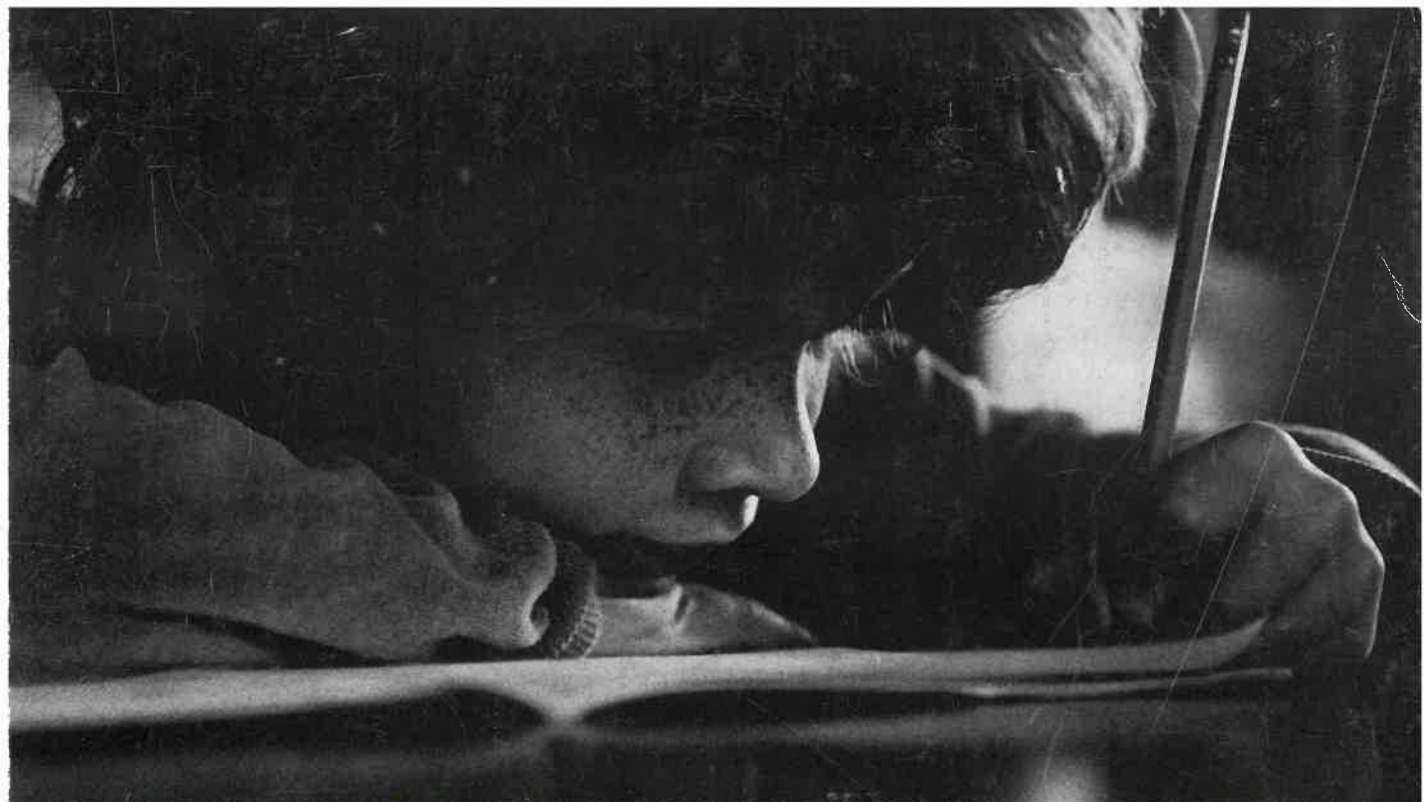




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Annual Report 1981-1982

EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY

Present Practices and Ways of Renewal



Conseil supérieur
de l'éducation
Québec

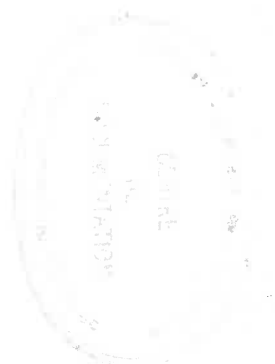
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EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY

Present Practices and Ways of Renewal

Report 1981-1982



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EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY

Present Practices and Ways of Renewal

Report 1981-1982

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Québec



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Québec, November 1982

The Honourable Claude Vaillancourt
The Speaker of the National Assembly
Government of Québec

Mr. Speaker:

I have the honour to present to you the Report 1981-1982 of the Superior Council of Education. In conformity with Article 9 of the Superior Council of Education Act, this report gives an account of the Council's activities and deals with the state and needs of education in Québec.

Yours sincerely,

Camille Laurin
Ministre de l'Éducation



Sainte-Foy, November 1982

The Honourable Camille Laurin
Ministre de l'Éducation
Government of Québec
1035, de la Chevrotière
Québec (Québec)
G1R 5A5

Sir:

In conformity with Article 9 of the Superior Council of Education Act, I have the honour to present to you the Report concerning the activities of the Council and the state and needs of education in Québec.

Please permit me to draw your attention to the fact that in 1981-1982 the Council's report covers a single topic, that of the Educational Activity. In its studies the Council has solicited and obtained the collaboration of numerous organizations and persons from all ranks of society.

The members of the Council and of its constituent bodies trust that you will find their observations and recommendations useful.

Yours sincerely,

Claude Benjamin
Chairman

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INTRODUCTION

In its last Report¹, the Conseil discussed the social function of educational institution whose specific roles are to educate and to instruct. In that context, the teaching institution is called upon to develop the individual and to prepare the citizen; it transmits a cultural heritage while attempting to change society; it focusses on groups as well as on individuals; it involves itself in the reduction of inequalities without neglecting the training of élites. It encourages the development of local educational projects within the framework of the national project.

In the conclusion to that Report the Conseil announced its intention of continuing its work on another topic, that of the practice of teaching, by an examination of what goes on in the classroom between teacher and pupils. This consideration of teaching activity is the basis for the Conseil's Annual Report for 1981-1982.

More than ten years after carrying out a similar study of the aims of education², the Conseil proposes to concentrate its attention on the practice of teaching. *The present study is intended to identify that which determines, or that which limits, present practices and which contributes to their orientation or improvement.*

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1. Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, Annual Report 1980-1981, Vol.II, The Social Function of Educational Institutions.
 2. Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, Annual Report 1969-1970, Educational Activity.

The Conseil lays no claim to presenting an exhaustive description of the last ten years' teaching activity throughout the school system. Nor has it any intention of measuring the impact of Educational Activity 1969-1970 on daily activities at every level and in every sector of teaching.

The Conseil has set itself the task of identifying the main characteristics of teaching activity and of defining those factors which tend to stimulate current practice by means of those methods which have served, up to now, in its observation of Québec affairs. The Conseil's deliberations are based, first of all, on the testimony of many witnesses, on briefs submitted by many persons and groups involved in educational institutions, and on the results of discussions with people on the spot. To these concrete observations must be added the analysis of data from the reports and publications of the analysis workers, the statistics of the Ministère de l'Éducation, the laws and regulations, collective agreements, courses of study and régimes pédagogiques.

The approach to teaching activity is twofold, based on these data and on experiences which were often quite rewarding. We shall, first of all, examine briefly each of the levels and sectors of the school system: elementary, secondary, college, adult education and the university. In this way an attempt will be made to determine the actual state of teaching, that is, its strong and weak points, to form a general impression and to identify those elements peculiar to each level and sector of instruction.

The second step is an analysis of the various elements which influence teaching in each of the sectors: implicit teaching and the problems of pupils and students; the main currents of educational thought; the essential attitudes of teachers as teaching practitioners; the search for efficient teaching, the social side of teaching. This approach permits deeper study of those factors without which our understanding of the teaching act would be incomplete.

Observation of teaching activities at the elementary, secondary, collegial, adult education and university levels makes possible, first of all, identification of the principle characteristics of each teaching act; what makes it different from, and yet the same as, any other. At no matter what level, it is then possible to study each practice more thoroughly from a variety of angles:

- observation shows that current pedagogic practice is not neutral; implicitly, or explicitly, teachers should be aware of the significance of their choices;
- reference to teaching trends helps one to be clear and critical and to grasp the reasons for, and the consequences of, the options selected;
- explicit choices, clarified by examples, must be thoroughly studied, in order to understand changes in the student-teacher relationship;

- in search of efficiency, aware of his, or her, own attitudes and those of the students, the educator works with his, or her, colleagues to set up a teaching situation which will enable the students to reach their potential;
- finally, education always comes up against those social problems which influence teaching. Here may be included the harmful effects on young people of socio-economic inequality, violence in society and the delinquency which follows, the precarious situation faced by many immigrants, etc.

Following its examination of current practices, the Conseil invites today's educators, teachers, educational consultants, administrators, principals, parents, as well as students in the upper years of secondary studies and beyond, to an in-depth study of what the future holds for teaching.

PART ONE

DIVERSITY IN CURRENT PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

CHAPTER 1 TEACHING IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

At the first level of a school system which, over the last twenty years, has undergone far-reaching changes, the elementary school projects an image of relative stability. This relative stability of the institution and its close relationship with the community have a positive influence on teaching. In effect the school continues to offer training in the basic skills: reading, writing and arithmetic. It has already begun to diversify its offerings, but not to any great extent¹. The first chapter examines the significant practices which make up «traditional» elementary teaching, as well as those which open new ground and bring about change. Analysis of these activities permits the identification of those elements which influence elementary school teaching, thus providing an insight into current problems.

1. Teaching which is Generally Traditional

Priority of Group Instruction

Generally speaking, elementary school teachers² follow a pattern

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1. This is discussed in the Conseil's opinion given to the Ministre de l'Éducation, «Le sort des matières dites secondaires au primaire», June 1982.
 2. See Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'Éducation, Service de la recherche, «Les enseignants et les enseignantes du Québec», vol. 2,4, and 5, 1980-1981.

of traditional teaching which some would call «mechanistic»³. We shall examine this method, in order to understand what it involves, and to assess its merits. Its first characteristic is a marked predilection for group instruction. Generally speaking, all the pupils are exposed to the same part of the course and the same content at the same time. The usual procedure is as follows: explanation of the subject matter, questions from the pupils, then practical exercises followed by assignments and homework.

Ideally, many teachers would respect the principle of each child's learning at its own speed, as long as they are not required to modify their normal approach, group instruction. This is what has led certain observers⁴ to comment there is a willingness to adapt the course, but not the method. They adjust themselves, as much as possible, to the course of studies; they sometimes simplify some sections, they cover what is required in the suggested sequence. But, they do not generally adapt themselves to the rate and way of learning of each child. The rate at which material is covered seems, rather, to be adjusted to the average rate of learning of an average pupil.

When some children fall behind the group, remedial measures are taken, after the fact, in order to avoid future problems. The teaching approach cannot be said to be individualized.

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3. See Roger A. Cormier et al, «La conception organique chez les enseignantes et les enseignants du Québec», in «Vie pédagogique», No 12, April 1981, pp. 28-32.
 4. Symposium of the Conseil supérieur de l'Éducation, Lévis, February 18-19, 1982. These sentences represent the opinions presented by André Paré.

The initiative in classroom activities rests mainly with the teacher. This is explained, in large part, by the fact that both parents and teachers are of the opinion that, at the elementary level, the development of autonomy should take place within a quite definite frame of reference. It is generally held that, as far as academic instruction, is concerned, teaching should be directed so as to encourage systematic and organized learning, and not spontaneous expression, as is the case in the home or on the playground. Elementary school teachers do not, thus, look for any great pupil participation in the choice of learning activities; further they do not believe the pupils capable of tackling even a well written textbook. For these teachers group instruction represents the method which, in principle, best enables all the pupils to cover the course of studies.

Traditional elementary school teaching methods are well adapted to a spirit of competition and to a sort of individualism which do little for the development of attitudes involving openness and co-operation. Competitive teaching is characterized by the overemphasis placed on «marks to be earned». In reality, even though something may be said for healthy rivalry, competitive teaching, as a system, does not encourage education which draws upon the child's own inner resources; neither is it fair to children with learning problems.

A Certain Dependence on Authority

Another characteristic of this teaching method is that it is authoritarian in type, in favour of order and discipline. It is true

that children are not bullied, or made to feel even more inferior, as was formerly the case. But he or she who upsets the class or disturbs the peace is not suffered gladly. In addition group punishments are sometimes used as a means of restoring order. The majority of the teachers claim to attach great importance, not only to discipline, but also to the use of good language; they do not advocate giving the pupils much freedom.

This characteristic of elementary school teaching leads the authors of the study of Québec teachers to conclude that they do not differ from the educators of other nations. The authors of the report conclude, with Edgar Faure, that «in most of the world's schools the relationship between teacher and pupil is still one of authority»⁵.

This relationship of authority between teacher and taught is accompanied, on the part of the educators, by a sort of dependance on methods, textbooks, courses of study and summative evaluation. However, a brief examination of these techniques leads one to believe that the traditional teaching methods of today are not completely identical with those of the past.

There is no need to recall at length the infatuation with methods. Elementary school teaching was subjected to methods from other lands and the various schools of thought formed a basis for the

5. Quoted in Les enseignantes et les enseignants du Québec, Vol 4, p. 45.

organization of school territories, schools and classes. This love affair was particularly noticeable in the case of methods of teaching reading and writing: the global method, the phonetic method, the syllabic method. The major problem with these techniques was that there was every chance that the method used in one school would be incompatible with that in use in another. The various methods became almost mutually exclusive. Even communication between the users of different methods became difficult.

Today, the elementary school teacher is less dependent on methods. Teachers have come to terms with them, and use techniques borrowed from several. It would appear that the umbilical cord has been cut.

In many cases the textbook called for a given method. Thus it contributed to its diffusion and, up to a point, made the users of the text its servants. The Elementary school teachers gradually exchanged their traditional texts for photocopies and exercise books. It remains, however, and this may be a holdover from yesterday, that today's lack of appropriate textbooks is one of the greatest sources of teacher dissatisfaction in the elementary school⁶.

As long as the course of study remained a simple outline, the teachers were dependent on methods and textbooks. Today, educators

6. See the study carried out for the Alliance des professeurs de Montréal on La satisfaction au travail des professeurs enseignant au niveau élémentaire dans les écoles publiques situées à Montréal, in the magazine «Alliance» Vol 16, special number, November, 1978.

are called upon to «select the teaching methods and other means best adapted to the needs of the pupils»⁷. *Methods should be selected in terms of pupil needs and course objectives, and not otherwise.* At the moment, teachers appear satisfied with the first courses of study that have been published. Sometimes a course of study does call for a particular approach or procedure, but it does so in relation to learning situations which are part of the child's normal experience.

The evaluation of learning provides information regarding the development of teacher-pupil relationships. Until now, evaluation has been regarded in elementary schools primarily as a means of measuring pupil performance in the basic subjects, and, conversely, an implicit evaluation of teacher efficiency. The report card has focussed the attention of educators on academic achievement. It has encouraged summative evaluation, rather than close attention to pupil progress.

Teaching which is, Nevertheless, Humanized

The advocates of change would, consider that elementary school teaching has remained fundamentally unchanged over the last twenty years. Nevertheless, there is reason to believe that it has changed in the direction of a much more human relationship between teachers and pupils. To be sure, this change appears differently

7. Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'Éducation, Direction générale du développement pédagogique, «Regulation concerning the Elementary Régime Pédagogique and Pre-School Education», April, 1981.

according to the community. But, generally speaking, in the last ten years traditional elementary school methods have broadened progressively to take into account the child and the development of its personality.

Elementary school teachers are happy to teach at that level⁸ and this attitude affects the teachers' approach to the children in a positive manner⁹. This has led to the development of much warmer human relations between adults and children within a school. Such relationships would be clearly superficial if they involved only the use of Christian names. This custom, normal at the elementary level, helps the principal and teachers to get to know all the children. Children who call their principal «Denise», or their teacher «Joan» demonstrate genuine ease and familiarity, which is not limited to recreation periods, but which facilitates communication and transforms classroom relationships.

This increasing humanization has led teachers to pay more attention to the emotional dimension of the learning process. Evidence of this tendency may be seen in the resistance of elementary teachers to learning by objectives, which appears to them to be too exclusively centred on the cognitive domain. This attitude of the teachers seems to contradict the general picture that we have of traditional elementary school instruction. It indicates that traditional methods have been influenced for ten years by

8. See magazine «L'Alliance». The above-mentioned inquiry revealed that «level of teaching» was the most important of twenty factors affecting teacher satisfaction.

9. See «Les enseignantes et les enseignants...» Vol. 5 pp.179-183.

a school of humanistic pedagogy commonly called the «organic concept of education»¹⁰. We shall return to this topic.

The manifest openness in the relations between adults and children at the elementary level has sometimes led to a lowering of what is required of the pupils. In the name of respect for the child they have sometimes been permitted to do no matter what, no matter how. Teachers who preferred to «start with the child» have not always had clearly defined goals. But there are no grounds for claiming that less has been learned than would have been the case with traditional methods. Rather, the elementary school approach has become more flexible, out of respect for the child and its emotions, without in any way neglecting the concepts of effort and perseverance.

2. Favourable Conditions

The Class Teacher

With all its ups and downs, elementary school teaching is carried on under generally favourable conditions. The first of these is the presence of class teachers, a form of school organization best suited to elementary teaching. Other levels of education are still searching for a suitable formula.

The presence of the class teacher ensures stability and continuity for the pupils and is a source of self confidence and personal

10. The 1969-1970 Report of the Conseil on «Educational activity» referred favourably to this trend.

awareness. Elementary school children have great need of an adult model.

The class teacher, who is in a position to get to know the children, is also able to encourage all aspects of learning as part of a continuous process. Of all those involved, the class teacher is in the best position to combine the cognitive development and general growth of each child. He or she is best able to understand each child's problems in learning and to take the required remedial action. He or she is, finally, the one best placed to follow a child's progress during a school year.

Specialists are available to assist the class teacher¹¹ in some subjects. There must be close relationship between their activities and the work of the class teacher in order not to undermine the latter's relationship with the children and to ensure continuity in the learning process. Lack of coordination between specialist and class teacher does not serve the cause of education. On the other hand, close collaboration can only increase teaching efficiency.

Pedagogic Animation is not the Same Everywhere

The activities of the class teachers and of the school as a whole are conditioned by pedagogic animation (animation pédagogique). It is ordinarily the result of the action of teachers working together. They make many educational decisions jointly. In fact,

11. These are, generally, found in such subjects as Physical Education, Second Language, Music, Plastic Arts, and sometimes in Religious Instruction and Moral Instruction.

the elementary level has been relatively free of the complaints about principals or of power struggles between teachers and administrators.

The principal of an elementary school should play a key role in pedagogic animation, The principal's leadership and energy should be expended in the development of a real school team, the co-ordination of teaching, the initiation of new teachers. The principal alone is in a position to ensure educational continuity from year to year and from class to class.

Not all principals perform this duty in the same way. Some see administration as more important than teaching. Others become enmeshed in details of school organization: transportation, book buying, the use of space, the timetable, the control of absences, discipline, public relations, etc. Their presence in the school becomes almost parapedagogic, in that they devote themselves, without counting the cost in time and energy, to develop conditions which will make the teachers' task easier.

A small number of principals devote the greater part of their time to teaching. They see themselves, first of all, as teachers. They do not hesitate to go into classrooms, not to check on the teachers, but to become involved in teaching and to know what and how the children are learning.

Pedagogic animation has its high points, the pedagogic days. Generally speaking, in elementary schools these days laid down in the

Régime pédagogique, are used as intended¹². These days, which occur at regular intervals during the year, are intended to be used for planning, evaluation, organization and similar activities. They are also used for in-service training of teachers as well as for meetings with parents.

These intense periods of pedagogic animation stimulate the life of the school and are carried further in various ways by the work of subject consultants. There is some criticism of the sort of animation carried on by such consultants and of their often bureaucratic relationship with teachers, particularly in the larger school commissions. There is no place for long distance animation from the regional administrative offices; this would tend to reduce the teachers's role to that of a mere puppet. Educational support of any type must be centred on the school and the classroom. Subject consultants should continue to play their role of «expert», but always on condition that their activities aim at providing real assistance to teachers in their daily work.

In addition to the bureaucratic tendencies which sometimes characterize the activities of school principals and their staffs, some clauses of the collective agreements¹³ and their application affect the climate of the school and complicate personnel relations. Calculation of the time spent on the job, down to the last minute, is incompatible with the requirements of real teaching. Happily, there

12. See the Opinion of the Conseil for the Ministre de l'éducation, «Pedagogic Days at the Elementary Level», December, 1981.

13. See the opinion of the Conseil to the Ministre de l'éducation, «On the Improvement of the Collective Agreements», 1e February, 1982.

are situations where a climate favourable to teaching exists, despite the restrictions of the collective agreements, because of a positive attitude on the part of those involved, or because of the very nature of the establishment.

Limited Parent Involvement

The extent to which parents become involved in school activities is very much a function of the level of teacher satisfaction and of the school climate, of the teachers' positive attitude towards the pupils and of the principal's leadership. However even where teachers welcome the presence of parents, their attitude does not extend as far as granting them any increased role in school affairs. Except in a few cases, where the educational project clearly involves massive parent participation, the initiative remains in the hands of the educators. The preponderant role of the educators very often puts parents in the place of spectators, rather than that of participants. Their role is mainly one of support. They busy themselves, for example with the classification and organization of the school library, with the provision of lunches, with the financing of cultural activities such as music and drama. School committees keep the parents informed by means of newsletters or information nights. But it sometimes happens that parents become deeply involved in activities nearer the centre of the stage, such as providing information regarding new courses of study or new teaching methods. The ideal of participation envisioned in the Québec School is still far away¹⁴. However, the evidence of day

14. Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'éducation, The Schools of Québec, Policy Statement and Plan of Action, Québec, 1979, Chap. 3 and 4, pp. 33-53.

by day events indicates the development of a certain reciprocity between the school and the community and of a spirit of collaboration between educators and the home. Hopefully, this tendency will become stronger, and parents will play a larger and larger role in all aspects, of school affairs.

In all of these many activities parents and educators share a basic objective: the welfare of the child; the child should be happy at school, should learn and find itself in an enriching educational, social and cultural environment. As long as the school appears to be moving in this direction, parents leave things up to their representatives on the school committee, the principal and the teachers. On the other hand, they tend to react violently as a group if administrative, financial or other measures seem to them to imperil what they see as the school's goals. Some educational projects¹⁵ have had their origin in such situations.

Apart from certain periods of difficulty, the elementary school presents a relatively untroubled picture. One could sometimes wish for greater dynamism, for more life in this traditional approach. One cannot, however, reproach its users for neglecting the goals of the school: to instruct and educate children. But, today's understanding of how children learn and should be taught, as well as our conception of man and society, call for change.

15. See Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'Éducation, Secteur de la planification, Service de la recherche, «Le projet éducatif dans quelques écoles primaires», rapports d'observation, Québec, 1980, 128 pp.

3. Educational Initiatives and Experiments

A Renewal of Traditional Methods

Despite the obvious predominance of traditional methods, teachers have unceasingly, over the last ten years, taken initiatives which contradict appearances. Local experiments of varying degrees of success, whose authors are too modest to seek publicity, are evidence of an enormous reservoir of imagination and creativity.

It is interesting, for example, to examine the themes of teachers' meetings held in Abitibi-Temiscamingue since 1973, which focus on elementary school teaching: «Creativity with Freedom», «Teaching», «School as a Place for Living», «Towards a more Coherent School Experience», «My School, I'm Part of It», «Our Children's Educational Project», «Adapting Oneself to the Child».¹⁶

It is important also to emphasize the important role played by the various subject associations, as much at the elementary as at the secondary and college levels. For a number of years these associations have contributed to the carrying on and stimulating of a dialogue on education, to the definition of new needs, and to teaching methods more and more in harmony with the requirements of learning. This has been done through meetings, colloques, publications, discussions, and by interventions at various levels.

16. The 1981 congress, open to all levels of the educational system, had as its theme «Communication in School, If we Only Tried».

One of the features of these associations is that they bring together their members at various levels of education. These latter are then able to work together, on a voluntary basis, to bring about educational changes in an informal atmosphere.

Group activities based on educational themes, such as those carried on by the associations are, in the final analysis, informative and fruitful. They permit teachers in the field to share with their peers the results of experiments, modest no doubt, but indicative of an attention to the needs of the child, to its harmonious development, to the various emotional and cognitive aspects of learning processes of unequally gifted children, etc.

The experiments are of various kinds. For example, in a given class, natural or real situations are exploited during the teaching of reading. In another school it is a case of «free flow» in «team teaching», where the class teacher works mostly with pupils with problems, while the special class teacher devotes time to both the brighter and slower ones. In another situation it may be a matter of workshops where, in addition to group instruction, there is provision for sections devoted to the learning of writing, mathematics or art. Another project involves a local policy of evaluation based on the pupils' own assessment of their work and including remarks concerning social and emotional behaviour on the report card. The problem of grouping pupils within a class in terms of their abilities has also been studied.

All these initiatives are evidence of a willingness to modify

teaching methods. None of these experiments, taken by itself, will shake the world of traditional teaching in elementary schools. But, the sum total of this experience, the results of which are easily shared at educational gatherings, leads one to believe that the concept advocated in the Conseil's Report on Educational Activity (1969-1970) has had an effect. To be sure, the «organic» model has not become the Holy Writ of all teachers. But, in their daily tasks, which bring them face to face with children and the classroom situation, elementary school teachers have gradually adjusted their methods and made them more flexible and more relevant to their pupils' experience. In this sense «Educational Activity» has led them to pay greater attention to children rather than strictly following a model or educational trend.

Changes in Teaching Methods

Some educational experiments have a much more radical effect on traditional practices. While not very numerous, they examine some important aspects of teaching and have a gradual, but profound effect on educational thought and practice. Their most beneficial effect is to put accepted practices in question. Such experiments do not all follow the same pattern.

A first group of such experiments leads to a modification of the teacher-pupil relationship. It is these that have most directly influenced traditional teaching towards a more human approach. Most of them, however, go much farther than softening the teacher-pupil relationship. In accordance with *Educational Activity* (1969-1970) the child is held to be primarily responsible for its own education.

This requires the thorough personalization of teaching and close attention on the part of the teacher, whose role becomes that of a resource person rather than that of the sole source of learning. This is where most of the experiments exert an influence on traditional methods, with its emphasis on systematic group instruction and wherein initiative remains in the hands of the teacher.

These experiments also bring about a second modification, that of the attitude of teachers towards the Course of Study and all that it implies, the Régime Pédagogique, methods textbooks and evaluation. With the exception of those methods known as «mastery» or «success»,¹⁷ almost all the experiments involving «alternatives» keep the course of studies at arm's length. This freedom is found where teachers are in a position to base their approach on a theory of learning. This relative independence does not lead to a downgrading or to the neglect of subject matter. The intention is, rather, to respect the objectives of the course of studies, while making learning relevant to the child's experience.

The third modification arises from a consideration of how children learn¹⁸. Traditional teaching methods are criticized, not so much for ignoring personality development, as for overlooking the fact that this development is brought about by teaching methods which respect the learning process. The child, thus, grows within a learning situation; he or she becomes capable of «creating while

17. See Beauchamp, René, «Une histoire à succès: la pédagogie de la réussite», in *Vie pédagogique*, No.14, October, 1981, pp. 37-41.

See also Bloom, Benjamin S., Individual Characteristics and Learning, Fernand Nathan, Paris 1979, 270 pp.

18. See Angers, Pierre, and Boychard, Colette, L'activité éducative, une théorie, une pratique, l'apprentissage de soi, Centre de développement en environnement scolaire, Saint-David, Yamaska, 1982.

learning». Until recently, elementary school teachers have been influenced by the psychological dimension of the organic concept of education, but have paid little attention to its epistemological aspect. They are not yet sufficiently aware of how children learn. It is not enough, in other words, to pay attention to the subject (the child); the interaction which develops between the subject and the object of learning must also be considered. It is important that the children undergo experience leading to the integration of knowledge.

4. Question for Study and Action

The Distribution of Subjects and the Education of the Whole Child

For the last ten years the education of the whole child has been an important topic for study. The Elementary Régime Pédagogique lays down a certain number of subjects, and allots each of them a space in the timetable. What is compulsory is not the time allotments, but the attainment of the objectives and the acquisition of content¹⁹. In fact, the aim of this régime pédagogique is to correct certain practices in the elementary schools which have overemphasized mother tongue and mathematics, to the detriment of other subjects and, thus, the real education of the whole child²⁰.

19. See Regulation concerning the Régime Pédagogique, art 42,43.

20. See the Opinion of the Conseil for the Ministre de l'éducation, Le sort des matières dites «secondaires» au primaire, June 1982.

Current elementary school practice has established an allocation of time for various subjects which does not necessarily correspond either to the intentions of the legislator, nor to the real capabilities of the children. This is not to say that the time allocated to a given subject is a guarantee in itself of efficiency or of the quality of learning. However, the elimination, on a regular basis, of certain subjects appearing on the timetable, in order to find more time for remedial teaching, is, in the final analysis, an indication of the lack of importance accorded certain «other» subjects. When History, Geography, Art and Natural Science are either neglected or omitted completely, one may rightfully wonder about the kind of education being dispensed. Such practices raise questions as to the type of man or woman and society which the future holds.

Teachers who desire to attain the objectives of education, rather than to hew to the letter of regulations and who are interested in improving their methods, have proposed some very interesting solutions to this problem. The year's work is organized in terms of subthemes selected by the pupils working in groups. The balance of the official schedule would appear to be reversed. A major proportion of the time appears to be allocated to History, Geography, Art, Natural Science and the cultural and ecological aspects of life in the region²¹. These subjects, which are, for the most

21. In a sixth year class in Sorel, the children, divided into groups studied the following themes: the geography of the region, the plants, electricity, the history of musical instruments, the animals of North America, climate.

part, neglected, provide centres of keen interest for the children. What, then, happens to French and Mathematics? Instead of taking up the greater part of the timetable, and boring the children, these two subjects are integrated into the pupils' work²². They «do» French in discussions among themselves, in writing their texts and in explaining their projects to others. They «do» mathematics by measuring distances, weighing animals, etc.

And the results of weekly evaluation, in addition to daily tests, indicate that all the children, including those with problems, meet all the objectives of the course of studies: some even exceed them.

Such a solution cannot be applied unless elementary school teachers have been properly prepared and receive appropriate support. Its greatest merit lies in its demonstration that it is possible to work efficiently to educate the whole child at the elementary level while, at the same time, respecting the courses of study and their learning objectives.

The Integration of Children «With Problems»

While it has a bearing on the education of the whole child, the integration of children with emotional and learning problems presents difficulties which go beyond the classroom activities of the teacher and pupils. The word «integration» is not limited only to

22. Angers, Pierre and Bouchard, Colette, L'activité éducative, une théorie, une pratique, «La mise en oeuvre du projet d'intégration», Centre de développement en environnement scolaire Inc., Saint-David, Yamaska, 1981, 110 p. dactylographiées.

knowledge; it has implications in terms of school organization, grouping within the school and teacher assignment.

This question will be considered from the point of view of its effects on the learning process and behaviour of pupils in the school environment. Even though it has political, administrative, and economic implications, it must be faced first of all by the teachers in a school.

In theory, elementary school teachers favour homogeneous grouping²³. But, how far can one go? A survey carried out by the C.E.C.M.²⁴, which has been interested in the question of integration for some years, indicates that teachers are not in favour of integration and have difficulty in adapting to it. Among elementary class teachers, this reticence regarding integration, coloured by apprehension, goes as far as the rejection of children with behavioural problems. The majority of teachers are reluctant to adapt their methods, designed for group instruction, for fear that all the children will fail to cover the whole course.

It would be unrealistic to minimize the importance of the changes that are required and unjust to blame the teachers alone. Integration, even when brought about gradually, is bound to disturb educa-

23. See Les enseignantes et les enseignants du Québec, Vol. 5 pp. 215-217.

24. Gingras, Gisèle, Etude exploratoire de l'intégration des enfants en difficulté d'apprentissage et d'adaptation au milieu scolaire de l'Île de Montréal, C.E.C.M., Division des ressources et du développement, Service de l'adaptation, 2nd Edition, May 1980, 54 pages, typewritten.

tors and cause them to ask questions. It would be unfair to expect them to solve a problem which is really the responsibility of society as a whole.

Experiments provide some insights regarding the question of integration, as they do concerning the education of the whole child. Ways can be found to effect changes in the attitudes of teachers and pupils and to motivate them. There is reason to believe that, if a child is placed in a position where he or she may succeed, rather than in one that accentuates past problems, there is some possibility of progress.

In some schools, teaching is, for the most, part based on what is known as the systematic method²⁵, this involves three steps: explanation of content, exercises to reinforce learning, and daily formative evaluation. All the pupils, including those with problems, follow this sequence. Brighter pupils are offered enrichment activities on their own.

Similar experiments confirm the need to apply a variety of methods if the integration of pupils with problems is to be meaningful. Experience also demonstrates that *the integration of pupils with problems is as possible with traditional methods as it is where a less conventional approach has been used.*

25. See Forget, Jacques, Programme de recherche sur l'implantation d'enseignement systématique, final report of Jacques Bizard School to the Baldwin Cartier School Commission, May 1982, 127 pages, Photocopy.

Teaching in Economically Deprived Areas

The Conseil has studied a third question of importance for elementary schools: teaching in economically deprived areas. The young people of these areas represent a sort of «endangered species» when it comes to academic progress. Many pupils fall far behind, to the extent that the lost ground is almost impossible to recuperate. The effects of this become glaringly obvious in the secondary school, particularly in the vocational sector.

«Designated» schools in economically deprived zones are usually provided with supplementary resources in the form of health services, vocational training, and, above all, additional staff. Among the many projects carried out in these schools are included attempts to develop more adequate teaching material, experiments with new methods and individualized instruction. In addition attempts are often made to reconcile the child to the school, to counteract attitudes of boredom and rejection which make real learning impossible and discourage any desire for further studies.

The experience gained by educators since the beginning of the seventies leads to the formulation of two hypotheses. First of all, instead of looking for a different approach because the children come from a economically deprived area, *there is, no doubt, more to be gained by forcing the pace of the improvement of teaching methods in all the schools.*

In the second place, *uniform measures produce poorer results in*

economically deprived areas than elsewhere. This is why, these areas must have access to a greater variety of models and methods. It is not enough to add resources. It is also necessary to do away with uniformity, and allow teachers freedom to experiment. Moreover, in some cases evaluation has shown that teacher enthusiasm is more significant than the technical quality of projects if pupils are to reap a benefit.

SUMMARY

Teaching in the elementary school has remained largely traditional. It is still based on group instruction, on the teacher as leader, and on a fairly strict structure which emphasizes order, discipline, competition and systematic learning. Remedial measures are foreseen for pupils with problems but the system is not really adapted a-priori to the child's needs.

However, despite this conventional facade, teaching methods have become more humanized over the last ten years. Thanks to the influence of such educational trends as the organic concept of education and open pedagogy, they have become more activist in calling upon the child's personal resources. They also take the emotional aspect, as well as the development of the whole child into account.

Certain conditions have encouraged these changes: recognition of the intrinsic value, in terms of stability and continuity, of the role of the class teacher; pedagogic animation by principals and consultants - though still inadequate; support provided during pedagogic days; greater participation by parents, even though they are still on the fringes of school activity.

This gradual evolution in teacher attitudes and teaching methods is evident in the many experiments that have been carried out. Initiatives taken at regional teachers' meetings, conferences or-

ganized by the subject associations, greater teamwork among teachers at the school level, attempts to make learning more child-centred, taking into account the pupil's experience, potential and problems have all been factors. These initiatives and experiments have gradually brought about changes in the pupil-teacher relationship and in the teachers' attitude towards the course of study.

Much remains to be done regarding elementary school teaching. A better integration of the subjects on the timetable must be developed. More efficient ways of integrating children with learning problems must be found. A concerted effort is required to improve education in economically deprived areas. Such reforms call for the development of greater differentiation in teaching methods.

CHAPTER 2 TEACHING SECONDARY SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS

When, nearing the end of the school year, elementary school teachers organize a visit to the big regional high school for their sixth year pupils, they tend to feel uneasy. Most of the time they prefer to visit the polyvalent when it is empty, rather than overrun by mobs of adolescents. «Otherwise the children would be overwhelmed», the teachers claim. Nonetheless, these pupils will attend the same secondary school. This deepseated protective reflex on the part of adults tells a lot concerning their perception of the high school and of the adolescents who attend it. This school and the kind of teaching found therein are the subjects of this chapter. We shall try to see what influences teaching, what it is and what it could be.

1. Teaching Based on Subject Matter

Its Principal Characteristics

In the secondary school, the teacher is a «specialist» in a given subject, which is the case with only a few elementary teachers. They are very few class teachers, and where tutors (tuteurs) are found, they are more apt to be group leaders (encadreurs)¹. Since teacher assignments are made on a subject basis teaching tends to be subject-oriented.

1. This encadrement involves behaviour rather than learning.

Instead of making up stable groups which might serve as a home room for both teachers and children, the pupils are organized according to subject. These groups multiply according to the time allotments, the availability of classrooms and pupil selection. A subject may be taught at different levels of difficulty as well. The secondary school teacher may be required to meet a very large number of pupils, depending on the subject taught². It becomes very difficult to really know each pupil and to follow his or her progress. The best that a serious teacher can do is to prepare his, or her, courses, give them, correct a certain number of assignments and give some help to pupils with problems.

This focus on subject matter, due in large part to the way in which schools are organized, is also a function of the teachers' background and training. Since the disappearance of the normal schools and the taking over of teacher training by the universities, secondary school teachers have learned to live with the requirement of being more specialized in their subject. They have acquired diplomas, have completed the first cycle of university studies, have exchanged their Teacher's Licence, or a master's degree in French (linguistics), History, Geography, etc. They are somewhat critical today of this university training which has made them

2. In some extreme cases, this can mean as many as ten groups and three hundred pupils for a single teacher. These cases are cited, among others by the A.Q.P.M.R. (Association québécoise des professeurs de morale et de religion). Some teachers of moral and religious instruction have pupils in different years.

into «specialists»³ at the expense of flexibility and the capacity to communicate with modern young people. This specialization, which is part of school organization, leads to a degree of compartmentalization which influences all school activities and sometimes even limits the usefulness of certain non-teaching professionals.

This propensity for specialization by subject leads to a type of teaching which has its special characteristics: a predominance of group instruction which consists of passing on content, a preference for homogeneous grouping and the maintenance of streaming⁴. There is a preference for teaching pupils in the general course as well as those in the long vocational program.

There is some risk that those pupils with special needs will be shortchanged by the teaching methods used by these secondary school «specialists». Their use has contributed to the adoption, by all secondary school pupils, of a fragmented approach, which does not lend itself to general education. This concentration on the subject to be taught and the accumulation of credits, has led many teachers to see their role as one of instruction, rather than of education. This tends to inculcate in the pupils a utilitarian attitude, whereby they attach importance only to those subjects

3. See Les enseignantes et les enseignants du Québec, Vol. 6, «La formation et le perfectionnement».

4. Parents also express this preference, particularly for those subjects where there is an accumulation of knowledge over several years.

which «count» and ignore those which might contribute to their personal development.

Some Variations

There is some variation in classroom techniques. For some years, efforts have been made in the larger polyvalent high schools to pay particular attention to pupils in the first cycle. «Home rooms» have been set up in order to avoid the pupils feeling like orphans, and the teachers being isolated. The same teacher meets the same group of pupils for several subjects. While all the teachers remain «specialists» one of them devotes a few periods to the role of teacher-advisor.

Such «home rooms» make possible the grouping together of those teachers who wish to consider the socio-emotional dimension of their pupils. A common effort is made to understand «Why Johnny can't learn». The teachers carry on their work as individuals, but seem gradually to change their attitude and begin to operate as a teaching team. They develop a sense of group responsibility for their pupils. Where a group of teachers is responsible for the pupils of a given «home room», they cannot avoid going outside their responsible subjects and, so, to ask themselves questions concerning teaching methods. This cannot but be an enriching experience.

In some cases, pupils, for example, of the short vocational program, grouping is carried out to the extent of setting up stable groups, each with a class teacher. This brings about some continuity in the teacher-pupil relationship and gives the pupils a sense of belonging to a group.

The results of these efforts seem to bear fruit in the larger polyvalent secondary schools. Some staff members have been known to have changed from simple teachers into educators. Whereas, previously they were above all «givers of courses» and limited themselves to instruction, these teachers now agree to participate in other activities. In these cases, the evolution in the teacher's role is brought about by the relationship established between the adult and the adolescents. The hope for change is born in the discovery of a significant educational relationship. Elsewhere, the pupils of the first cycle are grouped in schools for that cycle only. One of the basic merits of such a plan is to lessen the shock of the transition from elementary to secondary school. The educational value of such schools depends, in large part, on the quality of the relationship between pupils and teachers. In those cases where compartmentalization is maintained without any modification, the junior high school cannot but become as cold and impersonal as the larger polyvalent.

2. The Influence of Teaching by Objectives

First Signs

Teaching by objectives continues to have an important influence on secondary education. This technique came into general use about 1972-1973⁵.

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5. In a region where Operation «Teaching by Objectives» was particularly strong, 1972 is held to be the date of its first appearance. See the submission of the Commission scolaire de l'Estrie during the Conseil's hearings in Sherbrooke in March 1982.

The gradual adoption of teaching by objectives followed the period 1968-1972, during which experiments of all types were common. *Educational Activity*, (1969-1970), which strongly stressed creativity, had, perhaps, a different effect on secondary school teaching than on that of the elementary level. While in the elementary school, focussing attention on the child often led to an open pedagogy, at the secondary it led to the development of a plethora of activities designed to stimulate and maintain the pupils' interest, not all of which had any direct connection with well defined learning objectives. Classroom activities developed to the point that there was some risk of teachers and pupils losing sight of the various course objectives.

No one was very sure of what was to be taught, or to be learned, nor, above all, why it should. In such a situation, many teachers had difficulty in evaluating what had been learned and in ensuring the pupils' acquisition of essential content. Today's assessment of what went on during the seventies would suggest that the attempt to get down to the level of the pupils was carried on in the absence of any clear understanding of its educational implications.

The course outlines of the period were open to many interpretations, providing teachers with a minimum of guidance. Much time was devoted, for example, to finding a ways of applying the course outline for French as mother tongue. Those involved did their best, without any assurance that their approach satisfied the requirements of the subject, permitted a valid evaluation, or met the pupils' educational needs. In 1969-1970, *Educational Activity* brought forward a humanistic conception of education,

though secondary school teachers lacked the means required to achieve the proposed ends. This is why education at this level has, for a long time, lacked the means to attain its stated goals.

Teaching by objectives responded to the desires of teachers wishing for some order and direction in a situation, which while not completely devoid of planning, fostered quick and easy solutions, to the detriment of learning. This willingness to emphasize educational goals, rather than methodology and gadgets, led to a stressing of intellectual ability. While lip service was paid to the emotional aspect of learning, in practice, the requirements of measurement and evaluation limited pedagogy to «intellectual performance». The first curriculum guide produced by the ministère de l'Éducation on teaching objectives in the intellectual domain had no successor in the emotional field⁶.

The teachers' initial efforts involved the formulation of cognitive objectives in response to the need for clarification and evaluation, particularly as the latter applied to the certification of secondary studies. They appeared to become infatuated with objectives. Each one tried to define objectives in the «orthodox» manner, in accordance with the rules for the definition of educational objectives⁷. Secondary school teaching reaped two

6. Gouvernement du Québec, ministère de l'Éducation, Direction générale des programmes et examens, Curriculum Guide no 1 The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives in the Intellectual Domain, 1964.

7. Reference was often made, as if to the Bible, to Mager, R.F. Comment définir des objectifs pédagogiques, Paris, Gauthier Villars, 1972.

benefits from this desire for clear definition of objectives. The precise definition of objectives clarified educational goals and more attention was paid to how children learn.

Interrelated Steps in Educational Planning

These teachers who devoted themselves to the *determination of objectives* filled in a void, during the period when the course outlines were limited to generalities such that it was difficult to determine what was expected of either teachers or pupils. As a matter of fact, the teachers were obliged to try to define course objectives in terms of educational goals which were not, themselves, clearly delineated⁸.

Today, the new courses of study lay down the objectives of each subject in a precise fashion. This is why the teachers experience fewer problems in defining their educational goals. From now on they must respect the limits of the new courses. Those who wish to adjust their teaching to their classes may vary the types of objectives and the taxonomic levels⁹ which indicate the

8. Operation «Definition of the Objectives of Education» was carried on from 1972 to 1979. Chapter 2 of The Schools of Québec, Policy Statement and Plan of Action, 1979, is the first official statement of «the aims and objectives of formal education» to which courses of study and subject content may be related.

9. Some idea of its complexity may be gained from the fact that the two taxonomies, by Bloom, B.S. and Kratwohl, D.R. each indicate five or six main levels and many sub-levels. In terms of content and objectives, there are key-content, support content, cognitive, emotional, psychomotor, behavioural, expressive objectives, etc. See de Landsheere, Viviane and Gilbert, Définir les objectifs de l'éducation, Paris, P.U.F., 1976.

stages of learning. In actual fact, the relationships between content and objectives are so complex that very few teachers would venture to define them, were they not mentioned in the course of study. Most teachers content themselves with defining the cognitive objectives a little more clearly and with reaching the emotional objectives, where possible.

Many more or less diversified techniques (stratégies) are available for the pursuit and achievement of objectives. In fact, the secondary school teachers, who formerly ran the risk of becoming lost in an educational wilderness, now find, in teaching by objectives, a rich and varied approach. This is accompanied by clearly defined aims which are closely related. A choice of interrelated activities, or techniques, is available for each educational objective, without the risk of «activism» or of a methodological shopping spree.

Three criteria should, in principle, be applied in the selection of a technique for teaching by objectives: the relevance of the activity in terms of the objective, the type of pupil involved, the learning experience called for. These criteria are not always adequately respected in the choice of activities and techniques. Nevertheless, they can be of use when teachers wish to look back in order to assess the extent to which objectives have been attained.

In carrying out education by objectives, secondary school teachers discover the *importance of evaluation, as feedback, at various stages of learning*. It facilitates the adjustment of method and content. When evaluation reveals gaps in learning,

they may be due to use of a means which is wide of the mark or of an aim that ignored the pupils' possibilities.

Where such continuous follow-up is possible, the teacher remains aware of all aspects of the learning process and may adjust his, or her, teaching accordingly. It is also possible to follow more closely the progress of pupils, both as groups and as individuals. Before the advent of teaching by objectives, this was the area in which teachers most eloquently stated their needs.

Then again, the teachers made another discovery: there is more than one way to evaluate learning. To be sure, some objectives may be measured precisely. The evaluation of pupil performance in the cognitive domain often situates school progress in a continuum, by comparing results with a mean. But, there are other objectives which are not easily measured, which must also be evaluated because of their importance to learning, particularly those with an emotional connotation. Their evaluation cannot be based on performance criteria, but on attitudes, on behaviour modification, which is sometimes difficult to observe during the school day.

In the social-emotional, as in the psychomotor domain, the needs of secondary school teachers for a means of evaluation are far from being satisfied after some years of teaching by objectives. Lack of a means of evaluation in these areas could have serious consequences for education. Until now, evaluation in secondary schools has been almost exclusively centred on the achieving of

cognitive objectives, given the limited means at the teachers' disposal. Attempts to evaluate the socio-emotional domain in any meaningful way have, so far, proved inadequate.

The ministère de l'Éducation¹⁰ appears to have embarked on a course which should permit evaluation of the formative type¹¹. The application of this new policy should make it possible for secondary school teachers to have available to them the tools required for teaching methods which take into account both the intelligence and emotional makeup of the adolescent.

3. The Courses of Study and their Pedagogic Extension

Making Course Outlines more Specific

As long as the ministère de l'Éducation had not clearly defined the aims and objectives of education for secondary schools, it was difficult to make the course outlines any more precise. From the moment when *The Schools of Québec* proposed a number of aims and values, a vast enterprise was set in motion for the «specifying» of the courses of study. Since 1980, the transformation of courses has been governed by a *frame of reference*.

10. See ministère de l'Éducation, Direction générale du développement pédagogique, Politique générale d'évaluation pédagogique, 1981, 23 p.

11. The Conseil urges the Ministre to move in this direction in its opinion concerning evaluation in secondary schools Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, *The Evaluation of Learning; «Does It Count?»*.

«Without falling into the excesses of the former catalogue-type course outlines, it aims at lessening the problems arising from course outlines which are too general in nature¹²».

For the secondary school «specialists», the new and more detailed courses of study are a logical extension of teaching by objectives. The teachers are no longer required to wonder how to formulate their objectives, because the frame of reference lays down the following terminology and sequence: *general* objectives relating to the whole course; *terminal* objectives detailing the results anticipated after a given period of time; *intermediate* objectives describing, in terms of results, actions which lead to the attainment of terminal objectives. Learning activities arise from these latter. Teachers are already in a position to know what they must teach, since the *compulsory* objectives are indicated. It is already possible to identify three ways of applying the new rules from the course outlines which are being developed or implemented. First: all of the terminal and intermediate objectives, as well as the relevant content are compulsory. Secondly: not only the objectives, but the approach and method are laid down. In this case the course of study fulfills a double function: it includes what is the normal content of a course of study, and also part of what one would

12. Gouvernement du Québec, ministère de l'Éducation, Cadre révisé d'élaboration des programmes et des guides pédagogiques, April 1980.

expect to find in a curriculum guide¹³. In the third case, only the terminal objectives are compulsory.

To summarize, the secondary school teachers know clearly what is expected of them in their work: to plan their teaching by objectives, to develop learning situations, to evaluate class activities in terms of the objectives set.

Extension of the Course of Studies

The courses of study do more than set limits. Nevertheless, there is a great risk that this will be their effect on secondary school education, not only on the part of administrators but also on the part of some teachers. In the one case, it is relatively easy to control matters by measuring the extent to which objectives have been attained. In the other, it is simpler to go on with group instruction as in the past, without taking into account the criteria¹⁴ which should influence the choice of methods.

As a general rule, the courses of study indicate the relationships linking the aims of education, the general objectives of a given level of instruction, and certain values as well.

13. The first may be illustrated by the course of study in Household Science, Secondary II 1981; the second in French as Mother Tongue; the third in Mathematics for the first cycle of secondary school.

14. See above, page 34.

In addition they indicate how the content is related to the previous year's work or to other subjects. Teachers are thus encouraged to go beyond the course of study in the creation of learning situations. Curriculum guides will be made available in order to help teachers in this important task. The practical suggestions contained in these documents should help teachers to become more creative. It is to be hoped that the courses of study will not be interpreted so narrowly as to reduce the teacher's role to that of a mere puppet. On the contrary, the schools have a crying need for teachers who are active, dynamic and capable of innovation.

4. The Predominance of Administrative Considerations

Secondary education is very much conditioned by considerations of an administrative and organizational nature. The testimony of those involved as well as the data compiled from various inquiries¹⁵ paints a rather sombre picture whose principal characteristics may be interpreted as indications, symptoms, results or causes.

Many school principals are too preoccupied with administrative problems to devote much of their time to teaching. The teachers, for their part, are subjected to a system of assignment

15. Among others:

Les enseignantes et les enseignants du Québec, 1980.

Data collected from Le vécu scolaire dans les écoles secondaires, 1976-1977, 1977-1978, by Suzanne Fontaine, MEQ, September, 1980.

Statistics collected from L'école, ça m'intéresse, MEQ 1979-1980.

and transfer which often prevents them from teaching outside their field of specialization. When they are re-assigned, they must often start from zero in a new subject.

The overriding presence of the collective agreements is often a source of potential conflict between the administration and the teaching staff. Where rigid norms of school organization are applied, teachers tend to limit their participation in activities other than those carried on in the classroom.

The pupils, in their turn, are classified and labelled. The selection process which begins in elementary school places many of them in situations which lead nowhere. Their lack of motivation and of interest in school leads too many of them to become dropouts or mere classroom visitors, when it does not lead to delinquency.

There are very few rays of sunshine in such a context. Aside from a few schools, where student activities have produced remarkable results, the majority of pupils find it difficult to develop group activities and to manage their affairs.

In the final analysis, the secondary school would appear, to some extent, to contradict in practice the aims of education announced in *The Schools of Québec*, a document which advocates active, democratic and efficient teaching and a return to basics.

One possible explanation of this phenomenon, which seems to be beyond the control of those involved, or of the system itself, is

the fact that the school is a reflection of the society of which it is a part. We live in a society which puts production before personal development, which seeks followers, rather than critics. Our society eliminates from the school system those who are labelled «misfits» in favour of those who are capable of using the system to their advantage.

Such explanations follow from a radical criticism of society. Being too general, they do not take into account the complexity of the relationship between the school and society, and carry with them the risk of paralysing teachers by distracting them from their main responsibility in the school. The danger in such analyses is that they place problems requiring a practical solution on a theoretical level.

The Conseil cannot permit itself to be satisfied with such generalities. It must search for explanations which, while more limited, are more concrete. It has recently given its opinion regarding subjects of major importance to the quality of teaching: the effect of collective agreements on the teacher-principal relationship¹⁶, the pupil-teacher relationship, and at greater length, life in secondary school¹⁷. The Conseil does not share

16. See, the Conseil's opinion to the Ministre de l'Éducation, On the Improvement of the Collective Agreements, February 14th, 1982.

17. See the Conseil's opinion to the Ministre de l'Éducation, Life in Secondary School, April 7th, 1982.

See also the Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, The Teachers the Pupils Need in Secondary School, May 9th, 1980.

any of the extreme positions resulting from the usual opposition between teaching and structures. It has no brief either for the magic of methods nor the immutability of structures. At the same time, it places its trust in those who teach within the structures. The Conseil believes that solutions can be found in a discussion of the improvement and renewal of teaching.

5. Areas for Discussion and Action

Indications of Renewal

There is some evidence of efforts and renewal. While these are still mere straws in the wind, they could become significant were they to become more widely publicized.

In some secondary schools educators have come to the point where they recognize the need to change the situation as being urgent. Their professional conscience forces them to bridge the gaps between the various solitudes: their own, that of the pupils, even that of the administration. School administrations have, thus, come to re-assess the importance of the teacher's role in the school. There is recognition of the fact that teaching is improved when there is a sound pupil-teacher relationship. Teachers become motivated; absenteeism diminishes; they remain adults, while getting closer to the adolescents. Pupils discover that they can enjoy learning, their motivation increases, there are fewer failures and, finally, they stay in school. The fact that self respect and respect for others as well as motivation are sources of efficiency in teaching is not a new concept.

Some school commissions have until now provided much in way of resources for teaching by objectives, the development of more detailed courses, educational planning and a more rigorous system of evaluation. Now they consider as new priorities the creation of a favourable climate, more attention to how children learn, and diversification of learning experiences. All these should lead to greater pupil motivation.

The new courses of study encourage the development of this kind of learning situation and take the emotional as well as the cognitive dimension into account at all levels. The new policy of evaluation stresses the importance of formative evaluation and those responsible propose to develop the neglected socio-emotional domain.

There is, then, some evidence of renewal in secondary school teaching. Renewal of teaching methods is dependent on the finding of answers to other questions of an educational nature.

Ways toward Integration

In the secondary school, where teaching conditions are almost always more complex than at the elementary level, the abolition of streaming and the integration of children with learning problems represent two changes which cannot be considered separately, and whose importance must not be minimized. This twofold change requires thought and concerted action by educators.

This doublebarreled problem cannot be solved by pedagogic measures alone. Nor is the solution purely an administrative matter.

The existing compartmentalization is, in part, the product of the teachers' specialist mentality. They would prefer, had they the choice, to teach homogeneous groups of bright pupils. It is also a function of teacher assignment. Too many pupils and groups make any meaningful teaching relationship almost impossible.

Where integration has been attempted, many factors have been considered¹⁸. These include the stability of groups labelled «families», «home rooms» or «cells», teams of teachers, modifications in approach and the adaptation of methods to pupils with difficulties.

Until now, the integration of the children and the abolition of streaming in secondary school have not led to the integration of subjects; the teachers meet the same pupils in a stable group. But, each teacher still teaches his or her own subject. One wonders whether multidisciplinary should come from the development of common courses of study, or if teachers in the field could not find ways of sharing subject matter. This latter would seem to be the direction in which to move, having experience in mind.

Nevertheless, these initiatives have two common factors which are closely related: motivation and intellectual development. Such

18. See, for example, Thomas Arsenault, Mont-Bruno, une polyvalente qui vit l'intégration in Vie Pédagogique, no 18, April 1982, pp. 6-8, and also Polyvalente de Mont-Bruno Educational Project 1981-1982.

efforts herald a renewal in secondary school teaching, which tends more and more to associate intellectual development with socio-emotional growth.

Pedagogy in the Vocational Sector

At the same time as the publication by the Ministre de l'Éducation of a proposed new policy on vocational training of young people¹⁹, all secondary school teachers are called upon to face the challenge of developing methods appropriate to teaching technical and technological classes. At the moment it is a matter of integrating vocational training with general education, while developing a program of vocational education closely related to the requirements of the world of work. It is possible to examine vocational teaching in terms of methods in current use in the secondary schools.

One basic vocational training is presently offered at this level. No attempt is made to turn out designers, simple those capable of carrying out a job with precision. This is why instruction is based on *imitation* and *repetition* which lead to the acquisition of basic skills. To go any farther would presuppose joining manual ability with theory.

Teaching is concentrated almost exclusively on practical applications.

19. Gouvernement du Québec, Ministre de l'Éducation, Technical and Vocational Education for Young People, proposals for revival and renewal.

The teacher, himself a technician, sees himself as a guide, whose role is that of showing the pupil how to master techniques and use tools.

Contrary of the process of what we call general education, vocational teaching is marked by an *immediacy*: in this type of learning, the results are visible. The pupils knows very rapidly whether his technique is efficient or otherwise.

These characteristics of vocational training contribute to its success with pupils of a technological bent. This must not be lost sight of in any attempt to extend general education and to postpone vocational training to a sixth year of secondary studies.

Another aspect of vocational education must be mentioned; the pupil-teacher relationship is generally very close and continued. The composition of groups is stable and, in consequence, teachers frequently adapt their methods to the needs of pupils whom they know quite well. Teaching in the vocational sector benefits in large measure from the sound human relationships which develop between teachers and pupils. This factor, which is too often absent elsewhere in the secondary schools, must not only be maintained but become more widespread.

SUMMARY

Secondary school teaching as carried on by specialists suffers from compartmentalization among subjects, from the large numbers

of pupils the teachers must face, from an emphasis on content and from problems of adaptation to the needs of pupils, arising from the way in which the schools are organized. But renewed efforts are being made to re-organize the first cycle and to provide more personal attention to pupils in accordance with their individual needs.

The advent of teaching by objectives has greatly changed teaching methods over the last ten years, not only in terms of what should be taught, but also in terms of how it should be done. The new courses of studies have contributed to change by placing an accent on the diversification of teaching methods. The evaluation of learning has also shifted in the direction of a formative approach, but much remains to be done in the emotional and social domains.

The new courses of studies will attain their objectives if an equilibrium can be established between the aims of education and teaching resources, methods of evaluation and a more flexible school organization.

Evidence of a renewal in secondary school teaching indicates a willingness to change of the part of many people. This includes greater awareness of the need for a meaningful relationship between teacher and pupil, creation of an environment more adapted to the needs of pupils, existence of a pupil-teacher relationship in the vocational sector which is more continuous

more profitable to both parties and more efficient. But any solution to the problem of the abolition of streaming and the tendency of the Régime pédagogique towards common courses and the integration of children with learning problems presents a challenge which calls for constant research into new ways of doing things as well as new attitudes.

CHAPTER 3 TEACHING METHODS AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

In studying elementary and secondary school teaching it is possible to detect the dominant trends and to identify certain characteristics which lend themselves to classification. College teaching, on the other hand, does not appear to present any general pattern. It is a system where extremes co-exist, and where the outside observer is open to frequent surprises.

The production of a completely faithful portrait of such a diversified situation, requires systematic study, which has yet to be undertaken. Nevertheless, the memoirs and testimony received by the Conseil are sufficient for the identification of the main characteristics of college teaching during recent years, its present state, as well as areas which merit study.

1. Springtime for the Cegeps: Great Variety of Teaching Methods

From 1967 until about 1972 the cegeps, staffed in a hurry with young teachers, who identified for the most part with the students, were the scene of the experimentation of a host of educational formulae. These were more interesting and led to greater participation than the lectures which has been the rule. Group study, directed seminars and individualized modular teaching were all tried at once in a variety of subjects. Audio-visual equipment was also very much in vogue at this time: libraries became media centres. As was the case in other educational systems, the teaching staff of the college fell very much under

the influence of the psychology of Carl Rogers¹ and of the non-directive teaching fashionable during this period.

The novelty of the situation encouraged all sorts of experiments; for many, being a good teacher was synonymous with being avant-garde. According to some observers, there was a ready tendency to adopt new methods intended to interest and motivate students, without first examining what was required for their success. Today, these same observers indicate that the opposite is true; teachers pay much more attention to all the implications of a new teaching formula. Innovation has become subjected to systematic planning².

2. Phase two: Consolidation and Sharing of Innovation, the Hardening of Structures

The period 1972 to 1977 saw the appearance of two factors which continue to influence pedagogic practice in varying degrees. One of these is a willingness to try new things and to find the means required to do so. The other is the extent to which the operation of the public colleges, and consequently their teaching activities, have become the scene of a power struggle.

1. See Chapter 8, Non-directive teaching, p. 123. Carl Rogers is seen as the father of non-directive teaching.

2. See a remarkable work by Tournier, M. Typologie des formules pédagogiques, Québec, Les Editions du Griffon d'argile Inc. 1981. The large distribution of this document in the colleges is an indication of the extent of interest in experimentation.

Louis Gadbois and Paul-Emile Gingras describe this period as follows:

«Three phases may be distinguished. At first the creation and explosive growth of the cegeps, required the development of courses, the setting up of a system from the means at hand, establishment of a new technical sector and the creating of a public image. The fat years were those from a mushroom growth of teaching positions, development of documentation and media centres, the Info-Doc movement³, government grants of all sorts. Since that time, another sentiment has become clearly dominant: to have done with theory, to get on with teaching and to understand the learning process⁴».

The program of grant for research and experimentation begun in 1972 to 1976, which was then redirected to cover innovation, provides the most visible proof of the diversity of interest on the part of teachers wishing to upgrade their teaching methods. In a document published by the Direction de l'enseignement collégial which deals with the development of this grants program, the author summarizes the projects submitted in 1975 as follows:

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3. These were meetings of teachers from several cegeps, wishing to discuss their experiments, organized by the Fédération des cégeps.
 4. Dossier-souche sur l'innovation pédagogique (document de travail, 2e version) Montréal, CADRE 1981, pp. 164-165.

«The subjects of research, which previously centred on details of course content, have now shifted to include the examination of attitudes, needs and teaching techniques, the evaluation of methods and other activities, the development of diagnostic tests and remedial measures and even such new subjects as the use of audio-visual material and how students learn, etc.⁵».

At the same time, this period witnessed the fullest flowering of a cegep characteristic which is still not well known, a union of the various schools of educational thought with elements of the power structure. This phenomenon may be partially explained by the fact that the cegeps constituted a sort of sounding board for the various social and cultural crises.

Be that as it may, for some time those involved in college matters found themselves caught up in the power struggle and its implications of defence, control, to say nothing of veto and boycott, to the extent that development was very nearly stifled.

This explains how, in 1981, there were teachers who awarded passing marks to students who had left college after attending classes for only one week in the semester: In one college, an attempt was made to encourage teachers to teach by posting

5. Des Trois-Maisons, Louise: Dix années d'innovation pédagogiques dans les cégeps du Québec, Québec, ministère de l'Éducation, 1981, p. 13.

their names on a timetable attached to the classroom door! In some establishments the students are seldom warned of the cancellation of a class, the administration even more rarely. The measure of accountability, which normally goes hand in hand with the occupation of a post in the public service, became a casualty of the power struggle, which was often carried on an ideological basis⁶.

The relationship between teachers and pupils could not but be influenced by the struggles going on in the colleges. It is difficult to assess whether the slogans of the 70's had any long lasting effect. There are those that hold that freely encouraged liberty of expression contributes less to the development of a critical sense, than to the adoption of a very superficial subjectivity. The vulnerability of the teachers to possible student pressure, or the desire to «negociate» evaluations in some subjects, may have led the teachers to favour a broader, rather than an intensive initiation.

In the mid seventies much of the debate involved, paradoxically enough, not *what* should be decided, but *who* should decide it. Since that time decision making in the cegeps has been difficult because of the conflicts which exist between, for example, the union and the administration, or between the departments and

6. The facts, reported in this paragraph as examples, are evidence of a real malaise which the Conseil will examine closely in the studying the institutional, professional and pedagogic aspects of evaluation.

the support services.

Creative and innovative teaching are carried on, therefore, despite a system which turns any topic of interest to a particular group into a source of controversy.

This phenomenon has produced in the cegeps an extremely closed and inward-looking society, whose crises are incomprehensible to the man in the street⁷. Despite a tapering off, the power struggle has left its marks. One of the most apparent of these is the continued ambiguity in the roles of the various official bodies within an institution. Thus, for example, those familiar with the situation, would treat as ridiculous any suggestion that the Pedagogical Council, or in an extreme case, the Board of Governors, discuss student affairs from an educational point of view. In one cegep, syndical rules are such that there has not been a meeting of the heads of departments since 1976. Generally speaking, the student associations show little interest in participating in official deliberations, which they consider to be futile.

7. The impression of being on another planet appears also concerning the role of the administrators named to the Board of Governors. The magazine «Cégepropos» of October, 1981, in its discussion of the participation of students, teachers, and parents, demonstrates the disillusionment awaiting any outside observer who thinks that administrators are nominated to act in the name of the whole community, and not to protect interests of a particular group.

Such educational dynamism as remains, is, therefore, found outside the corridors of power and communication; it is largely a function of a willingness to become involved in confrontation.

The sequel to this institutional hardening of the arteries, astonishing in such a young organization, is the development of sentiments of isolation and sometimes of discouragement. The almost total absence of control over the work of teachers leads, in some instances, to a system of negative rewards, where laziness and negligence are highly regarded, and the conscientious teacher is accused of being zealous.

3. The Current Situation

At the present time the period of direct confrontation seems to have ended in most of the cegeps. If it has left in its wake conditions unfavourable to a renewal of teaching methods, people have learned to live with them, or to overcome them. In other words, in the last few years concern for teaching has increased, and means and resources have been found. These encouraging changes are the result of changes in attitudes, improvements in teaching methods and materials, as well as in the teachers' access to in-service training.

Attitudes and Mentalities

Teachers of lengthy experience are generally said to have a «classical» mentality. Without denying their interest in pedagogy, they remain «men of content», holding to the need for transmission of a solid body of knowledge. At the other extreme

are the younger teachers who often seem to stand for communication with the student rather than the «transmission of knowledge». This weakens the temptation, frequent among beginners, simply to pass on what they received themselves at the university. Course content may suffer as a result. In reality, there is much to be said for and against both these tendencies. The important thing is to strike a balance between the two.

For some time the younger cegep teachers saw themselves as biologists, psychologists, mathematicians, chemists, sociologists, rather than as teachers of biology, of psychology, etc. Their being teachers was, for them, as accident. There is today, more of a feeling of being a teacher and educator, rather than the defender of a given subject against all comers⁸.

One element which is often the harbinger of renewal is the beginning, on even a small scale, of communication and collaboration between teachers of different subjects. The teacher of mathematics, who feels the onset of boredom and automatism may get together with colleagues in business administration to develop a more open, varied and motivating approach, much appreciated by the students. The teacher of English becomes familiar with the computer science department and vice versa. The physics teacher and the electronics technician work together on courses and methods. In short, for all those for whom teaching has not

8. A la recherche de la motivation perdue Prospectives, 1982, pp. 58-63. Ulric Aylwin analyses the difficulties inherent in role adjustment.

been reduced to the level of ridding oneself of a tiresome burden, there develops a willingness to participate in any number of adaptations and improvements.

On a larger scale, similar attitudes come to the surface during events which facilitate communications. Cases in point are the conferences held in recent years on Biology (1977), Nursing (1980), Chemistry (1980), the teaching of Science (1982). Thus, for example, «the participants in the conference insist on 'the inclusion of basic instruction', which should be the contribution of chemistry to the student's overall education. They also emphasize the importance to student-teacher relations of openness, respect for rates and ways of learning, capacity for reading, motivation, self respect, self image, problems, passing from one level to another and a knowledge of the structure of thought⁹».

One final aspect of the conditions conducive to an improvement in teaching must be mentioned. This is a remarkable capacity for critical analysis, exemplified in a submission presented to the Conseil.

«Among the teachers, professionals and administrators there (in the College) there are very few trained teachers, but many experienced people who are more and more prepared to question what they are doing, in the light of experience. While they may not, generally, be well versed in Rogers,

9. Dossier-souche sur l'innovation pédagogique, p. 135.

Skinner and Piaget, they are prepared to examine their methods, course content, approach to the subject, and methods of evaluation in a cold and dispassionate manner. More and more, the teachers are questioning any method or approach to teaching which tends to minimise the role of the student in his or her own education¹⁰ ».

The Adaptation of Teaching and Support

A very large proportion of the efforts and resources devoted explicitly to pedagogic renewal has for its objective the diversification of approaches and methods, so as to make them more compatible with needs. This tendency is confirmed by an examination of the developmental and experimental projects financed by the ministère de l'Éducation. In fact, of all the projects listed more than half dealt with how students learn (15%), with teaching techniques or approaches (32%), or with ways of teaching (10%)¹¹.

One form of the adaptation of teaching methods is becoming more and more common: building one what the student already knows. Many teachers have emphasized the benefits accruing from a period of assessment and review for some students, particularly in those subjects where learning is cumulative. It is also

10. Collège du Nord-Ouest, November, 1981

11. Other projects are listed under the headings: learnings objectives; educational resources; academic achievement; management of resources. Dix années d'innovation pédagogique dans les cégeps du Québec, p. 57.

noticeable that in such areas as mother tongue, working to correct weaknesses and to facilitate use of the written language, leads to a deeper and more complete understanding of various branches of knowledge.

Teachers also provide *support* outside of classes for students who need further explanations or advice regarding their work habits. This type of assistance is possible because of the flexibility of student timetables, and the fact that each teacher has an office where he, or she, may meet students. It is not easy to determine the extent to which this practice is carried on throughout the system; it is certainly common in some colleges. It contributes markedly to the humanization of learning. For the many young people with chinks in their self assurance, the presence of an adult is important. It can encourage students to carry on, instead of dropping out, to persevere and to convince themselves that they do have ability, and that a failing mark, or other difficulty, is not an insurmountable obstacle.

There are other forms of pedagogical support available to students. In many places teaching assistants work with the teachers to provide aid for individual students according to need. Various formulae are being tried, with the same end in view. They are to be found in the *Répertoire des projets inventoriés de recherche et d'expérimentation pédagogiques dans les collèges membres de l'Association des collèges du Québec*¹².

12. See the Third version, Montréal, A.C.Q. 1982.

Teaching Materials

Since the mid seventies, college teaching has come to lean on the definition of learning objectives in the articulation and clarification of its educational goals. This has made the *course plan* quite significant. In many of the colleges, this plan of the course, which is given to the students at the beginning of the semester, meets a number of needs. It fleshes out the course of study, it indicates how evaluation will be done and list the assignments for which a student is responsible. In the best of circumstances, the course plan represents a sort of contract with the student; its development provides an occasion for discussion and co-operation, since it is generally examined by departmental colleagues and administrators involved with teaching services.

These courses plans have profited from the improvement in teaching material available in the colleges in recent years. Much of it has been produced through the provision of special grants. A systematic effort has made available hundreds of documents, among which are important publications produced by various publishers.

In-service Training

Other signs of pedagogic vitality may be detected in the many programs of in-service training set up for college teachers. PERFORMA which is a popular program in the Montréal area, is one that answers the questions and helps to overcome the difficulties that arise in teaching. Among the thirty credits in

this program, which leads to a College Teaching Certificate, are activities, of interest to teachers of all departments, which encourage enriching exchanges. Other activities are more subject-oriented. The topics are chosen in such a way that the teachers, after acquiring the thirty credits, continue to participate actively in this type of training. The advantage of this formula arises from the professional status of the resource persons, who have a counselling, rather than an administrative role.

The Role and Influence of the Students

No understanding of the sources of dynamism at the college level would be complete without a consideration of the role and influence of the students as change agents.

Students of this level, who are reaching the end of adolescence, have attitudes and means which are, in themselves, a force for change. Being older, more mature, and often working part time, they are able to face the situations in which they find themselves at cegep with a better developed critical sense, with greater autonomy and more team spirit. In this period of transition, students who have lost interest and motivation during their earlier school experience, discover new intellectual, social and cultural needs and look often with considerable dynamism, for the means of satisfying them.

This dynamism becomes evident, first of all, in the classroom, where the teachers, in response to student pressure of various

forms, are obliged to take legitimate demands into account. They must redesign their courses and adjust their methods as a consequence. It also becomes apparent in relations with the administration and in participation in the various college bodies; pedagogic commissions, departments, etc. No matter whether it takes the form of individual actions, or of pressure tactics on the part of their association, it may be said that student presence has been and still is a force for educational change. Students are less and less mere passive consumers and are becoming more demanding as time goes on.

Student presence and action is often expressed in educational experiments of a varied and novel nature.

Examples which come to mind are the survival camps, the field studies, the field trips, social assistance (in collaboration with the C.L.S.C.), the clubs, and the various kinds of formal communication with other cultural groups. This is evidence of more than a widening of the students' cultural and social horizon. From it comes a more nuanced dynamism of great educational value. The cegep must take this into account and provide greater scope for this type of experience.

In short the role and presence of students remain the prime cause of many educational advances. This factor must be exploited in the future. Student interest must be aroused in order for them to play their part in the attainment of the great objectives of education.

4. Technical Training and its Teaching Methods

Teaching in the technical sector has developed to a remarkable degree at the college level. Given the ambivalence of the term «vocational education» (enseignement professionnel), it is preferable to speak of technical training. In practice the distinction between general and vocational education has come to refer to those involved and the types of courses: a pre-university concentration on one hand, technical specialties on the other. The original meaning of the expression was to indicate that any college course provided basic education (personal, cultural, intellectual and social) *and* vocational training. For example, in the cases of courses in physical, health or administrative science, the college-level program was to be the beginning of a *long vocational program* leading to university studies.

Technical training at the college level benefits from two durable assets. *Active teaching*, involving on the job training, laboratory-workshops and often the completion of projects as course assignments, is a common practice. Secondly, *personalized and relatively stable human relationships*, lasting over several semesters, act as a stimulant for both students and teachers. Almost everywhere technical students form a psychological bond with the department in which they are studying. In what are referred to as the «specialist» courses, assiduity is marked and discipline no problem. The teacher, who has known the students for some time, is in a position to work with them to demonstrate the relationships between theory and practice. He or she becomes quite naturally, a resource person for the student.

The teachers' pedagogic problems appear to be of a methodological and didactic order; how to hold awakening attention and interest? How does one master the required skills efficiently? Teachers in the technical sector are quite reticent when faced with topics such as evaluation or with theoretical questions, concerning for example the learning process.

Despite this generally positive picture, there are some clouds on the horizon. The ever present pressure groups and power struggle loom particularly large. According to several witnesses, crisis situations appear to have generally greater repercussions on the motivation of technical teachers than is the case with other staff members¹³.

Technical education, by its very nature, must keep pace with technological change; this is no mean challenge. It appears possible where there are sufficient human resources and thanks to a good working relationship with the workplace and industry. The organization of on the job training sessions for students creates favourable conditions for keeping up to date. However, this becomes less simple and much more difficult when it becomes necessary to revise completely the course in a given speciality.

One of the most important problems in the teaching of technical

13. According to the memoir presented to the Conseil by the Collège du Nord-Ouest (Rouyn), November, 1981), «over the last five years a full semester has been the exception», and nothing would lead one to think this situation exceptional.

subjects arises from the difficulty experienced in striking a balance between courses such as mathematics, natural science, human science, which provide basic information, and the technical courses, as such. In some cases the interrelationship between the two areas facilitates matters, but this is not the general rule. Consequently, the «cours de service»¹⁴ which are included in the technical programs - mathematics, physics, psychology, etc. - are vulnerable. When there is any question of lowering the number of credits required during course revision, the technical specialists are often tempted to cut the time allocated to these subjects. The standard complaint of students that the classroom approach is too theoretical, that it kills motivation by its lack of relevance to technical skills, is often heard. One way of solving this problem would be to follow the recommendations of the Nadeau Report¹⁵ and make each program a coherent whole reflecting the needs of a particular field. In this way courses would be set up on a more integrated basis and less weight would be given to interdepartmental rivalry, whose main objective is the preservation of teaching positions.

14. By «cours de service» (as opposed to compulsory courses) is meant courses which are included in a given program, but which are not offered by the department concerned; for example, mathematics for Administrative Technology, biology for Nursing Technology, statistics for Forestry or Human Sciences.

15. Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, Le Collège, rapport sur l'état et les besoins de l'enseignement collégial, Québec, 1975.

5. Areas of Possible Renewal

If it be true that concern for the improvement of teaching has no place in the deliberations of official bodies making up the college's administrative hierarchy, then the department would be the logical place for pedagogic animation. It could concern itself, not only with discussion and analysis, but also with improving the situation.

Furthermore the resources available to groups of teachers for innovative activities are such as to very easily lead to the extension of a project and the involvement of other groups. Much is to be hoped for from collaboration, which once the barriers are down, leads to a systematic attack on the most serious problems.

Ensuring that students receive the required support and encouragement calls for a degree of dedication to the cause of education. It is not enough to publish office hours, for use just in case ... Borderline students must be warned and encouraged. Remedial reading, the review of pre-requisites, the use of formative evaluation and help in the use of documentation are all aspects of support services which have their place in the cegep, as well as elsewhere.

The need to revise the content of technical instruction on a continuous basis, in order to keep pace with technological change, is a considerable challenge. Another, of the same order, is that of ensuring the coherence of courses while respecting

the particular requirements of each subject; much remains to be done in this area. Those responsible for technical subjects are very much aware of the benefits to be gained from closer collaboration, particularly that of an inter-disciplinary nature. There is also good reason to believe that the pre-university concentrations would also benefit from such exchanges. A college's Pedagogical Council would be the logical forum for any undertaking of this type.

SUMMARY

In their lifetime the cegeps have undergone an initial period of great effervescence, of groping and of uncertainty in their search for a pedagogic formula. As the dust settled, little by little, and things fell into place, strains became apparent in the relations between staff and management. While this was a reflection of the society round about, it did little to encourage educational progress in the cegeps. The result was a form of looking inward and a paralysis whose effects are still apparent.

However, the present horizon gives evidence of interesting and promising changes. These include a tendency to strike a better balance in course content, more frequent interdisciplinary collaboration, an increase in the numbers of experimental projects and student services, clear course plans, more effective in-service training programs, etc.

In addition, technical education at the college level is

characterized by activist methods as well as by personalized and strong human relations. But attempts to strike a balance between general education and technical training as such, have not yet achieved complete success.

If anything is to be gained from the experience of the last few years, and if the future is to live up to its promise, the departments must become the source of educational renewal, aimed at more support for students a more systematic evaluation of learning and further examples of interdisciplinary teaching.

CHAPTER 4 METHODS IN ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education includes a considerable diversity of activities, many of which are also found at other levels of schooling. It is not so much the «object» or the «content» of courses which makes of this vast sector of education a relatively autonomous and original domain, but rather its ways of communicating and its approach to teaching. We shall attempt to identify the most important educational practices and the schools of thought from which they arise, in terms of familiar activities.

1. General Education

Many of the courses included in continuing education bear a marked similarity to those found at the elementary and secondary levels and in the programs leading to vocational studies they may be followed on a full or part time basis. In practice, the general course subjects undergo every imaginable adaptation, in order to meet the needs of adult students. Only in exceptional cases, is use made of the regular course of study for younger students. The adaptation of both course content and methods arises from a real concern for the individualization of instruction. This has a profound effect on the student's experience, on the organization of instruction and, even, on the role of the educator.

In essence, the individualization of instruction is based on a recognition of what the adult already knows and on his or her

rate of learning. Course content is generally organized in terms of precise learning objectives; this facilitates continuous evaluation. In addition, the individualization of instruction makes the teacher's role one of guidance and advice, rather than of the transmission of knowledge.

Furthermore, the organic conception of education has a very marked influence in the area of general adult education. It is also evident in other sectors, such as community affairs¹.

The influence of the organic conception of education is also apparent in the way in which some continuing education services define their objectives. These objectives refer to the type of learning situation considered most appropriate for adults, as well as to the relationship which should be established between adult students and their instructors.

- . the prime responsibility for adult education rests with the individual concerned. All actions, supportive or otherwise, must lead to acceptance of this responsibility;
- . teaching methods must respect individual rates and ways of learning;
- . the learning process must come before the course of study, instructors, methods, equipment, evaluation.....;

1. «Community affairs (accueil et référence) consists of helping an individual or group who are experiencing problems, to make a complete study of the situation, to become aware of what it involves, and to arrive at a solution in terms of their own resources». Direction générale de l'éducation des adultes, Qu'est-ce que l'accueil et référence?, Ministère de l'éducation, September 1980., p. 4.

- . teaching must take into account all of the ways in which learning may occur;
- . what the student already knows must be taken into account in any teaching situation;
- . in order to be of value, learning must be capable of practical application.

The organic conception of education has had two main effects on continuing education. First of all, our understanding of the role of the educator has been transformed; the Study Committee on Adult Education has described this change very well:

«The role of the educator consists.... of encouraging, both directly and indirectly, the creation of an appropriate educational environment, the development of an integrated and autonomous learning process, and the pursuit of objectives thoughtfully selected by the young person, or adult, individually, or as a group... Many see this emerging role of the educator as that of a «facilitator» or «pedagogic animator».»²

The organic conception of education has also permitted the development in continuing education of close relationships between formal or systematic learning and personal development. Operation SESAME (Sessions d'enseignement spécialisé aux adultes par le ministère de l'Éducation), from 1967 to 1972, had this end in view with an accent on communication and group dynamics.

In the final analysis, the organic conception encourages the development of autonomy in learning and leads eventually to the acquisition

2. Gouvernement du Québec, Apprendre: un action volontaire et responsable, 1982, p. 23.

of the capacity to operate and deal with problems in any given situation.

2. Adult Literacy

Adult literacy is an aspect of general education which merits being dealt with by itself. For some years a considerable effort has been mounted in the attack on illiteracy, and the teaching methods which have been developed in this field are radically different from those used with young people.

The initiative has been taken both by organizations outside the school system and by some continuing education services. In varying degrees, the objective of literacy is part of a wider social goal; it is often part of a campaign to assist groups to enjoy all the rights of citizenship. Personal growth and individual improvement are other objectives of these programs.

Those who are involved in campaigns for adult literacy are almost unanimous in their insistence that there be a close relationship between what is learned and the emotional life of those involved. They must overcome considerable apprehension before deciding to learn to read and write. The teacher must, first and foremost, bolster the student's feeble self-confidence and work on the desire to escape from a state of dependence.

The methods employed by the teachers and volunteers recognize the close inter-relationships among the ability to read, the ability

to write and vocabulary enrichment. An attempt is made to avoid concentrating on any one of the areas basic to mastery of language. Further, the vocabulary used is that arising from the experiences of those involved and not something imposed from outside.

The major part of a typical session involves independent work in small groups where *mutual instruction* has an important place. The instructor responds to requests for explanation and adjusts to a variety of rates of learning and to the kind of problems encountered. The smaller the groups, the more effective is the instructor's contribution.

In addition to periods of autonomous work, there are sessions for the whole group. This use of both independent and group work indicates a willingness to call upon the resources of the participants to the greatest possible extent. The very way in which the groups, workshops, or «classes» operate aims, more directly than is the case elsewhere, at the development of autonomy and the capacity to learn and to try.

3. Popular Education

Popular education provides some of the more original examples of how methods in adult education have a close relationship to experience and action.

Some 200 000 adults are currently enrolled in popular education courses involving over 125 themes. The courses are developed in

terms of the requests made by the adults, themselves. The result is a large inventory of courses involving such diverse subjects as sewing, nutrition, money management, human relations, preparation for retirement, personal development, second language or family budgeting.

In addition, special assistance is provided some 1 000 associations working for the betterment of their membership. Such is the case with organizations such as ACEF, AFEAS, co-operatives, farm groups, golden age groups and associations of welfare recipients. Mention must also be made of the value of such voluntary organizations as those involving consumers, workers, tenants, parents or users of the media.

When workers who have been the victims of accidents gather together and agree on a common educational objective involving health, working conditions and the law, they exemplify a willingness to profit from experience and to do something about a given situation.

There is a tremendous difference, from a pedagogic point of view, between these courses and those in use with younger people. In the case of young people, their knowledge of facts is minimal; they must be assimilated as a basis of understanding. In the case of adults, the facts are not only known, they are part of experience. Thus, education becomes one of several ways of tackling a given situation.

When an association, such as AFEAS organizes discussion groups in rural communities concerning the role of women in family businesses,

the program is based, to all intents and purposes, on the experiences of the participants. The same is true for courses organized for union members concerning, for example, the health problems experienced by some workers.

One feature of popular education is its close relationship to a practical application of what is involved. To the extent that it brings about a recognition of every day life, it stimulates changes in thinking habits and the development of the capacity to solve certain problems and to bring about reforms. Adult education projects, which are only distantly related to regular schooling, may take a variety of forms and pursue important objectives in the political, economic, ecological, artistic, cultural and social fields³.

Popular education is often defined in terms of an objective of interest to a particular group. In addition to being a goal in itself, collective improvement influences the choice of means and requires teaching methods such that the adult who is learning is not cut off from his, or her, physical and human environment, nor from society. This applies to workers, consumers, citizens, parents or marriage partners.

The aims of group improvement, as it applies to adult education, involve, from the beginning, the adoption of a critical approach to the problems facing those involved, The development of the

3. The thesis developed by Grégoire, M.R. on the subject of youth in La formation et l'insertion des jeunes de 15 à 18 ans dans la société: un défi pour toutes les institutions. (Québec, MEQ, 1981) points out that this point of view is not entirely absent from the education of young people.

capacity for critical analysis prior to acting is certainly within the general field of education. Any action aiming at militancy, propaganda or indoctrination is of another order; it does not, ordinarily, call for a critical mind.

Popular education is extremely vulnerable. It depends very largely on the emergence of leaders and animators from within the community. It also has its critics. Some ridicule activities which are on the very fringe of the cultural or technical domains. What, after all is «macramé power»? There is a refusal to recognize what such projects may represent in terms of personal development and collective improvement. Contact with those economically deprived areas which are not in the habit of making use of their collective resources remains difficult. Response to their needs calls for patient and imaginative exploration of a variety of approaches⁴.

In a more general way, one cannot but be aware of the vitality of this specific sector of activities which is subject to political and ideological pressures and which must resist the infatuations of the moment.

4. The Vocational Training of Adults

Under this heading we shall draw attention to some important aspects of the teaching methods used in the technical training of adults, corresponding to that offered at the secondary and college levels.

4. See La contribution des Services d'éducation des adultes à l'égard des personnes défavorisées, un mirage ou un espoir?, Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, Québec, 1982.

When this training is carried on within an adult education service, it is the product of collaboration between the government agencies responsible for education and manpower and the industries directly concerned. Such collaboration usually ensures that the courses offered are relevant to industrial practices.

In the case of on the job training, a variety of situations are found. Some businesses may wish to upgrade the qualifications of their employees⁵. They often have their own highly qualified technical instructors, and the advisors from the adult education services who work with them provide the required expertise in terms of methods, evaluation and materials.

In the case of businesses with fewer resources and less equipment, much more assistance is required if they are to set up the courses they require. Here, the educational advisors become involved in the drawing up of courses and in the training of the instructors.

The vocational training of adults, whether offered in school or on the job, is based on the experience of the participants and, for this reason, very often produces very interesting results. A worker, for example, may become a technician by following a route quite different from that used in the education of young people. He works directly at the solution of familiar problems. He deepens his understanding of technology and of basic scientific rules while

5. Consider banks, insurance companies and factories installing computerised systems, technical changes in mining, in paper making, etc.

carrying out procedures of whose theoretical basis he had previously been unaware.

The vocational training of adults is characterised by a good deal of pragmatism and some latitude in the application of rules. This permits adjustment in terms of need and leads to «made to measure» training programs⁶.

Nevertheless, the vocational training of adults is not without its problems. Dependence on several jurisdictions and local, regional and national variations in economic conditions occasion many difficulties. Those responsible for drawing up courses must grapple with problems arising from the fact that the economy's needs in terms of manpower bear no relationship to that available, nor to its immediate requirements. In addition, it is not easy to ensure that personal and social development will keep pace with vocational training.

Certain characteristics of adult vocational training are of interest to all those involved in that field: the flexibility and relevance of courses, the use of on the job training, the joining together of pedagogic and technical expertise. Those responsible for the vocational training of young people could learn a great deal, for example, from the experience of their opposite numbers in adult education.

6. A document from the MEQ describes it as follows: «Such training is carefully designed. It starts with where students are, the most careful projections possible are made of what is required of them by the new situation, and a course is draw up to bring them to this level». Education des adultes et développement. May, 1981, p. 14.

5. Questions for Study

A great deal of thought has gone into the evolution and diversification of methods in adult education. Educators have analysed many conceptions of education and of learning. They have also studied the interdependence of the aims or goals of education and the means selected. Their research has also served to draw attention to the direct connection that must exist between the questions posed by society and matters of education. We shall return to these questions, which involve elementary and secondary education as well as so-called «regular» post-secondary schooling, as much as they do the education of adults.

Two questions must be raised, since they arise from practices peculiar to adult education: the requirement to respond to needs as flexibly as possible and the perspective of continuing education.

Response to Needs as Difficulty and as Priority

Adult education tends to be defined in terms of one requirement which is in no way as simple as it seems: response to need. Projects such as community affairs and «made to measure training», are adapted to need so as to provide the greatest possible response.

To respond to a need appears clear and simple as long as only learning objectives are considered. There is little point in teaching musical scales to someone wishing to learn welding; it is even more pointless to teach Russian to an aspiring hockey coach! But deciding how to

teach, or what learning situation to exploit can make responding to a need much less elementary. All of the following considerations must be taken into account:

- . the development of autonomy;
- . getting beyond the immediate need, which is often defined without critical examination and is the result of a social situation, to get at the real need, of which those who request assistance are not always aware;
- . the temptation to take the easy way out by developing a series of courses and related materials from which a client may choose.

The elements must not be lost sight of in a too critical approach to spontaneous requests, There is a risk of their being lost sight of. The educator may, also, be tempted to keep too great a distance from the learner, all in the name of autonomy and to the detriment of the objectives.

The Perspective of Continuing Education

Continuing education has been a subject for discussion wherever there has been any question of adult education, for the last ten years ⁷. It is sufficient here to recall how the principal characteristics of the teaching methods used with adults are related to the philosophy of continuing education.

7. The Conseil has recently published a relatively global viewpoint concerning various consequences of continuing education; See Éléments d'une politique d'éducation des adultes dans le contexte de l'éducation permanente; Québec, Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, 1978.

The expression "continuing education" refers to an overall project whose aim is as much the restructuring of the educational system as it is the developing of every possible means of instruction outside the system. In such a project, man is the agent of his own education through the permanent interplay of action with thought. Education, far from being limited to the period of schooling, should extend into all fields of skill and knowledge, and may be acquired by any number of means, thus bringing about the development of all aspects of the personality. Schooling is not, necessarily, synonymous with education. This is why adult education represents a particularly fertile field for creativity, where the barriers between the usual school resources and a host of others, which may be drawn upon for adult education, are not clearly drawn. .

SUMMARY

The originality in adult education comes more from its methods of communication than from its content.

Indeed, teaching methods in adult education are generally more personalized, more closely adjusted to real needs and the participation of adults. At the same time evaluation is more rigorous. The teacher's role is changed and the personal development of adults.

Adult literacy benefits particularly from this stimulating pedagogy which gets the learner involved. The same is true for popular education, the field closest to the problems of adults and the most apt to bring about original activities and group improvement. The vocational training of adults also benefits from these same dynamic principles of adaption to needs, flexibility of courses, and pragmatism.

Despite all of the efforts made over the last fifteen years to tailor responses to immediate needs, there has not been sufficient research into the means required to meet deeper individual and group requirements.

The future of adult education must be envisaged in terms of continuing education and of research for original teaching methods - both within and outside of the school system.

CHAPTER 5 UNIVERSITY TEACHING

Traditionally, teaching has never occupied an important place at the university level. However, these institutions of higher learning, whose main preoccupation has always been research, are now playing an increasingly important role in teaching, because of the large numbers of young adults and mature students who are seeking admission. All of these desire to improve their educational backgrounds and to prepare themselves to carry on a profession. With the professors, they are contributing more and more to the development of a particular style of teaching upon which the universities have seen fit to comment¹.

1. The Predominance of Lecturing (enseignement magistral)

Common Practice

The university professor, armed with a doctorate or master's degree in his, or her, discipline and related subjects, too often takes for granted that the learning part of teaching is the students' problem.

He or she communicates, as a specialist, with students who are not at the same level, feeling that they have acquired the necessary basic knowledge within college. He or she is more interested in

1. See, for example in the *Revue des sciences de l'éducation*, Documents série 4, *Méthodologie et techniques de l'éducation*, La pédagogie de l'enseignement supérieur, Québec and Ottawa, 1976.

the transmission of knowledge than in teaching as such. This widespread practice leads to the use, among other methods, of the lecture technique².

Sometimes the lecture consists of a description of the results of years of research condensed into a few hours. More often the exposé includes supplementary material in response to the students' questions. In classes which do not exceed thirty students, this practice makes it possible for the students to react, particularly when the lecture is followed by a question period.

The extent to which lecturing predominates varies according to department, cycle and discipline. While it is the most popular approach in the first cycle, its use tends to diminish in the second, particularly in the human sciences. Even though other techniques, such as the seminar, are used at this level, lecturing prevails in most cases in pure and applied science, and in business administration³. An unpublished report submitted to the Conseil in the course of hearings confirms the overall predominance of lecturing and draws attention to the limited utilisation of other approaches to teaching, such as discussions, directed studies and case studies⁴. In the third cycle, thesis preparation is carried on under the supervision of a tutor, in accordance with university tradition.

2. See Tournier, Michèle, Typologie des formules pédagogiques, Québec, Les Editions du Griffon d'argile, inc, 1981, pp. 23-36. See also Gagnon, Marc, Le cours magistral, Université de Montréal, Service pédagogique, 1982, 62 p.

3. See Gouvernement du Québec, Commission d'étude sur les universités, Comité sur l'organisation du système universitaire, Partie III, Mai 1979, pp. 89-93.

4. Report of a work group from the professors' association, Université de Sherbrooke, 12 March, 1982.

Teaching practices are influenced by the professor's status and position in a department. Sessional lecturers (chargés de cours), who are more and more numerous in some universities, have, for example, a very precarious status, and their position in a department is somewhat tenuous. The time they have available, limited often only to class hours, does not facilitate the use of any technique other than the lecture.

Teaching Experiments

The choice of method is up to the individual professor, since there is no formal structure for the training of teachers of this level. Very few professors have followed courses in teacher training. Those who have changed their ways have done so on their own initiative or at the request of students. In some cases the requests have involved confrontation.

Despite the limited training of university professors as teachers, there have been a number of experimental projects, télé-université, simulation with computers, learning contracts, directed studies, problem solving, modular and individual instruction, etc⁵. These experiments do not just involve teaching methods and techniques. In some cases they cover the whole field of learning, the development and evaluation of courses, the evaluation of learning and of

5. See IDEES (Innovations, démarches, expériences dans l'enseignement supérieur), June 1976, Vol.1, No.2 L'innovation dans les universités, May 1977, Vol. II, No 1 Les stratégies de l'innovation pédagogique.

teaching objectives, student growth, etc. These experiments have in no way replaced lecturing, but serve to complement it. Teaching of the lecture type retains its usefulness and, as we have noted, is economical and efficient in many cases.

2. Examples of Discussion and Pedagogical Animation

University Teaching Services

Since 1969 some Québec universities have established university teaching centres or services. First among these were the Service de pédagogie universitaire of Laval, the Centre for Learning and Development at McGill, the Service de pédagogie at the Université de Québec à Montréal and the Service pédagogique of the Université de Montréal.

These university teaching centres and services all have as their objective the improvement of instruction⁶. Their principal activities consist of animation and help in teaching. They carry out these tasks in various ways. For professors who wish to make their teaching more coherent, they assist in the definition of objectives, the utilisation of methods or techniques and in the setting up of a system of evaluation. They offer specialized consultation and access to resources in order to improve teaching. Moreover, teaching by objectives is becoming the preferred method of university teaching. It is to be hoped that, instead of employing a single method almost exclusively for the transmission of knowledge, professors will begin to pay more attention to the

6. See La pédagogie de l'enseignement supérieur, p. 47

Work habits and methods of learning of their students. In actual fact, the intention is to bring the professor to examine his, or her, teaching methods as well as more general questions, such as the integration of theory with practice, the compatibility of teaching methods and the process of cognitive learning, and the reduction of the gap between educational theory and practice.

In order to make their activities better known, the university teaching services publish a magazine, Pédagogiques.⁷ This publication of the Association internationale de pédagogie universitaire makes possible pedagogic discussions which go well beyond the limits of a single university or country. Together, the teaching and research services organize conferences and summer schools to all professionals involved in higher education.

A Precarious and Difficult Situation

Nevertheless, the situation of these centres and services is somewhat precarious, particularly in times of budgetary restrictions. In addition, they cannot be said to enjoy any great degree of importance in the eyes of many professors and administrators. Besides, there is no great hope of benefitting from such services in certain universities. The absence or the abolition of a university teaching service deprives the professors of a very necessary support in their teaching activities.

7. Published since January, 1976, this publication became the official organ of l'Association internationale de pédagogie universitaire in September, 1980.

In addition to experiments initiated by university teaching services, some professors carry on what they, themselves, refer to as "termitage". These professors find the aims of the teaching services unacceptable, their being too greatly influenced by technosystemic models. Like termites, they gnaw away (for want of a better word) from the inside at what they consider to be the tranquil immunity of the traditional university.

There is, for example, the professor who organizes a research seminar with the help of students who are treated as equals. Another may invite former students to act as resource persons. Another may publish students' papers in publications normally reserved for professors. A professor may even come out of isolation and share "his", or "her" students with someone in another discipline. In the final analysis, these are examples of a few professors and students contesting in their own way the dominant teaching methods, and proposing others more human or thoughtful. This is by no means a marginal phenomenon. In its own way, termitage leads professors to question their routine practices and to try other methods, to explore other avenues.

3. The Context of the Professor-student Relationship

The Importance of the Status and Number of Students

The university population has an important influence in various ways on the professor-student relationship and, consequently, upon teaching both within the classroom and outside it.

The very status of the students, which is very diversified, injects a factor of considerable heterogeneity into university affairs. They are a mixture of youth and adults, of full and of part time students. This phenomenon permits us to say "that while it is true that full time students, who do not hold down jobs, are an important group, at the same time they are but *one* group, or *one* category of students among others"⁸. Consequently, the university population is made up of several categories of students for whom their studies are only one activity among others. This heterogeneity produces important differences in terms of intellectual maturity, exceptions and motivation. Disparities in the backgrounds of adult and younger students have an important impact on university teaching. Such differences are very significant for lecturing, since it is generally accepted that homogeneous grouping is necessary for this method to be efficient⁹.

The student population consists of very diversified groups. It is strongly marked by the phenomenon of "massification" and the depersonalization which results. The large numbers with which today's university must cope militates against more personalized university teaching. Outside of the courses which make up their programs, the university is seldom the place where students do their

8. Dandurand, P. et al. Conditions de vie de la population universitaire québécoise, Département de sociologie de l'université de Montréal, May, 1979, unpublished, p. 64.

9. Tournier, M, op cit. p. 45

work. Less than half of them carry on their studies at the university outside of class hours¹⁰.

A Displacement of Student Contestation

The heterogeneity of the university population explains, perhaps, the evolution which has occurred in student contestation and which largely conditions university teaching. After having involved economic matters and then participation in decision making, "the struggles and also the negotiations now involve the existence of departments and how courses are given; they involve more and more teaching, orientation, the content and quality of courses, requirements, methods of evaluation, etc."¹¹ The professor-student relationship tends to be that which prevails during periods of negotiation. Even the objectives of a department may be subject to question. In the case of sessional lecturers, their already precarious status is made even more tenuous by the evaluation carried out by their students.

In attempts to avoid a power struggle, some teaching innovations have aimed at satisfying student demands, by using, for example, the formula of a teaching contract, in trying to make courses more personalized.¹²

Other forms of student contestation, to each of which there is a reaction, find fertile ground at the university and have an

10. Dandurand, P. op. cit., p. 93

11. Ibid, P. 215

12. See Pédagogiques, Vol 1 no 1 September, 1980 pp.4 et seq.

influence on content and teaching. New courses and new programs have, thus, been introduced. The ecology movement has penetrated the university's precincts. More and more is heard of "deprofessionalization". New professional models have come to the fore, such as preventive and community medicine. In *education there have been experiments with open pedagogy, etc.*

4. Practical Training¹³ and Teaching

It would appear that, in order to respond more adequately to new needs, there is movement toward off-campus training. In education (teacher training), in health and applied sciences the practical training, particularly that carried out on the job, has led to the development of a particular pedagogy. The diverse requirements of the labour market and the emergence of differing pedagogic orientations has led to *the development of many forms of practical training.*

In those regions where 90% of the student population is already part of the workforce¹⁴, the need to respond as quickly as possible to the demands of industry, calls for the most practical means of transmitting knowledge; such conditions are not conducive to thorough fundamental training. We must remember, however, that the passing on of applied learning is essential, particularly for young professionals who must adjust to the increasing mobility of the job market.

13. This type of training is the logical equivalent of vocational training at secondary level, and technical training in the cegeps.

14. This is the case with the Centre d'études universitaires du Nord-ouest québécois.

Other university experiments are carried on in close co-operation with industry. There is no hesitation in modifying the usual format of on the job training. For example, the co-operative system¹⁵ provides for alternating sessions on campus and in industry of four months each, starting from the beginning of the training.

Whether it takes the form of the co-operative system or of short courses organized by the university, practical training is based on teaching methods which meet the requirements of the situation. The integration of theory with practice remains the fundamental challenge to university teaching. To be sure, the theoretical courses which make up part of vocational training are supposed to be given in a way that bears on their practical application. But this is not to say that this in any way directly affects the traditional role of the university and the teaching methods of the professors. A gap is often apparent between the theoretical content of courses and the practical sessions where concrete answers are sought for real problems.

Many efforts have been made to solve this important question and to avoid this rupture between the practical and theoretical aspects of professional training. Thus, courses have been replaced with training sessions in cases where such courses ran the risk of being rather ineffective theoretical discussions aimed at the development of a social conscience, as for example, in community medicine.

15. In use at the University of Sherbrooke, since 1966.

There is a tendency to replace lecturing with a tutorial system, intended to ensure continuity of personal and professional training, by means of clinical teaching better adjusted to small groups of students. By scheduling training sessions at regular intervals from the beginning of their preparatory year up to graduation, students are enabled to acquire gradually the elements of their profession. Finally, in order to bring about better integration of basic science and the art of the clinician, some faculties bring together researchers and clinicians, so that professional training combines the indispensable discoveries of science with the requirements of the service demanded by society.

5. Changes that may be foreseen

More and more university professors are becoming involved in attempts to reform and revitalize university teaching, particularly those in the professional faculties and schools. It cannot be said that this is a mass movement¹⁶, but no university can afford to ignore this pressing problem much longer.

An essential condition for the changing of teaching methods is a modification of the professors' conception of their role as it relates to their status. Many of them are of the opinion that the possession of knowledge carries with it the ability to transmit that knowledge. Examples of researchers who are also good teachers are cited in support of this contention.

16. The Service de pédagogie universitaire at Laval University, for example, which has existed since 1972, has involved some 400 of the 1150 professors, without counting the 800 sessional lecturers.

Nevertheless, the facts tend to demonstrate that pedagogy has a place, even at the university level. This point of view emerges as soon as one stops considering the university student as a prototype and as soon as an attempt is made to respond to the real needs of a very diversified clientele.

In one university, where the professors were questioned about the possibility of teacher training, some 80% declared themselves in favour of such a program¹⁷. What was envisaged was, no doubt, something on the lines of the PERFORMA program of the cegeps, where questions of current pedagogy are taken up in short sessions. There was no question of any lengthy period of training leading to a teaching diploma¹⁸.

However, the importance which the universities give to teaching in relation to the other aspects of the professor's role condition this desire for training universities engage the majority of the professors to *teach* in a particular discipline. It is very rare for a professor to be awarded a chair or fellowship on the basis of teaching ability. Lack of advancement in a professor's career is almost always based on an evaluation of research or of the number of scientific papers published.

17. Report of a task force of the Syndicat des professeurs of l'Université de Sherbrooke, presented to the Conseil at a hearing in March, 1982.

18. Gagnon, Marc, in la Revue des Sciences de l'éducation, Les universités sont-ils compétents?, makes an interesting suggestion regarding diversified training. pp. 22-30.

As long as teaching is considered to be a minor aspect of university life, it will be difficult to persuade professors to take steps to improve the quality of their instruction¹⁹.

6. Possible Orientations

No matter what administrative or syndical measures might be adopted in the near or distant future in order to modify university habits, some orientations are worthy of suggestion.

The first of these aims at going beyond the passing on of knowledge in university courses. As the Commission d'étude sur les universités stated: "University education should aim at teaching the student to think for himself, to provide him with the capacity to be his own teacher, rather than at covering all the subject matter."²⁰

A second aims at the development of a teaching approach such that all of the subjects would form a larger whole, such that the various fields or subjects would come together and encourage integrated instruction. Such an approach to teaching is apt to encourage, as much on the part of students as of professors, a spirit of synthesis, intellectual discipline and interdisciplinarity. This is already the case in some faculties, such as medicine, for example, where problem solving is integrated with several specialities and disciplines.

19. See the Opinion of the Conseil for the Ministre de l'éducation on The Role of the University Professor, October 1982.

20. Gouvernement du Québec, Commission d'étude sur les universités, Comité d'étude sur l'organisation du système universitaire, Part III, 1979, p. 81.

Discussion of the improvement of university teaching may begin at the same time as the development of programs, with such questions as the following: should courses be organized in terms of a common trunk, or as units taken in various faculties? Should groups be organized on the sole basis of student choice or in terms of professional training? According to the replies to these questions, the teaching approaches could differ considerably because of choice of courses and student groups.

The future of university teaching depends, in the final analysis, more on serious discussion at the practical level than on some utopic conception which might be suddenly imposed on an institution. Pedagogic innovation is not absent from this rarefied level or higher learning, even if there be those who see no need for change in university affairs. In conclusion, we may only hope that the universities, go often the source of renewal for other levels of teaching, may themselves be the beneficiaries of such a phenomenon.

SUMMARY

Teaching has always been of secondary importance at the university level. In the first cycle it usually consists of lecturing or large group instruction which little consideration of the needs of individual students. It is more diversified in the second and higher cycles.

Much of the evolution in pedagogy which is apparent at the university is the fruit of the initiative of individual professors responsive to the needs of students. In some cases isolated individuals carry on what is known as "termitage" and stimulate pedagogic initiatives. However, the university teaching services are playing a more diversified and efficient role, even though their existence seems quite precarious.

The students, as much through their diversity and maturity, as through their capacity for contestation, have an impact on university teaching and often contribute to a lessening of such phenomena as "massification" and the depersonalization of teaching. Their contestation centres more and more on the university teaching services and often stimulates change.

The problem of how best to prepare students for professional practice requires some radically new solutions. Among the possibilities are training off-campus, or on the job, co-operate systems, or short sessions leading to professional practice, etc.

While there is some interest in pedagogy at various levels, it has not yet become a matter of major concern to the universities. Steps must be taken to bring about a change in attitudes concerning the teaching role of the professor and the kind of training needed to meet his, or her, needs. To this end, ways must be found to go beyond the transmission of knowledge, to place this activity in a larger context and to stimulate discussion of practical considerations.

PART TWO

AVENUES FOR THE RENEWAL OF TEACHING

Up to this point the Conseil has been content with a definition of the characteristics of current pedagogy at the various levels of the school system. It has limited itself to the most readily apparent and common aspects of teaching. It carried out this general survey in order to be in a position to respond to the following question: where is it possible and desirable to go from here?

This interrogation, to which there is no ready answer, refers to the immediate future and concerns every educator. The Conseil proposes to carry out a serious study of the question in order to *influence the changes* that the need for action, instruction and education requires. The subject will be examined in terms of those aspects which are common to several levels or sectors of education, rather than in terms of each level of instruction. Such an integrated approach should not prevent the reader from seeing how his, or her, particular situation is involved.

Pedagogic improvement may be the result of a variety of very different measures arising from research or discussion. One possibility arises from *an examination of various pedagogic models and the most thoughtful possible choice of an orientation* which combines pedagogic practice with a conception of knowledge, man and society. This first approach lays emphasis on the aims of education and invites educators to examine their pedagogic beliefs.

A second approach starts from an *awareness of the problems with*

which the schools are faced and has two objectives. The first consists of an examination of the major overall problems - for example disadvantaged neighbourhoods, dropping out, lack of motivation - and of suggesting possible solutions. The second, and more immediately pragmatic, focusses on the choice of more varied, refined and efficient ways of carrying out the daily teaching assignment.

Examination of the future of pedagogy easily lends itself to these types of approach. In fact they are complementary and not mutually exclusive. Each contributes to the solution of the pedagogic problems encountered in the schools. It is in this spirit and on a basis of what can be observed that this part of the report attempts to establish what is possible and desirable, in terms of changing pedagogic practices and of the means which must be made available in the years ahead. The Conseil prefers to explore a number of avenues of pedagogic evolution, rather than limiting itself to only one, leaving the final choice of how to constantly improve their teaching techniques to the educators concerned.

CHAPTER 6 THE IMPLICIT EFFECTS OF TEACHING

The Implicit Transmission of Values

The constant and manifold efforts for renewal which are apparent at every level of the educational system arise, in part, from a critical analysis of that which pedagogy communicates implicitly, unknown to the teachers. It is true that every teaching act inevitably produces an effect which is either positive or negative, a result which is either educational or the opposite. An awareness of those things which are implicit leads to a clear understanding of the contradiction which may be noted between what is communicated implicitly and explicit objectives.

In effect, at the same time as it transmits knowledge, the school inculcates values and influences behaviour. There is even more to it; the choice of what shall be taught and how to teach it sanctions one form of behaviour at the expense of another. The school may encourage the development in the child of a passive attitude, of kowtowing to the «master». On the other hand, it may also stimulate critical thought and invite the child to become an independent and responsible human being.

The school instructs and at the same time it educates, in the true sense of the word, that is, it develops the child's personality. Moreover, society is present in both of these approaches;

it plays a part in the choice of what shall be taught and of which values shall be inculcated.

Discussion of the «hidden curriculum»¹ has drawn particular attention to the effects of a species of «industrialization» of the schools². It would appear that the compartmentalization of activities, the segmentation of time, over-specialization and the multiplication of simple executive roles, have led to the adoption of conformist attitudes on the part of staff and students, rather than self confidence, originality and warm human relationships...

The very way in which the school is run exerts an influence. Form and content cannot be separated. The organization of the teaching institution, the general climate, including such things as the way in which classes are held, or courses given, or labs and activities are run, all exert an influence. *Pedagogy cannot be neutral*. Every school of pedagogy is based, consciously or otherwise, on a conception of man. The thoughtful person is aware that any teaching act implicitly involves a variety of

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1. Richer, Stephen, Toward a Radical Pedagogy, Interchange, Vol 2 no 4 (1981) pp. 46-63. This is a particularly clear analysis of individualism and co-operation, of egalitarianism and critical thinking from the point of view of the «Hidden curriculum».
 2. The researchers of OCDE, were particularly struck by the extreme degree of industrialization of the schools, in their examination of educational policies in the four main regions of Canada. See: Canada. Examen des politiques nationales de l'éducation, Paris, OCDE, 1976, pp. 115-120.

values. It is not difficult to show that, on both the intellectual and social level, the implicit often contradicts the explicit. Thus, the student who is asked to consider a given topic, to follow a logical argument and to arrive at a personal assessment, will often be influenced by the teacher's attitude, and try to discover what the teacher wants him, or her, to say, write, or appear to believe. The intellectual values, such as a critical sense, awareness of ignorance and careful reasoning and explanation, have naturally a preponderant place in day to day pedagogy. However, they are not always cultivated by the way classes are conducted.

As far as social values are concerned, there is often little correlation between official pronouncements and practice. Teachers have been known to talk about respect for others, without practising it themselves. Again, it is possible to explain the theory of democracy while being guilty of despotism. In this way the contradiction between what is said in school and what is done creates difficulties for young people in learning about their rights and civic responsibilities and in participation in community organizations.

All aspects of teaching require careful study and critical examination *because of their relationship to the promotion of values. These must be in harmony with the stated objectives of education.*

The Question of Power

In education, the term «master» differs in meaning from one speaker to another, and from one milieu to another. It may have

connotations of mastery, the perfecting of an art or the incarnation of a model. It may also refer to the schoolmaster's domination of his or her students. This is, in a nutshell, the problem of «power» in education, particularly at the compulsory levels.

In some milieux the phenomenon is expressed in such a way as to render impossible any reciprocity in communication between master and student. There is even a risk that the problems of daily discipline, which some teachers find almost unbearable may lead to aggressive reflex actions. The pedagogic relationship is often compromised by routine, fatigue, the temptation to do the minimum and a climate of violence. It may even become a *relationship of domination*.

The Pupil and the Concept of Normality

One of the traps into which teachers may fall is that of looking at pupils in terms of what is held to be normal and of ignoring all those who do not fit this pattern. The *normal*, or what is considered to be such, becomes the rule. Those who do not conform of this mean, or average, find themselves sidelined.

The more a pupil resembles the others, the greater the extent to which his, or her, social and cultural background resembles that of the educator, the fewer the problems he, or she, is apt to encounter. The opposite is also true. The more a pupil expresses a personality and behaviour pattern of his, or her, own, and the greater the gap between him, or her, and the educator, the less he, or she, meets the criteria of normality. This can make

adjustment to the school situation very difficult, and vice-versa.

In short, there is a tendency toward a somewhat myopic conception of the pupils of whatever level, which ignores their aspirations as human beings and sees them only in terms of «production» and school achievement. Thus, there are teachers, of subjects such as mathematics and science, who «fail» a fair percentage of their students in principle, whether they are well prepared or not, in order to maintain their reputation as «good» teachers. We are too often content simply to separate those capable of going ahead from those who cannot, to see that they are well classified, rather than to provide individual help to those who need it. Thus, the school becomes a place of elimination and selection rather than one for the development of each individual's potential.

The use of average learning rate, of average performance and of average cultural baggage as a *norm* often leads to behaviour which involves rejection and exclusion. This sidetracking of young people for the sake of academic norms is a type of discrimination which must be banished from the schools.

On the other hand, the teacher who sees each student as an individual worthy of respect, will go out of his or her way to ensure that failure in a single subject does not lead to the loss of a school year, or to more serious complications. The temptation to see problem students as marginal during committee study of their cases must be resisted. To take steps to ensure that the pupil's academic problems are overcome as they arise, so as not to cause further trouble, is a preoccupation which should be basic to any pedagogy.

Student Problems: A Challenge to Pedagogic Practice

Consideration of the consequences of pedagogic practice, explicit or otherwise, provides any individual or group with a useful tool for the renewal and improvement of teaching. Such study would lead to greater pedagogic renewal and efficiency were it to be based on an analysis of the real problems faced by students.

There might, thus, be some understanding of the *lack of motivation* which seems almost endemic in some parts of the school system. It may very well be that this lack of interest in school arises from the irrelevance of classroom activities to daily life, and from attempting to force square pegs into round holes. Boredom and the tendency toward minimum effort are symptoms of a latent problem which may become serious if neglected.

Working with pupils who lack motivation is not easy. It is a very trying situation for a teacher and may lead to resignation or indifference. The effect of this on the pupil is even more serious. He or she begins to feel that no one is listening to questions, that no one cares, that there is no encouragement to improve, and that there is no one to whom to take problems. Surveys of how secondary school students view the climate of their schools provide a pretty grim picture³. Efforts must be made to bring the focus

3. For a more detailed study see the Opinion of the Conseil: Life in Secondary School, A Springtime of Frustrations and Hopes, April 7th, 1982.

of teaching back to the problems of individuals and groups as well to questions of equipment, methods and organization.

The question of the school and its responsibilities in economically disadvantaged neighbourhoods poses a fundamental problem for pedagogic practice. Such communities invite study of the characteristics of those who live there and of their problems, as well as of the degree of coherence between the objectives sought and the means at hand. The question must be studied and analysed, not in terms of the difficulties which must be surmounted, but in terms of the problems which groups and individuals must face. This is why pedagogic practice would improve were it to apply the following rule: to know and recognize students from disadvantaged neighborhoods as having a particular identity of their own and to extend pedagogy to include more than the difficulties faces by educators.

In putting people before school organization educators would be led to use a system of evaluation which would increase the responsibility of the learner, be better adapted to his or her progress, and which would help in the definition of problem areas.

It is vital that the largest number possible make the greatest possible progress, rather than that the course be «covered» at any cost. If the teacher feels overwhelmed by the course of study, the pupil feels doubly so... If the teacher has mastered the subject matter, teaching will be geared to the pupils' progress in terms of discovery and comprehension.

Metaphors such as the «school of hard knocks» or the «parallel school» refer, for the most part, to all that which influences the attitudes, concepts and behaviour patterns which children and adults absorb from daily life. Awareness of the «hidden curriculum» in school activity refers to the same phenomenon. In addition to the particular objective of a lesson, exercise or laboratory session, pedagogic activity transmits, often implicitly, attitudes, concepts and values. Though these are seldom explicit at the time, they so become in the future. This situation can only be avoided if teaching is approached with a clear mind and critical spirit.

Such striving for clarity leads to the adoption of an analogous perspective in the consideration of the problems to be faced. The non-critical attitude calls for accepting problems as an inconvenience for the teacher, of deploring their effects on the school or college, etc. A critical attitude, on the other hand, approaches problems in terms of who is affected by them. Is it the slow student, motiveless and aimless youth, the brighter student, the foreign student, the adult facing retraining, the young person or adult who finds it difficult to speak out, or to carry on a discussion, etc? There is too great a tendency for the school and educators to retreat when brought into contact with the problems faced by some groups and individuals in learning and developing both personally and professionally. On the contrary, such problems must be seen as challenges to pedagogy.

CHAPTER 7 MAIN CURRENTS IN EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT

Analysis of pedagogic practice leads to the consideration of trends in current educational thought. Despite their generally theoretical nature, these tendencies can be of assistance in the understanding, examining and orienting of pedagogic practice.

Our discussion will be carried on under two headings: a brief review of educational thinking and the implications of any choice of pedagogic model.

1. In Retrospect

Interest in education has remained high in Québec since the work of the Parent Commission; there has been no lack of debate on the subject. It is not our intention here to summarize all that has been said and done over the last twenty years. The brief summary which follows attempts only to facilitate comprehension of the current situation by referring to some of the main trends in educational thinking which have affected Québec schools.

Some Activist and Humanistic Pedagogic Trends

Activist and Cooperative Pedagogy

Regulation 1 of the *Ministre de l'Éducation* was the first concrete indication of a desire to reform elementary and secondary education. *The Co-operative School: Polyvalence and Continuous Progress*, which was published by the *ministère de l'Éducation*, has this to say about Regulation 1:

«The elementary school whose role is limited to teaching reading, writing and arithmetic in order that each person may get along in life, is outmoded. The elementary school is anochronistic if it limits itself to providing the pupil with so little, instead of helping him to acquire the firm intellectual background required for almost unlimited development; it is inadequate if it neglects the child's manual and artistic aptitudes. It is too rigid when it forces all children to get to the same point by the same route» (p. 15).

In adopting this position of the Parent Report (Volume 2, no 169) the government redefined the aims of education. In consequence it encouraged activist and cooperative pedagogy, and, accordingly, it revised the status of teachers:

«The Department of Education believes, further, that the establishing of a system of education aimed at the development of autonomy, a spirit of initiative and freedom for pupils, requires that the teachers themselves benefit from that autonomy, initiative and freedom which they are called upon to develop in their students» (p. 11).

This explains why the years 1964 to 1968 were those of acclimatization to *activist pedagogy*, largely inspired by the work of Célestin Freinet in France. It will be recalled that activist pedagogy is at the opposite pole from silent and passive listening. In elementary teaching, where it was first developed, it encourages spontaneity and curiosity. The children collaborate, often in groups, in projects which are then discussed in class.

The Organic Conception of Education

The year 1968, which will be remembered as one of Student contestation in the West, particularly at the college level in Québec, saw the entry on the pedagogic scene of *non-directive teaching*. The clinical psychologist Rogers may be considered as the father of this school of thought. The emergence at the same time of another school of thought promoting originality and marginality must not be overlooked. This was the period when young people became involved in counter-culture and withdrew into communes. Free schools, modelled after Summerhill, came into being at the same time. Non-directive pedagogy was the reflection in the schools of a general questioning of authority and of conformity, in favour of collective decision making, the expression of emotions and spontaneity.

The non-directive educational model was introduced in Québec in a particular way, through the publication of a Report of the Conseil supérieur de l'éducation entitled *Educational Activity*. As its title suggests, the main thesis of the document involves making the child, or other learner, the prime mover in his, or her, own education and the main actor in the learning process. The other agents, the teachers in particular, are seen as aides or resource persons, who carry out their role perfectly, to the extent that they are able to respond to needs arising from the personal dynamism of someone wishing to learn. This conception of education is referred to as «organic», as opposed to the «mechanistic» conception wherein the requirements of school organization and administrative norms predominate. The «organic»

conception, as such, postulates recognition of the inner dynamism of the individual, to which organizational and administrative considerations are «organically» related. The application of this pedagogic model to adult education is discussed at length in the Report of l'Opération Départ Montréal¹.

Open Pedagogy²

At the beginning of the 1970's, *open pedagogy* came into vogue. Open pedagogy is defined in terms of a flexible approach involving learning activities which are, in part, unplanned. It is also marked by an attempt to relate the subject matter to the experience of the group and its out-of-school environment. This school of thought follows logically from activist pedagogy and the organic conception of education. It is more or less implicitly promoted in Regulation 7 and the corresponding guides³. This school of thought places great importance on the creation of an environment which stimulates curiosity, research and discovery.

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1. When it was set up, Opération Départ was intended to assess Québec's needs in adult education. The team responsible for the metropolitan area went farther in its study of the conception of education which should apply to adult education.
 2. An excellent exposé of this conception of education will be found in Paré, André: Pédagogie ouverte et créativité, 3 vols., Montréal, édition NHP, 1977, The magazine Pédagogie ouverte may also be consulted with profit.
 3. See, for example: Les activités de détente et de la formation à l'élémentaire, MEQ, Québec, 1972 and L'école milieu de vie (2) élémentaire, MEQ, Québec 1975.

As does activist pedagogy, it encourages teaching through a variety of projects of interest to individuals. In adult education, or andragogy, to use a term which is slowly being accepted, the same principles are applied when referring to pedagogy of a problem solving nature⁴.

Further Confirmation of these Trends

The move towards activist and cooperative pedagogy brought about an intense effort to involve and train teachers through short courses known as SEMEA (Sessions pour les méthodes d'éducation active). *Les Chantiers Pédagogiques* was established as a network of communication and discussion of the same ideas, and published an educational magazine. *L'association québécoise pour l'éducation active* (AQEA) was at the time closely associated with teachers' associations and pedagogic movements as part of the *Conseil pédagogique interdisciplinaire*, which was itself supported by the C.I.C. (Corporation des instituteurs catholiques) which later became the Centrale de l'enseignement du Québec. The important place which activist pedagogy occupies today in elementary school classes is the result of work carried on since the middle 60's.

It must be emphasized that the challenge to the «mechanistic» concept of education which followed in the wake of the report of the Conseil supérieur de l'éducation on educational activity, has contributed greatly, at least in elementary school teaching, to

4. In a remarkable work, Claude Couillard and François Allaire make an impassioned plea in this sense: Le temps d'apprendre, Québec, ministère de l'Éducation, pp. 39-55.

the development of relationships between teachers and pupils which are less authoritarian and less unilateral, while being more open, warmer and more concerned with individuals. While they are less apparent, similar teacher-pupil relationships exist at other levels.

The concept of «Ecole milieu de vie» led to the adoption, for a short time, of the open area style of elementary school. It led to another perception of awareness activities. They were looked upon as other than basic subjects leading to the acquisition of certain skills. As is well known, from this developed a well articulated and very dynamic school of pedagogic thinking which applied the principles of *open pedagogy*.

Unfortunately, there is little evidence of these trends in educational thinking in secondary school teaching. Can this be because the teacher's first consideration is his, or her, speciality, and pedagogy comes a long way down on the list of preoccupations?

Adult education, on the other hand, has remained very open to similar schools of thought. This sector has been particularly successful in influencing the «teaching of teachers» by urging them to take into account the personal resources and dynamism of the adult student. This has had a profound effect on teaching methods. Similarly, priority has been given to the acquisition of knowledge and related skills. A vague exposure to learning which leaves few durable traces has not been deemed sufficient. At the university level the debates of the 60's were carried on at first in the faculties of education and of human sciences, before percolating to other faculties and departments.

Other Trends

Throughout the 70's, activist pedagogy, the organic conception of education and open pedagogy remained very much alive. They have, however been subject to more and more competition because of renewed interest in systematic pedagogy arising from the increased use of teaching by objectives, more frequent reference to the taxonomy of educational objectives and the emergence of social criticism in pedagogic discussions. This latter has developed here particularly as a result of educational animation carried on by the Central de l'enseignement du Québec regarding problems of social inequality as seen from the school and within the school. This tendency coincides with the pedagogic thinking of Paolo Freire⁵; this is why it is often referred to as the awareness of situations to be changed and which tends to bring out a certain degree of militancy in its adherents.

The «Systematic» Model

By «systematic» or »systemic» we refer to that pedagogic practice which aims to plan every element of the learning process as one would plan a sophisticated process of technological production. The trend toward systematic pedagogy spreads along three routes: evaluation, the development of courses and the individualization of teaching. There is no doubt that its success has been largely due to the relative ease with which it permits the identification of finally graduated learning objectives. Many have been quick to identify this pedagogic model with a behaviourist conception

5. See, in particular, Pédagogie des opprimés, Paris, éd. Maspero, 1971.

of education which emphasizes behaviour modification. Regardless of its disputed parentage, the appearance of this pedagogic model has been the cause of furious debates and even, it would appear, of the formation of rival clans in certain teacher training institutions.

Some influence of this pedagogic model is currently apparent in the structure of most of the courses of study, particularly in those developed for general education and the vocational training of adults at the pre-college level. Its influence is also evident in projects for the individualization of teaching developed in certain schools: Vanier in Ville Laval and Jacques-Rousseau in Chambly, at the secondary level; Notre-Dame-du-Sacré-Coeur in Sainte-Foy, with its «Sage» project (Système d'apprentissage géré par l'étudiant)⁶, as well as in other schools which have adopted this system. The systematic approach appears to enjoy a certain prestige at the university level, particularly among the staff of university teaching services.

The Pedagogy of Awareness

The schools of thought which have been briefly summarized to this point do not fail to take into account the aims of education. They do not, however, indicate the type of society upon which

6. Yves Bégin and Gilles Dussault have recently published SAGE: un pas vers l'école de demain, Québec, PUD, 1982. This is a very clear explanation of the individualization involved.

they are based. The pedagogy of awareness operates in a way opposite from the other: first of all it established the «other» society which is to be encouraged⁷, then the sort of school which might speed its coming and an appropriate pedagogy⁸.

This school of thought has important affinities with the institutional pedagogy developed in France. Both are centred on the group and the collectivity; they owe more to educational sociology and the study of group phenomena than to the psychology of learning and communication. This new trend has, nevertheless, some affinity with the position expressed by the Conseil in *The Social Role of the School*⁹. In this document the Conseil keeps its distance from a too exclusively psychological view of pedagogy and education¹⁰.

Recent Clarification of the Principal Pedagogic Models

To what extent to today's educators follow a particular pedagogic model or conception of education? A recent socio-pedagogic survey

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7. See Ecole et lutte de classes au Québec, CEQ, 1974.
 8. Claude Escande, Les classes sociales au CÉGEP, Montréal, Editions Parti-Pris, 1973.
 9. Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, Québec 1981.
 10. A systematic comparison of the pédagogie of awareness with other models of contemporary pedagogy is to be found in Ginette Lépine, Analyse des modèles utilisés en éducation au Québec, Montréal, Editions Co-op., Albert St-Martin, 1977.

of the teaching profession, from kindergarten to the end of secondary school provides very precise answers on the basis of data collected in the Spring of 1979¹¹. It must be remembered, however, that no matter how valid a statistical portrait may be for a group, it in no way provides a valid image of each of its members.

The study provides information concerning the pedagogic practices of educators; this has already been mentioned in Part I (Chapter 1). The picture that emerges from the data collected is one of a majority who follow what the authors of the study refer to as the *mechanistic model*. This involves relatively uniform group instruction, more or less authoritarian attitudes, an accent on normative evaluation which is more comparative than criterion-reference, stress on discipline and emphasis on the course of study. Further, the survey investigates teachers' opinions, not only concerning what is being done, but concerning also what should be done. *This reveals a marked contrast between what educators would like to do and what they are doing.* In fact, even though only 10% of teachers appear to identify their daily work with an organic model, the survey shows that a strong minority (some 40%) identify ideally with an organic conception of education, adopt its principles and share its beliefs and values. The same analysis indicates that a much smaller minority identify themselves clearly with the pedagogy of awareness model¹².

11. Les enseignantes et les enseignants du Québec. Une étude socio-pédagogique. Vol. 4: Valeurs éducationnelles, Service de la recherche, MEQ, 1081, 180 pp.

12. Ibid., pp. 57 and 129.

These data, particularly those relating to the trend supporting pedagogy of the «organic» type, correlate very neatly with perceptions and opinions collected elsewhere. It would, then, appear that today's teachers are greatly influenced by the values and beliefs pertaining to open pedagogy, even though they do not consciously apply them in their daily work. It seems, however that this trend exerts a more significant influence on attitudes and relations between teachers and pupils than it does on materials and teaching methods¹³.

At this point it is important to realize that, *where conditions are favourable, a pedagogic model based on the organic conception of education is capable of influencing and guiding important and positive changes in educational practice.* Over the last ten years, this organic conception has, itself, evolved. When it first appeared, as part of Opération Départ (Montréal), there was a rush to emphasize the emotional and social aspects of life at the expense of the intellectual component of learning. Subsequently, work carried on at the *Centre de développement en environnement scolaire*, directed by M. Pierre Angers, gradually drew attention to an analysis of the steps in the learning process: discovery, intuition, systematization and understanding¹⁴. The application of the organic conception in classes of a number

13. See pp. 15, 74, 94 etc.

14. Angers, Pierre, Les modèles de l'institution scolaire, CDES, Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières, 1977.

of elementary schools in the Sorel region, in terms of the integration of subject matter in learning experiences based on group projects, clearly demonstrates a convergence, or even a *symbiosis*, between learning and personality development¹⁵.

2. What is at Stake in the Choice of Pedagogic Models

The Dependence and Partial Autonomy of Pedagogy

The various schools of thought that have been mentioned are subject to many pressures. Influenced by many factors, they reflect the culture, thought processes and values of a given milieu; in turn they have an effect on the environment, society and its future.

No pedagogy is independent, absolutely free of any outside influence. Hence, the importance of identifying *what «determines» and influences pedagogic practice*, that is to say the working conditions of the educator, as well as the economic situation or, even, what is expected of teachers. At the same time, discussion of what it is that directs it along a given path is equally important. In any pedagogic practice the two forces meet: the orientation which it receives, and the constraints to which it is subject. This is why there is no such thing as *neutral pedagogy*, pedagogy which is

15. See Angers, Pierre and Bouchard, Colette: L'activité éducative: une théorie, une pratique. La mise en oeuvre du projet d'intégration. This working document outlines the basis for these classes.

not influenced and which does not, in return, influence individuals and society as a whole. This dynamic interdependence confirms in another way what was suggested by our examination of the implicit effects of pedagogic practice¹⁶.

Were pedagogy the simple result of various forms of conditioning, the question which follows, that of making a deliberate choice among the multiplicity of possible pedagogic models and orientations, would make no sense.

Awareness of the «hidden curriculum» enables us to perceive how certain negative characteristics of society have become part of school life, often as a result of how schools are organized and the attitudes of these involved. Such unfortunate examples as racism, the sidetracking of those considered «too different», the abuse of power and strength in the face of rights, the rule of minimum effort and the substitution of competition for mutual assistance, come to mind. What characterises the principal pedagogic models farthest removed from current teaching methods, is their deliberate option for a counteracting of the negative aspects of the society round about. In some ways they postulate that pedagogy is indissociable from a system of personal values and social characteristics. Any pedagogic practice must be consciously chosen and oriented in terms, first, on a conception that sees men and women as more authentic, more active, more

16. Vide supra p. 88

complete and autonomous and less subject to events and circumstances; and secondly, in terms of a conception of a society which may be reconciled with this notion of the personality and which makes it possible.

The process of choosing a pedagogic model which might stimulate renewal is no easy matter. An attempt has been made in the present text to bring out those points of view which might be of assistance in the making of a clear and reasoned choice. No attempt has been made to present a single possibility and to discredit all others. We have simply tried to provide points of reference for those desiring to be more informed and critical and, at the same time, more responsible.

Pluralism an Asset

Brief reference has been made to the principal schools of thought which have influenced the pedagogic debate of the last fifteen years. No one can deny the existence therein of a pluralism of ideas, opinions and purposes. At the same time attention has been drawn to the diverse ways in which teachers express their choice of educational concepts and values. All of this goes to show the relative permanence with which a pluralism of pedagogic ideas has taken root.

It may be said, nevertheless, that in today's debate there is less polarization of analysis. Polarization is the tendency to think in terms of opposites, of either... or, to set up two models as the two opposed poles of a sphere, such that one may not leave

one without approaching the other. Polarization comes from a dualistic attitude, which often tends to place all the good on one side and all the bad on the other.

The confrontations which marked the years 1965 to 1975 are sound evidence of such polarization. They often took the form of the pursuit of a cause, almost of crusades. Much effort was expended to make those who thought «otherwise» feel guilty. Many a debate for or against the organic conception of education, for or against «the measurable objectives of behaviour», for or against «the school at the service of the working class» were carried on as though the *de facto* pluralism was something to be deplored. These attitudes, which seemed to draw upon a nostalgia for a lost unanimity, vitiated the quality of the discussions; to some extent they may have rendered them sterile.

As this tiresome tendency toward polarization diminishes, it is, nevertheless, necessary to avoid the opposite trap of eclecticism. The universal reconciliation of opposites is not necessarily more valid or more fertile than those debates which often betrayed a secret appetite for ideological monopoly. This is not to say that pluralism does not pose some problems. It faces pedagogy with two important questions. First, is there a limit to pluralism, beyond which one no longer educates? Secondly, are all pedagogic models equally acceptable?

To provide a useful answer to the second question would require, at this point, a critical analysis of each of the models to be found in Québec schools at the present moment. Such a study is

more a matter for specialized research than for this report. It is, however, possible to identify, in an official document, such as the *Schools of Québec*, for example, descriptions of aims and values which exclude no pedagogic model. *Humanistic values*, such as love of beauty, the ability to communicate experience, creativity are mentioned. Reference is made to *systematic values*, such as a sense of method, love of work well done, and a sense of effort and discipline. Such *conscience related values* as critical judgment, a sense of democracy and team spirit are listed.

As long as the models do not become irreconcilable ideological systems, the pedagogic practices developed from them remain open and provide a basis for truly integrated training. Models, trends and pedagogic practices must be challenged to the extent that they radically contradict the recognized and accepted values of a society. Any pedagogy which, for example, aims at indoctrination, or interferes with student creativity should be banned from a democratic society, like that of Québec. Thus, it is only when a pedagogic model is in direct conflict with the recognized and accepted values of a society that the limit is reached and there is no further education. This is how the Conseil would reply to the first question.

Educational Models and Social Projects

Many local initiatives, particularly those based on a systematic

model of the order, for example of mastery learning¹⁷ or of the «individualization of teaching» type, such as SAGE, have been attacked and disqualified because they did not tend to produce the type of man or woman which some see as needed for the society of tomorrow.

Every pedagogic model relies upon a conception of knowledge and of how it is acquired (the psychology of learning and of intellectual comprehension), a conception of the personality and a conception of society. Thus, a pedagogic model could have a very practical basis, or, at the other extreme be founded on a variety of the theoretical concepts¹⁸ (materialism, idealism, dialecticism, spiritualism as they apply to the personality). Thus, we come upon deep *pedagogic beliefs*, closely related to an existential choice of values.

17. Mastery learning is the teaching practice inspired by Benjamin Bloom's research hypotheses on the rhythms of learning and on the possibility of influencing educational factors (ways of learning, requirements for specific learning, use of time, etc.) in such a way as to reduce greatly the chances of failure and the wide divergences in the rhythm of learning. See Yves Bégin and Gilles Dussault's article «La pédagogie de la maîtrise ou la découverte du bon enseignement» Vie pédagogique, no 10, Décembre 1980, pp 4-6.

18. Jean Proulx has placed these tendencies in the perspective of modern philosophy in Le projet éducatif québécois, Québec, CSE, 1980.

Some interesting research has been done on this subject in Québec. Its conclusions are to be found in *Les options en éducation*¹⁹. This research, following the thesis of actionalist sociology of Alain Touraine, develops first the interpretation of the coherence between «conventional» pedagogy and the general climate («paradigme socio-culturel») of industrial society with its effect on power on «doing», on having, on knowing, and on the *group-being* (*être-ensemble*) in society. The authors then develop other relationships based on educational *options* centred on the personality or centred on the group (institutional pedagogy). They finally present a pedagogic model in harmony with the socio-political notion of «new democratic communities», decentralized, pluralistic, more livable (*conviviales*) than existing industrial society.

The proposal or thesis of these authors is still too recent to have had any noticeable impact on pedagogic practice. However, it does have some merit in that it systematizes the relationship which exists between society and pedagogic choice²⁰. When one examines other societies, the concordance between political priorities and educational policies is obvious. Whether it be American, Austrian, Dutch, East German, or French, education

19. Valois, Paul, and Bertrand, Yves, Les options en éducation, Québec, MEQ, 1980, 471 pp.

20. A summary of this report appeared in MEQNEWS, no 67, May 1982, under the title Choice of School: Choice of Society, pp 11-15.

inevitably shows evidence of the consensus and conflicts of such society²¹. Québec education is certainly no exception. One feels within it the need to ensure coherence between the activities of the Québec schools and the society from which they spring. Some on the officially recognized aims of education would become more meaningful were educators to re-interpret them in the light of a stricter understanding of the links between the school and society.

They are indications which lead one to believe that we are gradually getting away from an understanding of the aims of education which is centred too exclusively on personal belief and growth, in favour of an understanding which requires that the schools produce individuals capable of living together, of gradually taking on their responsibilities and of taking a hand in the solution of social problems of collective concern.

In the new elementary and secondary courses of study, whether it be physical education, biology, ecology, history or economics, the accent is placed more and more on social attitudes and behaviour. It is only natural that the «instructions for use», to return to pedagogy in its most restricted sense, be in harmony with such content.

Similar stirrings are apparent at the post-obligatory level: a

21. The analysis of national education policies undertaken by OCDE clearly indicates these educational differences based on social differences.

literacy program aimed at social reintegration; the search for greater social and economic awareness among the least fortunate; an insistence on an understanding of living conditions and their effects in medical and psychiatric training programs; an awareness of social and economic needs of the region on the part of the adult education services of some colleges and schools boards²². The increasing involvement of the universities in community services is another indication of greater awareness of the relationships which should exist between education and social choice.

From this point of view, it is increasingly important that teaching be open to questions concerning the future. The accent that has been placed on social studies at the secondary level in recent years is a straw in the wind. The approach must, however, be taken in a way that does not limit it to a given subject. The efforts towards synthesis in contemporary science and culture provide increased evidence of such openness by their insistence on social and environmental interdependence.

It is not the place of the Conseil to make a choice among the manifold theses which are being developed in Québec, and elsewhere, and which issue grave warning of what the future will hold if certain steps are not taken in time²³. What is important is to

22. The collaboration carried on by the teaching institutions of Bas Saint-Laurent are a good example of the turn around in pedagogic practice.

23. In this perspectives, see: Julien, P.A., Lamonde, P. and Latouche D.; Québec 2001: une société refroidie? Montréal, Editions du Boréal Express, 1976.

continue our discussion of educational choices, of the aims to be followed, of what should be the content and of practical pedagogy²⁴.

There can be little doubt that pedagogy and the school are in a position to positively influence the future of the collectivity. For the last ten years pedagogic belief has been markedly pessimistic: the school will not change much, it was said, if one takes into account all the other factors affecting an individual's academic future. Today's questioning of such an overall judgement, encourages a return to a less pessimistic and defeatist attitude²⁵. The conviction, which is becoming more and more common, that *the school and pedagogy itself count for something in the determination of our future* strengthens the feeling that it is both possible and important to renew pedagogic practice. The critical examination of pedagogic practices is an invitation to action rather than to defeatism.

24. It will be recalled that the Report on the Teaching of the Arts, commonly called the Rioux Report, posed these questions as early as 1970. This was also the idea of J. Grand'Maison: Pour une pédagogie sociale d'auto-développement en éducation, Montréal, éd. Stanké, 1976. Valois and Bertrand, In Les options en éducation, gathered together much of the research on this theme done internationally.

25. See, in particular, Trottier, Claude: L'impact des facteurs scolaires sur la réussite des étudiants au niveau secondaire: perspectives d'analyse et avenues de recherche; dans la Revue des sciences de l'éducation, vol VII, no 2 (1981) pp. 287 to 298.

SUMMARY

It is impossible to understand the evolution and the diversity of pedagogic practices, from the university to the «little red school house», without considering the complex influence exerted by the various schools of thought that have marked them.

Brief reference has been made to these debates in order to bring out the manner in which any discussion of pedagogic practice is inevitably connected to pedagogy both as a theory and as a technique.

The diverse conceptions of education which co-exist in our society demonstrate very well that the most important choices do not concern only professional teachers.

Attention has been focussed on what is at stake in the choice of pedagogic models. In the extreme case, a method which is known to be effective, may be discarded because it conflicts with a more general choice which is rooted in a conception of the personality and of society.

Analysis of pedagogic practices in the light of the main currents of contemporary thinking on education shows that they involve a variety of conceptions of the personality and various choices of society, and that as such, they are of interest to the whole collectivity, and consequently must be the subject of public debate.

The analysis touches directly upon the joint and shared responsibility

of parents, pupils, teachers and administrative officers of the school system. It is up to all of them to develop the school's educational project in accordance with society's project. by means of discussion founded on explicit choices, based on conceptions of education and carried out in pedagogic practices.

CHAPTER 8 ESSENTIAL ATTITUDES FOR ANY PEDAGOGIC PRACTICE

1. Links to be Established between Attitudes and Means for any Pedagogic Renewal

Like any conscious and organized human activity, the teaching act requires the application of means in order to reach an objective. On occasion, however, the anticipated results do not always follow the application of certain means. Having examined in earlier chapters questions concerning the aims of education which merit discussion and involvement, the Conseil now proposes to consider others pertaining to results and the means required for their attainment.

To begin with, one basic fact must be kept in mind. Ambitious projects of pedagogic innovation have failed miserably because of a belief that a situation could be improved by changing a faulty organization, by acquiring sophisticated materials, through recourse to new teaching techniques. Disappointment came quickly. The fact that a change in structure and materials does not mean a change in mentality was overlooked. In such cases the expected benefits are always problematical.

This is well illustrated by the implementation of the new policy regarding children with learning problems, proposed officially since 1978. It was necessary to change norms and structures, and this could be done fairly rapidly.

However, the far-reaching changes foreseen as being part of this policy, and which were desired by a majority of educators, required that all those involved have enough time to understand their new roles and to develop the attitudes needed to fulfill them.

When taking up the question of means and teaching approaches, attitudes must also be considered. No opportunity has been missed to draw the attention of the Conseil to situations which clearly demonstrate the important role which attitudes play as far as pedagogy is concerned.

One example involved a certain kindergarten teacher who paid more attention to some children than to others, quite naturally to those who best understood her. Then, there was the case of the cegep student who dropped out because of her feeling that she would become emotionally upset if she accepted the ideology promoted by some of her teachers. The Conseil has also been made aware of the uneasiness felt by some teachers who have been required «to go beyond the course» in order to deal with pupils with behaviour problems. Finally, others have drawn out attention to the fact that a pupil's attitudes are not all seen in the same light by all teachers who have him, or her in their classes. According to some, he or she, is difficult and insolent, to others a good student. In other words, attitudes are often a major factor in the academic progress of some pupils, and a source of failure and regression for others.

2. Communication and Pedagogy

The teaching act involves, among others, a dual relationship, one between the pupil and the subject matter, another between the teacher and the pupil. Within this double relationship, attitudes of *one-way transmission* may displace *open two-way communication*. Such openness to reciprocity is evident where the teacher is not the only one to ask questions, but permits the pupil to exercise curiosity. We have learned from secondary students, particularly in the television documentary «Les enfants des normes»¹ that need for explanation is not often satisfied. Sometimes, what communication there is, is wide of the mark. Thus, in a school situation where authoritarianism and harsh discipline are the rule, the timid pupil is well thought of; in reality such a child bottles up his, or her, difficulties, his, or her, personality is smothered and he, or she, becomes finally too much the well mannered child for his, or her, own good.

In order for there to be communication, there must be a real openness to the cultural and psychological universe on the part of those responsible. The teacher who wishes to remain capable of really communicating, cannot be uninterested in the social, family, economic and cultural lives of young people.

The individual who seeks education and training is in no way simply one item among others on a production line. There is no way of sepa-

1. A Georges Dufaux production of the National Film Board, 1979.

rating the child, adolescent or adult from environmental influences. The acceptance of this principle is one of the most noticeable characteristic traits of the pedagogy practiced at the level of adult education: it takes into account the student's experience in physical and human, as well as in intellectual terms.

Pedagogic practice turns its back on one way transmission and becomes real communication to the extent that it abandons recourse to coercion and demonstrates attitudes of tolerance and openness².

Here we return to some of the basic ideas behind the sessions which were part of SEMEA, that no education is possible unless «heart speaks to heart». Deficient communication is often the result of a relationship in which the teacher appears all-powerful in the eyes of the pupil. Those who do not listen to or respect others are not in a position to themselves demand acceptance or respect.

3. Confidence and Mastery Learning

Educational research has contributed a great deal to the confirmation of the hypothesis of the existence of a direct relationship between selfimage and success in school. A relationship is inevitable between what others expect and what one feels able to accomplish. It is generally recognized that any dynamic learning (originality, acceptance of responsibility, curiosity, taste for discovery) presupposes the

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2. This point of view is presented, for elementary schools, in a pamphlet published by the Commission de rénovation de l'enseignement fondamental, Ministère de l'éducation nationale et de la culture française, Belgium, Le cycle 5/8, où en est-on?, Brussels, 1981.

existence, on the part of the learner, of a positive self image and of a minimum of confidence in his, or her, ability.

Various studies have shown that, for children from disadvantaged communities, the manifestation of low expectations as far as they are concerned may produce «self-fulfilling prophecies». In other words, the demonstration of low or limited expectations concerning such pupils will create psychological conditions unfavourable to the development of positive attitudes to the point that their results will invariably live up to expectations. The opposite is also true. A comparative study involving a large number of American schools demonstrates that the more pupils are continually and explicitly convinced of their ability to reach a goal, the higher their level of achievement³.

Mastery learning, without keeping to any particular approach, exploits everything that enables a pupil, young or adult, to become aware of his, or her, capacity to learn and understand and to develop a feeling of self confidence which will remain lifelong.⁴ Such pedagogy calls, naturally, for formative evaluation, which detects the pupils' problems as they arrive, identifies their causes and helps in their immediate solution.

Comments from the adult education sector lead one to believe that self confidence is just as necessary for adults as it is for young people. An adult may seem to be very self assured while working,

3. Mastery Learning represents a concrete application, which is becoming more common.

but very vulnerable in an organized learning situation. It is sometimes said that the greatest apparent difference between regular university students and adults who have returned to their studies, particularly those doing so part time, is the fact that the young people seem better able to extricate themselves from complicated situations - an unsuitable course, etc. - whereas adults often feel like acrobats performing without a net!

All those who are subjected to unfavourable living conditions require teachers with special interests and attitudes which will encourage them instead of letting them remain defeated. This is why, in the case of particularly disadvantaged communities, the means must be found to attract, on a voluntary basis, those teachers best prepared to take up a task much more difficult than the average.

What is true for educator is also valid for the pupil, and vice versa. The pupil who is subjected only to suspicion and indifference will have considerable difficulty in becoming selfconfident. For their part, teachers who lack self assurance will have difficulty to reconcile the tendency to expect too much from the bureaucratic hierarchy and to blame it for all that is lacking, with self confidence; it indicates, rather, a feeling of dependence.

4. A helping Attitude

Some of those responsible for teacher training have redefined their function by assigning to teaching a place among the helping profes-

sions.⁵ This tends to confirm that the inclination to help someone in need constitutes, on the level of interpersonal relations, a fundamental aspect of teaching.

Help in various forms, adapted to need, constitutes the first level of educational support provided a pupil for the prevention of serious learning problems. There is no way of estimating what proportion of slight learning problems have become serious difficulties because appropriate help was not available when required. But one thing is certain: lack of help brings in its train the risk for the pupil of the cumulative effect of difficulties. In some cases, the establishment of diagnostic services or of special classes tempts some teachers to neglect part of their responsibility for pupils with problems.

The placing of «problem» pupils in special classes has often been nothing more than a shifting of responsibility from the shoulders of the regular teacher to those of the specialist.⁶ Nowadays any such referral (intervention «en cascade») is carried out in terms of help and responsibility. Most such situations are resolved in a spirit of

5. See La formation aux «professions d'aide» (helping professions) à l'université du Vermont; in Missions d'observation sur la formation des enseignants, Québec, Conseil d'orientation pour la prospective et l'innovation en éducation, 1979, vol. 3, pp. 93-117.

6. The «système en cascade» refers to the organization of referrals in a series of steps between the regular and special class (the special school, in extreme cases) such that the pupil undergoes the least possible separation from a «regular» learning situation.

collaboration, such that the intervention of the specialist is no way undermines the regular teacher's responsibility. This new approach to the question of children with learning problems makes remediation available to them within the framework of the regular class. The action of the specialist is such as to supplement that of the regular teacher and increases the ability of the latter to be of assistance to children experiencing problems.

5. Non-directivity and Teaching

Non-directivity became extraordinarily popular during the sixties and its influence, both explicit and implicit, is still present in many classrooms. It is in the name of non-directivity that the teacher is seen as an animator rather than as a professor or master. The techniques of group animation which are used apply, for the most part, to the teaching relationship between the teacher and the students, and we refer, as the case may be, to different teaching methods. The teacher is referred to as being «autocratic» when the approach to content and learning methods is directive, as «democratic» when directive concerning methods only, and as «easy-going» when neither is the case.⁷

Non-directivity sometimes results in a situation where the teacher «no longer teaches» or keeps a «hands off» attitude. At the elementary level he, or she, is satisfied to remain on good terms with the

7. See Jean-Marie Aubry and Yves Saint-Arnaud, Dynamiques des groupes, Montréal, Éditions du Centre pédagogique des Jésuites canadiens, 1963, 109 pages.

pupils, without having any clearly defined goals. In secondary school the teacher remains «buddy-buddy» with the adolescents and does not «bug» them too much to learn. In the cegep the students acquire their «science» by scanning the columns of the daily newspapers. In adult education care must be taken not to put forth explanations which run counter to that adult experience which is held to be the mainspring of learning. At the university stress is placed upon what the students decide to do as a group and on the animation of group discussions to which each participant brings what he, or she, already knows, without learning anything new.

The basic characteristics of some practices influenced by non-directivity reveal an attitude which, if carried to the limit, could involve the negation of the very act of teaching. The non-directive educator who wishes to be consistent and to respect completely and unconditionally the development of each pupil, leaves to each «self educator» the initiative for his, or her, «auto-instruction». He, or she, is content to act as a «facilitator» of the pedagogic relationship. «He, or she, gives neither explanations nor lessons (unless asked to do so). He, or she, carries out no evaluation, offers no criticism, unless the student requests an opinion regarding his, or her, work. The passing of examinations is not required. He, or she, is not, alone responsible for the final mark (...) the facilitator is not a teacher».⁸ Strictly speaking, it cannot be said that the facilitator does not intervene: he, or she, intervenes, not as a teacher⁹,

8. Carl Rogers, Liberté pour apprendre, Paris, D-nod, 1973, pp. 143-144.

9. This differs from the Summerhill concept, where the educator does not intervene at all. For today's theories and practices in pedagogy, see Jacques Ulmann, La pensée éducative contemporaine, Paris, P.U.F. 1976.

but, as a sort of catalyst which permits each person to be him, or her, self.

This stream of non-directivity in pedagogy has undeniably contributed to the modification of the teacher-pupil relationship. In Québec, it has led to a relaxation of the teacher-taught relationship, to the benefit of pupils. Any rigorous approach has, thus, been rejected in the name of spontaneity and creativity, because of the association of methodical learning with an authoritarian and repressive attitude on the teacher's part. «The sophism of non-directive teachers consists of confusing the method with the constraint, more precisely with the external and alienating constraint».¹⁰

Further study of the act of learning and of teaching should lead to real learning by pupils, without the teacher's abstaining from intervening. There is no methodological oppression or imposition as long as the choice of one of several methods is permitted or encouraged. In the final analysis, is not the aim of the exercise to permit one and all to find his or her own way of learning to learn? In which case, it is just as well that the pedagogic attitude remain non-directive and facilitating.

6. From Classroom to School

The development of «educative» attitudes is a function of the organization of the school and of the group of educators who work there.

10. Olivier Reboul, Qu'est-ce qu'apprendre?, Paris, P.U.F., p. 57.

There are two corollaries of this which have a bearing on the idea of an educational project and that of an educational team.

As is the case with any group, the staff of a school or department may appear to be an informal collection of individuals, a compact group organized for defense or opposition, or even a group united by a common educational task, capable of communicating and evolving. The quality of the communications between the teachers is a measure of the vitality of the team. Once such vitality has been assured, it may take the form of a «co-operative school», which encourages relationships based on confidence and communication among teachers, a like dynamism among the pupils and openness in the teacher-pupil relationship.

The second corollary applies to the *organization and operation of the school*. The climate of a school inevitably affects the «lives» of the pupils and what they learn there. Pedagogic practice cannot but be coloured and conditioned by the collective environment and the way in which the school is organized: the organization of space, the use of time, the latitude left to initiative, the availability of help and support services, etc. It would be well to recall the extent to which institutional constraints may influence and handicap pedagogic practices. Thus there are more volunteers to supervise the cafeteria, in terms of those activities called «B,C,D»¹¹, than there are to animate a science club, operate a remedial mathematics workshop or to set up a model parliament. In addition, how many times has the criterion of ease of administration taken precedence

11. Articles of the collective agreements dealing with supervision, encadrement of pupils, remediation and student activities.

over the real needs of learners in matters of evaluation or choice of method? Too many isolated teachers have thought at first that they might accommodate their pedagogic convictions on the system of norms and the requirements of school organization; they have finally given up their initial convictions while deploring the lack of the means to carry out their pedagogic credo. Fortunately, there are always those who believe that regular pressures resulting from pedagogic renewal will bring about the adaptation of structures and the modification of norms and methods of organization.

This is one way of escaping the classic dilemma before which many have given up, no major pedagogic changes are possible without changes in structures. The modification of structures and of organization does not, of itself, guarantee beneficial results. When attitudes change and give rise to a new mentality, it is possible to «get on the bandwagon» and to adjust methods of organization. As a very minimum, there must be a general situation such that the essential attitudes of communication, of confidence and of help can be applied in practice. The ideal would be to have the tone, the atmosphere and even the attitudes of the establishment reflected in its organization and structures.

If, to begin with, educators discuss the methods to be employed they will be in a position to identify and ensure conditions consistent with their objectives.

7. Development of Attitudes and Pedagogic Efficiency

The development of attitudes depends for the most part on the organization of the school, on the quality of the relationships established, and on the degree of participation of the pupils in school activities.

Student attitudes, as revealed in behaviour, are indicative of the sort of action carried on by the school and of the extent to which it has succeeded in achieving its goals. Whether they be attitudes of participation or of individualism, of the passive consumer, or of the critical citizen, whether they be open or masked, these attitudes counteract or reinforce classroom activities and contribute in the final analysis to the effectiveness, or otherwise, of teaching.

The development of attitudes is such an important part of teaching that it should be one of the school's goals in all that is done and not the aim of particular courses only. More than syllabi and courses are required; all of the school's activities must be involved. Their contribution is greater to the extent that they form part of the total pedagogic package and are not regarded as mere decorations. It is symptomatic that the courses involving personality development have always been, and continue to be, those whose integration into the daily life of the schools has posed problems. Consumer education, preparation for life in society, health education, interpersonal relationships and sex education are all courses which involve attitudes and values, as much as they do information. Despite the pedagogical (and ideological) problems resulting from any attempt to develop attitudes, for the school to restrict itself to the «objective» content of per-

sonality development courses, would be to discourage the attainment of the objectives of such courses.

In other words, the development of attitudes cannot be left to courses in personality development. It should be part of every activity in every teaching establishment. Educators have known this for a long time. Their awareness of it has increased, however, in recent years.

Experience shows that in order to ensure the gradual development of the pupil as an autonomous individual, it is necessary, first, to develop those attitudes which precede and prepare the way for the development of intelligence. Later on, intellectual growth provides a basis for the assimilation of emotional, cultural and social values which find expression in attitudes. It is to be hoped that pedagogy will more be often able to reach the published goals of educational policy concerning communication and relationships in a practical way.

SUMMARY

Some attempts at educational renewal have not come to complete fruition because of a failure to recognise the links between changes of structure and of organization and changes of mentality and of attitudes.

At the same time, enthusiasm for a method or a technique is not enough, in itself, to bring about real pedagogic innovation. Any

renewal of teaching methods must be based on a change in attitudes, as well as know-how. Otherwise, the innovation may very well be mistaken for a passing fancy.

The attitudes of the educators are as important, if not more important, than are the teaching methods and equipment used. The impact of a change in attitude on the part of educators may be seen to have an increasing influence on structures and organization. The climate of an educational institution, on the one hand, and the propensity of educators to discuss their teaching methods, on the other, are two important indicators of the quality of attitudes and of the possibility of their being developed and influenced.

Thorough discussion of both attitudes and methods would ensure better understanding of innovation and would make possible solution of the dilemma which exists between change in structure and change in mentality. Then structural changes would more and more tend to follow the gradual modification of pedagogic practices resulting from open, patient and lengthy discussion.

CHAPTER 9 EFFECTIVE PEDAGOGY

The theme of effective pedagogy will be studied from three different angles: from behind the closed classroom door, within the school, and at the level of the educational system. But, first of all, it is necessary to define what is meant by effectiveness and the teaching conditions which make it possible.

1. Effective Pedagogy: Meaning and Conditions

What is meant by Effective Pedagogy

Pedagogic effectiveness is attained when use is made of those means which permit the achievement of various levels of objectives: knowledge, emotion, creativity, socialization, etc. Effective pedagogy makes possible, in addition to the usual cognitive skills, the development and growth of all aspects of the pupil's personality. Effective pedagogy will be examined in terms of this definition.

Anyone who attempts to define the extent to which pedagogy is effective, in terms of the production, or performance, of a child, adolescent or adult, is on the wrong track. Such effectiveness is very often brought about by very simple methods and may appear to be overdone. The opposite is not the case. In fact, that which may guarantee satisfactory academic progress offers no assurance that the learner's full potential for personal development will be realized.

Some Necessary Conditions

Teachers look upon pedagogy as their personal preserve, an area of professional activity in which they would prefer to be *independent*.¹ This attitude is found at every level of the educational system. It helps to explain the grievances of those who, in their appearances before the Conseil, complained of being reduced to the role of simple cogs in the school system through the application of regulations and courses of study which they held to be restrictive. It also explains, in part, the teachers' resistance when the question of evaluation, and, by implication of the teaching act, is raised.

A major pre-requisite for effective classroom teaching is that the teachers feel themselves to be *free and responsible*. There are always those who will abuse the situation. But the risk is less than in the case of the opposite situation, where teaching is reduced to mere repetition and fulfillment of norms, and little thought is given to the welfare of pupils. This condition is intimately linked to the question of relationships in teaching: its basic element is trust. Where teachers who are worthy of it operate in a climate of confidence, there cannot but be a spilling over of trust in their relations with pupils; this is an essential condition for effective teaching. Even though some will always abuse their trust, the game is worth the candle.

1. This autonomy finds its ultimate expression in the «academic freedom» of the university professor.

Teacher efficiency depends upon a second condition which may be referred to as *practical economy*, that is the best possible use of resources, given the restrictions to which teaching is subject. Through neglect of consideration of the impact of this condition on teaching efficiency many a reform has not progressed beyond the classroom door. Sometimes this condition assumes a negative aspect. In some cases it may mean resistance to change, routine or ageing. But, generally speaking, it more often indicates the presence of common sense, realism and the desire to carry on.

The teacher, faced continually by groups of young people who demand the most of his, or her, energies, uses a carefully selected mixture of well-tried teaching methods and others whose adoption has been suggested. In some cases a carapace is developed as protection against such unsettling conditions as too abrupt change of syllabi and methods, lack of equipment, incessant demands for up-grading and in-service training, or the uncertainty arising from the provisions of the collective agreement regarding transfer. Such situations can block any pedagogic innovation and undermine the effectiveness of daily teaching.

Teachers at any level generally agree to innovation, or to a change in method, as long as they do not feel threatened, either personally or professionally. Once these minimal conditions are assured, many teachers become more effective, especially where they enjoy the support of the administration. Similarly, effectiveness can be the result of common discussion of pedagogy and of how the teaching of pupils may be improved. There is every chance that

constraints will be overcome in teaching which finds fulfilment and a raison d'être in the harmonious development of student potential.

To sum up, it may be said that teaching methods are effective in the classroom or lecture hall to the extent that they are a function of the teachers' autonomy, freedom and responsibility, and to the extent that they take into account the special relationship between teacher and pupil in order to foster general personal growth as well as the pupils cognitive development.

2. Behind the Closed Classroom Door, and Beyond

Effectiveness in Terms of a Perspective of Personalization

The pedagogic effectiveness described above lies clearly within *a perspective of personalization which calls for various methods and degrees of individualization of learning*, given the conditions that have been outlined. Rather than being a mere philosophical idea, individualization² involves recognition of the diversity existing among pupils, particularly within heterogeneous groups.

In a Homogeneous or Heterogeneous Group

After due consideration, it is not surprising to realize that a majority of teachers favour the homogeneous grouping of pupils³.

2. In practice, individualization may be narrowly or widely interpreted. In the first case it is merely the adaptation of teaching to the rate of learning of each pupil. In the second, it may extend to include the adjustment of objectives, content and methods to meet the needs of each pupil.

3. See Les enseignantes et les enseignants du Québec, Vol 5 p.61.

This measure may be said to represent a somewhat unsubtle approach to individualization, to the extent to which it meets the needs of pupils having some common characteristics. This type of grouping of pupils lends itself to efficiency. There is, however, a risk of its emphasizing uniformity if too much attention be given to results which follow a "normal curve".

The breaking down of a heterogeneous group into more homogeneous sub-groups permits greater refinement of teaching in terms of personalization and individualization. In this way teaching may be better adapted to the needs of each pupil, less uniform and avoid being pitched at the so-called "average" pupil. This breaking-up of heterogeneous groups is held to be effective in the case of such subjects as mathematics, writing and reading, but seems less needed in such fields as physical education and the artistic subjects. This way of doing thing corresponds quite closely to the suggestions made in *L'école coopérative: polyvalence et progrès continu*⁴, published by the Ministère de l'éducation.

In the case of its being impossible to subdivide a heterogeneous group because of the too great diversity of its members, it would be preferable to adapt the course of study so as to motivate the students and to attempt to use learning situations such that each pupil might benefit by progressing at his, or her, own rate.

4. Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'éducation, *L'école coopérative et progrès continu*, commentary on Regulation I, Québec, September, 1966, 105 pages.

Making Learning Relevant

Whether the class be divided into sub-groups or not, teaching must be relevant if it is to be effective. This is so for pupils who have not yet reached the stage of "formal thought" as well as for those at the "hypothetico-deductive" level⁵. This desire for relevance is not new among teachers who deal with children and adolescents. Testimony gathered by the Conseil demonstrates, however, that *this desire has seldom involved an analysis of what happens when we learn*. This would appear to be indispensable to the following of pupil progress, particularly in the case of those with learning problems. Those elementary school teachers who have acquired some understanding of the learning process are convinced that they are better equipped to respond to the needs of each child. Had teachers at all levels shared their experience, they would, no doubt, improve their teaching methods by discarding those that are outmoded and by keeping those which lend themselves to the individualization of instruction.

Such a study could prove fruitful within a given field of interest for pupils grouped by subject or «speciality». In a perspective of personalization the subject matter is regarded quite differently. Rather than being restricted to «things» to be learned, it is approached in terms of the students' lives and experience of intellectual learning and involves the linking of experience with learning. It is much more open to daily life and culture. The subject matter no longer consists of a group of more or less unrelated ideas. Teaching is based on the conviction that learning is

5. These terms refer to the work of Piaget on genetic psychology. They are found in his discussion of the development of the thought process.

a matter of seeing the relationship between several aspects of a subject, or between several subjects and that relevant learning implies effort on the part of the learner.

Styles of Learning and Diversified Approaches

Research⁶ indicates that pupils' learning "styles" vary greatly. *"Style" refers to that personal way of learning, acting and behaving which remains the same regardless of what is being taught.* This characteristic, peculiar to each individual, is expressed in terms of a marked interest in people or tasks, of different perceptual capacities (auditory and visual), of a greater or lesser awareness of the physical environment, of a propensity for working alone or as part of a team, of a preference for structured teaching, etc.

No matter to what extent one accepts the theories concerning the styles of learning, it is clear that interest in this aspect of pedagogy is based on more than a mere passing fancy. It is rooted in an observation which has struck every experienced educator: all pupils do not learn in the same way, and at the extreme, each of them has his, or her, own way of learning and working intellectually. This statement gives rise to another question on the part of the teacher who would be efficient: How can one respect the learning style of each pupil and one's own approach to teaching in a heterogeneous group situation?

6. See, for example, a brief analysis of some of these studies by Gérard Provencher in the magazine Vie Pédagogique, Nos 15 and 17.

It is possible to answer this question in a way that would discourage any teacher from even opening the door of a classroom or lecture hall. One need only conclude that the teachers' teaching styles should match the learning style of each pupil. The only possible solution would be one pupil per teacher. Any teacher required to work every day with dozens of pupils in heterogeneous groups would regard this suggestion as somewhat less than realistic, and would immediately fall back on *his, or her, own* style with *all* the pupils.

Nevertheless, there is a middle ground between an unmanageable diversity and no change at all. The taking into account of learning styles would make possible the improvement of teaching through greater personalization of learning, which is, in itself, desirable. It would be difficult to guarantee that each individual would learn in his, or her, own particular way. It would be possible, however, by a variation of approach, to encourage the exercise of diverse styles of learning. This variation in approach has absolutely no connection with the craze for the latest gadgetry on the market. It arises, rather, from that attention to each student which prevents any real educator from using stereotyped methods. This desire to meet a need which differs from one pupil to another, ensures greater pedagogic efficiency, even though it does not go so far as to take into consideration every variation in learning style.

This topic is taken up in several of the curriculum guides:⁷

7. In Religious or Moral Instruction, for example.

these documents always suggest at least two teaching approaches for each objective. It is up to the teacher to select that most appropriate for the class concerned and the objective in question. This is still far from being adjustment to the style of learning of each individual, but it is equally distant from a denial of the very existence of style. The result is a pedagogy which stresses individualization by attempting in a variety of ways to respect different learning process, rather than that of unwillingly following a required procedure.

Formative Evaluation and Individual Growth

The more that pedagogy is focussed on the individual and the more the temptation to consider all the pupils in relation to an average is avoided, the greater the extent to which classroom evaluation becomes formative. Summative evaluation ceases to occupy centre stage and assumes its proper role⁸.

Formative evaluation may be carried on a daily basis without any extra effort or problems. For example, in some classes in Sorel, which are carrying on projects based on a humanistic conception of education⁹, the children carry out a daily evaluation with their teachers⁹. Each team evaluates its progress in the presence of

8. See the Politique générale d'évaluation pédagogique of the Ministère de l'éducation which provides clear and functional definitions of summative and formative pedagogic evaluation.

9. See Pierre Angers and Colette Bouchard, La mise en oeuvre du projet d'intégration, pp. 95-107.

the others. Each child learns where it stands within the team and all work together to keep in step with the overall class project. The teacher intervenes periodically in order to see if a given topic has been mastered, knowing that it will be possible to review the material on an individual basis without interfering with the work of the team, or of the class as a whole. While it may not be possible to carry out formative evaluation in the same way in all learning situations, it nevertheless, remains extremely flexible and comprehensive. It focuses on the individual, facilitates synthesis of various aspects of learning, and may be seen as a continuum which includes the measurement of more than intellectual performance and which provides a profile of individual growth in relation to that of others.

Whereas the methods of evaluation in use in many classes are seen as threatening, formative evaluation is stimulating for both pupils and teacher. However, any time that the question of evaluation is raised in any consultation with teachers or other school people, one gets the impression that the subject is tabu. Depending on where one sits in the school system, the evaluation of pupils appears as an obligation which must be carried on for reasons having little to do with learning, or as a neglected but recurring task which brings on feelings of guilt. It is difficult to understand how evaluation can foster such sentiments when one considers the significance of formative evaluation to the learning process. Although it is carried out in a school context, formative evaluation makes it possible to identify the highlights of the learner's experience, because each pupil provides at least an informal summary

of activities. Each one draws conclusions from what has gone on, rectifies what is awry and builds on the results. Such a process liberates rather than enslaves. It stimulates and provides the drive for further undertakings. This is, to the fullest extent, the role of formative evaluation in the learning process.

The Ministère de l'éducation's new policy of evaluation stresses the importance of formative evaluation. An important step has been taken, at least theoretically. The success of the new measure depends on two conditions: first, that priority of consideration be given to teachers and pupils by all those responsible for evaluation (ministère, school boards, school administrators): secondly, that the teachers be provided with the basic equipment required for daily formative evaluation.

However, even should such equipment arrive late on the scene, its tardiness should in no way compromise the success of formative evaluation in the classroom, since it is, for the most part, a function of the teacher's skill, particularly of those skills which go beyond the purely technical and are the product of experience. The creativity of too many classroom teachers has been stifled by too great dependance on outside help. Those who have overcome the limitations imposed from outside have found a new sense of freedom in teaching, have been borne along by the creativity of their pupils and have been astonished at their own inventiveness. Such teachers no longer see in evaluation a sort of educational parasite because it has become formative both for pupils and for themselves.

Readily Available Pedagogic Approaches

Certain pedagogic approaches, which may be used at more than one level of instruction, are available to teachers everywhere. Use has shown them to be effective and they lend themselves to personalization. No teacher is advised to try them all at once in the same class, but prudent use of one or more of them has the merit of relying on sound experience, rather than on the latest fad.

The Project Method

Particularly where groups are stable, the project may be used as a method of learning. A project may be individual, but it normally implies contributions by members of a team. It aims to produce results which may be checked and passed on to others. With very young children, for example, the project may be identified with a given theme, or subject. Class activities, grouped about one or more themes, polarize the interest of pupils and contribute to the breaking down of the barriers to learning. Instead of learning by subject - now I'm doing French, then geography, then plastic arts - the pupil uses several skills at the same time while participating in a common task. Classroom projects have the advantage of school conditions, which are different from those of the world of work. The pupils have «free» time. They are allowed to make mistakes. They make use of what they have learned in order to learn something new without being obliged, like the apprentice, to master a faultless technique as quickly as possible¹⁰.

10. See Olivier Reboul, op. cit., p. 65.

The learning experiences resulting from a project may go well beyond the narrow, artificial or imaginary world of the classroom through a choice of themes which involve the culture of a community, of a town, or of a whole region.

The efficiency of the project method depends for a large part on its capacity for personal involvement on the part of each pupil. The level of interest of the chosen theme, its scope and its cultural connotations may permit the introduction of individual projects as part of the collective effort. Each member of the group responsible for a project benefits from the learning experience involved, not only as an individual, but also as a participant in the educational development of others.

Where pupils are grouped according to subject, the project method may be used, subject to certain limitations. It is difficult to develop a common, group or individual project when the classroom population changes with every ringing of the bell. Some elements of the method may be applied, such as centering learning around a broad theme which includes several objectives. It is also possible to organize short term group projects, individual assignments which may be completed in school during one or two periods, or to organize projects as a substitute for home assignments.

Projects which involve the world outside the classroom may become more significant if they are properly structured. This is the case with *L'alternative* at the Collège de Sherbrooke where the organization of «human science without mathematics» encourages the use

of projects: «optional projects for credit» and «projects contributing to the community»¹¹. Projects of this type are not the result of the classroom initiative of a lone inventive professor; they require organization¹², multidisciplinary objectives¹³, a team of professors and the grouping of the students involved.

Workshops

The workshop has become the most popular form of organization for any teaching situation which involves the sharing of information. Its popularity is due to its great flexibility, its relative efficiency and its potential for individualization.

A teacher may organize a workshop on the spot, for only one period, provided, of course, that the subject matter is appropriate and the classroom suitable for the undertaking. In other cases the pupils may be organized in teams for a longer period of time, such as a term or semester.

Surprising results may be forthcoming in cases where the task of each team is clearly defined and the teams well organized. A teacher would be well advised to take careful stock of his, or her, capacities before allocating the same task to all the teams, or giving each of them a different assignment. This is particularly advisable where a teacher meets five, or more, classes.

11. See the basic documentation and explanatory pamphlet published by the Collège de Sherbrooke.

12. See above, Chapter 5, «University Teaching»

13. The idea of multidisciplinary may be enriched by that of «transdisciplinarity» which involves not only the combining of disciplines, but their acting together within the experience of the learner. See Louis Legrand, *L'école unique: à quelles conditions?*, Paris, Les Editions du Scarabée, 1981, pp. 163-194.

Under certain circumstances, workshops, or team assignments, permit a teacher to spend more time with each pupil. It is easier to discover the work habits of each member of a five-member team, to identify problems and to suggest solutions. In fact, one of the easiest ways to individualize instruction is to alternate sessions of group instruction with team assignments.

Mutual or Peer Group Instruction

The teaching of one pupil by another is inherent in almost all forms of working in teams, apart, perhaps, from some discussion groups. This kind of mutual assistance between members of a peer group may, in some cases, be extended to include formal instruction by older members. Examination of the various levels of the educational system leads one to the conclusion that this teaching technique is not really exploited, considering its potential for efficiency and individualization. In fact, it is a truism, from kindergarten to the university, that a classmate understands a pupil's problems best, and is often in a position to suggest a way out of an impasse, a method of solving a problem, how to grasp an idea or how to study for an examination.

Mutual instruction also carries considerable social impact. It teaches pupils the value of co-operation. In learning with and for each other the pupils come to outgrow their egocentricity and the competitive spirit of our industrial society. Mutual instruction serves both the strong and the weak. The weak learn better without losing face, the strong deepen their knowledge by passing it on.

Any competition that may exist consists of working together to solve a common problem.

This teaching method and the ideal of co-operation which it involves¹⁴ may rapidly disappear if they are not fostered by educators through the judicious use of sources of documentation and through attitudes which demonstrate sincere acceptance of the value of working as a team.

Team Teaching

Team teaching is the formula preferred by educators who believe in mutual instruction by pupils. While in some cases it may involve an entire school staff, its commonest form is that of two teachers working together with the same group of students.

The formula, even in its most modest application, calls for a minimum of agreement between the teachers, whether it involves a class or subject group. In the first case there is usually a class teacher, or tutor, and a specialist, who acts as a resource person. In the second case, two teachers of the same subject may share their classes, or two teachers of different subjects may bring their classes together for particular activities or projects.

In both cases teaching becomes more effective. Team teaching makes it possible to pay more attention to the pupils' work habits and

14. This is in the same spirit as the opinion on education concerning co-operation which the Conseil addressed to the Ministre in January, 1982.

to specific problems, thereby permitting the attainment of a greater degree of individualization. The exchanges between the two teachers and the pupils may vary considerably, but their pedagogic relationship remains unchanged. One of the advantages of the formula is that it makes possible, among other things, immediate feedback regarding the efforts of the teachers concerned.

As it is presently practiced, team teaching represents an interesting possibility for renewal. The twinning of teachers presupposes a basis of common interest and requires constant consultation. But the formula has the advantage of being a simple one which does not call for complex structural changes.

The Tutorial System

In addition to referring to a particular method of teaching, the term tutorial system has, for some years, also designated that larger responsibility of educators to help the pupil, or student, to find his, or her, way through a maze of courses and activities of all descriptions. Thus, the tutor must be prepared to discuss the organization of the student's work load, difficulties which may occur and progress as it develops. Because of a more personal understanding of the student and his, or her, problems, the tutor is in a position to make teaching colleagues aware of any particular difficulty.

When referred to as a teaching method, the tutorial system appears to be a personalized teaching technique in which the professor, as resource person, puts the student in contact with sources of

information and appropriate documentation. Through a series of regular meetings, the professor checks, with the student, the progress made toward the objectives of each stage, as well as the efficiency of the student's work habits. Then after a formative evaluation, they establish, together, the objectives of the succeeding stage. This form of the tutorial system is often found associated with other individualized teaching methods, such as modular teaching or programmed learning.

The tutorial system is also used in conjunction with projects and workshop sessions. It may alternate with sessions of collective instruction, where for example, a given number of class periods are devoted to work as individuals or in small groups.

This teaching¹⁵ method becomes interesting when the teacher's desire for efficiency plays upon the individual work habits of each pupil. The interview between tutor and pupil, repeated at regular intervals, will certainly cover most aspects of the teaching relationship. However, the first objective of the tutorial system is that the pupil learn, by being shown how to do so.

Methods with a Technical Basis

From among the large number of possible methods, the Conseil has selected four, because of their pedagogic interest and because of the questions that they pose for the future of teaching; programmed learning, modular instruction teaching, multi-media instruc-

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15. As is well known the tutorial is used in various ways at the university level in individual meetings between student and professor. It also appears more and more in the form of the team tutorial, where a professor becomes the tutor of a small group of students.

tion and télématique. The first three are, to all intents and purposes, teaching methods; the fourth brings pedagogy into contact with the every changing network of modern communications.

Programmed Learning

For some years programmed learning, sometimes referred to as micro-graded learning, has been used in several subjects with adult students, in correspondence courses and with juvenile delinquents, etc...¹⁶. In the case of students whose learning experience occurs in fits and starts, it is advantageous to have available teaching material which is broken down into small pre-determined sections and which offers some guarantee of success to all.

However, programmed learning has not attracted a great deal of attention in Québec. «Experience seems to indicate that programmed learning has not lived up to expectations and that its popularity has declined over the years. However, it is quite possible that this phenomenon is due more to the intrinsic limitations of the formula, than to any resistance to change resulting from attempts at its implantation»¹⁷. In addition to locking teaching into a very mechanistic approach, where everything is planned beforehand and extremely fragmented, programmed learning involves considerable investment of energy in the preparation of materials and in the development of courses which must be kept up to date.

16. At Boscoville, for example, materials compiled over the last ten years, known as «Le Boulot» permits young drop outs to complete their studies.

17. Michèle Fournier, Typologie des formules pédagogiques, p. 157.

Notwithstanding these important limitations, programmed learning could be less stereotyped were it to be associated with a computer and were the pupil to have some control over the programme¹⁸.

Modular Instruction

Other experiments in the field of success teaching have been carried on in Québec, such as modular instruction¹⁹. The pupils work with kits of documentation structured in terms of units of content, or of objectives, a pre-test, learning activities and a post-test. The pupils work as individuals and success in a module is required before moving on to the next one. Depending on his, or her, rate of progress, the pupil has access to review modules, may decide not to cover a module which the pre-test suggests has already been studied, or may deal only with selected objectives of a given module. According to the method, every pupil should, in principle, master 80% of the objectives of each module. The number of modules covered successfully may vary from one student to another.

It would not be easy to use this formula on a generalized basis because of the volume of material in kit form which must be provided for each pupil. In addition, this rather sophisticated teaching material must be revised regularly. Those who wish the maximum in educational efficiency must ask themselves some pointed questions. It may be possible to develop a modified

18. See Francis Meynard, On apprend en programmant, in Vie Pédagogique, No 11, February 1981, pp. 16-18.

19. See René Beauchamp, Une histoire à succès: la pédagogie de la réussite. This article makes two references to experiments in Québec: S.A.G.E. at the elementary level, and that carried on in the Vanier polyvalent in Ville de Laval.

version based on the new courses for elementary and secondary schools, which are already structured in the form of modules. One might even go so far as to suggest that group instruction be restructured on a modular basis. This would be infinitely more flexible than the current linear approach to learning.

Multi-media Instruction

When audio-visual techniques are used solely in support of other teaching methods, their full potential is not necessarily exploited. When they form part of a multi-media approach, there is greater likelihood of their stimulating experiences corresponding better to the variety of learning styles of the pupils and in greater harmony with the needs of the present generation. Multi-media instruction attempts to combine the written and the audio-visual in a harmonious whole. This effort to make use, simultaneously, of several media creates a multi-dimensional teaching experience making for greater instructional efficiency. The impact is increased to the extent that the pupils cease to act as passive recipients and begin to use the various media as a means of personal expression.

Study of the various levels of the school system indicates that the multi-media approach has been adopted by the colleges after some years of popularity in secondary schools. This may be explained in part by the fact that multi-media instruction requires the availability of well equipped audio-visual centres and the presence of well qualified technicians to assist the teachers. It is surely desirable to consider the expansion of the use of a technique which is known to be of considerable value.

Télématique

Télématique is, to a certain extent, an extension of multi-media. But the possibilities are greatly enhanced by linking together the computer and the television screen. «In fact it makes use of an instrument found in most homes in the western world, television, by the mere addition of a decoder and a selector which very much resemble a small calculator. It makes possible the instantaneous dispatching of texts, graphs, animated drawings and, in the near future, of pictures and sound, from a given source to any number of receivers, no matter how far away. Each receiver is able to select his, or her, own «menu» in an appropriate language. With the flick of a switch each receiver can be converted into a sender capable of transmitting messages, answers and questions. All of it instantaneously»²⁰.

When one considers the application of the computer to teaching, the mind leaps to adult education and the myriad possibilities for the expansion of what Télé-université has already accomplished. It would make both individual and group activities not only more economical, but also more efficient. The student would be in a position, not only to pursue independent study, but also to communicate easily with others, without their having to travel in order to discuss mutual problems.

It is already quite apparent that the results of the computer revolution may be applied, in a general way, to the whole school system. The mini computers on the market suggest that the cost

of new equipment would compare favourably with that of the teaching materials presently in use in the schools. However, the production of the software required for teaching would, in the short term, be a more serious problem than the purchasing of equipment. Any decision to make use of computers in teaching on a large scale, would require training sessions for teachers and a variety of experimental applications. Many countries are ahead of Québec in this regard. This time it is not a matter, as has been the case in other fields, of bringing pedagogy up to date but rather of making an effort in the name of efficiency, knowing full well that there will be repercussions in terms of structural changes within each school and throughout the whole school system. It is vital this time, however, that pedagogy dictate the structural changes and not the reverse. The pedagogic and technological tools which the computer represents are no more magical than any other. What is different is that it creates a new language and a new culture, comparable in many ways to the revolution caused by the advent of printing during the period of classical humanism. It is also important to establish its capacity to counteract demotivation as a pedagogic problem in communications, as well as to see whether it will make for more effective pedagogy.

Classroom studies carried on between 1975 and 1978 indicate the efficiency on instruction carried on with the aid of mini-computers: «Most of the students were able to complete a course of study

20. Francis Meynard, La télématique en éducation: lubie ou prévoyance? Speech delivered at the Conference «Télématique en Education». Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'éducation, Service général des moyens d'enseignement, 82-01-28, (code 54-9559), pp. 7-8. See Also, by the same author: Demain: l'ordinateur à l'école Gouvernement du Québec, Ministère de l'éducation, Service général des moyens d'enseignement, Québec, 1981, 105 p.

in as little as half the normal time, with greater efficiency in terms of achievement per time unit, improved skills and the provision of instruction previously unavailable by conventional methods»²¹. Adults would be remiss to permit children to work only with the tools of yesterday and to deny them access to what the computer offers.

3. Effective Pedagogy: Everybody's Business

Analysis of effective pedagogy brings to light any number of possibilities. But it also concludes by demonstrating that such efficiency can never be completely achieved without the support of the whole school and the assurance of favourable conditions throughout the educational system. *Pedagogic effectiveness must be bolstered by actions based on personal and group decisions, on a minimum consensus of educators, on measures supported by the administration and pedagogic structures, in the final analysis on a climate and sense of responsibility which is not parachuted from the outside, but which arises from the very life of the school, department, faculty or college.*

Meeting of Teachers for Educational Purposes

Meetings of educators are made use in a variety of ways at all levels, school commission and region, throughout the school system. Teachers

21. Peter Matijosaitis, The microcomputer Revolution in Education: What are we Doing about it? in Comment on Education, Vol. 12, No. 13, February, 1982, p. 22.
See, also, Jay Phipps, The Electronic School, Canadian Education Association, Toronto, 1982, 39 p.

meet regularly on a formal or informal basis on a departmental or syndical basis and during pedagogic days. The matters of main interest at these many encounters is not always teaching or or how to improve the lot of pupils. *It is, however important to encourage the organization of meetings of teachers for the discussion of pedagogic questions.* This may be done on a departmental, class, subject or other basis.

Teachers are the first to recognize their need to meet in order to discuss the needs of pupils. Not to do so would be to ignore a professional obligation. There is a risk of teachers and pupils existing side by side without there being any useful dialogue. On the other hand, it often happens that when teachers do agree to meet, the discussion hinges on those problem cases which upset classes and lessen efficiency. Even at the level of a discussion of behaviour, it should be possible to go beyond mere comments and descriptions and to grapple with some of the basic problems and to bring about the necessary changes.

It seems to be difficult, throughout the educational system, for educators to communicate with one another on a truly pedagogic level. Nevertheless a discussion of current practices would be sufficient to keep people on their toes²². Such discussion and sharing presuppose, naturally, a disposition on the part of educators to be interested in the progress of their pupils. Once minor irritations have been eliminated, such meetings can only be of benefit to the pupils, as well as a source of satisfaction to the teachers.

22. Questions such as the following might be asked: To what extent do present methods actually encourage learning? What method is appropriate to a given situation? How successful are present methods and approaches?

The Common School or «the School within the School»

As is well known, the school has several objectives: to encourage the development of attitudes and behaviour attuned to civilized principles²³ and at the same time, to develop the intelligence and capacity for judgement of the pupils. These two fundamental objectives of the school cannot, however, be attained without efficient and varied means of doing so. Meetings of educators to consider student behaviour and other pedagogic questions are in conformity with these objectives and are one means of ensuring the setting up to teams of teachers and of more stable groupings of pupils. Such groupings constitute, for want of a better word, «a school within the school» desirous of respecting a diversity of clienteles and of learning experiences. The school within the school, thus, pursues the general objectives of the larger group, but in a way which takes into account the special needs of particular groups of pupils.

In the case of secondary schools, there may be a grouping of the pupils of the first cycle in the larger polyvalents. The pupils of the first or second year may have all their classes in a given part of the school, providing them with a stable environment. This arrangement may have little direct effect on classroom teaching, it does, however, create a climate favourable to learning. Classroom teaching may be carried on without the complications arising from the rather traumatic climate of the huge school.

23. See the Québec Human Rights Commission, Jeunes, égaux en droits et responsables, Québec, 1981, 38 p.

In some school the same system has been used with pupils in the Short Vocational Course. *When based on the voluntary participation of teachers, this type of organization seems to give the pupils a feeling of self-confidence.* Instead of feeling like outsiders, they develop a group identity, to the point that there is often a drop in absenteeism as motivation increases. These pupils feel happier with school, they apply themselves and have greater success. This principle of the school within the school may serve to illustrate that homogeneous grouping is not always discriminatory, and that it may contribute to efficiency, when used properly. That is to say, where it recognizes people for what they are and acts as a spur to success²⁴. Should the suggestion that the Short Vocational Course, with its special courses, be abolished as a separate program, then this system should be kept in mind as a means of assuring the pupils effective instruction in a climate of security. An individualized approach to teaching would also be required.

The school within the school is a response to particular needs of pupils by means of an encadrement which makes for more effective teaching. *This respect for difference in school population may also be applied to differences in teaching experiences.* Any such grouping would be based on pedagogic requirements. In exceptional cases, pedagogic diversity and the requirements of renewal might

24. Criticism is valid to the extent that it demonstrates that the unskilled worker is inevitably the mechanical slave of capitalist exploitation. Such criticism is aimed at the whole school system which does not provide Short Vocational pupils with quality instruction. But it creates paralysis when it prevents the utilisation of teaching methods which might be useful with some pupils.

call for the setting up of a «college within the college». In such a case, the grouping together of both pupils and teachers, the organization of courses, and the overall organization would tend to form a homogeneous whole, favouring a given school of educational thought. This type of homogeneity has no connection with the organization of homogeneous groups on the basis of achievement, as was the case with «streaming» in secondary school. Rather, it is based on the participation of pupils and teachers in a pedagogic project.

These examples of pedagogic renewal are among those which do not change the appearance of existing structures. It may be not the whole school, nor a school within the school, but merely some classes within the school that develop a pedagogic project which does not affect the overall organization of the institution. In other words, pedagogic renewal may be a matter of attitudes and skills within the framework of the system as it exists.

During its consultations and visits, the Conseil has been able to discover two different methods of bringing about pedagogic renewal within the classes of the same school. One involves teachers who apply within their classrooms teaching methods acquired outside the school during an inservice training-program. Generally speaking, their classes are like islands, having little influence on the rest of the school, the other teachers or the administration. The other involves the administrations' bringing in resources from outside. It provides teachers with a model which may be used in connection with one or other of the objectives, to the extent that the teachers may wish to do so. The classes are all different from each other,

and each of them tends to borrow those aspects of the model which suit its purposes.

This is not the place to predict which of the two has the greater chances of success. But in every case there is evidence of a «pedagogic contract» between the administration and the teachers and that outside resources contribute to the launching of a project which then takes on a life of its own.

Support for Pedagogy and Pedagogic Support for Pupils

The addition of resources, principally human resources, to any project for pedagogic renewal brings up the whole question of support for pedagogy and of the resources required for its development. The question of support for the teachers, in terms of in-service training or of the provision of advisors and specialists, is intimately related to that of support for the pupils, particularly those who most need it, on the part of the teachers and all those who are called upon to facilitate the development of the pupil's personality. In the final analysis, all pedagogic support should be intended for the pupils, and should be examined with this in mind.

In practice, pedagogic support is provided in two ways. The first consists of providing assistance outside of the classroom. This is how «free flow»²⁵ is carried on in most cases. This is true also of

25. «Free flow» refers to the system whereby pupils are withdrawn by the special class teacher from regular classes for varying periods of time, according to need; this technique preserves the pupil's feeling of belonging to a regular class.

special class teachers who work with pupils having particular problems outside regular classroom activities. There is some risk in this case of fragmentation of teaching and of the pupil's developing a feeling of inferiority, or of being side tracked, if too much attention is paid to the problem.

The resources of the school may also be used within the classroom. In this case, specialists are associated with pedagogic project and participate directly with the teacher in classroom activities. They act as partners, paying attention as much to attitudes and behaviour as to the subject matter.

The teachers feel that they are being supported, rather than spied upon and judged. Everything is done as part of a flexible program which fosters a climate of mutual confidence. This form of assistance makes possible very rapid individual progress on the part of pupils. The integration of pupils with learning problems into regular classes will be successful to the extent that such pupils are provided with this type of support.

These two methods of providing support are an expression of two reconcilable pedagogic attitudes. One stresses motivation, requirements and the obstacles which prevent a pupil's succeeding, despite an acceptable I.Q. The other, ignoring prerequisites, tends, right away, to place the pupil in a situation where success is assured. The second leads pupils to believe that school achievement may be a source of personal satisfaction and that improvement may result from it. Whether one approaches pedagogic assistance must be resolutely aimed at the pupil and towards teaching, and the classroom.

Pedagogic Renewal and the Environment

No matter from what angle it be approached, if it is to be efficient, pedagogy requires a particular environment and partners who are interdependent. There is no question of repeating what has been said elsewhere²⁶, but it is essential to recall the requirements for the renewal of pedagogic projects within an institution and for their successful completion.

The first of these is an *open attitude* towards colleagues and parents, who may sometimes be asked to participate in classroom activities or to supervise at home activities begun in the school. This openness is based on freedom and mutual confidence. While working together no one feels obliged to show off. Effectiveness results from the fact that it is not an end in itself, but is sought after in order to meet the needs of the pupils.

Secondly, pedagogy then brings out an attitude and a capacity for initiative on the part of all involved. Once it is clear that no one is threatened, enthusiasm for the project increases and, at the same time, resistance to change lessens.

It is usually a fact that, in any innovative pedagogic project, *personal initiative overcomes material constraints*. This is not to say that poverty of resources should be considered an ideal. However, many a pedagogic project has been brought to fruition with the rela-

26. Marthe Henripin and Gilles Ayotte, *Se prendre en main pour les enfants: le projet éducatif de l'école*, Québec, Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, 1. *Des écoles se mettent en marche*, 1980, 203 p., 2. *Comment s'y est-on pris? La démarche commune de onze écoles et de leur commission scolaire*, 1981, 272 p.

tively modest resources at hand, thanks mainly to the strong motivation of those involved. This willingness to push ahead helps to find ways around the obstacles created by the regulations regarding labour relations.

In pedagogic renewal projects at the elementary and secondary levels parents are almost always involved as collaborators or partners. Once teachers have learned how to welcome them and to involve them in educational activities, they are no longer seen as being a menace.

The effort involved in the renewal of pedagogic practice *encourages teachers to take on responsibilities which lead to self satisfaction.* It is unrealistic to assume to any educational project can be carried on without the agreement of the teachers. Pedagogic renewal requires more than simple agreement; it calls for a conscious act of voluntary participation. In order for the teachers' participation to be more than lip service, they must be convinced that their action will improve the lot of pupils. Nor must the teachers feel threatened by their accepting or taking the initiative to bring about pedagogic renewal. The inclination to change evaporates rapidly when the security of the profession or of colleagues appears threatened.

The support and leadership of the administration play a crucial role in most projects of pedagogic renewal. Even when the action is limited to one or several classes within a school, the principal's support is vital. It goes without saying that, when the renewal covers the whole establishment, such support is essential. It should show itself in how the collective agreements are applied,

in measures as practical as the equitable distribution of texts and other equipment, and by constant interest in teaching and, finally, by giving priority to the pedagogic needs of pupils over purely administrative considerations. In addition to facilitating, encouraging and supporting a pedagogic project, the principal can show educational leadership by becoming involved in the project in a practical way. Thus pedagogy becomes not the prerogative of a particular group, but the living evidence of a common commitment to education.

The most direct effect of any effort to bring about pedagogic efficiency is *to make the educational environment more meaningful*. Of all the components of the educational environment, it is people who exercise the greatest influence on the pupils. When they meet together in the context of a common pedagogic endeavour, they contribute to the creation of a meaningful educational environment for the pupils. Some aggressive behaviour on the part of pupils is in reality only a form of rejection of an adult world which ignores the school's essential objectives. When the adults in a school work together to improve instruction, there are repercussions in terms, as much of pupil behaviour, as of academic achievement. Pedagogic renewal is not confined only to the school. It has effects on the community and spreads to other schools in the region. Pedagogic renewal in a school has a ripple effect on the whole community.

Observation of efforts at pedagogical renewal at the classroom and school levels sometimes lead one to believe that effective teaching is being carried on in various ways despite the rigidity of labour

relations, and by paying limited attention to the régime pédagogique as well as by giving the course of study a rather liberal interpretation. It is true that these administrative documents and policy statements leave much to be desired when viewed in the light of the requirements of day to day teaching. The rules governing pedagogic practice could benefit from improvement in several areas. But it is also advisable to establish what action is possible to improve teaching, while respecting the spirit of the terms of reference, regulations and agreements, at every level of education, before attempting to make any important changes in structures.

The Courses of Study and Pedagogy

Any consideration of teaching materials should be undertaken in the context of Operation New Courses, which will occupy centre stage in elementary and secondary education for several more years. This operation should make it possible to improve teaching, as long as the courses of study and curriculum guides which are to follow are not held to have magical properties. Once the new courses have been developed and put into practice much will have been accomplished, but much more will remain to be done. Steps must be taken to ensure that text books and teaching materials will be available in the classroom.

The attitude of teachers, and of school people in general, towards these new courses of study is somewhat ambivalent. Everyone remembers the time of the general course outlines. It was, at the same time, productive and trying. People often felt naked and

alone. Many were the possibilities for initiative. Looking back on this period, teachers experience a certain nostalgia and uneasiness. They can remember, in addition to a feeling of being alone, the efforts that were made, the successes and failures, and that they lived through the experience, despite everything, and cannot but feel proud of what was achieved. On the other hand they realize that the overly generous guidelines of the course outlines made it difficult to arrive at that minimum consensus needed for coherent and effective teaching. However, they have no desire to have imposed upon them new objectives and ways of doing things which ignore the time and effort already invested. They have no wish to exchange unlimited freedom for a situation which would deprive them of their pedagogic beliefs and practices. They would prefer a new freedom in line with reasonable economy and teaching efficiency. They have no interest in a pedagogy which is stifled and controlled.

Will the new courses of study provide a way out of this ambivalence, and, above all, will they respond to the legitimate aspirations of conscientious educators? There is, as yet, no clear answer to this question, since the courses have not all received official sanction and have not come into use in certain regions of Québec. It is not possible to give a theoretical answer based on intentions published during the introduction of the courses. A definitive answer will be forthcoming from those who will use the courses of study with their pupils on a daily basis. It is only possible to inquire as to what the new courses of study emphasize, what they do or do not exclude, without making any judgement.

Before going any farther, it might be well to discuss that general tendency known as «covering the course». As is well known, this tendency existed long before the advent of the new courses of study. It occurred during the whole period of the course outlines which were not particularly restrictive. Is this reaction based on some form of instinctive caution which demands obedience to a syllabus, as to a sort of outside authority? No one can be blamed if the pupils do not succeed, as long as it can be demonstrated that what was required was covered. No matter the extent of the plausibility of the explanations, those responsible for the educational system must examine this tendency in order to arrive at its cause. The courses of study exist for the pupils, and not the opposite. They also exist for society, but all that is included therein cannot be found within a course of study.

There is no way of denying that the new courses of study involve pedagogic choices. They consist of modules, or units of content, and of precise teaching objectives. They seem to favour teaching by objectives. In some cases they determine the approach or procedures to be followed. They use a systematic, or systemic, technique. At the same time no attempt is made to impose a method. They open the door to a diversity of educational situations which lend themselves to teaching with environmental overtones. Attention is drawn to emotional and behavioural objectives as much as to cognitive ones. They make possible both formative and summative evaluation. They call for the adaptation required by the rate and style of learning of all types of pupil.

In the final analysis, it cannot be said that the new courses of study stifle pedagogic initiative. They are not, in themselves, creative, nor do they demand slavish adherence. They define the goals to be attained, but leave room for a great diversity of ways of so doing. They influence teaching by providing guidelines, but they are not restrictive. The real pedagogic answer concerning the courses of study is a matter for those in the field who will evaluate them periodically in terms of their experience and initiative.

The Régimes Pédagogiques: Methods and Attitudes

In order to ensure teaching of high quality and effectiveness, the régimes pédagogiques provide for services of all sorts (personnel, support, educational) for teaching materials and courses of study.

The multiplicity of student services is of significance to the educational life of the schools, but nowhere does the régime pédagogique specify how they will be provided. In some cases, such as the integration of children with learning problems, a step by step process is recommended for successful implementation²⁷. Experience in the field indicates great diversity in the initiatives undertaken, not only in terms of pupil encadrement and integration, but also in terms of the provision of specialized services for the pupils.

Among the numerous matters which the régime pédagogique emphasises is one that merits particular attention because of its eventual impact on teaching. *It is that of teaching materials, including that which is commonly referred to as the basic material.*

27. This prudence is sometimes contradicted by «brutal» techniques of integration.

The obvious intention to draw the schools away from their love affair with the photocopier must not bring about a return to the limitations of yesteryear. The desire to provide each pupil with at least one text in order to cover the course will be ineffective if it is accompanied by a refusal to permit the utilisation of other materials required for effective teaching.

Generally speaking, to provide every pupil, in every class and in every subject with at least one textbook would appear to be a step forward. In order for it to be effective it should take place at the same time as the implementation of the courses of study.

In this regard, one would expect, in the name of effective teaching, the Ministère de l'éducation, the school commissions and the publishers to provide joint dynamic leadership in providing the schools with adequate materials at the earliest possible moment. It is not enough to lay down the required characteristics for didactic material. Once again everything must be done to provide what is too often lacking for effective teaching.

There is no question of the Ministère's becoming involved in the production of materials for the schools, but it should at least ensure favourable conditions for their development and production. There is a great deal of talent among teachers which could be tapped in order to provide Québec schools with materials of high quality. Creative pedagogy in the classroom would certainly gain therefrom.

The application and coming into force of the Régimes Pédagogiques pose another question, not of means, but of attitudes.

As do the courses of study, and to an even greater extent, the Régimes Pédagogiques have implications, not only for pedagogy, but also for the organization of the schools. From the point of view of those working closest to the pupils this package appears uniform and limiting. However, the commentaries which accompany the official texts of the Régimes Pédagogiques are far from lacking in flexibility and scope. Hence, where do teachers get the feeling of being controlled from on high and far away?

In large part this feeling is the result of the way in which the Régimes Pédagogiques are seen and applied, something which is common to all levels of the school system. The Ministère, itself, does not publicize nor draw sufficient attention to the freedom inherent in the Régimes Pédagogiques. In a school system where there are no accredited institutions there may be a fear that too great diversity will not always guarantee minimum standards. In the schools and school commissions there is often a preference for a frame of reference in order to avoid too much improvisation. There is often hesitation to do what is permissible and the possibilities of a situation remain limited to what the Ministère's minimum requirements.

It would clearly be preferable if, while respecting the required coherence, different approaches could be developed without the

necessity of going through the whole hierarchy of the system each time, from the school to the school commission and from the commission to the Ministère. Innovation would be possible within wide limits. It is possible, for example, to conceive of individualized modular instruction which would call for greater latitude in the application of courses, of the teaching of English as a second language in communities where most of the children are already bilingual, of an allocation of time in terms of the teaching methods employed or, of providing moral instruction for all of the children in «alternative» schools.

In the final analysis, it is important that school organization cease to be given priority over pedagogy. A régime «pédagogique» is intended, first of all, to favour quality instruction, Or is it?

Labour Relations and the Daily Task

One is tempted to say that collective agreements are as important as Régimes Pédagogiques and courses of study. These collective agreements regulate the conditions for a professional activity which, lest we forget, is teaching. We must, therefore, attempt at this point, to look at labour relations from a teaching point of view. It is important to examine the limitations and possibilities of daily teaching as they are affected by labour relations.

The collective agreement has both a positive and a negative influence on day to day teaching; it both stimulates and paralyses. It pro-

vides broad profession protection which guarantees daily bread, but at the same time it creates insecurity for teachers, classes and the schools, when, for example, through a combination of contract rules and administrative decisions a teacher is obliged to change classes or schools because of seniority. In other cases a teacher may be required to teach subjects for which he, or she, has neither the competence nor the experience. Such a situation, unacceptable from many points of view, affects the quality of teaching, even though the means for evaluating its effect on the whole system have yet to be developed.

It is necessary, as the Conseil itself, has pointed out²⁸ to correct the main weaknesses of the collective agreements by measures more likely to encourage quality and effectiveness in teaching; greater flexibility in the definition of teaching assignments, a more practical approach to the integration of children with learning problems, a better use of available human resources, etc. It is also necessary that the schools be able to enter into local arrangements that guarantee better classroom teaching²⁹. All too often it is not the collective agreement that influences teaching as much as it is the nature of labour relations.

While taking into account these indispensable reforms which involve all those involved in the system, is it utopic to re-iterate that the key to any possible renewal resides primarily in fundamental

28. See the Conseil's Opinion to the Ministre de l'éducation, For the Improvement of the Collective Agreements, 14 February, 1982

29. Such local arrangements exist already in the cegeps.

educational attitudes and in a collective concern for effective teaching in classes and schools, and consequently on the whole educational system? It is clear that where pedagogic experiments designed to meet the needs of pupils are being carried on, the dead hand of the collective agreement is felt to a lesser extent. When instead of being administered exclusively in terms of statistics and a narrow interpretation of labour relations, schools encourage teaching aimed at personalization, pedagogy has some chance of escaping from the restraints implicit in the collective agreements and of being, as a result, more effective.

SUMMARY

In a perspective of personalization, teaching is effective if it is differentiated. The means are not selected because they are attractive or interesting to teachers or because of their economy. Teaching approaches and materials should be selected primarily because they are suitable for a variety of users and because they meet the needs of diverse persons and groups as adequately as possible.

Individualization is not carried on for its own sake, nor as a matter of belief. However, personalized teaching may lead to extreme forms of individualization. It may well happen that some members of a group of pupils require, for example, mastery teaching as an efficient means of assuring their learning of the fundamentals. But this does not call for the provision of individualized instruction for all pupils, indiscriminately.

Differentiated pedagogy is a pedagogy of participation. In a constant attempt to meet the needs of students, teaching calls for a considerable effort to differentiate. This requirement cannot be met by a single teacher acting alone. It requires that teachers work together and share approaches and materials for the benefit of the pupils. In order to be effective, differentiated teaching requires the active collaboration of all those involved in the operation of a school.

The contribution of specialists should be adjusted to the classroom situation for it to be of greatest benefit to the pupils.

There is a way in which specialists or consultants in various subjects can work with teachers without impinging on their teaching or accentuating areas of responsibility. It consists of becoming involved in classroom activities and working with the teachers to solve problems as they arise. Such an association, directed toward common search for pedagogic solutions, is based on the mutual conviction of teachers and consultants of being equal and different partners in the service of young people.

When teaching involves the use of methods associated with sophisticated technology, new and particular experiments are necessary. Not all teachers can, at the same time, become competent in the use of multi-média, télématique, or in the development of modules or materials for programmed learning. But it is important for the future of teaching, that some of them become familiar with one or the other of the various techniques. They will then be in a position to form teams with others for the renewal of day to day teaching.

Any renewal of pedagogy, which involves the use of technological, or even more simple means, requires a minimum of logistical support. This support may take various forms, from the provision of greater flexibility in school organization, to the granting of funds for specific projects. In the vast field of teaching materials good intentions often require support at the beginning and along the way. Administrative and financial support may, then, contribute to the transformation of a simple local experiment into a real service to the Québec collectivity.

CHAPTER 10 THE SCHOOL AND THE FUTURE OF A SOCIETY

Pedagogy cannot escape from social pressures, no matter what the sector or level of teaching involved. These influences are both explicit and subtle.

Social implications are particularly noticeable in adult education, notably in those courses whose objective is the improvement of the living conditions of the participants. Socio-political controversy and subsequent involvement in the power struggle have not only flourished at the college and university levels for the last fifteen years, they have held the centre of the stage for much of that time. At the elementary and secondary levels, the preoccupation with rooting the educational project in the community, which has been referred to as «The school in the milieu; the milieu in the school», bears testimony to this interdependence of school and society. It is, therefore, necessary to analyse pedagogic practices in terms of this social dimension. It now behooves us to bring together and clarify important factors in the social background of pedagogic practices.

1. The Temptation to Reduce Education to Instruction

Some professors claim that they no longer are aware of what it is to educate. Others abdicate their role as educators and limit themselves to their special field of competence. Finally, still others question the capacity of the school to educate, given the influence exercised by other organizations.

It is certainly possible to conceive of the school's role in different ways, for example, in terms of the degree of autonomy which it enjoys.

If it be a question of the extraction of square roots, or of teaching a second language, or of writing, the school is to a large extent autonomous. If it be a question of enabling the pupils to criticise a show or the information transmitted on the small screen, or of acquiring social attitudes free of racism and sexism, or of understanding and respecting nature, educational institutions are not the only influence at work. The classic way of simplifying any debate of the aims of education consists of reducing it to the making of a choice between the acquisition of knowledge and of special skills and the more balanced development of the whole personality. There is, therefore, a tendency to want to stay within the limits of what the school can accomplish in an autonomous way and with relative independence.

If the teachers do not desire to take into account the family situation, the economic conditions and the cultural and social environment of their pupils, and if the school tends to limit itself to the purely academic domain, we are witnessing a dissociation of instruction and education. Any such tendency must be strongly resisted. To reduce the scope of the aims of education, to a consideration of only those areas in which there is little chance of interaction of the school, college, or university with the family, the media, causes or business would in no way meet the

expectations and needs of society, nor of its members¹.

There are those who take pleasure in blaming the school for a good many, if not all, of the problems of society. The Conseil wishes to make its analysis in a different perspective, one which avoids any dissociation of the school from society or any opposition of the one to the other. This perspective consists of taking the problems of society as challenges to be taken up by education and the schools.

2. Problems of Society and Educational Challenge

The Struggle against Social Inequality

Social inequality, which is expressed as socio-political marginality and economic misery, remains a major social problem, one which very much concerns the educational system. It is hardly necessary to challenge those who take the position that social inequality is a problem brought on by the schools. This is a concept of the world as seen through a looking glass.

Educators who are able to see their pupils, not as individuals to be reduced to a given common denominator², but as persons, each

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1. The Schools of Québec includes a restatement of the aims of education which opts very clearly for a broader rather than a restricted role for educational instruction. See pp. 26-28.
 2. The effects of treating the norm as an average and of normality were referred to in Chapter 6, p. 91.

with a particular background, are in a position to ensure everyone an education of quality, including those who come from economically disadvantaged areas. Focussing the school on the pupil, or pedagogy on the learner, is a principle which has for too long been interpreted as encouraging individualism. When faced with the problem of economically feeble communities it is vitally important to see this principle in a social as well as a psychological context. Taking into account the attachment of people for their community, whether they be young or adult, involves considering their experiences, their attitudes, their aspirations and profitting from them. In other words, it also means respecting differences. Not only must consideration for the learner have priority over «covering the course», but in addition this «refocussing» must encourage the educational institution to take people as they are, making sure that they are not treated primarily in terms of the all too handy label of their socio-cultural handicaps. The new courses of study appear to conceive of teaching in the following terms:

«As seen by the authors of the courses of study, teaching depends on those vital forces which influence human behaviour, for young people - as The Schools of Québec notes on page 84 - have an intimate relationship with their family and socio-cultural surroundings, with that human fabric which marks the personality of youth and provides its principal sources of motivation³».

3. Fernand Toussaint, Nouveaux programmes et pédagogie, Vie pédagogique, April 1980, p. 7.

As Gilbert de Landsheere writes:

«The means provided by research for respecting individual rates and methods of development find their main application in the effective correction of the simplistic demand for 'equality of opportunity through equality of educational treatment'. Following a period of pedagogic romanticism, of which the unbridled non-directivity witnessed about 1968 was only one of the symptoms, objective observation and evaluation and the educational developments which we have just mentioned lead us today to demand equality of opportunity through inequality (by this we mean personalization) of treatment. Thus, at the same time the research activity into compensation for socio-cultural handicaps, begun as is well known, at considerable expense in the United States during the 60's, and spreading across the world between 1965 and 1975, has run its course⁴».

The struggle against social inequality on the educational scene calls for the unequal division of resources, a division which is proportional to need; this principle is more and more accepted in the norms governing an entire system. There is, however, a risk of this principle's not becoming a reality if it is not reflected in the attitudes adopted by teachers in the classroom. A pedagogy is required which pays attention to people as individuals and as groups, and which encourages flexibility of approach.

4. Gilbert de Landsheere, La pédagogie expérimentale, in Histoire mondiale de l'éducation, Paris, P.U.F., 1981, vol 4, p. 492.

Statistical studies indicate in advance which children are most likely to experience academic failure without in any way establishing the causes or the results. These studies may demonstrate the existence of a close correlation between socio-economic factors and academic achievement, but this does not show that any greater probability of failure is practically inevitable. It is extremely harmful, from the human point of view, to transform the subtle truths of statistical analysis into ideological absolutes. To do so is to encourage passivity and resignation on the part of school authorities and to bring those with nothing to renounce their legitimate aspirations or to become aggressive, two attitudes which do nothing to enhance their chances of success.

Social inequality and the injustice that goes with it constitute a problem which merits study. It is necessary, however, to go beyond individual considerations and to stimulate collective discussion. Social inequality is a collective problem which calls for personal and collective involvement. Any adequate solution depends on *concerted action by educators* and on the exercising of *leadership* at the institutional level, leadership which strives to establish an institutional climate favourable to mastery learning. The child or adult from a disadvantaged neighbourhood needs, perhaps more than anyone, the help of others to become convinced that he, or she, is capable of reaching his, or her, educational objectives. There is, equally, a need to analyse the source of problems and to solve them by using the pupil's knowledge and potential.

One controversial study, *Fifteen Thousand Hours: Secondary Schools and Their Effects on School Children*⁵, contributes as do Cherkaoui's *Paradoxes de la réussite scolaire*⁶ and others (see Chapter 2, section 3) to Contestation of «Holy Writ» according to which, among the many factors involved, those of an academic nature count for very little in the difference of results, in comparison with those of an economic and cultural origin.

We must work to reduce social inequalities beginning in the elementary school⁷. It is clearly understood today, that if no start is made at this level, it will be extremely difficult to combat the effects of these inequalities later on. Very often the greatest challenge is thought to exist at the secondary level. One feels quite helpless there. There appears to be no way of coping with the heterogeneity of backgrounds, states of mind or aspirations. The diversification of courses may very well lead only to the development of files or of «streams» leading only to quicksands. Because of its failure to ensure the promotion and development of all those it takes in, secondary education lends itself to failure and the practice of academic selection which, then, leads to social inequality.

5. By Michael Rutter, B. Maughan, P. Mortimer and J. Ouston, London, Open Books, 1979.

6. Paris, PUF, 1979.

7. Vide supra, Chapter 1

A goodly number of young people manage to get through secondary school with little or no difficulty⁸. Among those who do not succeed in pulling their chestnuts out of the fire is a disproportionate number of children from disadvantaged areas. If those who are now left by the wayside are to be better served, the challenge represented by the need for the adaptation of content and teaching methods must be met. To this end, any measure which attracts the most gifted and devoted teachers to those groups of pupils least able to fend for themselves must be encouraged. Should the school boards take steps to assign their best teachers to such groups, their efforts would have the results anticipated. In some areas it is simply a matter of common sense...

Education and Social Change

Like that of many other developed countries, Québec society has entered into a period of rapid change, following many years of relative stability. This is due to both economic growth and technological progress. In any traditional society education is synonymous with stability. It naturally encourages conformity with existing standards and integration into stable social structures. The education reserved for a minority permits its members to become part of the socio-economic elite, while the majority of citizens, who have difficulty in completing even

8. Statistical studies show that 56% of young people obtained a Certificate of Secondary Studies in 1976. Five years later, in 1981, the figure was 63%.

elementary school, have little to say concerning the operation of society. The concept of continuous progress has gradually come to the fore in Québec schools, especially since the Second World War. The post war economic boom, along with fundamental changes in industrial methods (sophisticated technology, automation, instantaneous communication...) have lead to the association of the notion of unlimited progress with blind confidence in the ability of technology to solve any problem. This phase in the development of industrial society seems to have been concurrent with a kind of individualistic euphoria and a feeling of unlimited freedom in the educational field.

Education has not emerged unscathed from this transition from one type of society to another. Education no longer signifies acceptance of conformity, but the capacity to adapt oneself, to find one's place in a rapidly changing, heterogeneous and unstable social system. Education also means to exercise one's critical faculties, to learn to live with questions, to resolve tensions and to overcome conflicts. Education also means, given the very rapid evolution of scientific thought, that it is no longer possible to acquire all that there is to know. Hence, such notions as «learning to learn» and «continuing education» must be considered.

Nevertheless, this phenomenon may be viewed from another and somewhat contradictory perspective because of the links between education and social change and between teaching and the cultural values of a society. For one thing, unlimited growth is unthinkable,

because of limited and, for the most part, non-renewable resources. For another, there is the spread of a school of thought which is more ecologically than analytically oriented. This is more conducive to greater awareness of the interdependence of man and the environment, of the individual and society and of the biological and the psychic. At the same time, the requirement that clearer and more critical consideration be given the human problems arising from technology is being pushed to the fore by the media, in political platforms and by various associations⁹. The use of urea-formaldehyde foam in housing is a case in point. The rapid development of a general awareness of the problems of environmental preservation are but an indication of the emergence of schools of thought with a broad ecological perspective, that is with great attention to interdependence, the complexity of life systems and to long term considerations. Such thinking is a stimulus to pedagogic considerations¹⁰; it focusses quite naturally on the social, cultural and political aspects of problems.

This way of seeing things finds expression in terms of objectives and of application. As much emphasis is placed on the need to become aware of the human and social aspects of problems, going

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9. The recent report of the Club of Rome, entitled We Never Cease to Learn (D. Botkin et al., edited by Pergamon) presents a clearly stated argument in support of this approach.
 10. See, for example, Joël de Rosnay, Le macroscopie, Paris, Ed. du Seuil, 1977 or Marilyn Ferguson, Les enfants du Verseau, Pour un nouveau paradigme, Paris, Calmann-Lévy, 1981.

beyond technological breakthroughs and economic progress, as on the need to develop attitudes and responsibilities relative to these problems. Liberty is still viewed as a fundamental value, more collective than individual, without, however being completely the former. Studies carried out by various researchers into the possible evolution of the education which would produce this sort of man, or woman, and society certainly pay much attention to the social aspect, but to much lesser extent than is the case with some analyses¹¹.

A Society Confronted with the Problem of Violence

Social violence is another field which provides the educator with two extremes: to give up and to remain within clearly controllable objectives, or to become involved, often in a minority situation, on extremely delicate ground, by trying to influence situations with the means at hand. Violence does not need to be explicit for it to be a part of some teaching methods¹²: for example, in a class where the young people are not able to pose questions or discuss them, there is a denial of the right to pluralism. Anyone wishing to educate children to struggle against violence must take steps to eliminate it, both explicitly and implicitly from the classroom.

11. See Paul Valois and Yves Bertrand Le paradigme inventif de l'éducation, McGill Journal of Education, Autumn 1981, vol XVI, no 3, pp. 267-281. The same subject is covered at greater length by the same authors in Les options en éducation, Québec. Editeur officiel, 1982, second edition) Jacques de Grand-Maison expresses much the same opinion, particularly in Pour une pédagogie sociale d'auto-développement en éducation, Montréal, éd. Stanké, 1976, or Une philosophie de la vie, particularly pp. 177-186, Montréal, éd. Leméac, 1977.

12. Vide supra, Chap. 6.

Today's education stresses an openness towards others which shows itself in acceptance of differences of colour, language, sex and culture as well as in co-operation and solidarity.

That the school should ensure the socialization of the young people who attend it is freely acknowledged. However, it cannot be said that the school always completely fulfills its role as far as its objectives involving social training are concerned. Such training is often neglected, even more so than is the much discussed sex education course. Real social training is carried as much through explicit teaching as through social relationships experienced at school. How many educators and schools provide unflagging examples of the values they preach? Above all, how many have taken it upon themselves to civilize the relations between the various groups in their populations and to introduce objectives related to life in society as part of life in school? Learning to live as a good citizen is just as important for each person as learning to read or to understand scientific phenomena. A society which wishes to continue to exist and to develop cannot expect any less of its citizens of the future.

For an Open School in a Welcoming Society

The twentieth century is characterized by the mobility of populations and Québec society, like many others, has for a long time welcomed citizens from elsewhere who have come to settle in our corner of America. On the social level, the presence of various ethnic groups, the result of more or less recent immigration, represents an undeniable cultural asset. Some observers even

consider Québec to be a remarkably welcoming society, due no doubt, to an attitude which respects differences while rejecting the melting pot approach to immigration. While society as a whole may appear to provide a warm welcome to immigrants, refugees, and ethnic minorities, the same cannot be said for the school system. If the school's role, vis-à-vis a society which is becoming more and more pluralistic, is to be taken seriously, the efforts which have been made to welcome pupils from other parts of the world to the schools, must be stepped up.

3. To Instruct/Educate for what Kind of Future?

No forecast can lay claim to predicting exactly what the future holds; it can only identify those present actions which, if continued will influence events in one way rather than in another. It sketches the future in terms of the present. As with forecasting, discussion of the present state of pedagogic activities attempts to identify avenues for action which may be both possible and desirable in the near future. It is also related to forecasting in the sense that the school is not seen as holding fast to the lessons of the past, nor yet as the home of the «new man». It would be idealistic to believe that the school, by itself, can solve society's problems. What society requires of the school is that it continue to provide the leaven which will encourage us to continue to build our future together, without losing sight of the past.

Faced with the rapidity of social change, many teachers feel helpless as far as their role as educators is concerned. They

are tempted to wrap themselves in the relative security of their specialty.

There is a way out of this puzzle, this dilemma. The role of the educator has too often been represented as being «above and beyond» mere teaching. To learn is not primarily a matter of accumulating information¹³, it is to get to the bottom of things, to see how they relate to one another, to interpret them and to establish their value. To teach is to stimulate interest in fundamental intellectual and cultural values: curiosity, awareness, respect for truth, a taste for discovery, a feeling for complexity and a search for beauty.

The educator must, today as always, bear witness to the truth. He, or she, cannot permit himself, or herself, to become bogged down in that subjectivity which distorts to an extreme any relationship with reality. Nor can he, or she, take refuge in a narrow view of reality: one explanation only of a given phenomenon, a single answer to every question. A classroom in which for every question there is only one answer distorts reality and, in consequence, responsibility and intellectual honesty.

These latter values are not unrelated to those social values which make possible life in society and contribute to the development of the collectivity. This is why the emphasis must be returned to the social aspect of education in particular, but *by means of teaching, itself*, which remains a preferred means of communication and which assures contact with reality.

13. Olivier Reboul. op cit.

CONCLUSION

It was the intention of the Conseil to discuss, with the school community, current pedagogic activities in the schools of Québec. From the analysis which it carried out last year concerning the social role of educational institutions, and following its observation and analysis of current pedagogic practices, it returns once again to questions involving society. It notes that these questions involve stimulating educational challenges.

The Conseil realizes that the school does more than place instruction and education in juxtaposition to each other, but that it educates while instructing. It is in the teaching act that the school educates in terms of intellectual, social, cultural and ethical values. It is by giving preeminence to intellectual values in the schools that children receive education in human values.

At the same time the Conseil has noted that the transformation of attitudes and the use of teaching methods, which are central to pedagogy, cannot be practised in isolation. Attitudes without means run the risk of remaining at the stage of wishful thinking by focussing on educational goals which lead nowhere. Teaching methods which are not based on changed attitudes often become sterile techniques whose actual impact on pupils leaves much to be desired.

Some of the questions posed at the end of the Conseil's Annual Report entitled *The Social Role of Educational Institutions*, can now be answered¹. First of all, the school of pedagogy encouraged by the Conseil ten years ago, based on an organic conception of education, has had an appreciable effect. It has contributed to the humanization of the schools in varying degrees at the different levels. However, if it has succeeded in bringing about changes in teachers' attitudes, it has only marginally influenced teaching methods. Among other things, the Conseil is in a position to state that at the present time methods are undergoing a period of maturation which will encourage teachers to become aware of new possibilities. Today's methods are less entangled in the overtones of competing ideologies and also less dependent on the latest technical gadget.

One important perspective developed in the present report consists of uniting attitudes and methods in grappling with the problems faced by both groups and individuals in their progress from one level of the school system to another. This taking on of responsibility for group and individual problems in teaching leads to the conviction that it is not possible to separate the various levels of the educational system from each other. For example, the problems of elementary and secondary school pupils would be solved more easily if the teachers of the two levels were to

1. Gouvernement du Québec, Conseil supérieur de l'éducation, *The Social Function of Educational Institutions*, Annual Report 1980-81, Vol II, p. 68.

attack them together. Or, again, the universities should cease to criticize the lack of preparation of students from the colleges and the colleges should do more than merely complain about secondary school teaching. Otherwise each runs the risk of being shut away on its reservation while teaching becomes fragmented instead of educating.

In the light of the difficulties faced by children, adolescents, young adults and older people studying in educational institutions, it is important to find methods of teaching without any barriers. As we have seen, many teaching methods are available. The use of such methods, here and there, in the school system, is an invitation to all educators to diversify their practices in order to respond better to a variety of needs.

In its analysis of current practices, the Conseil wished, above all, to carry out a critical and forward-looking diagnosis of pedagogic activities. On many occasions analysis was conducive of admiration: many interesting initiatives exist in spite of fairly serious constraints and teaching experiments are sometimes carried out without much in the way of resources. The present study of pedagogic activities is an attempt to improve the situation, and not to single out the incompetent or the guilty.

The evaluation which the Conseil recommends to all educators is a vital and essential element of a process which aims, once educational objectives have been defined and the necessary resources to attain them have been allocated, to assess the extent to which

such objectives have been reached. It then becomes possible to adjust approaches and methods or to build on success, as the case may be.

Why should there be any reluctance to evaluate an educational experiment? Is this not the way in which to establish its transferability and applicability to other situations? The lack of enthusiasm with which the educational community sometimes regards the results of experimentation is, perhaps, the result of the way in which administrative decisions come down from on high with no real involvement of the teachers affected by them. No real educational experiment can be imposed from outside. It must be based, in the final analysis, on a desire to respond more effectively to correctly defined needs and to find a better way. Could life itself continue if it ceased to be an experiment?

APPENDIX I

MEMBERSHIP OF THE CONSEIL IN 1981-1982

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APPENDIX II

Individuals and Organization Received by the Conseil and the Annual Report Committee.

As part of its preparation of the Annual Report on "pedagogic activity" the Conseil held two public hearings in 1981-1982 in the regions of Abitibi-Témiscamingue and the Eastern Townships and organized a colloque at Lévis.

Hearings

At Rouyn, on the 12 and 13 November, 1981, the Conseil received submissions from twelve groups involved in various levels of education. The Conseil encountered school principals, parents and commissions from the Association des commissions scolaires de l'Abitibi-Témiscamingue, the commissioners and principals and teachers of the Western Québec School Commission, administrators and professors from the Collège du Nord-Ouest, as well as the administrators and professors of the Centre d'études universitaires d'Abitibi-Témiscamingue.

At Sherbrooke, on the 11 and 12 March, 1982, the Conseil once again received twelve groups in public hearings. These included persons involved in education at the following institutions: the Commission Scolaire de Sherbrooke, the Commission Scolaire Régionale de l'Estrie, the Eastern Townships Regional School Board, the Cégep de Sherbrooke, the Université de Sherbrooke and Bishops University.

Colloque

At Lévis, on the 18 and 19 February, 1982, the Conseil devoted two days to concentrated study of the theme of the Annual Report.

Twelve persons were invited to present their point of view concerning pedagogic activity in their particular sectors.

Elementary Education: Mme Colette Noël, Professor of Education, Université de Montréal, Messrs. André Paré, Professor of Education, Université Laval and Alan David, Principal, Harold Napper School, South Shore Protestant Regional School Board.

Secondary Education: Messrs. Robert Goudreau, Director General of Institut Teccart, André Langevin, Director of the Educational Projects Service, Montréal Catholic School Commission, and Raynald Legendre, Professor of Education, UQAM.

Adult Education: Messrs. Jean-Canac Marquis, Director of Adult Education, Commission Scolaire de Saint-Jérôme, Alcide Daigneault, Coordinator of Continuing Education, Cégep de Rimouski, and John Daniel, Vice Rector Teaching and Research, Concordia University.

Post-Secondary Education: Mme. Micheline De Sèves, Professor of Political Science, Université Laval, Messrs. Ulric Aylwin, Service de développement pédagogique, Cégep de Maisonneuve, and Gilles Leclerc, Director of Educational Services, Collège Marie-Victorin.

Visits and Meetings

The Annual Report Committee made visits to elementary and secondary schools where meetings were held with teachers and administrators.

Similarly, the committee entered into contact with any bodies interested in pedagogy in all sectors of teaching: university teaching service, Direction Générale de l'Enseignement Collegial, Direction Générale de l'Education des adultes, vocational training, educational services in school boards and centres for educational research.

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