

***Bibliothèque
et Archives
nationales***

Québec



Le présent fichier est une publication en ligne reçue en dépôt légal, convertie en format PDF et archivée par Bibliothèque et Archives nationales du Québec. L'information contenue dans le fichier peut donc être périmée et certains liens externes peuvent être inactifs.

Version visionnée sur le site Internet d'origine le 12 août 2013

Section du dépôt légal

megill

Journal

of education

STUDIES.

REVIEWS. ESSAYS.

Editorial	113	M.G.
Memories in Gray and Miss Jeanette Cann	115	Pierre Berton
The Becoming of Caroline	119	Margaret Gillett
Rhetoric and Reading Comprehension	125	Jane Catterson
Trois méthodes d'enseignement de la lecture	133	Jean Vachon
Trends in Teacher Preparation Curricula in Canada	144	Geraldine Channon
History of Education Courses in the Preparation of Canadian Teachers	160	Robert M. Stamp
The First Canadian Journal of Education	170	F. Henry Johnson
Trends in Higher Education in Australia	177	R. Selby Smith
An Experiment in Participatory Democracy	187	P. M. George
The Challenge of Rising Educational Costs	195	D. I. Joan Glen
Are We Too Busy To Think?	204	E. George Cochrane
Reviews	207	Hearsey, Wright, Domino et al.

**McGill Journal of Education
Editorial Board**

Editor	Margaret Gillett
Assistant Editor	Paddy Hearsey
Business Manager	Keith Jobling
Member	Jan Lobelle
Member	William Talley
Member	G. Rejskind
Member (ex-officio)	Wayne Hall



The McGill Journal of Education is published twice a year, in the Spring and Fall. Subscription rates, post paid: 1 year — \$2.00; 2 years — \$3.75; 3 years — \$5.00. single copies — \$1.00; Students — half price.

Subscriptions, payable to the McGill Journal of Education, should be addressed to the Business Manager, McGill Journal of Education, Faculty of Education, 3700 McTavish Street, Montreal 112, Province of Quebec, Canada. Phone: 392-8843.

The McGill Journal of Education is indexed in the Canadian Education Index. © Faculty of Education, McGill University.

Pierre Berton

Memories in Gray and Miss Jeanette Cann

High school in my memory is a gray area. I did not really care for my teachers and they did not greatly care for me. I was told on more than one occasion by the principal that I would never amount to anything because I was clearly lazy. I spent more time editing a clandestine school newspaper than I spent on my studies. My marks were mediocre and my class standing in the bottom half. One of my worst subjects was English composition; anything I wrote was generally dismissed as "too journalistic." When my newspaper was discovered (it was typewritten and passed from hand to hand on a rental basis), attempts were made to suppress it. The school did not encourage extra-curricular activities.

When I was seventeen I enrolled at Victoria College, then a branch of the University of British Columbia in the provincial capital. It was a strange institution in many ways, housed in a fairy castle built by Robert Dunsmuir, the coal baron, for his bride. A generation of scuffling students had obliterated the parquet floors and blurred the details of the wall panelling.

We did not think of it as a "real college." With its two hundred students and its brief two years of courses, it was more like an overgrown high school. But it was cheaper to take one's freshman and sophomore years there, in those depression years, than to travel across the Strait of Georgia to the University of British Columbia.

Yet, looking back on it now, I can see how really fortunate I was to attend the college between 1937 and 1939. Its smallness, in retrospect, seems like a remarkable asset. There was none of the anonymity of the multiversity. We were a tightly-knit group, like a large unruly family. Classes were often so small that the system was almost tutorial. Our professors knew

each of us personally and because they knew us well, they took a personal interest in us.

I helped start a newspaper at Victoria College (an associate was Bruce Mickelburgh, later editor of *Monday Morning*) and I still recall with warmth and affection the very great enthusiasm that the teaching staff showed, both in the venture itself and in me personally. People as disparate as Sydney Pettit, the librarian, and Ed Savannah, our chemistry instructor, went out of their way to encourage this fledgling journalism. My high school teachers blur into a kind of a vague mass, one more or less indistinguishable from the other, but the members of the Victoria College faculty remain for me sharply etched as individuals.

The most individual of all, I suppose, was Madame Sander-son-Mongin, our French instructor, a tiny, stooped French-woman with white hair, a pince-nez, a remarkable liquid accent and a continental philosophy of life. I still recall the moment at one of the college dances when we youths lingered at one end of the hall nervously eyeing the cluster of young women fidgetting at the other. As the music struck up Madame rushed out and began seizing each of us by an arm or an elbow (and, it seems, in retrospect, even a leg) and propelling us forcibly toward the tittering women: "Dance! Dance!" she cried. "You have so little time!"

But of all that motley faculty, the one I remember with the greatest affection was Jeanette Cann, my English professor. At first glance, Miss Cann was a formidable creature. She had a face rather like an eagle, with glowering brows, a beak of a nose and piercing eyes. Her iron grey hair was worn in a kind of pompadour. She also sported a pince-nez, with a long black ribbon and, of course, an academic gown. She was considered by many of the students to be somewhat eccentric because, like most good teachers, she spent a good deal of time in English class discussing something that seemed to have nothing to do with the course at hand; she was a bug on modern art. I had never heard of modern art before, but, because I liked to draw cartoons for the college paper, she took me under her wing and gave me an informal course of instruction. Georgia O'Keefe was one of her favourites; I can still see Miss Cann standing at the head of the class, showing us O'Keefe prints of the American southwest. And Emily Carr: "You *must* buy an Emily Carr," I remember her telling me. "You can get a big canvas for a hundred dollars. If you

have to buy, beg or steal the money, do it!" Alas, a hundred dollars then was an impossibility. I believed Miss Cann but I could not raise a ten spot.

Of course Miss Cann was not really eccentric at all. She was simply ahead of her time. She helped to change my life. Until I encountered her I had thought that I wanted to be a chemist. That was because my father, who was a frustrated scientist, thought that I *ought* to be a chemist. I had a laboratory in the basement, in which I conducted various experiments but the ham in me diverted my activities towards show-business and my experiments were more like conjuring tricks than serious science. I held chemical shows in our woodshed, charged a nickel a head and often netted a dollar on a Saturday afternoon by creating instant colours and minor explosions.

In English class Miss Cann encouraged us all to write and, sensibly, encouraged us to write about something we knew well. My first essay for her described a Klondike ritual which I had experienced as a boy in Dawson City: the departure of the last steamboat upriver in mid-October. I put some feeling in this piece because I knew what I was writing about: the starkness of the Yukon hills when the leaves had fled the trees, the smell of snow in the air, the river cold and gray hissing past the town, the little boat getting up steam and the crowd on the dock, doomed to the prison of an eight-month winter, wistfully waving goodbye to those friends and relatives who were departing for warmer climes. Miss Cann greeted this effort with the one thing that every writer must have: applause. She gave me an A-Plus and praised me publicly in front of the class. From that moment on she encouraged me constantly to write, and, basking in the warmth of that approval, I wrote.

My marks in English continued to be excellent. My marks in chemistry and physics, which were never high, dropped alarmingly. I found I was cutting work to spend more and more time on the college paper. In my own basement laboratory the Florence and Erlenmeyer flasks gathered dust. One day, during a heated meeting of the Alma Mater society, a friend saw me scribbling furiously in my note book. "Why," he asked, "why are you writing it all down?" And, as much to my astonishment as his, I blurted out: "Because I intend to become a writer."

It was the first time I had admitted it to anybody, including myself, but having admitted it, I stuck to it. That night I

told my family that I would be changing my course the following year. I was cutting out science and switching to history, government, philosophy and English. My mother was disturbed. She came from a line of journalists and she assured me that I would be poor for the rest of my life. I said that it didn't matter; I had to do what I wanted to do. She told me that chemists sometimes made as much as eighty dollars a month. I could not be moved and, to do both her and my father credit, neither of them ever tried to change my mind.

The following year I moved on to University and then into the newspaper business. I am happy to say that I kept in touch with Miss Cann, after her retirement from Victoria College. Many years later, when I was managing editor of *Maclean's Magazine*, I was asked to speak to the Canadian Club of Ottawa. After I accepted, the club wanted to know if there was anybody special I would like them to ask as a guest. I was about to say "No," when I remembered Miss Cann. She had retired to the federal capital. I gave them her address and was delighted to discover that they had not only invited but had also placed her at my side at the head table. When she was introduced there was applause; Miss Cann stood up and beamed. I hope she was proud of me; she seemed to be. I did not see her again, for she died that same year. But it has always been a matter of satisfaction to me that I was able to tell that audience in Ottawa, in her presence, that she was the one who had saved me from an eighty dollar a month job as a chemist.

Margaret Gillett

The Becoming of Caroline*

In the field of Education, we talk a lot about individual differences — how teachers should recognize them, how the curriculum should be organized around them, how the schools should foster them. Yet, I am inclined to think this is one of the greatest con games in contemporary education. We still do not think in terms of individuals; we really worry about categories. We acknowledge that the quest for individual identity is one of the all-important concerns of education but — perhaps it's the pressure of mass age numbers — we are hung up on roles. Socially defined roles certainly can engender a sense of security, they may even be short-cuts to identity; but they are pre-packaged, not custom-made; they may be convenient, but they are not always apt; they tell you what you're supposed to do, not who you are. Just last week, I heard of a homely, but very telling, example of this.

A colleague of mine has a three-year old daughter, Caroline. She recently had her hair cut short and her father, who perhaps is not quite up-to-date with boys' hairdos, teased her and said, "Caroline's a boy, Caroline's a boy!" "I'm not," cried Caroline in confusion and distress, "I'm a girl." Caroline likes to go shopping. She decided to go by herself and, being a practical child, she took along most of the things in her mother's jewelry box, including the housekeeping money. Hours later, her frantic mother located her at the police station (with only \$12 left). The police had picked her up near the highway but, though she knows her name and

*Address given at the Cap and Gown Convocation, Russell Sage College, Troy, N.Y., April 27, 1971.

address very well, she wouldn't give them to the police. All she would say was, "I'm a girl. I'm a girl."

The question is, how will she become Caroline? There are enormous pressures for her to accept and to play a role — the role of girl as our society has defined it.

The influences start very subtly and very early. In infancy, Caroline was put in pink, not blue, baby clothes. Those innocent pink booties could become bonds of expectation and perhaps they are really only milder forms of the classic Chinese footbinding which physically, as well as psychologically, defined the role girls would play.

As Caroline emerged from infancy, she was still allowed to play with cuddly toys and was permitted to cry — not so her brother. She has learned some winning, "girlish" ways — she follows her mother around the house with a duster and a tiny mop, she empties her father's ashtrays, she's encouraged to be clean and tidy, while her brother is playing ball outside in the mud.

Next year, she'll go to kindergarten and soon she'll learn to read. In children's books, she'll find plenty of reinforcement for the role for which she is being programmed. She will probably encounter as many girls as boys in the stories she reads. For the most part they will be girls with dolls, girls with kittens, girls who help with the new baby just like a little mommy. There will be some, but few, dynamic girls and non-domesticated women. According to a recent "women's" magazine article on children's books, most of the mothers portrayed will be vapid and passive, most of them serving as cooks, laundresses, and cleaning women. I hope Caroline will not read a blatant apology for the status quo by a Whitney Darrow called *I'm Glad I'm a Boy! I'm Glad I'm a Girl!* It says fearlessly, "Boys have trucks." "Girls have dolls." "Boys are doctors." "Girls are nurses." "Boys fix things." "Girls need things fixed." "Girls can cook." "Boys invent things." "Girls use what boys invent." Caroline will probably not be able to escape the formula story of the tom-boy who, at the end of the book, concedes that her mother was right, that dresses can be pretty, and gives up "boyish" activities in favor of her traditional role of helper and tea-pourer.

What is called "sexism in children's literature" is at last rousing serious concern and has recently been the subject of papers in popular magazines and learned journals as well as at Children's Book Week conferences. This exposure of

the subtle indoctrination is welcome, but I think it should be pointed out that the issue is not really one of sex — or sexism — but it's a matter of gender. This distinction really ought to be preserved throughout the entire debate on Women's Lib.

But to return to Caroline — as she goes up through the school system, even though she attends co-ed schools, she will find that there are still "girl's" subjects and "boy's" subjects and that teachers and guidance people will try to channel her into appropriate "girl's" programs. She may take an interest in sports, but in her highschool years she will learn that it may be all right to play well but not *too* well if she is to conform to the social mores and dating patterns. Otherwise, she may find that she has no boyfriends and may later have an experience like the one I had here in Troy while I was at Russell Sage. I used to play tennis on the public courts in the park at the top of the hill. One day I played with a young man who happened to be a Negro and, perhaps, I beat him. At the end he said, "You play well — for a woman." His condescension was unconscious and I didn't have the heart to reply, "You play well for a Negro." It is just assumed, deep down, that women are always inferior — and we're supposed to accept it. Women's role, in sports especially, is to stop doing and become spectators or, as the swinging hockey star of the Boston Bruins, Derek Sanderson, said, "Girls are just part of the equipment."

Anyway, when Caroline gets to college, she may be able to take a course in Women's Studies and get a systematic analysis of all this. She may be amazed to discover that John Stuart Mills' great book, *The Subjection of Women*, was written as long ago as 1869 and she might also be surprised to discover that a man, Ashley Montagu, wrote a book on *The Natural Superiority of Women*. She'll find other revelations in works like Mary Beard's *Women as Force in History*, Caroline Bird's *Born Female*, Simone de Beauvoir's *The Second Sex*, and Kate Millett's *Sexual Politics*. She may get fired up or furious with the essays now pouring out of the Women's Lib. movement — Robin Morgan's *The Sisterhood is Powerful*, for example, and she may be lucky enough to get hold of the best-selling Canadian publication, *Royal Commission Report on the Status of Women*. She may simply encounter this question in her general reading. Perhaps she'll come across Meredith's statement, "Woman is the last thing to be civilized by man" (1859); or she'll see Ibsen's *Doll's House*;

or laugh at Thurber's perennial "battle of the sexes"; or read Virginia Woolf's *A Room of One's Own*. She may or may not be amused by Dr. Johnson's intended witticism about the educated woman and the performing dog — it's not a question of how well they do it, it's against nature and a miracle that they do it at all!

But our Caroline is more likely to be reading Marshall McLuhan than Dr. Johnson. She will find that he claims in the *Gutenberg Galaxy* that by 1929 women had been homogenized by the movies and photo advertising, reduced to uniformity and repeatability. In *The Mechanical Bride*, she will read how "the images of advertisements and movies presented a mechanized image for women. Although her skirts were shortened, the woman of the thirties and forties pulled herself *in* with corsets and *up* with bras; glamor photos were taken on tiptoe, emphasizing the rigidity of the mechanical pull on the leg; the individual piece of anatomy — a leg with a stocking, a bust with a bra — were illustrated as fragments or replaceable parts. Finally, in the forties, the drum major-ette appeared — An adolescent love notice, a junior chorus girl in cavalry officer attire... instructed in the art of symbolic flagellation."

Caroline may scoff at these generalities and want to go on with her education and her career. The idea of her becoming a physician, for example, is not impossible and she won't have to fight the strenuous battles of a hundred years ago. Maria Montessori, Italy's first woman doctor and later famous educator, had to argue her way into medical school, had to be escorted by a chaperone and, since it was not decorous for a young woman to work on cadavers with men, she had to practice her anatomy alone at night. Caroline won't have that, but she may have quotas to contend with and subtle discriminations that manage to keep the number of female physicians in the U.S. at about 7% of the total (in contrast to 85% in the U.S.S.R.). If she decides to take up another career, she will also encounter prejudice. This is one reason why Claire Kirkland Casgrain, the only woman in the Quebec National Assembly, has said that women in politics are "as rare as whooping cranes." And even here in the U.S. you don't have many, though two new ones were elected to the present Congress. There was once a woman mayor of Ottawa, Canada's capital. She was Charlotte Whitton and she pointed out that, for a woman to succeed in business or politics, she had to be at least twice as good as a man and,

she added, "Luckily, this isn't difficult!" There was also once a woman in the Canadian cabinet, Judy LaMarsh. She wrote in her memoirs that she was always something of a second class citizen, not in the mainstream, partly because so many of the important decisions were made in a place from which she was banned, the executive washroom.

But Caroline might decide to go in for teaching, traditionally a woman's job. If she does, she will most likely get equal pay, but she will find that the path to promotion is narrow, that relatively few high schools have women principals and that a decreasing number of elementary schools have women at the head. If she teaches at the college level she will discover that, as late as 1970, women were discriminated against in terms of hiring, promotion, salary, and administrative appointments. A recent study at McGill, my university, shows unhappily that this is true there — though I myself cannot complain.

Perhaps Caroline will give up the idea of a career and her crazy yen to be a hockey goalie, a jockey, or a baseball umpire. She may find fulfilment in marriage and disappear into the happily-ever-after. Or perhaps she will re-emerge some disenchanted morning, with a copy of Betty Friedan's *Feminine Mystique* in one hand and an application for Women's Lib in the other.

Meanwhile, she will have had the privileges of citizenship — including the right to vote, accorded to women in America after World War I, not until 1940 in the Province of Quebec, and in Switzerland in 1971. But she has long had the privilege of paying equal taxes. Though it is unlikely that she got equal tax breaks. There are no arrangements for a deductible wife for women, even though it has clearly been recognized that every professional woman needs a wife.

As Caroline grows older, she will have to cope with questions of pension plan benefits, annuities and insurance policies, special medical deductions and retirement schemes. All this complexity might make her sympathize with the elderly widow from Vancouver who complained that computing the estate taxes gave her so much trouble that she was almost sorry her husband had died. And perhaps this is where, finally, the bonus is. If Caroline has played her role properly, she will have been protected from the hurly-burly of the world and she will inherit all the money her husband grew ulcers to make. You really can't wonder that nowadays Men's Liberation groups are beginning to form. They'll be needed as

long as the social expectations are so unfair; as long as men are forced into typically aggressive and competitive roles which they, as individuals, may not want to play; and as long as the situation can be exploited by wily women.

It is perfectly obvious that until people, all people, are permitted to grow up and define their identities in their own terms — not as adjuncts to someone else nor just as patterns in the social mosaic — no one will really be free. And it will only be when we truly allow for individual differences and worry less about roles that our heroine will stop being a girl and will become Caroline. I hope she makes it.

Jane H. Catterson

Rhetoric and Reading Comprehension or Reading Skills in Search of a Content

One of the tasks of what Robinson¹ has called the “inventive methodologist” is the creation of new teaching models. Such models may be drawn from the original research of the methodologist concerned, or they may be formed by drawing together, from various sources, ideas and principles that seem to provide guidelines for new ways of thinking about teaching. The teaching model discussed in the following paper is based, not on the original research of the writer, but on a drawing together of ideas from such psychologists as Bruner, Ausubel and Robinson, such linguists as Pike, and such inventive methodologists as Herber. The resulting amalgam, it is hoped, will provide a frame of reference for some of the skill-building practice being given in the name of teaching reading, and which, it seems, is seldom translated into “real” situations because teachers do not understand well enough the context within which they are teaching.

value of organizing principles in learning

Both Ausubel and Bruner have made important statements about the significant effect on learning of the teacher’s conveying to the pupils a sense of the structure of any discipline being studied. In this context, Ausubel suggests that verbal learning has been unnecessarily maligned and that it need not be so meaningless as some critics would suggest.² He makes a number of suggestions, however, about the conditions needed to make verbal learning meaningful and states:

One important variable affecting the incorporability of new meaningful material is the *availability in cognitive organization of relevant subsuming concepts at an appropriate level of inclusiveness* to provide optimal anchorage.³

He suggests further that relevant subsuming concepts should be introduced into learning at the beginning of a learning sequence so that these concepts, acting as "advance organizers,"⁴ may provide the "anchorage" needed.

In another context, commenting on the search for "big ideas" in the development of physics curricula, Ausubel pursues the principle of subsuming ideas:

The power of the big ideas is in their wide applicability and in the unity they bring to an understanding of what may appear superficially to be unrelated phenomena.⁵

Although Bruner and Ausubel do not agree in all aspects of their thinking about the psychology of cognition, some of Bruner's statements about curricula are remarkably like Ausubel's. Commenting on the problem of constructing curricula, Bruner maintains:

The teaching and learning of structure, rather than simply the mastery of facts and techniques, is at the center of the classic problem of transfer.⁶

applying new organizing principles in new curricula

Statements like those quoted above are widely accepted and are the basis for many developments in "new" curricula — new science, new math, new social studies. In each of these school subjects, it is considered, there is knowledge to be acquired, knowledge that has structure; and that structure gives the subject its shape. With that basic principle in mind, teachers of physics think that they have failed if they teach their pupils "bits" of physics knowledge without conveying to them an insight into the structure of the discipline itself. The essence of the revolution in mathematics or science is not, then, that the content of each subject has changed so much but that *approaches to the content* have changed. The thrust has been in the direction of clarifying the subject by putting its content into new frames of reference.

existing organizing principles in the teaching of reading

Probably the tables of contents of texts on reading are the best source of information about how the reading methodologist presently organizes his subject. Most texts, after saying something about the importance of reading in the world today, make a fairly lengthy statement about (1) readiness (which almost invariably seems to mean readiness for beginning reading and assumes that the child is six years old), and then go on to discuss (2) word skills in the primary grades, (3) comprehension skills in the primary grades, (4) word skills in the intermediate grades, and (5) comprehension skills in the intermediate grades. Of late years, as a recognition of the fact that reading in the subject texts has been neglected, a chapter or two is likely to be included on "Reading in the Content Areas."

The impression given by the study of such tables of contents is that reading is a process one can talk about *in general*, without being specific *about what is to be read*. It is assumed, apparently, that reading is simply a process of adapting basic skills already learned to different kinds of material. No wonder teachers in grades four and up wonder why children who have been *A* students in the primary grades cannot read their science or social studies texts. These teachers think that if they use the basal reader regularly they are teaching "reading." They leave it to the children to transfer skills to the content areas.

But basal readers are almost entirely made up of narrative materials and, when the child learns to read the narrative pattern and think about it in certain ways, he is not learning to read other patterns which demand quite different ways of thinking. He really must be taught to read *the most common patterns of writing* and develop ways of thinking about them that are appropriate.

The fact is that the skilled reader has as "advance organizers" his previous experience with patterns of written English. His thought processes are structured, even before he begins to read, by his expectations about the way the pattern will operate to convey ideas. He does not need to read with prior knowledge of the subject matter (although this is, of course, an advantage if he has some), so long as he has prior expe-

rience with similar patterns of writing. His advance organizers provide the "anchorage" Ausubel mentions. The trouble is that good readers have a talent for seeing structure in writing and have taught themselves to use it. Without specific help, some people never learn it.

proposal for a new organizing principle in reading teaching

The revolution in organizing subjects for teaching is long overdue in reading. "New" reading should be based on an approach to teaching that uses the common structures of written English as its frame of reference. Linguists have moved from word structures to sentence structures. Their move beyond the sentence seems to have moved very little further than the paragraph, it is true, but some of Pike's' work, and that of other tagmemicists, seem to bridge the gap between the paragraph and the forms of such whole "language units" as essays, poems, stories. Obviously the linguists are getting to where the students of literary form have been for some time and reading, linguistics, and literature are finally beginning to coalesce! If it is fair to expand the term "rhetoric" to include the notions of unity and order within a form, then we can say that the "new" reading should centre on rhetoric as its organizing principle.

Having studied the teaching of reading with such frames of reference, a teacher would have a precise idea about which reading skills and subskills would be needed within each writing pattern and would not give children practice in subskills that were not appropriate to the pattern being studied. Teachers could be much more efficient in their questioning if they understood the kind of thinking each pattern of rhetoric demanded.

interviews with teachers of "new" reading: building a mind set

Teacher One

Q. What kind of reading are you teaching today?

A. Well this is a grade two class, so we work mainly in narrative materials.

- Q. Do you think that narrative is the most appropriate material to use with beginning readers?
- A. That's hard to say. We make the assumption that children want to learn stories when they come to school. Perhaps they are more ready for this form than any other. On the other hand, some children may find it hard to follow a time sequence and remember it. I suppose a different writing pattern might be easier for them.
- Q. Why do you mention time sequence in relation to narrative?
- A. Oh, mainly because one has to teach reading in relation to the basic organizing principles in the material to be read. The basic skill in comprehending stories is following the plot and using that as the thread around which the concepts about character, setting, and theme are wound.
- Q. What materials do you use for teaching narrative reading?
- A. I use basal readers for groups and narrative trade books for individual instruction. I try to show them that the same kinds of questions are appropriate in each type of book, so that they are constantly building what I call "the mind set for reading narrative."
- Q. Are they developing that mind set, do you think?
- A. Yes, I think so. Yesterday I gave them a whole story to read by themselves. It was at their independent reading level and I asked them to read and pretend I had asked them some questions before-hand. When they had finished, I asked them what kinds of questions I would ask. They predicted very well the plot, character, setting, theme questions, just from their experience with stories.

Teacher Two

- Q. What kind of reading are you teaching today?
- A. This is a grade four class, so I've been introducing them to the idea of information reading.
- Q. How is that different from narrative reading?
- A. Well, since information materials are organized in topical outline patterns (that is, a main idea — details pattern) reading in sequence from beginning to end is not appropriate. Robinson⁸ has pointed out that this kind of pattern is much more efficiently read in what he calls the SQR pattern. This involves a *survey* technique, in which one reads title, introduction, summary, headings throughout before attempting to read details at all. This preliminary survey

gives one a frame of reference around which to structure one's thinking.

- Q. I thought I heard a teacher say last week that she was using the SQR as a pattern for story reading.
- A. Yes, unfortunately, that is an example of some teachers' habit of seizing something good in one context and applying it in another where it is not appropriate.
- Q. Do I understand, then, that the SQR method of reading is appropriate only for materials organized in a *logical* pattern?
- A. Yes.
- Q. Does it apply in science books?
- A. It did apply in the "old" science texts, a type still being used a good deal in elementary schools. But it doesn't apply in senior high school in any of the "new" sciences. Actually, one of the major problems in new biology, chemistry and physics is that the scientist-writers have developed what is essentially a new text-writing pattern. The reader has to be aware that the writer is presenting a "proposition-proof" kind of thinking and that he must grasp each stage of that proof as he reads.
- Q. But can't a reader expect to skip a step or two, just as a reader might skip a detail or two in information reading?
- A. No. In information reading, the main ideas are most important and a few details left out are not crucial. In new science, every step is important in the development of the single big idea being presented.
- Q. How well is this kind of reading being taught? Is it important to students learning the new sciences?
- A. From what teachers say, it is absolutely crucial to the subjects, and it may be one of the most important reasons for the admitted difficulty in teaching them. We might note that many lists of reading skills in science are now at least partly out of date. They are built on an analysis of old science texts.
- Q. We started talking about your information reading, actually, and I wanted to ask a question about teaching such reading. But perhaps the same question applies in each subject area. Are there materials easily available for practising the reading skills of each subject area?
- A. There are some workbooks that give practice in getting main ideas of paragraphs, reading experiments, map reading, and so on, but unfortunately they treat these skills in isolation from the total context of the reading material of

which they are a part. The teacher has always to be putting these exercises back into the total frame of reference within a "real" text.

Q. You don't think, then, that reading skills can be taught unless the teacher understands their application well enough to work into the text regularly?

A. Definitely not.

Q. What do you think about the materials that use a great many pictures and only a little print these days?

A. They seem like a way to get more directly at concepts. The trouble is, they may be difficult reading because a little print with many pictures may mean a good deal of "gear shifting" mentally and then you have another process to be learned!

Perhaps these two interviews have made the point. The teachers involved have a very clear grasp of the importance to reading of the rhetoric of the material to be read. They know that one cannot talk about the skills of literal comprehension or the skills of critical reading without saying what is to be read.

explicitness in teaching

As will be evident in the reference to the SQR method above, some books on study reading do suggest that children should be taught to read information in specific patterns. But very little has been done to explore each pattern of writing specifically or to make the concept an important organizing principle in teaching reading. Herber, who has probably been the most innovative of the writers on the subject of reading in the content areas,¹⁰ seems to feel that teachers should not start with statements about structure, or attempt to make explicit the importance of rhetoric in reading. He thinks that teachers should know a good deal about rhetoric, but should convey it to their pupils through carefully structured reading activities called "reasoning guides."¹¹ These reasoning guides, Herber suggests, should be designed to expose the structure of the material without making any statements about it. He insists that a grasp of structure must be gained inductively or not at all.¹²

This attitude seems unnecessarily rigid. In another context, he has found value in advance organizers and others of Ausu-

bel's ideas and so might be persuaded that this statement has merit:

...in meaningful learning situations, it is advisable to introduce suitable organizers whose relevance is made explicit rather than to rely on the spontaneous availability of subsumers.¹³

Even Bruner, who is sometimes thought to be completely committed to the idea of discovery learning, has this to say in a comment on math teaching:

It has also been pointed out by the Illinois group that the method of discovery would be too time-consuming for presenting all of what a student must cover in mathematics.¹⁴

However the approach is to be made, tangentially or directly, a study of rhetoric would seem to be an important avenue to reading comprehension. The idea is submitted as a new model for teaching reading, for teaching teachers of reading, and for research.

footnotes

1. Floyd G. Robinson, "The Contribution of Educational Psychology to Teacher Training," in David P. Ausubel, ed., *Readings in School Learning*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.
2. David P. Ausubel, *The Psychology of Meaningful Verbal Learning*, New York: Grune and Stratton, 1963, p. 15.
3. *Ibid.*, p. 28.
4. *Ibid.*, p. 85.
5. *Ibid.*, p. 78.
6. Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education*, New York: Vintage Books, 1960, p. 12.
7. Kenneth S. Pike, "Beyond the Sentence," in *The Study of Units Beyond the Sentence*, Champaign, Illinois: National Council of the Teachers of English, 1964.
8. *Ibid.*, p. 14.
9. Francis P. Robinson, *Effective Reading*, New York: Harper and Sons, 1951.
10. Harold L. Herber, *Teaching Reading in Content Areas*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1970.
11. *Ibid.*, Chapter 7.
12. *Ibid.*, p. 131.
13. Ausubel, *The Psychology ...*, p. 84.
14. Bruner, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

Jean Vachon

Étude comparative de trois méthodes d'enseignement de la lecture

problème

Les méthodes d'enseignement de la lecture, en usage dans les écoles françaises du Québec, reposent sur l'un ou l'autre des fondements suivants: global, linguistique ou phonétique (alphabétique). Nous voulons, dans cet article, comparer ces fondements en nous servant de trois des méthodes en usage: la méthode Dynamique, Le Sablier et la méthode Spontanée.

La méthode Dynamique est une approche globale à la lecture du groupe des méthodes "look and say". On apprend d'abord à l'enfant à lire des phrases simples. On lui enseigne ensuite à identifier les mots individuellement à l'intérieur de ces phrases et à les associer avec d'autres mots pour former de nouvelles phrases. On passe ensuite à l'analyse des mots en syllabes puis, des syllabes, on en vient à la lettre. L'approche y est globale, c'est-à-dire qu'elle a comme point de départ l'unité de pensée qui est la phrase.

La seconde méthode d'enseignement de la lecture, le Sablier, est une approche à fondement linguistique. On apprend d'abord à l'enfant à identifier un phonème particulier dans un conte et des comptines. On lui demande ensuite de dire les mots qu'il connaît qui contiennent ce son. L'institutrice fait, au tableau, la liste des mots suggérés par les enfants et souligne le graphème qui transcrit le phonème vedette. On attire l'attention de l'élève sur le fait qu'en français un même son peut s'écrire avec des orthographes différentes suivant le mot dont il fait partie. Ainsi le son *i* peut s'orthographier *i* comme dans *joli*, *it* comme dans *petit*, *is* comme dans *vern**is*, *y* comme dans dans le pronom *y*, *ie* comme dans *pouli**e*, *il* comme dans *genti**l*, *ient* comme dans *fuient*, ou encore *ies* comme dans *poli**es*.

Chaque semaine, on présente à l'enfant un son nouveau qu'il apprend d'abord à identifier auditivement puis à reconnaître graphiquement dans les mots de son propre vocabulaire.

La troisième approche à la lecture, la méthode Spontanée, est une méthode analytique ou alphabétique de la lecture qui s'inspire beaucoup des méthodes appelées, dans le Québec, phonétiques. Elle a son point de départ dans la lettre. On enseigne d'abord aux enfants à lire et à écrire, une à une, les voyelles simples, puis les consonnes (prononcées phonétiquement). Chaque consonne est reliée à chacune des voyelles pour former des syllabes (parfois artificielles) et des mots simples. La méthode est dite analytique en ce qu'elle part de la lettre pour aller à la syllabe puis au mot ou si l'on préfère c'est une méthode à base d'épellation.

objectifs du programme de lecture

L'objectif principal de l'enseignement de la lecture consiste à initier l'enfant à la pleine compréhension du langage écrit. Pour y arriver l'élève doit d'abord acquérir un système de décodification qui lui permettra de traduire la langue écrite en langage parlé (cet objectif est évalué, dans la présente recherche, par le test de lecture orale). En second lieu, l'élève doit être capable de réagir intellectuellement à la lecture, ce qui implique qu'il possède un vaste réservoir de concepts — l'école se doit d'enrichir continuellement le vocabulaire de l'élève — grâce particulièrement à la lecture — (cette partie du programme est évaluée par le test de vocabulaire) et qu'il maîtrise les habiletés de compréhension suivantes:

- 1— localiser l'idée principale d'un texte;
- 2— se rappeler la séquence des événements d'un récit;
- 3— tirer des inférences ou une conclusion;
- 4— et noter les détails significatifs.

(Le développement de ces habiletés de compréhension a été évalué par le test Vachon: Lecture, Vocabulaire et Compréhension.)

Comme corollaire à ses objectifs, l'école doit aussi enseigner à l'enfant à s'exprimer par écrit. Elle y arrive en initiant les élèves à la rédaction, à la grammaire et à l'orthographe d'usage. La nature des méthodes comparées dans la recherche incitait l'auteur à croire que le rendement des élèves en orthographe serait influencé par la méthode employée lors de l'apprentissage de la lecture, d'où le test d'orthographe. Si la compréhension en lecture est influencée par l'approche (globale,

linguistique ou analytique) utilisée, il est fort probable qu'il en est de même pour la rédaction, mais l'auteur de la recherche, ne disposant pas d'examen suffisamment objectif pour mesurer cet objectif, a préféré l'ignorer.

population

Tous les élèves des neuf classes de troisième année des écoles Notre-Dame-de-Pontmain (3 classes) et Sainte-Cécile (6 classes) de Laval des Rapides de même que tous les élèves de troisième année de l'école Mgr-Philippe-Labelle (4 classes) formaient la population utilisée dans la recherche. L'école Sainte-Cécile comptait 3 classes Dynamique et 3 classe Sablier tandis que l'école Notre-Dame-de-Pontmain comptait 2 classes Sablier et 1 classe Dynamique. A l'école Mgr-Philippe-Labelle, les enfants avaient fait leur apprentissage de la lecture par la méthode Spontanée. Les élèves de l'échantillon avaient toujours suivi la même méthode depuis la première année. Les résultats des enfants qui faisaient exception à cette dernière règle ont été éliminés de la recherche.

Au total, l'échantillon était constitué de 333 sujets, garçons et filles, dont 100 suivaient la méthode Dynamique, 125 Le Sablier et 108, la méthode Spontanée.

Il faut ajouter ici, qu'aux écoles Sainte-Cécile et Notre-Dame-de-Pontmain, les élèves avaient été classés au début de leur première année, en deux groupes équivalents d'après les résultats d'un test d'intelligence administré à la fin de la maternelle et que l'un de ces groupes avait été assigné à la méthode Dynamique et l'autre au Sablier et ce, dans les deux écoles. Les deux groupes, Dynamique et Sablier, venaient donc du même milieu socio-économique puisque tous deux appartenaient à la même population des mêmes écoles. Le groupe Spontanée ne partageait pas cette caractéristique.

Les institutrices de ces élèves, de même que celles qui les avaient précédées en deuxième et en première années, avaient toutes été initiées à la méthode qu'elles employaient.

tests

Nous avons administré quatre tests aux élèves de l'échantillon.

1— Une institutrice d'expérience a d'abord administré à tous les élèves un test d'orthographe préparé par l'auteur.

La même personne a administré le test à tous les élèves afin de minimiser le plus possible les différences (accent, rythme de dictée, etc.) pouvant venir de l'administration du test.

Le test d'orthographe était constitué de 25 mots tirés d'une liste originale de 99 mots choisis parce qu'ils représentaient un échantillon des graphèmes les plus courants de la langue française. Cette liste originale de 99 mots avait été administrée, en novembre 1967, à une classe de cinquième année d'une école de milieu socio-économique moyen de la ville de Québec. A partir des résultats obtenus par ces élèves, on avait alors tiré de la liste de 99 mots, une seconde liste de 25 mots dont les indices de difficulté s'étendaient uniformément de 15% à 85%, avec une difficulté moyenne de 50%. Pour assurer la validité de ce test d'orthographe, les 99 mots avaient été confrontés avec les exigences du programme alors en vigueur et, de plus, avaient été soumis au jugement du principal et des quatre titulaires des classes où les mots avaient d'abord été essayés. Ces cinq éducateurs ont reconnu que tous les mots faisaient partie du vocabulaire de l'enfant. C'est cette liste de 25 mots qui a servi de test d'orthographe.

En corrigeant ce test, on accordait un point par mot bien orthographié. On considérait le mot mal orthographié dès que l'élève faisait la moindre erreur tel un accent. On ne considérait pas comme une faute l'absence d'un point sur un i ou une majuscule ou une minuscule au début d'un mot. Le maximum de points possibles au test était de 25.

2— Un test non-verbal d'intelligence, le Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test, Elementary I Level, Form J, a servi à coter les élèves du point de vue capacité mentale. Nous avons utilisé un test américain parce qu'il n'existe pas de test collectif en français pour ce niveau.

Comme le test est non-verbal, le fait qu'il était anglais ne présentait aucune difficulté aux élèves. Nous avons cependant soigneusement traduit les directives du test en français.

Une équipe d'étudiants en docimologie (B.Sc.III) de l'Université de Montréal, qui avait reçu un bref entraînement à cette fin, a administré le test, conformément aux directives, à tous les élèves de l'échantillon. Le test était objectif, la correction en a été uniforme.

Dans cette recherche, nous nous sommes servis des cotes brutes telles qu'obtenues par les élèves au test d'intelligence et non pas de cotes normalisées comme, par exemple, de quotients intellectuels, et ce, pour deux raisons. La première c'est que les normes fournies avec le test sont américaines et par

conséquent ne peuvent pas être appliquées chez nous. La deuxième raison est que, dans une étude comme celle utilisée ici, il est préférable d'utiliser des cotes brutes, parce que toute cote normalisée est transformée, ce qui amène un risque d'erreur.

3— L'équipe qui avait administré le test d'intelligence, a aussi administré un test de lecture orale à 72 enfants sélectionnés de la façon suivante. On a demandé à chacune des institutrices d'envoyer, à tour de rôle, l'élève qui s'était classé premier, cinquième, dixième, quinzième, et ainsi de suite, au dernier bulletin scolaire. De cette façon, nous étions assurés d'avoir un échantillon représentatif de la classe. Chacun de ces élèves a lu quatre textes dont l'un était à peu près de niveau de 1ère année, le deuxième, de niveau 2ème-3ème année, le troisième, de niveau 4ème année et le quatrième, de niveau 5ème année. Afin d'être certain que ces textes ne soient pas plus connus d'un groupe que d'un autre, nous nous sommes inspirés, dans leur composition, d'un test diagnostique américain.

Pour faciliter la correction du test, la lecture de chaque élève a été enregistrée. Dans la correction de ce test, on a enlevé un point pour chacune des fautes suivantes : substitution, répétition, omission, inversion et aide de l'examineur (si un élève arrêta sur un mot, l'examineur lui disait le mot). On enlevait un point chaque fois qu'un examiné faisait une de ces fautes dans un texte. On accordait un maximum de 25 points par texte. Le maximum possible était donc de 100 points.

Dans ce cas encore, les correcteurs ont subi un entraînement jusqu'à ce que tous corrigent de la même façon. (On n'a pas tenu compte des fautes pour les pauses inopportunes parce que les correcteurs n'ont pas atteint l'unanimité sur ce point.) L'enregistrement de chaque élève a été corrigé par deux personnes qui écoutaient la lecture plus d'une fois si nécessaire.

Le hasard a voulu que 22 élèves Dynamique, 23 élèves Sablier et 27 élèves Spontanée aient constitué l'échantillon de lecture.

4— Enfin on a administré à tous les élèves de l'échantillon le test Vachon Lecture: Vocabulaire et Compréhension 3ème, 4ème et 5ème années, selon les normes propres au test. Cet examen est un test collectif de compréhension en lecture. Il comporte deux parties majeures. La première partie (Vocabulaire) mesure la saisie du sens d'un mot précisé par le contexte d'une phrase. On présente, dans le test, une phrase dont un des

mots est souligné et on demande à l'élève de choisir un synonyme ou un antonyme du mot souligné. L'élève inscrit sa réponse en encerclant l'une des quatre réponses suggérées.

La seconde partie du test évalue la lecture à travers la compréhension des textes. Le test présente à l'élève des paragraphes suivis de questions à choix multiples destinées à mesurer les différents aspects de la compréhension: habileté à choisir l'idée principale d'un passage, aisance à tirer des inférences ou des conclusions correctes d'un texte, facilité à localiser un renseignement spécifique (détail), aptitude à reconnaître une séquence d'événements et habileté à lire avec compréhension un problème d'arithmétique.

On a également corrigé le test suivant les normes du test. Ici encore, on a utilisé les cotes brutes obtenues par les élèves pour calculer les analyses statistiques.

Il est à noter que ni les institutrices, ni les administrateurs et correcteurs des tests, sauf Mme Vachon, n'étaient au courant du but de la recherche. Tous croyaient qu'on voulait étalonner des tests, ce qui était plausible puisque l'auteur de la recherche est bien connu dans les milieux de l'enseignement par ses tests publiés chez Lidec, Inc. De même, ni les institutrices, ni les principaux, ni les auteurs des méthodes de lecture n'ont vu les tests, sauf peut-être les tests publiés de l'auteur qui sont à la portée de tous.

analyses statistiques

On a appliqué une analyse de covariance sur les résultats obtenus par les élèves aux différents tests. L'analyse de covariance qui a été appliquée, a deux fonctions: premièrement, par la méthode statistique utilisée, elle permet de trouver quelles auraient été les moyennes réelles aux tests si les groupes avaient été absolument équivalents du point de vue intellectuel; deuxièmement, elle permet d'apprécier si les moyennes sont réellement différentes entre elles ou si la différence observée n'est due qu'au hasard. Lorsqu'une différence de moyenne est marqué d'un *, elle est significative au niveau de .01; de deux **, au niveau de .02; de trois ***, au niveau de .05 et de quatre****, au niveau de .10.

Avant de présenter les résultats de cette recherche, nous allons d'abord exposer brièvement chacun des objectifs mesurés.

décodification

L'élève doit être capable de traduire le langage imprimé en langage oral. Cet objectif, lorsqu'il est atteint, permet à l'enfant de lire mécaniquement, c'est-à-dire de traduire en langage oral le texte imprimé de sorte qu'un auditeur puisse suivre l'idée exprimée dans le texte. C'est la partie purement mécanique de la lecture qui n'implique pas automatiquement la compréhension du texte par le lecteur.

Nous avons vérifié jusqu'à quel point cet objectif était atteint par chacune des méthodes au moyen du test de lecture orale.

TABLEAU I

LECTURE ORALE

	Moyennes Test d'intell.	Moyennes Lecture orale	Nouvelles moyennes
Dynamique.....	49.09	65.82	65.34
Sablier.....	46.70	68.74	70.27
Spontanée.....	49.89	70.15	69.14
Différences de moyennes:			
Sablier-Dynamique			4.93
Spontanée-Dynamique			3.80
Sablier-Spontanée			1.13

En lecture orale, Sablier tient la première place, mais la différence est minime avec Spontanée et un peu plus importante entre ces deux méthodes et Dynamique.

N.B. Dans tous les tableaux, la colonne "Nouvelles moyennes" réfère à la moyenne de l'habileté mesurée réajustée par l'analyse de covariance.

vocabulaire

Cet aspect du programme de lecture qui consiste à faire maîtriser aux élèves le mécanisme de la lecture n'est pas le seul but à atteindre. Il faut que l'élève réagisse intellectuellement à la lecture, c'est-à-dire qu'il comprenne ce qu'il lit. Pour saisir le message exprimé dans le texte, le lecteur doit d'abord être capable de percevoir le sens des mots, de comprendre le vocabulaire. Pour comparer la situation des élèves de chacune des méthodes sous cet aspect, nous nous sommes servi des résultats obtenus à la partie Vocabulaire des Tests Vachon.

Les méthodes Dynamique et Sablier se montrent équivalentes sous cet aspect de l'acquisition du vocabulaire, mais la méthode Spontanée se révèle inférieure.

TABLEAU II

COMPREHENSION DU VOCABULAIRE

	Moyennes Tests d'intell.	Moyennes Vocabulaire	Nouvelles moyennes
Dynamique.....	47.49	21.12	21.13
Sablier.....	45.66	20.34	20.95
Spontanée.....	49.85	20.05	19.32
Différences de moyennes:			
Dynamique-Sablier			0.18
Dynamique-Spontanée			1.81***
Sablier-Spontanée			1.63***

compréhension

Le but ultime de l'enseignement de la lecture consiste à rendre l'élève capable de saisir pleinement le message exprimé dans le texte. Afin de mesurer le rendement de chaque méthode sous cet aspect fondamental du programme de lecture, nous avons utilisé les moyennes obtenues au Test Vachon, par les groupes échantillons. Les tableaux III, IV, V, VI et VII présentent ces moyennes pour chacune des composantes de la compréhension mesurée par le test (localiser l'idée principale d'un texte, se rappeler la séquence des événements d'un récit, tirer des inférences ou une conclusion à partir d'un passage, noter les détails significatifs d'une histoire et lire avec compréhension un problème d'arithmétique.) Le tableau VIII présente enfin les résultats à l'ensemble de la compréhension en lecture.

TABLEAU III

IDEES PRINCIPALES

	Moyennes Tests d'intell.	Moyennes Idées princ.	Nouvelles moyennes
Dynamique.....	47.49	4.42	4.42
Sablier.....	45.66	4.54	4.65
Spontanée.....	49.85	4.12	3.99
Différences de moyennes:			
Sablier-Dynamique:			0.23
Dynamique-Spontanée:			0.47**
Sablier-Spontanée:			0.66*

Comme l'indique le tableau III, il n'y a pas de différence significative entre les moyennes obtenues par les groupes Sablier et Dynamique quant à la facilité qu'ont les élèves à trouver l'idée principale d'un texte, mais la différence est significative à 0.01 entre Sablier et Spontanée et à 0.02 entre Dynamique et Spontanée.

TABLEAU IV

DETAILS			
	Moyennes Tests d'intell.	Moyennes Détails	Nouvelles moyennes
Dynamique.....	47.49	5.66	5.66
Sablier.....	45.66	5.06	5.22
Spontanée.....	49.85	4.92	4.92
Différences de moyennes:			
	Dynamique-Sablier		0.44
	Dynamique-Spontanée		0.94*
	Sablier-Spontanée		0.50****

Les élèves Dynamique présentent ici une supériorité apparente (différence de moyennes non significative) sur les élèves Sablier quant à la facilité qu'ils démontrent à localiser un détail précis d'un texte. Cette supériorité est très marquée si on les compare aux élèves des groupes Spontanée. Ceux-ci se sont d'ailleurs également montrés inférieurs aux élèves Sablier.

TABLEAU V

INFERENCE OU CONCLUSION			
	Moyennes Tests d'intell.	Moyennes Inf. ou concl.	Nouvelles moyennes
Dynamique.....	47.49	5.57	5.57
Sablier.....	45.66	4.80	5.00
Spontanée.....	49.85	5.32	5.09
Différences de moyennes:			
	Dynamique-Sablier		0.57****
	Dynamique-Spontanée		0.48****
	Spontanée-Sablier		0.09

Quant à l'aisance à tirer une inférence ou une conclusion d'un récit, Dynamique marque une supériorité sur les deux autres approches.

TABLEAU VI

SEQUENCES			
	Moyennes Tests d'intell.	Moyennes Séquences	Nouvelles moyennes
Dynamique.....	47.49	3.58	3.58
Sablier.....	45.66	3.12	3.16
Spontanée.....	49.85	2.86	2.80
Différences de moyennes:			
	Dynamique-Spontanée		0.78*
	Dynamique-Sablier		0.42****
	Sablier-Spontanée		0.36****

Sous cet aspect de la compréhension en lecture qui consiste à retracer la séquence des événements d'un récit, la méthode

Trois méthodes d'enseignement de la lecture

Dynamique se montre supérieure aux deux autres, puis vient le Sablier qui est aussi supérieur à la méthode Spontanée.

TABLEAU VII

LECTURE DES PROBLEMES D'ARITHMETIQUE			
	Moyennes Tests d'intell.	Moyennes Séquences	Nouvelles Moyennes
Dynamique.....	47.49	1.95	1.95
Sablier.....	45.66	2.08	2.16
Spontanée.....	49.85	2.17	2.07
Différences de moyennes:			
		Sablier-Dynamique	0.21
		Sablier-Spontanée	0.08
		Spontanée-Dynamique	0.12

En ce qui concerne la lecture des problèmes d'arithmétique, aucune des méthodes ne s'est montrée supérieure d'une façon statistiquement significative aux deux autres.

TABLEAU VIII

TOTAL DE LA COMPREHENSION			
	Moyennes Tests d'intell.	Moyennes Comp.	Nouvelles Moyennes
Dynamique.....	47.49	21.17	21.18
Sablier.....	45.66	19.44	20.03
Spontanée.....	49.85	19.10	18.37
Différences de Moyennes:			
		Dynamique-Spontanée	2.81*
		Sablier-Spontanée	1.66***
		Dynamique-Sablier	1.15

Les moyennes présentées au tableau VIII intitulé Total de la compréhension sont obtenues à partir de la somme des résultats de chaque élève à chacune des cinq habiletés de compréhension en lecture que nous venons d'analyser. Ce tableau nous révèle que les méthodes Dynamique et Sablier s'avèrent statistiquement équivalentes, mais supérieures à la méthode Spontanée.

orthographe

Nous avons aussi mesuré le rendement de chacune des méthodes en orthographe d'usage. Nous présentons ces résultats au tableau IX.

Le tableau IX indique très clairement qu'en ce qui concerne l'apprentissage de l'orthographe, une approche plus analytique de l'étude des mots se montre supérieure à la saisie globale du mot. En effet, les méthodes Spontanée et Sablier se

sont avérées, avec les groupes testés, équivalentes entre elles, mais meilleures que la méthode Dynamique.

TABLEAU IX

ORTHOGRAPHE D'USAGE			
	Moyennes Tests d'intell.	Moyennes Orthographe	Nouvelles moyennes
Dynamique.....	48.32	8.59	8.45
Sablier.....	45.86	9.94	10.38
Spontanée.....	49.41	10.98	10.58
Différences de moyennes:			
	Spontanée-Dynamique		2.13*
	Sablier-Dynamique		1.93*
	Spontanée-Sablier		0.20

conclusion

Nous laissons à l'éducateur et au chercheur le soin de tirer leurs propres conclusions, suivant leurs besoins, à partir des résultats rapportés dans cette recherche.

bibliographie

1. Henry E. Garrett, *Statistics In Psychology and Education*, New York: David McKay, 1966.
2. Arthur S. Otis et Roger T. Lennon, *Otis-Lennon Mental Ability Test Form J*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1967.
3. Jean Vachon, *Test Vachon Lecture: Vocabulaire et Compréhension 3^{ème}, 4^{ème} et 5^{ème} années (Groupes des 8, 9 et 10 ans), 1^{ère} Forme et Manuel*, Montréal: Lidec, 1970.

Geraldine Channon

Trends in Teacher Preparation Curricula in Canada

When I first began to study teacher education programs some ten years ago, it was still more or less possible to memorize the typical programs. For example, in the teachers' colleges, students took child development, school management, a smattering of art and music, general methods and a fairly heavy dose of remedial work in the 3 R's. The university graduates in the colleges of education received a complementary offering of adolescent psychology, school law and methods in academic subjects as appropriate. Those destined by their credentials for higher things also got crash courses in such weighty matters as ordering supplies. A few institutions were offering those new-fangled B.Ed.s, which were of course looked upon with that dark suspicion which Canadian educators reserve for most American inventions.

The university B.Ed. programs used different terminology, calling "child development," "educational psychology," and "school management," "educational administration." Despite such changes, the programs were still quite similar to the normal school programs they had replaced, although they did allow a wider choice of options.

In every program the course work was supplemented at some stage by a carefully worked out combination of practice and observation, usually two to three times as much observation as practice. In some cases, time actually devoted to practice was as little as 20 hours. On the basis of a five-hour day, that works out to just four days of practice. Of course, other institutions of that era were requiring as much as 100 hours, or about 20 days. These figures are quoted from a study of practice teaching made by the Canadian Teachers' Federation in 1961.¹

The programs of the time were accompanied by a chorus of complaints that they were dull, repetitive, irrelevant or full of "Mickey Mouse" courses. Teachers in particular criticized the small amount of time spent on practice teaching.³ The basic similarities of the programs were sometimes pounced upon by critics. One professor, for example, in a controversial book called *So Little for the Mind*, attributed these similarities to the fact that "teachers of teachers . . . have become a band of brothers. They are even a series of twins; if you meet Tweedledee in Halifax, Tweedledum meets you in Vancouver."⁴

Since that time, a great deal of interest has been shown in the reform of teacher education. Teacher associations, both in Canada and the United States, have shown some leadership in organizing study projects and conferences in this area. The institutions themselves have become engaged in study and revision of their programs.

In view of all this activity in teacher education, it seemed appropriate to the Canadian Teachers' Federation to undertake a study to determine whether the teacher education institutions were in fact changing their programs and, if so, whether they were changing in the directions which had been recommended by various agencies. Most of this article will be devoted to a summary of the results of the CTF study. However, before going into the details of these changes, it might be well to set the stage with a brief description of the development of teacher education in Canada.

The system in Canada, once patterns for training teachers were all established, was to train secondary school teachers at the university, after they had received a degree, and to train elementary teachers in normal schools, after some period of high school education. In the development of normal schools there was originally some similarity between Canada and the United States. However, at this point their paths began to diverge. As I understand it, many of the normal schools in the United States became teachers' colleges and gradually grew into four-year institutions offering liberal arts as well as professional programs and awarding degrees. This did not happen in Canada. The normal schools came to be called teachers colleges, but they remained state-operated single-purpose institutions offering one-, or occasionally two-year professional programs.

Nearly a third of the institutions for training elementary teachers in Canada are still institutions of the teachers' college type. However, change is occurring. Since 1945, one prov-

ince after another has transferred teacher education directly to the multipurpose universities without the intervening step of expanding the teachers' college program. While this process is not yet complete, it is very likely that we have now entered the decade in which all elementary teacher education will be transferred to the universities. The importance of this move in influencing teacher preparation curricula should not be underestimated, since it tends to bring with it longer programs, more highly trained faculty, more emphasis on the scholarly disciplines which contribute to the study of education and readier access to elaborate equipment.

Another difference from teacher education in the United States which has to be mentioned is that the minimum program for teachers is not yet, in any province of Canada, a degree. This is not to say that many teachers don't have degrees. However, they are not *required* to hold degrees and thus, while one may describe programs to one's heart's content, one cannot assume that all, or even most, teachers have taken the full programs described. On the other hand, minimum standards are constantly being raised. For example, Ontario has announced that the degree will be required for entrants to elementary teaching in 1973 and Alberta grants no permanent certificates to teachers with less than degree standing.

In summary, then, many Canadian institutions are having to adjust their programs both to suit the university milieu and to accommodate students who are, on the whole, older and better educated.

the CTF study

The study from which most of the material for this paper is drawn was conducted by CTF during 1969-70 and was an attempt to determine the trend, or lack of trend, toward certain types of innovation in teacher education institutions. We were at a certain advantage in this study in that the total population of teacher education institutions in Canada is small. There are only about 40 English-speaking teacher education institutions in Canada, compared with over 1,200 in the United States.

The programs offered by the Canadian institutions are of three main types. Outside of the province of Ontario, the university B.Ed. program for both elementary and secondary teachers is the prevailing pattern, although Nova Scotia and New Brunswick still have one teachers' college each. The uni-

versities also usually offer a one-year professional program for graduates of other faculties. In Ontario the pattern differs. Prospective secondary school teachers with degrees take a one-year program at a university college of education and receive a B.Ed. High school graduates may qualify as elementary school teachers after one year in a teachers' college. However, several of these teachers' colleges have become the faculties of education of their neighbouring universities since our study was begun and more will follow. Of the 35 institutions for which findings are reported in the study, 24 are classified as universities and 11 as teachers' colleges.

There is considerable variation in size among the institutions. Enrolments in the teachers' colleges in 1969-70 ranged from 360 to 1,770. For universities the range in size was much greater. Twelve institutions had enrolments in education of less than 500. In the remaining institutions undergraduate education enrolments ranged from 660 to 4,500.

The French-speaking teacher education institutions in Canada, most of which are in the province of Quebec, were not included in this study. They were left out partly because they were entering a period of rapid transition just at the time of the study, and also because of the difficulty of translating the survey instrument.

The findings cited, then, refer to English Canada institutions. A questionnaire was distributed to these institutions on the last day of December 1969. The response was so excellent that a 92 per cent return was received without any follow-up.

The questionnaire was designed to be as simple as possible to answer and was therefore quite structured. A total of 58 items was used, divided into seven groups dealing with administration and planning, overall design of the program, special courses within the program, practice teaching, school-faculty cooperation, teaching practices of faculty members, and buildings and equipment. For each of the items listed, respondents could indicate whether that particular practice was part of the regular program, in the experimental stages, in the planning stages or not planned at present, simply by placing a check mark in the appropriate column. Several open-ended questions were also included, dealing with admission requirements and faculty retraining. A final question asked respondents to indicate "the most significant change in your program during the past year."

some highlights of the CTF study

Most of the specific items in the questionnaire were chosen to illustrate one or more general innovation themes. These themes were drawn from a number of sources, including the proposals for model programs of elementary teacher education prepared for the U.S. Office of Education, various publications of AACTE and NCTEPS, and several proposals for reform that have been drawn up in Canada, for example the *COFFE Report* from the University of British Columbia,⁴ and John Macdonald's *The Discernible Teacher*.⁵

The five themes which I have chosen to attempt to illuminate from the CTF study are:

1. Individualization of instruction in teacher education.
2. Interaction of the school system and the training institution.
3. Disadvantaged children.
4. Orientation to change in education.
5. Educational technology.

Each of the five tables at the end of this article summarizes institutional replies to the items related to one of these themes. For convenience of analysis, each table contains two final columns, one of which is headed "Future Adoption Index" and the other "Innovativeness of Practice Index." The first of these columns received its heading on the assumption that, by combining the percentage of institutions which indicate a practice is part of the regular program with the percentage of institutions which indicate it is being planned or experimented with, one arrives at an estimate of the maximum percentage of institutions which will adopt the practice into the regular program in the near future. Similarly, the assumption underlying the "Innovativeness of Practice Index" is that, if one combines the percentage of institutions reporting that a practice is in the experimental or planning stages, with the percentage of institutions reporting it as not planned at present, one obtains an estimate of the maximum percentage of institutions for which that practice represents an innovation. This column, then, gives some idea of the newness of the practice for the Canadian institutions. Both indexes will be referred to in the discussion that follows.

individualization of instruction

Table I records items related to individualization of instruction in teacher education. "Individualization" is perhaps one of those fad words which appears from time to time and which subsumes under the one heading both old and new ideas. Consequently, there is a certain vagueness in the term. Nevertheless, it seems to represent a genuine search for programs which can be sufficiently varied in length, content and approach to be of value and interest to *all* students. The items listed in Table I refer to practices which, if adopted, would indicate a trend toward individualized instruction. They are of two types, those relating to overall program design and those concerned with the teaching practices of faculty members.

The results reported in this table show no items which even half of the institutions report as regular practice. The only item which is reported as regular practice by almost half the institutions is "replacement of formal examinations by other methods of evaluation." About one-quarter of the institutions reported that they were offering individually prescribed programs and that individual tutoring is regular practice among faculty members. These are the only three of the eight practices which appear at all likely to become regular practice in the near future in the majority of institutions.

Judging from the last column of this table, the remaining items would appear to represent highly innovative practices to most of the institutions. For example, computer-assisted instruction has been talked about a lot, but it is certainly far from being implemented in teacher education institutions in Canada. Similarly, computer-based instructional management systems are still remote from program realities. In fact, two respondents put question marks beside this item. It would appear that very few institutions are prepared to replace their methods courses with on-demand seminars, workshops and lectures, although there is one institution which operates rather consistently on this principle.

In general, then, one might say that the trend toward a thorough-going individualization of program is, in Canadian institutions, still rather minimal, although a few signs of increased flexibility are appearing. That many of the institutions are interested in this area was demonstrated in the responses to the open-ended questions. For a number of institutions, the major recent change in program was increased selection of options.

interaction of the school system and the training institution

Table II records items related to the interaction of the local school system and the teacher education institution. It is often suggested that there is a considerable gap between the thinking in the faculties of education and actual practice in the schools. According to some observers, it is the training schools which are reactionary. Other critics attribute the conservatism to the schools. Both views suggest a certain lack of sympathy between agencies which ought ideally to be in some harmony, or at least to interact in a mutually productive way. This lack of sympathy is often expressed as the gap between theory and practice.

We were therefore concerned in the survey to determine if there were any trend toward systematic interaction between the training institutions and their local school systems. It may be seen from Table II that there were only two items which were reported as regular practice by at least half the institutions. Fifty-two per cent of the institutions reported that school-faculty committees on practice teaching were part of the regular program and 54 per cent that field studies were included. The "Innovativeness of Practice" column suggests that the remaining items are still in the innovation stage for most of the institutions. On the other hand, there does seem to be a clear movement on the part of a third or more of the institutions toward most of these practices. In particular, it would appear that a considerable proportion of institutions will in future be involving the schools in program planning, arranging exchanges of school personnel and faculty, and replacing practice teaching with extended periods of classroom experience.

disadvantaged children

Table III summarizes responses to the items which were related to provisions for teaching teachers about disadvantaged children. We have become increasingly aware over the past decade of the schooling problems encountered by children who come from backgrounds which, for social, economic or ethnic reasons, are regarded as disadvantaged. In Canada we have perhaps been less ready to admit the prevalence of such problems or to acknowledge their severity. But we have known

for some time that the problems are common enough to warrant some attention in the pre-service training of teachers. It therefore seemed of interest to determine whether the training institutions were exhibiting any sensitivity toward these problems.

Four items were therefore included in the section which inquired whether various topics were included in the program as courses, or parts of courses. These items were "Eskimo education," "Indian and Métis education," "inner city children," and "preschool education." From the replies recorded in Table III it would appear that topics of this type do not form part of the regular program of the majority of the institutions and are not likely to do so in the near future. This lack of interest is not evenly distributed geographically. For example, six of the seven institutions reporting a course on Indian and Métis education are located in the four western provinces of Canada.

orientation to change in education

Table IV gathers together items which illustrate the theme which I have called "Orientation to change in education." This theme arises from the frequent observation that everyone going into the working world today should be prepared to change, either within an occupation, or from one occupation to another. Teachers are frequently exhorted not only to be prepared for change, but to attempt to bring about changes in education themselves. It seems quite appropriate therefore to inquire whether the training institutions are incorporating within their programs any courses which might lead beginning teachers to adopt or promote innovative practices in education. Six items of this type are recorded in Table IV. For each of these items, the institutions were asked to indicate whether the topic was touched upon in a course, or part of a course, that was included in the regular program.

The results reported in Table IV suggest that there is a stronger trend toward this theme than toward any of the others described previously. For example, 71 per cent of the institutions reported a course on educational technology as part of the regular program. From the Future Adoption Index for this table, it appears that fairly high proportions of institutions will in future be including in their programs such topics as innovation processes, sensitivity training and action research.

There is only one item in this table for which the Future Adoption Index is very low. This is the item described as staff management, or management of the teacher's staff. It seems very likely that future schools will see the employment of large numbers of paraprofessionals of various sorts and that teachers will be called upon to co-ordinate the activities of a variety of helpers. If so, it might be expected that there would be some reflection of this future pattern in the programs of the training institutions. In general, however, this was not found.

educational technology

The final theme expressed in the literature of change is the need both to bring technology into the training program and explain its uses in teaching. The items from the questionnaire which relate to this theme are reported in Table V. It would appear from the replies that the institutions are moving fairly briskly in this area and that many of the institutions have adequate equipment for the task. In general, it is the smaller institutions and the teachers' colleges which are less adequately equipped. The exceptions to the general picture of interest in educational technology are information retrieval courses, computer-assisted instruction, and multi-media study carrels.

summary

In summary, these would appear to be some of the general trends in teacher preparation curricula in Canada:

1. The total training periods have been lengthened, with the result that professional programs are being attuned to students who are more mature and have more academic training.
2. The programs have become more flexible and offer a wider choice of options. Various experimental programs are in operation, some centering on internships, others on interdisciplinary or thematic approaches, such as communication.
3. There is a trend toward the adoption of an interdisciplinary approach in professional courses in place of the almost exclusive emphasis on educational psychology which once prevailed.
4. Time devoted to practice teaching has been increased and in some cases has been replaced by a preservice internship.

5. Some innovative approaches to the development of teaching skills are being adopted, most notably microteaching, but also simulation games.
6. Students are being involved in a formal way in program development and administration.
7. The system of heavy dependence on formal examinations is breaking down to some degree.
8. The use of closed-circuit television for instructional purposes within the institutions is becoming quite prevalent.
9. Some attention is being given to providing the kinds of courses which might lead to innovative practice on the part of beginning teachers.

These nine points refer to the positive trends in curriculum. There are, however, areas in which trends are not yet very pronounced. For example, individualization of the programs does not seem to be proceeding very rapidly. Computer-assisted instruction is almost non-existent. The institutions have, in general, not yet demonstrated a sensitivity to such needs in the school system as the problems of disadvantaged children, nor to the possibility that the staffing patterns of the schools may be radically different in future. The study also detected inadequacies in the extent to which the training institutions and the local school systems interact.

It would be of interest to repeat this study in a few years' time to see whether the indicated trends continue and whether the predictions of possible future adoption into the regular program are realized.

references

1. Canadian Teachers' Federation, *A Preliminary Survey of Practice Teaching Programs*, Research Memo No. 8, Ottawa: The Federation, 1961, 52 pp.
2. See, for example, S. C. T. Clarke and Kathleen I. Kennedy, *Teachers' Evaluation of Their Preparation for Teaching*, Edmonton: The Alberta Teachers' Association, 1962, 63 pp.
3. Hilda Neatby, *So Little for the Mind*, Toronto: Clarke, Irwin, 1953. (Reprinted 1967), p. 91.
4. University of British Columbia, Faculty of Education. *The COFFE Report, 1969*. Report of the Committee on the Future of the Faculty of Education.
5. John Macdonald, *The Discernible Teacher*, Ottawa: Canadian Teachers' Federation, 1970, 89 pp.

Table 1. INDIVIDUALIZATION OF INSTRUCTION IN TEACHER EDUCATION

	Number and Per Cent of Institutions Reporting Practice As:										No Reply Total						Future Adoption Index Cols. 3 + 5	Innovativeness of Practice Index Cols. 5 + 7
	Part of Regular Program			In Experimental or Planning Stages			Not Planned at Present											
	N	%		N	%		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		%		
OVERALL PROGRAM DESIGN																		
1																		
Individually prescribed programs.....																		
Computer-based instructional management system.....																		
Adjustment of program length for individual students on the basis of performance criteria.....																		
Replacement of methods courses by on-demand seminars, workshops and lectures.....																		
TEACHING PRACTICES OF THE FACULTY																		
Computer-assisted instruction.....																		
Replacement of formal examinations by other methods of evaluation.....																		
Individual tutoring.....																		
Programmed instruction.....																		

Table II. INTERACTION OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM AND THE TRAINING INSTITUTION

	Number and Per Cent of Institutions Reporting Practice As:											No Reply			Future Adoption Index		Innovativeness of Practice Index
	Part of Regular Program				In Experimental or Planning Stages			Not Planned at Present									
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	Total		Cols. 3 + 5	%	
PRACTICE																	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		12	13				
Field studies (with youth groups, in nursery schools, etc.).....	19	54	5	14	8	23	3	9	35	100		68	37				
Extended period of classroom experience to replace practice teaching.....	5	14	14	40	16	46	—	—	35	100		54	86				
University-administered internship following graduation.....	3	9	9	26	23	65	—	—	35	100		35	91				
Exchange of faculty and school personnel.....	6	17	13	37	16	46	—	—	35	100		54	83				
Faculty membership for co-operating (practice, supervising) teachers.....	4	11	8	23	22	63	1	3	35	100		34	86				
School-faculty committees on practice teaching.....	18	52	12	34	5	14	—	—	35	100		86	48				
School-faculty committees on program planning.....	9	26	7	20	18	51	1	3	35	100		46	71				
Joint school-faculty-student innovation projects.....	5	14	11	32	19	54	—	—	35	100		46	86				
Assumption by faculty of major responsibility for operating a local school system.....	—	—	2	6	31	88	2	6	35	100		6	94				

TABLE III. DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

TOPIC OF COURSE	Number & Per Cent of Institutions Reporting Course on This Topic As:										Future Adoption Index Cols. 3 + 5	Innovativeness of Practice Index Cols. 5 + 7		
	Part of Regular Program				In Experi-mental or Planning Stages				Not Planned at Present					
	N		%		N		%		N				%	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%			N	%
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13		
Eskimo education.....	3	9	3	9	25	71	4	11	35	100	18	80		
Indian and Métis education.....	7	20	5	14	21	60	2	6	35	100	34	74		
Inner city children.....	5	14	5	14	22	63	3	9	35	100	28	77		
Preschool education.....	11	32	3	8	19	54	2	6	35	100	40	62		

Table IV. ORIENTATION TO CHANGE IN EDUCATION

TOPICS OF COURSES	Number & Per Cent of Institutions Reporting Course on This Topic As:						No Reply						Future Adoption Index		Innovativeness of Practice Index	
	Part of Regular Program		In Experimental or Planning Stages		Not Planned at Present											
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	Cols. 3+5		Cols. 5 + 7	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13				
Action research.....	9	26	6	17	18	51	2	6	35	100	43	68				
Educational technology.....	25	71	2	6	6	17	2	6	35	100	77	23				
Human relations.....	18	52	5	14	8	23	4	11	35	100	66	37				
Innovation processes.....	13	37	5	14	13	37	4	12	35	100	51	51				
Staff management (management of the teacher's staff).....	7	20	2	6	21	60	5	14	35	100	26	66				
Sensitivity training.....	10	29	12	34	11	31	2	6	35	100	63	65				
Social systems analysis (analysis of the school as a social system).....	17	48	8	23	8	23	2	6	35	100	71	46				

Table V. EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY

	Number and Per Cent of Institutions Reporting Item As:										Future Adoption Index	Innovative-ness of Prac-tice Index
	Part of Regular Program		In Experimental or Planning Stages		Not Planned at Present		No Reply					
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
COURSE TOPICS AND PRACTICE TEACHING												
1	2	3	4	5	6	8	8	9	10	11	12	13
Course Topics												
Educational technology	25	71	2	6	6	17		2	6	35	100	23
Information retrieval	4	11	7	20	20	58		4	11	35	100	78
Programming of instructional materials.....	14	40	8	23	11	31		2	6	35	100	54
Practice Teaching												
Simulation, educational games.....	14	40	11	31	10	29		—	—	35	100	60
Microteaching.....	19	54	15	43	1	3		—	—	35	100	46
TEACHING PRACTICES OF FACULTY MEMBERS												
Computer-assisted instruction.....	1	3	5	14	29	83		—	—	35	100	97
Closed-circuit television.....	13	37	9	26	13	37		—	—	35	100	63

Table V. EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY (cont.)

EQUIPMENT AVAILABLE	Available and Supply Adequate		Available but Supply Inadequate		Not Available at Present		No Reply		Total		Future Adoption Index		Innovativeness of Practice Index	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	Cols. 3 + 5	%	Cols. 5 + 7	%
Language laboratory.....	16	46	6	17	13	37	—	—	35	100	63	63	54	54
Multi-media study carrels.....	8	23	6	17	21	60	—	—	35	100	40	40	77	77
Computer facilities.....	13	37	6	17	16	46	—	—	35	100	54	54	63	63
Television studio.....	15	43	7	20	13	37	—	—	35	100	63	63	57	57
Videotape recorder.....	26	74	5	14	4	12	—	—	35	100	88	88	26	26

Robert M. Stamp

History of Education Courses in the Preparation of Canadian Teachers

Recent publications on both sides of the Atlantic foreshadow as lively a debate on the nature and purpose of history of education during the decade of the 1970's as Bernard Bailyn's *Education in the Forming of American Society* provoked during the 1960's². What was missing during the previous decade was a concerted attempt to relate the debate to the Canadian scene. This gap must be filled in the coming decade. Exciting developments in the historiography of American and British education, plus repeated criticisms of educational history by both "academic" historians and educational administrators in Canada give the problem a certain urgency. The time has arrived, therefore, to ask some basic questions about the place of history of education courses in the preparation of Canadian teachers. Does history of education have a place? If it does, then how prominent a place — as a required or an elective component of teacher education programs? What kind of history of education? Basic questions such as these lead naturally to the more fundamental questions of the very nature and purpose of history of education.

It has become traditional to use Bailyn's *Education in the Forming of American Society*, as a point of reference in dealing with the changing nature of educational history. This work was an analysis of the major writing in the history of American education, accompanied by an important interpretive essay that examined colonial American education against its British and European background and the wider social issues. Bailyn made the point that educational history could not be considered in isolation, but must be viewed as a part of general social history. This view was sustained in the middle of the decade both by Lawrence Cremin, America's

leading "educational" historian, and by the prestigious Committee on the Role of Education in American History.³ These writings effectively ended the antiquated "history of schools in isolation" approach to the writing of educational history in the United States.

Meanwhile, the purpose of history of education in American teacher education programs was also extensively questioned. The Committee on Historical Foundations of the National Society of College Teachers of Education published its conclusions in a three-part series in the *History of Education Journal* during 1955 and 1956.⁴ Thought-provoking articles by Irving Hendrick and Maxine Greene continued the search for a rationale for history of education courses in the preparation of American teachers.⁵ History of education was also included in general analyses of the foundation subjects by Harry Broudy and other American writers.⁶ In each case, the author reached positive conclusions regarding the subject. One of the strongest cases has been advanced by Paul Nash in his recent collection of essays:

One of the principal fruits of the historical study of education is improvement in the quality of individual decision making and policy formation. The historically informed teacher or educational policy maker can arrive at his decisions with deliberation, aware of what he is accepting and rejecting. He can put his choices into a wide context of evaluation and comparison and choose with a minimum of rancor and prejudice.⁷

In Britain the nature and purpose of history of education have likewise been analyzed and discussed in both historical and educational circles. Worthy of special mention is the work of Brian Simon, whose two monographs of the 1960's *Studies in the History of Education, 1780-1870* (1960) and *Education and the Labour Movement, 1870-1920* (1966) have reshaped the British approach to educational history in a manner similar to that of Bailyn in the United States. Simon stressed the social function of the educational historian. "It should be one of the main tasks of historical study," he argued, "to trace the development of education in this sense, to try to assess the function it has fulfilled at different stages of social development and so to reach a deeper understanding of the function it fulfills today."⁸

Canadian educators waited until 1968 for the beginning of any similar attempt to scrutinize the nature and purpose of history of education in this country. In that year a modest

start was made with Andrew Skinner's general article on the role of the foundation subjects, "Teacher-Training and the Foundational Studies: A Personal Statement," and with a chapter by R. L. Schnell in Robert Anderson, *et al*, *Foundation Disciplines and the Study of Education*.⁹ But these were the only attempts prior to Margaret Gillett's 1970 article¹⁰ to come to grips with the problem in a Canadian setting.

Where history of education courses have been included in the preparation of Canadian teachers in the past, they have been severely criticized. "Academic" historians claimed that a true historical approach was neglected and that historical attitudes were not being cultivated. As Hilda Neatby wrote in 1953:

The course in the history of education may consist of brief references to Socrates, Bacon, Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Horace Mann, with little attempt being made to understand them in their historical and philosophic setting. A true history of education might indeed provide a foundation for a true philosophy of education; but the purpose seems to be rather to herald the glad dawn of Dewey's day.¹¹

Unfortunately this negative criticism was not accompanied by positive suggestions for improvement in research methods or for changes in emphasis. Political and constitutional history absorbed the attention of Canadian historians in faculties of arts,¹² while educational history was left largely to those working in colleges or faculties of education.¹³

Recent trends in the writing of Canadian history, however, are of significance for educational historians. The monopoly enjoyed by political and constitutional history has ended in Canadian historiography. Increasingly, senior historians are becoming involved with educational questions as they begin to fill in the gaps in Canadian social, cultural, and intellectual history. More post-graduate theses in Canadian history are now concerned with educational themes or themes in which educational factors play an important role. The appearance of a new bilingual journal, *Histoire sociale/Social History*, sponsored jointly by the University of Ottawa and Carleton University, opens a new field for the publication of articles in social and educational history.

Of major importance was Alan Wilson's plea in 1965 for increased research and writing in the field of non-political biography. Among the figures in Canadian education identified by Wilson as standing in need of detailed biographical study were Bishop Laval, John Strachan, Alexander Macdonell,

Thomas McCulloch, and F. W. G. Haultain.¹⁴ Wilson has since been appointed co-editor of the *Canadian Biographical Series*, published by the University of Toronto Press and Les Presses de l'Université Laval. It is significant that one of the first biographies to appear in this series dealt with John Strachan.¹⁵

At the same time competent research and writing in Canadian educational historiography is under way in colleges and faculties of education. The historian of education in Canada is no longer confining himself to a narrow "history of schools in isolation" approach, but is moving educational history into the mainstream of social, cultural, and intellectual history. Various approaches are being examined and used throughout the country: the role of the family in the transmission of culture; the changing status of the child; the role of education in nation-building; community attitudes towards education as revealed in novels; the relationship between economic change and education. These new emphases will not go un-noticed by the "academic" historians and may provide a completely new rationale for history of education in the training of teachers.

If history of education is being gently restructured by the researchers and writers, it is also being forcibly restructured by new approaches to teacher education in the country. The near-monopoly that history and philosophy of education once enjoyed in the "foundations" field is no longer the case; the legitimate demands of other disciplines such as sociology, anthropology, and comparative education have to be and are being met. Even more challenging are the bold and imaginative approaches to teacher education which stress the internship or the apprenticeship aspect of training and leave little time for in-college attention to such supposedly esoteric subjects as history of education. Demands by students for more immediate relevancy to contemporary problems and for a major role in curriculum planning also pose challenges to those teaching educational history courses.

Indeed, one may legitimately ask whether history of education courses have a future in basic teacher preparation schemes. Many Canadian educators seem ready to relegate such courses to post-graduate work. So many other elements appear to have greater relevance and priority in basic teacher preparation. Of course, time must be found to strengthen the student teacher's background in his teaching subject area; time must be found to prepare the predominantly middle-class student teacher for the "culture shock" of inner-city classrooms; time must be found to acquaint him with the instruc-

tional media of the McLuhan age.

The criticisms of academic historians and educational administrators, plus the restructuring taking place both in Canadian historiography and Canadian teacher education, make it necessary for Canadian educational historians to follow the lead of their American and British counterparts in examining their discipline. In the following paragraphs four basic premises are outlined which could help assure history of education a vital and meaningful role in the future preparation of Canadian teachers.

1. Courses in history of education must be elective rather than compulsory. The major reason for their compulsory nature in the past was that teacher-trainers saw in them certain utilitarian values which, of course, the academic historian decried. As Maxine Greene has written, questions about the discipline's significance "were either set aside or resolved by administrative fiat."

Educational history tended to be validated by the contributions it made to the public image of the profession. The men of the past conceived the schools of the past to be but preparations for the common school of today; and the emergence of the common school was seen to represent one of history's culminations — the fulfillment of a 'promise' made at the beginning of time.¹⁶

The business of determining the discipline's significance is far more complicated today. Relevance is still the crux of the matter as far as the determination of professional significance is concerned; but relevance today signifies relevance for the individual student. Dr. Greene concluded: "The relevance depends on the degree to which a study of the educational past enables the teacher to organize his own experience in the situations of the present, to refine his strategies, to enlarge his conceptual scope."¹⁷

Broudy and Skinner both argued that the major justification for history of education and other foundation courses is that they help give the beginning teacher some idea of his professional responsibilities as a teacher and an educator.¹⁸ If we want teachers to have a craft training only, then history of education will not be all that relevant; if, on the other hand, we wish to prepare professional educators as well as skilled classroom craftsmen, then history of education will have a certain relevance.

But a course which is meaningful and relevant to one stu-

dent may be totally irrelevant to another. The number of disciplines demanding attention in the "foundations" or "professional" area of teacher training means that history of education must be placed on an elective basis and hence chosen by those students who will find it meaningful in their preparation for the classroom. It may very well be that only students who have found history relevant to their previous needs and interests (i.e. in undergraduate arts courses) will choose history of education. This should be welcomed rather than regretted — it will enable the instructor to work in depth with vitally interested students. Such a course of action will tend to eliminate two frequent types of criticism directed at history of education courses. Academic historians will no longer be able to complain of the "superficial" nature of educational history courses; and students will no longer be able to complain of the irrelevancy of "compulsory" history of education courses.

2. History of education courses must be regarded as "history" courses as well as "education" courses. This is the only way in which history of education will break out of the narrow "history of schools" context, and move into the mainstream of social, cultural, and intellectual history. The broader approach in educational history is described by Kenneth Charlton of the University of Keele in these terms:

[The historian of education] must concern himself not merely with what went on in the classrooms of the past but with the transmission and modification of culture; not simply with the institutions through which culture is transmitted, modified and acquired but also with the ideas which those institutions sought to put into effect, with the ways in which those ideas were set in motion, and most important of all, with the context in which and for which these ideas were developed.¹⁸

This approach is being pursued in advanced research in the United States, Great Britain, and Canada. It has enabled educational historians to play a greater role in contributing to general historical scholarship. It has won the respect of many of the "academic" historians. And it has won student respect for history of education courses in teacher preparation programs.

History of education courses will be accepted as "history" courses when the instructors concerned are acceptable to the faculty of arts as "historians" as well as to the faculty of education as "educators." In the past there has been little

communication between historians in faculties of arts and historians of education in faculties of education. That the gap has not been bridged is perhaps the fault of both groups. What is more important is the future, and what is needed is more communication between these two groups of scholars interested in historical study. But how is this to be accomplished? Frank MacKinnon suggested that educational foundations departments be abolished and that courses in history of education be assigned to departments of history in faculties of arts.²⁰ But this will work only on those few campuses where there is a genuine interest in educational history among members of the history department in the faculty of arts.

American writers such as Conant and Koerner did not go as far as MacKinnon, but they stressed that historians in faculties of education must be acceptable to history departments in faculties of arts.²¹ This might be achieved through cross-appointments or through consultation with history departments before appointments are made in the faculty of education. In any case, if history of education courses wish to win the respect of academic historians, then the professors involved must be competent historians. In fact their background in history is as important as their background in education.

3. The basic or introductory educational history course offered to Canadian student teachers should be a history of Canadian education. In the past, Canadian educational history has usually been relegated to post-graduate programs; few Canadian institutions offered it as the first course in educational history. In many universities, it was thought best to give the neophyte teacher a course in European educational history or the educational history of the Western world. It has been argued, with some validity, that Canadian education cannot be understood unless the student first has a knowledge of the development of education in the Western world.

There is no desire here to impose a narrow type of flag-waving nationalism upon our future teachers, nor to exclude from educational history courses those important foreign influences which have shaped and continue to shape Canadian education. But surely an emphasis on Canadian educational history is justified from the point of view of both the student and the nature of Canadian educational development. The vast majority of education students in Canadian universities and teachers' colleges will pursue their professional teaching careers in this country. Following graduation they will be in a

position to exercise considerable influence over the youth of this country. Surely there is a moral obligation to relate the basic history of education course to the Canadian environment rather than to the European background.

An equally compelling argument is that the basic forces shaping historical and contemporary developments in Canadian education have been Canadian. Despite the foreign roots of early Canadian education, the main determining factors in its subsequent development have been Canadian social, economic, religious, and political pressures. Despite the debt owed by Canadian education to people like Socrates, Quintilian, Locke, Rousseau, Froebel, Dewey, Skinner, and others, Canadian educational practices and policies have been shaped primarily by Canadians — by men like Bishop Laval, Thomas McCulloch, John Strachan, Egerton Ryerson, J. W. Dawson, Theodore Harding Rand, F. W. G. Haultain, John Jessop, James Hughes, James Robertson, Jean-Paul Desbiens, and others.

An emphasis on Canadian educational history will also afford the student an opportunity to view the role of education in the nation-building process in Canada. It will enable the student to judge the importance of education in the survival of French Canadian culture following the British Conquest of 1760, in the assimilation of European immigrants in the turn-of-the-century Canadian West, in the perpetuation of British imperial sentiment in pre-1914 Ontario, and in the causes of Quebec's "Quiet Revolution" of the early 1960's.

4. Finally, courses in educational history should be as concerned with contemporary educational change as with past educational change. No course in Canadian educational history should be considered complete if it ends in 1900, or 1914, or 1945. No course in Canadian educational history can overlook the changes that have taken place in the past two decades. Attention must be paid to the roots and subsequent development of such issues as the ungraded elementary and secondary school, the expansion of secondary and post-secondary education, the revolution in adult education, the increasing vocational orientation of education, the impact of technology, the spread of French-language instruction beyond the province of Quebec, the consolidation of local school boards, and the role of the federal government in Canadian education.

An emphasis on contemporary developments may be viewed by some as undue deference to student demands for immediate

relevancy. But surely, some utilitarian expectations of students in professional schools and faculties are justified. Historians of education should attempt to relate events of the past with current happenings. If only from the point of view of motivation, the linking of the present with the past gets attention, holds interest and, hopefully, builds attitudes.

The academic historian might argue that an undue emphasis on present developments may lead to a distortion of history, too much of a "present-mindedness in history," a tendency to read history backwards, and a tendency to justify present developments in the light of past events. These concerns are justified, but an emphasis on contemporary educational developments does not automatically mean these distortions will occur.

The joint emphasis on both past and contemporary developments in history of education courses will enable the beginning teacher to view recent theories and innovations in their proper perspective. Rather than accepting well-publicized innovations in his own school system as the gospel truth and the last word, the beginning teacher will hopefully be more critical. History of education, when properly taught, should encourage a skeptical approach to ideas which may simply rationalize existing practice. Student teachers often have a difficult time viewing objectively an educational system in which they are immediately and intimately involved. Historical study can be a powerful means to providing such a view.

references

1. C. M. Turner, "Sociological Approaches to the History of Education," *British Journal of Educational Studies*, XVII (2), June 1969, 146-165. Paul Nash, ed., *History and Education: The Educational Uses of the Past*, New York: Random House, 1970. Margaret Gillett, "Foundation or Frill?" in *Education VII*. Toronto: W. J. Gage Limited, 1970, pp. 29-37.
2. Bernard Bailyn, *Education in the Forming of American Society: Needs and Opportunities for Study*, Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1960.
3. Lawrence Cremin, *The Wonderful World of Ellwood Patterson Cubberly: An Essay on the Historiography of American Education*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1965. Committee on the Role of Education in American History, *Education and American History*, New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1965.
4. *History of Education Journal*, VII (Fall 1955, Winter 1956, and Spring 1956).

5. Irving G. Hendrick, "History of Education and Teacher Preparation: A Cautious Analysis," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, XVII (Spring 1966), pp. 71-76. Maxine Greene, "The Professional Significance of History of Education," *History of Education Quarterly*, VII (Summer 1967), pp. 182-190.
6. Harry S. Broudy, "The Role of the Foundational Studies in the Preparation of Teachers," in Stanley Elam, ed., *Improving Teacher Education in the United States*, Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa Inc., 1967, pp. 1-22.
7. Nash, "History and Education: The Dialectics of Enquiry," in Nash, ed., *History and Education*, pp. 11-12.
8. Brian Simon, "The History of Education," in J. W. Tibble, ed., *The Study of Education*, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1966, p. 91.
9. Andrew Skinner, "Teacher Training and the Foundational Studies: A Personal Statement," *Teacher Education*, I (Spring 1968), pp. 26-38. Robert N. Anderson, et al., *Foundation Disciplines and the Study of Education*, Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1968, pp. 25-37.
10. Gillett, "Foundation or Frill?" Gillett's *A History of Education: Thought and Practice*, Toronto: McGraw-Hill of Canada, 1966 was the first general text to be written from a Canadian perspective. It includes a substantial amount of Canadian material and adopts an interdisciplinary and international approach.
11. Hilda Neatby, *So Little for the Mind*, Toronto: Clarke Irwin, 1953, p. 77.
12. William Kilbourn, "The Writing of Canadian History," in Carl F. Klinck, ed., *Literary History of Canada*, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1966.
13. There are, of course, exceptions. Two areas of educational history that have interested academic historians in Canada are denominational schools and higher education. See John Moir, *Church and State in Canada West*, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1959, and William Morton, *One University: A History of the University of Manitoba*, Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1957.
14. Alan Wilson, "Forgotten Men of Canadian History," Canadian Historical Association, *Report*, 1965, p. 71.
15. J. L. H. Henderson, *John Strachan, 1778-1867*, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1969.
16. Greene, "Professional Significance of History of Education," p. 182.
17. *Ibid.*, p. 184.
18. Broudy, "The Role of the Foundational Studies in the Preparation of Teachers," p. 4. Skinner, "Teacher Training and the Foundational Studies," pp. 29-33.
19. Kenneth Charlton, *Education in Renaissance England*, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1966, preface.
20. Frank MacKinnon, *The Politics of Education*, Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1960, pp. 167-188.
21. James Bryant Conant, *The Education of American Teachers*, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963, p. 131. James B. Koerner, *The Miseducation of American Teachers*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963, pp. 274-275. Nash, "Education and History: The Dialectics of Enquiry," p. 6.

F. Henry Johnson

The First Canadian Journal of Education: an Historical Review

The first French language newspaper in Canada, *Le Canadien*, announced on its mast-head the slogan, "Nos institutions, notre langue et nos loix." Had Egerton Ryerson cared to paraphrase this text and express it in English, our first *Journal of Education* might very fittingly have announced that it stood for "Our schools, their institutions and their laws."

The first issue of the *Journal of Education For Upper Canada* appeared in January 1848. The title page announced that it was "Edited by the Reverend Egerton Ryerson D.D. (The Superintendent of Education for Upper Canada) assisted by Mr. John George Hodgins." The subscription price was "five shillings per annum in advance." For thirty years this journal appeared regularly each month as the voice of the Department of Education, devoted, as the Prospectus in the first issue announced,

to the exposition of every part of our school system; to the publication of official papers on the subject of schools; to the discussion of the various means of promoting the efficiency of schools and the duties of all classes of persons in respect to them; to accounts of systems of public instruction in other countries, both European and American; and to the diffusion of information on the great work of Popular Education generally.¹

editors ryerson and hodgins

Initially, the major portion of the editorial work was borne by Ryerson himself but after a few years, as the burdens of his office piled up, he had to rely upon his faithful and indefatigable deputy, John George Hodgins, to assume the edi-

torship. Nevertheless, when Hodgins' name replaced Ryerson's on the *Journal*, there was added the qualifying statement "under the direction of the Reverend Egerton Ryerson." The hand may have been the hand of Esau "but the voice was the voice of Jacob."

In the Ontario Archives, there is a manuscript written by Hodgins in later years. In this he recounted the history of the Education Department and stated, "For the last twenty-five years of its [the *Journal's*] existence — it ceased in June 1877 — the writer of this 'retrospect' was its sole editor and, as such, was gratified to find not only that it was highly appreciated within, but also outside of our country."

In 1846 when Ryerson first proposed the publication of a *Journal of Education* "to be devoted among other things to the exposition of every part of our school system and to the discussion of various means of promoting the efficiency of the school," the Government was unwilling to authorize it. Ryerson then, according to Hodgins, "undertook the expense and responsibility of the publication himself in January 1848. And it was not until years had demonstrated the practical value and success of the proposed agency, that the expense of the publication was provided for by an annual vote of the Legislature."³ This was done in 1850 after the Government's Finance Committee had looked into Ryerson's operation of the *Journal*. He had told the committee at the time that most of the work on the *Journal* was done outside office hours, neither the clerks nor himself having "received a farthing's remuneration except the pleasure and hope of doing good."⁴ Although he charged a subscription fee, this did not meet the expenses and at the conclusion of each year he had himself paid off the *Journal's* indebtedness. The Government, therefore, granted him \$1800 annually to help cover the costs of publication and mailing.

In 1851, when Ryerson was in Europe, the *Journal* was left entirely in Hodgins' capable hands and Ryerson wrote him from Paris expressing his gratitude and appreciation of Hodgins' work:

I admire the tact and energy you have shown in promoting the circulation of the *Journal of Education* and preventing it from entailing a heavy loss upon me. When I was of your age I could write three editorials as easily as I can write one now, on any subject that interested my feelings. You have only to stir up your 'inner man' a little and the Editorials will come forth à la Junon de la tête de Jupiter.⁵

why a journal?

Why did Ryerson feel that he needed a *Journal* of this type even to the extent of paying its deficits from his own pocket? The reasons perhaps are to be found both in the man and in his times. As a man, Ryerson no doubt had his faults (and he did not lack for detractors to point them out), but no one doubted his sincerity and complete devotion to the cause of public education. Like Horace Mann, his close counterpart in the United States, he was an enthusiast for this cause almost to the point of fanaticism and, like Mann, he was a terrific worker. He also understood the climate of opinion of his fellow Canadians, from the backwoods farmer to the merchants of the towns and, again like Mann, he knew that he could not legislate educational reforms without first preparing the public mind to accept them. Had he lived to-day, he would have approved strongly of the idea of "Information Canada." As early as 1845, writing to the Principal of Victoria College, Ryerson had stated his belief in the importance of communications with the public: "I see clearly that no system of public instruction can be carried into operation in Canada and become general in the esteem and feelings of the people without its being explained and spread out before them in each district of the province, and in many cases again and again." Ten years later he had written to Prime Minister W. H. Draper for permission to launch his *Journal of Education* and to conduct a personal speaking tour of the province: If he could "visit each district personally and devote one or two days in a full conference with the principal educational persons on school matters," the school system "would become popularly as well as legally established." It was clear to Ryerson, the Methodist minister, that if the gospels required missionary endeavour so also did education and he was prepared to take this cause to the people both in person and through the medium of the printed word.

Another reason for the *Journal*, understandable but perhaps not so laudable, was his need for a means of defending himself before the public against criticism of his "Prussian despotism" made in the legislature and in the press. He was fond of quoting Macaulay's statement that "No misrepresentation should be allowed to pass unrefuted." Since his Department was not represented in the cabinet or in the legislature, as he would have liked, he had to have a voice of some kind

and the *Journal* was one answer.⁸

The articles in the *Journal* would hardly win laurels to-day for fascinating interest or sparkling wit. To most mid-Victorians "life was real and life was earnest" and education was a serious matter to be read in no lighter vein. However, the editors had a style which was straightforward and did not pollute the Queen's English with the pedagogue corruptions of our modern era.

contents and controversies

In perusing the pages of the *Journal* one notes, particularly in the early years of its publication, Ryerson's concern to convince the trustees and the general public of the paramount importance of a good public school system. In his lecturing tours of the province one reads of him declaiming over and over again to rural audiences his famous lecture on "The Importance of Education to an Agricultural People." If any Ontarian missed hearing it delivered in person he could read it in the pages of the *Journal*.⁹ The theme of the desirability of self-imposed local property taxes to help finance the schools and thus make education free and available to all children was constantly stressed by the editor.

The *Journal* had no hesitation about lecturing trustees, teachers and parents in their duties and responsibilities. The desirability of Normal School training for teachers was impressed on the public in the early issues. The program of lectures and the first time-table for the Toronto Normal School was given in full detail in volume one.¹⁰ Since Normal School training as yet was not required of all teachers, and since many school trustees frowned on it as an extravagant and unnecessary thing, Ryerson felt that he had to "sell" his Normal School to the teachers and trustees both.

New legislation or new regulations of the Department of Education were announced and explained. Innovations such as Ryerson's Educational Museum, or his Public Libraries or the Book Depository were publicized, explained and defended. Educational developments in other countries such as Germany, Switzerland, Ireland and various American states were reported, particularly if they supported Ryerson's own policies of finance or educational philosophy. The thoughts on education of great men from Xenophon and Plutarch to Pestalozzi,

Thiers and Daniel Webster were quoted.

One of the lively issues of the day was that of the education of women. The *Journal*, of course, reflected Ryerson's views on the value of education to the fair sex. He was for it. He was most desirous that his own daughter, the charming and lively Sophie, should have a good education in both French and English. In his lecture on "The Importance of Education to an Agricultural People" he had made the point that not only would education be a great boon to the farmer's sons but would also be "equally applicable and equally important" to their wives and daughters — "those lights and charms of the domestic circle."¹¹ When the Normal School established a "female department" in 1848, the *Journal* hailed this as a very liberal and desirable move. "Experience has evinced the great advantage, as a general rule, of employing Female Teachers for the instruction of young pupils."¹² Although it was not until 1885 that the University of Toronto admitted women, Professor Daniel Wilson of that university had advocated their higher education in a public lecture in 1869, expressing the view that "woman's mental culture" was "inadequately provided for" and that "she is taught by all the conventional usages of society to regard education as a thing incompatible with womanhood."¹³ His lecture was printed, in abridged form, in the *Journal*.

While most of the early journals of education were primarily concerned with practical suggestions for teachers, Hodgins disclaimed any attempt to have his *Journal* adopt that role. "We have advisedly refrained from writing theoretical editorials on the details of school management and discipline and on the best methods of teaching the various branches in the schools."¹⁴ Nevertheless, the *Journal* did run a regular section, entitled "Papers on Practical Education," in which there were discussions and reprints of articles on teaching methods in various subjects, discipline, the use of grading, examinations, regularity of attendance, moral education, penmanship, vocal music, profanity in pupils and profanity in teachers. (The *Journal* disapproved of both.) The whole of the October 1865 issue was devoted to the teacher in recognition "of the increased importance and vitality of teaching in this province."¹⁵ The editorial policy of the *Journal*, however, was not to attempt to be a teachers' publication *per se* but to adopt a broader role, appealing to trustees, teachers, parents and all who had an interest in the school system.

politics and the end of the journal

Ryerson had many enemies in Ontario. His very position as superintendent placed him in the line of fire for political critics. Appointed by and answerable only to the Governor, he was neither in nor out of the Government — unable to defend his policies on the floor of the House and having no protecting Minister to take responsibility off his own shoulders. A number of his policies were continually under attack from one quarter or another, i.e. his stand on the separate schools, his campaign to make education free and compulsory, his strong control over the publishing industry through the adoption of school textbooks and books for the public libraries which also came under his Department. George Brown's newspaper, *The Globe*, was one of his frequent critics.

In 1869, Blake and certain other members in the House, when considering the estimates, attacked the *Journal's* appropriation of \$1800 annually as "a waste of money." The *Journal*, they claimed, was poorly edited and not read by the school trustees. Hodgins replied in his *Journal* to these charges:

In regard to the first objection, it may or may not be well founded, according to the variation in the taste and judgement of the objector. All we have to say is that we have endeavoured to discharge our duty in editing the *Journal* in the way which we believe will promote, in the highest degree, the interests of the schools... In regard to the second objection — that the *Journal of Education* is not taken out of the post office and read by Trustees — we believe that this general assertion is based solely on the individual exceptions to the rule.¹⁶

The opposition gave the *Journal* a stormy ride but the Government of the time defended it successfully and continued its subsidy for a few more years. Ryerson retired from the Superintendency in 1876 and the structure of the Department of Education was then changed to conform to that of other Departments with a Minister of Education, Adam Crooks.¹⁷ Hodgins was retained as Crook's Deputy but the *Journal* survived less than a year under the new Minister. One wonders why. Althouse suggested that it may have been dropped as an economy measure but "more likely, the *Journal* had been so closely identified with the Superintendent's policies that it was apt to prove embarrassing to the Minister, whose ideas were radically different."¹⁸

However as one considers in retrospect the reasons which

brought the *Journal* originally into existence — the need to provide a medium of communication with teachers, trustees and the general public, to arouse interest and sympathy and create popular support for the cause of free public education — one might explain its demise in 1877 in other terms. It had done its work well. By 1877, its major battles had been won although the long campaign for better schools is never-ending. But the schools were now free and tax-supported, the teachers better trained, the grammar schools had become high schools and part of a public system, and most of Ryerson's enlightened ideas on teaching methods and pupil-teacher relations were widely accepted.

From the side-lines Ryerson might have felt that the *Journal* had served him and the Department well and that it was now time that other journals, edited by the teachers themselves, should spring into being and carry his torch.

references

1. *Journal of Education of Upper Canada*, Toronto: Vol. I, No. 1, p. 1.
2. J. G. Hodgins, Manuscript of a statement on the origin of the *Journal of Education of Upper Canada*, Ontario Archives. No date.
3. *Ibid.*
4. C. B. Sissons, *Life and Letters of Egerton Ryerson*, Toronto: Clarke Irwin, 1947, Vol. II, pp. 191-2.
5. Ryerson to Hodgins, Paris, March 12, 1851, United Church Archives, Victoria College, Toronto.
6. Ryerson to A. McNab, 31 March, 1845, quoted in Sissons, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 88.
7. *Ibid.*, p. 132.
8. *Ibid.*, p. 599.
9. *Journal of Education of Upper Canada*, Vol. I, No. 9 (Sept., 1848), 258ff.
10. *Ibid.*, Vol. I, pp. 59-60.
11. *Ibid.*, Vol. I, No. 9 (Sept., 1848), pp. 267-8.
12. *Ibid.*, Vol. I, No. 1, p. 91.
13. *Ibid.*, "Higher Education for Ladies," (Dec., 1869), 181ff.
14. *Ibid.*, p. 179.
15. J. G. Althouse, *The Ontario Teacher*, 1800 - 1910. D. Paed. Dissertation, University of Toronto, 1929. Published 1967 by the Ontario Teachers' Federation, footnote p. 70.
16. *Journal of Education of Upper Canada*, (Dec., 1869), pp. 179-181.
17. Sissons, *op. cit.*, Vol. II, p. 643.
18. Althouse, *op. cit.*, p. 70.

R. Selby Smith

Trends and Developments in Higher Education in Australia

the traditional pattern

Since I assume that most readers of the *McGill Journal* are not familiar with the Australian educational scene, I propose to outline briefly the traditional pattern of higher education here. I hope that this introduction may serve to illumine the recent developments and current trends which I shall then try to describe. Readers who would like to know something more of that pattern will find a useful description in chapters 4, 5 and 7 of Cowan's *Education for Australians*¹ and some helpful discussion in Wheelwright's *Higher Education in Australia*.²

All the older universities in Australia are State foundations; private or Church-supported institutions are unknown at this level. They came early on the scene — Sydney in 1850 and Melbourne in 1853 — when these cities were still in their infancy. By 1911, when the University of Western Australia opened its doors, there was one — and one only — in each State; and naturally each was in the capital city. All were governed on the pattern of the older English provincial universities, with a Council representative of the community's leaders and including some academics, while academic affairs were managed by the traditional structure of Departments, Faculties, and Professorial Boards. Junior academics had little or no say in these bodies, and each Department was typically headed by its single "god-professor." The chief executive was the Vice-Chancellor while the "civil service" was headed by the Registrar. Those who completed the full course of secondary education, and were successful in the external "Matriculation" or "Leaving" examinations, were *ipso facto* qualified for ad-

mission; and even in the elitist educational situation which prevailed until after the Second World War, no further selection process was required. Finance was derived from the State governments, from student fees and from gifts and endowments. The Commonwealth Government played little or no part. Student residences were provided by the Churches, and never from public funds.

The courses were generally patterned on the Scottish model — beginning with a fairly broad first year in which three or four subjects were studied and narrowing gradually to the study of one or two subjects in the third or fourth years. Those who showed real promise were selected after one or two years' work to continue their studies for honours degrees for a further year beyond the three normal for the pass degree course. There was very little higher degree work and it was not until comparatively recently that any doctoral degrees were awarded.

post-war changes

After the Second World War, the pressures general to the whole Western world began to be felt. The increase in the rate of growth of knowledge led the Commonwealth Government to establish the Australian National University — a purely post-graduate institution, divided in the first instance into four research schools — of Medical, Physical, and Social Sciences, and for Pacific and Oriental Studies. Australian scholars would no longer need to travel to Europe or to North America if they felt the need to leave their own State University for post-graduate work; and, for the first time, the Commonwealth Government became directly involved in financing University work.

The growth of population — due in Australia, not only to higher birth-rates, but also to immigration at a very high level — and the tendency of young people to stay at school and to complete the full secondary school course in ever-increasing numbers, led to the establishment of new institutions by the States in cities other than the capitals. The first of these, the University College of New England, had indeed been established just before the war. It is in Armidale in northern New South Wales, and was initially a College of the University of Sydney — just as the Colleges at Hull and Exeter had been Colleges of the University of London. It was followed,

after the war, by the Colleges in Canberra, Newcastle, Wollongong, Townsville and Broken Hill. Each of these, in turn, except the last, has gradually developed in size and status until it has become a University in its own right. A different post-war development was the creation, initially as a University of Technology, of the University of New South Wales, at Kensington in Sydney. It absorbed the post-matriculation work which was already being done in the Technical Colleges of the State, and so, in a sense, leaped into full existence from the very outset. But it very soon became obvious that governmental interest in the education of more technologists and applied scientists was not wholly in accord with the wishes of the students concerned, and the University soon had to develop on a broader front. On the other hand, the demand for subgraduate, tertiary courses continued, and the Technical Colleges had to be re-created to provide them.

the murray committee

A major watershed in the development of University education in Australia can be traced to the setting up of the Committee on Australian Universities. It was established by the Commonwealth Government in 1956, and there is no doubt that it was the brain-child of the then Prime Minister, Mr. (now Sir) Robert Menzies. He invited Sir Keith Murray, at that time the Chairman of the University Grants Committee of the United Kingdom, to come to Australia to chair the Committee, which was to examine the whole state of the Universities of the Commonwealth. Sir Keith accepted, and brought with him, as a member of the Committee, Sir Charles Morris, the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Leeds. They were joined by three distinguished Australians; they worked quickly and produced a remarkable report in 1957. They stressed the poor state of many of the Universities, which they found short of every kind of material facility with numerically inadequate staffing. They pointed out that these institutions were about to be overwhelmed by a tidal wave of would-be entrants; there was, therefore, an urgent need for an immediate and massive injection of finance to bring them up to a reasonable standard, and to provide a firmer foundation on which the rapid expansion which would shortly be needed could be based. Such finance could only come from the Commonwealth Government and appropriate admin-

istrative machinery was needed to ensure the fair and effective provision of such funds.

the australian universities' commission

The Murray Committee recommended, therefore, the setting up of an Australian University Grants Committee, on the lines of the U.G.C. This was immediately accepted by the Commonwealth Government and the Australian Universities Commission was established. The title was chosen — largely, it is believed, on Sir Robert Menzies' own initiative — to indicate the fairly wide terms of reference which it was given: he felt that the word "Grants" might indicate that the new body's *only* function would be financial. He believed — and his belief was expressed in the terms of reference actually decided upon — that its responsibilities should include that of informing and advising the Minister on the necessity for financial assistance to the States in relation to the Universities and also that of co-ordinating the balanced development of all Australian Universities so that their resources would be used to the greatest possible advantage for Australia.³ The membership was to be on the lines of that of the U.G.C.: a full-time Chairman was to be supported by a permanent Secretariat, provided by the Commonwealth Government, and by four part-time members. The Chairman himself would be a distinguished academic and the part-timers would be drawn equally from leaders of the academic and the business world. Sir Leslie Martin, Professor of Physics in the University of Melbourne, was the first Chairman. The impact of these decisions was marked. The Universities received a substantial immediate once-for-all injection of funds to help them to remedy some of their worst deficiencies and the scale of their regular grants, both capital and recurrent, was greatly improved.

The effect on the morale of all concerned was notable, and a period of great progress began. Many of the most out-of-date buildings in the older Universities were replaced, much obsolete equipment was dispensed with, and staff-student ratios — which in some departments had been deplorable — were improved. The recruitment of academic staff, too, received a notable tonic, and large numbers were recruited from outside Australia mainly from the United Kingdom.

the foundation of new universities since 1958

During this period, too, several new Universities came into being — notably Monash in Victoria and Flinders in South Australia. The Murray Committee had pointed out that the number of University places available was proportionately lower in Victoria than in Australia as a whole and called special attention to the need for a new University there. In accordance with the “post-Sputnik” philosophy of the moment, it was expected that Monash would be a technological institution. It was perhaps significant that its first Chancellor, Sir Robert Blackwood, and its first Vice-Chancellor, Dr. J. A. L. Matheson, were both engineers. But once the University opened, as it did after a remarkably short period of intensive planning and hard preliminary work, in 1961, it became apparent that the legitimate aspirations of individuals would make necessary the provision of a well-balanced University, making large provision for the traditional Arts and Social Science subjects. It is in this form that Monash has, in fact, developed.

the martin committee

In 1961 the Commonwealth Government set up another Committee. No doubt, it had been watching with interest, the establishment of the Robbins Committee in the United Kingdom; and the remarkable development of tertiary education in some of the States of the U.S.A. — notably perhaps California — must have brought home to the Governments of all developed countries what a major item education at this level was bound to be in its budgets in the future. This new Committee was also chaired by Sir Leslie Martin, and hence has usually been called after him. Its fourteen members included two of the State Directors-General of Education, several other prominent academics and educationists, and leading business men. Its terms of reference were “to consider the pattern of tertiary education in relation to the needs and resources of Australia; and to make recommendations to the Australian Universities Commission on the future development of tertiary education in Australia.” It is to be noted that this Committee was to consider *tertiary* education as a whole, and yet it was to report to the *Universities* Commission. “Tertiary” was defined as meaning “all education following a full secondary

school training."

Among its recommendations⁴ was the philosophical one that "Higher Education should be available as a basic right, to all qualified to profit from it." This was to be achieved, partly, by a great expansion in the number of university places; they should rise, in the Committee's opinion, from the 1963 figure of 69,000 to 125,000 by 1975. This growth should be attained as much by the expansion of existing small or young Universities or Colleges as by the establishment of new ones. In Victoria, for example, the total of approximately 38,000 places which seemed likely to be needed by 1975 should be provided by limiting the University of Melbourne to its existing size — which included 14,000 students, by allowing Monash to grow to about 12,000 and by providing sufficient funds to ensure the rapid growth of La Trobe — already being planned at the time of the publication of the report — to a final size of the same order. The Committee also called attention to the need for a higher percentage of post-graduate students and to the provision of more residential places. It was also recommended that a number of places equal to those to be provided in Universities should be provided in "other institutions."

colleges of advanced education

These "other institutions," in each State, should be under the aegis of an "Institute of Colleges." These Institutes, financed jointly by State and Commonwealth in each case, would be governed by a Council, headed by a leading member of the community as its President; their chief executive officer would be the Vice-President, who would have the support of a Secretary (or Registrar) and an appropriate "civil service." To these Institutes would be admitted those institutions which were already handling appreciable numbers of students at a truly tertiary level — for example, the Technical Colleges, with their Diploma courses in Engineering, Applied Science, Business Studies, Art, and many other subjects, as well as the single-purpose colleges such as those for Agriculture, Forestry, Pharmacy, or Domestic Arts. The State Institute, of course, would be bound to satisfy itself that any College applying for admission had reached the required standard. The Institutes would receive grants from State and Commonwealth and would allocate money to the individual colleges. At first these "Colleges of Advanced Education," as they were to be called, would offer no work beyond the Diploma level; but the

Institutes would, in time, be able to award degrees "for work of an appropriate standard."

The report also advised that the scope of the courses to be offered should be widened; that the colleges should offer greatly improved amenities to students, that staff should be recruited by open advertisement, and that the level of salaries should be improved.

recommendations in regard to the education of teachers

The Committee recognised the need for the professional training of *all* teachers, and pointed out the dangers inherent in a situation in which the Teachers' Colleges were too closely associated with the employing authority. They made it clear that they regarded the recruitment of high quality staff as a first priority, and that this — in their opinion — could only be done through open advertisement. A few colleges, notably in South Australia, had already adopted this practice. Boards of Teacher Education should therefore be set up in each State, to advise the State Government on needs and developments in this field, and to act as the channel through which each State could receive Commonwealth funds for the education of teachers. The Boards would also approve the content of courses, and standards in all institutions for the education of teachers, would grant the Teachers' Certificates in each State, and, ultimately, would award professional degrees in Education. Some other interesting recommendations in connection with teacher-training (as the Committee termed it) were that all courses would require University entrance standards for admission, and would all be at least three years' duration. The system of "bonding" whereby students accepting State scholarships undertake, in return, to serve as teachers in the State education service for a period of years should be gradually discontinued, and some Teachers' Colleges should become autonomous, and admit persons other than those intending to become teachers.

the reaction of governments

By the date of the publication of the Murray report, much progress had been made in providing additional University places. In addition to Monash and Flinders, already men-

tioned, Macquarie in New South Wales and La Trobe in Victoria were being planned, and the Australian National University had been reconstituted so as to include the former Canberra University College as its School of General Studies, while the research schools — now increased to six in number — remained as post-graduate Schools within the same University. The Commonwealth accepted the Martin Committee's plea for more University places, and in recent years several Colleges have become new Universities — e.g. Townsville is now the James Cook University of Northern Queensland; Newcastle and Wollongong in New South Wales are full universities, and steps are being taken to plan new institutions in Perth (Western Australia), and in Brisbane (Queensland). The newcomer universities, although in many ways still of a very traditional pattern, have in some cases, (e.g. La Trobe, Macquarie and Flinders) adopted the "School" pattern of the same kind as that found in the newer English Universities; some, too, have modified their governing academic boards to include more non-professorial staff, and reduce the boards in size; and La Trobe is organizing the whole University in a number of College-Unions. All have begun to include students on their Councils. But on the whole, the pattern is still traditional and conservative.

The Commonwealth Government also accepted — with apparent enthusiasm — what Sir Robert Menzies described in Parliament as "the heart of the Report" — namely the concept of the Institutes of Colleges and the Colleges of Advanced Education. It established, as a counterpart of the A.U.C., a new Committee — the Commonwealth Advisory Committee on Advanced Education — to advise it in this matter. It was made clear too that Commonwealth aid in this field was not to be dependent on the creation of Institutes in each State.

The concept of Boards of Teacher Education was, however, rejected. Apparently it was considered that the education of teachers was so closely bound up with primary and secondary education that it should be left in the hands of the States who had the responsibility for the work at those other levels. It was also said that the finance involved was not of such a magnitude as to be beyond the resources of the States! The State Governments, in general, were prepared to follow the Commonwealth's lead and the pattern of development, in spite of some differences, has followed a fairly similar pattern throughout Australia.

recent developments

The result of these recommendations and decisions has been that the universities have been given a less pre-eminent position. Indeed, for reasons which I do not have the space to discuss here, fairly severe limitations have been put on their work; the rate of development of the newest ones has been restricted, and serious financial problems have been caused for the older ones. The same kind of student problem which is well known elsewhere has begun to appear. Though it is not yet of anything like the intensity which it has reached in parts of North America, it has caused much worry and concern to senior academics, and may yet cause interruption and harm to academic work.

The Colleges of Advanced Education — organised in a variety of ways, and only (as yet) in Victoria in an Institute of the kind recommended by the Martin Committee — have already been notably improved and developed. The quality of the new sites, buildings and equipment now becoming available to them is much above that which they had previously enjoyed. Staff salaries, and staff and student amenities, are being improved, and an air of optimism prevails. A number of courses — especially in Victoria — have been recognised for the award of degrees. In Victoria, which had a very fully developed system of technical colleges, there were in 1969 over 27,000 students in the Colleges, compared with about 26,000 in Universities; the figure for the Colleges represents half the total for the whole Commonwealth.

The future in regard to the Teachers' Colleges is, however, confused and disheartening. In some areas (e.g. in Canberra, in parts of New South Wales and in Tasmania), the Colleges are becoming parts of Colleges of Advanced Education and the Commonwealth Government is thus making capital and recurrent grants available for the education of teachers. In other areas (e.g. in Victoria) no such arrangement has yet been made; the Commonwealth has revised its original decision in such a way that capital grants can be made available to the States for Teachers' Colleges. But no recurrent grants are available. Hence the Teachers' Colleges in some States are still part of the Education Department; salaries remain much lower than those in the other tertiary institutions, and morale is low.

conclusion

It will be seen that there is, at the moment, a great need for more effective planning for tertiary education as a whole. Some States — e.g. Western Australia and New South Wales — have established machinery for the purpose. But there seems to be little or no co-ordination in some of the other States, or at the Commonwealth level. It is badly needed if our resources are to be really effectively deployed. The unfortunate Commonwealth-State financial relationship, whereby the States are inevitably desperately short of the resources needed to meet their obligations, is also in great need of revision. Australia is already a wealthy country; but there are parts of her education system which give little evidence of this being so; the education of teachers, unhappily is one of them. It is much to be hoped that State and Commonwealth Governments will soon give a higher priority to the creation of appropriate planning groups which will be able to provide the necessary statistical and other information upon which effective planning depends. Australia is seriously deficient in this regard at present.

references

1. R. W. T. Cowan, ed., *Education for Australians*, Melbourne: F. W. Cheshire, 1964.
2. E. Wheelwright, ed., *Higher Education in Australia*, Melbourne: F. W. Cheshire, 1965.
3. See *Report of the Australian Universities' Commission on Australian Universities, 1958-1963*, Canberra: Government Printer, Oct. 1960, p. 7 (d).
4. *Tertiary Education in Australia: Report of the Committee on the Future of Tertiary Education in Australia*, Canberra: Government Printer, Aug. 1964, Vol. 1, Chapter I, p. 1.

P. M. George

An Experiment in Participatory Democracy: A Case Study*

Most academics on this continent are by now thoroughly familiar with the rather redundant term "participatory democracy." It has come to describe the process within which university faculties and administrations share decision-making powers — once their exclusive responsibilities — with students.¹ But though the term is familiar, the process itself is not, since it is in most institutions a recent innovation or one contemplated for the future. This paper is a description of one university department's experience in introducing participatory democracy. The department in question is a sociology department within a large Canadian university. Most of the members were trained in the United States where experiments in this area have been going on for some time. Perhaps this fact, together with the youthfulness of the department itself (it has been in operation for less than six years, and the oldest individual among its sixteen faculty members is less than forty) encouraged a liberal attitude in the matter.

Before the experiment in student participation was introduced for the academic year 1969-70, there had been considerable interest in the topic among both faculty and students. However, proposals for implementing the idea were initiated

*In this paper, every attempt is made by the author not to discuss individuals in the department. This is not to deny the fact that members in the department, as individuals, did contribute their share to the success or failure of the experiment. The purpose of the paper is to gain sociological insights into the problem of participatory democracy in a university. The author gratefully acknowledges the helpful criticism he received from several faculty and students in the department. They are too many to be named here.

by the former and, during the discussions which followed, the students requested five seats for their representatives in the departmental assembly. This request was introduced as a formal motion at a faculty meeting. Inevitably, there were arguments for and against it; but ultimately, the faculty consented to include students in the departmental assembly, to give them full privileges and powers and even to increase their number to seven. Thus, a new departmental assembly of twenty-three was created — one composed of sixteen faculty and seven students. Moreover, the students were granted parity in all departmental committees, together with full privileges and powers. However, it was agreed by both students and faculty that these arrangements would be regarded as an experiment and at the end of the academic year 1969-70, both parties were free to reconsider the matter.

Although student participation was thus established in principle, making that principle operational involved many difficulties. There was, for example, the problem of voter eligibility which might be restricted to sociology majors or might include anyone enrolled in a sociology course. To this was added the whole problem of administering the elections. The practical difficulties presented in these areas were compounded by complications discovered in student attitudes. They were at best cautious about, and at worst, suspicious of most administrative proposals. The brief and transitional nature of their responsibility encouraged caution, while suspicion was fostered by the very nature of student elections. These generally involved a small slate of nominees and a small voter turn-out. This inevitably stimulated an independent and even "missionary" attitude on the part of student representatives, who frequently found themselves in power by dint of their *own* will, rather than that of the majority of their peers. Yet administrative revolutions — even democratic ones — seem elitist by their very nature and the department seemed prepared to accept this fact, at least in the initial stages of the experiment.

deterioration of the experiment

The experiment moved smoothly in its early days, particularly since the faculty allowed more student representation than the students asked for themselves. But before long, the different interests and orientation of faculty and students be-

gan to emerge. For example, the students showed more interest in undergraduate studies, particularly in the areas such as social revolution, political sociology, etc., whereas the faculty felt responsible for graduate studies and the "traditional" areas of sociology. Unfortunately, these different interests, instead of becoming a source of checks and balances, became the ground for increasing antagonism. This was not always overt, since some students were uneasily aware that the assembly included teachers actively involved in evaluating their class work. Consequently, one student representative resigned, two did not attend regularly, and still others did not participate in much of the discussion. These developments put great pressure on those few students eager or willing to participate. Possibly their concern to redress the impression created by their fellow students often forced them to more outspoken and intransigent positions than they might otherwise have taken.

There is an obvious theoretical problem raised here, but one to which few people have given serious thought. It concerns the question of whether participatory democracy is possible between two groups, one of which is responsible for evaluating and, therefore, in some sense, controlling the other. In a democratic political constituency where there is no such control, this question is rarely raised. But in the universities it cannot be ignored. To create the facade of participatory democracy, without altering the control structure implicit in the student-teacher relationship is to embark upon an extraordinarily difficult course. Nothing demonstrated this more powerfully during the experiment than the students' own sense of their paradoxical situation. They simply absented themselves, first from polling stations, then from assemblies, so that the roles created for them fell finally, by process of default, to self-appointed "leaders with a mission."

As a result, the atmosphere in the departmental meetings became increasingly artificial. The meetings took on the quality of a game of politics with students and faculty classified as "pro" or "anti" student or establishment. In the case of a candidate for appointment to the faculty, ideology became a key issue. Thus, radical students demanded a Marxian sociologist to counteract the over-abundance of "establishment" sociologists in the department.

In all these arguments, the proponents of student participation tended to make democracy itself an ideology, rather than one of the several principles for departmental guidance. Of course, this group failed to see the inherent contradiction, in

many circumstances, between the principle of democracy and the principle of professionalism. The very discussion of such issues *within* a university assumed student-teacher relationships based upon a non-democratic principle of authority. And if this authoritative principle proved unsatisfactory in its exclusive application to problems of departmental decision-making, the democratic rule seemed no less limited. In fact, the two systems demanded very subtle adjustment but within the hardening political circumstances, such adjustment became increasingly difficult. For example, students were aware of the paradoxical situation in which the faculty's invitation placed them. They seemed eager to overcome the problems, either through simple withdrawal or, among those who elected to participate, through the acquisition of a more complete power — a power, for instance, over grading or hiring. In the areas where they might have made useful and innovative suggestions — those under the jurisdiction of the Curriculum Committee and Library Committee — there was very little interest or activity. Factors like these made participatory democracy, not only burdensome, but anomalous as well. This was especially true for those teachers who prided themselves in their professionalism. Sociologists, they argued, cannot do their subjects' bidding, any more than medical doctors can prescribe the medicine of their patients' choice. Of course this does not mean that they can ignore the rights and feelings of students or patients. For the teacher this is to suffer not only the disadvantage of remoteness, but to rest one's authority in a self-centered concept of professional elitism that throws the whole point of teaching into question. This elitist concept is a real and ever present danger with the "professional" argument: witness faculty emphasis upon graduate versus undergraduate programs and publishing versus teaching. How can a department adjust these various difficulties?

Consider the major complaints of the students. In the department in question these were much the same as they were everywhere else on the North American continent: large classes, irrelevant course contents, and bureaucratic administrations. Of course those who complained about large classes were the same ones who supported a "democratization" in the universities that would ultimately open it up to very large numbers of students. They seemed unaware of or indifferent to the contradictory nature of these two demands. Paradoxically too, bureaucratization is, to some extent, a product of this same "democratization." The larger the system becomes,

the more difficult it is to run it on a personal basis. Relevance of course content was, no doubt, a legitimate area of concern. However, those who argued for relevance were thinking in terms of a few pressing social problems they themselves felt. But academic institutions, if they are social agencies, are not so in any simple sense because part of their concern is to transcend the problems of the present.

One of the chief student complaints, namely bureaucratic administration, deserves more consideration. To begin with, we should realize that this is a traditional and not a recent problem and the professional has never fitted easily within a bureaucratic system. The inherent problems in administering professionals^a are compounded in the case of academics who are used to extremely broad freedoms of thought and action — broader than any other group in modern society. But the fact is that a large social system, whether democratic or bureaucratic, cannot run effectively without the practical hand of good administrators. It is true, of course, that often they become originators of programs; but in the past academics and students, too, have shown an indifference toward and a disinterest in matters of governance. Many administrators therefore, exercise extensive powers by right of default. Herein lies the seed of future resentments and criticism.

The corrective lies through departmental co-operation. But it is also true, that an administrator can have too much "co-operation" from his colleagues. No administrator can afford to become a mere instrument of the majority. Even in democratic organizations, authority represents delegated power. The entrusting of delegated power to the administrator represents one of his traditional "rights." It is not fashionable to speak of these rights, but they are a fact of life which a sociologist — indeed, any reasonable person — should not ignore. The departmental assembly, however, felt free to do so. As a result, suspicions, resentments and frustrations over administrative activities increased. Problems became particularly acute during the discussion of an applicant for a position on the faculty. After a long and heated controversy, the applicant was turned down. With no real justification, the students' vote was regarded as the deciding factor. Their supposed culpability was enough to "radicalize" the whole atmosphere of later departmental assemblies.

With growing conflict and tension, there was an increasing preoccupation with rules and regulations on the part of both parties. In fact, the assembly seemed to develop more rules

than it could handle. References to the Robert's Rules of Order were frequent. Everyone became a victim of another difficult situation, though all seemed in this instance to understand a little more clearly that it was one of their own making. Finally, it became impossible to get anything done so that the assembly had to take the extraordinary action of abolishing all these rules and regulations which the department had only just been adopting. At least one lesson was clear: no number of rules and regulations will save a department which lacks basic goodwill among its members. Or, as Durkheim pointed out, the contractual elements of a social system must have a firm basis in underlying non-contractual elements.

In one of the last meetings before the summer vacation, the students introduced a motion for the continuation of student participation in the department, an act which was a violation of the original agreement to treat the whole thing as an experiment and give the faculty time to reflect on the experiment. The spirit the students showed in that meeting was one of confrontation, not of experimentation. The faculty sensed the power politics behind the motion and voted it down. The necessary non-contractual element of which Durkheim spoke, together with its subtle spirit of administrative adjustment and cooperation had ended. So had participatory democracy.

the paradox of the tragedy

Prior to this experiment, the sociology department had been regarded as a liberal, progressive department in many ways. In several courses, students had considerable control over their grades; the department gave financial aid to most students in their qualifying year. In all this it took justifiable pride, and perhaps encouraged its members to believe that the discipline they taught offered special benefits for the creation and successful operation of social systems. On the basis of these interests and assumptions, the department went further than any other in the university in its efforts to foster student participation. But ironically, no department failed so completely to satisfy needs in this area.

It is interesting to consider why this should be the case. To begin with, sociology seems to attract more radicals than do other disciplines. These students come with what we call an "action-orientation." To their dismay, they find themselves involved in a remote, detached and highly speculative world of

statistics, computer application, or theory construction.³ Their frustrations on discovering this are not only directed at the discipline, but find a reflection there in the age-old conflict between humanistic sociology and scientific sociology. The sociology department becomes, then, a focus, a stage upon which the drama that belongs to another and a larger context, can be enacted.

summary and conclusion

The episode described above raises a number of interesting questions. First, can an experiment in participatory democracy be successfully carried out in a single department within a university? The author is inclined to say "No." Second, can departments expect student participation to be democratic? Again, "No," particularly in the beginning. Third, can participatory democracy be meaningful between unequals, one of which has direct control over the other? Here too, the author is inclined to say "No."

Certain cautionary conclusions are obvious as well. Both students and faculty contributed heavily to the failures in participatory democracy. Neither could adjust with sufficient speed or conviction to the limitations of the departments' condition. The frustrations that grew out of these failures only compounded the difficulties. However, it cannot be emphasized too strongly that there are no simple solutions to the problems faced in this area. The students tend to be too unprofessional to comprehend the complexity of the problems inherent within the situation; their anti-administrative bias is such, moreover, that they find it extremely difficult to work upon practical programs; their sense of the limitations of their situation, when combined with the foregoing factors, leads them to resolve difficulties simply by demanding more power. The whole situation is one that fosters confrontation rather than communication, problems rather than solutions, and so discourages active or willing administrative interest. In order to remedy this, administrators must realize that there is nothing sacred about achieved solutions; students must understand that visions are subject to revisions; and the faculty must be encouraged to believe that professionalism is only one among a number of necessary considerations in a teaching department. And all parties must show restraint, patience, and above all, a genuine respect for others.

To most involved in the experiment described above, these reorderings of attitudes seem things more to be wished for than expected. Yet the author wishes to conclude this paper on a positive, not a pessimistic, note. An experiment is a success or failure only to the extent that the people involved learn or fail to learn lessons from it. The experiment in participatory democracy of the sociology department provided valuable lessons for administrators, faculty, and students. With patience, reflection and hard work these may teach us something.

references

1. For details on this topic in Canada, see Gerald F. McGuigan, ed., *Student Protest*, Toronto: Methuen Publications, 1968; Tim and Julyan Reid, eds., *Student Power and the Canadian Campus*, Toronto: Peter Martin Associates, 1969; and Dimitrios J. Roussopoulos, ed., *The New Left in Canada*, Montreal: Our Generation Press—Black Rose Books, 1970. In U.S.A., see Seymour M. Lipset and Sheldon S. Wolin, eds., *The Berkeley Student Revolt: Facts and Interpretations*, Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, 1965; and Michael Brown, ed., *Politics and Anti-Politics of the Young*, New York: Glencoe Press, 1969.
2. For the discussion on the conflict between professional and bureaucratic orientations see, Richard H. Hall, *Occupations and the Social Structure*, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969.
3. This point is already noted by Robert W. Friedrichs in his *A Sociology of Sociology*, Toronto: Collier-Macmillan Canada, 1970, pp. 77-78.

D. I. Joan Glen

The Challenge of Rising Educational Costs

For some time now it has been a generally accepted view that all expenditures on education must be inherently desirable. When a thing is good, the reasoning goes, more of it must be better. If educational costs have increased beyond all expectations, it is a burden that must be born, for surely expenditures on education are an indicator of the progress and enlightenment of a society. Moreover, economists have demonstrated that investment in human capital is an essential spur to economic growth. As we move on through the seventies, however, economic realities may force a re-assessment of the priorities that have been granted to education as a form of social expenditure. If this is to be so, educators should be the first, and not the last, to recognize the problem, to analyse the situation and to propose practical solutions.

There are many examples, in both the past and the present, of nations and societies whose desire to improve educational standards has been limited by their economic ability to do so. Fears are increasingly being expressed by political leaders in Canada that this point has now been reached. Since the taxpayer supplies the bulk of the funds used at all levels of education, it is reasonable that governments should ask "How well is this money being spent?" The Economic Council of Canada in its *Seventh Annual Review: Patterns of Growth*¹ suggests various ways in which the efficiency of the post-secondary educational institutions could be improved. It is apparent that the first need is for those directly concerned with the administration of education to clarify their objectives and to assess their own efficiency. In Quebec, the Minister of Education has announced that education costs must be brought down to a lower percentage of pro-

vincial expenditures. At present they comprise twenty-nine per cent of government expenditures in Quebec and over twenty per cent of government spending in Canada as a whole. Demand for increases in other social expenditures, such as those on health, welfare, urban planning and environmental improvement has taken on a new importance and urgency in the society of the seventies. The need for expanded educational opportunities must be weighed against the needs of these competing demands on the limited resources of society. It seems all too probable that in the near future educational administrators will find themselves firmly called upon to re-examine the whole educational structure in an attempt to find solutions to the growing financial problems.

education costs and g.n.p.

Two broad questions present themselves. "How serious is the problem?" and "What alternatives do we seem to have in approaching it?" The extent of the problem is a matter of arithmetic and, though some elements of the calculation are familiar, it seems appropriate to review them. Education costs in Canada ranged from \$408 million in 1949 to \$1,427 million in 1959 to \$6,859 million in 1969. The rise is startling. Inflation has been a factor, of course, but when put into constant (1949) dollars, we still have a 1969 expenditure of \$3,790 million. This is an 830% increase in the past twenty years, in terms of constant dollars. Population has increased in this period by about 55%, so the burden of educational costs on the individual Canadian is clearly much heavier than in the past. But the average Canadian is wealthier than he was in the past, so these expenditures should really be judged in relation to the country's total resources. They should be looked at in terms of gross national product, or of national income. Since the 1920's when figures were first available, educational expenditures have varied from about 1.5% of national product to about 5.4% as the country passed through war, peace and depression. In 1949 the figure was 2.5%. By 1969, it had reached 8.7% of gross national product or 11.5% in terms of national income. These percentages are much higher than would have been considered normal a few years ago.³ International comparisons for the mid-1960's show that developed nations were spending about six to eight per cent of their national income

on education. At that time Canada's effort to support education was about equal to that of Israel and Japan. It was greater than that of the United Kingdom and United States, but less than that of the U.S.S.R. or Ethiopia. No country was then reportedly spending more than ten per cent of its national income for educational purposes.

costs and national development

It is generally accepted that increasing stress on the value of education is a characteristic of development and economic growth. In highly developed countries the number of jobs at a skilled, managerial or professional level rapidly increases. The average educational attainment demanded for even the more routine types of employment also tends to increase. Investment in education, therefore, becomes more important to society as industrialization and urbanization progress and it is reasonable that a higher percentage of a nation's resources should be devoted to education at this stage than at earlier stages in development. The same is true if education is viewed as a production factor rather than as a consumer good. Galbraith³ said that investment in physical resources and communications will be the most urgent form of social investment at an early stage of economic development, but that later a sufficient investment in trained manpower becomes vital. Supporting this view, Denison found that in the United States the contribution of physical capital to economic growth was twice that of education between 1909 and 1929, but the contributions of education exceeded those of physical capital from 1929 to 1957.⁴ Again, this would support the need for ever-increasing amounts of our resources to be diverted to education. In fact, in 1965 the Economic Council of Canada⁵ was strongly urging upon Canadians the need for even greater investment in education, and attributing Canada's lower rates of productivity and earnings as compared with the United States to her lower levels of educational attainment. All of which would suggest that our present level of educational spending, while high in relation to our resources, is desirable and justifiable.

However, we may have reached a turning point in that the twenty year period of unrestricted growth that education has enjoyed is over. Henceforth it seems probable that any expansion of educational expenditure will not be able to much

exceed the percentage growth in gross national product. Over the last ten years the latter has been about seven or eight per cent a year while the former was around seventeen per cent per year.⁶ This rate of expansion can obviously not be sustained. With the demand for health expenditures rapidly shifting from the private to the public domain, with an increased demand for government subsidising of housing, with government expenditure on anti-pollution measures only just beginning, public funds are facing an unprecedented squeeze.

demands for the next decade

Estimates of the probable demand for education in the next decade indicate a definite slackening at the elementary level. Decreasing birth-rates in the 1960's will bring a slight decrease in the number enrolled in the elementary schools by 1976, according to estimates of the Economic Council of Canada.⁷ Expenditures on education at the elementary and secondary levels combined were estimated to increase by only 5.3% per annum between 1967 and 1975.⁸ This rate is well within the limits set by expansion of the gross national product. At the post-secondary level the problem is more acute. Enrolment here may double by 1976 and expenditures at universities and at other post-secondary institutions are both expected to increase at about 15% per annum in the next few years. A central factor here is the high operating expenditure per student that is necessary at the post secondary level. Using 1966 figures, these expenditures varied from \$180 to \$450 per student at the elementary and secondary levels and from \$1,460 to \$2,800 at the university level.⁹ One extra student at the university level is as great a burden on the community as eight or nine students at the lower levels of education.

Demand for university level education is not likely to slacken for some time. As it is, Canadians are well behind Americans in the average level of their educational attainment. A survey made in 1966¹⁰ showed that 20.1% of the adults over twenty years old in the United States had attended university, compared with 10.5% in Canada. The number holding a university degree was 9.6% and 4.8% respectively. Nor can the discrepancy be blamed on past failures entirely. If the twenty to twenty-four year age group is examined separately, we have a figure for United States residents of 43.9% with complete secondary education and 31.2% with some univer-

sity training, while the comparable figures for Canadians are 26.2% and 17.4%. The implication of this great difference in the educational attainments of Canadians and Americans is surely that Canada has only seen the beginning of the expansion of her university and secondary levels of education. There will be no lessening of the pressure for expansion until, perhaps, the declining birth rate begins to be felt in this age group.

alternative solutions

Only two real alternatives offer themselves in solution to the economic problems that daily loom larger. One is to limit the number of students, particularly at the higher levels of education, and the other is to minimize the capital and operating costs per student as far as is compatible with the maintenance of academic standards. These alternatives should be looked at more closely, for all levels of education, but particularly as they apply to the higher and more costly levels.

Any restriction of an individual's right to obtain as high a level of education as he can usefully benefit from should be seen as a negation of his basic freedom. After all, education is undeniably a means of upward social mobility in our society and there is ample evidence that income levels in adult life are closely correlated with educational attainment. How then, can one restrict entrance to university for any who can prove their ability to benefit from it? Yet this is what may have to be done if present trends continue. The answer might partly lie in a re-orientation of the upper levels of the education system and the creation of a greater diversity of post-secondary institutions. Perhaps the universities should return to a more traditional role in society and concentrate upon academic excellence, leaving other institutions to deal with the more specific applications of knowledge to the practical problems of modern society. Perhaps it is time to return to a greater degree of on the job training and the shifting of emphasis from the formal to the more informal types of education. Above all, there should be an effort to correlate the trained job-seekers, who constitute the output of the university, with the job opportunities that will be available to them. Certainly, any attempt to dictate what career an individual will pursue is an abridgement of his freedom, but this freedom is abridged in the long run by the realities of the job market. It is of little

use either to the society as a whole, or to the individual concerned, if trained engineers must do the work of a technician or if Ph.D.'s must suffer unemployment. In any event, it does seem to be time for all involved in education to be engaged in a re-assessment of the role of education in society and to be concerned in particular with a more specific definition of the goals and objectives of education at the secondary and post-secondary levels.

The question of efficiency within the educational system and of whether maximum output, in terms of both quantity and quality of students, is being obtained for the inputs of time, money and effort involved is one that has been neglected too long. Research on the effective use of educational funds has been minimal, especially in Canada. Administrators must daily decide on the allocation of funds without any real guidelines as to whether they would be most effectively spent on buildings, equipment or salaries. Little is known from the economic viewpoint of the relative efficiency of school units of varying size, of the economics of bus transportation or of the effectiveness of some of the more sophisticated types of visual aids in relation to their contribution to the learning process. Perhaps none of these aspects of education should be decided on the basis of economic efficiency alone; but neither is there any justification for deciding upon them with no thought of it at all.

Actual costs per student have risen considerably in the post-war period, even when calculated in constant dollars. In Quebec, for example they increased from \$95 per pupil in 1946 to \$316 per pupil in 1965. The increase in Ontario in the same period was from \$142 to \$333. Some of this increase is due to the greater number of pupils at the more expensive levels of education. Other factors involved are increased expenditures on such educational "extras" as school health services, hot lunches, gymnasias and swimming pools. Visual aids, language laboratories, improved buildings and expanded libraries have also added to per pupil cost. But salaries are the largest component of educational cost. Like many service industries, the education industry is one in which modern technology can do only a limited amount to raise efficiency. The basic dependence is on human personnel and there is no way in which increasing labour costs can be offset by the increased use of technology. These are all valid reasons for increasing costs per student, but one must still ask whether money is being spent as wisely as it might be. At the university level operat-

ing expenses have been growing at almost twice the rate of enrolment. Obviously there is an urgent need for more research into the economic efficiency of the education system and for more factual information on which to base policies.

capital expenditures and student fees

Capital expenditures at all levels of the education system have been comparatively high. This is not just a matter of increased building costs or more elaborate buildings, but is related to the significant shifts in population in the post war period as well as to the shifts in pupil enrolment at various education levels. In the population as a whole there has been a shift from rural to urban living and there has simultaneously been a shift within the cities from the core to the sub-urban areas. This brings a demand for new schools in new residential areas while old buildings must be abandoned. At the university level the growth of community colleges and CEGEPs has also involved much capital expense. There are signs that some reduction in the rate of capital expenditures might be expected. There is much discussion of ways in which the capital investment in buildings can be put to more intensive use, mostly through the year-round use of buildings. At the university level perhaps more will have to be done along these lines. At the school board level more careful long-term planning and forecasting of school populations, as well as more emphasis on regional co-operation in utilising existing school facilities, might be helpful.

A more controversial suggestion is that made by the Economic Council of Canada," which suggested that it is perhaps time for the public sector to curtail its contributions to university education and for a greater proportion of costs to be met from students' fees. Until recently there has been considerable hope that the time would soon arrive when the government would be able to pay the fees of all students, or at least of all in need. Newfoundland embarked on such a course but was unable to continue it. But since university education is of great economic benefit to the person receiving it, for he can expect to receive a considerably higher total of life-time earnings than one who does not attend university, it is not unreasonable that he should be expected to pay at least part of the cost. Increased availability of long-term loans to

students seems to make good sense, although it would not ease the economic burden of the government in the short-run.

the need for research

Reference has been made several times to the need for more research into the economic realities of running an enterprise that is now, by almost any measure, Canada's biggest industry.¹³ In 1968-69, expenditures on educational research were only \$15 million and in that year total education expenditures exceeded \$6 billion. One half of this research expenditure was in the province of Ontario. It is time now for some much more definitive research on the relationship of inputs and outputs in the education system to be undertaken. It is time, too, for a much more precise definition of the role of education in twentieth century society to be made by those whose task it is to make the decisions that affect the future of education. Above all, it should be realized by teacher, taxpayer, parent and administrator that the problems that loom on the horizon will not go away if they are ignored. The seventies should not be allowed to become a time of defensive reactions to externally imposed economic restrictions. The only way for the education system to avoid such a situation is to take the initiative itself and to begin to plan, probe and police itself in such a way that the public and politicians will no longer need to ask, "Are you spending these vast sums of money wisely?"

references

1. Economic Council of Canada, *Seventh Annual Review: Patterns of Growth*, Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1970.
2. Edding found an average figure in underdeveloped countries of one or two per cent, in developed countries of three or four per cent, and in special cases of about six per cent. See J. Vaizey, *The Economics of Education*, London: Faber and Faber, 1962, pp. 55-6.
3. J. K. Galbraith, "The Causes of Economic Growth: The Canadian Case," *Economics: Canada*, ed. M. H. Watkins and D. Forster, Toronto: McGraw-Hill of Canada, 1963.
4. E. F. Denison, *The Sources of Economic Growth in the United States and the Alternatives Before Us*, New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1962.
5. Economic Council of Canada, *Second Annual Review*, Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1965.

6. Calculated from figures published by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics.
7. W. M. Illing and Z. Zsigmund, *Enrolment in Schools and Universities 1951-52 to 1975-76*, Staff Study No. 20, Economic Council of Canada, Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1967.
8. Economic Council of Canada, *Sixth Annual Review*, Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1969, p. 38.
9. *Ibid.*, p. 137.
10. Dominion Bureau of Statistics, *Educational Attainment in Canada: Some Regional and Social Aspects*, Special Labour Force Study No. 7, Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1968.
11. Economic Council of Canada, *Seventh Annual Review*, Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1970, p. 70.
12. *Ibid.*, p. 55.

E. George Cochrane

Are We Too Busy To Think?

A curious quality of education is that... few study it in any serious way at all. In our hurry to purvey or consume it, we pause infrequently to question what we are up to. We are alternately too brash and reactionary and always, it seems, too busy to decide which and why. More importantly, we are too caught up with pressing numbers and immediate crises to decide what we should be doing in the first place. So we stumble on, giving and receiving schooling without full reflection on the truly sophisticated and ethically loaded practice it involves.

The words are those of TheodoreSizer, Dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education. They are words that should be pasted on to the desk of every teacher, every principal, every supervisor in the land — and if the desks of these individuals tend, like mine, to become so cluttered that such a message is likely to be buried, perhaps a better place for it would be the mirror that we peek at each day in order to ascertain that the face and hair that we are going to present to the world are reasonably acceptable.

I write as a former elementary school principal and a current coordinator with the P.S.B.G.M. I know only too well how easy it is to be engulfed by the minutiae of day-to-day operations — of meetings and phone calls, of interviews with parents and erring children, of central office communiques and unwashed dishes in the staff kitchen. The unhappy result of such an engulfment is that we move from crisis to crisis without any clear idea as to where we are going. Rather, the goal is simply to try to keep one's head above water.

Classroom teachers are, of course, at least as much beset by the same difficulty. On their shoulders rests a multitude of responsibilities: to keep the wheels of learning turning, to see

that Johnny is referred to the nurse, to get those requested returns into the office, to think of an idea suitable for tomorrow's art lesson, and so on, and so on.

But to yield completely to such pressures is to behave in a manner that detracts from the professionalism that we claim. Certainly there can be no denying that the conscientious teacher (and I include assorted hangers-on such as myself in that designation) is beset each working day by a multitude of chores to be performed. To lose oneself completely in such a maelstrom is, however, to forfeit the sense of perspective that all teachers should rarely, if ever, be without.

I still remember vividly the autumn day of my first year of teaching when the provincial inspector paid his initial visit to my classroom. He must have sensed that I was the victim of the type of crisis-oriented behaviour pattern to which I have referred for, after my ill-served youngsters had departed the classroom for more exciting pursuits, he gave me the benefit of some sage and fatherly advice.

"You know," he said, "it's a good idea to catch your breath once in a while, to take a careful and critical look at what you are doing, to identify weaknesses and to see if there is anything you can do to convert these into strengths. You are now a member of a profession and, as a professional, you should develop the habit of self-evaluation."

It was a message that I have never forgotten and, while I do not apply it as often or as rigorously as I should, there have been occasions, and quite a few of them, when I have reflected critically upon the week just past and have attempted to think of ways in which I could have handled certain responsibilities and certain problems more wisely and more effectively.

This type of self-evaluation I commend to everyone engaged in any aspect of the educational enterprise. But such evaluations do not go far enough unless they include some attempt to incorporate what might be termed philosophical considerations. These should include the following:

What do I conceive of as real goals of education?

What am I trying to achieve in the name of discipline?

What am I doing to improve myself as a teacher?

Questions such as these lead one to the type of professional contemplation and study of education thatSizer had in mind. And surely, at a time when the critical spotlight of public attention is focused on public education in a way that it has never been before, we all owe it to ourselves, to the children

entrusted to our care, to parents, to members of the community at large and to our professional colleagues to make of ourselves "scholar teachers" — thoughtful practitioners of what is still the most potentially satisfying art of them all — the art of teaching.

The word "art" can, of course, be a little misleading, for teaching is not only an art — it is also a science, a science which rests on a body of knowledge so vast that no one person, regardless of how gifted or how diligent he may be, can master it in a professional lifetime. The vastness of the undertaking does not excuse our refraining from devoting the time, the energy and, most difficult of all, the thought to gaining some understanding of the disciplines with which every teacher should have some acquaintance.

What the foregoing represents, then, is a plea for professionalism — a plea for dedication, for scholarship and for thoughtfulness.

It is a plea that should evoke an enthusiastic affirmative from those teachers sufficiently concerned about their profession as to merit the accolade of professional.

Paddy Hearsey*

A Priest in Jester's Clothing

Donald F. Theall. *THE MEDIUM IS THE REAR VIEW MIRROR — UNDERSTANDING McLUHAN*. Montreal : McGill-Queen's University Press, 1971. 261 pp. \$8.75.

Donald Theall's recent book, *The Medium is the Rear View Mirror*, has been seen by some critics as an attack on Marshall McLuhan. James Ferrabee in *The Gazette* of Saturday February 20th says, "The pupil has taken dead aim at his former professor, Marshall McLuhan, and McLuhan's widely accepted theories on the media and communications." Certainly Theall's language is strong, "McLuhan often approaches areas with the stance of the huckster, the techniques of the propagandist and the strategies of the con man" (xviii), but Theall admits that this may be deliberate, after the style of Mann, Melville and Joyce who see the artist as liar or counterfeiter. The book overtly essays an impartiality and balance in which Theall attempts two things: to help the reader understand what McLuhan is saying and to analyse his method; and to examine critically the validity of his theories and his technique. Until the publication of this book, most critics have taken sides in widely divergent opinions on Marshall McLuhan's work.

Using McLuhan's own terminology (e.g. "McLuhan is a medium and quite possibly a medium with a message" - p. 9), and to a small degree his methods of probe and interface, Theall examines each of McLuhan's books in chronological order, starting with *The Mechanical Bride* (1951), and closing with *Culture is Our Business* (1970). Through these

*Assistant Professor in the Faculty of Education, McGill University.

works, an interview for *Playboy Magazine* (March 1969), and some biographical material, Theall traces McLuhan's development, his importance and his weaknesses. *The Medium is The Rear View Mirror* sets out to show what makes McLuhan "successful and partly valid" (p. 35).

Theall acknowledges the power and persuasiveness of the man; the depth, ability and insight of the scholar; the wit, erudition and ability to cross both professional and academic fields; the genius of the innovator and creator of form (the *essai concret*). He modifies his statement by claiming that McLuhan is more a popularizer than an innovator. Theall says that McLuhan's historical importance is beyond question as he is the first man to have successfully "turned society on to the effect of different technological modes of transmission on our relationships" (p. 27). McLuhan is popular because of his formula for uniting two things that trouble us today: self-alienation, and the alienating influence of technology. Theall refers to McLuhan's own statement in the *Playboy* interview that his purpose is the pragmatic one of trying to understand "our technological environment, and its psychic and social consequences." McLuhan focuses our attention on vital issues often overlooked by scholars and specialists, and "makes manifest the theme of our times" (p. 237), functioning much as a court jester whose wisdom is cloaked in foolishness. "McLuhan on communications is McLuhan at his best" (p. 28).

At the same time, Theall questions McLuhan's methods of extrapolation saying that he "trivializes important methods of discovery" (p. 84), and allows fallacy. His conclusions are often too facile. Theall faults the nicety of McLuhan's terminology, and points out the slippery way he avoids criticism by denying the validity of detractors who approach him "in a linear way." He says that McLuhan sometimes has no respect for the sense of fact, and that "his insights need hardly be achieved at the expense of other people's equally valid work" (p. 64). However, he gives only one example of this weakness by referring to a difference with Bloomfield. By McLuhan's method,

he can establish by assertion without actually manifesting the process. His level of analysis insists upon correspondence between external phenomena . . . and internal processes. (p. 84)

He seems "hostile to logic" (p. 66) and his inadequacies are "great and serious" (p. 22).

Theall examines McLuhan as poet-artist *manqué*; as tech-

nical determinist in philosophy; as a myth; as a Catholic, and as a Canadian. The inclusion of these last two categories shows Theall's bias in presenting McLuhan in as conservative and parochial way as possible. He sees McLuhan as one of the last Victorians — an aesthete concerned with the form and style of art rather than its meanings and significance. Theall is at pains to distinguish McLuhan from his young *avant-garde* followers, and places him firmly in the tradition of literary didactic figures, tracing his lineage from Bacon, Pope, Chesterton, and Joyce. McLuhan worships the master punster, James Joyce, from whom he borrows extensively. McLuhan is "a paradoxical Janus of the media world, one face like Paul Goodman, the other like Wyndham Lewis" (p. 60). There is a perceptive analysis of McLuhan's dictum, *the medium is the message* and the pun on it, *the medium is the massage*, revealing the function of form as form, and implicitly suggesting that any message is also a massage especially in the mass age, which, environmentally, is also a mess age (p. 8). If the overt message means less than the form or medium, then McLuhan's message is not its content, but his method.

To make sense of the paradox implicit in "the medium is the message" one is forced to meditate upon the complex relationship between medium and message, form and content — even about the nature of the code in which messages are *informed* or communicated. (p. 7)

This insight does not prevent Theall from criticizing McLuhan's content as well as his method. Theall describes McLuhan as "an industrial folklorist" (p. 55), saying that he is at the same time both brilliant scholar and historian, and a *make-up* man. In *Culture is Our Business* McLuhan confronts directly the images of violence, unrest, fear and tension and thus "illuminates most vividly the values of McLuhan... and his weakness in deceptively being all things to all men, a priest in jester's clothing" (p. 237).

In naming this book, Theall has himself adopted one of McLuhan's cybernetic metaphors,

where one of the vital safety factors in a car and the process of utilizing it are compared to the way in which we examine present cultural phenomena. (p. 13)

For this reviewer, the validity of Theall's insight lies in his recognition of McLuhan as a present day Mr. Spectator drawing attention to our environment, how our lives are shaped by the media, and how out of date the tools are with which we try to cope. Donald Theall had hitherto maintained he

would never write a book on McLuhan, a personal friend who had been his own thesis advisor. He changed his mind partly because he decided that McLuhan's insights were "less startling than some think" (xiii), but chiefly because of his belief in the immediacy of McLuhan's vision. Although "his quixotic conclusions may ultimately mislead and do harm," Theall says, "the basic body of knowledge to which he [McL] points is vitally important to survival today" (xiii). Theall makes no final judgement on McLuhan's work. Whether his declared intentions in writing this book have been realized is for each reader to decide, but to this reviewer there seems to be an underlying, more insidious aim, as Theall debunks the myth, reducing McLuhan to his human, and therefore fallible state. However, *The Medium is the Rear View Mirror* is as yet the most comprehensive single volume by any one writer for scholars and laymen wishing to understand Marshall McLuhan.

McLuhan attempts to find a form of expression which blends print with the new electric age techniques of expression. (p. 239)
In doing so, he is, as Theall describes him, "an index to our age" (xvi).

Formally, *The Medium is The Rear View Mirror* starts with a bang and ends with a whimper. Most of the more salient points and relevant comments appear in the early chapters — many in the introduction. The following chapters, dealing with specific books and illustrating Theall's opinions, contain more generally dialectical argument. The final chapter is almost pure speculation and of dubious value. The style is mixed. In parts the literary references and pedantic diction make for slow reading; elsewhere the McLuhanesque jargon must make for difficulties for any reader not previously well-versed in Marshall McLuhan's work.

W. Alan Wright*

Classroom Cookbook: The Recipes are Very American But Very Good

Dwight W. Allen and Eli Seifman, eds. *THE TEACHER'S HANDBOOK*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1971. 832 pp. \$12.95.

The Teacher's Handbook is a massive collection of some 75 essays on virtually all topics of interest to contemporary educators. Editors Eli Seifman of the State University of New York and energetic Dwight W. Allen, Dean of New England's innovative School of Education at the University of Massachusetts, have successfully realized the ambitious task of soliciting and compiling papers from over 80 contributors to produce a survey in education — a catalog for teachers — which is at once undeniably practical and academically excellent. Though Canadian teachers will find the *Handbook* a unique and valuable tool, its worth as a reference and source of information is somewhat handicapped due to the deep-rooted U.S. orientation which prevails from cover to cover. Those who conceived the *Handbook* were obviously committed to creating a volume which, by its format, features and design, invites frequent use. The body of the volume is divided by topic into seven sections, each color-keyed for ease of access and suitably linked by brief, informative introductions.

The essays themselves are direct and concise, and demonstrate effective use of subtitles. Annotated bibliographies offer options for in-depth exploration of a given issue. One dozen important appendices also help to make the *Handbook* one which belongs on the teacher's desk rather than on an inaccessible shelf.

*Professional Development Co-ordinator, P.A.P.T.

Most significant of the *Handbook's* special features is an eight-page reference section which directs the reader to specific articles for possible answers to his questions. Lloyd W. Kline has compiled fifty "Questions Teachers Often Ask," and listed the relevant articles to turn to for guidance.

Section 1 of *The Teacher's Handbook* is devoted to "The Teacher." Articles deal with teacher education, in-service development, substitute teaching, teacher aides, teaching strategies, accountability and teacher organizations. Editor Seifman's "Teaching Strategies" asserts that, "There is no one best teaching method that fits all situations," and advocates the acquisition of "a range of teaching strategies" for all teachers. Another paper in this section, "Teacher Organizations," is little more than a brief description of the structures, policies, and conflicts that characterize the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers. Hopefully, Canadian teachers will take the trouble to find out something of the workings of their own teacher organizations, such as the Canadian Teachers' Federation.

"Human Growth and Development" is the heading for Section 2 of the *Handbook*. This, the "major province of the entire professional enterprise" (p. 84), is dealt with in five basic essays on the stages of human growth, giftedness and handicaps. One naturally relates these theoretical essays to specific children one has known and taught; therein lies the strength of this Section.

The teacher will probably look to Section 3, "The Instructional Process," more than to any other part of the *Handbook*. It is here that practices and procedures which characterize the daily operation of the business are examined. Elementary staffs debating instructional grouping procedures would do well to consult Thomas Hawkes on the topic, while others concerned with "Classroom Discipline" and "Instructional Media" might turn to articles by William J. Gnagey and Gabriel D. Ofiesh. There is the occasional dismal essay which I hope teachers do not take seriously. In "Classroom Management," Paulette Alexander entices teachers to undertake with enthusiasm the "bookkeeping and housekeeping aspects of teaching" which many complain about, as "the records kept by classroom teachers are the grassroots of administration" (p. 177). The author also excuses the use of humor in the classroom with, "In the well-structured, purposeful, business like atmosphere of the effective classroom, there are many appropriate opportunities for humor. It relaxes class-

room tensions..." (p. 181).

The mid-section consists of a series of "crash courses" in the various curriculum areas. Most follow a standard format in presenting an historical overview of the development of the discipline, plus an outline of current trends and approaches.

Section 5 is "The School System." To be precise, it should read "The American School System." The extent to which the American orientation upon which these essays are based limits their value for Canadian readers is ultimately for the individual to determine. I found Francis A.J. Ianni's "School and Community" particularly stimulating. Ianni deals with the coming together of the two institutions and calls for a new focus on the "third institution — education — which is neither school nor community but both" (p. 484).

Five essays comprise "The Foundations of Education" Section. Eli Seifman examines "Historical Foundations" of education in the United States, hoping the teacher will find his "statements about the past" of "historical significance and contemporary relevance" (p. 558). Louis Fischer's formula for making teaching "the noble occupation it must be" "through effective utilization of organized membership" (p. 568) is found in "Social Foundations." In "Philosophical Foundations," Donald Arnstine demonstrates that philosophy of education is of practical value as a "mode of analysis" (p. 570); James W. Hall outlines the work in psychology that has implications for education; and, in "Aesthetic Foundations," Ralph A. Smith emphasizes the need to leave the world a better place.

The most thought-provoking Section of the *Handbook* is the last — "Contemporary Issues." It offers a wide variety of essays on controversial topics. Here again, the sole consideration of the American experience in most of these is a drawback. Not that the issues raised in James Farmer's "Minority Problems," for example, are irrelevant to Canadians. On the contrary. But, there is a strong tendency on the part of Canadians to read such articles and conclude that the problems are uniquely American. The "It couldn't happen here" syndrome is reinforced by a lack of information on the Canadian experience.

Sandwiched between "Student Power" and "Sex and Drugs" is Margaret Gillett's refreshing and original paper on "The Ecology of Education." In the *Handbook's* only Canadian contribution, Dr. Gillett takes an irreverent look at

"the school as an ecosystem... out of balance" (p. 748). The author proposes "an approach to the nature of learning, the learner, and the outcomes of learning that is at once scientific and humane." She claims that "Such an approach would be an ecology of education" (p. 753).

Unless an enterprising American finds a formula for profit on a Canadian edition, *The Teacher's Handbook* will remain a thoroughly "stars and stripes" production. For the time being, it appears to be a must for the teacher's desk and the staff room — a manual for all educational seasons.

**INTERCHANGE: A JOURNAL
OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES**

Interchange, a quarterly journal of The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, is concerned with relationships among theoretical perspectives, empirical research, and educational practice.

Partial Contents of Recent Issues

Vol. 1, No. 3

- B. R. Joyce, "Comprehensive Reform in Teacher Education"
- R. M. Gagné, "Structured Experience and Pre-Planned Learning"
- M. R. Tumin, "Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Education"
- E. J. Haller & S. Thorson, "Political Socialization"
- D. E. Hunt, "Coordinating Learner Characteristics with Educational Approaches"

Vol. 1, No. 4 — Education for the Future

- M. McLuhan, "Education in the Electronic Age"
- H. Passow, "Urban Education in the 1970's"
- E. Litwak, et al. "Community Participation in Bureaucratic Organizations"
- A. McNaughton, "Curriculum as an Instrument of Change"
- D. Livingstone, "Alternative Futures for Formal Education"

Vol. 2, No. 1 — Alternatives in Education

Everett Reimer, Carl Bereiter, David Livingstone, Philip Foster, Walter Blege, Walter Pitman, and Bascom St. John.

Annual Subscription rates: Students—\$3.00; other individuals—\$5.00; libraries—\$7.00. Single issues—\$1.75 each.

Remittance is requested by cheque or money order, payable to OISE.
Mail to: Publication Sales, OISE, 252 Bloor St. W., Toronto 5, Ontario, Canada.

"the school as an ecosystem... out of balance" (p. 748). The author proposes "an approach to the nature of learning, the learner, and the outcomes of learning that is at once scientific and humane." She claims that "Such an approach would be an ecology of education" (p. 753).

Unless an enterprising American finds a formula for profit on a Canadian edition, *The Teacher's Handbook* will remain a thoroughly "stars and stripes" production. For the time being, it appears to be a must for the teacher's desk and the staff room — a manual for all educational seasons.

**INTERCHANGE: A JOURNAL
OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES**

Interchange, a quarterly journal of The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, is concerned with relationships among theoretical perspectives, empirical research, and educational practice.

Partial Contents of Recent Issues

Vol. 1, No. 3

- B. R. Joyce, "Comprehensive Reform in Teacher Education"
- R. M. Gagné, "Structured Experience and Pre-Planned Learning"
- M. R. Tumin, "Evaluation of the Effectiveness of Education"
- E. J. Haller & S. Thorson, "Political Socialization"
- D. E. Hunt, "Coordinating Learner Characteristics with Educational Approaches"

Vol. 1, No. 4 — Education for the Future

- M. McLuhan, "Education in the Electronic Age"
- H. Passow, "Urban Education in the 1970's"
- E. Litwak, et al. "Community Participation in Bureaucratic Organizations"
- A. McNaughton, "Curriculum as an Instrument of Change"
- D. Livingstone, "Alternative Futures for Formal Education"

Vol. 2, No. 1 — Alternatives in Education

Everett Reimer, Carl Bereiter, David Livingstone, Philip Foster, Walter Blege, Walter Pitman, and Bascom St. John.

Annual Subscription rates: Students—\$3.00; other individuals—\$5.00; libraries—\$7.00. Single issues—\$1.75 each.

Remittance is requested by cheque or money order, payable to OISE.
Mail to: Publication Sales, OISE, 252 Bloor St. W., Toronto 5, Ontario, Canada.

Marcel L. Goldschmid.
**BLACK AMERICANS AND
WHITE RACISM.**
New York: Holt, Rinehart &
Winston, 1970.
434 pp.

*We shall overcome. ...This will
be a great day. This will not
be the day of the white man,
it will not be the day of the
black man, it will be the day
of man as man.*

Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.

There is an old saying that the best thing about spring is that it comes when it is most needed. The same can be said of Professor Goldschmid's book. In the United States there has been a phenomenal, almost epidemic, appearance of Black Studies programs, courses, seminars, symposia, and other collegiate rites paralleling the growth of civic and political concern over racism; yet, relatively few books have appeared of a breadth and quality that can intellectually satisfy both teacher and student. *Black Americans and White Racism* is one of these.

I must admit that I have always looked askance at books of readings, both because I felt envious of a colleague who could collect royalties out of the process of transferring "intellectual bones" from one graveyard to another, and because the serious student ought to experience the discipline and satisfaction of reading important papers in their original source. This book has done much to change my position.

In this excellent collection of 30 readings, Professor Goldschmid presents to the reader a variety of selections: there is an address by

Martin Luther King, three textbook selections, five from government documents, and 21 articles from psychological and sociological journals. The emphasis then is on the scholarly and the academic, a quite appropriate emphasis, but one that may lead the more acerbic critic to wonder whether a more balanced menu might not have been achieved with more selections from magazines such as *Saturday Review*.

The emphasis is also on the recent. Of the 21 selections taken from psychological and sociological journals, all are from 1964 to 1968 issues, with the largest numbers coming from 1966 (eight) and 1967 (seven). One is thus torn between recency and primacy, between emphasizing current trends and thinking, or the masters and classic papers. Professor Goldschmid chose recency; certainly an appropriate decision, but one that might have been tempered by an occasional selection from the "earlier" writings of Deutsch, Merton, Pasamanick, or others.

The 30 selections are distributed into seven chapters, an introductory chapter, and one each on personality, child development, intelligence, achievement, racism, and violence. Most authors of books of readings are content to write superficial introductions to each topical area; I am delighted to note that Professor Goldschmid has deviated from this lamentably common tradition. In fact, the most outstanding feature of this collection is the introductions written by Professor Goldschmid. Each not only introduces the subsequent readings, but gives a concise and insightful resume of major points, theories, and findings, plus numerous, well chosen references that comprise an excellent reading list. If for no other reason, *Black Americans and White Racism* is worth purchasing and reading for these introductions.

George Domino
Fordham University, N.Y.

Daisy Marvel Jones.

TEACHING CHILDREN TO READ.

New York: Harper and Row,
1971. 423 pp. \$9.95.

and

Dolores Durkin.

TEACHING THEM TO READ.

Boston: Allyn and Bacon,
1970. \$8.50.

Teaching Children to Read is intended for use as a text in courses in the teaching of reading at the pre-service level and also for use as a reference for teachers in service (p. xi).

The clearly organized table-of-contents and complete index facilitate the reference use by in-service teachers. The practical suggestions relating to specific areas of developmental reading, particularly those on oral and silent reading, may also provide some insights and/or "action ideas" for these teachers. However, two major features make this text inappropriate for pre-service teachers.

First: The vocabulary and concept load are very high and the explanations vague. For example, on page 44, the following phrases occur within five lines of print: *Intellectual ability, linguistic maturity, meaningful patterns, linguistic patterns, intellectual level and rate of intellectual growth*. True, the author has explained some of these terms but the lay language merges into sophisticated language so rapidly it becomes educational jargon.

Second: The approach to reading instruction throughout is analytical rather than developmental. After briefly, and properly, putting reading into the context of language, Jones presents it as a problem, complete with multiple causes and approaches. The problem idea persists as a part of the approach and often negative considerations precede the positive ones which are being recommended, e.g. *mechanics or meaning* (pp.

174-5). In this reviewer's opinion, Daisy Marvel Jones' *Teaching Children to Read* is not an appropriate text for one who has not taught.

On the other hand, Dolores Durkin's *Teaching Them to Read*, which was written for those preparing to teach, is a welcome addition to the literature. It features appropriate developmental organization, the use of minimal specialized vocabulary, and clear expository language.

Since the author has done significant research in the field of early reading, the three chapters "Readiness to Learn to Read," "Preschool Reading" and "Reading and the Kindergarten" speak with more than usual authority, yet fit unpretentiously into the total text. The bibliographical listings after each of these chapters are especially complete and pertinent. Chapter 6, "Materials for Teaching Reading," is timely and useful. The reader is first told what is meant by the term, *instructional materials*. Next, in a series of descriptive definitions, he is introduced to multiple types of these. Clear illustrations of some are included, e.g. reading skill charts, personal language charts, narrative charts, pages from high-interest low vocabulary books, and multi-racial readers.

In the chapter entitled "Teaching Beginning Reading," practice with words using games and word cards seems to be given undue emphasis. Meaningful use of words both in reading very-early-reading books, and use of the child's own writing to help him practice words are not nearly so well clarified.

In the chapter "Teaching Comprehension Skills," a working definition of *reading comprehension* is particularly well developed and illustrated. As much meaning of this highly ambiguous term as a beginning teacher can assimilate is included. The concept development is open-ended without being vague.

Edna C. Himeline
McGill University

Octavio Paz.
**CLAUDE LEVI-STRAUSS:
 AN INTRODUCTION.**
 Translated from the Spanish
 by J.S. Bernstein
 and Maxine Bernstein.
 Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell U. Press,
 1970.
 159 pp. \$6.95.

In this small volume, Octavio Paz, the Mexican poet-diplomat, has brought his unusual perspective to what he describes as a resumé of his "impressions and reflections" after reading the works of the famed anthropologist, Claude Lévi-Strauss.

Although Lévi-Strauss is best known to those social scientists who share his concern for the place of man in the natural system, his influence, according to Paz, has spread far beyond the confines of the social sciences. The writings of Lévi-Strauss, in Paz's view, have a threefold importance: anthropological, philosophical and aesthetic. Specialists in many fields, he says, find in Lévi-Strauss's work a brilliant and disturbing contribution to the literature of their respective disciplines. For example, Paz gives some attention to "the particular relation which connects Lévi-Strauss's thought with linguistics" (p. 12). After a brief review of the transition from functionalism to structuralism, in America in the twenties, the author describes how Lévi-Strauss applied, with daring ingenuity, the structural method of linguistics to anthropology to reveal the relations between the universe of discourse and non-verbal reality. In reference to *Le Cru et le cuit*, one of Lévi-Strauss's best-known books, Paz points out: *Lévi-Strauss's purpose is not so much to study all American myths as it is to decipher their structure, isolate their elements and relational terms, discover the way in which mythical thought works.* (p. 46)

Paz has some ideas of his own

to offer the reader of this "introduction" to Claude Lévi-Strauss. In the manner of Ivan Illich, he is caustically critical of the U.S. He sees it discredited by a large section of its own citizenry who are alienated and ashamed. The sins of the U.S. have been an "overevaluation of change" and overcommitment to progress. "It is a giant which is walking faster and faster along a thinner and thinner line."

Again, Paz takes issue with McLuhan on the "new media of oral communication" and their power to reintroduce face-to-face dialogue:

Despite their restoring to the word its verbal dynamism... radio and television increase the distance between the one speaking and the one who is listening... The true foundation of all authentic democracy and socialism is, or ought to be, conversation... (p. 108)

However, most of the text is devoted to an assessment of the writings of Lévi-Strauss and the play of his ideas on the theme of human nature as a harmony and a proportion. These are ideas of fundamental significance to the educator.

Monika Kehoe
 University of Guam

J.A. Corry.
**FAREWELL THE IVORY
 TOWER: UNIVERSITIES IN
 TRANSITION.**
 Montreal: McGill-Queen's
 University Press, 1970.
 121 pp. \$7.50.

Dr. Corry, former Principal of Queen's University, adds his name to a growing list of educators — Eric Ashby, Clark Kerr and James Perkins among others — who, in recent years, have spoken and written perceptively on the role and character of the university in contemporary society. This book is a collection of addresses delivered by the author to university audiences between 1961 and 1969.

Octavio Paz.
**CLAUDE LEVI-STRAUSS:
 AN INTRODUCTION.**
 Translated from the Spanish
 by J.S. Bernstein
 and Maxine Bernstein.
 Ithaca, N.Y.: Cornell U. Press,
 1970.
 159 pp. \$6.95.

In this small volume, Octavio Paz, the Mexican poet-diplomat, has brought his unusual perspective to what he describes as a resumé of his "impressions and reflections" after reading the works of the famed anthropologist, Claude Lévi-Strauss.

Although Lévi-Strauss is best known to those social scientists who share his concern for the place of man in the natural system, his influence, according to Paz, has spread far beyond the confines of the social sciences. The writings of Lévi-Strauss, in Paz's view, have a threefold importance: anthropological, philosophical and aesthetic. Specialists in many fields, he says, find in Lévi-Strauss's work a brilliant and disturbing contribution to the literature of their respective disciplines. For example, Paz gives some attention to "the particular relation which connects Lévi-Strauss's thought with linguistics" (p. 12). After a brief review of the transition from functionalism to structuralism, in America in the twenties, the author describes how Lévi-Strauss applied, with daring ingenuity, the structural method of linguistics to anthropology to reveal the relations between the universe of discourse and non-verbal reality. In reference to *Le Cru et le cuit*, one of Lévi-Strauss's best-known books, Paz points out: *Lévi-Strauss's purpose is not so much to study all American myths as it is to decipher their structure, isolate their elements and relational terms, discover the way in which mythical thought works.* (p. 46)

Paz has some ideas of his own

to offer the reader of this "introduction" to Claude Lévi-Strauss. In the manner of Ivan Illich, he is caustically critical of the U.S. He sees it discredited by a large section of its own citizenry who are alienated and ashamed. The sins of the U.S. have been an "overevaluation of change" and overcommitment to progress. "It is a giant which is walking faster and faster along a thinner and thinner line."

Again, Paz takes issue with McLuhan on the "new media of oral communication" and their power to reintroduce face-to-face dialogue:

Despite their restoring to the word its verbal dynamism... radio and television increase the distance between the one speaking and the one who is listening... The true foundation of all authentic democracy and socialism is, or ought to be, conversation... (p. 108)

However, most of the text is devoted to an assessment of the writings of Lévi-Strauss and the play of his ideas on the theme of human nature as a harmony and a proportion. These are ideas of fundamental significance to the educator.

Monika Kehoe
 University of Guam

J.A. Corry.
**FAREWELL THE IVORY
 TOWER: UNIVERSITIES IN
 TRANSITION.**
 Montreal: McGill-Queen's
 University Press, 1970.
 121 pp. \$7.50.

Dr. Corry, former Principal of Queen's University, adds his name to a growing list of educators — Eric Ashby, Clark Kerr and James Perkins among others — who, in recent years, have spoken and written perceptively on the role and character of the university in contemporary society. This book is a collection of addresses delivered by the author to university audiences between 1961 and 1969.

As one works his way through Corry's addresses, it becomes increasingly clear that the author, rather like a Canadian Fichte, is speaking less to scholars than to the broad public. Like the early nineteenth century German philosopher, he lectures the nation on the relationship between society and education. Maintaining the view that the contemporary university has shed its ivory tower casing, thus necessitating a redefining of university-community relations, he sets out to re-educate the public in its new role before the university.

His major thesis is that the present century has seen the university wrenched from its private moorings and thrust into the mainstream of society. No longer does the university practice an institutional form of rugged individualism, given to serving its own ends and paying little or no heed to the larger problems of society. No longer are the universities cozy institutions serving a select clientele and operating on the periphery of daily life. Universities have submitted in spirit to the right of eminent domain. In short, they have become institutions of public interest.

And although universities as institutions of public interest have a duty to serve their benefactor, it does not follow, reasons Corry, that they must kow tow to every whim of society. Universities must have freedom to make their own decisions and manage their own affairs within the larger context of societal goals. The unique and paradoxical role of the modern university in a democratic state is demonstrated by the fact that while the institution depends heavily on the public for moral and financial support, it has a continuing responsibility to criticize society. One wonders whether the university can both be principal and agent in the educational enterprise.

Roger Magnuson
McGill University

H.H. McAshan.
**WRITING BEHAVIORAL
OBJECTIVES:
A NEW APPROACH.**
New York: Harper and Row,
1970. 116 pp. \$2.50.

The title of this little book suggested that it might be quite useful to the teacher educator. I looked forward to something like Pipe's *Practical Programming* — a small "how to do it" text (but with a respectable amount of theory) that would fit into a flexible course in Educational Psychology and lend itself to realistic exercises for future teachers. In the past I have asked my students to devise, for specific units of work, behavioral objectives and test items following Bloom's *Taxonomy* (or as illustrated in Hedges' *Testing and Evaluation for the Sciences*), and I hoped to find something of the same kind in this book.

I soon found on examining Mr. McAshan's text that he deals chiefly with the formulation of objectives at the macro level, that is, for general curriculum and system-wide units. Perhaps examples of the kind of objectives he is concerned with will illustrate the point:

"To develop the ability of seventh-grade students to measure lengths in metric system and other standards as measured by a written teacher-made test in which 75% of the students measure correctly 8 out of 10 objects using two different standards for each object" (p. 42).

"To increase the learning achievement in word study skills of second grade students as measured by the Primary I Battery of the Stanford Achievement Test for Word Study Skills on which 90% of the students score at grade level or above" (p. 48).

Mr. McAshan is concerned, quite rightly, that objectives be written very specifically. Through a rather

As one works his way through Corry's addresses, it becomes increasingly clear that the author, rather like a Canadian Fichte, is speaking less to scholars than to the broad public. Like the early nineteenth century German philosopher, he lectures the nation on the relationship between society and education. Maintaining the view that the contemporary university has shed its ivory tower casing, thus necessitating a redefining of university-community relations, he sets out to re-educate the public in its new role before the university.

His major thesis is that the present century has seen the university wrenched from its private moorings and thrust into the mainstream of society. No longer does the university practice an institutional form of rugged individualism, given to serving its own ends and paying little or no heed to the larger problems of society. No longer are the universities cozy institutions serving a select clientele and operating on the periphery of daily life. Universities have submitted in spirit to the right of eminent domain. In short, they have become institutions of public interest.

And although universities as institutions of public interest have a duty to serve their benefactor, it does not follow, reasons Corry, that they must kow tow to every whim of society. Universities must have freedom to make their own decisions and manage their own affairs within the larger context of societal goals. The unique and paradoxical role of the modern university in a democratic state is demonstrated by the fact that while the institution depends heavily on the public for moral and financial support, it has a continuing responsibility to criticize society. One wonders whether the university can both be principal and agent in the educational enterprise.

Roger Magnuson
McGill University

H.H. McAshan.
**WRITING BEHAVIORAL
OBJECTIVES:
A NEW APPROACH.**
New York: Harper and Row,
1970. 116 pp. \$2.50.

The title of this little book suggested that it might be quite useful to the teacher educator. I looked forward to something like Pipe's *Practical Programming* — a small "how to do it" text (but with a respectable amount of theory) that would fit into a flexible course in Educational Psychology and lend itself to realistic exercises for future teachers. In the past I have asked my students to devise, for specific units of work, behavioral objectives and test items following Bloom's *Taxonomy* (or as illustrated in Hedges' *Testing and Evaluation for the Sciences*), and I hoped to find something of the same kind in this book.

I soon found on examining Mr. McAshan's text that he deals chiefly with the formulation of objectives at the macro level, that is, for general curriculum and system-wide units. Perhaps examples of the kind of objectives he is concerned with will illustrate the point:

"To develop the ability of seventh-grade students to measure lengths in metric system and other standards as measured by a written teacher-made test in which 75% of the students measure correctly 8 out of 10 objects using two different standards for each object" (p. 42).

"To increase the learning achievement in word study skills of second grade students as measured by the Primary I Battery of the Stanford Achievement Test for Word Study Skills on which 90% of the students score at grade level or above" (p. 48).

Mr. McAshan is concerned, quite rightly, that objectives be written very specifically. Through a rather

Reviews

elaborate framework he introduces us to what he calls communication checks, which are devices to ensure that the reader will know from the phrasing of an objective exactly who is the learner, what behavioral change may be expected, and the implied behavioral domain according to Bloom's *Taxonomy*. As may be seen from the examples given, he is also concerned with clear statements of evaluative techniques and criteria for success. The kinds of statements his technique produces are, I believe, very useful in the first step in curriculum design, that is, for drawing up main or overall objectives. On the other hand he appears to offer little help when it comes to reducing "developing ability" and "increasing learning achievement" to specific objectives at the level of the individual lesson or activity. There are, nevertheless, many useful points made in passing, such as on the relationship between needs and goals, the dangers of rigidity that may accompany behavioral objectives, and the difficulties that ensue if procedures are incorporated into the statements of objectives.

My chief criticism of the book, and it is a major one, concerns the way in which it is written. It is supposedly designed in light of "several learning strategies usually associated with programmed instruction." If this is so, I would hesitate to place it in the hands of students in whom I hope to nurture a positive, or at least open, attitude towards programmed instruction for certain phases of education. Mr. McAshan introduces us to a veritable thicket of jargon in Chapter Two and it requires infinite patience to hang on as he gradually develops our comprehension of these terms in subsequent chapters. I question the placement of the "evaluative measures" at the beginning of each chapter, and particularly the format for those heading Chapter One, which begin thus: "Quality education refers to the effectiveness of any educational program in meeting its own

....."

If this was designed to convince me that I needed to read the chapter, there was no problem! In any case, on the next page I found the sentence with the three words I should learn: "Quality education refers to the effectiveness of any educational program in meeting its own specifically defined objectives."

Having worked my way through the book, I am not convinced that I really need to clutter my mind with terms such as "specific non-instructional objectives" and "minimum level behavioral objectives" in order to understand and, hopefully, remember the points the author is making. These may be useful to the researcher and curriculum specialist, but I fear it is the kind of thing that would defeat my purpose in working with teachers in training or with experienced teachers in workshop situations. I do not mean that what Mr. McAshan is saying is not worthwhile; I just wish he could have said it in a simpler and more graceful manner. Perhaps it is egoism or inappropriate self-confidence, but I feel I could accomplish in lectures and discussions the same objective, but without the elaborate terminology. However, I must admit that my ideas, and certainly my repertoire of examples, have been enriched by having worked my way, in spite of irritation, through this book.

Gerald McKay
McGill University

William Oliver Martin.
REALISM IN EDUCATION.
New York: Harper and Row.
1969.
198 pp. \$2.95.

This is an outstanding book and is perhaps the only work of its kind which uses an analytic, as well as what the author calls a

Reviews

elaborate framework he introduces us to what he calls communication checks, which are devices to ensure that the reader will know from the phrasing of an objective exactly who is the learner, what behavioral change may be expected, and the implied behavioral domain according to Bloom's *Taxonomy*. As may be seen from the examples given, he is also concerned with clear statements of evaluative techniques and criteria for success. The kinds of statements his technique produces are, I believe, very useful in the first step in curriculum design, that is, for drawing up main or overall objectives. On the other hand he appears to offer little help when it comes to reducing "developing ability" and "increasing learning achievement" to specific objectives at the level of the individual lesson or activity. There are, nevertheless, many useful points made in passing, such as on the relationship between needs and goals, the dangers of rigidity that may accompany behavioral objectives, and the difficulties that ensue if procedures are incorporated into the statements of objectives.

My chief criticism of the book, and it is a major one, concerns the way in which it is written. It is supposedly designed in light of "several learning strategies usually associated with programmed instruction." If this is so, I would hesitate to place it in the hands of students in whom I hope to nurture a positive, or at least open, attitude towards programmed instruction for certain phases of education. Mr. McAshan introduces us to a veritable thicket of jargon in Chapter Two and it requires infinite patience to hang on as he gradually develops our comprehension of these terms in subsequent chapters. I question the placement of the "evaluative measures" at the beginning of each chapter, and particularly the format for those heading Chapter One, which begin thus: "Quality education refers to the effectiveness of any educational program in meeting its own

....."

If this was designed to convince me that I needed to read the chapter, there was no problem! In any case, on the next page I found the sentence with the three words I should learn: "Quality education refers to the effectiveness of any educational program in meeting its own specifically defined objectives."

Having worked my way through the book, I am not convinced that I really need to clutter my mind with terms such as "specific non-instructional objectives" and "minimum level behavioral objectives" in order to understand and, hopefully, remember the points the author is making. These may be useful to the researcher and curriculum specialist, but I fear it is the kind of thing that would defeat my purpose in working with teachers in training or with experienced teachers in workshop situations. I do not mean that what Mr. McAshan is saying is not worthwhile; I just wish he could have said it in a simpler and more graceful manner. Perhaps it is egoism or inappropriate self-confidence, but I feel I could accomplish in lectures and discussions the same objective, but without the elaborate terminology. However, I must admit that my ideas, and certainly my repertoire of examples, have been enriched by having worked my way, in spite of irritation, through this book.

Gerald McKay
McGill University

William Oliver Martin.
REALISM IN EDUCATION.
New York: Harper and Row.
1969.
198 pp. \$2.95.

This is an outstanding book and is perhaps the only work of its kind which uses an analytic, as well as what the author calls a

phenomenological approach, to apply the classical realist principles of Aristotelian-Thomistic philosophy to most of the crucial problems of modern education including curriculum and classroom practice.

Martin's analytic ability to make necessary distinctions, as well as his ability to move with ease from the level of general principle to practical, existential consequences and effects, makes his work a valuable one for all educators, regardless of their speciality. There are a few sections where the non-philosopher might have some difficulty, but these are counterbalanced by many areas where the author writes directly to controversial but relevant educational issues such as activity method, creativity, the rights of the student, doing one's own thing, guidance, the role of the university and the organization and delimitation of various subjects, disciplines and university faculties.

The author's thesis is organized around the teaching-learning relationship and divided according to Aristotle's four causes. In the first chapter where the teaching-learning relationship is analyzed, the author concludes by a factual analysis that this relationship is *triadic, asymmetrical and transitive*. The formula can be verbalized as: a *teacher* teaches some kind of *knowledge* to a *student* by some *means* for some *end* or *purpose*.

Crucial to the author's position is the notion of the truth-value of knowledge. An exaggerated child-centered view of education, or any subjective-relative view of "truth" imposed upon reality reduces teaching and learning to a diadic relation. In this event, knowledge would have to be reinterpreted in terms of use-value, as a social and functional term oriented, as a means of adjustment. Teaching becomes manipulation of the student, while knowledge becomes an ideology with an imposed rather than a discovered order. The ideological invention of "knowledge," resulting as it does in antiteaching and antilearning, occurs less in mathe-

matics and the physical sciences than in the social sciences.

Another major position the author defends is philosophy's essential role in a liberal education. Some knowledge of basic philosophical perspectives enables the teacher to teach his specialty on a *knowing why* basis, as in the new mathematics, rather than on merely a technical or elementary *knowing that* level. Then too, without the benefit of philosophy, teachers can do serious damage by subjecting their students to a mixture of "half truths, distorted truths, truths, prejudices and personal ideology" (p. 56).

At one point Martin exposes the genetic fallacy of those in the social sciences who determine the truth or falsity of a proposition by its historical, social or psychological origin. In another section he grounds even aesthetics in the ontological, declaring that aesthetics vanishes when it is reduced to the subjective. He is making the general point that either objective truth is the basis of education and morality or else all educational and social processes are arbitrary and anarchical, leaving personal preference to hold sway as the only real basis for non-technical matters. In fact, even the delimitation of the technical and scientific necessitates a dependance on some objective starting point.

This book is vast and exceptionally thorough in its scope. Even a glimpse of what is contained will impress the reader with the author's logical ability and breadth, which uses examples from various religions, the social sciences, and draws upon thinkers as varied as Marx, Dewey and Freud. Any intelligent teacher or guidance counsellor, regardless of his philosophy of education, can only benefit by an increased understanding resulting from exposure to the clarity and scope of this work.

William L. Ryan
McGill University

Reviews

Glenys G. Unruh and William M. Alexander.
INNOVATIONS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.
New York: Holt, Reinhart and Winston, 1970.
\$5.45.

Innovations in Secondary Education is not intended to present material that would be new to the expert. It is a summary, a guide to further studies for the novice or the educator too long away from his reading. With these limited objectives, the book is fairly successful. It enjoys the further advantage of being simply written.

The first chapter provides a disturbing introduction. An attempt is made to show the power of innovation by sketching significant changes in society that affect education. This important goal is not achieved. Superficial single paragraphs laced with authoritative quotations out of context arouse suspicion that the promise of the preface and table of contents will not be fulfilled.

Later chapters concerned with more precise and static topics are well handled. Classifying individuals is discouraged and various ways of teaching them effectively are suggested, although it might be pointed out that these same methods would have merit even where the individual is largely ignored. Cost-benefit studies would have been a useful addition, but organization and staffing innovations are ably summarized. The bibliographies are well selected. Materials and media suffer principally because the impact of forces outside the school is ignored. Building design is considered from the perspective of ideal education with a single paragraph concerned with costs. The authors' view of educational economics is demonstrated by a chapter full of fund raising schemes that largely obscure the conceptual frameworks for educational change. One hopes

that few topics in education will be dismissed so abruptly as these innovations, but the authors mention most of the areas that deserve attention.

Douglas Ray
University of Western Ontario

Grant Venn.
MAN, EDUCATION AND MANPOWER.
Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administration, 1970. 281 pp. \$6.00.
and
Emmanuel Mesthene.
TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE: ITS IMPACT ON MAN AND SOCIETY.
Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1970.
127 pp. \$5.75.

The author of *Man, Education and Manpower* is now the Director of the National Academy of School Executives for the AASA. Prior to his present appointment, Grant Venn spent many years in prominent positions in Technical and Vocational education in the United States. He is well qualified to take a penetrating look into the problems besetting society today as they relate to our educational systems.

Venn discusses these problems in the context of a technological society in which numerous technician positions are not filled, yet many people remain unemployed. He censures the educational enterprise as doing a poor job of preparing the youth of today for work in the modern world.

He discusses the history of education and manpower, proposing that the solution to manpower problems does not lie in a revamped program for those who have already proven unsuccessful in a college-oriented educational system. Rather, he advocates a complete overhaul of the system to provide programs where the

Reviews

Glenys G. Unruh and William M. Alexander.
INNOVATIONS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.
New York: Holt, Reinhart and Winston, 1970.
\$5.45.

Innovations in Secondary Education is not intended to present material that would be new to the expert. It is a summary, a guide to further studies for the novice or the educator too long away from his reading. With these limited objectives, the book is fairly successful. It enjoys the further advantage of being simply written.

The first chapter provides a disturbing introduction. An attempt is made to show the power of innovation by sketching significant changes in society that affect education. This important goal is not achieved. Superficial single paragraphs laced with authoritative quotations out of context arouse suspicion that the promise of the preface and table of contents will not be fulfilled.

Later chapters concerned with more precise and static topics are well handled. Classifying individuals is discouraged and various ways of teaching them effectively are suggested, although it might be pointed out that these same methods would have merit even where the individual is largely ignored. Cost-benefit studies would have been a useful addition, but organization and staffing innovations are ably summarized. The bibliographies are well selected. Materials and media suffer principally because the impact of forces outside the school is ignored. Building design is considered from the perspective of ideal education with a single paragraph concerned with costs. The authors' view of educational economics is demonstrated by a chapter full of fund raising schemes that largely obscure the conceptual frameworks for educational change. One hopes

that few topics in education will be dismissed so abruptly as these innovations, but the authors mention most of the areas that deserve attention.

Douglas Ray
University of Western Ontario

Grant Venn.
MAN, EDUCATION AND MANPOWER.
Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administration, 1970. 281 pp. \$6.00.
and
Emmanuel Mesthene.
TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE: ITS IMPACT ON MAN AND SOCIETY.
Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1970.
127 pp. \$5.75.

The author of *Man, Education and Manpower* is now the Director of the National Academy of School Executives for the AASA. Prior to his present appointment, Grant Venn spent many years in prominent positions in Technical and Vocational education in the United States. He is well qualified to take a penetrating look into the problems besetting society today as they relate to our educational systems.

Venn discusses these problems in the context of a technological society in which numerous technician positions are not filled, yet many people remain unemployed. He censures the educational enterprise as doing a poor job of preparing the youth of today for work in the modern world.

He discusses the history of education and manpower, proposing that the solution to manpower problems does not lie in a revamped program for those who have already proven unsuccessful in a college-oriented educational system. Rather, he advocates a complete overhaul of the system to provide programs where the

focus is on preparing persons for employment at whatever level is to be most appropriate and worthy of them and for society. Venn does not stop at merely calling down the existing systems, he goes on to list specific requirements for year-round and for continuing education to help satisfy the present and future demands of industry and society.

For those Technical-Vocational teachers who are prompted by their consciences to teach something relevant to young people who will spend the second half of their lives in the 21st century, Emmanuel Mesthene's book *Technological Change*, should provide some direction.

Defining technology as the "...organization of knowledge for the achievement of practical purposes," the author focuses on social change, values, and economic and political organizations by which to examine the interplay between man — society — technology. Dr. Mesthene, who is director of the Harvard University Program on Technology and Society, takes a middle road on the impact of technology. He believes that technology gives us more choices, like added dishes on the menu, thus providing tensions between the established value system and emerging behaviour patterns.

F. Jack Young
McGill University

David J. Fox.
**THE RESEARCH PROCESS
IN EDUCATION.**
New York: Holt, Reinhart
and Winston, 1969.
758 pp. \$11.00.

The book evokes mixed reactions. It manages to be quite good and quite bad at the same time.

Fox establishes three aims for the book, namely to help teach the evaluation and use of research, as well as the elements of how to do

it. He does a good job on the last point, a poor one on the first two. The problem is caused by the format of the book. Fox describes in detail and refers to two major studies throughout the book. As he acknowledges in Part IV, he risked the loss of contact with the research literature, and therefore does not expose the reader to the wide range of possibilities he is likely to encounter. The range of research activities a student (or even a faculty member just beginning to take an interest in research) is likely to encounter is probably narrower, and Fox treats this situation well.

Some of the strong points of this book are: Chapters 1 to 4, which are an excellent primer on "how to do it;" his treatment of topics such as inferential statistics, "Type II" errors, and even significance (which he uses in Chapter 1 before defining it in Chapter 2), all of which are well explained at a conceptual level; the potential for the use of computers; handling data; and fitting models to problems. The description of analysis of variance is lucid, but avoids the important question of interaction.

At the end of Chapter 15, Fox suggests reclassifying Campbell and Stanley's "Quasi-Experimental" designs as "Comparative Surveys." This is a good idea. He repeatedly stresses a crucial question in educational research, namely ethics. The book is valuable reading from this point of view alone.

Unfortunately, criticisms are due. Fox is quite out of date in his assessment of reliability: the Kuder-Richardson conceptualizations are by no means the "ultimate extension of split-half or odd-even thinking" (p. 360). The book deals only with simple designs and is not explicit about bases for discriminating satisfactory versus unsatisfactory designs.

Chapter 13 is poorly titled "Levels of Research;" it is the least readable in the book and hardly qualifies as a separate subject. It turned out to be a discussion of

focus is on preparing persons for employment at whatever level is to be most appropriate and worthy of them and for society. Venn does not stop at merely calling down the existing systems, he goes on to list specific requirements for year-round and for continuing education to help satisfy the present and future demands of industry and society.

For those Technical-Vocational teachers who are prompted by their consciences to teach something relevant to young people who will spend the second half of their lives in the 21st century, Emmanuel Mesthene's book *Technological Change*, should provide some direction.

Defining technology as the "...organization of knowledge for the achievement of practical purposes," the author focuses on social change, values, and economic and political organizations by which to examine the interplay between man — society — technology. Dr. Mesthene, who is director of the Harvard University Program on Technology and Society, takes a middle road on the impact of technology. He believes that technology gives us more choices, like added dishes on the menu, thus providing tensions between the established value system and emerging behaviour patterns.

F. Jack Young
McGill University

David J. Fox.
**THE RESEARCH PROCESS
IN EDUCATION.**
New York: Holt, Reinhart
and Winston, 1969.
758 pp. \$11.00.

The book evokes mixed reactions. It manages to be quite good and quite bad at the same time.

Fox establishes three aims for the book, namely to help teach the evaluation and use of research, as well as the elements of how to do

it. He does a good job on the last point, a poor one on the first two. The problem is caused by the format of the book. Fox describes in detail and refers to two major studies throughout the book. As he acknowledges in Part IV, he risked the loss of contact with the research literature, and therefore does not expose the reader to the wide range of possibilities he is likely to encounter. The range of research activities a student (or even a faculty member just beginning to take an interest in research) is likely to encounter is probably narrower, and Fox treats this situation well.

Some of the strong points of this book are: Chapters 1 to 4, which are an excellent primer on "how to do it;" his treatment of topics such as inferential statistics, "Type II" errors, and even significance (which he uses in Chapter 1 before defining it in Chapter 2), all of which are well explained at a conceptual level; the potential for the use of computers; handling data; and fitting models to problems. The description of analysis of variance is lucid, but avoids the important question of interaction.

At the end of Chapter 15, Fox suggests reclassifying Campbell and Stanley's "Quasi-Experimental" designs as "Comparative Surveys." This is a good idea. He repeatedly stresses a crucial question in educational research, namely ethics. The book is valuable reading from this point of view alone.

Unfortunately, criticisms are due. Fox is quite out of date in his assessment of reliability: the Kuder-Richardson conceptualizations are by no means the "ultimate extension of split-half or odd-even thinking" (p. 360). The book deals only with simple designs and is not explicit about bases for discriminating satisfactory versus unsatisfactory designs.

Chapter 13 is poorly titled "Levels of Research;" it is the least readable in the book and hardly qualifies as a separate subject. It turned out to be a discussion of

types of data with respect to the extent to which they can be accepted as they are or have to be interpreted as reflecting some degree of non-conscious process. In Chapter 16, the definition of *intervening variable* is unsatisfactory. It is confused with *covariate*. Fox is critical of Campbell and Stanley for using a label that makes "Comparative Surveys" sound like experiments. In the above context, he fails his own test of precision of language.

The final result is a beginner's book that I would not assign to beginners without some mimeographed correction sheets. It claims not to require statistical knowledge, but understanding the concept of fitting models to data is aided by knowing some statistical models, perhaps up to the elements of analysis of variance. It does contain a good collection of non-mathematical analogies, which a teacher could use.

The best use to be made of this book is probably to order a copy for the library, assign Chapters 1 to 4 as supplementary reading in an elementary research methods course, and use some of its examples elsewhere. Also, be reminded of the ethical considerations in doing educational research.

Bruce M. Shore
McGill University

Kathleen M. Snow &
Philomena Hauck.
**CANADIAN MATERIALS
FOR SCHOOLS.**
Toronto: McClelland and
Stewart Limited, 1970.
200 pp. \$5.00.

Some months ago a group of well meaning students in Ontario proposed that every university student in Canada pay a five dollar levy in order to save McClelland and Stewart from what seemed like still another American takeover of a Canadian publishing house.

Alas, the proposal miscarried. Allow me to present another plan.

There are roughly the same number of public school classrooms in this country as there are university students. If school systems were to place one copy of *Canadian Materials for Schools* in each classroom, Jack McClelland could breathe a small sigh of relief and give his full attention to the Committee for an Independent Canada!

The authors of *Canadian Materials* have taken up the long overdue, though clearly very difficult, task of providing school people with a compendium of "Made-in-Canada" materials for elementary and secondary schools. My opening gambit will have suggested that I'm less than satisfied with the efforts of Snow and Hauck, and yet while I'm about to quarrel with their selections and with the conventional notions they too readily dispense, I can't help but encourage teachers and school administrators to buy it. After all, five years ago the book would have been called "Materials for Canadian Schools" and would have had 75% American content.

Few of us were surprised when the National History Project discovered that Canadian students and their teachers were three times more likely to have access to American periodicals and magazines than to Canadian ones, and this not only in their homes but also in school libraries. The data on other types of written or visual material which come from *What Culture? What Heritage?* are almost as depressing, and it may well be that it is from such a perception of the problem of the Canadian student and the student of Canada that Snow and Hauck undertook their work.

Canadian Materials for Schools surveys Canadian resources — other than school texts — which can have a place in the educational process. The book is suspect not so much because there are too few or too many materials, or because no effort has been made to investigate

types of data with respect to the extent to which they can be accepted as they are or have to be interpreted as reflecting some degree of non-conscious process. In Chapter 16, the definition of *intervening variable* is unsatisfactory. It is confused with *covariate*. Fox is critical of Campbell and Stanley for using a label that makes "Comparative Surveys" sound like experiments. In the above context, he fails his own test of precision of language.

The final result is a beginner's book that I would not assign to beginners without some mimeographed correction sheets. It claims not to require statistical knowledge, but understanding the concept of fitting models to data is aided by knowing some statistical models, perhaps up to the elements of analysis of variance. It does contain a good collection of non-mathematical analogies, which a teacher could use.

The best use to be made of this book is probably to order a copy for the library, assign Chapters 1 to 4 as supplementary reading in an elementary research methods course, and use some of its examples elsewhere. Also, be reminded of the ethical considerations in doing educational research.

Bruce M. Shore
McGill University

Kathleen M. Snow &
Philomena Hauck.
**CANADIAN MATERIALS
FOR SCHOOLS.**
Toronto: McClelland and
Stewart Limited, 1970.
200 pp. \$5.00.

Some months ago a group of well meaning students in Ontario proposed that every university student in Canada pay a five dollar levy in order to save McClelland and Stewart from what seemed like still another American takeover of a Canadian publishing house.

Alas, the proposal miscarried. Allow me to present another plan.

There are roughly the same number of public school classrooms in this country as there are university students. If school systems were to place one copy of *Canadian Materials for Schools* in each classroom, Jack McClelland could breathe a small sigh of relief and give his full attention to the Committee for an Independent Canada!

The authors of *Canadian Materials* have taken up the long overdue, though clearly very difficult, task of providing school people with a compendium of "Made-in-Canada" materials for elementary and secondary schools. My opening gambit will have suggested that I'm less than satisfied with the efforts of Snow and Hauck, and yet while I'm about to quarrel with their selections and with the conventional notions they too readily dispense, I can't help but encourage teachers and school administrators to buy it. After all, five years ago the book would have been called "Materials for Canadian Schools" and would have had 75% American content.

Few of us were surprised when the National History Project discovered that Canadian students and their teachers were three times more likely to have access to American periodicals and magazines than to Canadian ones, and this not only in their homes but also in school libraries. The data on other types of written or visual material which come from *What Culture? What Heritage?* are almost as depressing, and it may well be that it is from such a perception of the problem of the Canadian student and the student of Canada that Snow and Hauck undertook their work.

Canadian Materials for Schools surveys Canadian resources — other than school texts — which can have a place in the educational process. The book is suspect not so much because there are too few or too many materials, or because no effort has been made to investigate

what is available in the French language, but because the criteria for the authors' selections are unclear and only vaguely connected to a flimsy commitment to Brunerian learning theory. After initial obeisance has been paid to "discovery methodology" and the "open classroom," Snow and Hauck retreat from conventional wisdoms to homilies of the sort, "Children must be kind to the little living things," and "Having different students read the captions aloud also encourages more active viewing." The "revolution" which we're assured is currently going on in Canadian education will hardly be sustained by such incantations.

In 200 pages, readers are provided with a generally essentialist array of English language newspapers and journals, government publications, films, radio and t.v. services, recordings, kits and the like. There are a number of unfortunate omissions among the evaluations and within the lists of materials which follow each chapter. While the *Western Canadian Skier* and *Canadian Wings* and *Air Cushion Vehicle Review* are included, neither the scholarly *Journal of Canadian Studies*, nor the very useful *Canadian Journal of History and Social Science* seems to have been considered. It may be carping to challenge the notion that "Doug Wright's family cartoon in black and red is familiar and amusing," but when Nipper and friends are included while the likes of McPherson and Aislin are not, one must respond in horror. The N.F.B. has produced a number of outstanding films on the history and culture of Canada's native peoples. Yet only one

such film, and that of dubious quality, makes the Snow-Hauck list, while commercially produced travelogues of the "Jasper Holiday" ilk are given prominence.

It may be that the authors felt it unwise to anticipate Senator Davey's report and so chose to provide only the impressive list of now defunct Western newspapers and the judgement that the "Globe and Mail" alone can be regarded as a national newspaper. I couldn't help but wonder too whether less conventional journals like *The Mysterious East* and *Last Post* Copp Clark's "Problems" and "Issues" series in Canadian history, as well as the important Coles "Canadiana Collection," mightn't have found a place in *Canadian Materials*.

There is heavy irony in the tribute paid in the book to the commitment of Ryerson and Gage to the publication of Canadian writing. (Perhaps a loose leaf version of *Canadian Materials* would allow us to delete the "losers" in the struggle to maintain a national publishing industry!) Given our national unwillingness to challenge the "realities of the market place," government subsidies to Canadian publishing may be some time in coming. We may have to rely on educators and a buying public whose feelings for Canada are as strong as those of Kathleen Snow and Philomena Hauck. For labour of love *Canadian Materials for Schools* likely was; that it was laboured shouldn't preclude our bringing it to the attention of all those engaged in studying and teaching in or about Canada.

Morton Bain
McGill University

CONTRIBUTORS

Pierre Berton is one of Canada's most widely respected journalists and television hosts. He is also author of some seventeen books, including works of social commentary and history such as *The Comfortable Pew* and *The National Dream*.

Jane Catterson wrote her paper for the *McGill Journal* as Director of the Reading Clinic in the Faculty of Education, University of Calgary. This Fall, Dr. Catterson will be at the University of British Columbia.

Geraldine Channon is Executive Assistant in the Canadian Teachers' Federation. Her paper is adapted from one presented to the AERA Annual Meeting in New York, February, 1971. A full report of the study on which this material is based is being published by C.T.F. as *Innovations in Teacher Education in Canada*.

E. George Cochrane is Curriculum Coordinator, Course of Studies, Protestant School Board of Greater Montreal.

P. M. George, Ph.D., is Associate Professor of Sociology at the University of Western Ontario. He was previously a member of the Department of Sociology at the University of Alberta.

Margaret Gillett is Professor of Education at McGill and Editor, *McGill Journal of Education*. Dr. Gillett is author of many papers in professional journals and of books such as *A History of Education: Thought and Practice* and *The Laurel and the Poppy*.

Joan Glen, M.A. (Cantab.), M.A. (McGill), has done research on education and economic development in the regions of Canada. She is a sessional lecturer in Geography at McGill.

F. Henry Johnson is Professor of Education and Director, Elementary Division, Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia. Dr. Johnson's many publications include *A Brief History of Canadian Education*.

R. Selby Smith, formerly Dean of the Faculty of Education and Foundation Professor of Education, Monash University, Australia, is now Principal of the new College of Advanced Education in Tasmania.

Robert M. Stamp is Associate Professor in the Department of Educational Foundations, University of Calgary. Professor Stamp is joint editor of *Canadian Education: A History* (reviewed in the *McGill Journal*, Spring 1971).

Jean Vachon is professor of tests and measurements in the School of Education at the Université de Montréal. Dr. Vachon has published in both American and Canadian journals and has recently been named director of the test collection by Lidec, Inc., publishers.

