade Three work, they studied, by observation and practical demonstration, the earth, the sun and their motions. Later they covered the natural features around them.

¹M. S. Vickerson, "Geography", Education Journal of Western Canada, Vol. I, January 1900: p. 266.

²Ratzel, Anthropogeographie.

³Vickerson, Education Journal of Western Canada: p. 266.

⁴Ibid., ⁵Ibid., p. 267.

A change in approach, however, is obvious with regard to the later part of Grade Four and the work through to Grade Eight. Here, supposedly, the student, being more advanced, should be able to allow his reasoning powers "to come into action, and less of the imaginative work will be necessary."¹ Whether the courses accomplished this seem doubtful for in Grades Four to Seven they were full of facts to be learned with respect to countries in different parts of the world. Unless the teacher was very skilful and knew his subject well it seems likely that all that would be required of the student was the memorization of facts and maps as had been the case in the previous twenty years.

Little or no difference occurred in Grade Eight for it was, in part, a regurgitation of Grade Seven. With regard to the Physical Geography, even though the introduction of this was possibly a response to American developments, it was little more than a mass of facts which, once again, had to be learned.

This organization of Geography courses continued from 1896 right through to 1912 without any major change occurring. Some minor changes did occur during 1912 but it is difficult to discover any reasons for them. It is possible that the re-organization was a response to the authorizing of another textbook in 1911.² However, it is more probable that it was a response to the further permeation of

¹Ibid.

²Alexander McIntyre, World Relations and the Continents, (Toronto: W. J. Gage & Company Limited, 1911): Alexander McIntyre was Vice Principal of the Winnipeg Normal School.

TABLE 12
PROGRAMME OF STUDIES
1912

Grade	Content
Four	Home Geography. The earth as a globe; day and night; seasons; the zones; continents and oceans from the globe and from the map of the world. Peoples with their occupations. North America and Manitoba. Map drawing from memory.
Five	North and South America and Europe. Canada and Newfoundland, Manitoba in detail. Map drawing from memory.
Six	Australia, Asia, Africa; particular study of the British Empire; the United Kingdom in detail; map drawing from memory.
Seven	Review work of Grades IV, V and VI.

SOURCE: Manitoba, Department of Education, Programme of Studies as quoted from the Annual Report of the Department of Education 1912: 12-20.

the Manitoba educational scene by ideas concerning the place of man in the physical world. These ideas had been in vogue in Europe for a few years and had possibly spread from there to the United States and Eastern Canada and thence to Manitoba.

As can be seen from table 12 the Programme of Studies thus developed resulted in Geography declining in importance for Home Geography had now disappeared from Grade Three and Physical Geography from Grade Eight.

This decline is a strange phenomena for, even up to 1902, the subject had continued to grow in importance. This can be gauged from

TABLE 13
SCHOOL APPARATUS

Year	No. of schools using maps	No. of maps	No. of globes
1889	487	1594	. . .
1890	509	1796	293
1891	567	1849	346
1892	586	1905	364
1893	611	2273	462
1894	704	2113	541
1895	759	2445	557
1896	804	2625	596
1897	809	3056	614
1898	852	3256	659
1899	927	3863	698

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education,
Sessional Papers, No. 23 as quoted from the Annual
Report of the Department of Education, 1899:547.

such factors as the increase in the use of geographic materials, an increase in the number of students studying the subject, and the comments of the inspectors.

For instance, an examination of table 13 shows the increased use of school maps and globes. A similar increase, upto 1902 is apparent when one examines table 14 which shows the total number of students studying Geography in Manitoba schools. These are in absolute numbers as no relative increase can be shown because the total number of students studying in schools is not always quoted in

TABLE 14

CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS

Year	No. Students Studying Geography	Year	No. Students Studying Geography
1886	11217	1896	24849
1889	15774	1897	26849
1890	15717	1898	28288
1891	18027	1899	29847
1892	19376	1900	31670
1893	17876	1901	32088
1894	21325	1902	34624
1895	25203		

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education:
Annual Report of the Department, 1903: p. 13.

the Reports.

The inspectors noted an improvement for, in 1899, they stated that

The subject of geography is slowly gaining a higher ground, but on the whole it does not receive the attention it deserves. There is still too much 'sailor' geography taught, still too many demands on the arbitrary memory. A serious mistake is being made by leaving primary geography to Grade III. There is just as much reason for beginning 'home' geography in Standard I, as there is for introducing reading in this standard. To the child the geography of the little area immediately surrounding him is pedagogically the most important part of the whole subject, and there is enough material here to occupy his attention for the first three years of his school life. If teachers would only attend to this part until a proper outfit of primary concepts and a sufficient skill in reading the language of maps were secured, the subsequent study of the world as a whole, the continents and the

countries would have some meaning.¹

However, an examination of the figures shown in table 15 gives possible indication that a decline may have been beginning. There was a distinct decline in the number of students studying Geography by 1903 yet there was an increase in the number of students studying the basic subjects of Reading, Writing and Arithmetic.

TABLE 15
CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS

Year	Number of Students Studying			
	Reading	Writing	Arithmetic	Geography
1902	51883	51886	50804	34624
1903	54855	54322	51183	32449

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education, Annual Report of the Department, 1903: p. 13.

In their comments the inspectors may also have come close to the major reason when they stated that "too much 'sailor' geography was taught, still too many demands on the arbitrary memory".² This is the first indication that there was dissatisfaction with Place-name Geography and that less value was being placed upon memorizing a myriad of geographic facts on places and products. This over emphasis

¹Manitoba Department of Education, A. McIntyre, North Eastern Division Inspector, Inspector's Report as quoted in the Department of Education Annual Report, 1899: p. 43.

²Ibid.

on memorization in Geography may possibly have encouraged the decline of the subject within the Manitoba curriculum.

The Grade Four to Seven programme was, with a few minor changes, to remain in effect until the 1939 revision of the curriculum. The first minor change occurred in 1916 with the return of Geography in Grade Eight. It was not, however, a change which would encourage the development of the subject. The only ideas the curriculum planners had was to develop a review of the work done in Grades Four, Five and Six (in other words a continuation of the work of Grade Seven) ad nauseam. It is possible that this development was encouraged by the 1916 Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association where Geography was viewed, by the curriculum planners, as a social subject dealing with man rather than as one of physiography.

The weakness of this development in Grade Eight, which just extended the Grade Seven material, was eventually realized and in 1923 there was a change which brought to the Junior High course (Grades Seven, Eight and Nine) which had only recently become established in Manitoba,

. . . an emphasis on geography as a study of mankind regionally distributed and controlled by geographic conditions.¹

This is a dual statement in that it first looks to Geography as a "study of mankind" and secondly, exhibits environmental determinism when it states "controlled by geographical conditions". The isolation of Provincial educators from the main ideas of geographic thought which were developing in Europe and the United States, would no doubt be a

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Programme of Studies for Junior High Schools, 1923-24: p. 5.

factor in the development of such types of statement.

In a 1918 article in the *Western School Journal* the author commented--

We had for subject matter in the old method of teaching geography, facts, fixed and ready made, given to the child as so much knowledge, thus destroying interest and giving false motives for true. This material was selected from the adult point of view, rather than for the purpose of developing the child The modern idea of geography is that it is an intensely human subject For the child it broadens his outlook on world affairs, on the occupations of people, it deepens his sympathy and enriches his life interests.¹

In 1920, Miss Egan stated that

The study of the earth and its relations to man, or, better, the phenomena of earth, air and sky as described in such a way as to lay the foundation for an intelligent study of the continents plus the physical features to show how physical environment affects man socially, politically and commercially, we must lay stress on the importance of a knowledge of geographical facts. When we consider that the greater number of children leave school at the end of the sixth year, we should be sure they have learned certain outstanding facts that are common language to everybody they meet in life.²

These two statements show two differing view points. One following the ideas of Dewey³ and stressing the development of the child while the second stresses the learning of important facts. Thus, the gamut was running from the study of mankind to environmental determinism and

¹Lily Harrison, "Geography in Grades IV, V and VI", Western School Journal, May 1918: p. 191.

²Charlotte Egan, "Geography Teaching", *Ibid.*, 1920.

³John Dewey (1859-1952), an influential American philosopher and educator. His educational philosophy became the basis for what is usually known as progressive education.

from interest centred on man to the memorization of factual knowledge.

In Manitoba the role of Geography was now relegated to a study of man and his relationship to the land in a world setting. The earlier ideas of Physical Geography remained as an integral part of the courses in the upper Elementary and Junior High Grades as did the descriptive overtones and the memorization of a mass of facts.

Physical Geography as a course, which had disappeared from the Grade Eight curriculum between 1900 and 1912 re-appeared in 1928 at the Grade Nine level, although it did so under the cloak of Science. The Science curriculum contained a section on Physical Geography but this was three-fifths of the course and covered the Solar System, the Earth's Crust--Rock and Soil, and Weather and Climate.

Such was the state of the Geography courses in Manitoba from Grades One to Nine in the 1920's. As can be seen from table 16 there was little change from those which had been developed in the curriculum revision of 1896 and they were to remain this way until 1939.

In 1939 the term 'Social Studies' was an attempt to link History, Geography, Civics, Economics, and Ethics and this linkage was "not a mere convenience--it has an actual significance of its own."¹ Along with this was the realization that each of these subjects need not be regarded as a separate entity but that "they are interdependent".² The new approach attempted, by encouraging "interest, activity and

¹Manitoba Department of Education, "Character Building, Citizenship and Social Studies" quoted in the Programme of Studies: Elementary, Grades One to Six, 1939: p. 87.

²Ibid.

TABLE 16

GEOGRAPHY COURSES IN GRADES ONE TO EIGHT

1896-1939

Grades	1896	1899	1912	1919	1923	1937	1939
One	Local Home area
Two	Local Home area
Three	Neigh- bourhood Geog- raphy	as in 1896	Homes Around the world
Four	Review of earth and its natural features	as in 1896	Home Geog- raphy North America Manitoba	Home Geog- raphy	as in 1919	as in 1919	Local Home area Around the world
Five	Countries and Contin- ents	as in 1896	North & South America Europe Canada New- found- land Manitoba	as in 1912	as in 1912	as in 1912	North & South America
Six	Study of the globe North & South America Europe	as in 1896	Austra- lia Asia Africa United Kingdom	as in 1912	as in 1912	as in 1912	Europe Asia

TABLE 16-Continued

Grades	1896	1899	1912	1919	1923	1937	1939
Seven	Europe North America Physical Features	as in 1896	Review of Grades Four, Five & Six work British Empire	as in 1912	Study of Man- kind	Africa Austra- lia	British Empire
Eight	Physical Features British Empire	as in 1896	. . .	Review of Grades Four, Five & Six Work	Study of Man- kind

NOTE: No actual source, or table is available. However, the information given in table 16 was developed from information contained in the Department of Education Annual Reports and Programmes of Studies for the years 1896 to 1939.

freedom", to realize that it is

. . . not sound practice, psychologically or physically to rule their bounds (referring to boundaries of History, Geography, Civics, Economics and Ethics) quite so rigidly as has been the custom. To change the figures, we hope to interweave the threads of historical associations with those of their related geographical and social considerations, to form a bright new pattern that will be definite significance in the mental and moral development of our pupils.¹

It was the intent of these new ideas about curriculum to

¹Manitoba Department of Education, "Character Building, Citizenship and Social Studies" quoted in the Programme of Studies: Elementary: Grades One to Six, 1939: p. 87.

. . . break down the arbitrary divisions of our school programme into 'subjects' as such, but also we hope by this new approach to produce a change of method in our teaching practice. We hope that the classroom teacher will regard each 'Unit of Work' as something that he himself is called upon to think about, and to develop in such a manner as will best arouse the interest and the individual efforts of his pupils; that they may be led to find out things for themselves and to desire to find out still more; that they may be encouraged to make such objects as will vivify their conception of what they are studying; and that they will be led to talk about what they have done and to discuss with their fellows the difficulties they have met.¹

No source is given for these new ideas about curriculum although the progressive aspects suggest Dewey's influence while the individual work reflects Dalton's² ideas. To accomplish these ideas there was a complete re-organization of the Social Studies curriculum from Grades One to Six. As far as Geography was concerned this meant that the material studied was as shown in table 17. This was still the basic material which had been covered forty-three years previously. The emphasis now, however, had somewhat changed although, even in 1936, Mr. H. McIntosh, who was then the Assistant Superintendent of Winnipeg Schools, stated that "the first question must always be 'What are the facts?'"³ Some material such as that which had previously been covered in Grade Six, namely a study of Australia and Africa, had, in 1937, been moved into the Junior High (Grade Seven) along with a review of the Canadian material of Grade Five and a development of some under-

¹Ibid.

²John Dalton an English educator.

³H. McIntosh, "Geography, Science and Social Study", Western School Journal, June 1936: p. 198.

TABLE 17
PROGRAMME OF STUDIES
1939

Grade	Content
One	Local communities and transportation in the local areas.
Two	Continuation of Grade One.
Three	Enlargement of the work in Grades One and Two. Food, Clothing and Homes in other lands. Animals.
Four	Local District, Local communities, Journey studies of Manitoba. Children in other lands. Understanding of the Earth.
Five	New World with reference to the rest of the world. North America. The Central Americas. South America.
Six	A study of Europe and its countries. A study of Asia.

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education, Programme of Studies, 1939:86-147.

standing of the British Empire.

In the same year the material studied in Grade Eight had also changed to that of

Geography of the earth as a whole. Study of Canada and the U.S. with special reference to the relations between physical conditions, natural products and industries.¹

This change, however, was only for students who were not taking two

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Programme of Studies: 1941.

languages (Latin and French) in this grade. Its significance was that only the weaker students studied Geography while the top students, who studied two languages, were now divorced from any further study of Geography in the High School that followed or in University where no such subject existed.

This organization of Geography set up in the last years of the 1930's continued through the Second World War and it was not until 1946 that any change occurred in the teaching of Geography from Grades One to Nine.

While there was no revision of content there was a change in the attitude of educators towards what had been the teaching of Geography.

Geography Courses in Grades Nine to Twelve
Including work of the Normal School--
1891-1945.

This title is used because Grades Nine to Twelve encompasses all High School work as well as Teacher Training as this was first covered in the Intermediate Schools and then in High Schools. Later came the development of the Normal School for the training of teachers. This was the highest academic level to which the study of Geography could be taken in Manitoba as there was, at this time, no course offered in Geography at the University level.

In the whole of this fifty-four year period Geography in the High School appears to have been in a terrible state of disarray. It was chopped, changed, and even ignored, within the educational system of Manitoba. No words appear adequate to describe the disorder which

was apparent in the subject. This disorder was not so much a product of what was done in the classroom but rather of the way Geography was handled by the Board of Education who moved it in and out of the various levels of the system with regular abandon.

In 1891 a Geography course was offered for the Teachers' Third Class Certificate. This course had a certain amount of Physical Geography in it but it was the material on "commercial geography which received the special attention."¹ Prior to this time Geography had been offered for the Second and First Class Certificate but this seemed to peter out and it was 1897 before it re-appeared as a First Class requirement. At this level it was of a physical basis, while the Third Class course continued as a course which was primarily commercial with a few physical overtones.

By 1903, however, Geography had disappeared from the Normal School while in the Intermediate School, which prepared students for the non-professional Third and Second Class Certificates, Geography had become a general world course. For the third Class non-professional Certificate the emphasis of this general course was on the British Empire while the Second Class non-professional course offered Geography as part of the Science course along with Physics and Chemistry.

This continued for a number of years and consequently Geography, without any revision, stagnated. This stagnation was noted by the Commissioners for Collegiate Schools who, in 1906, were moved to state

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Annual Report of the Department: 1897.

. . . geography is successfully taught though the school text may not be the best exposition of the subject. In the subject of general geography, that is the geography for third class and commercial students your commissioners are of the opinion that the present course is somewhat venerable and requires resetting along better lines. Your commissioners believe that a better course could be worked out a course that should help to lift geography out of the rut it has occupied for several years. Were such a course provided all junior scholars, students of the university courses, as well as others should be found in the geography classes.¹

The Geography course for the Second Class Certificate must have really been superficial for only "thirty class periods and ten homework hours"² were allotted to it. This superficial type of Geography did little to prepare teachers for the work they had to do in the classroom and it actually helped to perpetuate bad Geography teaching. This point was made in 1913 when M. Hall-Jones, one of the inspectors, noted that

Better results would be secured in geography if the teachers themselves were better informed in this subject. This end might possibly be attained by teaching geography in Grade 8.³

In 1912 Physical Geography was developed as a subject for teachers at the Grade Eleven level. This course, however, was only in vogue until 1913 when it was dropped from the system. Its brief life was, no doubt, due to American influence for Physical Geography was

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Report of the Commissioners of Collegiate Schools quoted from the Annual Report of the Department, 1906: p. 17.

²Manitoba Department of Education, Report of W. A. McIntyre, Principal of Provincial Normal School as quoted from Ibid., p. 24.

³Manitoba Department of Education, Report of M. Hall-Jones, Inspector of Division 20, as quoted from Ibid., 1913-14: p. 135.

Consequently it did little or nothing to improve the image of Geography nor to prepare the students who took it for anything in particular.

In 1919 a brief revival occurred and Physical Geography was given in Grade Eleven. It was, however, grouped as a Science subject with no attempt being made to relate it to a Social Studies programme. The course given covered the Solar System, Climate, and the Earth's Crust, and made use of examples from around the world. This revival, however, lasted for only four years and by 1923 the Physical Geography course once again disappeared from the Grade Eleven Science curriculum. It was shortly after this that the General Commercial Geography course also disappeared completely.

There was, however, some replacement of Geography (mainly Physical Geography with a few commercial factors) in the General Science II course given in Grades Nine and Ten after 1923. The demise of Geography was now almost complete at the High School level as the only course to be found amounted to less than half of the General Science II course.

It was four more years--1927--before a course in Geography was introduced at the Grade Eleven High School level and this was in Human Geography. It was so organized that it could only be taken by extra-mural female students so its impact, to say the least, was minute as there were few students in this category. The course was typically one which was built around the environmental cause (as one would expect) when it used a translation of Brunhes¹ book as a text) in that it

¹Jean Brunhes, La Geographie Humaine, (France, Paris: Librairie Felix Alcan: reprint 3rd ec., 1925.

attempted to show the "variety of human behaviours simply through the differentiation of the physical environment."¹ This was, no doubt, a result of the trend--first observed in Britain and Europe--towards modern Human Geography and broadened in North America by scholars such as Semple², Davis³ and Huntington⁴. In fact, Huntington's book⁵ later became the text.

Unhappiness with the almost complete absence of Geography from the Secondary School curriculum was noted by Inspector A. Moore when he stated that

Strange as it may seem Geography is not a subject in our Secondary School grades. Of course the History teachers have to teach it as they go just as Science teachers are compelled to teach arithmetic, neither of which might be altogether undesirable were it not for the fact that there is already too much History and Science for the time allowed (the strength of these two subjects having resulted from strong university departments). With our present overloaded curriculum there is no room for geography.⁶

As a response to this, by 1933, two Geography courses were developed for the High School. These were Geography II and Geography III which

¹Jan O. M. Broek, Geography Its Scope and Spirit, (Ohio, Columbus; Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., July 1965): p. 19

²Ellen Churchill Semple who first introduced Ratzel's Anthropogeography to America.

³William Morris Davis introduced professional geography into the United States.

⁴Ellsworth Huntington, 1876-1947.

⁵Ellsworth Huntington, and Sumner W. Cushing, Principles of Human Geography, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1920).

⁶Manitoba Department of Education, A. Moore, Report of Secondary Schools as quoted from the Annual Report of the Department 1932-33: p. 77.

were given in Grades Ten and Eleven respectively. This, of course, necessitated the Principles of Human Geography course (Geography IV) moving into Grade Twelve. Geography II was a "study of the Commercial Geography of the British Empire,"¹ while Geography III was an extension of the Geography II work dealing with "raw materials, manufacturing commercial centres and transportation."²

These two courses, at least in the first three or so years, were mainly taken as an option in city schools by the (academically weak) students. The Geography IV course continued along the lines of Human Geography but was still organized only for women teachers. This was to remain the situation in the High Schools through until 1945 despite the revision of the curriculum which occurred prior to the Second World War. This revision had no effect on the High Schools as its major thrust was towards the Grades One to Six level.

Summary.

To summarize the development of Geography as a school subject during this fifty-four year period is extremely difficult. This is due to the fact that there was no definite trend but rather a series of fluctuations in response to developments outside the Province as well as to influences from inside the Province. Those outside the Province were the ever developing geographic methodology begun in the United Kingdom, Europe and the United States, which permeated into Ontario and thence to Manitoba. The influences inside the Province were the result

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Programme of Studies, 1933.

²Ibid.

of the concerns of teachers and the responses of the Department of Education. In the early years--1891 to approximately 1916--the intent of geography in school was to deal

. . . with the present state of the earth's surface and its relation to man as affording him the means of subsistence and in many ways conditioning his daily life. Properly taught, the subject should expand the child's ideas and widen his sympathies; further the study of Geography should add to the pleasures of life by arousing an intelligent interest in natural scenery and phenomena.¹

However, due to the lack of training for teachers in Geography available in the Province, the subject continued to be taught by the old methods of teaching Geography whereby

. . . facts, fixed and ready made, given to the child as so much knowledge, thus destroying interest and giving false motives for true. This material was selected from the adult point of view, rather than for the purpose of developing the child.²

After 1916 the implication for the teacher of 'modern geography' was that of utilizing material which

. . . has been selected to meet the needs of the child. The modern idea of geography is that it is an intensely human subject.³

The subject, therefore, is supposed to broaden the outlook of the child

. . . on world affairs, on the occupations of people, it deepens his sympathy and enriches his life interest. He is given knowledge, too that will train his judgment and reason. Physical features are generally taught in such a way that climate may be understood, climate determines vegetation, which with other factors largely determines human life. We understand, then, why modern geography

¹Vickerson, Education Journal of Western Canada: p. 266.

²Lily Harrison, "Geography in Grade IV, V and VI", Western School Journal, P. 191.

³Ibid.

attaches considerable importance to the general elevation of a mountain range and to the position of and height of passes, which are the means of communication, and notice, not to the names and heights of mountain peaks.¹

This implies that Geography was now a study of man in relation to his physical surroundings. This is typical of the influence that had its roots in Ratzel's early ideas and was brought into North America by Ellen Semple and perpetuated by geographers such as William Morris Davis and Ellsworth Huntington.

This environmental influence was perpetuated through the 1920's in Manitoba. The Geography courses available had Physical Geography as a basis and attempted a study of mankind in its light.

F. D. Baragar, one of the leading Geography teachers in the Province at the time, fully concurred with this viewpoint for he stated that the fundamental purpose of Geography

. . . is to understand these relationships between man and environment in order that collectively and individually we may make better adjustments and thus attain a happier state of society. This fundamental purpose holds within it both cultural and utilitarian aims.²

He followed this up by stating that

There is such a thing as geographic thinking and it must be our purpose to achieve it ourselves and then cultivate it in our pupils.³

His ideas were typical of the American "environmentalist school" for his training came from the experts at the University of Chicago which was the University at which Ellen Semple had taught. Thus, Geography in

¹Ibid.

²F. D. Baragar, "Practical Public School Geography by a High School Theorist", The Western School Journal, May 1928: p. 186.

³Ibid.

in Manitoba was not

. . . simply a fact and memory subject, it is a training in thinking and a study of human adaptation.¹

These ideas remained as the basic tenets of Manitoba Geography courses through the early 1930's. By 1936 and later, however, some basic changes in geographic teaching had occurred. H. McIntosh described a basic philosophical change when he stated that

It is not profitable, I think, to attempt to explain the phenomena of man's activities on this earth purely in terms of either physical forces or social forces.²

He realized the interplay of human activities, physical forces and the tremendous range and variety of Geography's content. This perhaps was the first salvo fired in the development of a Social Studies curriculum for Manitoba. In 1939 it came into being and at least in name has remained every since (though in the middle 1960's History and Geography again became separate subjects). This was probably because there was

. . . no other field in the curriculum so broad in its scope, so abounding in rich material, and so stimulating in its demands upon the initiative and the enterprise of teacher and pupil alike, as the field that is comprised under the general title of Social Studies.³

The intent here was for Geography to contribute to the interdependence of subjects such as History, Civics, Economics and Ethics but each was not to be regarded as a clearly separate field of study. During the early 1940's this triggered off many arguments for and against Social

¹Ibid., p. 191.

²H. McIntosh, "Geography, Science and Social Study": p. 197.

³Manitoba Department of Education, "Character Building, Citizenship and Social Studies" as quoted from the Programme of Studies, 1939: p. 86.

Studies as a subject within the curriculum. However, no further changes occurred until 1946 when, after the conclusion of the war, new methods and ideas began to permeate the Manitoba educational scene.

Geography Text Books, 1891-1945.

Along with the consolidation of the school system came the introduction of a new Geography text to be used in Grades One to Eight. This text was Public School Geography¹ and it was utilised in Grades Five to Eight. The publisher supported its wide grade use by stating that

As the Public School Geography is intended for several years of study (extending over the whole Public School course) the earlier chapters of the book have been made very simple and have been couched in simple conversational language; as the book proceeds, however, the degree of minuteness with which the topics are treated increases somewhat, and the style becomes more formal and precise to allow of condensation of expression.²

It appears that the intent of the text was to move away from the methods by which Geography had been taught in the past. The authors realized that

The study of Geography; often the driest and most wearisome the pupil has to deal with, will always be so unless the Teacher "to his knowledge adds understanding" and presents the subject so that, while he satisfies the child's eager curiosity by offering to it well arranged facts, he also kindles the child's imagination, and thus makes possible the mental assimilation of these facts.³

¹Ontario Department of Education, Public School Geography, (Toronto: Canada Publishing Company Limited, 1887).

²Ibid., as quoted from 'To the Teacher'.

³Ibid.

It was their hope that the

. . . whole of the matter shall be presented to the pupils by the Teacher--not in a series of categorical statements to be accepted by the pupils without reflection and without comment, but in a series of conversations, consisting to a large extent of questions by the Teacher and replies by the pupils,--questions, not on what the pupil has consciously committed by rote from the text book, but on what he has obtained for himself, he knows not how, from the use of his eyes and ears and brain, ever since he began to observe and think;--conversations consisting, moreover, of volunteered statements which the pupils should be encouraged to offer, based on their own reading and research.¹

A new approach indeed for, prior to this, texts had mainly been gazeteers of geographical facts. However, this text was organized into forty-six lessons to be taught over a series of years. Each lesson was graduated from easy to more complex. The textual material ranged from a definition of Geography to the importance of direction, map drawing, maps, physical geography and finally a continental geographic survey.

However, because of the way the textbook handled its material there was no improvement over the Geography of earlier years despite the claims of the publishers. Each lesson was a series of numbered paragraphs with information appended and the student was expected to learn these. The addition of exercises and review questions for each lesson was definitely a distinct improvement over the earlier schooling which just required memorization.

This text remained until 1899 when New Canadian Geography² was

¹Ibid.

²New Canadian Geography, (Winnipeg: Clark Bros. & Co., 1899)

authorized to replace Public School Geography. The replacement occurred because of dissatisfaction with Public School Geography. As McIntyre said in 1897

The insufficiency of the textbook in Geography causes a difficulty in this department that ought to be removed.¹

This new text really was little different from the previous one in that it again adopted the approach of examining the Physical Earth and then went into a detailed study of North America, Canada, South America, Europe, Asia, Africa and Australia. Although originally written for Ontario schools it could, in fact, have almost been written for the courses taken in Geography in Manitoba schools.

Although the textual material appeared little different from the previous textbook it did move away from just a list of numbered paragraphs. There was also some improvement in the type of review questions it asked. A typical question being

Describe the Guiana highland. When does most rain fall on these highlands? Why?²

The first part of the question is typical of the old Geography but the addition of 'Why' requires the student to reason and use information. This was a distinct step forward. Indeed it moved Inspector Maguire to remark that "the new text in Geography is an inspiration to the teachers".³ However, as a text it was a distinct improvement. Its

¹Manitoba Department of Education, D. McIntyre, Winnipeg, Superintendent's Report as quoted from the Annual Report of the Department, 1897: p. 22.

²New Canadian Geography: p. 204.

³Manitoba Department of Education, T. M. Maguire, Inspector of Schools--North Central, quoted from the Annual Report of the Department, 1899.

style of presentation was certainly more readable than the book it replaced and with the inclusion of a large number of both coloured and black and white printed maps, and pictures it was almost certain to appeal to the interest of the students.

The text did have one drawback in that its vocabulary was advanced enough to make it difficult for students in Grades Three to Five to read. As reading of the text was necessary it was felt that there was a need for a more simplified book at the primary level. Consequently Our Home and Its Surroundings¹ was introduced in 1901 for Grades Three, Four and Five although New Canadian Geography was retained for use in Grades Four to Eight. The new textbook was only a small one with 139 pages plus a 12 page review section after it. The first eight chapters dealt with the physical elements of Geography while the remaining six dealt with resources, fauna, people, industry, government and maps. Each chapter appeared totally unrelated to the next. They were just a series of separate pieces of information, with no cohesive theme.

At this time there was also a textbook being used in the Grades Seven and Eight for Physical Geography². Unfortunately no copy of this text could be located. It is possible, however, that it may have been incorrectly named as were many of the early texts.

The approval in 1899, of this Physical Geography text would

¹Our Home and Its Surroundings, Morang's Modern Geography, Part I, (Toronto: George N. Morang & Company Limited, n.d.)

²Eclectic Physical Geography, (New York: American Book Company.)

probably be the result of the interest created in the late 1890's by the Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies in the United States. This Committee pushed for courses in Physical Geography to be introduced into the schools. It was, however, not considered very satisfactory for within four years it, along with Physical Geography in Grade Eight, had been dropped from the curriculum. As Physical Geography was omitted from the Geography curriculum so it was instantly absorbed as part of the Science courses in the Intermediate Schools.

In 1903 the use of the New Canadian Geography textbook had declined and it was replaced by Our Earth as a Whole¹ which became the authorized text in Grades Five to Seven. As its author implied

This little book is a continuation of the child's first step in the study of geography, as set forth in "Our Home and Its Surroundings." The same plan has been adopted and the same principles followed. The object has not been to produce a Gazetteer and an Atlas of the World, but to create interest and to stimulate inquiry.²

Its 257 pages contained many pictures, black and white and coloured maps. The maps being "clear, distinct and impressive"³ and the illustrations were "carefully selected, with the view of impressing facts and scenes on the memory."⁴

Its last forty pages contained review questions and a list of statistical information. Some of the questions were a great improvement over earlier ones for although there were some which said "Where is Winnipeg situated?" and "where is cattle ranching carried on"⁵ they

¹Our Earth as a Whole, Morang's First Book of Modern Geography, Part II, (Toronto: George N. Morang and Co., Ltd., 1902), comp. W. C. Campbell.

²Ibid., p. iii. ³Ibid. ⁴Ibid. ⁵Ibid., p. 219.

followed these up by asking "Why is that part of the country favorable for raising cattle?"¹

It also contained suggestions for extension work for the student--

Write to the office of the Canadian Pacific Railways Company for their illustrated circulars, in which are many views of western scenery.²

which the teacher could utilise or ignore depending upon the class he was teaching. This was to be the text for the next eight years until it was necessary to replace it in 1911.

Besides being necessary in the Elementary School textbooks were also used in the training of teachers. However, the Geography courses for teachers involved them in nothing more than a study of the textbook currently in use in the High Schools. This, of course, did nothing for Geography as a subject for it made the teacher familiar with the contents of the textbook only and did not train him in geographic concepts. It is small wonder that in 1908 Inspector Walker was moved to state

In geography and history I find that teachers are too much the slaves of text books.³

while Inspector Newcombe noted--

I devoted some time to an examination of the work done in primary geography and find that in many cases the teachers have no very definite aims.⁴

¹Ibid. ²Ibid.

³Manitoba Department of Education, E. H. Walker, Inspector of Schools for the Northern Division as quoted from the Annual Reports of the Department, 1908: p. 79.

⁴Manitoba Department of Education, C. K. Newcombe, Inspector of Schools for the Western Division, Ibid., p. 84.

This use of the current school textbook for the training of teachers continued through until 1910 with only one exception. This was the use, in 1903, of High School Geography¹. It was, however, used in the Science course for teachers who were taking their Third Class Certificate. Its use and the development of the course was due to the fact that

. . . the study of Physical Geography has made rapid advances; it forms part of the course of study in higher schools, and has its lectureship and professorships in various universities of the United States and Europe. It is recognized not only as an important study in itself, cultivating the habit of observation and of associating cause and effect, but also as an introduction, or rather as incitement, to the study of various sciences.²

This textbook, the study of which was part of the course, examined the Earth, its physical changes and features as well as the ocean, the atmosphere, and the Heavens in its 470 pages. There were also forty pages of Commercial Geography attached to the end of the Physical section of the text. Its methodology was similar to that of other Geography texts of the time. The book gave

. . . numerous facts, endeavors, in all the subjects dealt with, to keep principles steadily in view, to refer effects to causes to follow causes to effects to give theory as theory and fact as fact. But a book alone is not enough; field work is a necessity; facts from the out-door experience of both teacher and the taught are the very life of the subject. The features of the surrounding country, the phenomena of the air and sky that all know and speak of, experiments in the chemical and the physical laboratory along with its necessary adjunct, the stereopticon, must all be employed in the effective treatment of the highly important study.³

¹G. A. Chase, High School Geography, (Toronto: Canada Publishing Company Limited, 1903).

²Ibid., as quoted from the Preface, p. v.

³Ibid.

Important, however, was the stress which the author put on observation and practical work. If followed through by the instructor it could prepare a teacher well to teach Physical Geography.

From 1910 the Winnipeg Normal School, and by 1912 all teacher training courses, used as the Geography text A Complete Geography¹. The book may well be described as an improvement for now, instead of following a format of numbered paragraphs, it developed a typical regional textbook approach. It began by examining General Geography as a way of introduction and then moved into a study of each major continental area.

North America rated coverage of almost two hundred pages while each of the other continents, including Europe, rated no more than one hundred. Its treatment of the material was much more detailed than the students' text which, in 1911, was changed to World Relations and the Continent.² Consequently the teachers had the chance to be better prepared for teaching the subject than formerly. With twenty-four coloured maps of the physical-political variety--with the political part dominating it--it allowed the student teachers to work at some map study. An innovation in the text was the use of relief maps. These had been created by the technique of shading. By varying the shades on either side of a mountain range from light to dark it created the

¹A Complete Geography, ed., John C. Saul, 3rd ed., (Toronto: Morang Educational Company Limited, 1908) This text was also referred to as Morang's Complete Geography and later as MacMillans Complete Geography.

²McIntyre, World Relations and the Continents.

impression of varying heights. It was now possible to give an appreciation of areas occupied by mountains and those areas occupied by plains.

The development of this text was a response to the French tradition in Europe of Regional studies which Vidal de la Blache had pioneered from 1899. The text², although it considered physiography, no longer looked from the point of environmental determinism but used it as a way of focusing on first of all a continental area and then on to smaller regions--countries.

In the Science Course for student teachers Chase's book³ had been the text since 1903 but in 1912 the text was changed to Lessons in Physical Geography⁴. The author stated that

Each topic is treated inductively. The essential facts are first given, and the student is then guided to a knowledge of their causes, significance, and results. This plan makes it possible to avoid in some degree the vague generalizations which are characteristic of most text-books. The student is in possession of a sufficient number of facts to enable him to see the basis and appreciate the value of the generalizations which follow.⁵

An examination of the book proves that this was so. Typically, in the section on "the Land" the author discusses crevasses and then goes into an explanation of glacial movement which causes crevasses. Wherever

¹Paul Vidal de la Blache, 1845-1918, introduced "new Geography" into France.

²A Complete Geography, ed., John C. Saul.

³Chase, High School Geography.

⁴Charles R. Dryer, Lessons in Physical Geography (New York: American Book Company, 1901).

⁵Ibid., p. 5.

possible the author always follows up an explanation with a realistic exercise to help explain the basic principle. However, although the author states that he follows an inductive approach to Physical Geography he takes what, in comparison to the Morang text¹, could be considered a retrogressive step in that he follows ideas of environmental determinism. He states

Animals capable of being thus domesticated were entirely absent from Australia, and nearly so from America; hence the aboriginal inhabitants of these continents, with few exceptions, did not rise above the savage state.²

This text, though an improvement over the previous ones used for training teachers, was only authorized for one year and then it, along with the course in Physical Geography, was abandoned and ceased to be a part of the Programme of Studies.

Although 1912 was the year in which there was a re-organization of the Programme of Studies it was in the previous year, 1911, that a new textbook³ was introduced for use in Grades Four to Six. The author was Vice Principal of the Normal School in Winnipeg and the book was written by him in an attempt to solve what he considered a problem in the teaching of Geography in Manitoba. McIntyre stated that

. . . . the study of the "earth as a whole", in other words the study which was to furnish the child with a standard of geographical reference, has meant various things to different teachers. This want of uniformity was due in large measure to the fact that the geography of the Junior grades was outlined in the programme of studies, and the interpretation of the meaning of the course was left

¹A Complete Geography, ed., John C. Saul.

²Charles R. Dryer, Lessons in Physical Geography, (New York: American Book Company, 1901.)

³McIntyre, World Relations and the Continents.

entirely to the teachers, who, in the majority of instances, were teachers of meagre experience, and often most incompetent in geographical knowledge. Even where the teacher had this experience, it was no easy task to provide the right matter and the right method. The inevitable result has been that the geography of this grade has been but poorly taught, and the children have gone on feeling to the end their want of a proper geographical foundation. To meet the needs of the children and of the teacher is the main reason for the appearance of this book.¹

This statement closely sums up the situation Geography teaching faced in Manitoba and certainly suggests some of the reasons why, after this time, it went into a distinct decline.

The organization of the book is similar to that of Complete Geography² examining first World relations--General Geography--it contained a complete series of regional studies around the world. Complete with review questions at the end of each section it really was no different and contained the same methodology as Morang's Complete Geography.

However, it was successful enough to stand the test of time for, although its use was extended into Grade Eight by 1919, it continued for twenty-one years as the recognized text until it was replaced in 1930. The re-appearance of Physical Geography in Grade Eleven in 1919 required the adoption of a new textbook. This was High School Physical Geography³ which had been reprinted for use in Canada, with Canadian examples. As seems to be the norm it brought no change in the methodology presented. It was still a series of sub-headed paragraphs.

¹Ibid., as quoted from the Preface, p. iii.

²A Complete Geography, ed., John C. Saul.

³Grove Karl Gilbert and Albert Perry Brigham, High School Physical Geography, (Toronto: MacMillan and Company of Canada, Limited, 1918).

linked into a series of chapters. Each paragraph contained a description, too lengthy to be learnt by heart, but nevertheless the work of the course would probably be mainly memorization of the textual material. This was probably the case for the course and text were only authorized for four years and were then dropped from the Programme of Studies after 1923.

The development of Junior High Schools and the re-organizing of Grades Seven, Eight and Nine in 1923 brought with it a revamping of the Geography course in those grades. Instead of being just a review of the work in Grades Four, Five and Six it became a study of mankind. This occasioned the need for a new textbook which was satisfied by the adoption of Canadian School Geography.¹

This book with its 450 pages was perhaps first of all a Canadian text. The publisher stated that

To write a text-book from the Canadian standpoint has been the purpose of the present author. The subject matter, the comparisons, the maps, and the illustrations have the Canadian atmosphere.²

It included many teaching photographs, 256 to be precise, but the content unfortunately was almost encyclopaedic (factual only) with no real human interest. The text itself was divided into three sections. Part One, which accounted for one-fifth of the text, was the usual general geographic introduction whereby the Earth, the Atmosphere, the Oceans and Physiography were explained. The second section contained almost forty pages devoted to Commercial Geography. This part examined

¹George A. Cornish, A Canadian School Geography, (Toronto: J. M. Dent & Sons Limited, 1923).

²Ibid., as quoted from the Preface, p. v.

the production of plant products around the world. The third part, which occupied the largest part of the book (approximately two-thirds) was devoted to Regional Geography of the World. This regional section, however, was unbalanced in that North America and Europe were explained in detail while the other continents received perfunctory treatment. This did have the effect of giving the pupil a rather one sided picture of the world.

Until the middle twenties training in Geography for teachers--whether in early years via the Intermediate and High Schools or in later years via the Normal School--had always used the school texts as the basis from which to work.

By 1926 for the training of teachers courses used two texts which dealt with method rather than with content. These were Teaching of Geography¹ and Geographic Principles.²

Geographic Principles aimed itself primarily at elementary school teaching. The author stated that

This study of geographic principles in relation to the teaching of elementary geography was undertaken for the purpose of aiding teachers in the difficult problem of organizing the interesting and valuable facts of geography about fundamental, central ideas as a means of unifying, in a measure, the geographic knowledge presented to pupils of the elementary school³

¹Mendel E. Branom and Fred K. Branom, Teaching of Geography, Emphasizing the Project or active method, (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1921).

²Douglas C. Ridgley, Geographic Principles, Their application to the Elementary School, ed., Henry Suzzallo, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co, The Riverside Press Cambridge 1925).

³Ibid., as quoted in Preface, p. ix.

He began by defining Geographic Principles and factors and then used these in explaining ways of teaching Home Geography and the Geography of North America and its cities. It completed its teaching methodology by showing a way in which one could organize a study of one particular topic--the example used being the cotton industry.

This methodology is, perhaps, best explained by the editor when he said

The study of geography offers a larger and wider opportunity for a vital and comprehensive study of human life in its environmental relationships¹

This is born out by an examination of the book. For instance, under "Factors of Natural Environment" Ridgley remarks that

For the purpose of the study of geography this environment may be considered as consisting of nine factors; location, climate, relief, soil, mineral resources, the ocean, native plant life, native animal life, and other peoples. It is the function of geography to show how man's activities are influenced by these factors of the natural environment; how he used them; how he adjusts himself to them; how he modifies them to his advantage or disadvantage; and how his work is modified by their persistent influence.²

The Geography in the Normal School utilised Branom's book.³ It aimed itself at the 'New Geography' which emphasized interpretations as well as facts. The authors stated that they were "not primarily interested in geography as an academic subject"⁴ and that it was

. . . possible to organize the geography course of study in such a way that the dominant viewpoint will be geographic and at the same time will permit of the interpretation of material about life centres.⁵

¹Ibid. ²Ibid., p. 65.

³Branom and Branom, Teaching of Geography.

⁴Ibid., as quoted in the Preface, p. v.

⁵Ibid.

They were, however, concerned with teaching by the Project Method. To this end they suggested that the following methodologies would lead towards this approach.

- XIV. The Argumentative Lesson
- XV. The Topical Outline
- XVI. Journey Geography
- XVII. Type Studies
- XVIII. The Story
- XIX. Dramatization
- XX. The Project¹

If all these methods were applied to the teaching of Geography in Manitoba there is no doubt that it would have thrived. However, this perhaps was the time when geographic methods began to improve.

Both these books provided good support for teachers who having had previous weak geography training would have little background on which to base their teaching. Each author got around this by providing suggestions for further study which would help to give ideas to teachers.

Despite the slight improvement in the situation of Geography and the improvement in training it was 1939 before Geography teaching and courses began to re-appear in Manitoba.

This modern activity type of approach was noted during 1926 to 1939 because the Superintendents and Inspectors were prepared to comment on its usefulness. In 1935 Pincock stated

History and Geography lend themselves excellently to the 'activity' form of approach. Small groups of students may be assigned to secure information regarding various phases of a topic and this information later correlated into a coherent whole. In addition to some formal work in written expression the writing necessary in the

¹Ibid., as quoted from Content: pp. vii-viii.

complete treatment of the subjects mentioned forms the finest type of practice material.¹

In 1937 the use of the method was noted in the Department of Education Annual Report

In the upper grades of the Elementary schools the "activity method" is being used to advantage. For example in the teaching of Geography, "Transportation in Canada" may be the immediate subject of study. In place of simply reading about transportation and reproducing what has been ready, orally or in writing, the class undertakes the study as a project. Some of the class will search for information as to transportation during the days of the explorers and fur traders. This will lead to the drawing of maps showing routes taken; the calculation of distances of journeys and the time taken to make them; the making of birch-bark canoes; models of York boats, forts, Red River carts, etc. Another group will take railroad development; another transportation by river, lake, canal, and ocean; still another the development of motor car traffic including construction of highways. Lastly a group will study transportation by air naturally leading to a study of Canada's great mineral resources in the north. In this way the whole class working together will assemble models, maps, pictures and written work of their own which makes the whole study vital and real.²

Despite these improvements in the training methods for Geography teachers, progress in textbooks and courses was slow. In the High School after 1923 the only Geography available was in the General Science course and this General Geography used as a text Canadian School Geography³. It was, therefore, only a small extension of the course in Grades Seven, Eight and Nine.

It was 1927 before a new course in Geography appeared in the High School and this was in Human Geography. The book adopted as the

¹Manitoba Department of Education, J. C. Pincock, Superintendent of Winnipeg Schools, as quoted from the Annual Report of the Department, 1935-36: p. 94.

²Ibid., 1937-38, p. 113.

³Cornish, Canadian School Geography.

text was Huntington's Principles of Human Geography.¹ This book was originally published as a textbook for college use but was used at the Grade Eleven level in Manitoba because of its theme in which it

. . . organised a picture of world geography in terms of human activities with the "explanatory description" of the physical earth omitted or greatly reduced.²

As a text it attempted to do three things

. . . first, to set forth the great principles of geography in its human aspect; second, to provide a comprehensive, but easily taught text book for students who have reached an age when they begin to think for themselves; and, third, to furnish to normal school students and to teachers in elementary schools a book which will give them a solid grounding in the human relationship which they are eager to teach.³

In following these principles it had four main points of emphasis

. . . first, its concentration on human relationships; second, its emphasis on the effects of climate rather than upon the physical and meteorological sides of the subject; third, its inclusion of chapters on vegetation and diet, two subjects whose geographical significance has been largely overlooked; and fourth, its interpretation of political geography. This last part of the subject does not mean the study of political divisions, but of the political relationships, both domestic and foreign, which arise out of geographic conditions.⁴

Finally Huntington aimed to reinforce these points by putting them in a problem format to be solved by the students. Typical of this is a question at the end of the chapter on "the Earth's garment of vegetation".

¹Huntington and Cushing, Human Geography.

²Preston E. James, All Possible Worlds, A History of Geographical Ideas, Maps by Eileen W. James, (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1972): p. 375.

³Huntington and Cushing, Human Geography, Preface, p. iii.

⁴Ibid., pp.iii-iv.

7. A few years ago numbers of advertisements appeared in England emphasizing the advantages of rubber plantations in Burmah. Study the climatic maps and find out whether the climatic conditions justify such advertising.¹

The year 1928 brought the adoption of two new textbooks for the Grade Four to Seven Geography courses. The Book of Boys and Girls² was adopted for Grade Four and Public School Geography³ was utilised in Grades Five, Six and Seven. It was also adopted for use in Grade Eight by 1937. The Book of Boys and Girls was ideally fitted to the demands of the Grade Four course for it covered life in the home region and followed this up by examining the life of boys and girls in other lands. Public School Geography was really written as a text for the course and was to replace World Relations and the Continents.⁴ Both the authors were Manitoba educators so the organization of the texts followed the organization of the Programme of Studies that had been in vogue since 1912.

The first 176 of the 318 pages in the book discussed North America, South America and Europe and consequently were used in Grade Five. Pages 177 to 248 dealt with the Geography of Asia, Africa and Australia and were taken in Grade Six. This breakdown of the way in which the book was used changed for, by 1937, Africa, Australia and

¹Ibid., p. 276.

²The Book of Boys and Girls--a copy of this text has not been located.

³Robert M. Stevenson and Fred D. Baragar, Public School Geography, (Toronto: W. J. Gage & Co., Ltd., 1934).

⁴McIntyre, World Relations and the Continents.

also the British Empire were left to Grade Seven. By 1939 there had been a complete re-organization of its use so that North America and South America were studied in Grade Five. Europe and Asia were taken in Grade Six and Africa, Australia and the British Empire came into Grade Seven General Geography. Canada and the United States were then studied in Grade Eight. No matter which form of organization the course took the book was adapted to it and remained as the adopted text until 1945. Its format and approach were similar to that of World Relations and the Continents with facts being given under sub-headings though it had much more in the way of human interest Geography intermingled with the factual material. For instance, in describing manufacturing in Central and Eastern Europe

Manufacturing is carried on chiefly in Czecho-Slovakia, where there are coal and iron mines. In this latter country lumbering is a thriving industry in the forests which clothe the bases on the mountains, and the timber is turned into furniture, woodpulp, and paper.¹

It then followed this up in the same paragraph by stating

Large quantities of glass, china and metal articles made in Czecho-Slovakia are now sold in our stores in Canada. Many of the fancy buckles, brooches, pins, barrettes, and other ornaments that girls like to wear are made there.²

The book also contained maps, both coloured and black and white, and many teaching pictures. The length of time it remained as an adopted text may be attributed to the success of its geographical approach.

In an attempt to provide supplementary material for the

¹Stevenson and Baragar, Public School Geography: p. 167.

²Ibid.

Geography in Grades Seven and Eight Our World Today¹ was approved as a reference textbook. It was again a Human Geography text with links to History and other Social Studies. The book was

. . . organized into well-defined units. It is adapted both to the one-cycle and the two-cycle plans of presentation. Each unit is likewise organized into convenient teaching divisions which insure ordered thinking and correct interpretation on the part of the pupil.²

The idea was to appeal to a wide level of student ability by providing many questions and activities which were both graded and numerous. The format was similar to Stevenson and Baragar's book³ but the coloured maps were a definite improvement while the pictures provided excellent teaching material.

During the last two years of the war, from 1943 on, Public School Geography⁴ was not published and it became, in certain instances, difficult to get the authorized text. The schools were allowed to use New Canadian Geography⁵. Its approach, however, was simplified and dated so it was approved only until the revision of the courses and texts which came after the end of the war.

Only one other text that was used in Geography courses during

¹De Forest Stull and Roy W. Hatch, Our World Today, a textbook in the New Geography, (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1931).

²Ibid., Preface, p. iii.

³Stevenson and Baragar, Public School Geography.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Alexis Everett Frye, New Geography, adapted for Canada by I. Gammell, (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1917, c., 1925).

the period 1891-1945, remains to be discussed. This was Geography of Commerce for Canadians¹. It was used in the High School General Geography course which was developed in Grades Ten and Eleven after 1933, and the Human Geography course, which used Principles of Human Geography² as a text, became the Grade Twelve course. This General Geography course was mainly taken by the academically weaker students in the city schools and was developed as a response to a resurgence of interest in world commerce.

The technique developed by the author was to study Commercial Geography by taking

. . . a broader and more scientific view in which the commodities, industries, commercial cities, and transportation routes are the topics about which the facts of geography are grouped in a logical way. Since the pupils in high school have already studied the geography of the various countries, some of them several times, it seemed far better to select the second method, so that the pupils approach the subject from a fresh standpoint, and that the topics may be so varied that each will be studied in a different way.³

To accomplish this the author divided the text into three parts. The first 297 pages covered commodities and industries, the second section on commerce and transportation occupied 79 pages, while the third section consisted of 81 page covering a study of the British Empire.

¹George A. Cornish, Geography of Commerce for Canadian, (Toronto: Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons (Canada) Ltd., 1934).

²Huntington and Cushing, Human Geography.

³Cornish, Geography of Commerce for Canadians as quoted from the Preface, p. v.

The last section began by examining the physical aspects of an area and then the commercial activities.

The inclusion of 188 different maps, graphs and photographs made it a good text in the hands of an enlightened teacher. The Grade Ten and Eleven Geography course retained this text through to 1945 and it even managed to survive the revision of 1946 for a time.

All these texts reflect the change already noted in the Geography courses. With the coming of the European influence in the early part of the period, texts studied man in relation to his surroundings. The texts, which had at first been mainly physical in their geographic methodology, now began to develop a world regional approach.

The decline in Physical Geography texts was a response to the change from environmental determinism of the American school to the need for observation requested by the proponents of regional geography.

Examinations in Geography 1891-1945.

The term 'examination' is used very widely and ranges from written examinations which were completed by both pupils and teachers, to the examination of schools, pupils and teachers by the Department of Education inspectors.

The Reports of the inspectors, made while on their visits of inspection to the different schools, can, if examined chronologically give some idea of the problems being faced by teachers of Geography and also some information as to how the subject was being taught.

Examinations during the period from 1891 to the end of the

First World War, 1918, were marked by little or no change from what had been demanded in the previous twenty years. Questions were still being asked in the teachers' examinations which required just memorization of many facts.

7. Where, what and for what noted are: Melbourne, Nanaimo, Sitka, Archangel, Banana Point, Baikal, Singapore, Oklahama, Heligoland, Atlanta?¹

5. Account for the formation of the Solar system according to the nebular hypothesis. Name the planets in order of distance from the centre.²

These are two examples drawn from teacher examination papers and it can be seen that they require no understanding of concepts but rather just straight rote learning of facts, to be reproduced for the examination.

Even by 1897 little improvement had occurred for the First Class Certificate examination asked questions such as

4. What geological conditions produce springs and artesian wells?

7. Discuss the statement that each man in his life reflects the physical surroundings of the locality in which he lives.³

and

5. Where and for what noted are Johannesburg, Thessaly, Manilla, Delagoa Bay, Armenia?⁴

Two apparent trends come out of this. One is the domination of the physical form of Geography and the second is the appearance, particularly in question number seven, of a suggestion of environmental determinism.

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Examination of Teachers, July 1891, Geography, Third Class Certificate.

²Ibid., Second Class Certificate, July, 1893.

³Ibid., First Class Certificate, July, 1897.

⁴Ibid., Third Class Certificate.

With these trends it is obvious why, in the school classroom, physiography tended to dominate and why memorization of facts was the only way Geography was taught and learnt.

This is confirmed by a study of the Collegiate Entrance Examination for 1897 for these examinations were a culmination of the work done in the Elementary school. Typical questions were

2. Tell what you know about the earth's shape, size motions, and distance from the sun.¹
6. From what countries do we obtain the following:- coal, iron, cotton, rice, sugar, coffee, silk and opium?²

By 1908 no trend changes had occurred, for questions still emphasizing physiography were being asked and such questions as--

3. Mention the chief characteristics and give an example of two of each of the following:- plateaus, coastal plains, plains of subsidence and plains of erosion.³

and memorization questions as--

7. On a map of the United States marks, (a) the river systems, (b) the grazing, grain, mining and manufacturing areas, (c) the exact location of 20 important cities.⁴

were, in fact, continued until 1920.

During the same time span, 1891-1920, the inspectors, in their examinations of schools and teachers, exhibited concern over many aspects of Geography teaching in the classroom.

In the early years the ascendancy of Physical Geography was

¹Ibid., Second Class Certificate.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., July 1908: p. 183.

⁴Ibid., Third Class Certificate: p. 201.

noted when an inspector commented

. . . it is hardly possible to insist too strongly upon the value of map drawing as a means to the proper understanding of the subject. It is however gratifying to note that increase attention is being accorded to physical geography, to the gradual exclusion of the dry and valueless lists and definitions of the texts.¹

Perhaps more important, however, was the problem with facilities and equipment for the

. . . lack of an abundant supply of blackboards in so many of the schools is I fancy one of the reasons why this subject is not very successfully taught.²

while

The publishers of the geography should be asked to publish a Manitoba edition for our use which would give us a map of the country and reliable information prepared by some qualified person.³

Even in 1897 it was noted that

The insufficiency of the text book in Geography causes a difficulty in this department that ought to be removed.⁴

The problems of methodology were noted by Lang when he said--

There are many teachers and parents and trustees who still labour under the mediaeval notion that the boy is not being educated unless he is making himself unhappy over some wretched list of rivers or capes or⁵

¹Manitoba, Department of Education, S. E. Lang, Inspector of Schools for the North-West Division as quoted from the Annual Report of the Department, 1891: p. 135.

²Ibid

³Ibid., as commented by Rev. J. M. Wellwood, Inspector of Schools for North Central: p. 139.

⁴Ibid., as commented by D. McIntyre in his Superintendent's Report, Winnipeg, 1897: p. 139

⁵Ibid., as commented by S. E. Lang, Inspector of School, Western Division, 1899: p. 31.

By 1899 Geography education had begun to show distinct progress. It was realized that it should be started in Grade One:-

A serious mistake is being made by leaving primary geography to Grade III. There is just as much reason for beginning 'home' geography in Standard I, as there is for introducing reading in this standard. To the child the geography of the little area immediately surrounding him is pedagogically the most important part of the whole subject, and there is enough material here to occupy his attention for the first three years of his school life.¹

It was also realized that the ideas of home and place were basic to any child and they just had to be stimulated.

There was a growing realization that it was necessary to expend some money on equipment to facilitate the work of the Geography teacher for as A. McIntyre said

Modern schools should have, a set of the best maps, a good globe, a proper sand table, etc. Geographical charts purchased by some trustees should have been more wisely purchased.²

Money needed to be spent not only on equipment but on libraries for it was noted

. . . that in schools furnished with a well selected library these subjects are more easily taught and much better results are secured, than when there is no library.³

The conclusion drawn about Physical Geography in 1904 shows that it tended to be regarded as a Science.

¹Ibid., as commented by A. McIntyre, Inspector of Schools, North Eastern Division: p. 43.

²Ibid., p. 43.

³Ibid., as commented by T. M. Maguire, Inspector of Schools, North Central Division, 1902: p. 64.

Nature study (a new programme of study) has improved the work in Geography, a great correlating centre. Geography trenches largely upon the domain of natural science so that the child in studying geography must turn his eyes upwards and downwards.¹

This was typical of the trends of the time which leant towards the scientific aspect of Geography teaching. Perhaps this was really a response to the fact that Geography was still a subject of memorization and consequently was diminishing in importance, and had fallen into disrepute.

The emphasis placed on map study has been noted from the number of questions contained in the examinations but whenever inspectors visited the schools they always seemed to lament the poor work in map studies.

Geography is characterized by an almost entire absence of map study. The lessons are taught from the authorized text book, neither pupils nor teachers seeming to be aware of the necessity for accurate mental pictures of boundaries, places, directions, and distances.²

The problem was commented upon by A. C. Campbell when he said--

. . . it is remarkable that the classes in 75% of the schools can tell the capitals of most foreign countries and be ignorant of the capitals of Alberta and Saskatchewan. Nine lessons out of ten demand the presence of a wall map. Too frequently the teachers as well as the pupils cannot tell what maps are in the schools.³

¹Ibid., as commented by W. J. Cram, Inspector of Schools South Central Division, 1904: p. 43.

²Ibid., as commented by T. M. Maguire, Inspector of Schools, North Central Division, 1907: p. 469

³Ibid., as commented by A. C. Campbell, Inspector of Schools, South Central Division, p. 493.

Inspector Fallis also commented that

. . . in the teaching of geography not enough attention is given to map and globe study. The teachers make the mistake of using the text book too much in class.¹

This promotion of map study and the continuation of the idea of the memorization of facts was encouraged in the 1908 Department Report which stated that

There is, after all, much to be said for the old fashioned map study and memorizing of names. . . . children can draw from memory maps fairly accurate in outline of the land bodies and know and can locate place, etc²

The fact that map study and name memorization were still in vogue by 1914 can be observed from the comments of Superintendent Gamey of Portage la Prairie.

Geography and history are both better taught then heretofore. In the former improvement has been made by greater use of the memory maps, and also by actually memorizing the names and learning the location of important places or geographical features.³

With the tremendous encouragement, between 1891 and 1916, given by the inspectors to the improvement of map study skills and the use of maps there was a great increase in the number of maps and globes used in schools.

In 1890 the ratio of maps to schools, as can be seen from table 18, was approximately just over two maps to each school. This had risen, by 1916, to just over three maps per school. At the same time

¹Ibid., as commented by A. B. Fallis, Inspector of Schools, North Central Division, 1908: p. 92.

²Ibid., as commented by A. W. Hooper, Inspector of Schools, Brandon: p. 73.

³Ibid., as commented by Superintendent Gamey, City of Portage la Prairie, 1914: p. 72.

TABLE 18
SCHOOL EQUIPMENT

Year	No. districts organised	No. schools open	Schools using maps	No. maps used	No. globes used
1890	719	712	509	1796	293
1895	956	982	759	2445	557
1900	1147	1352	972	3935	747
1905	1360	1761	1192	7049	971
1910	1551	2227	1347	8344	1263
1915	1805	2727	1477	9368	1394
1916	1835	2888	1478	9825	1517

SOURCE: Manitoba, Department of Education Annual Report, 30 June 1916, p. 31.

the number of globes used increased from about one globe to every three schools to one globe for every two schools. A small but significant improvement.

Despite these improvements Inspector Hatcher was moved, in 1917, to state that

About six schools added globes or maps or both. Too many of the schools are poorly equipped in this respect, but I have given definite instructions to a large number of Trustee Boards and I am hopeful of an improvement in the near future. Geography is taught well in a limited number of cases and in a number it is impossible to teach it well owing to the lack of the necessary equipment. However, I am looking for an improvement in the fall.¹

¹Ibid., as commented by A. J. Hatcher, Division No. 7., Brandon: p. 67.

By 1920 the examination began to show that the regional approach was now established as an integral part of Geography, as can be seen from the question taken from an Entrance Examination Paper.

1. Describe briefly, under the following heads, one of the following countries: India, United States, or France, as to:
 - (1) position, extent and population.
 - (2) climate, products and industries.
 - (3) government.¹

Similarly a question from the Commercial Diploma examination asked

2. Write a geographical note on one of the following countries: Brazil, Japan, France, Russia, India. Use the following topics; (1) position, (2) surface, (3) climate, (4) industries, (5) products, (6) commerce and cities.²

At the same time the interest in and development of commerce was also reflected for questions such as

1. What geographical conditions favor the growth of the following Canadian Cities as great industrial or commercial centre: Winnipeg, Hull, Hamilton, Regina, Sherbrooke, Ft. William.³
4. Where do the people of Manitoba obtain salt, gasoline, coal, oil, sugar, cotton goods, currants, olive oil, shingles, and halibut? In each case state the locality or localities particularly. What becomes of our surplus wheat, fish, cattle and furs respectively.⁴

were being asked.

In Grade Eleven, however, where the emphasis at this time was on Physical Geography, the questions were still very much a matter of

¹Ibid., Entrance Examination, 1920: Geography.

²Ibid., Commercial Diploma, 1920: Geography.

³Ibid., Grade Nine Examination, 1920: Geography, p. 1.

⁴Ibid., p. 2.

regurgitation of memorization of detail. Typical is the following question.

7. State the Nebular and the Planetesimal theories of the formation of the Solar System.¹

None of the questions, in fact, required any inductive thinking.

Geography had declined to such a point that there was very little in the elementary schools; none in the Junior High, except for a little in General Science; and only one limited Human Geography course in the High School.

By 1927 only the Geography entrance examination to the Collegiate remained as a guide to the trends of Geography. The emphasis was on map study for of the fourteen questions asked in this entrance examination eight involved some type of map work. They also still demanded memorization for one of the questions asked

2. After each of the following towns or cities write the name of the river on which it is situated:²

then appended eighteen names each of which had a space for the river to be written. Another question followed this up by asking the student to "name three minerals that have been found in Manitoba."³

With the regional approach established at the elementary level, the commercial material found its way into the High School programme in Geography II and III. The fact that its base was commercial can be seen from such questions as

¹Manitoba Department of Education Grade Eleven Examination, 1920, Physical Geography: p. 1.

²Ibid., Entrance Examinations, 1927, Geography: p. 1.

³Ibid., p. 7.

4. Give six reasons for Britain's commercial greatness.¹

and

9. Account for the commercial greatness of any two of the following places: Singapore, New Orleans, Montreal, Yokohama.²

That this examination was for weaker students is shown by the type of question that really required no detailed thought processes to answer it.

It was really left to the Grade Twelve Geography examination to display examples of the trends which were apparent in the geographic academic work:-

1. Write a full description of the life of the "Khirghiz" of Central Asia. Indicate how they are to a great extent controlled by their environment.³

This question showed the effects of environmental determinism which, by this time, was on the decline while the influence of Huntington's climatic inference were apparent in another question on the same paper which asked

7. "Climate largely determines the number of people in a given region". Explain this quotation from the textbook. Give three examples where climate has encouraged a dense population, three examples where it has prevented dense settlement, and three examples where in spite of an adverse climate, people have lived in considerable numbers.⁴

¹Manitoba, Department of Education, High School Examination Board, Geography I Examination, 1936: Paper No. 57.

²Ibid.

³Manitoba, Department of Education, High School Examination Board (Representing the Department of Education and the University of Manitoba) June 1938: Geography.

⁴Ibid.

Although the questions did require more detailed thought they still did not require much in the way of inductive and deductive thinking.

By 1945, however, this trend was changing for now questions required a higher level of thinking from the student. Such as:-

6. Why has Canada become a leader among "fur producing" nations? Name four other countries that specialize in either wild furs or ranch produced pelts.¹

6. Explain the importance of sheep as a source of food and clothing. Why have Australia and South Africa rapidly become important sheep raising countries? Why has the manufacture of woollens become a leading industry in Lancashire? Why is the wool grower not subject to the depressing competition that exists among the producers of raw cotton?²

Though these questions had just begun to be developed at the end of the period under discussion it augured well for the future growth and improvement of the subject.

Within the schools between 1920 and 1945 the inspectors were concerned mainly with the way Geography was taught for by now facilities and equipment had improved considerably. The period 1920 to 1930 was one of a decline for Geography, so much so that in 1930 Inspector Moore stated

A year ago I reported that civics and geography were not receiving due attention in the Secondary Schools of Manitoba. At that time I hesitated to make a recommendation that general knowledge as a subject should be made a part of the curriculum in each grade of our Secondary Schools, but now I am convinced that such should be included - not haphazard material but definitely organised every day

¹Ibid., June 1945: Geography Grade Eleven, Paper No. 4.

²Ibid., Geography Grade Twelve, Principles of Human Geography Paper No. 29.

knowledge that everyone is expected to know. The average High School student is woefully ignorant along this line.¹

While in 1932

Geography should find a place without further delay. The pupils know little or nothing of even the geography of their own Province.²

In his Secondary School Report of 1933 he further stated--

With our present overloaded curriculum there is no room for Geography.³

By 1936, however, the work of the Normal School was helping improve Geography teaching and learning with the general acceptance of the activity method.

History and Geography lend themselves excellently to the 'activity' form of approach. Small groups of students may be assigned to secure information regarding various phases of a topic and this information later correlated into a coherent whole. In addition to some formal work in written expression the writing necessary in the complete treatment of the subject mentioned forms the finest type of practice material.⁴

The teachers also showed an improvement in the utilization of visual aids to improve their teaching for

All make some use of visual aids to instruction. Most of them are equipped with lanterns, film-slide machines, or opaque projectors and some make regular use of 16 mm motion picture projectors.⁵

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Report on Secondary Schools, by A. Moore of Southern Division, as quoted from the Annual Report of the Department, 1930.

²Ibid., Report of the Inspector, p. 55.

³Ibid., as commented by A. Moore: p. 77.

⁴Ibid., as commented by J. A. Pincock, Superintendent of Winnipeg Schools: p. 94

⁵Ibid., as commented in the Report of the Intermediate Schools.

The inspectors even put in a plea for the installation of radios--

If radios could be installed in our schools and especially in the outlying rural schools where there is very little contact with the outside world, they would aid in broadening the pupils outlook by keeping them in touch with current events and opening up to them a new world of interest which would materially help them in their studies in History and Geography.¹

During the last five years of the period under review teaching appeared to stagnate. A major reason for this was that many experienced teachers were away at the war as well as the fact that Geography was no longer considered a separate subject and was no placed under the heading of Social Studies.

This was noted in 1944 when

In this subject-field progress is being made in most schools but there is still a good deal of confusion in the minds of teachers. The best teachers have always taught and now teach history and geography from the social view point; others with limited background find it difficult to present the work except as factual. It is encouraging, however, to read the inspectors' reports and find that better work is being done in this important field. The project method is being used to a certain extent and the work is more and more being related to other subjects. There is a feeling on the part of many teachers that their should be an authorized text or texts; others would be satisfied with a specific outline of work to be covered. The effect of either would be the placing of limitations on the teacher and the removal of the freedom which now is the teacher's.²

So stood Geography at the end of a fifty-four year period of fluctuation as a subject within the organised curriculum.

¹Ibid., Report on Radio and Visual Education, B. Warkentin: p. 27.

²Ibid., Annual Report of the Department, 1943-44: p. 27.

Summary.

In 1891 Geography in the schools was still permeated by the ideas of the British Geographers which had caused the subject to be taught in a dull and laborious way. The teachers were in the main untrained, almost without exception uninspired in their work. They described enormous lists of places and products which the pupils were supposed to memorize.

This method did not make Geography very interesting as a subject so it was no surprise when Physical Geography was grabbed as the panacea which would make Geography interesting. This was a trend initiated in Europe by Ratzel¹ whose original ideas were brought to North America by Ellen Semple and then enlarged on into the American tradition of Physical Geography by William Morris Davis.

There was then a gradual demise of Geography in Manitoba as the field of Physical Geography was no more fruitful than that of the British tradition a decade or two earlier.

By the 1920's several trends were becoming apparent in Manitoba. First there was a gradual development in Commercial Geography as a response to a need for increased world knowledge. Secondly ideas of environmental determinism began to permeate the Geography courses reflecting the approach to Geography in the United States and Eastern Canada. Thirdly, the French regional study tradition became firmly established in the elementary school.

Between 1920 and 1930 Geography as a subject went into a decline

¹Ratzel, Anthropogeography.

in Manitoba schools and it was the middle of the 1930's before it began to blossom again as a response to a trend from Europe and had established itself as a reaction to the United States Physical Geography school. This development of Human Geography with environmental overtones was encouraged by the acceptance here of the ideas of Brunhes¹ and later Huntington.²

This seemed to prepare the way for the acceptance of the ideas of the Social Studies proponents and by 1939 Geography in the schools of Manitoba had become part of the Social Studies programme and was to remain in the shadow of History from then until the middle of the 1960's.

¹Brunhes, La Geographie Humaine.

²Huntington and Cushing, Principles of Human Geography.

CHAPTER 6

DEVELOPMENT OF GEOGRAPHY IN MANITOBA SCHOOLS

1946 - 1968

Before entering into any discussion on the position of Geography in Manitoba programmes during this time period it will be useful to first examine the aims and objectives of Geography teaching in the late forties as they were expressed in the Unesco Handbook,¹ as this, perhaps, sets the stage from which to consider the geographic curriculum in Manitoba at this time.

The function of Geography is to train future citizens to imagine accurately the conditions of the great world stage so as to enable them to think wisely about political and social conditions in the world around them.

Human life on the earth cannot be understood without reference to its setting and some knowledge of the geography of the whole world is required in order to understand the problems of today.

The urgent need to study the world stage and not only the national scene is due to the growing interdependence of peoples in all parts of the earth.

The participants of the Unesco Seminar concluded that there were four main purposes for which geography might legitimately be taught; to encourage children to think for themselves, to prepare them for one of the many careers which demand a knowledge of geography, to increase their enjoyment of leisure-time occupations such as reading or travel, and lastly to provide a training in world citizenship or in other words to create a spirit of international understanding and goodwill.

¹N. V. Scarfe, Handbook of Suggestions on the Teaching of Geography, (Paris, France: Unesco, 1950): pp. 6-7.

This lengthy quotation stresses that distinct emphasis should be placed on the following objectives:-

- (1) Developing high ideals in Citizenship and Democracy
- (2) Increasing geographic knowledge
- (3) Growing interdependence of people in various parts of the world
- (4) Improving the child's judgement
- (5) Increasing the reading vocabulary or ability
- (6) Promoting of international goodwill.¹

All things considered it seems that possibly there are nine major aims which should be fostered in the teaching of Geography in the Elementary Schools.

- (1) Enable the child to understand the effects of location and physical environment on human life.
- (2) Increase the child's reading vocabulary.
- (3) Widen the child's comprehension of distant places and people and the problem of the interaction of people and places.
- (4) Make travel more interesting and enjoyable.
- (5) Develop skill in the use of maps, graphs, diagrams and in reading books, periodicals and other sources of information.
- (6) Develop responsible citizens who can solve some of their daily problems and live cooperatively in their community whether nearby or far away.
- (7) Develop desirable social attitudes as critical judgement, tolerance, respect and loyalty wherever they may be.
- (8) Help in the preparation of the child for certain careers or vocations of life.
- (9) Help to develop international goodwill.²

These objectives should feature in some way in the aims of any elementary geography course. Certainly they can fit other courses but this is not detrimental to Geography. The wider the scope the more

¹Harper, A Comparative Study of Elementary Geography Programs in Various parts of Canada: pp. 12-13.

²Ibid., pp. 13-14.

geographers who will be able to find favour with them.

The term 'Social Studies' is used here to help readers to relate to the Programme of Studies as it was actually developed. The contents of the courses are then analysed with reference to first the Social Studies in general and then Geography in particular.

Social Studies Courses.

Following the end of World War II an examination of the Programme of Studies occurred though, of necessity, change occurred slowly.

During 1946, in the elementary field, a curriculum revision, under R. M. Stevenson, Inspector of Schools, was begun. This was "whole heartedly supported by members and teachers"¹ who helped with its implementation by the year of 1947.

From the point of view of the Social Studies there was no change from the Programme of Studies from 1939. In fact, even if there had been, the impact on the pupils would probably have been very slight. This was born out by the Inspector's Report of 1946 when it stated:-

. . . although the social studies was gradually improving as a subject it suffered from teachers who had very little ability and this engendered a general lack of interest in the subject by both teachers and students.²

In 1947 the inspectors reported that the

. . . new ideas behind social studies are being understood gradually though much more use should be made of globes

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Annual Report of the Department, 1946.

²Ibid.

and maps. The tendency is for teachers to place too much stress on work books and they neglect oral and practical work.¹

Technological improvements had not yet had a great impact on the teaching in schools for "only a few schools have radio while some-- Benito and Swan River--have just received projectors."²

Consequently geography was still tied to the book and learning of factual material was uppermost in the aims of many teachers.

There were, however, an enlightened minority of teachers who were attempting to widen the scope of children's understanding.³

From June 1948 through to June 1950, notes of concern were everywhere obvious, with reference in many places to the general overall unhappiness with what was occurring in Elementary Social Studies.

In 1948 the Inspectors reported that

. . . schools lack sufficient reference for the Social Studies program and there is still some uncertainty as to what the teacher is trying to do when teaching social studies.⁴

By 1949 it was noted, once again by the Inspectors, that

. . . there was a general feeling that the social studies course in Grades V and VI were not well co-ordinated and that it was difficult to complete the prescribed courses in Grades I to III.⁵

¹Ibid., 1947. ²Ibid.

³Vic Dotton, private interview held at J. Dafoe School, Winnipeg, Manitoba, June 1971.

⁴Manitoba Department of Education, Annual Report of the Department, 1948.

⁵Ibid., 1949.

However, by 1950 a few more "enlightened" teachers were

. . . following a less rigid approach to social studies. It is an approach which would seem to make possible the pooling of constructive aptitudes while it demands imagination, skill and courage on the part of the teacher to bring unity to heterogeneous material and to establish clearly the inter-relation of material from geography, history, science, language etc.¹

This was the depressing situation facing elementary curriculum revision personnel in 1949-50 and it culminated during the year in the re-writing of the booklet Introduction to the Social Studies² and its issuance in printed form. Due to the difficulties in teaching Social Studies the Committee stated that

. . . it has attempted to sort out the main source of difficulty which children experience in the field of social studies. The committee felt that many teachers were concerned about the lack of specific guide lines to guide their teaching, but in itself the Committee opposed a line which would act as a straight jacket.³

In actuality only minor adjustments were made in the content from the previous years for the general material of the course was unchanged. The changes were for the most part the organization and presentation of the outline.

A more detailed study of the programme from Grades One to Six is now necessary for it was in operation for a minimum of sixteen years, in some grades longer, from 1950 to 1966 having been reprinted in 1959 and 1961 without any change in content or organization. It

¹Ibid., 1949.

²Manitoba Department of Education, Introduction to the Social Studies: 1950, reprinted 1959, 1961.

³Manitoba Department of Education, Annual Report of the Department, 1950.

consequently had a long term formative effect on the attitudes of students towards Social Studies with a perpetuation of points good and bad.

In Grades One and Two the child's experiences in home and school were used in an endeavour to develop social attitudes, inter-dependence, and essential insights and attitudes. Grade Three work was really a continuation of this scheme with its examination of community living. Many of the objectives were the same as in Grades One and Two but there was added at least one which referred to different ways of living. The approach in all these three grades was informal with a distinct aim at motivation of the student by using his interests wherever possible.

Grade Four, however, had an emphasis on how other people live, but it also suggested the necessity of studying the Geography of the regions. This is obvious from the course objectives which aimed

- (1) to help pupils develop and understand the size of the earth and its land and water masses,
- (2) to show pupils how location on the earth affects human life
- (3) to emphasize the influence of the position of the sun in the regions studied,
- (4) to teach pupils the meanings of simple symbols which are used to represent geographic features on globes and maps,
- (5) to develop skills in map reading,
- (6) to develop the basic skill in reading for meaning,
- (7) to develop an understanding of how people in one region of the world are dependant on those of another region,
- (8) to promote attitudes of world mindedness, respect for others, co-operation and inter-cultural understanding.¹

¹Harper, Comparative Study of Elementary Geography Programs.

Grade Five, however, had a historical approach and although one needs to understand the Geography of a country to understand its history, it seems very doubtful that relationships between the two would be drawn as few teachers, particularly at the elementary level, would have any geographic understanding at this time because of the lack of training in Geography after High School.

The Grade Six course, however, was just the opposite in that it was a study of Geography of the Americas with a distinct emphasis on Canada. It looked particularly at various occupations and livelihoods and stressed seven main objectives:-

- (1) to help pupils acquire information about the geography of the Americans in general, and Canada in particular,
- (2) to study the physical features, climate, people and industries of Canada,
- (3) to help pupils acquire knowledge and understanding of how people of Canada earn their living,
- (4) to develop an understanding of the position of Canada with respect to her neighbours and other countries of the world,
- (5) to develop understanding of the relationship between the historical development and geographical nature of the country,
- (6) to promote a sense of pride in Canadian citizenship and the desire to keep our democracy strong and healthy,
- (7) to promote the belief that co-operative action between racial and religious groups can bring about peace, prosperity and happiness.¹

Overall, however, in the Elementary Social Studies curriculum the major aim was to teach the integrated subject of Social Studies and not to aim separately at History or Geography. A closer examination of the course is perhaps warranted for this will give a much better in-

¹Ibid., pp. 86-87.

sight into the thinking of the times as to how the material should be taught in the elementary grades.

There is an attempt to present to the children--most of them between the ages of six and eleven--a series of experiences, by far the greater number of which are vicarious, that is enjoyed by them through imagined participation in the experience of someone else.

Except in the case of the very earliest grades when the pupils' attention is directed to their immediate environment, most of the units into which the courses are divided deal with other times and other places. The beginnings of history may be seen as early as Unit Two of the third grade when such things as the lake house, the castle, and the log house are discussed; the beginnings of geography in the same Unit with the discussion of an Arab tent, the pueblo, the igloo and the "paper" houses of Japan.¹

In Grades Four subject matter began to assume greater importance. The units outlined for the course were geographical with a strong emphasis upon the effect of environment upon the lives of men. In this grade the pupils made the Copernican discovery that the earth is not flat and is not the centre of the universe.

They have probably learned that much earlier, unofficially as it were, for in these days of radio, television, and the movies, our young people learn far more of the ways of men and the world they live in than we give them credit for. Many of them are probably familiar with the road maps their fathers use, long before our courses introduce the ideas of the map. But in this grade we start formal instruction in these matters - and if we are wise we shall draw freely on what they have learned informally.²

The field of Social Studies narrowed in Grades Five and Six. In the former history predominated, in the latter Geography. In both,

¹A. M. Pratt, Suggestions for Teachers, 'On Social Studies,' Manitoba Schools Journal. Vol. XIX, No. 2, October 1957: p. 8.

²Ibid., p. 9.

the main interest was centred on Canada, historically to show our development as a nation; geographically on various phases of life in Canada today.

All the Units are designed to assist to build up a hinterland of information upon which the pupil may draw freely and unreflectingly when he tackles history and geography more formally later on.¹

Despite all these good intentions the general feeling was that little was being done by the teachers to make the Geography in the elementary area meaningful and indeed it continued to be a poorly taught subject.

During the later 1950's methodology developed in Calgary was piloted in Winnipeg which allowed the children to develop their own research--rather like contracts. However, this kind of progress was also completely limited to the metropolitan region, for no effects were noticed in the rural areas of the Province.

Late in 1959 the Royal Commission on Education in Manitoba was established. It made no specific recommendations for Grades One to Six with reference to Geography except that it stated that as the coverage in this subject area was broad the term Social Studies should be retained.

This type of statement helped to perpetuate the system which was in force and consequently no major changes in course content, objectives and organization appeared until after the elementary curriculum seminar of July 1964. (The Seminar was set up in response to the findings of the Manitoba Royal Commission on Education). This

¹Ibid.

development was the first move to stimulate change in the fields of Social Studies Programmes (Grades One to Twelve), soon to become a feature of Social Studies in Manitoba.

The elementary curriculum seminar in 1964 developed a series of objectives for Social Studies Programmes. These stated

... the Social Studies should provide the pupil with a background of concepts and knowledge so that he may better understand society both national and international and through this understanding become a more useful citizen.¹

This seminar also drew up five major principles which should govern the Social Studies. It recognized that Social Studies owed much to other fields, that both communication skills and an understanding of cause and effect rather than just factual learning was necessary, that Geography and History should not be taught in isolation and that government, economics, anthropology and sociology should form part of Social Studies. These points were essentially the same in both the draft and final reports.²

The draft Report notes the "reprehensible neglect of the teaching of Geography in recent years"³ but in the final Report, without any reason being stated, this important factor was glossed over and not mentioned at all. This seminar was the forerunner in the sweeping series of changes which were now bearing down on the Social Studies curriculum.

¹Elementary Curriculum Seminar, Social Studies Report, July 1964: p. 15.

²Ibid., as quoted in detail in Appendix C.

³Ibid., as quoted in Appendix C Draft Report: p. 15.

In September 1966 the first results of the revision of the elementary curriculum were seen with the introduction of the new program in Grades One and Two. This programme aimed to

. . . provide a readiness program for later learning at upper elementary levels, to provide children with many real experiences in the local community, to increase the knowledge of the children with respect to their home community, to develop skills in oral expression, and to teach the children to function as members of a group.¹

In Grade One the course "will centre around the study of the child's home, his school, and his immediate community".² It also attempts to compare life of city and country children. Each child will study his own area first and then compare this with the opposite type of community. The course will also include a unit on 'holidays'. In Grade Two the course specifically continued the work of the Grade One programme which was centred about the home and the immediate community of the child.

This expands into the larger community and is centred about the people living in it and their occupations.³

In these two grades there was no specific reference to Geography. Rather, it was contained under the label of Social Studies with reference to the home and local community. However, specific developments of map skills, travel and transportation were at least two of the more obvious objectives.

In Grade Three a new programme was introduced in 1967 covering

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Social Studies Programme, Grades One and Two, 1966: p. 2.

²Ibid., p. 6.

³Ibid., p. 29.

the study of man, prehistoric, aboriginal, Indians, Eskimos, Desert and Jungle. Each of these broad fields was interwoven to bring about development in knowledge, map skills, and reading skills, in the fields of economics, sociology, geography, history and natural history. Typical of the geographic concepts in the course are those for the Eskimos.

1. The Eskimos depended upon hunting and fishing to survive in the north and, therefore, they were nomadic.
2. Land is extremely difficult to travel in due to the barren areas, vast numbers of lakes and rivers, and the weather conditions, winter storms, spring thaws, easy to become lost due to sameness of the land.
3. Eskimos have many words to describe different textures of snow.
4. The climate of the Arctic is severe for the winter months but there is a summer period when small plants grow but no trees.
5. Eskimos were isolated geographically until the arrival of the fur traders.¹

Along with these concepts was a distinct increase in geographical subject matter.

1. Coast: high cliffs, low beaches, bays, inlets, fiord, river mouths.
2. Tundra: barren grounds, lakes, rivers, hills, plains, gravel eskers, rocks.
3. Plant life: dwarfed and low to ground, lichens, caribou moss, sedges, cotton grasses, shrubs, dwarf willow.
4. Animals: seals, polar bears, lemmings, musk-oxen, caribou, char (fish), ptarmigan.
5. Climate: long cold dark winters, short light summers.
6. Settlements: where food is obtainable all year of seasonable (scattered population) life is governed by seasons, a. winter along the coast; b. summer inland for caribou, fish in lakes, cut timber if obtainable, quarry soapstone.
7. People: short, heavily built, very strong, short limbs, light olive tan or dark brownish yellow skin, small hands and feet, broad faces, slanted eyelids, brown

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Elementary Programme of Studies, Grade Three, 1966: p. 36.

eyes, great power of endurance, active and energetic, friendly cheerful people.¹

Now perhaps it is possible to see even from the earliest primary grades a distinct development and correlation of many geographic concepts and relationships.

The revision of the elementary programme continued in 1968 with the introduction of a new programme in Grades Four and Five. Grade Four, in which people in many regions are studied, has a text² which attempts to provide a sound factual basis in geography by studying topics such as:-

. . . rivers - source - mouth - tributary - delta - plains - hills. Mountains - peaks, ridges - valleys - canyons - volcanoes - glaciers - altitude - pass - plateau - islands - peninsula - coastline - sea level - bay - gulf - ocean - sea.³

as well as developing map, globe, graph, picture study, research skills, self expression and thinking skills within the social study fields.

Grade Five, however, saw a distinct change in content, for, by way of a series of specially developed sample studies, with a distinct geographical orientation a flexible programme endeavoured to

. . . encourage pupils to find the facts for themselves. By using an inductive approach it is hoped that concepts will be understood, generalizations will be made and many useful skills will be acquired.⁴

¹Ibid., p. 39.

²D. L. Massey et al, Around our World, a Study of Communities, (Toronto: Ginn and Company, 1965): p. vii.

³Manitoba Department of Education, Elementary Programme of Studies, Grade Five, 1966: p. 2.

⁴Ibid., p. 2.

There is also in the programme a distinct shift in emphasis. In the past Social Studies programmes had often been geared toward the meaningless repetition of dates, facts and names. In this course there was a definite shift of emphasis. The former obsession with factual content was replaced by a desire for the development of the child's awareness and understanding of the world about him. Facts, became secondary to the ideas which the child carried away with him as he completed one phase of his formal education and entered another.

Through the use of interesting, provocative, and worthwhile activities, this course seeks to provide the child with a stepping stone toward independent thought and understanding. This goal is far removed from the time worn practice of the memorization of supposedly irrefutable truths.¹

The completion of the elementary revision came in 1969 with the introduction of the Grade Six programme. The programme was an outgrowth of the Grade Five Geography course for it traced Canadian development from a historical point of view. It made consistent reference to the geographical skills and techniques previously developed to understand Canadian growth.

In addition to an underlying concern for the further development of basic concepts, understanding, insights, and skills it is therefore the purpose of the Grade VI history course to develop in the children a sense of national pride.²

Unfortunately, however, except for the first two weeks where geographic fundamentals were studied little in the way of geographic thought was developed during the rest of the year unless the teacher had sympathies toward Geography. This was unfortunate for geographic

¹Ibid., p. 2.

²Ibid., Grade VI: p. 1.

concepts and skills remained dormant for at least a year and were, in all likelihood, forgotten by the time the student entered Grade Seven.

This was the development of the elementary curriculum up to 1968-69 when the Social Science Curriculum Council was established. It has been reviewing curricula under its first term of reference; to study the relevance of the material studied in the light of modern trends. Perhaps from this term of reference there may come a further revision of the Elementary Social Studies programme.

Social Studies Courses in Grades
Seven to Nine: 1946-1968.

The revision and development of new curricula in Grades Seven to Nine had been started in 1939 but had had to be suspended because of the Second World War and it was not until September 1947 that the new Programme of Study and the new texts were issued. At the same time this new programme stipulated that the time allotment to the Social Studies, as they were called, was to be twelve per cent in each of the three grades.

A major aim of this Junior High programme was to correlate History, Geography and Civics wherever possible. Therefore,

. . . the geography of a country is studied at the same time as its history but each subject is to be kept distinct because we believe that the purpose of each can be best realised this way.¹

Within the Programme of Studies distinct purposes were listed for the teaching of Social Studies at this level:-

¹Manitoba, Department of Education, Junior High Programme of Studies, 1947: Grades Seven to Nine: p. 3.

To develop the ability to take part in social life. To do this children must:-

1. understand society, its organization and institutions. This means that he must: a. acquire information, b. understand the general principles on which it is based.
2. Possess abilities essential for citizenship. That is the ability a. to obtain information, b. to think clearly, c. to express himself.
3. Acquire desirable social habits and attitudes.¹

The course content reflected the trends of the time and it was primarily a study of the whole world.

This does not, of course, imply that they will learn nothing about their own country, for the study of any continent in social studies if it is to be vital must be carried on in such a way that the students will gain a deeper understanding of their own social life.²

Thus, after studying about the world in Grades Seven to Nine they are, in Grades Ten and Eleven to centre their attention more exclusively on their own country and return to a more thorough study of the world in Grade Twelve.

The Grade Seven programme exhibited an attempt at sequential learning for it was stated specifically that

This programme will be taught most easily if it is studied in the following order. The study of the early history of the world taken in Grade Seven makes a good introduction to the study of the work for Grades Eight and Nine. It is, therefore, better to take the work of Grade Seven before that of Grade Eight.³

Also noticeable in this programme was that the Department of Education was cognizant of the wide variations within the Manitoba School System for it commented that

¹Ibid., p. 36. ²Ibid., p. 40.

³Ibid., Grades Seven to Nine: p. 40.

Since the texts are easy enough for children of these grades to read and understand it may be possible even in ungraded schools which are not overcrowded to follow this order, but if the teacher finds it necessary to combine grades in order to save time, Grades VII and VIII should be combined and the programme for Grade VII taken in the odd years and the programme for Grade VIII taken in the even years. If the teacher has any doubt what he should do he may consult the local inspector. Conditions in schools vary so widely that it is impossible to lay down any plan for alternation and combining grades that will be universally acceptable.¹

Many of the objectives of the Social Studies as of this time still held good and indeed the suggestions made by the Department of Education are, in many instance, still valid today twenty years later. This can be inferred from the following Department of Education statement.

Without a doubt there is some factual information which every one who would understand society must have, although there is considerable evidence that the really essential information is not as extensive as some teachers have thought. But the acquisition of information even essential information is not sufficient. To understand society the student must see what forces have been at work shaping human life and institutions. From this he must go even a step further and make generalizations and try to discover how people are likely to behave in different situations.²

Thus, the intention was that the teacher in Social Studies--as in Science--should try to develop these principles to help the pupil to live in the present world. Besides this major objective teachers were expected to be aware of the types of reading skills involved in the various phases of working with Social Studies materials and to understand that these reading skills must be directly developed in the Social Studies class. One of the intentions of the programme was that

¹Ibid., p. 41.

²Ibid., p. 37.

... besides learning to read, the student should learn to organize his thoughts and be able to express them clearly.¹

To summarize the experiences that student should be acquiring and developing in Junior High Social Studies

1. habits of courtesy, co-operation, industry, promptness, accuracy etc.
2. desirable attitudes and ideals. He should (a) recognize his debt to the past and to other people; (b) accept the responsibility for making a contribution to society; (c) recognize the advantages of living in harmony with his geographical environment; (d) desire to improve the condition of life and have faith in the power of men and women to do this.²

The geographical content for each of these three courses was not only secondary to the historical material; if the course was the text it was almost non-existent, and as to how well it was utilised, depended upon the inclination of the teacher. In fact, the course could, if so taught, be almost completely historical in nature. It would appear, however, from the inspectors' comments in 1948

... the new Grade VII and VIII Social Studies courses and texts are excellent,³

that these courses were in to stay for many years. They certainly did remain but by 1953 dissatisfaction had surfaced for it was noted in that years' Annual Report that

... there is continuous dissatisfaction with the Grade VIII text 'The English Speaking World'.⁴

Indeed there had been several attempts to discuss the problem

¹Ibid., p. 39. ²Ibid., p. 40.

³Manitoba Department of Education, Annual Report of the Department, 1948.

⁴Ibid., 1953.

and a number of new texts had been examined. Unfortunately in these texts "the vocabulary is too difficult and in some cases beyond the ability of these grades."¹

This problem continued into 1954 with no solution being found and this problem was compounded by demands from some teachers for a separation of Geography and History courses. At the same time other teachers maintained that

. . . the two subjects are inseparable and as such should continue as an integrated program.²

These teachers, unlike the former group, argued that adequate emphasis was given to the teaching of Geography. During this time, however, a curriculum committee had been set up to consider the development of parallel courses in History and Geography for Grades Seven to Nine. It (the Committee) was concerned with the weight of the Grade Eight course--which contained British, American and Canadian history with some Geography--though it wished to retain all three study areas in the Junior High area. Thus, the two main questions being discussed by this Committee were

1. How can the cycle of courses in Grades VII to IX be adjusted to relieve the weight on the Grade VIII course but retain the areas of content now being studied?
2. What can be done to maintain the teaching of Geography in these grades?³

¹Ibid., ²Ibid.

³Manitoba Department of Education, Curriculum Committee, as quoted from the Annual Report of the Department, 1954.

The second question, perhaps, was the most difficult to find an answer for. The solution could have been to drop the title of Social Studies in Junior and Senior High school and institute the words History and Geography for separate courses. Unfortunately, however, this recommendation appears to have lapsed because in following years the term Social Studies continued to be used.

Indeed, the attitude towards Geography leaves much to be desired. The writing of A. M. Pratt at this time sums up the attitude expressed by many towards Geography

There is one form of art which I would encourage this year - it is the art of map-making. Your young people will readily discover some simple shapes which will help them to fix roughly the outlines of the different lands: France, for example, readily falls into an irregular hexagon which should be faintly sketched before the actual coastline and the land boundaries are drawn; i.e. 'long-legged Italy kicking poor Sicily' suggests a simple figure and so on, I would get them to indicate mountain ranges by hachuring that is drawing short, slightly curved, thin lines to indicate each slope of the range - the result it may look like a nice woolly caterpillar but that won't matter.¹

During 1958 the Bulletin on Introduction to Social Studies and Guidance Grades Seven to Nine² was reprinted and the courses continued to be perpetuated in a relatively unchanged form, from that originally begun in 1947.

The Royal Commission Report was published in the following year and it suggested that the time allotment for History, Geography and Civics should be fifteen per cent, and that the major portion of the

¹A. H. Pratt, Suggestions for Teachers, Manitoba School Journal, Vol. XIX, No. 6, February 1958: p. 6.

²Manitoba Department of Education, Introduction to Social Studies and Guidance Grades Seven to Nine, 1958.

fifteen per cent be devoted to History. Other than these points, however, it made no suggestions on course content and so the 'status quo' remained and so continued until 1964. Thus, for seventeen years with only a minor change or two the teaching of Geography within Social Studies had remained at least in the Junior High School relatively stable and very subservient to History. Improvement in Geography occurred only when there was a sympathetic teacher who understood the importance of the subject to the field of History.

Following the decision to revise school programmes 'in toto' and the work of the few vocal geographers there occurred a revision, in 1964, of the Grade Nine programme both in the geographical and historical parts. The Geography portion developed as regional study organised around a new text¹ and using the Canadian Oxford Atlas.² After the introduction to geographic fundamentals the rest or major part of the course consisted of a study of the British Isles, Africa, Australia, New Zealand and Antarctica. The text, however, was not suitable for, in 1965, the course prescription was changed and consisted of a study of South America, Africa and Australia.

At the Junior High level, perhaps for the first time, general and specific aims were stressed as well as skills of a geographical nature. Prior to this time programmes had only listed the work to be covered generally by way of fundamentals without stating specific aims that had a geographic basis. Perhaps then, as these were a significant

¹David Clee, In Many Latitudes, (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Limited, 1960).

²Canadian Oxford School Atlas, (Toronto: Oxford University Press 1963), 2nd ed.

development in Manitoba Junior High Geography, I may be forgiven if I list them in some detail

1. to gain knowledge about the earth as the home of man
2. to develop an appreciation of location and distance (the Atlas habit)
3. to develop the ability to recognize the distinctiveness of places,
4. to gain an insight into the significance of the natural environment
5. to develop a sense of responsibility for one's own environment
6. to develop a sympathetic understanding of peoples in other lands.¹

Also stressed by the same programme were the following specific aims

Knowledge. Students should gain a knowledge of

1. the concepts that relate to the fundamentals noted in Part A
2. the map as a special means of transmitting information
3. the regional concept
4. man - land relationships
5. location, distribution and association information
6. place location, the pattern of distribution and the content of areas

Skills

1. Map reading as related to the southern lands.
Scale and the understanding of symbols
2. map interpretation. Conclusions from the analysis of the relationship between two or more map distributions
3. the technical vocabulary of geography
4. creative geography i.e. the recording of observations, the preparation of accurate maps, the ability to describe an area.²

In 1967 a new Geography course in Social Studies was introduced at the Grade Seven level. This again made Geography a separate discipline, and it also had a specific set of aims understanding

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Junior High Programme of Studies, 1965, Grades Seven to Nine: p. 3.

²Ibid., p. 4.

attitudes and skills. It primarily aimed at

1. enabling student to visualize accurately the areas they are studying
2. developing a willingness to try to understand the ways of peoples in other lands
3. introducing the concept of world citizenship.¹

By using the following points

1. man reacts to his environment in different ways to produce different cultures
2. the body of knowledge that is related to geographic principles and elements has a continually widening horizon,
3. the natural principles of division e.g. relief, climate, natural vegetation are to precede principles related to man and his work
4. the principle of human regions does not obscure the significance of complete political entities.

Attitudes

1. an awareness of the growing interdependence of peoples
2. an awareness in the student that he is a citizen, not only of Canada, but of the world.

Skill and abilities:-

1. ability to read facts from various types of maps
2. ability to relate these facts
3. development of the habit of using maps, not only to secure information, but also to express ideas
4. accuracy and precision in map work and in statement
5. ability to locate, gather, organize, and present information
6. ability to interpret globes, charts, pictures, graphs and statistics,
7. ability to use growing geographic vocabulary accurately.²

The text³ utilised a regional approach and then developed a series of sample studies to help develop many of the relationships made

¹Ibid., 1967: p. 27.

²Ibid.

³D. Clee and W. Hildebrand, Eastward to Europe, (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada, Limited, 1967).

in the material dealt with prior to the study.

Then, in 1968 the revision of the Junior High material was completed by the introduction of the new Grade Eight course which also featured a new text.¹ This again was a regional course occupying half the allotted time of fifteen per cent for Social Studies. Its fields of interest after a general introduction to Asia, are a study of India, the U.S.S.R. and either China or Japan. The sample study approach was continued in the belief that

The sample studies will help the students to use the 'tools' of the geographer i.e. maps, photographs, diagrams, and pictures, as well as developing an understanding of the inter-relationship between man and his environment.²

The text is almost identical in approach to that for Grade Seven except that it deals with different regions. However, it is beneficial to students in that it is just a continuation of the approach from Grade Seven and familiarity with approach and style is advantageous.

To date no further changes have developed in the Junior High programme except that the Indian-Metis Curriculum Committee has developed a resource unit on "Peru--Indians off a reserve"--for use in the Grade Nine programme.

Although the discussion of the geographic content of the Social Studies at the Junior High level is complete two further points

¹W. Hildebrand and D. Clee, Westward to Asia, (Toronto, Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Limited, 1968).

²Manitoba Department of Education, Junior High Programme of Studies, 1968, Grade Eight: p. 7.

need to be raised, as they do affect the geographic knowledge of students.

Firstly, in the middle of the 1960's, a new series of Science courses were developed at the Junior High level. They were of importance to geographers in that they contained a series of units which are normally classed within the field of Geography. These units were either compulsory or optional depending, at least in the optional part, on student interest and availability of time

Grade 7

Compulsory - atmospheric pressure, minerals their uses.

Optional - erosion, its effects.

Grade 8

Compulsory - effect of heat, atmosphere, density, pressure, earth in space, laws of motion.

Optional - rock types, their changes, nature of soils, chemistry of soils.

Grade 9

Compulsory - climates, microclimates, man and his environment, record of rocks, diastrophism, vulcanism, glaciation.

Optional - weather, its causes, causes of winds, air masses fronts, cyclonic storms, weather maps, forecasting, topographic maps.¹

This, for geographers, was rather unfortunate for important geographical concepts were contained within the optional parts.

It if had been possible for both optional and compulsory units to have been developed then Junior High students entering the higher school would have been much more adequately prepared to deal with the objectives and the concepts that had to be developed in the Senior High programme.

¹Ibid.

Geography courses in Grades
Ten to Twelve: 1946-1968.

Following the Second World War, for a period of two years, there was a geographic status quo in Grades Ten to Twelve ensuring the continuance of the courses of the 1930's and early 1940's. However, during 1948 a new Social Studies curriculum was set up for these grades. It was set up in three levels each level having a core course and an optional course, as can be seen in table 19.

TABLE 19
SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULUM
GRADES TEN TO TWELVE
1948

Grade	Title	Core	Option
Ten	Social Studies I	Geography (World)	History
Eleven	Social Studies II	History (Canadian)	Geography (Commerce)*
Twelve	Social Studies III	History (Modern)	Geography (Human)

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education, Programme of Studies, 1948.

* NOTE: Later, in 1949, this became regional.

In the Senior High school the course in Social Studies appears designed to embrace the interplay of social, economic, historical and physical facts that affect human society. To encourage a thorough and systematic treatment, in the units of work prescribed for the three

levels of the course, the fields appear to have been limited both in time and space. Some will be found to be predominantly geographical, some historical, some sociological within the bounds set for each year. An examination of the core courses in Social Studies will reveal that Social Studies I

. . . is almost exclusively geographical with the emphasis thrown on the interdependence of nations and communities in the modern world. The core courses in the second and third years will be mainly historical and will aim at developing an understanding of the evolution of our own society and of modern civilization.

In each year provision will be made for an option in the field of Social Studies which will complement the core course. For the first year this option will be historical, for the second and third years the emphasis will be on the geographical conditions affecting the peoples whose history is under study.¹

Social Studies I which is completed in Grade Ten has as its main aim

. . . to develop understanding of the influence of environment upon human society with an appreciation of the impact of human will and energy upon physical surroundings. It is primarily a study of relationships.²

The only reason it survived as a course until 1965 was, perhaps, because there was nothing better to replace it. Social Studies II and III were unfortunately from the geographic point of view both optional. In 1948 in Grade Eleven the Commercial Geography of the 1930's prevailed where it attempted to teach Commercial Geography from a

. . . broader and more scientific view in which the commodities industries, commercial cities, and transportation routes are the topics about which the facts

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Senior High Programme of Studies, 1948-49: p. 86.

²Ibid.

of geography are grouped in a logical way.¹

This course only survived for one year and in 1949 was replaced by a new Regional Geography course which adopted a new text.² This course was a much more restrictive study than that in Grade Ten seeking to examine and understand

. . . the relationships between man and his environment in particular regions. This will involve a closer attention to maps and locations, and the student should gain clear-out ideas of human activities in the countries of the new world.³

In Grade Twelve during 1947 and 1948 the optional Geography course was in process of being changed. The Human Geography aspect of the course was remaining but the major vehicle, the text, was changing from Principles of Human Geography⁴ to The Earth and Man⁵. In both instances the course was the text with little optional material in them. So no major change took place even in the time allotment which at Grade Twelve was eighteen per cent and in Grades Ten and Eleven was twelve per cent. Due to this there was a

. . . revolt against the practice of requiring the committing to memory of copious facts, the facts of physical geography; rivers, mountains, plains, coastal features, and so on; and the facts of economic geography: resources, manufactures, trade, cities and density of population, rather there was a

¹Cornish, Geography of Commerce for Canadians: p. v.

²Geography for To-day, North and South America, ed. L. Dudley Stamp and George H. T. Kimble, (Toronto: Longmans, Green and Co., 1943).

³Manitoba Department of Education, Senior High School Programme of Studies, 1949-50: p. 179.

⁴Huntington and Cushing, Principles of Human Geography.

⁵Darrell Haug Davis, The Earth and Man, A Human Geography, (New York: MacMillan Company, 1961) 1st ed., 1942 revised ed. 1948.

general swing towards that which is known as the 'Social Studies' concept.¹

The basis of this concept was the study of man in his environment--and 'environment' comprises much more than his geographical setting

. . . it includes his culture and how that culture has developed; the history of the struggles from which he has emerged; the history of his triumphs over his enemies, both human and the hostile forces of nature. A splendid conception, comprehensive, intelligible - but perhaps a little unwieldy.²

From this time until 1962 the High School programme remained in a steady state as regards Geography. In 1962 a General Course programme was added in Grade Ten. This was designated Geography 101 to differentiate it from the University Entrance courses now numbered Geography 100, 200 and 300 in the Grades Ten, Eleven and Twelve courses respectively.

The General Geography course was split into four parts, dealing with fundamentals, the physical world and its effect on man, the local region and the regional geography of North and South America. The main aim of the course

. . . is to help pupils develop an understanding of the reciprocal relationships existing between man and his environment. Teachers should encourage pupils to be on the watch for illustrations of how environment has influenced the life of man, and of how in turn man has attempted to master and change his environment.³

¹A. H. Pratt, Suggestions for Teachers, Manitoba Schools Journal, Vol. XIX, No. 7. March, 1958: p. 8.

²Ibid.

³Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Ten General Course Programme of Studies, 1962: p. 1.

Philip Atlas¹ and two texts by Stembridge² were utilised as the major source materials in this course.

The new course seemed to be very promising for the inspectors reported

. . . interest was generally great and the pupils worked consequently achievement was successful.³

Unfortunately the objectives for the General Course were not necessarily being met for it was stated that both the General and University Entrance courses would have the same examination although it was stressed that in the General course there would be greater emphasis "placed on term work and on realistic testing of objectives."⁴

In 1963 came the beginnings of the major changes which characterized the Geography courses in Grades Ten to Twelve from 1963 to 1968. The scene was set by the Seminar on the University Entrance Course in July 1963. (Though separate from changes in the Junior High School the Seminar did take into account the work of Grades Seven, Eight and Nine). It listed certain guiding principles and specific directives for the Social Studies which were to be of importance to Geography for the next few years. It set up two guiding principles:-

¹Philips' Modern School Atlas, 39th ed., edited by George Goodall (London, England: London Geographical Institute on behalf of George Philip & Sons Ltd., 1948).

²Jasper H. Stembridge, Regions and Peoples of the World, An Oxford Progressive Geography Senior Series, Book One, (London, England: Oxford University Press 1958): 10th ed.

Jasper H. Stembridge, North and South America, (London, England: Oxford University Press, n.d.)

³Manitoba, Department of Education, Annual Report of the Department June 1962.

⁴Ibid., June 1963.

- a. that each course offer an intellectual challenge and that therefore the emphasis be placed on those elements that require critical judgement rather than on the merely descriptive or narrative approach
- b. that each course offer a solid body of information of the kind necessary for understanding society and leading to the cultivation of wide interests and to the development of broad attitudes.¹

Moving from the general philosophy to the specific directives the seminar stated that

- a. that each social studies subject be based on a syllabus rather than on a text
- b. geography and history be organised as distinct disciplines
- c. the course in geography and history, although distinct, be inter-related at each level
- d. careful attention be given to the Junior High School programme so that the curriculum in Social Studies from Grades VII to XII be integrated and coherent
- e. careful attention be paid to the programmes suggested by Prof. Jaenen and by the Social Studies Committee of the Winnipeg District Association, Manitoba Teachers' Society
- f. consideration be given in providing for an area of intensification in each course so that teachers and students map study in some detail each year an area or topic of special interest.²

Following the University Entrance Seminar the first change to appear was in 1965 with the development of a pilot programme in Grade Ten on the Regional Geography of North America.

The major intention of the

. . . introduction of a course on North America at this level is that it serves as a capstone to the accumulation of the student's store of geographic knowledge that has been widening gradually throughout the lower grades. It represents a "rounding out" of the real coverage of world regions.³

¹University Entrance Seminar, July 1963: pp. 10-11.

²Ibid. ³Ibid.

At this more mature level a reinforcement is possible of the student's knowledge of his local environment. This course by emphasizing environments close at hand--areas with which he may have some familiarity--together with those of his own country and of neighbouring lands, provides an opportunity for

. . . a more immediate and interesting practical application of the varied geographic fundamentals covered in earlier studies.¹

The introductory section on 'systematic patterns' emphasizes the basic concept of causal relationships. This is the very core of Geography. With this basic concept understood and appreciated the student should be in a position to apply it in his study of the section on 'regional patterns' that follows. This section begins with a regional coverage of Canada and the United States. The approach is largely one which is in keeping with recent trends. The objectives, attitudes, understandings and skills stressed by the Departmental programme consists of

Attitude:- the Geography teacher is responsible for developing in each student a sense of social responsibility as applied to his role as a citizen of this province. Also interest in man's problems in varied spheres of geographic activity. To give the student an appreciation of resource development in his Province and country and an awareness of what it means to be a Canadian citizen. The student must also have an appreciation of his role as a world minded Canadian and a sympathetic awareness of other people both at home and in neighbouring lands to the south.

Understanding:- the following geographic understandings should result from the study of geography.

- a. an awareness of changes that take place in the home community and the reasons for the change.

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Geography 100 Programme of Studies, 1966.

- b. understand the value of natural resources and the need for their intelligent use.
- c. recognition of the fact that many regional problems are related to the physical environment.
- d. understand other people's adaptations to their varied environments.
- e. understand the reasons for the difference between people in different parts of our continent.

Skills:- in the emergence of the total environmental picture of North America, the careful guidance of the teacher should aid the pupil in the development of various skills, the most important of which relates to maps. In acquiring map skills the student should be taught--

- a. to find places and identify map data using the legend.
- b. to understand the significance of relative location.
- c. to interpret factual data on various types of maps e.g. soil maps, vegetation maps, settlement maps.
- d. correlate and discover relationships between varying data on maps e.g. soil types and types of climate.
- e. identify similar data on maps, air photos, and pictures, read air photos.
- f. express map data in written form e.g. essay on physical environment of region using only succession of different maps.
- g. devise symbols and suggest methods of expressing data e.g. statistical data on maps; learn fundamentals of good map composition.
- h. skills in expressing geographical data from weather records, population, production statistics on maps, graphs, tables and diagrams.
- i. skill in gathering and organising data and relating geographic facts secured from variety of sources.
- j. skill in making geographic records either individual or as a team.
- k. skill in interpretation of own environment and contrasting other environments with own through growth of geographic vocabulary and increasing knowledge of geographic concepts. Skills both oral and written.¹

During 1966 two new optional courses in Geography at the Grade Eleven and Twelve levels were introduced. These were the general courses Geography 201 and 301 dealing with Physical and Economic

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Senior High Programme of Studies, 1963: as quoted from Appendix D.

Geography respectively. At the same time there had been a revision of Geography 101 whose main aim was

. . . to help pupils develop an understanding of the reciprocal relationships existing between man and his environment. Teachers should encourage pupils to be on the watch for illustrations of how environment has influenced the life of man, and of how in turn man has attempted to master and change his environment. The geography of Canada will form the background from which it is hoped that the relationship can be developed.¹

One of the major objectives of the whole course is to get the students to understand the intricate relationship between the human and physical environment. This factor is constantly stressed as more important than the memorization of facts for facts' sake.

Following this in 1967 the decision of the University to recognize Geography as a subject for entrance credit stimulated a tremendous interest in Geography on the part of High School students and teachers. The introduction of a new Physical Geography course Grade Eleven--Geography 200--and a new pilot course in Human Geography--Geography 300--at the Grade Twelve level which followed brought about a great resurgence in High School Geography. The objectives of each of these courses follow closely the ones indicated for all the new courses developed from 1965 onwards.

The decline in importance of examinations, particularly external ones, meant that evaluation had to become more meaningful for it had to reflect the aims of the individual schools now as they were not being compared against any outside standards. Thus, the teacher was

¹Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Ten Geography 101 Programme of Studies, 1966: p. 11.

encouraged to be professional as it became his responsibility to see that the course objectives were being adequately attained.

Geography Textbooks 1946-1968.

a) Elementary Textbooks, Grades One to Six.

During the year 1946 the textbooks authorized in the Elementary School Social Studies course were those which had been used since before the revision of the Programme of Studies in 1939.

The use of Public School Geography¹ and New Canadian Geography² was discontinued in 1947. From 1947 to 1968 there were no textbooks authorized in Grades One, Two and Three, while in Grades Four, Five and Six there were no texts authorized until 1953. Of the three texts which were authorized, Pages from Canada's Story³, Canada, Land of the Beaver⁴ and Canada and her Neighbours⁵, only the last one--which was authorized for Grade Six--was recognizable as a Geography text. This was a step along the modern road of Geography in that it did not stress facts for their own sake but it attempted to look for relationships and interpretations of man's life in different environments, and for fitting children to solve social problems, In fact the authors stated

¹Stevenson and Baragar, Public School Geography.

²Frye, New Geography.

³D. J. Dickie and Helen Palk, Pages from Canada's Story, (Toronto: J. M. Dent & Sons (Canada) Ltd.,) 1st ed., 1928, new ed., two volumes in one--1931.

⁴Reid, Canada, Land of the Beaver, (n.p., n.d.)

⁵Griffith Taylor, Dorothy J. Seiveright and Trevor Lloyd, Canada and her Neighbours, (Toronto: Ginn and Company, n.d.)

that

. . . to teach pupils to reason, to interpret, and to feel the pupils must be guided to seek out for themselves the information they need; to use this information in some purposeful activity; to express what they have found to "feel" the relationship between what they are learning and the life that is round about them¹

The book was set up as a regional study of Canada and it exhibited a good balance for it gave from twenty to thirty pages to each region, with no emphasis on any particular area. The emphasis was left to the teacher in that he was expected to give a more intensive study to the home region. It contained exercises and assignments but these were not religiously prescribed but rather they were just ideas which the teacher could use or ignore as he wished.

This book remained as the only Geography book authorized in Grades One to Six until 1968. Then two new courses, which had been developed for Grades Four and Five, were introduced.

The Grade Four course used as its text Around Our World². As an 'early age' text for Geography it is a distinct improvement over many others. It begins by drawing geographical concepts from the home community, then goes into a series of sample studies which is good as it prepares the student for Grade Five.

The authors attempt to give the student a basic geographic vocabulary and to begin the understanding of certain geographic concepts,

¹Ibid., as quoted from the author's Foreword for Teachers, p. v.

²D. L. Massey ed., et al Around Our World, a Study of Communities, (Toronto: Ginn and Company, 1965).

such as "weather and climate" and "what is meant by industry".¹

The various sample studies allow the student to understand such geographical ideas as finding food and shelter which then lead to more complex ideas such as problems of overpopulation. The many maps, charts, diagrams and pictures in the hands of a good Geography teacher are excellent teaching tools and allow for detailed student analysis.

Also in 1968, Manitoba, its People and Places² was approved as the Grade Five textbook. It was in reality a series of sample studies which dealt with the local region, then a series of studies of different groups of people in the Manitoba environment. These were then followed by separate studies of Manitoba, Canada and North America. This allowed the teacher to build on the known and to explain the unknown. It is, however, impossible to assess the impact and effectiveness of this and the other authorized text as this study closes in the year that they were both introduced.

b) Junior High Textbooks, Grades Seven to Nine.

In 1946 the texts in use were those from the 1930's to 1940's which were Public School Geography³ and New Canadian Geography⁴. However, these had become obsolete and they were replaced by--

¹Ibid., as quoted from Preface for Teachers, p. vii.

²Gary de Leeuw, David Jones, Ed. Koch, Max Wooley, Manitoba its People and Places, Gen. ed., Evelyn Moore, (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Ltd., 1968).

³Stevenson and Baragar, Public School Geography.

⁴Frye, New Geography.

Grade VII:-	<u>The Builders of the Old World</u> ¹
Grade VIII:-	<u>The Story of the English Speaking Nations</u> ²
Grade IX:-	<u>The Story of Nations</u> . ^{3.4}

An examination of these books revealed that their entire contents were historical. Even in 1957, when the Story of English Speaking Nations was replaced by The Great Adventure⁵ and Canada, Then and Now⁶, there was no change in the course content.

During this period there was no Geography content at all in the Programme of Studies for the Junior High Schools in Manitoba. The only Geography which would be taught would be that which was developed incidentally to help in the teaching of History.

In 1964, however, with the development of a new course in Grade Nine, Geography was studied as a separate subject for half of the year. This change made it necessary to adopt a new text, In Many Latitudes⁷. Here, the text was a series of five regional geographic studies which

¹Gertrude Hartman, Builders of the Old World, with a Foreword by Allan Nevins, (Vancouver: Copp Clark Publishing Co. Limited, 1946). rev. ed., 1957 with new Unit IX written by F. E. Tinkler.

²Rogers et al, The Story of English Speaking Nations (n.p. Clark Irwin Limited, n.d.)

³Rogers et al, The Story of Nations, (n.p. Clark Irwin Limited, n.d.)

⁴Manitoba, Department of Education, Annual Report of the Department, 1946.

⁵Donalda Dickie, The Great Adventure, an Illustrated History of Canada for Young Canadians with illustrations by Lloyd Scott, (Toronto: J. M. Dent & Sons (Canada) Limited, 1950)

⁶Aileen Garland, Canada, Then and Now, with unit in American History by Kenneth McNaught with illustration by Robert Banks (Toronto: MacMillan Company of Canada Limited, 1956).

⁷Clee, In Many Latitudes.

followed the classical mode of studying a region. It followed an order of positions, size, physiography, climate, minerals, population, economic activities etc., in each region and continued to follow this up by further subdividing into smaller areas. These, unfortunately, were not well balanced for Britain, Africa, and Australia each warranted approximately one hundred pages each while New Zealand and Antarctica occupied approximately twenty pages each.

The approach of the author was to make every effort

. . . to make this an interesting and readable geography book. The chapters on physical forms and climate are, of necessity, more formal and precise. Elsewhere, however, little descriptions and events have been included to add interest and to try to present the real picture of the region being examined. Some emphasis has been laid on the study of the peoples of the various countries, their customs, habits, occupations, and their future problems.¹

However, it was not very satisfactory for it was only authorized for one year and then it was replaced by Southern Continents².

This was, again, a regional text which first of all examined population and world climates then completed regional studies of South America, Africa, Australia, New Zealand and Antarctica. Most of the material dealt with South America, Africa and Australia while New Zealand and Antarctica were treated in a very minor fashion.

The authors of Southern Continents however, adopted two basic principles in their methodology for they realized that

- 1) although a topic may be of some importance in several

¹Ibid., as quoted from the Preface by the author, p. iii.

²W. Bruce Braund and John K. Woods, The Southern Continents, advisor Edward Pleva, (Toronto: McGraw-Hill Co., of Canada Limited, 1965).

areas, it receives detailed consideration only within the area where it is most significant;
(2) the important factors of each region's economy, and the effects these factors have upon the people of the regions have been stressed. However, actual production methods are not described unless the final product represents a major source of income to the inhabitants, or unless the total production is a significant fraction of the world's supply.¹

The book also contained, in many sections, a 'problems' unit whose aim was to expand upon any matters that constitute a major problem to the people and areas that were being studied.

It was not until 1967 that there was a further proliferation of Geography at the Junior High level. With the division in both Grades Seven and Eight Social Studies, into Geography and History with equal emphasis on each, we have a situation of equality between the two subjects in these two grades as well as in Grade Nine.

For the Grade Seven course Eastward to Europe² was authorized while for Grade Eight Westward to Asia³ was used. Both texts are regional studies containing many pictures, diagrams, and maps which are ideal teaching tools. They were well balanced with a suitable reading level and in the hands of an understanding teacher would allow many geographic concepts to be understood by the pupils--thus preparing them for Geography in the Senior High School.

¹Ibid., as quoted from the Preface.

²Clee and Hildebrand, Eastward to Europe.

³Hildebrand and Clee, Westward to Asia.

c) Senior High Textbooks, Grades Ten to Twelve.

The Geography books which had been authorized for use in the 1930's in Grades Ten, Eleven and Twelve were still the textual material in 1946. Geography of Commerce for Canadians¹ was used for Grades Ten and Eleven while Principles of Human Geography² was the text for Grade Twelve.

The first change occurred in 1948 when World Geography³ was adopted for use in Grade Ten. It was really a 'survey course' of world geography treated, (as one would expect for a 'survey course') in a rather superficial fashion. The book claimed that it was a basis for a "thorough, realistic, and dynamic course in the world geography at the secondary school level."⁴ It had world citizenship as a prime aim and also aimed at giving the student more training in skills, such as map reading and interpretation of charts, graphs and table. It aimed at encouraging knowledge of place geography (shades of earlier years) but wished also to develop an understanding of geographic principles through abundant illustrations.

Some of these aims are admirable but it is uncertain whether this text would enable the student to attain them. Indeed, to be realistic, we should consider the comments of N. V. Scarfe for perhaps he puts the book in its correct light when he said

¹Cornish, A Geography of Commerce for Canadians.

²Huntington and Cushing, Principles of Human Geography.

³John Hodgdon Bradley, World Geography (Toronto: Ginn & Co., n.d.)

⁴Ibid., as quoted from a Note to the Teacher, p. vi.

. . . he would ban it from all schools and universities not because it is full of vague journalistic platitudes and irrelevances but rather because it murders geography by its method of presentation.¹

This text remained until 1966 and was utilised for the University Entrance course. It was then replaced by Regional Geography of North America². This book was a fantastic improvement over the World Geography³ text. In reality it was a source textbook and a repository of teaching materials. The authors presentation is based on the fact that

. . . generalizations can be made meaningful only through detailed, vivid, realistic data such as large-scale maps, photographs, graphical and statistical material, sample studies, and written descriptions. Whenever a general principle is discussed, a concrete example is cited to illustrate it. Moreover, the student is required to describe and analyze this data and, under the teacher's supervision, to draw his own conclusions, i.e., to make his own generalizations.⁴

The text did all that it stated while utilizing the inductive approach and in the hands of a trained Geography teacher could be an excellent way of inculcating geographic concepts. However, in a teacher not trained in Geography it was a difficult text to use.

Prior to this development in the University entrance course a

¹N. V. Scarfe, "The Teaching of Geography in Canada", The Canadian Geographer, No. 5, 1955: p. 4.

²George S. Tomkins and Theo L. Hills and Thomas R. Weir, A Regional Geography of North America, Manitoba edition, (Toronto: W. J. Gage Ltd., 1966.)

³Bradley, World Geography.

⁴Tomkins, Hills and Weir, A Regional Geography of North America.

General Course at the Grade Ten level was established in 1962. This initially used two texts--Regions and Peoples of the World¹ and North and South America². However, in 1965, this was changed to a New Geography of Canada³. The first of the texts (Regions and People of World⁴) was originally published for Africa. The use of it was attempted to be justified by the fact that the simpler language used would be easier for the General Course students to understand. However it, along with North and South America⁵ by the same author, were scarcely suitable for the course and it was quickly changed and in 1965 an infinitely superior text was approved. This was A New Geography of Canada⁶. According to the authors the book represented "a new approach to school geography"⁷. It, like the University Entrance text, was really a source book from which the teacher could draw material as he wished. It included among its material

. . . carefully selected photographs of various types, large-scale topographic maps in full colour, authentic, firsthand, vivid descriptions of scenery and life, graphs and statistics and field studies of various kinds. The

¹Jasper H. Stembridge, Regions and Peoples of the World, an Oxford Progressive Geography, Senior Series, Book One (London, England: Oxford University Press, 1958).

²Jasper H. Stembridge, North and South America, (n.p., n.d.)

³Neville V. Scarfe, George S. Tomkins, Doreen Margaret Tomkins, A New Geography of Canada, (Toronto: W. J. Gage Ltd., 1963).

⁴Stembridge, Regions and People of the World.

⁵Stembridge, North and South America.

⁶Scarfe, Tomkins and Tomkins, A New Geography of Canada.

⁷Ibid., as quoted from the Preface, p. viii.

latter include sample studies made by the authors themselves, as well as town planning studies and original investigations carried out by geographers in all regions of Canada.¹

The format was that of a series of regional provincial studies, which in allowing the pupils "to study and draw conclusions of their own"² would hopefully allow them to "practise and acquire the skills of the geographer"³ in the spirit of true inquiry.

A review of the Geography programme of Grades Eleven and Twelve occurred in 1949 and 1950 respectively. Both courses, however, remained as optional courses and very much subservient to History in each grade. The Grade Eleven course, which was to remain unchanged until 1966, utilised two textbooks during this time. These were North and South America⁴ and Regional Geography--The Americas⁵.

Both books were regional studies of North America and South America. The former text by Stamp and Kimble and authorized from 1949 to 1958, consisted in reality of two books--one on North America of 247 pages and a second on South America of 126 pages. Each was a regional study which began with General Geography of the area and was completed by a series of exercises on each chapter. The questions in the exercises ranged from physical to regional to economic to map work.

¹Ibid. ²Ibid. ³Ibid.

⁴L. Dudley Stamp and George H. T. Kimble, North and South America, A Geography for To-day Canadian Series, Book I - North America; Book II-South America (Toronto: Green & Co., 1943).

⁵L. Dudley Stamp, A Regional Geography, for Advanced and Scholarship Courses, Part I-The Americas, (London, England: Longmans, Green & Co., 7th ed., 1955, 1st ed., July 1930.)

Typical of these are questions such as

6. Describe and try to account for the different types of climate found along the coastal lands of western North America. With which part of South America can it be compared?

5. Draw a map of the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence. Mark the chief towns mentioned in Chapters VII and VIII. Use different colours for those in the United States and those in Canada?

5. Attempt a comparison between the basin of the Amazon and that of the Sao Francisco. Refer to the physical features the natural vegetations and the navigability of each.¹

As can be seen there was not only a range of content but also a range in the difficulty of the questions. However, the North American questions typically demanded more understanding of geographic concepts from the pupils than did the questions on South America.

The authorization in 1959 of *The Americas*² changed nothing as far as the course was concerned. The text covered North America, Canada, the United States, Mexico, and Central America as well as South America and was combined, in two separate books, under the same cover. The coverage of North America was about twice that of South America. Each section on North and South America was completed by the addition of examination questions which were drawn from English Examination Boards. They were mainly of the discussion or description variety which demanded communication skills to convey the answer to the reader. Both texts had few teaching pictures though they had a plethora of sketch

¹Ibid., as quoted from *Questions and Exercises on South America*, Chapter VIII: p. 125.

²Stamp, Regional Geography, Part I, the Americas.

maps and diagrams. This was typical of the type of Geography taught in Great Britain at this time

The development, in 1966 and 1967, of both a General Course and a University Entrance Course in Physical Geography brought about the authorization of a new textbook, Elements of Geography¹, for the General 201 Course and a new text for the University Entrance 200 Course which was Geographic Fundamentals.²

Both texts followed a similar format beginning with a study of the Solar System and Planet Earth followed then with a physiographic study of the Earth and then a study of its weather and climate. A study of climatic regions and their effects on man--shades of Huntington's ideas³--follow and then a brief examination of economic Geography and population.

This re-appearance of Physical Geography, for the first time as a course in its own right since 1923, is a good commentary on the revival which Geography was going through in Manitoba.

Grade Twelve Human Geography, which was re-organised in 1950, adopted as its textbook The Earth and Man.⁴ It is

. . . a treatment of man and his economic activities in their real, environmental settings; a study of

¹James M. Smythe and Charles G. Brown, Elements of Geography, based on Outline of General Geography by E. O. Robinson, (Toronto: MacMillan Co., of Canada Ltd., 1959).

²W. G. Stone and R. Spence Inch, Geographic Fundamentals, (New York: McGraw-Hill 1962).

³Ellsworth Huntington, Civilization and Climate, (n.p. 1915).

⁴Darrell Haug Davis, The Earth and Man. (New York: MacMillan & Co., red. ed., 1948) 1st ed., 1942.

terrestrial unities.¹

The work covers

1) Man's numbers and distribution; 2) the interaction of environment and man; 3) how man makes his living in various environmental settings at different stages of his development; and 4) the distribution of man's economic activities. Throughout, changed and changing environmental conditions and values resulting from human activities and progress are stressed, not only as they affect the life of the individual, but as well the existence of the community and international relations.²

The text is extremely detailed and contains many sketches, maps, diagrams, and pictures which are good teaching instruments for use in the High School. The addition of questions and exercises at the end of each chapter provides much extension work for the students. Most of the questions began by asking "what" and "how" and then continued by asking "why". Typical of this is

15. What has caused deterioration of the population stock in the Kentucky Mountains? Why are the Kentucky mountaineers sometimes referred to as our "contemporary ancestors"?³

The book remained on the authorized list until 1967 when two new Grade Twelve optional Geography courses were authorized.

The University Entrance 300 Course was one in Human Geography while the General 301 Course was in Economic Geography.

The Human Geography course had as its authorized text Introduction to Human Geography⁴ while the Economic Geography course

¹Ibid., Preface p. v. ²Ibid.

³Ibid., as quoted from Part Three: Man and Environment, Chapter Six: The Environment: Factors and Functions, Questions and Exercises, p.64.

⁴Samuel N. Dicken and Forrest R. Pitts, Introduction to Human Geography, (Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Co., 1963).

first authorized The Geography of Economic Activity¹ and then, a year later, World Economic Activities.²

Introduction to Human Geography followed the ideas of Vidal de la Blache³ and Jean Brunhes⁴ and was organized in a topical fashion. As the course is a study of man, his origin, distribution and his cultural features the text covers these topics as well as making reference to their evolution in time and to man's physical environment. The problems facing man in his world are presented but the student is encouraged to formulate his own opinions as to their solution.

The Geography of Economic Activity which was introduced with the Economic Geography course in 1967, was barely satisfactory as a text. This was because the book was too difficult for Grade Twelve General Course students to handle, and as the course was initially built around the text it had to be completely changed. With this change in course came change in text and so World Economic Activities was authorized. This text, which followed the traditional descriptive approach to Economic Geography, was easier for the student to understand and provided a wealth of material in the form of maps, tables

¹Richard S. Thoman, A Geography of Economic Activity, an Introductory World Survey, consulting ed. John C. Weaver, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. 1962).

²Richard M. Highsmith and Ray M. Northam, World Economic Activities: A Geographic Analysis, (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World Inc., 1968)

³Vidal de la Blache, introduced 'new geography to France'.

⁴Brunhes, La Geographie Humaine.

and diagrams in an attempt to broaden his understanding of Economic Geography concepts.

Summary.

All the Senior High Geography texts have been changed within the last one or two years and consequently it is very difficult to assess the impact they will have on students. However, each one follows the recent trends in Geography. They have all moved away from the original regional approach which was, for so long, the typical approach in school Geography in the 1950's and early 1960's.

A Regional Geography text remains in Grade Ten but it has an approach which allows development of concepts while in Grade Eleven and Twelve the texts now follow a more systematic treatment.

Examinations in Geography, 1946-1968.

Prior to this time the term "examination" has been used in its widest sense and included the examination of schools, pupils and teachers by the School Inspectors whenever he visited the school as well as the examinations written by pupils for departmental standing.

During this period of geographic education a change occurred in the functions of inspectors and in the way the Department of Education Reports were written. No comments were now made on individual subjects or on individual schools. It, therefore, becomes difficult, if not impossible, to discover any trends or problems facing geographic education in Manitoba from an examination of the Department Reports. What information has been obtained, by reference to the Department of Education Reports, has been included within the develop-

ment of Geography courses.

The only material remaining which can be referred to, in order to find trends indicated by examinations consists of the Annual Department of Education examination papers which were taken by Grade Eleven and Twelve students during the 1946-1968 time period. This unfortunately only gives the trend in the Senior High School. However, trends here, if any, seem to be indicative for if they occur in the High School they eventually permeated into the Junior High and Elementary schools.

The two fold approach of Geography is very apparent in any analysis of examinations during this twenty-two year period. Questions asked in examinations either reflected the systematic geographical study or the regional study approach.

In 1950 such questions as

Grade Eleven - Map work

8. Describe both the advantages and methods of growing coffee in Brazil.

12. What are the principal economic activities of Newfoundland. What resources does this Province possess which gives her an advantage in these activities. What advantage of location does it possess?¹

were asked. Question twelve only really asks for a listing of factual material demanding only recall while question eight is only looking for a listing of materials.

Questions at the Grade Twelve level were more demanding--

¹Manitoba Department of Education Departmental Examinations
Grade Eleven, August, 1950.

4. The plantation system tends to promote civilization in tropical areas. Discuss the truth of the above statement with reference to Java, Ceylon, Jamaica and Southern States of the United States of America.

8. Give reasons why Antwerp and London have become great seaports. b) Discuss the emergence of Montreal as a great city.¹

Question four, for instance, demands not only information but the ability to use information to prove statements, and then it requires the material to be utilised in a series of regional comparisons.

Question eight, however, after demanding the factors required for sea port development, also asks for a regional comparison and follows this up by utilizing the information for solving a Canadian problem.

The same trends are apparent when considering questions from the 1955 departmental examinations:-

10. Briefly characterize man's chief use of the following areas:- a. Pacific Coast of British Columbia, b. Newfoundland²

8. Write on the Polar Eskimo under the following headings:-
a. Kinds of shelter b. food supply c. clothing.³

By 1960, however, questions were moving away from just the recall and the regional comparison to ones which require the use of information to solve problems--

9. Discuss the influence of climate on the distribution of population in South America. Name the areas where three major concentrations occur.

15. The Andes have been a help and hindrance in the development of South America. Explain fully this statement.⁴

¹Ibid., Grade Twelve, June 1950.

²Ibid., Grade Eleven, June 1955.

³Ibid., Grade Twelve

⁴Ibid., Grade Eleven, June 1960.

The questions, therefore, had become more demanding of the students, asking them to apply their knowledge to a problem.

Further reference to these two questions and to

8. "The bushman is a creature of the desert which is his home specialized to cope with the environment where he lives." a. What are surface features, climate, vegetation and animal life of the homeland of Kalahari bushman.
b. Describe their way of life.¹

begin to show perhaps some what of a resurgence of Physical Geography with particular reference to environment and man. Perhaps this point is indicative of five years hence when we have the first re-appearance of a Physical Geography course since 1923. This trend continued through to 1966 for in June 1966 Grade Eleven students were asked to

11. Write an account of transportation in Canada. In this account show the importance of rail, air, water, road and pipeline transportation to this country.²

From this development of questions through the 1950's into the 1960's it is apparent that many questions reflect the systematic approach with a consequent reduction in the importance of the traditional regional approach. The attempt, in some questions, to keep the regional approach is obviously to control the possible vague generalizations which may occur if one is not careful in systematic Geography.

The development from 1967 onwards to new approaches to Geography will bring about new forms of examination questions. These, no doubt, will give the student

¹Ibid., Grade Twelve, June 1960.

²Ibid., Grade Eleven, June 1966.

. . . much less chance to rely purely on the memorizing of facts and much more chance to show their ability to think originally and to assess solutions to simple problems.¹

Summary.

In order to determine the status of Geography within the prescribed curriculum it must be known

1. whether it is separate or integrated;
2. whether it receives a major or minor share of the teacher time;
- and 3. whether it is optional or compulsory.²

Table 20 sets out the status of Geography in Manitoba from 1946 to 1968 and shows also a comparison with History. An examination of the table will give a good general overall picture of trends and changes which have occurred in Geography in Manitoba since 1946. From Grades One to Six courses are integrated Social Studies courses, while from Grades Seven to Nine they are separate half courses. They combine the elements of Geography and History plus a smattering of other Social Sciences within one years work.

In Grades One to Three the emphasis has been and still continues to revolve around Social Studies with reference to the home and community. In Grades Four to Six, although the courses have, over the years, been referred to as Social Studies, they have been concerned with either Geography or History. The actual subject being dependent on the time of year and the grade level.

¹Chorley and Haggett, Frontiers in Geographical Teaching.

²Thomas R. Weir and William J. Russell. "The Status of Geography in the Social Studies Curricula of Canadian Schools", The Journal of Geography, vol. 58, September 1959: p. 280.

TABLE 20

GEOGRAPHY IN MANITOBA SCHOOLS
1946 - 1968

Year	Integrated Courses in Grades						Separate Course in Grades					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1946	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	G/h	G/h	g/H			
1947	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1948	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1949	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1950	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1951	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1952	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1953	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1954	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1955	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1956	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1957	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1958	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1959	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/H
1960	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/h
1961	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/h
1962	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/h
1963	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	g/H	G/h	g/H	g/h

TABLE 20-Continued

Year	Integrated Courses in Grades						Separate Course in Grades					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1964	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	G/H	G/h	g/H	g/h
1965	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	G/H	G/h	g/H	g/h
1966	S.S.	S.S.	S.S.	G/	/H	G/	g/H	g/H	G/H	G/h	g/H	g/h
1967	S.S.	S.S.	g/h	G/	/H	G/	G/H	G/H	G/H	G/h	g/H	g/h
1968	S.S.	S.S.	g/h	G/	G/	G/	G/H	G/H	G/H	G/h	g/H	g/h

SOURCE: Manitoba Department of Education as quoted from the Annual Reports of the Superintendent of Schools.

KEY TO TABLE: S.S. = Social Studies; G = Major emphasis on Geography, i.e. Grades One to Nine; H = Major emphasis on History, i.e. Grades One to Nine; g/h = No major emphasis on either subject, i.e. Grades One to Nine; G = Compulsory subject in Grades Ten to Twelve; H = Compulsory subject in Grades Ten to Twelve; g/h = Elective subjects in Grades Ten to Twelve.

At the Junior High level, Grades Seven to Nine, History for years dominated Geography--in fact Geography was really non existent. Only in the last few years have separate parallel courses developed which give equal emphasis to both subjects.

In the Senior High school courses have always been separate in the time span covered by this chapter. Geography has always been dominant in Grade Ten and History dominant in Grade Eleven. Only in the last few years in Grade Twelve have both subjects gained equal emphasis. This stemmed from the University of Manitoba recognizing Geography as satisfying University entrance requirements.

History has, in these past twenty-two years, been the dominant subject with Geography very much subservient to it. However, in the mid-1960's this began to change due in part at least to the improvement in the training of Geography teachers through the University Geography Department, and Geography began to assume something akin to its rightful place.

With the proliferation of new Geography courses during this time period there must be a regard for curriculum change and construction for it is not something which is entered into without any prior thought. It also becomes necessary to set objectives and to show how they will be met in a new course.

An examination of some of the changes in the past which were done without enough thought would be, for instance, in the Junior High changes of 1947-48 where within only a few years teachers and pupils were dissatisfied with the Grade Eight programme. More recently problems have developed in the Grade Five Social Studies course, Geography, where within two years of its introduction people were decrying it. The Indian/Metis Committee for instance have forced the withdrawal of two pages in the text claiming they display racial discrimination against the Indian. This Grade Five course is one of the newly introduced Elementary courses and it was really introduced without a satisfactory pilot programme development.¹ The organizing committee asked for an extra pilot year to iron out any snags but the Department of

¹Miss A. Gunther, Chairman of Grade Five Curriculum Revision Group, Principal of Laura Secord School, private interview held at Laura Secord School, Winnipeg, Manitoba, June 1971

Education decided that it was in a hurry to introduce this course so refused an extra pilot year. There seems also to have been a lack of two way communication between the pilot staff and the committee for none of the pilot staff's recommendations were accepted and all the direction came from above¹. Consequently many teachers found this an ideal course for the brighter pupil but very difficult for the less gifted.

From post war times courses have tended to centre on the study of man in relation to his environment as well as following both a regional and a systematic pattern. This has continued to date and even shows in all the new courses of the sixties. However, one point becomes obvious; for courses to be successfully implemented they must have a sound philosophical base.

Effective Geography teaching seems in the last few years to be improving perhaps because there is now more geographic continuity in the Social Studies programme and at least in some schools some interdisciplinary development from the point of view of Science.

For most of this time Geography was not thought to be an important subject. Its importance only began to increase in the middle sixties, with the development of Geography courses that were concerned with general principles and problem solving. This

. . . has already had an impact on the practice of geography teaching . . . such new approaches to the teaching of geography aim to introduce the student to the fundamental concepts and intellectual methods of geography as a discipline, rather than merely attempting to pass on to

¹Private interview held with the staff of Laura Secord School, Winnipeg, Manitoba, June 1971.

him a given body of geographical data. Thus, expository methods of teaching, in which the teacher presents facts to the pupil, are replaced by hypothetical or inferential methods in which the student applies his own intellect to the solution of specific problems. The many benefits of involvement in problem-solving include the development of the student's capacity for flexible thinking, a greater understanding of the mechanisms whereby geographical patterns tend to evolve, an appreciation that there is more than one possible solution to any locational problem and more efficient memorization of those facts which are relevant to the solution of the problem in question.¹

These new developments augur well for the continuation of a viable Geography programme in Manitoba.

¹P. R. Thomas, Education and the New Geography, Geography, Vol. 55. No. 3, July 1970: p. 276.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY

The aim of this thesis was to study the evolution of Geographic education in the schools of the Province of Manitoba 1818 to 1968.

Within the schools of Manitoba, Geography has always been a subject of study. To say this, however, is to say nothing about the status of Geography in any one time period for it has not always occupied the position it has today. Rather, its fortunes have fluctuated generally in response to changes in content over the years. This was generally a result of changes in geographic research and the demands of societal pressure groups.

The review of the development of Geography showed the trends and changes occurring within academic Geography during the time occupied by this study. It also allowed some reference to developments occurring in Eastern Canada (generally Ontario) the United States, Great Britain and Europe.

The study is chronological, being divided into a series of time periods. These divisions are not arbitrary but are of significance within Manitoba's educational history. They begin with the schools of the Red River Settlement from 1818 to 1870, and then examines Geography in the Separate Schools from 1871 to 1890. The establishment of secondary education in 1891 begins the third period which ends after the Second World War in 1945. The final period follows the modern develop-

ments from 1946 to 1968.

Sources of material for the study ranged through the Manitoba Provincial Archives and Legislative Library, the Reports of the Department of Education (including those of the Superintendents and Inspectors), and the Programmes of Studies produced for teachers by the Department of Education. Authorized textbooks and departmental examinations were also consulted as they often provided important information on the philosophy of Geography within the Province at any given time.

In the schools of the Red River Settlement and in the Separate Schools the Geography that was taught consisted of the memorization of facts. These facts consisted of lists of places, products and Physical Geography terms. The textbooks used at this time were in the main just gazetteers of information. Poor texts encouraged poor courses as invariably the text was the course. Teachers were largely untrained in Geography and certainly uninspiring. This was typical of Geography during the latter part of the Nineteenth Century in Eastern Canada, the United States and Great Britain.

Towards the end of the Nineteenth Century and during the early part of the Twentieth Century this situation in Manitoba continued. However, in the academic world the ascendancy of Physical Geography was occurring following, particularly in North America, the work of Semple and Davis. This brought a brief revival of Physical Geography in Manitoba though this faded very rapidly and what did remain was absorbed into General Science.

None of this type of Geography gave any place to man. However, there was, in Manitoba, a movement towards descriptive Geography with brief looks at certain areas. This suggests trends from the ideas of Herbertson¹ which had been developed in Great Britain.

It was then, in the 1920 to 1930 period, that Geography experienced its greatest decline in Manitoba and it almost disappeared completely from the curriculum. This was due to a variety of reasons, among them being the failure of Physical Geography to provide leadership in the academic field. Also the regional courses developed weaknesses when, in an attempt to encourage student interest, they tended to avoid geographic facts. As there was no Geography Department at the University of Manitoba no leadership could be provided and History gradually occupied the space created by the decline of Geography due to better preparation of teachers and courses. Following this the development of Social Studies in the late 1930's was also detrimental to a resurgence of Geography. During this period what Geography was taught was little more than an understanding of relationships, between man and the physical environment.

In the post war period Geography in Manitoba (reflecting the academic trend of the thirties) began to centre on man and his relations to his environment. The regional course assumed ascendancy and its combination with the ideas remaining from earlier periods lead to Geography acquiring an eclectic nature.

¹A. J. Herbertson, the British geographer who developed a system of world regions.

It was, however, perhaps the establishment of a strong Geography Department at the University of Manitoba in 1949 under Professor Thomas R. Weir that, in the long run, triggered the gradual growth and improvement of Geography courses in the schools of Manitoba during the middle 1960's.

Where the courses of the forties and fifties were, in places, repetitive, inconsistent and utilised foreign textbooks, the courses of the sixties (reflecting both Physical and Human as well as a Regional and Systematic Geography) were being better taught by better trained teachers. This latter point, no doubt, a result of the growth of the University Geography Department.

From the analysis of the trends and developments in Manitoba which mirrored those taking place elsewhere in the geographic world, certain conclusions may be drawn which hopefully will be of benefit to geographic curriculum developers here in Manitoba in the 1970's and 1980's.

Geographic education should be built around the development of ideas and concepts though it is difficult to decide whether physical or human ideas are suited to any one particular age group. Useability of factual content, teacher personality and teaching methods all exert a distinct influence on learning. It therefore appears that the greatest influence on geographic attitude is teaching method, particularly where it deals with concrete ideas and real situations. A wealth of concrete descriptive detail seems necessary for geographic reasoning, relational thinking and development of geographical ideas and conclusions. It should be noted, however, that an interest in a content item is not a

prerequisite for teaching it. Within this framework, however, the most important method appears to be the inductive one which takes the pupil from the concrete to the abstract.

All of these points have gradually come to the fore in Manitoba (particularly in the last few years) although they have taken a long time to arrive. At the same time along with them has come an increase in the use of various teaching aids and a distinct improvement in map skills.

This situation shows that we have, in Manitoba, moved over the last one hundred and fifty years from place-name Geography to relational thinking which, in itself, aims at an improvement of individual intellectual development and social virtue. These constructive types of development should allow an easy acceptance of modern ideas in Geography such as spatial analysis and quantitative techniques. This will, no doubt, help to perpetuate the interest in Geography that has been engendered in students by the new course development in the last few years.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books.

- Boon T. C., The Anglican Church from the Bay to the Rockies. Toronto: Ryerson Press, 1962.
- Bradley John Hodgdon, World Geography. Toronto: Ginn and Company, n.d.
- Branom Mendel E. and Branom Fred K., The Teaching of Geography, Emphasizing the Project or Active Method. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1921.
- Braund Bruce W., and Woods John K., Advisor, Edward Pleva, The Southern Continent. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Company of Canada Limited, 1965.
- Broek Jan O. M., Geography its Scope and Spirit, concluding Chapter Suggesting Methods for Elementary and Secondary Teachers by Raymond H. Muessig and Vincent R. Rogers. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1965.
- Broek Jan O. M. and Webb John W., cartographic design by Mei-Ling Hsu, A Geography of Mankind. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1968.
- Brunhes Jean, La Geographie Humaine. Paris, France: Librairie Felix Alcan, 1925.
- Butler William, Exercises on the Globes and Maps. 11th ed.; London, England: T. Bourn, 1827.
- Campbell J., L'Atlas et la Geographie. Toronto: James Campbell and Sons, Canada Publishing, 1877.
- Campbell W. C., revisor, Our Earth as a Whole, A First Book of Modern Geography, Part II, Tarr and McMurry Geographies. Toronto: George N. Morang and Company Limited, 1902.
- Chase G. A., High School Geography. Toronto: Canada Publishing Company Limited, 1903.
- Chorley Richard J. and Haggett Peter, ed., Frontiers in Geographical Teaching. London, England: Methuen and Company Limited, 1965;
- Clee David, In Many Latitudes, A Geography of the British Isles, Africa, Australia, New Zealand and Antarctica. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Limited, 1960.
- Clee David and Hildebrand W., Eastward to Europe. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Limited, 1967.

- Cornish George A., A Canadian School Geography. Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons Limited, 1923.
- Cornish George A., Geography of Commerce for Canadians. Toronto: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons (Canada) Limited, 1934.
- Davis Darrell Haug, The Earth and Man, A Human Geography. Revised ed., New York: MacMillan and Company, 1948.
- Dickenson Robert E., The Makers of Geography. London, England: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1969.
- Dicken Samuel N. and Pitts Forrest R., Introduction to Human Geography. Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1963.
- Dickie Donald, The Great Adventure, An Illustrated History of Canada for Young Canadians, Illustrated by Lloyd Scott. Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons (Canada) Limited, 1950.
- Dickie D. J. and Palk Helen, Pages from Canada's Story. Toronto: J. M. Dent and Sons (Canada) Limited, 1928.
- Douglas M. P., Social Studies. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1967.
- Dryer Charles R., Lessons in Physical Geography. New York: American Book Company, 1901.
- Eclectic Physical Geography. New York: American Book Company, n.d.
- Fairgrieve James, Geography in School, 4th ed. London, England: University of London Press Limited, April 1937.
- Fenton Edwin, Teaching the New Social Studies in Secondary Schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Company Limited, 1966.
- Freeman T. W., A Hundred Years of Geography. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Company, 1961.
- Frye Alexis Everett, New Geography, Adapted for Canada by I. Gammell, A Frye-Atwood Geographical Series. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1917.
- Garland Aileen, Canada Then and Now, with unit on American History by Kenneth McNaught, illustrated by Robert Banks. Toronto: McMillan Company of Canada Limited, 1956.
- Garrioch A. C., The First Furrows. Winnipeg: Stovel Company Limited 1923.

- Geikie Archibald, Geology. London, England: Macmillan and Company, 1873.
- Geikie Archibald, Physical Geography. London, England: Macmillan and Company 1873; 2nd ed., Toronto: James Campbell and Son, 1875.
- Gilbert Karl Grove and Brigham Albert Perry, High School Physical Geography. D. Appleton and Company, 1902; reprint ed., Morang Education Company Limited, 1909; revised ed., Toronto: McMillan Company of Canada Limited, 1918.
- Goodall George ed., Philips' Modern School Atlas. London, England: The London Geographical Institute, 1909; 39th ed., Liverpool, England: Philip, Son and Nephew Limited, 1948.
- Gopsill G. H., The Teaching of Geography. New York: Macmillan and Company Limited 1966.
- Hartman Gertrude, Builders of the Old World, illustrated by Marjorie Quennel, Educational Consultant Lucy S. Saunders, General Consultant Allan Nevins, Maps by B. Magnuson Derwinski. Vancouver: Copp Clark Publishing Company Limited 1946; revised ed., new Unit IX by F. E. Tinkler, new illustrations by Graham Byfield, 1957.
- Hartshorne Richard, Perspective on the Nature of Geography. New York: Rand McNally and Company 1962.
- Healy W. J., Women of the Red River. Winnipeg: Russell, Land and Company 1923.
- Highsmith Richard M. and Northam Ray M., World Economic Activities, A Geographic Analysis. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1968.
- Hildebrand W. and Clee D., Westward to Asia. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Limited 1968.
- Hodgins J. George, Easy Lessons in Geography. Montreal: John Lovell 1864.
- Hughes William, A Class-book of Modern Geography with examination questions, revised ed., by William J. Francon. London, England: George Philip and Son 1883.
- Huntington Ellsworth and Cushing Sumner W., Principles of Human Geography. New York: John Wiley and Sons Inc., 1921.

- Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools, Memorandum on the Teaching of Geography, original title. London, England: George Philip and Son Limited, January 1935; reprint ed., under title of The Teaching of Geography in Secondary Schools. Liverpool, England: Philip, Son and Nephew Limited, September 1952.
- James Preston E., All Possible World, A History of Geographical Ideas with maps by Eileen W. James. Indianapolis: The Odyssey Press a Division of Bobbs-Merrill Company Inc., 1972.
- James Preston ed., New View Points in Geography. Washington D.C.: Twenty-Ninth Year Book of the National Council for the Social Studies 1959.
- Leeuw De Gary, Jones Dave, Koch Ed., Woolley Max, Manitoba, Its People and Places, General Ed., Evelyn Moore. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada Limited 1968.
- Massey D. L. General Ed., Seiveright D. J., Phillips R. A. J., Richards R. P., Carson L. R., Sale C. J., Welsh A.J., Kelly B. M., Patrick J. H., Around Our World, A Study of Communities. Toronto: Ginn and Company 1965.
- McIntyre Alexander, World Relations and the Continents, An Elementary Geography for the Junior and Middle Grades of the Public Schools, Part I, World Relations; Part II, The Continents. Toronto: W. J. Gage and Company Limited 1911.
- McWilliams Margaret, Manitoba Mile Stones. Toronto: J. M. Dent and Company Limited, 1928.
- Ministry of Education, Geography in Education. London, England: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, Pamphlet No. 39, 1960.
- Morice A. G., History of the Catholic Church in Western Canada. Toronto: Masson 1910.
- New Canadian Geography. Winnipeg: Clark Bros., and Company, 1899.
- Nute G. L., ed., Documents relating to the North West Missions, 1815-1827. St. Paul Minnesota Historical Society, 1942.
- Oliver E. H. ed., Canadian North West its Early Development and Legislative Records. Ottawa: Government Printing Bureau, Vol. 1, 1914. pp. 52-53.
- Ontario Department of Education, The Public School Geography. Toronto: Canada Publishing Company Limited 1887.

- Our Home and its Surroundings, Part 1, a Morang's Modern Geography.
Toronto: George N. Morang and Company Limited, n.d.
- Page David, Introduction to Physical Geography. London, England:
William Blackwood and Sons 1875.
- Pillans James, First Steps in the Physical and Classical Geography of
the Ancient World. England: Arrowsmith, 1831: revised 12th ed.,
with illustrated maps by Thomas Fawcett. Edinburgh, Scotland:
Adam and Charles Black 1878.
- Preston Ralph C., Teaching Social Studies in the Elementary School.
New York: n.p. 1950.
- Ratzel Friedrich, Anthropogeographie. n.p., n.d.
- Reid, Canada, Land of the Beaver. n.p., n.d.
- Ridgley Douglas C. Geographic Principles their application to the
Elementary School. Henry Suzzallo ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin
Company, the Riverside Press Cambridge 1925.
- Saul John E., ed., A Complete Geography, Tarr and McMurry's Geographies,
Toronto: Morang Educational Company Limited 1906; reprint ed.,
Toronto: McMillan Company of Canada Limited 1915.
- Scarfe Neville V., Handbook of suggestions on the Teaching of Geography.
n.p., n.d.
- Scarfe Neville V., Tomkins George S., and Tomkins Doreen Margaret,
A New Geography of Canada. Toronto: W. J. Gage Limited 1963.
- Schofield F. H., The Story of Manitoba, Toronto: S. J. Clark 1906.
- Semple Ellen Churchill, Influences on Geographic Environment on the
basis of Ratzel's system of Anthro-geography. New York: Henry
Holt 1911.
- Shortt A. and Doughty A. G., Canada and its Provinces. Toronto: T. &
A. Constable; Educational University Press Publishers Association
of Canada 1914.
- Smythe James M. and Brown Charles G., Elements of Geography based on
Outlines of General Geography by E. O. Robinson. Toronto:
MacMillan Company of Canada Limited, 1959.
- Stamp L. Dudley, A Regional Geography for Advanced and Scholarship
Courses, Part I, the Americas. London, England: Longmans, Green
and Company, July 1930.
- Stamp L. Dudley and Kimble George H. T., North and South America,
Geography for To-day Canadian Series. Toronto: Longmans, Green
and Company 1943; revised and enlarged 1948.

- Stembridge Jasper H., North and South America. n.p., n.d.
- Stembridge Jasper H., Regions and Peoples of the World, Oxford Progressive Geography, Senior Series, Book One. London, England: Oxford University Press, 1958.
- Stembridge Jasper H., The World. n.p., n.d.
- Stevenson Robert M. and Baragar Fred D., Public School Geography, a Gage's Geographical Series. Toronto: W. J. Gage and Company Limited 1934.
- Stone W. G., and Inch R. Spencer, Geographic Fundamentals. New York: McGraw-Hill Company Limited 1963.
- Stull de Forest and Hatch Roy W., Our World To-Day, A Textbook in the New Geography. Boston: Allyn and Bacon 1931.
- Taylor Griffith, Seiveright Dorothy J. and Lloyd Trevor, Canada and her Neighbours. Toronto: Ginn and Company, n.d.
- The Book of Boys and Girls, n.p., n.d.
- Thoman Richard S., The Geography of Economic Activity, An Introduction to World Survey. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc., 1962.
- Tomkins George S., Hills Theo L., Weir Thomas R., A Regional Geography of North America, Manitoba ed. Toronto: W. J. Gage Limited 1966.
- UNESCO, Source Book for Geography Teaching. London, England: Longmans Green and Company Limited 1965.
- Van Riper Joseph E., cartographic design by Mei-Ling Hsu, Man's Physical World, 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1971.
- Wrong George M., Martin Chester and Sage Walter N., The Story of Canada, illustrated by C. W. Jeffreys. Toronto: The Ryerson Press 1929.

Published Reports.

Baragar Fred D., "Should Geography and History become Social Studies?"
Report to the 32nd Annual Convention of the Manitoba Education
Association. Winnipeg: Department of Education, Easter 1940.

Garland A., "The Case for a Social Studies Programme in Manitoba."
Report to the 32nd Annual Convention of the Manitoba Education
Association. Winnipeg: Department of Education, Easter 1940.

Manitoba, Report of the Royal Commission on Education 1959. Winnipeg:
Queen's Printer, 1959.

Simonson C. S., A Brief Prepared for the Royal Commission on Education
by the Social Studies Departmental Heads. City of Winnipeg High
School, Winnipeg 1959.

Stamp Dudley, "Geography in Canadian Universities." Ottawa:
Ottawan Canadian Social Science Research Council 1951.

Journals.

Baragar Fred D., "Practical Public School Geography by a High School
Theorist." The Western School Journal (May 1928):186-191.

Bulletin de la Societe Historique de St. Boniface Vol. III St. Boniface,
Manitoba (1913):94.

Chapman J. D., "The Status of Geography." The Canadian Geographer Vol.
10 (June 1966):133-144.

Charlier Patricia and Charlier Roger H., "The Place of Geography in
French Education." The Journal of Geography, Vol. LIX, (1960):
322-326.

Egan Charlotte, "Geography Teaching." The Western School Journal.
(May 1920).

Harrison Lily, "Geography in Grades IV, V and VI." The Western School
Journal. (May 1918):191.

Hartshorne R., "The Nature of Geography." Association of American
Geographers. (1958):135.

High James, "Geography: Coordinating Element in Secondary Social
Studies." The Journal of Geography. Vol. 59. (September 1960):
270-282.

- Herriot A. A., "School Inspectors of the Early Days in Manitoba." Transactions of Historical and Scientific Society of Manitoba Series III. No. 4.
- Howarth O. J. R., "A Survey of the Present Position of Geography in Schools." The Journal of Geography. Vol. 38. (1953):267-273.
- Inch Spencer, "The Place of Geography in our Schools." Educational Review. No. 80. (November 1965):17-22.
- Jaenen C. J., "Foundations of Dual Education at Red River 1811-1834." Transactions of Historical and Scientific Society of Manitoba. Series III. No. 21. (1965).
- Marchant E. C., "Geography in Education in England and Wales." Geography. No. 49. (1964):173-191.
- May J. A., "Kant's Concept of Geography and its Relation to Recent Geographical Thought." University of Toronto, 1970. The Canadian Geography. Vol. XVI. No. 1. (1972):77.
- McIntosh H., "Geography, Science and Social Study." The Western School Journal. (June 1936):198.
- Morriss J. A., "Reality in Geographical Education." Geography. No. 51. (1966):87-98.
- Pratt A. H., "On Social Studies" from Suggestions for Teachers. Manitoba Schools Journal. Vol. XIX. Nos. 2 and 7. (October 1957):8-10.
- Putnam R. G., "Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools." Canadian Geographer. Vol. II. (1967):230-234.
- Ready W. B., "Early Red River Schools." The Beaver. (December 1947):34.
- Robinson J. L., "Growth and Trends in Geography in Canadian Universities." Canadian Geographer. Vol. II. (1967):216-229.
- Scarfe N. V., "New Directions in Geographic Education in North America." Geography. No. 51. (1967):198-209.
- Scarfe N. V., "Research on the Teaching of Geography - a Review." Canadian Research Digest. No. 7. (Summer 1960):97-111.
- Scarfe N. V., "The Teaching of Geography in Canada." The Canadian Geographer. No. 5. (1955):1-8.
- Thomas P. R., "Education and the New Geography." Geography. Vol. 55. (July 1970):274-279.

Vickerson M., "Geography." Education Journal of Western Canada. Vol. 1. (January 1900):266.

Wheeler James O., "Trends in the Philosophy and Methodology of Geography, 1950 to 1974: An Overview." Journal of Geography. (1974):9-16.

Weir Thomas R., and Russell William J., "The Status of Geography in the Social Studies Curricula of Canadian School." The Journal of Geography. Vol. 58. (September 1959):280-285.

Wilson Ruth, "Geography in Grades IV, V and VI." The Western School Journal. (May 1917):205-208.

Wood Harold A., "The Teaching of Geography in Canada." Comissao de Geografico, Rio de Janeiro. Publicacao No. 197. (1953).

Encyclopedias.

Encyclopaedia Britannica, "Geography," by P. E. James.

Newspapers.

"Early Teacher Training in Manitoba." Winnipeg Free Press, 30 October, 1971. p. 39.

Microform Reproduction.

Church Mission Society, Reel No. A. 77, Provincial Archives of Manitoba, Winnipeg.

Unpublished Material.

Davis Matilda, Teacher's Book, January 1847. Provincial Archives of Manitoba, Winnipeg.

Davis Matilda, Teacher's Book, 1854. Provincial Archives of Manitoba, Winnipeg.

Davis Matilda, Teacher's Book, 1855. Provincial Archives of Manitoba, Winnipeg.

Manitoba Board of Education, Catholic Section, Appendix to Education Law 1879. Provincial Archives of Manitoba, Winnipeg.

Manitoba Board of Education, Catholic Section, Appendix to Education Law 1882, Provincial Archives of Manitoba, Winnipeg.

Reverend John West to W.S. Aldershot, near Farnham, England, File No. 1008, Rupertland Archives, Provincial Archives of Manitoba, Winnipeg.

Unpublished Theses.

Belton George B., "A History of the Origin and Growth of Schools in the City of St. Boniface". M.Ed. University of Manitoba. 1959.

Braine L. B., "Historical Survey of Social Studies Curriculum in Newfoundland". M.Ed. University of Alberta. 1965.

Chiste A., "The Development of the Elementary Social Studies Programme in Alberta." Masters. University of Alberta, Edmonton. 1963.

Dowker George Hasted, "Life and Letters in Red River 1812-1863". M.A. University of Manitoba. April 1923.

Grime A. R., "Geography in Secondary Schools of Ontario 1800-1900". M.Ed. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. November 1968.

Harper Hilton C., "A Comparative Study of Elementary Geography Programme in Various Parts of Canada and the United States of America." M.Ed. University of Manitoba. November, 1953.

McNeilly R. A., "An Analysis of Geographic Education in the Protestant High School of Montreal". Masters. McGill University, Montreal 1963.

Newfield G. M., "The Development of Manitoba Schools Prior to 1870". M.Ed. University of Manitoba. 1937.

Oulton R. C., "Teaching of Geography in Canadian Schools 1840-1955". M.A. (Education). McGill University. 1955.

Peter William, "A Historical Survey of some major aspects of preservice teacher education in Manitoba." M.Ed. University of Manitoba. 1963.

Quick E., "Development of Geography and History Curricula in Elementary Schools in Ontario 1846-1966". Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Ready William Bernard, "The Political Implications of the Manitoba School Questions 1896-1916". M.A. University of Manitoba. 1948.

Regnier Paul R., "A History of St. Boniface College". M.Ed. University of Manitoba. 1964.

Richards L., "Teaching of Geography in Canadian Secondary Schools with particular reference to Saskatchewan". M.Ed. University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon Campus. September 1970.

Simms Eldon F., "A History of Public Education in Manitoba, 1870-1890". M.Ed. University of Manitoba 1944.

Stamp Dudley, "Geography in Canadian Universities 1951". Ottawa Canadian Social Science Research Council. 1951.

Topping W., "A History of Geography Teaching in British Columbia". M. A. University of British Columbia. 1963.

Wilson Keith, "The Development of Education in Manitoba." Ph.D. Michigan State University. 1967.

Interviews.

Dotten Vic., J. Dafoe School, Winnipeg Manitoba. Interview June 1971.

Gunther A., Chairman of Grade V., Curriculum Revision Group, Principal of Laura Secord School, Winnipeg, Manitoba. Interview June 1971.

Staff of Laura Secord School, Winnipeg, Manitoba. Interview June 1971.

Department of Education Publications.

Annual Report of the Superintendent of Protestant Schools, 1871-1896. Provincial Government Library, Legislative Buildings, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Annual Report of the Superintendent of Catholic Schools, 1871-1896. Provincial Government Library, Legislative Buildings, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Annual Reports of the Department of Education, 1897-1967. Provincial Government Library, Legislative Buildings, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Programmes of Studies for Elementary, Junior High and Senior High 1871-1967. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Manitoba Board of Education, Protestant Section, Examination of School Teachers 1875. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Manitoba Board of Education, Protestant Section, Examination of School Teachers, 1st Class Certificate 1877. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

- Manitoba Board of Education, Protestant Section, Examination of School Teachers, 2nd Class Certificate 1877. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Board of Education, Protestant Section, Examination of School Teachers, 3rd Class Certificate 1877. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Board of Education, Examination of School Teachers for 1st Class Certificate 1885. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Board of Education, Examination of School Teachers for 2nd Class Certificate 1885, Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Board of Education, Catholic Section, Examination of School Teachers, 1st Class Diploma 1885. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Board of Education, Catholic Section, Examination of School Teachers, 2nd Class Diploma 1885. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Examination of Teachers, Geography, 3rd Class Certificate, July 1891. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Examination of Teachers, Geography, 2nd Class Certificate, July, 1893. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Examination of Teachers, Geography, 1st Class Certificate, July 1897. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Examination of Teachers, Geography, 2nd Class Certificate, July 1897. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Examination of Teachers, Geography, 3rd Class Certificate, July 1897. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Examination of Teachers, Geography, 2nd Class Certificate, July 1908. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Examination of Teachers, Geography, 3rd Class Certificate, July 1908. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

- Manitoba Department of Education High School Entrance Examination
Geography, 1920. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg,
Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education Commercial Examination, 1920.
Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education Grade Nine Examination, Geography,
1920. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education Grade Nine Examination, Physical
Geography 1920. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg,
Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education Entrance Examination, Geography 1927.
Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education High School Examination Board,
Geography II, Paper No. 57. Examination 1936. Department of
Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education High School Examination Board,
(Representing the Department of Education and the University of
Manitoba). Geography, Principles of Human Geography, Paper
No. 5. June 1938. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg,
Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education High School Examination Board,
Geography Grade 11. Paper No. 4. June 1945. Department of
Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education High School Examination Board,
Principles of Human Geography, Grade Twelve, Paper No. 29.
June 1945. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Eleven Examination. August
1950. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Twelve Examination. June
1950. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Eleven Examination. June
1955. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Twelve Examination. June
1955. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
- Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Eleven Examination. June
1960. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Twelve Examination. June 1960. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Eleven Examination. June 1966. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Manitoba Department of Education, Grade Twelve Geography 300 Examination. June 1966. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

University Entrance Seminar. July 1963:10-11. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.

Elementary Curriculum Seminar, Social Studies Report. July 1964:15. Department of Education Library, Winnipeg, Manitoba.