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**Conceptions of Knowledge and Teaching Practice among
Music Education Students and Elementary Education Students
CAMPBELL & BURDELL**

**Musical Knowledge, Musical Identity
and the Generalist Teacher: Vicki's story
JOAN RUSSELL**

**Une approche coopérative en musique
GAÉTAN BOUCHER**

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EDITORIAL

COMMENTARY ON THIS ISSUE'S CONTENTS

The teaching of music in the public school classroom and how to prepare teachers who wish to teach music are subjects of discussion in this issue. Like many other fields of specialization, not all teachers see the teaching of music from the same point of view.

Campbell and Burdell approach this subject by examining the differences in the constructions of teaching knowledge and practice of two groups of teachers-in-training: undergraduate elementary student teachers and music teacher education students. The authors contrast the different ways in which these two groups perceive their identity, function, and role as teachers. In a related paper, Russell describes the developing identity of a student-teacher who realizes that even though she is a "generalist" she knows more about music than she ever realized. Voicing her evolving belief in herself through journal entries, she realizes that she can have considerable impact on students' appreciation and knowledge of music.

Boucher, on the other hand, develops another dimension of music education, that is, the effectiveness of cooperative learning in helping music students improve their playing and performance. This paper examines differences among students from the standpoint of technical performance rather than the tacit learning and appreciation of music as portrayed in the previous papers.

Ethical issues and how to resolve them have become the focus of many school personnel – all the way from parent-teacher interaction to the decisions made by school boards. Walker examines the details of the application of an ethical decision-making model on a situation that confronted a group of schools in western Canada. This paper's strength is its potential to sensitize all of us to the implications of seemingly innocuous decisions.

What do members of faculties of education have to contribute to medical students? This cross-disciplinary issue is examined by Ralph in his study of the results of a cross-college collaboration in the teaching of internal medicine students how to enhance their instructional skills.

Andrew Carson's name has come to be strongly associated with research in the use of aptitude scores in high school and college career assessment and counselling. His paper in this issue, developed from data gathered at McGill University, looks at the relationship that may or may not exist between intelligence (*g*) and aptitudes across Holland's types.

The final paper in this issue is a report of field-based research by Bourdages and Boudreau. They examine a training program offered to teachers who would have practice teachers from a near-by university placed under their supervision in their classrooms. The outcomes highlight the need for supervising teachers to have some formal direction in how to manage this situation properly and comfortably.

W.M.T.

CONCEPTIONS OF KNOWLEDGE AND TEACHING PRACTICE AMONG MUSIC EDUCATION STUDENTS AND ELEMENTARY EDUCATION STUDENTS

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PATRICIA A. BURDELL *Kent State University*

ABSTRACT. This study examines undergraduate elementary and music teacher education students' constructions of teaching knowledge and practice. Two vastly different types of institutionalized notions of professionalism present in the two groups are discussed in relation to students' first-time teaching experiences. Emerging out of these two contexts are significant contrasts in how they perceive their identity, function, and role as teachers. Implications regarding current curricular reform movements are explored.

RÉSUMÉ. Cette étude analyse la façon dont les étudiants d'un programme de 1^{er} cycle en formation des professeurs du primaire et de musique construisent leurs connaissances et leur pratique de l'enseignement. L'auteur analyse deux types de notions institutionnalisées radicalement différentes du professionnalisme présentes dans les deux groupes par rapport à la première expérience d'enseignement des étudiants. Il ressort de ces deux contextes des contrastes frappants dans la façon dont les étudiants perçoivent leur identité, leur fonction et leur rôle d'enseignants. L'auteur étudie les implications sur la réforme actuelle des programmes d'études.

It is widely accepted that programs leading to certification for teaching of music exist institutionally apart from liberal arts oriented programs for certification in elementary education. Field experiences, as well as a general foundation of education courses and methods courses, rarely overlap in student enrollment. Casual observation of the typical course of study of music education undergraduates and that of the elementary education undergraduates reveals very little in common between the two. The professional sequences of study for both certification programs remain quite distinct despite their intended purposes of preparing teachers to enter the professional world of teaching.

Music teacher education's separateness from other teaching certification programs has been a source of pride for the music education

profession. As Colwell (1985) notes, the program itself has tended to be content with its accomplishments in meeting both the musical and educational needs of its preservice students without any systematic evaluation or critique. Its long detachment from the programs that certify teachers in elementary education reflects not only the history of music education itself, but, as Keene (1982) observes, a defining of what a music teacher should be.

Many teacher educators in elementary certification programs have argued for the creation of a more tightly controlled and specialized professionalization movement. The Holmes Group (1986) and the Carnegie Task Force (1986), for example, have called for a more rigorous academic background for elementary teachers. Many such programs are now in existence. Making an analogy to the professions of law and medicine, these reforms call for fifth-year programs that would require teachers to have a bachelor's degree in a specialized academic area, followed by intensive training in a knowledge base of pedagogy. This specialized knowledge would be constructed in teacher training institutions and in clinical school settings (professional development schools) where students would gain field experiences modeled after medical residencies.

Although these reforms emphasize the need for strong foundations of solid disciplinary knowledge, as a practical matter, schools of education in universities and colleges have been able to exert little control over the courses of study in liberal arts and sciences departments which exist separate from departments and schools of teacher education. The net result has been a greater focus on the construction and control of a knowledge base in pedagogy for the various disciplines, ever more firmly rooted in cognitive psychology. Despite these goals, in practice, elementary teacher educators have difficulty teaching students "constructivist" forms of pedagogy when disciplinary knowledge has not been highly controlled.

By contrast, schools of music do more completely control the disciplinary base of skills and knowledge in music. Music teacher educators work within strong foundational and curricular classifications and canons. Courses in basic musicianship and performance, as well as courses in techniques and methods, mark out very specifically what is included in or excluded from the curriculum. However, music educators find it difficult to interest their students and colleagues in theory, history, composition, and performance in notions of conceptual learning and

teaching currently being constructed as a knowledge base in schools of education.

This study explores the impact these two types of institutionally constructed notions of professionalism have on student articulation: their conceptions of teaching knowledge and their conceptions of teacher practice. If both education programs consider moving closer to each other in reconceptualizing teacher knowledge and skills, the implications of this research have importance for both reform in elementary education certification programs and music education teacher programs.

METHOD

Because the nature of the study was to explore students' constructions of teaching knowledge and practice in music education and elementary teacher education, we felt that an ethnographic study of the two groups of preservice students' articulations was appropriate. One group was enrolled in a music education program at a school of music. The other group was enrolled in an elementary education certification program. The music group consisted of 20 first- and second-year music education students who were enrolled in an elementary general music methods class that met for three hours a week. Concurrent with their methods class, this group also spent one hour a week in an elementary school teaching either grade K, 1, 3, 4, or 6. An additional hour outside of field experience and methods class was spent in a reflective teaching seminar. This group was simultaneously enrolled in the first class of a sequence of classes in music theory, aural skills, and choral-instrumental techniques.

The elementary education group consisted of 23 first- and second-year education students who were enrolled in a cluster of classes which included language arts methods, social studies methods, children's literature, and a course in foundations of classroom behavior. This cluster included a field experience of two full days per week in a public school in grades K-6 for five weeks. The classroom behavior course served as a reflective teaching and field experience seminar.

Journal data, fieldnotes, and student interviews, as well as videotapes of the students' classroom teaching and their seminars, were collected. The narratives these students provided about becoming teachers not only characterize distinctive historical and structural differences, but also reflect how they position themselves in relation to knowledge,

pedagogy, and students. As their constructions of a sense of identity and function emerge, their representations take on unique properties.

In analyzing our data we relied upon the work of Basil Bernstein (1977) for direction regarding the relationship of historically formed institutional structures of both knowledge and pedagogy. In Bernstein's conceptual system for looking at education, he argues that the transmission of educational knowledge consists of an interdependence between its content and form as embodied in structures of social relationships (p. 3). Although we utilized Bernstein's work to create analytic distinctions, our intent was not to suggest that the teacher is the static product of such structures. Our idea is, instead, as Britzman (1991) argues, that "the teacher is continually shaping and being shaped by the dynamics of social practice, social structure, and history" (p. 32); or, in Feldman's (1989) words, it is the environment of specific cultures that "permits access to accumulated (and created) knowledge" (p. 249).

THE STUDY: CONCEPTIONS OF KNOWLEDGE AND OF PEDAGOGY

Making "musicians" vs. being a "role model"

We frame our discussion of students' conceptions of knowledge by trying to make sense of what it is they are attempting to learn that will, in their view, enable them to be elementary teachers or elementary music teachers. In this sense, students try to form an "identity" that anchors their study, that gives direction to their thinking and acting in the institutional environment. Our attempt was to examine these socially and culturally produced student articulations. Because both researchers were situated in the same institutional environment as the students, our ethnographic "goal" was to make what was "familiar" to our teaching "strange" to us as researchers. Our initial questions were: What do they talk about? What do they perceive as their task, goal, or assignment?

We found that in almost all cases, music education students construct an identity around being a musician and through acquiring "musicianship." Performing music is the central defining behavior that structures students' conceptions of what music is and what musicians do. Singing and playing are the essential components and the significant means through which students view the musical experience. This conception of music as performance is the dominant construction of what our students see to be the study of music and the teaching of music. As Paul, a music education student, says, "making music – that is what musicians do."

can look up to. If students in a sense idolize you then they may give it their all to do the best work they can, just to do it for the teacher." Their conception of being a "positive role model" is that of helping children understand. As Ramona explains, "What is important is creating an environment [that is] accepting and safe." Much of the students' conversation repeatedly centers around, what Janet calls, "the nurturing of ideas," while at the same time "being in touch and channeling drive and ambition."

When elementary education students talk about their classroom experiences, the focus is on building personal relationships, as opposed to developing mathematics or reading ability. What "counts" as professional knowledge for them is knowledge of individual student characteristics and needs. Talk about these relationships displaces discussion of subject matter even when subject matter considerations are intended to be the focus of the seminar. Instead, conversation continually refocuses upon relationships with students and cooperating teachers as well as any clues and connections that can be made regarding parents and the home lives of students.

When music education students talk about their teaching experiences, their focus is on music and its production. The teacher "role" is defined by subject matter. There is an explicit understanding and acknowledged desire that becoming a music teacher is becoming a "musician" and acquiring musicianship. Considerations of knowledge or forms of pedagogy outside the boundaries of musicianship-performance are, as Reimer (1996) observes, and confirmed by our conversations with music students, viewed somewhat intrusive and erosive of what it means to be or to make a musician.

Fitting students to music vs. fitting subjects to students

We found that inseparable from student conceptions of knowledge and identity are structural differences in pedagogy. Our analysis of students' constructions of pedagogy centered around the general themes present in the relationships of teacher to pupil for both the elementary education and elementary music education students. Our concern was to examine differences in pedagogical language and behavior of preservice students, given the vast differences in historically driven institutional pedagogical forms.

As Keene (1987) observes, the history of music education in the United States has always been one of reform centered around methodology and the pedagogy required to initiate students into what he calls "a viable

art form" (p. 354). Seen within the historical context of music teacher preparation, the aspirations of those who wish to teach music, especially in the schools, reflect not only a claim for musician status and curricular inclusion, but, as Leonhard (1985) observes, a movement of institutional professionalization. According to Colwell (1985), particularly significant for its impact on the institutionalization of music teaching and learning was the establishment of the 19th century European conservatory model of music education in higher education. With its focus on conserving and perpetuating performance practices through master-apprentice pedagogy, this grafting of the conservatory model into schools established primarily for the training of elementary public school teachers (or normal schools) and liberal arts institutions has resulted in what Leonhard (1985) has characterized as a hybrid model of professional preparation. The struggle for curricular dominance among these three traditions remains particularly problematic for the construction of what Boardman (1990) calls an "ideologically uniform" approach to music teacher education. The conservatory model, however, with performance practices as its goal and the master-apprentice pedagogy as its dominant form of developing musicianship, for the most part, controls music teaching and learning in schools of music and performance programs in public schools.

Our analysis of how pedagogy is structured and functions for music education students suggests a view of pedagogy that is "solution giving," in that initiation into, or learning, the "art form" requires the acquisition of states of knowledge, with curriculum progression moving sequentially from a surface to deep structure of knowledge, exemplifying increasing proficiency of skills that is dependent upon the master-apprentice form. Student-teacher relationships in this curriculum organization appear fixed or authoritarian, in that the interaction of subject matter discipline, performance practices, and pedagogical traditions tend to observe a hierarchical order. Such a focus on music as subject matter and performance suggests a privileging of teacher over child. Students articulate these hierarchies rather succinctly when they talk about "conducting" versus "teaching" or "directing a choir" versus "singing a song in kindergarten."

Whether analyzed by historical, disciplinary, professional, or pedagogical contexts, curricular interpretations and music education students' own interpretations of their curricula suggest that the emphasis on performance-musicianship is the normalized or institutional "model" for assuming any role in music (whether it be performer, composer,

Our exploration of students' conversations of musicianship and its acquisition reveals talk which depicts a conceptualization of knowledge that is fundamentally based on procedural knowledge. Such procedural knowledge, or knowing "how to sing or play an instrument" (or, less frequently in students' conversations, how to improvise or compose music) is a matter of acquiring competency or proficiency in a skill. Such knowledge is, according to music education students, a matter of "artistry."

"Interpretation," students say, lies at the heart of artistry. For many music education students the ability to perform a specific culturally defined set of standardized traditions of practice, for example, "baroque style," is understanding music artistically. However, artistry is not confined to specific practices of music but also includes the notion of "self-expression" or reflectivity. "Creativity" is the most common term students use to capture their constructions of what interpretation, expression, self-expression, or reflectivity means. "Talent," students also suggest, plays a considerable part in "determining" how successfully an individual attains artistry, and is able also to be expressive or creative.

Intimately bound up in students' concepts of music and their constructions of musicianship is feeling or emotion. As Peter says, "[Although] the elements of interpretation are most important for developing musicianship, music is not just a line of dots on a page, it's feeling, and emotion. That's what makes music enjoyable to all people." What "counts" above all as musical and professional knowledge for music education students, is knowledge of the aesthetic dimension. Possessing a "basic understanding" of the conceptual organization of music, that is, the formal and structural relationships of sound qualities (rhythm, form, tone color) and "skill in doing music" are seen as the principal means through which many students believe the aesthetic experience can be realized. Most often these behaviors and understandings are called "having an appreciation for and of music." Many music education students say that the "appreciation of music," that is, "coming to understand the feeling music possesses" and "coming to love and do music" is the ultimate professional goal they hope to achieve in their teaching.

By contrast elementary education students construct an identity by "working through" the "role" of teacher. They explicitly and repeatedly use the terminology of role model in a way that depicts a conceptualization of teaching constructed around building relationships. As Tiffany states, "Teaching is being a role model that children

scholar, or teacher [NASM, 1991, p. 55]). As Kyle, a music education major notes, "music teaching is best when it is one-on-one. That's really the only way a basic understanding of music and interpretation can be taught."

Our field analysis exploring practicum students' constructions of knowledge and pedagogy clearly suggests that in their teaching practices and student-teacher relationships, music education students emphasize ways to "fit" students to music, that is, elementary students are assessed according to "fixed points" of reference based primarily on skill attainment. Teacher practice and student success seem pointed to high ability. Beginning teachers who encounter the "less-able" remain very much at a loss as to "what to do with them." Most often, preservice music teachers, as Kristen says, "hope they [the students] will have fun," and as such assume a much less positional stance to students' abilities and their relationships with them. The less able students are told to "practice more" or "try harder." What remains most clear is that music education students view almost all teaching relationships with students as inseparable from performing music.

As outlined by Mattingly (1975), elementary education students are situated in a professional environment with roots in the normal school, historically centered on designing instruction around student needs and gaining teaching knowledge of a variety of instructional models. This eclectic mixture continues to define notions of teaching practice. As Kleibard (1995) observes, the historical struggle between conflicting visions of practice (child-centered, efficient, traditional, progressive) has resulted in a loosely framed collection of practices. Debate over these competing visions of practice and instructional design continues and individual and departmental or school positioning within that debate tends to define notions of "methods of teaching" practice in locally specific ways. Although no one pedagogic form dominates in schools of education, a focus on student growth and learning structures teaching goals (Liston & Zeichner, 1991). An emphasis on finding ways to "fit" subject matter to students characterizes elementary education students' views of practice and their major concern in teaching.

As Stober and Tyack (1980) point out, the pedagogical model that emerged in the elementary classroom was that of an age-graded self-contained classroom, headed by an unmarried female teacher. A hierarchical and patriarchal arrangement which included largely male principals and administrators in control of a largely female teaching force became (and remains largely so today) the paradigm of the elementary

school. Some contemporary and controversial feminist studies of teachers' work, such as those by Noddings (1992) and Lyons (1983), suggest that "caring" appears frequently in discussions of teaching children (Acker, 1996). As Acker (1996) states, "Maternal imagery is very strong in discussions of teachers and teaching, generally, especially at elementary levels, and has deep historical roots" (p. 120). Connectedness and creation of family-like environments are a central theme in current scholarship on elementary one-teacher-to-one-classroom environments. This language provokes notions of "altruism, abdication, and repetitive labor" (Grumet, 1988, p. 87, cited in Acker, 1996). Walkerdine (1986, cited in Acker, 1996) argues that such imagery connected to child-centeredness privileges the child over the teacher.

The language and imagery that elementary education students use is strongly suggestive of this historically situated feminized role of mothering, caring, and connectedness. Students' own interpretations of their practices continually emphasize the notions of caring for and maintaining connection to children. Students emphasize keeping children "on task," "doing their work," and "learning" in a generalized and generic way. The focus of these conversations can be said to encompass "everything," that is, as Tracy, a fourth-grade elementary education practicum student, says, "Doing work means, you know. . . like. . . mapping activities, math worksheets, making straight lines, listening to a story." Student stories and scenarios from their teaching experiences continually pick up the theme of defining "identities" or a sense of self as teachers in the classroom setting. Their struggle, or continuing dilemma, is to construct roles that make sense to them in the particularities of their classroom, with particular children and mentor teachers. For example, as Veronica explains, "I really feel like they are comfortable with me now. . . Scott actually tried the worksheet even though I know he doesn't like it."

In our analysis of both music education and elementary education talk, it becomes clear that what emerges in their conversations is the lived difference between two diverging constructions of professionalization in the institutions. Examples drawn from music education students' teaching seminars contain recurring conversations that focus on developing children's "musical artistry." The content of these conversations entails creating classroom-program opportunities for performing music, such as giving concerts or holiday programs, selecting "great" or "quality" music, singing "on pitch and expressively," teaching kids how to act on a stage, how to watch the teacher while performing, and how to be

"good" listeners while others are performing. Their recurring dilemmas revolve around finding techniques to implement in developing singing and playing skills and finding some key to motivate students to "have fun" with music when students "don't act like they're interested in singing" or "controlling" a class through notions of authority.

These differences between the two constructions of professional knowledge and pedagogy suggest two divergent constructions of teacher identity and function. Elaborating an identity of musician and the newly acquired function (or mission) of developing future musicians frames music education students' concerns with their teaching role.

Indicative of this role is the practice of selecting and sorting children by skill-ability. For example, music education students talk about identifying "talented kids," and actively "nurturing" musical skill development in these children. This function is perceived as an integral part of their professional role. A very real part of their pedagogy is to "recruit" special students and to develop "special" relationships with them. This controlling notion of talent is explicitly used by students for identifying possible future musicians and is implicitly understood as part of their function. For elementary education students, their professional identity does not revolve around being a mathematician or poet. As pointed out above, their explicit equation of teaching as being a "role model" refers to enhancing student talents more broadly.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Our exploration of the conceptions of knowledge and teaching practice among music education students and elementary education students suggests two fundamentally different conceptions of the relationship between knowledge and pedagogy. One conception is based on a dominant presence of procedural knowledge and skill in a specific and highly specialized field. The other is based on a dominant presence of nurturing behaviors and the development of student progress or growth in a whole range of various subject matters. In either case, the predominance of one does not preclude the presence of the other. In fact, "nurturing" is present in music education students' talk, as is "subject matter knowledge and skill development" in elementary education students. This dichotomy, however, is useful in describing a key difference which is significant for understanding how institutional forms and pedagogic practices contribute to the construction of professional identity or role as a teacher. Particular institutional forms have a significant

impact on the positioning of the teacher in relation to students and the functions or goals of "instruction."

Much of the history of music education and the professionalization of music teaching has paralleled the professionalization of medicine. What counts as musical knowledge and practice is highly classified and framed (Bernstein, 1977). Caught in the dilemma, as Boardman (1990) suggests, of "whether to follow the artistic dictates of the performance setting [conservatory model] or continue to seek to meet the traditional educational goals of school, directed toward the growth and development of all students" (pp. 731-2), music educators have professionalized around constructing a specialized knowledge and skill base which is highly "product-oriented" and highly controlled by performance faculty in schools of music. This specialized body of knowledge and skill is centered on what "musicians do," and on the pedagogy necessary to "make music." This production of knowledge and skill, along with near total control of the normative and evaluative dimensions of the profession, has had the effect of creating an insulated and isolated, but powerful, professionalized field (Larson, 1977).

The professionalization of elementary teacher education reflects a history of struggle between competing interest groups, each with its own distinctive ideology and its own agenda (Kliebard, 1995). The certification of elementary teachers has been incorporated into the liberal arts college program from which teacher education students pull their subject matter knowledge. The task of teacher certification programs has been to impart pedagogic "know how" and to give students a background in child development and learning theory. This has resulted in a strongly classified and weakly framed group of programs, collected from the disciplines of psychology, liberal arts and sciences, and teacher education – which include foundations, separate subject matter "methods," and field experiences.

With the recent addition of music into the core curriculum for *Goals 2000: Educate America* project, and the challenge put forth by Charles Leonhard, editor of the *National Symposium on the Future of Arts Education* (1993), both music educators and educators in elementary certification programs are being called upon to explore a more pervasive integration of music into the elementary curriculum. The implications for such interdisciplinary work seem almost insurmountable in relation to the highly specialized world of music teacher education and the more

loosely organized liberal arts oriented elementary education certification program.

As our study confirms, the strong boundaries between the two professions, and the distinctions of each, provide a sharp contrast in the way skills and knowledge are currently constructed by novices entering each profession. Both professional control and identity or role are situated in different arenas. In music education, it is achieved through the control of skill as the route to membership in the profession, and teachers become major gatekeepers for the profession of music as a whole. Thus, students articulate this special relationship to music as primary. In elementary education, the locus of control does not revolve around subject matter specialization, rather it is situated in the relationship teachers construct with students. Subject matter knowledge is loosely collected from a range of disciplines and knowledge skills in these disciplines and, as previously stated, is currently viewed by many as sketchy.

For authentic disciplinary integration to occur, a radical transformation of both teacher education programs must take place, involving recentering the locus of control within and across both programs, and reconceptualizing both curricula. As we understand it, a transformation of this magnitude would be paradigmatic. The "institutionalization" of this ideological shift can only be imagined. What might curriculum integration between the two programs entail? For music education this entails designing a curriculum that is more focused on school children and how they learn and how they stand in relation to the discipline of music – not vice versa, and a more ecumenical view of elementary school education in general. Such a curriculum involves rethinking music teacher education programs as programs which prepare future teachers to think about what schools are for, about the context of music in individuals' lives – how music is used by children and how music relates to other subjects, and about how learning and teaching is as much a process as it is a product. Such a curriculum entails thinking about all the many possible ways of "how" musical knowledge is created rather than thinking about ways to acquire primarily a set of artistic skills aimed exclusively at the performance of music.

For elementary education this entails designing a curriculum that is more focused on the theoretical foundations of disciplinary knowledge, and a less diffused view of elementary school education. Such a curriculum involves rethinking elementary teacher education programs as programs which prepare future teachers to think about how disciplinary

study produces knowledge and skills that can be put to use in the specific contexts of children's lives. Such a curriculum entails thinking about how knowledge is created. For both programs, such a curriculum involves a greater commitment to liberal arts education and a professional sequence of courses aimed at the problems and issues generated by not only performance, but by the concerns of everyday life.

The current trend toward interdisciplinary work in the fields of literacy instruction, whole language or whole math, for example, is beginning to pull into relief or highlight some of these contradictions in schools of education. Two divergent trends are emerging. One, such as that stated in the introduction (Holmes and Carnegie), focuses on making elementary teacher education "like medicine or law," or, we argue, "like music teacher education" – discipline oriented, skill controlled. The other, such as that of whole language and literacy redefinition (Willinsky, 1990) tend toward centering subject matter around students and the function of literacy in the social context.

Music teacher education has not, as of yet, seriously considered the implications of any "integrated" approach that is interdisciplinary or "domain-specific," such as those suggested by Discipline Based Arts Education (DBAE) (see Smith, 1989). The recent content and achievement standards suggested by the *National Standards for Arts Education* (MENC, 1994), however, incorporate many of the ideas of DBAE and restructure music education around a broader definition of music education by including guided listening, improvising and composing, curriculum integration, cultural literacy, and critical thinking.

However, no curricular reform can take place unless fundamental shifts in the locus of professional control at the institutional and field level take place both within and across both programs. As Leonhard (1985) implores, at the institutional level professional control of the music teacher education program must move out of the hands of the music performance faculty and into the hands of music educators. For elementary education, professional control must move fully into the hands of teacher educators. At both the institutional and field levels the unequal power relationships that develop out of skill control in music education and the situated relationships elementary education teachers construct with students must be lateralized. Within the music education faculty and the teacher education faculty, there must be a redefinition of what education is and what it means to be educated. Such a vision is hinted at above. Across both faculties there must be, as Bernstein (1977)

argues, some "connecting supra-relational idea" or concept that focuses curriculum on the deep structure of all subjects and calls attention to points of intersection or points of relations among the subjects. Thus the creation of authentic curriculum integration between the two programs that is both disciplinary and cross-disciplinary may be realized.

It is possible, we believe, that, through various venues, an integration of knowledge and practices is possible. Such conversations hold the potential for informing and enriching one another's teaching practices and clarifying direction for further inquiry. It is our hope that our work can serve as a historical and structural perspective on the dilemmas involved in curriculum integration.

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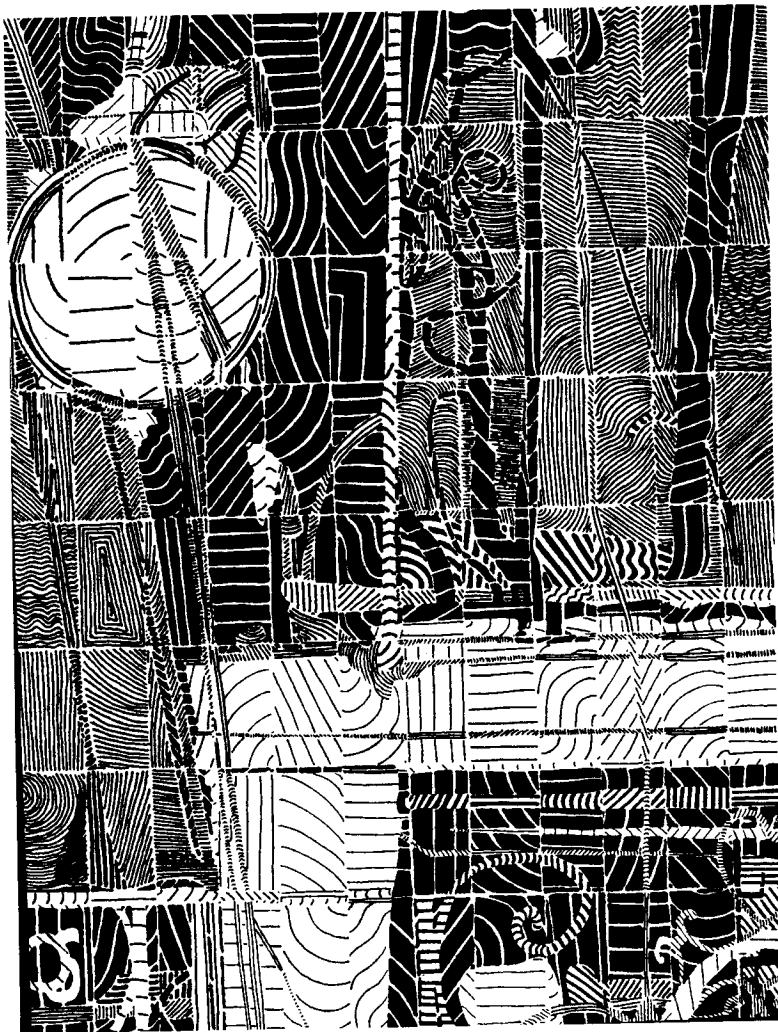
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Ciara Whelan

MUSICAL KNOWLEDGE, MUSICAL IDENTITY, AND THE GENERALIST TEACHER: VICKI'S STORY

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ABSTRACT. In this paper the generalist teacher is conceptualized as inherently musical, holding unarticulated musical knowledge and awaiting educative practices that give concrete form to and expand that knowledge. The paper describes how "Vicki", a generalist teacher with no formal musical training and minimal musical experiences, comes to recognize her own musicality and to believe herself capable of teaching music in her elementary classroom. In presenting the "emic" view, excerpts from Vicki's journal are used to illustrate how she comes to know what musicians know, to think like musicians think, and in the process begins to fashion a musical identity for herself. Vicki's story has implications for the musical formation of generalist elementary teachers because it raises questions about how the teaching profession defines musical knowledge, what it means to be musical, and who is qualified to claim musicianship.

RÉSUMÉ. Dans cet article, le professeur généraliste est conceptualisé comme étant fondamentalement musical, comme détenant des connaissances musicales non articulées et comme attendant des méthodes éducatives qui donnent corps à ces connaissances et les étoffent. Cet article décrit comment Vicki, professeur généraliste sans formation musicale structurée et possédant une expérience minime de la musique, en vient à reconnaître sa propre musicalité et à se juger capable d'enseigner la musique à ses élèves du primaire. Pour présenter un point de vue "émique", on s'est servi d'extraits du journal de Vicki pour illustrer comment elle en vient à savoir ce que connaissent les musiciens, à penser comme pensent les musiciens et à commencer à se forger une identité musicale propre. L'histoire de Vicki a des implications pour la formation musicale des professeurs généralistes du primaire car elle soulève des questions sur la façon dont la profession d'enseignant définit les connaissances musicales, ce que signifie être mélomane et que est qualifié pour se prétendre musicien.

There is a perception that the arts are the domain of the specially trained. This is particularly so in the case of music where a certain mystique is attached to its symbol system, which is not the case for art

(Stake, Bresler, & Mabry, 1991). One generalist teacher put it this way: "I would fare better in teaching art. I don't think it's as rigid as music can be, as exact. I can be more flexible in art" (Stake, Bresler, & Mabry, p.311).

Musical knowledge and the teaching of music are held by many to be the purview of the specialist. Yet, it is argued, most members of a population have innate musical talent (Gardner, 1983; Russell, *in press*; Sloboda, 1991). If this is so, the distribution of musical talent among generalist teachers can be no different from its distribution among the rest of the population, and there is no reason to suppose that generalist teachers cannot draw on that talent to create interesting and rewarding musical experiences in their classrooms. Institutions engaged in the training of music specialists and education generalists may structure their programs around assumptions of exclusivity (Campbell & Burdell, 1996) if they do not recognize or value the presence of musical ability among the general population. Schools of music reinforce an exclusive view when they isolate their specialist students from the educational mainstream and focus on the acquisition of the disciplinary knowledge of music apart from the larger educational contexts in which children learn. Schools of education reinforce that view when they do not provide their generalist teachers with courses in music curriculum and instruction. Music thus may remain a mystery, penetrable only by the specially trained.

The absence of music specialists in schools is sometimes assumed to mean that children are not experiencing music in their classrooms. This is sometimes an unstated research assumption (Dorman, 1994) and reflects a belief that the school that does not have a music specialist is a school in which no music learning takes place. Research suggests that generalist student teachers as well as practicing teachers have little confidence in their musicianship (Barnes & Shinn-Taylor, 1988; Mills, 1989, 1995/96; Wragg, Bennett, & Carre, 1989). Adverse comments about generalist teachers' capacity to respond positively to musical training contribute to the notion that musical knowledge and skills are specialist domains. This attitude does little to help change the self-perceptions of generalist teachers. One study that investigated the knowledge bases of generalist teachers (Bennett & Turner-Bissett, 1993) referred to the teachers as "nonmusicians," but it did not refer to them as nonscientists or nonmathematicians. One could be forgiven for interpreting nonmusical as a pejorative description. If generalist teachers view themselves as non musicians, and have the perception that they are viewed by the educational community as nonmusicians, it is

not surprising that many are reluctant to engage in music-making with their students.

The claim that generalist student teachers and primary teachers lack confidence in their own musicianship is borne out by my experience teaching music to generalist teachers. In my classes I challenge the assumptions of students who claim that they lack musicianship by providing them with musical experiences that bring to their consciousness the tacit knowledge of music that they hold. My assumption is that they hold tacit knowledge derived from exposure in their everyday lives to the music in their environments and that what they lack is consciousness of what counts as musical knowledge, and tools to use that knowledge in teaching situations. Through discussion, focused listening, performance, and the preparation and delivery of lesson plans, students build an articulated musical vocabulary that gives form to their tacitly-held knowledge and they begin to recognize and identify musical concepts and to develop skills. By these processes they gather the tools that will allow them to use their knowledge to teach music in their classrooms should they so desire.

Mills' (1995/96) study of the musicianship of generalist student teachers attempted to identify knowledge that generalists could acquire during twenty hours of music study. It adopted a view of musical knowledge as competencies that could be measured, counted, and evaluated. Musical competencies in Mills' study included making musical judgments, knowing the names of notes, demonstrating simple performance skills on an instrument, being able to recognize a musical work, and so forth. Mills was able to compare the competencies of generalist teachers with the competencies of specialist teachers and with the competencies of children of school age. One of the findings was that generalist teachers' posttest scores were significantly higher than their pretest scores on a number of test items. Studies that measure and compare musical competencies are important for they capture the "etic" view, the perspective of the observer. Things are seen from the outside looking in. This paper seeks to view from inside, the "emic" view, the view from the actors themselves.

There is a growing research interest in generalist elementary teachers as providers of musical experiences in classrooms. Qualitative studies have approached the idea from a variety of perspectives. Descriptive studies have captured some of the types of musical activities that take place in elementary classrooms (Bresler, *in press*; Stake, Bresler, & Mabry, 1991). However, studies that investigate what generalist teach-

ers know, what they can learn, and how they view their own musical knowledge, ability, and potential as teachers of music also need to be undertaken. Understandings gained from such inquiries can help teachers of generalist students to consider how they can design for student teachers that are not formally trained music courses that are responsive to their needs.

This paper arises from a desire to discover the ways in which student teachers' perceptions of their musical abilities, of their musical knowledge, and of their potential as teachers of music become transformed through the experience of structured encounters with music. It speaks through the voice of Vicki, a preservice generalist student teacher, thus capturing an "emic" view, the perspective of the actor. In contrast to inquiries that seek to identify competencies and test the effects of instruction, this inquiry seeks a view from the inside looking out. The paper traces Vicki's journey from panic and uncertainty to confidence. It shows how she began the course with a determination to bring music into her elementary classroom regardless of her belief that she lacked the requisite knowledge and in spite of her feelings of shame at what she perceived as her lack of ability. The paper shows how education helped Vicki come to think of herself as a musical person and as a potential music teacher. The source of the data and the inspiration for this paper is Vicki's journal, which she wrote during a 13-week course entitled "Musical Instruments in the Classroom", which was designed and taught by the writer.

THE SETTING

"Musical Instruments in the Classroom" was an elective course for elementary generalist students, offered at the Faculty of Education, McGill University. Except for a few students who had taken piano lessons as children, most of the members of the class had had no formal training in music. However, during class discussions and in their written dialogue journals, all expressed a belief in the importance of music in the lives of school children. All expressed a desire to learn how musical instruments could be incorporated into musical activities in their elementary classrooms. The students had three main assignments: 1) to assemble a resource file of music, activities, and lesson plans suitable for classroom use; 2) to prepare and teach a music lesson to their peers; and 3) to reflect, in journals, on music teaching, music learning, and the role of music in their own lives and in the lives of school children.

No length was specified for the journals, and entries could be made at the student's discretion. The focus of the journal was loosely prescribed as follows: "Discuss, interpret, and reflect on the musical ideas and activities experienced in class and how they relate to your own experience. The journal should demonstrate your ability to explore critically how the various ideas and approaches to teaching music are relevant to your own interests, values, knowledge, experience, and expectations as a preservice teacher."

Vicki's Journal

Vicki's journal was chosen for this paper because she wrote reflectively, frequently, and at length, and she kept her musical experiences as her focus. It revealed her growing understanding of musical concepts known already at an intuitive level but not previously identified and labeled, and it showed her pleasure at her developing aural skills. Vicki placed her new musical experiences and articulated knowledge into past, present, and future frameworks: her childhood (lack of) musical experiences, the attitudes (negative) towards music held by teachers whom she encountered during her field experience as a preservice teacher, and the structure she would implement in her own future classroom. I asked Vicki if she would be willing to read from her journal at a symposium organized in February 1996 at McGill's Faculty of Education on "Music Teaching in the Elementary Classroom: Specialist and Generalist Perspectives". I thought that her "story", describing how she began to become aware of her musical knowledge and skills that she could use to incorporate musical activities in her elementary classroom would be of interest to the symposium audience made up of specialist and generalist teachers, preservice teachers, and teacher educators. After giving the matter some thought, Vicki declined to make a presentation in person, but offered me the full use of her journal if I wished to use it to prepare a paper to capture the voice of a generalist preservice teacher.¹

VICKI'S BACKGROUND AS MOTIVATION. At the start of the semester Vicki reflected in her journal on the absence of music in her own school life:

Being in class today really made me think about the little music background that I have and how much I want to broaden it. We were asked why we chose this class and I had so many reasons racing through my mind. Perhaps the most important reason is that I, as a teacher, want to provide my students the musical experience I was somehow denied throughout my entire education. Music class just never really existed for me in either elementary or secondary school.

She continues:

I don't know how my schools were able to get away with completely ignoring music or why they ever did. I do, however, remember the piano that sat in the kindergarten classroom, collecting dust. Never once do I recall hearing it being played.

A single musical experience with a student teacher who came to her Grade 5 class emphasized the absence of music in Vicki's school life and left an imprint on her memory. Speaking of the student teacher, Vicki reflects:

. . . once she realized that music just wasn't part of our curriculum, she decided to do something about it. She took it upon herself to bring music into our classroom at least three times a week, and I still remember how much we as a class began to enjoy music. Little things like playing a tape while we were doing art, or just taking the time to teach us a new song, instead of making us sing the same song year after year at the Christmas concert, it made our days a little more cheerful.

The realization that the student teacher was leaving signaled the end of musical experiences. Using a poignant metaphor, Vicki recalls the feeling of desolation:

She only stayed for a little over a month and when she left I think everyone dreaded the silence that now came back to invade our classroom. She was gone and she had taken our newly discovered love of music with her. It was back to the old routine where music was just a piano collecting dust in the corner of a room.

That brief musical experience with a temporary teacher brought to Vicki's consciousness music's potential to play a meaningful role in her life. It led to her resolution to provide musical experiences for her students:

My students will not be denied the experience of having music every week in class, like I myself was throughout elementary school. I want to give my future students the opportunity to explore music in as many different ways as I am capable of bringing it into the classroom.

Her resolution was guided by her belief that

. . . children need music, just as they need math, spelling, and reading. Music gives children a forum to express themselves and children today need to express themselves more than anything. The arts provide them with such opportunities.

A QUESTION OF CONFIDENCE? Vicki's observations during her practice teaching bears out research claims that many primary teachers lack confi-

dence in their ability to teach music. She did not understand why classroom teachers believed that students could only experience music if a specialist was present. Nor did she understand their reluctance to respond to students' eagerness to experience music:

They seemed to think that music could only occur in the school if the music teacher was there. I still don't understand why teachers are so scared of having a music lesson in their classroom once in a while. These students seem to love music as much as art and gym class, and they took complete advantage of every single second they had in the music room. It was so easy to see how much they enjoyed music that it was rather sad to accept that they could only have it every two weeks.

Although she believed that music was important and although she wanted to give her students musical experiences, Vicki had reservations about her own musical abilities. In her journal she used words like panic, fright, and worry to describe her concerns. She confessed:

I was quite ashamed to admit in the beginning that I had very little music in me. . . .

BEHAVING LIKE A MUSICIAN. Musical behaviour includes behaving like performers – doing things that performers do. One of the things they do is to produce particular sounds at particular points in time, in particular ways, in concert with other performers. Vicki discovered that she loved the collaborative aspect of performance:

I had a great deal of fun in music class today, since we created ourselves a little piece of music on the spot with different instruments. I especially liked trying out the drums for the first time, although I was a little nervous at being in charge of keeping the rhythm going. I really enjoy the class when we do such activities as a class. I was especially proud of the different musical creations we put together when we played as a class. It sounded pretty good to me! I was simply amazed at how quickly we came together to create a small part of what would have been a piece of music if we had continued.

Performance experience as a conductor allowed her to discover the significance of gesture as a means of musical communication:

In class today we also experienced how to get the entire "orchestra" to begin and stop on the exact same note. I had a great time being the conductor, since I find that it's only through doing something that you learn. I had a little bit of difficulty in deciding what my signal would be to start off slowly, but I got the hang of it after trying a few times with the cooperation of other classmates. I never knew it was so difficult to start and stop a few musicians. It can be quite challenging since there has to be a good communication through signals between the conductor and the performing musicians.

Public performance was an activity that she felt provided a valuable way for students to experience a sense of accomplishment. At the same time, she recognized the necessity of dealing with the debilitating effects of performance nerves and she sought to understand how she, as a teacher, could help students overcome nervousness during performances. She recalls an incident during her practice teaching days:

Unfortunately the entire class caught a bad case of stage fright just before their presentation and they merely mumbled the song, which was rather disappointing when I knew how well they had performed it over and over in class during practice. That is something I hope to learn out of taking this class. How to get your students to be proud of their voices or their talent and not be embarrassed to share it with others.

THINKING LIKE A MUSICIAN. Thinking like a musician is different from thinking like a chef or a physicist. Thinking like a musician involves perceiving musical sounds and organizing and interpreting them within some sort of musical framework. It involves using the terminology that musicians use and realizing that a term such as volume has a different connotation in music than it does in cooking or in physics. It involves being able to identify what is taking place in the music one hears, being able to discriminate between different musical concepts, devices and practices, and applying appropriate verbal labels.

Around mid-semester Vicki began to notice that she was listening to music differently and that she was starting to become interested in styles of music that had not hitherto interested her. She was expanding her musical knowledge, and she was conscious that she was doing so. She writes:

I'm glad that over the semester I have discovered music and have developed a new way of listening to it. I sometimes catch myself listening to music in a different way, trying to distinguish the instruments playing, counting the beats, listening for timbre, looking for Ostinatos, etc. I also would have never pictured myself in the Classical Music section at HMV, but there I was a few weeks ago buying my very first classical music album.

Thinking like a musician also involves thinking about the qualitative aspects of performance. This involves developing the critical faculties which assist one along the path to "connoisseurship". Vicki noted the importance of unanimity in performance:

I . . . realized how if one person is off, then the piece of music will sound entirely different and 'off.'

She reflected on the element of time, as a function of performance,

It must be so difficult to be part of an orchestra and know when to come in at all the right moments. I still don't know how they can complete entire pieces of music one after the other, and never miss a beat.

and she became conscious of the role of the conductor:

I now finally understand what the conductor does. For me, I always wondered what he was doing, or what he was swinging at with that little wand. I knew that he started everyone off at the same time, or pointed to them when they were supposed to come in, but after that I just couldn't figure out what all that swinging was all about. Now it all makes sense that he is keeping the beats so that if some get mixed up, they can count on him for knowing what beat the piece is at. He does serve a purpose after all!

Musicians use musical terms to talk about musical concepts and devices. As the semester progressed, Vicki began to identify musical concepts and devices and to incorporate them into her thinking and into her actions. She learned the appropriate terms and she used them to talk about music. Having musical terminology allowed her to talk about musical things and gave verbal form to her musical thinking (Russell, 1995). Having a musical vocabulary allowed her to talk like musicians talk:

I'm also glad that I'm getting used to the terminology used in music, a little more each week. I'm beginning to finally understand the differences between what a beat and a rhythm is . . . I enjoyed playing the Ostinatos in class, and that is the sort of activity that I see children enjoying.

DEMISTIFYING NOTATION. Early in the course Vicki began the process of demystifying musical notation. An introduction to a simple, nontraditional notational scheme led to excitement at her discovery of the principles underlying the relation of the written symbol to sound:

We also learnt to write our own musical scores and perform them, which I'm really enjoying. I can't believe how simple it is to understand.

She discovered how duration could be represented in written symbolic form through a group performance of a poem accompanied by instrumental sounds:

I was rather surprised at how specific the instructions were, since it told you where exactly to begin playing an instrument and exactly where to stop.

Musical notation began to lose its mystique:

I guess I will no longer be terrified of those music sheets with long musical scores and all those different notes. I have confidence that I will leave this class at the end of the semester and finally understand everything there is to know about writing and reading music.

Half way through the course, fortified with new knowledge and insight, Vicki reflected on the role of music in her life and on the value of being musically educated:

Music continues to play an important role in my life, and the more I learn about it, the more important it becomes.

THINKING LIKE A MUSIC TEACHER. Just as a science teacher teaches towards science objectives, a music teacher teaches towards music objectives. Music objectives are distinct from other kinds of objectives: they are derived from the musical elements of pitch, duration, volume and timbre, and the ways in which they may be combined to create musical meaning. As Vicki built her music resource file, she began to realize the role of music materials and plans in the implementation of lessons having musical objectives:

The resource file that I am working on for this course is exposing me to a lot of music material that I definitely can use in my own classes later on. I am enjoying the process of flipping through music books and reading about the different activities or units that a music class can focus on.

Vicki began to see herself as a person having the potential to design and implement a lesson having musical objectives. This became clear to her during the process of preparing and teaching a 25-minute class to her peers. She incorporated what she had understood about notation into her music teaching module in an inventive way. She fashioned a large bristol board clock face and used coloured cutouts of various shapes to show the types of sounds she wanted to hear. A movable second hand, travelling in clockwise movement, indicated when the players should start and stop performing their sounds. Her confidence in her potential to teach music grew quickly:

At first I remembered how stressed everyone felt at the prospect of having to teach for half an hour, but now I see that everyone seemed to have taken advantage of the opportunity. It was the first time that I presented a music lesson, and it was definitely a good experience to remember. The idea of having to present this lesson got easier to accept as the semester went by, since I seemed to become more confident with my musical abilities. I can remember the feeling of panic at the beginning of the semester when I thought about having to present, and then the week suddenly arrived so quickly, and there was no problem whatsoever. It got to the point that I just knew that I was ready to present and that there would be no problems.

At the end of the semester, Vicki reflected upon her musical journey of the previous thirteen weeks:

Although I was quite ashamed to admit in the beginning that I had very little music in me, I'm glad that over the semester I have discovered music and have developed a new way of listening to it. I sometimes catch myself listening to music in a different way, trying to distinguish the instruments playing, counting the beats, listening for timbre, looking for Ostinatos, etc.

One has a sense that music is going to play an important role in Vicki's life as a teacher.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Vicki's writing reveals her values: love, commitment, and belief. It reveals her love of children and of music, a commitment to teaching, and a belief that music is important in the school life of the child. It also reveals what Vicki was able to learn in a short period of time about fundamental aspects of music that would serve as a foundation for her construction of her identity as a musical person and as a teacher capable of teaching music. It traces her journey from feelings of panic and inadequacy to assumptions of competence – thinking like musicians think and seeing herself as a potential teacher of music in the elementary classroom. It is clear that Vicki began the course with unarticulated musical knowledge – knowledge of which she was not aware. What she needed in order to transform that view of herself were musical tools such as vocabulary, concepts, repertoires of music and ideas for musical activities, and lesson plans whose objectives were musical.

Vicki's experience highlights the importance of attending to what we teach in music classes, how we teach it, and to whom we are teaching. Although we cannot give students such as Vicki a love of music, a commitment to teaching, or a belief that music is important, we can provide the tools they need to do the work they want to do. Giving generalist teachers tools permits them to venture beyond recreational singing, although this is not unimportant. It enables them to plan and carry out activities that have musically educational purposes.

Vicki's is not an uncommon story. Embedded in many of my students' journals were similar voyages from uncertainty, arising from a belief that they lacked specialized knowledge, to a confidence in their musical abilities. Speaking about generalist student teachers, a colleague once remarked to me, "They don't know anything. They don't even know what a dotted quarter is." Many of my students did not know what a dotted quarter was, but they knew a great deal about music. They simply did not know what they knew. This investigation suggests that generalist

students hold a wealth of tacit musical knowledge, internalized from their exposure to music in the environment. If we will listen to their voices they will tell us what they know and what they hold to be valuable. These voices are accessible in part through students' journal writing; if we pay attention to what they are saying we may find out where students are situated in terms of what they know musically. We may come to understand that non-formally-trained students can:

- Become aware of their knowledge through various forms of musical experience including structured listening and participation in performance-based activities;
- Build a musical vocabulary that gives form to their knowledge;
- Build repertoires of music and related activities that they can use in classrooms; and,
- Learn how to apply their knowledge of music and music teaching in the classroom.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

The challenge for teacher educators is to develop methods of discovering what generalist teachers know and what they can do in the domain of music. Analyzing students' journals is one path to discovering what they know and value. Music teacher educators can create teaching approaches that are designed to reveal to generalist students their own musical talents and knowledge, to help them to develop those talents and to articulate that knowledge. Vicki's journal suggests that education can transform in positive ways how generalist teachers view musical knowledge and the teaching of music. All students have musical knowledge. Telling stories of students such as Vicki can guide teachers of generalists as they create experiences for their students that will help them to discover more fully what they already know, to give form to their musical knowledge, and to expand that knowledge. This is one value of narrative in educational research and the value of Vicki's story within the narrative genre.

NOTE

1. The writer wishes to acknowledge the contribution of "Vicki" (a pseudonym) towards the development of this paper. Vicki's journal entries are quoted as she wrote them, except for some minor alterations to facilitate reading.

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ERRATA

In the references following Morris and Leblanc's paper, *Multiple Intelligences: Profiling dominant intelligences of grade eight children*, published in this journal, Vol. 31 No. 2, the second author (J.P. Dionne) was omitted in the first two listings on page 138. They should have been printed as:

Morris, C., & Dionne, J.P. (1993b, June). *A qualitative analysis of Gardner's dimensions for intermediate students*. Paper presented at the 21st annual meeting of The Canadian Society for the Study of Education, Carleton University, Ottawa.

Morris, C., & Dionne, J.P. (1993c, December). *Perceived cognitive interests by grade eight pupils within Howard Gardner's framework*. Paper presented at the 35th annual meeting of The Ontario Educational Research Council, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario. (ONTERIS Microfiche Reproduction Service No. 95-05970).

UNE APPROCHE COOPÉRATIVE EN MUSIQUE

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RÉSUMÉ. Cet article résume quelques éléments importants d'une étude exploratoire dont l'un des objectifs était d'examiner les effets de l'approche coopérative sur l'apprentissage des instruments de musique, en milieu scolaire. Les résultats montrent que l'approche coopérative favorise, d'une part, l'amélioration de la qualité du jeu instrumental des élèves et, d'autre part, la contribution des élèves aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier. Si l'élève obtient une note $\geq 50\%$: Il contribue aux performances instrumentales de son groupe entier. Si l'élève obtient une note $< 50\%$: Il ne contribue pas aux performances instrumentales de son groupe entier.

ABSTRACT. This article sums up some important findings of an exploratory study whose goal was to examine the effects of cooperative learning of musical instruments at school. Results show that cooperative learning helps students improve their playing and the group's performance. Students who obtain a mark $\geq 50\%$ contribute to the instrumental performance of the whole group, while students who obtain a mark $< 50\%$ do not.

CONTEXTE ET PROBLÉMATIQUE

Une classe de musique, où l'on privilégie la musique d'ensemble, est comme une grande équipe composée d'une trentaine d'élèves. En effet, la musique d'ensemble oblige chaque élève à maintenir une qualité satisfaisante dans l'exécution instrumentale de sa partition musicale (note $\geq 50\%$) non seulement pour sa satisfaction personnelle, mais aussi pour contribuer au maintien, voire à l'amélioration de la qualité des performances instrumentales de son groupe entier. Le sens de la responsabilité collective est un élément inhérent et crucial à la musique d'ensemble puisque chaque élève est obligé d'accomplir une tâche (apprendre à exécuter une pièce musicale avec son instrument de musique) dans l'optique d'atteindre un but commun (réussir à exécuter, en groupe entier et de façon satisfaisante, une même pièce musicale).

Nos dix années d'expérience en enseignement de la musique au secondaire nous ont permis d'identifier de sérieuses difficultés pédagogiques tant au plan de la conduite de la classe qu'à celui de l'apprentissage des instruments de musique. En effet, des difficultés importantes apparaissent lorsque certains élèves ne contribuent pas aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier, c'est-à-dire que la qualité de leur performance instrumentale est insatisfaisante (note < 50%). Ces élèves, qui n'assument pas leur part de responsabilité, c'est-à-dire qui ne fournissent pas les efforts qui sont nécessaires pour apprendre à exécuter de façon satisfaisante leur partition musicale, diminuent inmanquablement la qualité des performances instrumentales de leur groupe. À mesure que l'année scolaire avance, ces élèves, qui obtiennent des notes de plus en plus basses, contribuent de moins en moins aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe et accentuent le degré d'hétérogénéité déjà existant entre les élèves. Cette hétérogénéité grandissante entre les habiletés des élèves d'une même classe rend de plus en plus difficile la coordination des enseignements et des apprentissages.

Comment peut-on favoriser, voire maximiser la contribution des élèves aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier? Quelle approche pédagogique pourrait inciter les élèves d'une même classe à fournir les efforts qui sont nécessaires pour apprendre à exécuter, de façon satisfaisante, leur partition musicale?

L'apprentissage coopératif, dont l'idée de base est d'encourager les élèves à développer leur sens de la responsabilité collective, regroupe plusieurs méthodes susceptibles de favoriser la contribution des élèves aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier (Adams et al., 1990; Austin, 1990; Hoffer, 1991; Johnson & Johnson, 1990; Parsons, 1983; Slavin, 1983; voir Boucher, 1995). Cette approche, dont les fondements théoriques s'inspirent des travaux de Dewey (1957) et Deutsch (1949), favorise le travail d'équipe (trois à six élèves) et, la plupart du temps, l'hétérogénéité entre les membres (habileté, ethnie, sexe). Elle privilégie la coopération, plutôt que la compétition et le travail individuel, tout en créant un contexte d'apprentissage qui, souvent, incite les élèves à réaliser des objectifs individuels dans l'optique d'atteindre un but commun.

Chaque méthode se résume en une "interaction organisée" d'éléments clés (but commun, esprit d'équipe, tâche spécifique, compétition entre les équipes, rôles sociaux, récompense collective, etc.) sélectionnés et ordonnés selon les orientations philosophiques et théoriques d'un auteur. L'application d'une méthode en milieu scolaire signifie que certains

éléments clés de l'apprentissage coopératif, sous l'influence déterminante des composantes inhérentes d'un contexte scolaire (Abrami et al., 1990), se fusionnent et s'entremêlent les uns aux autres pour obtenir les résultats attendus.

Le résultat des recherches dans le domaine de l'apprentissage coopératif montre clairement que cette approche encourage à la fois le rendement scolaire et le développement équilibré de la personnalité (Davidson, 1985; Johnson et al., 1981; Johnson & Johnson, 1989, 1990; Newmann & Thompson, 1987; Schmuck & Schmuck, 1988; Slavin, 1990). Cependant, selon notre recension des écrits, aucune recherche n'a tenté d'examiner les effets de l'apprentissage coopératif sur la contribution des élèves aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier. C'est donc dans l'idée de combler ce vide que nous avons entrepris cette présente étude.

Plus précisément, nous avons cherché à répondre aux questions suivantes: (1) Est-ce que l'apprentissage coopératif favorise l'amélioration de la qualité des performances instrumentales des élèves? et (2) Est-ce que l'apprentissage coopératif favorise la contribution des élèves aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier?

MÉTHODE

Sujets

Cette étude exploratoire a été réalisée dans une école située sur l'île de Montréal. Cent trente élèves de la première année du secondaire (cinq classes), qui s'initiaient à l'apprentissage des instruments de musique d'harmonie (flûte traversière, clarinette, trompette, trombone, baryton, tuba), avec le même enseignant, ont participé à ce projet.

Traitement et dispositif pédagogique

Nous avons, dans une perspective écologique s'inspirant de Graves et Graves (1985), sélectionné dix éléments clés de l'apprentissage coopératif en vue de les adapter à un contexte de pédagogie musicale centrée sur l'apprentissage des instruments de musique d'harmonie. Ces éléments clés sont: (1) l'organisation du local de musique, (2) l'utilisation d'un matériel didactique éprouvé, (3) l'utilisation de buts communs, (4) la sensibilisation des élèves à la coopération, (5) la formation des équipes, (6) la caractérisation du rôle de l'enseignant, (7) la caractérisation du rôle de l'élève, (8) les concerts d'équipe devant la classe, (9) la compétition entre les équipes basée sur l'amélioration, (10) et la

compétition entre les équipes basée sur la performance (pour plus de détails, voir Boucher, 1995). Outre Graves et Graves, la sélection et l'adaptation de ces éléments clés étaient basées sur nos connaissances et notre compréhension de l'apprentissage coopératif, nos cours de formation de base avec Roger T. Johnson, nos deux études de faisabilité avec transformations pédagogiques *ad hoc* (Astolfi, 1993), notre expérience en enseignement et notre formation comme musicien professionnel.

Le traitement (12 ateliers), d'une durée de six semaines, est caractérisé par les 13 activités pédagogiques décrites ci-dessous. Chacune de ces activités est le résultat d'une interaction organisée des dix éléments clés présentés ci-haut. Cette succession stratégique d'activités pédagogiques nous a permis de guider l'opérationnalisation du concept d'apprentissage coopératif en musique, en milieu scolaire.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #1 enseignant: présente divers sujets de réflexion et de discussion portant sur des comportements de coopération (comportement de coopération: un mot ou une suite de mots et/ou un geste ou une suite de gestes qui montrent que des élèves s'entraident, s'encouragent et s'écoutent les uns les autres et respectent les règlements); **élève:** réfléchit et discute sur divers comportements de coopération et donne des exemples; **enseignant:** complète les informations à propos de certains comportements de coopération.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #2 enseignant: demande aux élèves de s'encourager les uns les autres lorsqu'ils terminent une période d'activité d'équipe ou de travail d'équipe; **élève:** encourage les autres élèves à la fin de chaque période d'activité d'équipe ou de travail d'équipe.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #3 enseignant: initie les élèves au rôle social suivant: le directeur musical; **élève:** reçoit les informations de base pour mettre en pratique le rôle de directeur musical.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #4 enseignant: sensibilise les élèves aux rôles sociaux suivants: le critique, l'entraîneur, l'inspecteur, le supporteur; **élève:** reçoit les informations de base pour mettre en pratique ces rôles sociaux.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #5 enseignant: donne les informations et les consignes à suivre pour le bon déroulement des activités d'équipe, lesquelles favorisent, d'une part, le développement d'un esprit d'équipe dans les équipes et dans la classe et, d'autre part, l'utilisation de comportements de coopération (en qualité, en quantité et de façon spontanée); **élève:** reçoit les informations, suit les consignes et tente d'utiliser des comportements de coopération.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #6 enseignant: demande aux élèves de s'entraider (en groupe entier); **élève:** demande ou offre de l'aide à l'un des élèves qui est tout près de lui et qui, généralement, apprend à jouer le même instrument de musique.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #7 enseignant: utilise de façon systématique, pendant les premières périodes de travail d'équipe, la séquence pédagogique de base qui permet de centrer les élèves sur une succession de petites tâches à accomplir pour que, peu à peu, ces derniers apprennent à exécuter, en équipe et sans hésitation, une même mélodie (mélodie tirée de la méthode pour classes d'orchestre à vents: *L'orchestre à vent moderne*, Ployhar, 1985); **élève:** suit les consignes de l'enseignant; apprend à exécuter, en équipe et sans hésitation, la même mélodie que ses coéquipiers; tente d'utiliser des comportements de coopération.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #8 enseignant: demande à tous les élèves de la classe d'exécuter ensemble, en groupe entier, ce qu'ils ont appris à exécuter en équipe; **élève:** exécute en groupe entier ce qu'il a appris à exécuter en équipe.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #9 enseignant: demande aux élèves de se préparer, en équipe de cinq, à exécuter, avec cette même équipe, une mélodie (tirée de la méthode pour classes d'orchestre à vents: *L'orchestre à vent moderne*, Ployhar, 1985) en vue d'un concert devant la classe; l'enseignant forme les équipes en favorisant l'hétérogénéité dans les équipes (habileté, ethnie, sexe, instruments de musique) tout en maintenant une certaine homogénéité entre les équipes; **élève:** se prépare (en équipe de cinq) à exécuter (avec cette même équipe) la mélodie devant la classe; tente d'utiliser des comportements de coopération; **enseignant:** évalue la qualité de la performance instrumentale de chacune des équipes de la façon suivante: chaque équipe doit, à tour de rôle, exécuter le mieux possible la mélodie devant la classe; l'enseignant donne quelques commentaires positifs (ce qui est acquis) et quelques commentaires constructifs (ce qui est à corriger ou à améliorer) à chacune des équipes avec, à l'occasion, des commentaires positifs ou constructifs des autres élèves de la classe; aucune note officielle n'est attribuée aux équipes (afin d'éviter la compétition entre les équipes); l'évaluation d'une performance instrumentale d'équipe n'a pas de durée précise.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #10 enseignant: demande aux élèves d'encourager certains élèves (ou certaines équipes) qui ont exécuté une mélodie à l'aide de leur instrument de musique; **élève:** encourage certains élèves (ou certaines équipes).

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #11 **enseignant:** informe les élèves qu'il met en oeuvre une compétition entre les équipes basée sur l'amélioration de la qualité des performances instrumentales individuelles (la compétition entre les équipes favorise la coopération dans les équipes); il explique aux élèves les modes d'attribution des points d'amélioration (un système de pointage qui rend juste et équitable la compétition entre les équipes); il rappelle régulièrement aux élèves qu'ils peuvent marquer des points pour leur équipe seulement lorsqu'ils réussissent à améliorer la qualité de leur performance instrumentale; **élève:** reçoit les informations et se prépare (parfois seul, parfois en équipe, parfois en groupe entier), pendant les prochains cours de musique, à exécuter (seul) une mélodie devant la classe (mélodie choisie par l'enseignant et tirée de la méthode pour classes d'orchestre à vents: *L'orchestre à vent moderne*, Ployhar, 1985); l'élève tente, lorsque l'occasion se présente, d'utiliser des comportements de coopération; **enseignant:** évalue (après trois rencontres) la qualité de la performance instrumentale de chaque élève de la façon suivante: chaque élève doit exécuter le mieux possible la mélodie devant la classe; il donne à l'élève un commentaire positif et un commentaire constructif; ces commentaires justifient le résultat de l'élève; immédiatement après avoir dit ces deux commentaires, l'enseignant, devant la classe, informe l'élève de son résultat; l'évaluation d'une performance instrumentale d'un seul élève a une durée maximale de 30 secondes (un maximum de 15 minutes pour une classe de 30 élèves); **enseignant:** attribue, après avoir compilé le plus rapidement possible les points d'amélioration, une "récompense collective" (photo d'équipe, certificat d'équipe, etc.) à chacune des deux équipes qui se sont le plus améliorées; affiche la feuille de compilation dans la classe; **élève:** encourage, avec l'enseignant et les autres élèves de sa classe, les équipes gagnantes.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #12 **enseignant:** demande aux élèves de se préparer (en équipe) à exécuter (en équipe) une mélodie (tirée de la méthode pour classes d'orchestre à vents: *L'orchestre à vent moderne*, Ployhar, 1985) devant la classe en vue d'une compétition entre les équipes basée sur la qualité de la performance instrumentale de chacune des équipes; **élève:** se prépare (en équipe) à exécuter (en équipe) la mélodie devant la classe; tente d'utiliser des comportements de coopération; **enseignant:** évalue la qualité de la performance instrumentale de chacune des équipes de la façon suivante: chaque équipe doit, à tour de rôle, exécuter le mieux possible la mélodie devant la classe; après chacune des performances instrumentales d'équipe, il donne quelques commentaires positifs et quelques commentaires constructifs; ces commentaires

justifient le résultat de l'équipe; immédiatement après avoir dit ces commentaires, l'enseignant, devant la classe, informe l'équipe de son résultat; l'évaluation d'une performance instrumentale d'une seule équipe a une durée maximale de 45 secondes (moins de cinq minutes pour l'évaluation des six équipes); l'enseignant détermine sur-le-champ la meilleure équipe (celle qui a reçu le meilleur résultat) et, de façon occasionnelle, attribue une "récompense collective" à cette équipe; **élève:** encouragement, avec l'enseignant et les autres élèves de sa classe, l'équipe gagnante.

ACTIVITÉ PÉDAGOGIQUE #13 enseignant: à l'occasion, présente une personne invitée à entendre les concerts d'équipe; **élève:** encouragement et remercie, avec l'enseignant et les autres élèves de sa classe, la personne invitée.

La succession stratégique de ces 13 activités pédagogiques constituent un dispositif pédagogique: une sorte de "canévas de base stable" sur lequel nous nous sommes appuyé pour appliquer le traitement. L'ordre dans lequel ces activités sont présentées ci-haut suit l'ordre dans lequel elles sont apparues dans le contexte; bien que, en pratique, toutes ces activités se fusionnent et s'entremêlent les unes aux autres (pour plus de détails sur le traitement et sur le dispositif pédagogique, voir Boucher, 1995).

Procédure

Un plan de recherche en quatre étapes a été utilisé pour examiner les effets de l'apprentissage coopératif sur la qualité des performances instrumentales des élèves.

La première étape consistait à commencer l'année scolaire sans rien changer aux habitudes de l'enseignant. Ce dernier utilisait, pendant les 14 premières rencontres de l'année, sa façon habituelle d'enseigner (une approche traditionnelle: travail en groupe entier, sans interaction entre les élèves) et ce, pour les cinq classes.

La deuxième étape consistait à évaluer, lors de la quinzième rencontre, à l'aide d'un jury (quatre spécialistes en pédagogie musicale), la qualité des performances instrumentales des élèves avec la "mélodie-A" (prétest). Ensuite, sur la base des médianes (Md), des étendues interquartiles (EI) et des formes des distributions des qualités des performances instrumentales, nous avons formé, à partir des cinq classes, deux groupes à peu près identiques. Trois classes (79 élèves) formaient le groupe essai (avec traitement: intégration du dispositif pédagogique dans l'approche traditionnelle) et deux classes (51 élèves) formaient le "groupe témoin" (continuation de l'approche traditionnelle).

La troisième étape consistait à commencer le traitement dans les trois classes du groupe essai (de la seizième à la vingt-septième rencontre). Quelques réunions avec l'enseignant ont permis de donner les informations qui étaient nécessaires à l'application du traitement. Pendant l'application, nous avons joué un rôle de soutien auprès de l'enseignant et non auprès des élèves. Ce rôle consistait à cerner, en collaboration avec l'enseignant, les conditions qui optimisaient l'opérationnalisation du concept d'apprentissage coopératif en musique, en milieu scolaire. Cela nous amenait à appliquer l'observation participante active, de structure souple avec notations différées dans un carnet de bord (Sellitz et al., 1977; Postic & De Ketele, 1988), et à enregistrer sur vidéo les trois classes du groupe essai. Pour diminuer "l'effet de Hawthorne", nous avons observé et enregistré sur vidéo les deux classes du groupe témoin. Enfin, notons que l'enseignant utilisait, pour les cinq classes, la même méthode pour classes d'orchestre à vents: *L'orchestre à vent moderne* (Ployhar, 1985).

La quatrième étape consistait à évaluer, lors de la vingt-huitième rencontre, à l'aide du même jury, la qualité des performances instrumentales des élèves avec la "mélodie-B" (post-test).

Mesure

Boyle et Radocy (1987) soulignent que l'évaluation d'une performance instrumentale en musique demeure avant tout subjective. Les quatre spécialistes en musique ont donc évalué la qualité des performances instrumentales de chaque élève en inscrivant une cote (A= excellent-100%; B= très satisfaisant-80%; C= satisfaisant-60%; D= insatisfaisant-40%; E= très insatisfaisant-10%) sous chacun des critères situés sur une grille d'évaluation des performances instrumentales individuelles (doigtés, qualité sonore, notes entendues, rythmes entendus, appréciation générale). La somme des valeurs des cotes inscrites sous le critère "appréciation générale", divisée par quatre, donnait le résultat d'un élève.

Les deux périodes d'évaluation se sont déroulées de la façon suivante:

1. tous les élèves, sous la direction de l'enseignant, avaient dix minutes pour apprendre (en groupe entier) à exécuter une nouvelle mélodie (la mélodie-A: lors de la quinzième rencontre de l'année; la mélodie-B: lors de la vingt-huitième rencontre); les membres du jury faisaient ensuite leur entrée dans la classe;

2. nous informions alors les élèves que cette évaluation nous permettait d'entendre la qualité de leur performance instrumentale et que cela pouvait nous aider à améliorer le cours de musique; nous spécifions ensuite aux élèves que cet examen ne comptait pas au bulletin, mais qu'ils devaient quand même faire de leur mieux;

3. nous avons évalué, à l'aide de la grille d'évaluation des performances instrumentales individuelles, chacune des performances instrumentales des élèves dans l'ordre suivant: d'abord les élèves qui faisaient l'apprentissage de la clarinette, ensuite ceux qui faisaient l'apprentissage de la flûte traversière, de la trompette, du trombone, du baryton et du tuba; tous les élèves d'une même section instrumentale avaient, avant de faire l'examen, 30 secondes pour émettre quelques sons avec leur instrument de musique;

4. dans le but d'établir une certaine standardisation des attitudes des juges envers la qualité des performances instrumentales des élèves, nous nous sommes discrètement assuré de l'unanimité des juges sur la cote qu'ils attribuaient à la qualité des performances instrumentales des quatre premiers élèves des deux premières classes.

Lors de la première étape des deux périodes d'évaluation, nous avons alloué dix minutes aux élèves pour apprendre à exécuter une nouvelle mélodie. Cette procédure permettait aux élèves des deux groupes de "réchauffer" leurs muscles impliqués dans le contrôle de l'embouchure et de la respiration et d'exécuter plusieurs fois la nouvelle mélodie. Le fait d'exécuter plusieurs fois cette mélodie assurait que les difficultés liées au "décodage" des signes musicaux, n'influenceraient pas la qualité du jeu instrumental des élèves (Mialaret, 1979; Sloboda, 1988).

Résultats

Au prétest (mélodie-A), les médianes et les étendues interquartiles des groupes "essai" et "témoin" étaient les mêmes ($Md1/Md'1 = 55\%$; $E1/E'1 = 32,5\%$) et les formes des distributions étaient semblables. Sous un autre angle, la moyenne du groupe essai ($m1 = 51.65\%$; $e1 = 22.34$) était sensiblement supérieure à celle du groupe témoin ($m'1 = 50.88\%$; $e'1 = 23.27$). Une analyse de la variance (ANOVA) confirme qu'il n'y avait aucune différence statistiquement significative entre ces deux moyennes ($F(1,128) = 0.04$, $p < .05$). On peut donc affirmer que les deux groupes étaient, au départ, à peu près identiques en ce qui avait trait à la qualité des performances instrumentales des élèves.

Au post-test (mélodie-B), les caractéristiques des deux groupes ont changées. En effet, la médiane du groupe essai a augmenté de 15% (Md2= 70%; EI2= 30%), celle du groupe témoin demeure la même (Md'2= 55%; EI'2= 20%) et les formes des distributions sont différentes (figure 1). Sous un autre angle, la moyenne du groupe essai a augmenté de +18.16% ($m_2 = 69.81\%$; $e_2 = 21.16$) et celle du groupe témoin a augmenté de +2.26% ($m'_2 = 53.14\%$; $e'_2 = 21.88$). Des analyses de variances (ANOVA) confirment qu'il y a une différence significative entre les moyennes qu'a obtenues le groupe essai au prétest et au post-test (m_1/m_2 : $F(1,156) = 27.54$, $p < .05$) et qu'il n'y a aucune différence significative pour le groupe témoin (m'_1/m'_2 : $F(1,100) = 0.25$, $p < .05$). On peut donc affirmer que, dans l'ensemble, les élèves du groupe essai ont, de façon significative, amélioré la qualité de leur performance instrumentale pendant le traitement. Une analyse de la variance (ANOVA) confirme aussi qu'il y a une différence significative entre les moyennes qu'ont obtenues les deux groupes au post-test (m_2/m'_2 : $F(1,128) = 18.74$, $p < .05$). Considérant que ces groupes étaient à peu près identiques au départ, on peut conclure que l'apprentissage coopératif, tel que nous l'avons appliqué en milieu scolaire, favorise l'amélioration de la qualité des performances instrumentales des élèves.

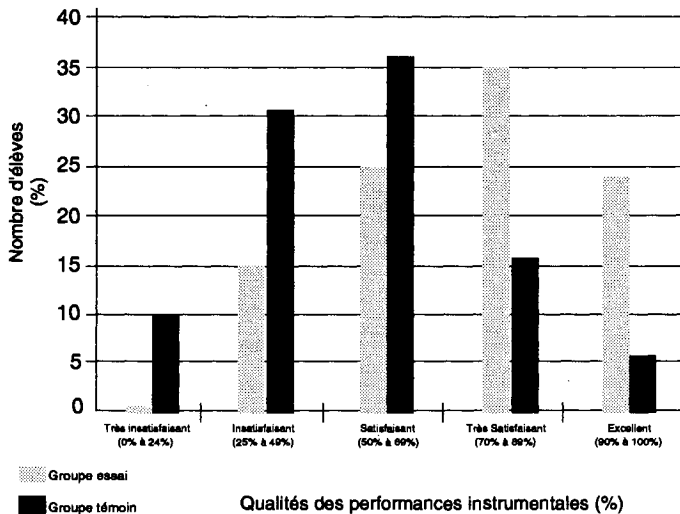


FIGURE 1. Histogramme des qualités des performances instrumentales des élèves des groupes essai et témoin au post-test (après les six semaines).

Par ailleurs, le tableau 1 montre le nombre d'élèves (%) des groupes *essai* et *témoin* qui contribuent aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier lors du prétest et du post-test. Un test d'hypothèse sur les proportions confirme qu'il n'y a aucune différence significative entre les deux groupes lors du prétest ($z = 0.69, p < .05$). On peut donc affirmer que les deux groupes étaient, au départ, à peu près identiques en ce qui avait trait au nombre d'élèves qui contribuaient aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier.

Au post-test, les proportions ont changées. En effet, le nombre d'élèves du groupe *essai* a, de façon significative, augmenté de +18% ($z = 2.67, p < .05$) et celui du groupe *témoin* a, de façon non significative, diminué de -2% ($z = 0.21, p < .05$). Un test d'hypothèse confirme qu'il y a une différence significative entre les deux groupes lors du post-test ($z = 3.23, p < .05$).

TABLEAU 1: Nombre d'élèves (%) qui contribuent* aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier lors du prétest et du post-test.

	Contribution au prétest (avant les 6 semaines)	Contribution au post-test (après les 6 semaines)	Différences
Groupe <i>essai</i>	Approche traditionnelle	Approche coopérative	+18%
	66% des élèves contribuent	84% des élèves contribuent	
Groupe <i>témoin</i>	Approche traditionnelle	Approche traditionnelle	- 2 %
	60% des élèves contribuent	58% des élèves contribuent	

* L'élève contribue aux performances instrumentales de son groupe entier lorsque la qualité de sa performance instrumentale est satisfaisante (résultat $\geq 50\%$).

Considérant que ces groupes étaient à peu près identiques au départ, on peut conclure que l'apprentissage coopératif, tel que nous l'avons appliqué en milieu scolaire, favorise la contribution des élèves aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier.

DISCUSSION

Qu'est-ce que nous avons appris? Cette étude exploratoire nous a appris que l'apprentissage coopératif peut être appliqué pendant les cours de musique centrés sur l'apprentissage des instruments de musique d'harmonie en milieu scolaire. Elle nous a aussi appris que l'approche coopérative, intégrée à une approche traditionnelle, favorise, d'une part, l'amélioration du jeu instrumental des élèves et, d'autre part, la contribution des élèves aux performances instrumentales collectives. Et ce, beaucoup plus qu'une approche traditionnelle seulement.

Par ailleurs, il faut souligner qu'un facteur important aurait pu influencer de façon considérable nos résultats. En effet, un des membres du jury connaissait notre plan de recherche et les objectifs que nous poursuivions. Il nous paraissait donc évident de voir ce juge surestimer la qualité des performances instrumentales des élèves du groupes essai et sous-estimer celle des élèves du groupe témoin. Mais, tel n'a pas été le cas. En effet, des analyses de variances (ANOVA) montrent clairement qu'il n'y a aucune différence significative ($p < .05$) entre les moyennes attribuées par chaque juge à chacun des deux groupes lors du prétest et lors du post-test. D'un autre côté, malgré toutes les précautions que nous avons prises, nous reconnaissons que "l'effet de Pygmalion" peut avoir influencé nos résultats.

Bref, les résultats que nous avons obtenus concordent avec les conclusions de Johnson et al. (1981), Newmann et Thompson (1987), et Slavin (1990) qui affirment que l'apprentissage coopératif a des effets positifs sur le rendement scolaire.

Maintenant, que devons-nous faire? Maintenant, nous devons approfondir davantage le cadre théorique du dispositif pédagogique, d'une part, et, d'autre part, continuer à valider son efficacité en milieu scolaire. Il faut donc, à notre avis, chercher des réponses aux questions suivantes: pourquoi le dispositif pédagogique favorise le rendement? est-ce parce qu'il favorise le développement du sens de la responsabilité collective? et que le développement du sens de la responsabilité collective incite nécessairement l'élève à fournir plus d'effort? et que fournir plus d'effort améliore nécessairement le rendement? quelle sont les effets de chacune des activités pédagogiques sur les dimensions cognitives, affectives, psychomotrices et sociales de l'élève? est-ce qu'un dispositif pédagogique, qui contiendrait seulement deux ou trois activités pédagogiques (plutôt que 13), aurait les mêmes effets sur le rendement? pourquoi certains élèves répondent moins bien que d'autres au dispositif

pédagogique (on a qu'à penser aux 13 élèves du groupe essai -environ quatre élèves par classe- qui ne contribuent pas aux performances instrumentales de leur groupe entier après le traitement)?

Pour le moment, toutes ces questions n'ont pas de réponses précises. Cependant, les théories qui sous-tendent les différentes conceptions de l'apprentissage coopératif proposent des réponses et/ou des points d'appui à partir desquels nous pouvons enrichir et poursuivre nos réflexions dans l'approfondissement théorique du dispositif pédagogique.

Dans une perspective plus pratique, nous avons dit que cette étude visait à cerner les conditions qui optimisent l'application du dispositif pédagogique en milieu scolaire. La description détaillée de ces conditions permet maintenant de baliser de façon plus éclairée les prochains travaux dans ce domaine. Nous pensons qu'une étude longitudinale, qui permettrait de mieux observer les effets de ce dispositif en milieu scolaire, est, aujourd'hui, non seulement souhaitable, mais sans aucun doute réalisable.

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A BLUSHING ROMANCE: FRAMEWORK FOR AN ETHICAL EXPOSITION OF A RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS

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ABSTRACT. The incidence of partnerships between business and education is growing at a phenomenal speed. This article gives pause to this near frenzied activity by examining the case of a commercial interest seeking to partner with several educational systems. After the Andersen Ethical Decision-making Model is described as an instrument of discernment for educators, it is used to begin an ethical exposition of the advantages and potential conflicts of interests and values of the case proposal. The author then briefly discusses the usefulness of ethical analysis to sort through similar education and commerce sector relationships.

RÉSUMÉ. La fréquence des partenariats entre le milieu des affaires et le milieu de l'éducation croît à une vitesse phénoménale. Cet article donne à réfléchir à cette activité frénétique en étudiant le cas d'un intérêt commercial qui cherche à établir un partenariat avec plusieurs systèmes éducatifs. Après avoir décrit le modèle *Andersen* de prise de décisions éthiques comme instrument de discernement pour les éducateurs, celui-ci est utilisé pour présenter sur le plan éthique les avantages et les éventuels conflits d'intérêts et les valeurs de cette étude de cas. L'auteur analyse ensuite brièvement l'utilité de l'analyse éthique pour faire le tri de partenariats analogues entre le milieu de l'éducation et le secteur commercial.

With increasing frequency, the legitimacy and the economic necessity of nontraditional supports to educational services have become subjects of dialogue, consternation, and ethical scrutiny by school administrators and trustees. Varying degrees and directions of concern have been expressed by social commentators and educational policy makers (e.g., Underwood, 1993; Farrell, 1991; Molnar, 1990). Some educational institutions have entered into arrangements with commercial interests while others have not. Of course, some educational leaders have clearly defined and long established professional and organiza-

tional boundaries that determine what kinds of relationships are permissible and profitable. But, some "blushing" may be detected on the part of other educational policy makers. They seem to be uncertain about how to deal with the complex forces and affections surfacing in response to advances from a member of the "opposite sector." While they may be inclined to pursue the possibilities of a relationship, they are wary about just how fast to move and how extensive intrasector relations should be. From the perspective of the business world, a relatively new realization has come that educational institutions hold great market potential and that commercial interests may, indeed, be furthered by renegotiating with school personnel forms of relations that were previously assumed to be off-limits.

How does one know if a particular proposal is "right, good, proper, or virtuous"? How should these arrangements be assessed? For many school boards, the various configurations of commercial and educational relations are at an early stage of courtship: Each party wonders what onlookers will think, what their potential partner's actual interests and intentions are, and what the limits and legitimacy of their intersection might be. Our opinion is that the absence of explicit ethical analysis normalizes unnecessary confusion in school systems; but the consideration of ethical questions, such as outlined in this article, may displace the confusion with confidence.

This article explores a specific proposal made by a commercial interest to several school jurisdictions throughout Canada. Our use of this particular proposal is intended to focus readers' attention on the use of an ethical decision-making process to work through an illustrative case, rather than to draw attention to the commercial venture itself. It is interesting that this particular proposal met with varied responses. These responses could be considered in the light of economic, general policy, and ethical warrants. A modified version of the Arthur Andersen and Company (1992) ethical decision-making framework is proffered as an instrument for sorting through the conflicts of interests and values of this commercial proposal. The Arthur Andersen framework is chosen because it has been widely disseminated throughout North America, through business schools, and because it has been well accepted as a useful business ethics instrument. In other words, both education and business interests should be able to appreciate and affirm the elements of this analytical framework, as it is applied in this article.

THE COMPUTER OFFER: DECENT OR INDECENT PROPOSAL?

In early 1992, a Canadian retailer offered computers for classrooms in exchange for customer cash register receipts. This large grocery chain offered to donate a microcomputer to each school that raised \$150,000 in sales receipts. The offer was enthusiastically taken up in several large urban school jurisdictions (Chandler, 1992) and by a number of other jurisdictions. Some jurisdictions, however, declined to participate. A number of school systems had received a letter outlining the plan after the program advertising had begun. In many instances, representatives of the grocery chain and a local computer company had met with the school system administrators to explain and to discuss the proposal. Those accepting the proposal did so based on their view that the offer of free computers would give schools an alternative means by which to increase the technology hardware in their schools, without incurring school system funding. Students would clearly be the beneficiaries of the receipt contributions. In this even and reciprocal relationship the company's initiative to offer technology that is important for students was welcomed. To others, the proposal provided their school systems with an excellent opportunity for community involvement and tangible goal setting in a way that would clearly benefit the children and their learning. The only effort required would be to let their various constituents, who shop anyway, know that they would like to collect the receipts from them.

On the other hand, a number of school jurisdictions rejected the proposal on the grounds that it entailed direct advertising. In short, they perceived that the grocery store giant was mainly interested in promoting its corporate image and having students encourage people to shop exclusively at its stores. The offer of computers for schools was conditional on a certain level of sales, with no computer offered if that level was not reached. Further, some school systems were concerned that the retailer's self-promotion was central to the advertising. They saw minimal educational benefit from their participation in the program as there was a large discrepancy between the price of a microcomputer (about \$3,000) and the \$150,000 worth of cash register sales receipts. In other words, the actual contribution by the company was assessed to be too small to merit entering into the relationship. Some rejectors expressed concern that there was a need to sustain fidelity with local merchants who had supported schools in various ways over

the years, and that the effect of the diversion of sales from a local economy was too high a price to pay. Other boards appeared to see the proposal as a policy matter. Typically, the policy-driven approaches were to determine: (1) the educational soundness of the offer; (2) the direct educational benefits resulting from participation; and (3) whether advertising directed toward school constituents was intrusive. To overcome these policy contraventions, some school systems counter-offered with alternate arrangements which were rejected by the retailer. Others deliberated on the particulars of their school system to ensure that schools in high socioeconomic areas would not enjoy an unfair advantage over schools that were less able to raise funds locally. The commercial suitor was embraced by some and spurned by others. The question of whether either set of school jurisdictions was right or wrong is a question for retrospection. Rather than proclaiming judgment on the ultimate decisions of these boards, the attention of this paper is on the ethical processes and considerations that might be transferable from this past proposal to the various proposals that are assuredly going to emerge, with increasing frequency, in the years to come.

TRANSFERABLE FRAMEWORK FOR AN ETHICAL EXPOSITION

The last few decades have seen increased societal concern about the level of ethical behaviour shown by corporations and, in some instances, by educators (Hunter, 1990; Lewis, 1990; Natale, 1990). Ethical questions are an essential part of all human organizations because the goals of the organizations are determined by human values (Hodgkinson, 1991). For our purposes, ethics refers to the discipline that concerns itself with decisions about rightness and wrongness, goodness and badness (Runes, 1977). The overall normative constraints and motivations of policy-making processes are typically assumed to be grounded in the ambition to be ethically wise and virtuous, consistent with obligations, and responsible. A systematic analysis of such offers as the one made by the grocery chain will, it is hoped, increase the appropriateness of case-specific policy and of boards' subsequent responses to other commercial proposals.

As indicated, the modified version of the Arthur Andersen and Company (1992) ethical decision-making framework (Figure 1) has been widely disseminated throughout North America. According to Peek, Peek, and Horras (1994), the "Arthur Andersen & Co. has made a significant contribution to assist and encourage the teaching of business ethics. They provided assistance initially through workshops and cur-

riculum materials; currently they are using campus coordinators to disseminate information and materials" (p. 189). The model was developed for the accounting firm's distribution by Manuel Velasquez (Andersen, 1992, p. 10), in order to provide a basic procedure for evaluating and resolving an actual or potential moral problem.

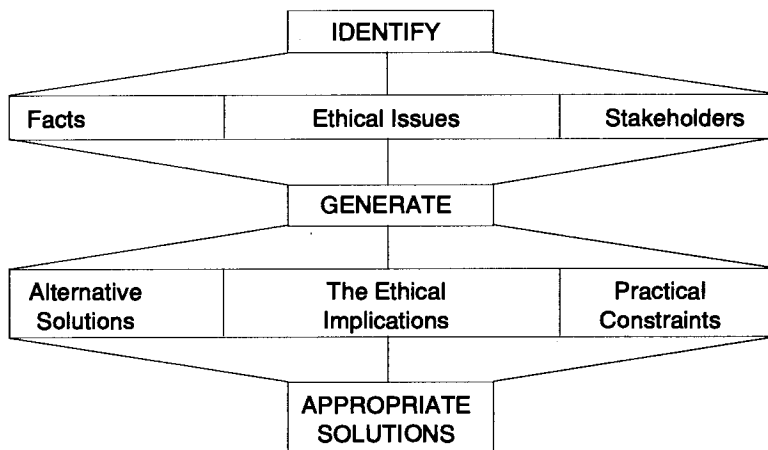


FIGURE 1. Arthur Andersen Seven-Step Moral Reasoning Model

According to the original Seven-Step Moral Reasoning Model, the decision- or policy-maker will: (1) identify the key factors that shape the situation and raise the ethical issues; (2) define the ethical issues and separate these from other nonethical issues; (3) identify the key individuals or groups affected by such a decision or policy; (4) generate a viable course of action that could be taken; (5) evaluate how each alternative affects the stakeholders and determines how ethical each alternative is; (6) generate the practical factors that may limit the agent's ability to implement an alternative; and (7), after weighing the above considerations, determine exactly what steps should be taken to implement the selected alternative. This approach provides for at least four basic levels of ethical analysis. The process template for examining a case, such as the computer for schools offer, consists of four interrelated levels of analysis: 1) Identification and description of decision information, assessment of stakeholder values and interests, and delineation of ethical and nonethical issues; 2) Establishing criteria for ethi-

cal decision-making; 3) Generation of alternate scenarios, projection of ethical implications, adjustments that consider practical constraints; and 4) Ethical evaluation and reflection on appropriateness of solutions and action.

While analyses may occur at many spheres (individual, professional, local, organizational, societal, and global), attention is delimited to local and organizational levels of consideration. An ethical analysis template such as provided by Andersen can serve boards who face similar offers or, perhaps, wish to initiate joint ventures.

An exposition of this particular case could be approached from many perspectives. This article will provide examples of questions and considerations that may help school leaders make sound and justifiable policy decisions in areas of unfamiliar territory for school jurisdictions.

BEGINNING DECISION PROCESS

An exposition of policy and practice problems requires attention to problem definition and to the facts, perceptions, and subtleties embedded in the circumstances. In this case, the fundamental question is taken to be: Should a school jurisdiction endorse the retailer's sales receipt program in return for the prospect of gaining one or more of the \$3000 micro-computers? Though this question is not an exclusively ethical problem, it ought, at least, to be considered from an ethical perspective.

The need for a well-considered response to such a question is important in light of the urgent economic pressures facing schools and the need to test the legitimacy of alternative funding sources. This proposal is just one of many. School-business relationships have become common as financial climates become increasingly tight for schools and as commercial interests attempt to develop new marketing strategies. The types of commercial and educational relationships include such varied activities as: school personnel-as-agent fundraising packages, corporate special event or equipment sponsorship, large philanthropic gifts, donations of prizes, joint education-business ventures, educational partnerships, work experience programs, capitalization arrangements, and mentorships. The media have drawn our attention to a number of arrangements. For example, a number of school boards have made deals with a soft drink company. In this type of relationship, a soft drink company was ensured a monopoly on soft drink and juice vending machines for the payment to one of these boards of 1.14 million dollars, over a three-year period.

Obviously, partnerships that go beyond straight commercial exchange involve the goodwill, resources, and the mutual interests of the parties involved. Although each generic type of relationship should be considered independently, it is the *a priori* position of this article that such considerations should be consistent with a set of predetermined, predictable, and explicit ethical principles and processes. This provides a safeguard against unrestrained opportunism and the possibility of educational stewards making strictly financial decisions, without consideration of their educational advocacy functions.

In recent years school budgets have decreased in real dollar revenues, and school administrators have felt strapped for resources. Policies made in tough economic times may be different from those made in more affluent times. Social and economic conditions should not automatically alter the ethical status of proposals; nor should fiscally-challenged times automatically provide justification for what would otherwise be considered ethically unjustifiable policies or practices. Unfortunately, these conditions tend to make proposals, such as the one examined in this paper, worth considering.

Acknowledgment of both rational and intuitive biases should be an important function of the decision process. These biases provide a starting place for what Strike (1993) calls dialogical competence: "the ability to talk about, reason about, and experience appropriate phenomena via a certain set of concepts" (p. 105). Strike says that moral reasoning consists of a reflective equilibrium of interaction between moral data, moral principles, and background conceptions or convictions (pp. 107-108).

STAKEHOLDER ANALYSIS AS BASIS FOR ASSESSMENT OF VALUES AND INTERESTS

The first-phase task of this policy process is to enumerate stakeholders, to identify their particular values and interests, and to enumerate their short-through-long-term interests. Furthermore, degrees of indifference amongst individuals and groups of stakeholders and the policy makers' fiduciary responsibilities to each set of stakeholders must be determined. These tasks are especially important when the consequences of alternative responses are anticipated. This analysis must be conducted in the context of the particular offer and with sensitivity to the social, economic, and political realities of all persons and groups.

A thorough exposition would consider the interests and values of each stakeholder group and would identify any conflicts of interest that

might result from the proposed relationship. At least six stakeholder groups need representation in the case of the computers-for-receipts offer: students, school-based educators, parents, senior administrators and legislators, members of local community, and business and commerce sector members. Using the example of students as one constituent group, a series of questions is proposed to estimate their particular interests and values related to this project: What is the probability that the computers offered in this proposal will be helpful to the students in the schools? What are their current educational needs, and do these computers address these needs? Will the computers be used by the students or will the adults in schools have the main access? How much would one or several microcomputers benefit the overall education program of students? Will students have greater access to computers by virtue of this proposal? What is the possibility that efforts to secure a computer through this proposal would fail? Will any student be particularly advantaged or disadvantaged with or without these computers? Are students, in any way, going to be exploited (treated as means rather than ends) by this proposal, if accepted? If there were internal funds available, would these computers be a high enough priority to purchase, independent of this proposal? What will be the intensity of involvement, expectations, and the expenditures of energies by the students? Will students be required to influence others to change their present grocery shopping patterns? What is implicitly taught to students about consumer, commercial, and educational enterprises?

Some would say that students are the most important stakeholder group to consider in this case. Children are not voluntarily in the situation, and their attendance at school is for educational ends, not for commercial ones. The fallacy of false necessity, that is often inflicted by advertisers, perhaps could be countered by asking whether or not this proposal is the only way to enhance the education of students. Of course, the parentism of the above statements could be questioned, as well.

Numerous questions might be asked on behalf of the other groups, as well. For example: Are parents, in any way, going to be subjected to coercion with respect to shopping loyalties? Might parents be transformed from consumers to marketing agents? What opportunity for assent or consent would be offered to parents? To what extent will teachers be asked to do more work that is not directly related to their primary instructional function (e.g., doing such things as collecting receipts and advertising for companies)? How much tax will be saved for each local property owner? Will any local businesses be placed at

risk of suffering negative effects? Will any long-standing relations between educational and commercial interests be put at risk? If the food chain profits from this proposal, how might the community profit, in addition to the gift of computers? What immediate advertising, sales, and public relations gains benefit the proposers of this offer? What benefits or disadvantages might ordinary consumers experience? What are the potential costs and benefits for the small stores that provide local services and livelihoods in the school communities? As indicated, questioning the values and interests not only seeks to uncover the prospective consequences of the proposal for these six groups, but also raises some of the ethical and nonethical value and interest conflicts that must be considered.

DETERMINATION AND DELIMITATION OF ETHICAL AND NONETHICAL ISSUES

After identifying the stakeholders' interests and values, educational policy- and decision-makers should remind themselves of their relative obligations, such as mediatory responsibilities in constituent conflicts and stewardship of predestined purposes and resources. Further, these leaders must, by some means, determine which of these value conflicts are ethical and which are nonethical (or ethically neutral) in nature. This distinction is important, because nonethical values may allow much more room to negotiate or to compromise than do ethical values, whether the ethical values are derived from purpose (teleological ethics), principle (deontological ethics), probability (consequentialist ethics), or professionalism (expert and virtue ethics). In order to proceed with this distinction, a sampling of potentially troublesome issues in the form of questions is undertaken. If any of these questions are worrisome to a board or to professional policy makers, they should be addressed before deciding upon the offer. The key task is to determine if any of the relevant issues are of an ethical nature. It would be imprudent to accept or reject the offer without considering the positive or the negative ethical concerns raised by these questions.

The questions could be further divided into general categories and case-specific issues. Alternatively, policy designers might use the purpose, principle, probability, and professionalism categories (as above), or they may divide the issues into problem sets, such as: consistency with mission or purpose, consistency with trusteeship obligations, potential for clashes between competing interests, consistency with community sensitivities, and possibilities of side-effect concerns (distribution or process questions). Such lists may vary depending on particular circum-

stances. (See the Appendix for likely questions to arise from this particular case.)

DEVELOPING DECISION CRITERIA

Issues are most readily addressed if predetermined principles, precepts, and precedents are available to serve as plumb-line type criteria for policy decisions. For example, utilitarianism offers a set of theories that regard the end of action to be "general happiness," and it affirms those "acts, dispositions and institutions which maximize the happiness of all who are affected by them" (Ashmore, 1987, p. 68). The basic question a utilitarian asks in determining the moral status of an action or practice is: "Will this action produce greater overall human well-being?" For many utilitarians, well-being is the only good, and they consider their own well-being as neither more nor less important than the well-being of anyone else. If utilitarian principles are retained to determine the moral worth of this proposal, one would project the benefits and costs of either acceptance or rejection of this offer. A quantitative approach to this analysis might include such factors as are included in Bentham's calculus (1948, pp. 30, 31). Bentham used elements such as intensity, duration, certainty, and propinquity to estimate the benefit produced by any act, practice, or decision. He also identified fecundity (chance that more of the same good benefits would follow), purity (chance that the opposite of good benefits would not follow), and extent (the number of people affected by the act). The utilitarian decision-maker will focus on the short and long term impact of such an offer on others, together with the net welfare for key stakeholders.

Alternatively, the theories of rights and deontological ethics (*deontos* means a binding duty) provide decision criteria based on moral entitlements and obligations (Hobbes, 1958; Kant, 1964; Locke, 1952). Deontological theories of ethics have been defined negatively as non-teleological theories. Theories of moral obligation consider factors other than (or as well as) the ends of action to determine their rightness or wrongness (Garner & Rosen, 1967, p. 36). From a deontological position, a policy on commercial and educational partnerships is right when it conforms to a relevant principle of duty. Obligations may be either self-imposed, socially-imposed, or divinely-imposed (Holmes, 1984, p. 69). A policy decision is deemed appropriate if it respects the rights of all individuals affected by the policy. In short, the security of sustained

respect for persons and the impartial nature of a policy will take precedence in decision-making.

The various theories of justice (Rawls, 1971; Walton, 1991) also offer help to resolve conflicts of rights and interests among stakeholders. One way of dealing with justice is to give each constituent group its due according to its work and its predisposition to dependence. Rawls (1971) states that any inequality of opportunity has to enhance the opportunities of those with the lesser opportunity. He says that an excessive rate of saving must be realized in order to mitigate the burden of those bearing this hardship (pp. 83-90). In other words, such a policy would formulate rational rules and procedures that apply to all persons fairly, such that no one person or group is disadvantaged by the fact of advantage provided others.

Ethical theories can help educational policy makers deal with the cases that come before them by generating principles or, in some instances, tie-breaking criteria where conflicts of interests exist. These principles may be expressed in the form of statements or questions that are useful for determining consequences, rights, obligations, and best remedies for stakeholders. For example, policy makers may consider the following principles:

REVERSIBILITY PRINCIPLE (or the Golden Rule): What would be the policy if we (the policy makers) assumed the point of view of the children or their caring parent(s)?

KID-ON-THE-SHOULDER PRINCIPLE: What would be done if impressionable children were watching and learning from the way we handle this proposal? What would be our decision if our own children or those of a respected personal friend were involved?

SOUND EXPLANATION PRINCIPLE: Is the justification for accepting or rejecting this computers-and-sales-receipts offer sufficiently explainable to the people that most matter (including the children and relevant local community)?

LAW OF ORIGINS PRINCIPLE: Has our tentative decision addressed what we, as educators, are here for? Given our educational mission and mandate, is this computer offer a good deal for our school community?

CONSISTENCY OR UNIVERSALITY PRINCIPLE: Would we be willing to commend our policy as good, right, and just to other policy makers, given similar circumstances?

AWAITED-HARVEST PRINCIPLE: How do the long-term benefits or losses that derive from this policy decision compare with the shorter term benefits or losses to the people in our school jurisdiction? Have we allowed long-term interests to trump short-term interests?

NO-HARM PRINCIPLE: Are any children, anywhere, or at any time in our school system, likely to be hurt or disadvantaged from this policy decision? If they are, do the economic, educational, and equity benefits from this decision outweigh these potential harms?

CRITICAL EQUILIBRIUM PRINCIPLE: Does this policy decision give proper balance to the individual best interests of particular children in typical classrooms with the collective best interests of all the children in our school system?

QUALMLESS DISCLOSURE PRINCIPLE: Can we unashamedly tell our most respected professional peers, our caring parents, and our colleagues in the local chambers of commerce the reasons for this decision, with full confidence that they would see things our way and support the policy decision?

OBJECTIVE RESPONSIBILITY PRINCIPLE: Are the particular standards or the constraining external obligations that have been entrusted to us, with respect to providing the best possible public education for our constituents, being satisfied by this policy decision? Is this decision consistent with our stewardship of the public trust?

ALTERNATE RESPONSES AND PROJECTION OF ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS

A limited number of reasonable responses to this proposal are suggested, beyond merely blushing. Policy makers might ignore the offer and refuse to deal with the questions, issues, and judgments that are delineated above. Policy makers might explain the proposal to their constituents and invite their opinions and judgments. Policy makers may take a firm stand against the offer, and make their position a matter of the public record. School jurisdictions may need to choose this option if the company has already publicized the offer, as in this situation. Rejecting the offer might range in expression from a simple, "No, thank you," to calls for censure of the major food chain because of their attempt to manipulate the consuming public through children. Policy makers might request that the food chain donate the microcomputers to schools, especially disadvantaged schools, in exchange for public acknowledgment of their generosity, or some such counter-offer. Finally, but not exhaustively, the policy maker might decide to "go for it!" As indicated, this offer received this same range of response from school systems.

Obviously, given the interests and issues-identification process, there will be ramifications for the various combinations of alternative policies that attempt to address this problem. Our recommendation is that the interests and issues identified at the beginning of the process be raised again to help qualify alternate responses, to anticipate criticism stemming from each of the alternatives, and consider amending or

modifying the preferred resolutions. For example, if the school jurisdiction decides to collect cash receipts in exchange for the possibility of receiving one or more school computers, they will need to: 1) Emphasize the purpose of public education and the non-technological aspects of the learning environment; 2) Think about other commercial interests that might wish to enter into similar or related relationships; 3) Anticipate complaints from direct competitors of the successful corporate suitor; 4) Decide how to guard against concerns related to direct advertising, exploitation, time away from central task, and influence on shopping patterns; and 5) Determine how to ensure that lower socio-economically endowed schools are not disadvantaged by the acceptance of this offer.

A framework for ethical analysis should admit of and adjust to the practical and social realities of school systems and communities. For example, it has been mentioned that the retailer had chosen to begin its advertising campaign prior to meetings with school board officials. This strategy may have placed a rather strong social pressure on the policy-making of the schools. On the other hand, it may have constrained the boards to exercise their autonomy and to assert their independence despite the powerful media campaign.

ETHICAL CONTEMPLATION ON APPROPRIATENESS OF POLICY AND PRACTICE

This article has attempted to put the responses of these school boards into explicit, normative, ethical terms. In preparing this exposition, we consulted with two urban boards of education who had relied on *a priori* policies, as well as with a rural board who did not have a policy for this area of concern. In the case of the two urban boards, their policies reflected the regime values of the day and had taken-for-granted ethical components embedded in their origin and expression (Pal, 1989). These policies suggest that they were consequentialist in their orientation. According to Pal (1989), such policies have the goal of "maximum satisfaction of preferences" (p. 204). All three school systems seemed to rely primarily on consequentialist arguments in their rejection of the grocery chain's promotion. They also reasoned that they had no guarantee of receiving a computer if their efforts fell at all short of the \$150,000 mark, in sales receipts. In the end, the process had neither persuasive inherent nor consequential educational value. The rural administrator noted that the general economic health of the small

communities was threatened, thereby bringing into question the commercial value of this proposal for local retailers.

In terms of nonconsequentialist arguments, the advertising was said to contain subliminal detail that made an unfair appeal to Canadian nationalism at a time of potential disunity or separation. Perhaps these administrators and their boards reasoned that their constituents (students and their families) were being asked to participate in direct advertising that unfairly supported one business over others. These requirements seemed contrary to the primary mission of the schools and to their loyalties to community-based retailers. School administrators felt that something was wrong with the "deal." The difference between the retailer's outlay for the computers was considered disproportional to sales receipt expectations and their advertising benefits. Although not stated directly, administrators implied that students had a right to expect that all programs related to the school would be primarily directed at their welfare. A large corporation's use of "students as pawns" was seen as a violation of school system integrity. Their analysis says that the offer tends to place their constituents in a position of being used as means rather than ends. Put in this Kantian formulation, the school response was rooted in a perceived duty to respect persons as valued more highly and differently than material objects.

The school administrators said that the students relied on policies and educational leaders to protect them from counter-productive influences and commercial predators. Any observer will note that from book covers to lunch boxes, from coloring books to comics, from T-shirts to hats, from radios to toys, everything in the child's world seems to have become ad space. While the alternatives might include monitoring the space, stifling commercial exploitation, or exploiting the phenomenon, school boards, administrators, and other stakeholders need to consider carefully where they want their policies to lead and what, if any, constraints they wish to impose on their own participation or intervention in such situations.

The urban public board gave educational outcomes as its touchstone while the other two boards were influenced more by religious motivations and explicit ethical perspectives than by educational outcomes. It might be that the philosophic and ideological pluralism of the public board may have inclined the administration to shy away from explicit ethical principles and to rely, instead, on written policy with implicit ethical values. The spokesperson for the public board stated that the decision with regard to the grocery chain offer was not an ethical one.

The Catholic board administrator identified it as an ethical decision for his organization; and the rural division administrator believed that the Christian faith of the majority of the trustees in his rural school jurisdiction shaped the ethical nature of their discussions. Clearly, this distinction could be an artifact of random effects of just three interviews or of the personalities of the three persons being interviewed. Nonetheless, it does ignite a set of hunches regarding the effects of religious beliefs on the expression of discrete ethical values in school system decision-makers' policy responses.

Although consequentialist ethics were more common in the administrators' justifications for policy decisions, nonconsequentialist approaches might have been preferred if language and linkage were more clearly articulated (Strike, Haller, & Soltis, 1988). Nonconsequentialist ethics derive from transrational values (Hodgkinson, 1991). According to Hodgkinson, nonconsequentialist values are a matter of faith rather than logic and of intuition rather than cognition. Perhaps educational leaders do not lack transrational values, but rather find utilitarianism more easily defended and more fully articulated in the arena of educational politics.

With most conventional policy analysis frameworks, a review of the policy implementation is scheduled to allow for policy modification. Especially important in such a review are the responses of the various constituents. In other words, these reflections should consider the meta-ethical issues related to common and exclusive interests. Education does, indeed, play a vital role in society. Schools are expected to instill in young people consciousness of important moral commitments and characteristics, thereby preparing them to become contributing members of society. Because of the deep and lasting effects of schooling on young people, society may hold mixed-sector engagements and relationships, such as in this case, to a higher set of ethical expectations.

On reflection, schools are often expected to demonstrate values such as justice, integrity, equity, full participation, inclusion, and fairness (Calabrese, 1990). Business or commercial interests, on the other hand, are usually seen as having profit as a central goal, although this perception is sometimes debated (Hunter, 1990). There is increasing societal concern about corporate ethics and about the assumption of social responsibility by commercial institutions, both public and private (Lewis, 1990). Corporations in North America have a long history of contributing to socially worthwhile causes, including education (Carroll, 1989; Sturdivant & Vernon-Wortzel, 1990). In business, self-interest is often

argued to be a fundamental value (Sturdivant & Vernon-Wortzel, 1990), but this focus does not necessarily imply a lack of concern for other values.

Business involvement with schools has obviously raised some ethical issues. Schools like to think of themselves as untainted by the profit motive (Rist, 1989). However, donations of money from business can be traced back to corporate profits.

Furthermore, educational institutions have a "tradition" of commercial involvement with such things as fund-raising, yearbooks, school jackets, team uniforms, and score clocks. Although some corporations have historically not demonstrated as much concern for ethics as have others, it should not be assumed that business ethics is an oxymoron. Even if only through enlightened self-interest, most CEOs today espouse philanthropy (Carroll, 1989). Despite isolated examples to the contrary, businesses are not necessarily, nor essentially, unethical. Although corporate values are different from those of education (Dunn, 1987), the ethics of school systems are not necessarily better developed than those of corporations. To reiterate, the value systems are distinctly different. Although some business leaders argue that their main aim is not to maximize profits (Hunter, 1990), most agree that self-interest is the basis of corporate philanthropy (Sturdivant & Vernon-Wortzel, 1990). The challenge remains for educators to sort through what are the exclusive and common interests of the commercial and educational worlds.

CONCLUSIONS

It has been argued that ethical decision-making processes need ethical humility, and that numerous individual and systemic forces constrain "good, right, and proper" policy decisions. Vaill (1991) says that value conflicts need to be diagnosed and resolved reflectively, collectively, wholistically, and spiritually. The failure of the grocery chain's offer to attract positive attention from school systems may have resulted from value confusion rather than from lack of ethics. From a business point-of-view, the direct advertising aspect of their offer was not inherently unethical. Of course, some might argue that they are caught up in self-deception if they view their offer in any way other than self-serving. A disturbing feature of the offer was the discrepancy between energy outlay and material return. All three school systems saw a basic unfairness in linking \$150,000 in sales to a single microcomputer. Their

reluctance was exacerbated by an advertising presentation implying that the retailer would play a major role in "technologizing" education for Canadian children. This suggestion was considered to be an exaggerated claim and a questionable pedagogical strategy.

The problem did not seem to be rooted in a fear of having brand names visible. Every school computer and each driver education vehicle used by schools is clearly marked with sponsors' and brand names. However, to be legitimate, corporate image-making must be linked to pre-existing educational goals. Schools deal in educational processes, not in material rewards unrelated to learning. The grocery store chain did not seem to have identified an authentic educational component. To some educators, the grocery chain was exaggerated in its consideration of profit and image without thinking about how the individual student would benefit from collecting sales receipts. Although the same concern exists for several other kinds of fund-raising ventures, such as door-to-door selling, at least a portion of every sale goes directly to the student council or to other educational services.

In summary, three school systems rejected the retailer's offer probably because of differences in values between business and education. But the circumstances, in our society, indicate a need for business and education to develop closer partnerships (Farrell, 1991; Hoyt, 1991; MacDowell, 1989; Molnar, 1989). Schools require more resources, new ideas, and different approaches. Businesses benefit in obvious ways from employable and trainable graduates. Commercial interests enhance their public images by involvement in the educational world (MacDowell, 1989). But details of commercial and educational partnerships must be carefully worked out. The values of each side must be understood and respected by the other. These differences are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Rather, they can be constrained and enhanced by ethically-driven deliberations.

The processes by which organizations make ethical decisions are not always clear. Sometimes these processes do not clearly include the ethical domain. At times, school system rationales or rationalizations are simply vague. Usually, however, the welfare of students is the stated criterion for educational decision-making. Educators claim their rewards, intrinsically and extrinsically, for putting their students first. They protect and promote schools as places where the specific benefit of students (as ends) override any conflicting organizational or institutional benefits (as means). Although all three school systems relied on

some form of group decision making, people contribute to decisions as individuals. If they substitute policy for direct consideration of ethical questions, they are simply substituting the policy-makers' ethics for their own. Often a decision is made, based on policy or not, and the ethics are filled in later. But decision makers must be able to distinguish right from wrong, and not just in terms of proportional benefit. Thus, a great need for executive ethics education exists.

Schools need partnerships with business to prepare students adequately for our changing society and to gain access to technology. In this case, bilateral discussions before program promotion would have enabled both parties to clarify values and to identify shared goals. Perhaps such discussions had taken place in another setting (e.g., in the United States or in another part of Canada). However, the Saskatchewan educational mores compelled some school systems to reject this proposal or at least to blush at the proposition of an engagement. The education establishment believed that the grocery chain was trying to make inappropriate use of students. Perhaps, though, the two parties simply started from different value platforms. If the retailer had approached the school systems for pre-promotion discussions, then both sides might have been able to satisfy their needs in ways thought to be ethical and acceptable.

This article has sought to describe an interests-sensitive case and to offer a framework for ethical consideration of such a case. Both writer and readers might benefit from an opportunity to appreciate and to critique this ethical framework and to consider the common and exclusive interests held by educational and commercial sectors. This is a practical and possibly transferable example of a policy analysis template that places the ethical domain at the center of educational decision-making. The author hopes this article will serve to stimulate debate and discussion on particular policy considerations involving the relationship between educational and commercial interests, from ethical and other perspectives.

APPENDIX

General Issue Questions:

1. Is a school division ethically bound to reject "freebies" or gifts from the private business sector? Should they enter into commercial agreements that have been initiated by other parties?
2. Are corporate handouts simple gifts of philanthropy or sophisticated marketing tools in a high-stakes power game? Do such handouts alter or compromise the purpose of public education?
3. Do commercial influences in school settings displace educational values with commodities or, at a deeper level, replace the internal goods of learning with external goods of material things?
4. Are school divisions, as public authorities, legally or ethically in conflict if they receive particular financial support from commercial interests in exchange for services (advertising agency)?
5. Is it appropriate for a school division to align itself with parts of the corporate sector to gain advantages for itself (rational self-interest)?
6. Should particular businesses have or be perceived to have access and exchange monopolies with public schools?
7. Are relationships between business and education typically in the best interests of students? How does one know if a particular relationship is, indeed, in the best interests of students?
8. Is the alleged manipulation of young people, who can be pressured into supporting, promoting, and endorsing a particular business or product, permissible under any circumstances? Is such an outcome from a commercial alliance avoidable?
9. Will students be subjected to undue pressures now or in the future?
10. Is what seems, on the surface, to be a question of direct educational benefit really what it appears to be?
11. Will arrangements that are characterized by expedience, convenience, and technological progress place the integrity of schools at risk? To what extent should the appearance of impropriety be a concern?
12. Where does the school system stand on the notion of entrepreneurship? To what extent are entrepreneurial proposals contrary to the culture of schools? What are the limits of entrepreneurship for school settings?
13. Under what circumstances does a relationship between business and education become appropriate? How might a relationship be constructed in order to encourage community involvement in schools and to foster corporate citizenship?
14. Is the notion that schools are essentially places of learning a naive construction, especially where such a notion is used to delimit the relationships between other interests and schools?
15. Where do you draw the line with relationships with commercial interests: sponsorship of team sports, advertising space in the hallways, billboards on school property?

Specific Issue Questions Related to Offer:

1. Are students being used as a means rather than an ends by the food chain?
2. Are commercial interests getting cheap advertising through a ready-made audience?
3. Is anyone disadvantaged or hurt by this deal? Is any one advantaged or helped by this deal?
4. At what price may the sacred be replaced by the practical? By entering into this arrangement will school systems become partners in the transformation of education from a free marketplace of ideas to a common marketplace of goods? To what extent does the school system view itself as a sacred entity; one wherein the profanities of marketing are not allowed to enter?
5. Does this offer constitute a commercial exploitation of any school-community constituents?
6. Is commercial exploitation of curriculum qualitatively different from, and more reprehensible than, other forms of market advertising to children precisely because it masquerades as education?
7. What are the possibilities of either equality or inequity of distribution with this proposal? (Schools in wealthier neighbourhoods may be able to produce more receipts and get more computers.)
8. Is this proposal a solution to financial decisions that have deprived students of expensive educational equipment?
9. Is this a slippery slope situation, where accepting one offer will lead to accepting others that are potentially less acceptable?
10. How much voice do school authorities have in negotiating the terms of the offer?
11. How ought school divisions deal with the notion of loyalty to the small store owners in the school communities?
12. If the decision is made to participate, will inside constituents feel responsible for working to purchase school equipment, on top of their other assignments?
13. Should people be asked to channel their personal grocery buying to accommodate the school purpose of gaining a computer?
14. Do commercial relationships between large corporate enterprises and schools disadvantage small, local business enterprises?
15. Do all businesses have equal access to students? Should they have equal access?
16. Are there any explicit or implicit commitments by the school, as agent, to endorse or support this food chain beyond this offer?
17. Are children, youth, and their parents made vulnerable to manipulation?
18. Does this decision constitute a precedent?
19. Does affirming one company imply a boycott of other competing companies?
20. Do corporate handouts, with strings attached, alter or amend the purpose of public education on a school-level?
21. If the Board approves of this offer, will this decision imply that the school division agrees with the tacit assumption that technology equals education?

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IMPROVING TEACHING THROUGH CROSS-COLLEGE COLLABORATION: REFLECTIONS ON A SASKATCHEWAN EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT. This report presents findings from a qualitative-research study examining a cross-college initiative designed to enhance the instructional skills of a group of 33 internal medicine residents at a Western Canadian university teaching-hospital. Through collaboration of medical and education staff, a series of instructional-development workshops was conducted with the medical residents. The results not only confirmed what previous research has shown, as to the ability of individuals to transfer newly acquired knowledge and skills into actual teaching practice, but suggested that further cross-disciplinary initiatives of this nature be pursued among colleges and departments in higher education. Such collaborative efforts have potential not only to benefit the stakeholders and organizational units involved, but also to enhance the overall public image of the university as an institution whose departments are able to cooperate in pursuing the goal of good teaching.

RÉSUMÉ. Cette étude expose les conclusions d'un projet de recherche qualitatif qui analyse une initiative transcollégiale visant à améliorer les capacités pédagogiques d'un groupe de 33 résidents en médecine interne dans un hôpital d'enseignement universitaire de l'ouest du Canada. Grâce à la collaboration de médecins et d'éducateurs, une série d'ateliers de perfectionnement pédagogique a été organisée avec les résidents en médecine. Les résultats ne confirment pas seulement ce que des recherches préalables avaient déjà démontré sur l'aptitude des sujets à transférer des connaissances et des compétences récemment acquises dans leur pratique de l'enseignement, mais suggèrent qu'il faut prendre d'autres initiatives trans-disciplinaires de cette nature dans les collèges et les ministères de l'Enseignement supérieur. Ces efforts concertés ne présentent pas seulement des avantages pour les intervenants et les unités organisationnelles concernées, mais ils renforcent l'image globale que le public se fait de l'université comme établissement dont les départements arrivent à collaborer pour atteindre l'objectif d'un enseignement de qualité.

Recent demands for accountability in higher education have created pressure – on an international scale – for colleges and departments to focus attention on improving the quality of teaching offered in their institutions. Medical schools are no exception (Finucane, Allery, & Hayes, 1995; Metcalfe & Matharu, 1995). Furthermore, there is a growing trend toward shifting the sole educational emphasis away from the enhancement of instruction, *per se*, toward the promotion of learning among students (Guskin, 1994). A key element in this paradigm-shift is one that supports an organizational structure characterized by cross-discipline interaction and inter-departmental collaboration, rather than one exemplified by traditional departmentalized units that are typically “insular, defensive, self-governing . . . compelled to protect their interests . . .” (Barr & Tagg, 1995). Even though virtually all colleges and departments would never deny being interested in raising the quality of their own teaching-learning practice, it has only been in recent years that exploration of cross-college and interdepartmental cooperation has emerged as a means of pursuing this goal (Gamson, 1994).

Although the field of medical education has experienced some of this interdisciplinary activity (e.g., Carpenter, 1995; Fields et al., 1995), not many of these efforts have included partners from outside of the medical field (Murray, Jinks, & Modell, 1995). However, one example of this movement toward cross-discipline collaboration (between traditionally diverse agencies) was the present author’s recent experience – as a college of education professor – of being invited to conduct a series of instructional-improvement workshops for a group of internal medicine residents in the department of medicine at the teaching-research hospital located on one university campus in western Canada. In this paper results are shared from an investigation of this cross-college experience.

Historically, colleges of education (sometimes referred to as “teacher-training institutions” by non-teachers) have not enjoyed a particularly high status among university faculties on campuses in general. A remark overhead on one campus – probably typical in many post-secondary institutions regarding this hierarchical status – was: “If you can’t do anything else, go into education . . . their classes are pitifully easy. . . .” Furthermore, some research on the status of teacher educators, as a faculty-body in higher education, has unfortunately produced the following findings: education professors often do not show leadership; they tend to be reactors more than interveners; and they respond slowly to change (Lock & Churukian, 1995). Ducharme (1986) reports that

they are often perceived by fellow university-faculty as being anti-intellectual, as attempting projects better left undone, as mystifying the obvious, as giving every student an "A", as having no unique academic content to teach, as using academic jargon destructive of the English language, and as producing publications of no merit.

However, despite this negative image of teacher education held by some faculty members, other colleges and departments in certain Canadian institutions demonstrate an opposite view. The latter believe that teacher educators do, in fact, possess valuable professional expertise related to the generic skills of teaching that could – and should – be shared with their post-secondary colleagues from other colleges, many of whom have, in fact, had little opportunity to engage in formal teacher-preparation programs. (For reports on recent examples of cross-college collaboration efforts see Ralph & Konchak, 1996; Ralph, 1995; Swanson, Spooner, Reeder, Haight, & Senthilselvan, 1992; Waltz, Robinson, Bader, & Ralph, 1992.)

PURPOSE

In this report the author presents some research findings and personal insights based on his recent experience as a college of education professor being invited by the department of medicine at his university to conduct a series of instructional improvement workshops with a group of internal medicine residents. In the role of an instructional developer at the university, he also took advantage of this occasion of being involved in this collaborative initiative to assess its overall impact on the participants. Thus, an evaluation of the results of the sessions was conducted by seeking answers to three basic research questions: (1) What did the medical resident participants desire to learn in the workshops? (2) What did they, in fact, end up learning? and (3) What insights could be gained by analyzing these findings for the purpose of informing further instructional development initiatives – both within and outside of the institution?

The findings and reflections of this study were derived from a descriptive research methodology that used a qualitative-interpretive research design. Although initially regarded by traditional quantitative researchers as being inferior, the field of qualitative research in the social sciences is experiencing a growing popularity; and there is emerging evidence of increased dialogue between the traditional and the interpretive research camps (DeZure, 1996; Lancy, 1993). This interpretive inquiry

approach – in contrast to conventional quantitative or experimental research – emphasizes the following: (1) investigating individuals' meanings and interpretations more than calculating large-group statistical norms; (2) exploring idiosyncratic themes and patterns within a single case, more than seeking law-like, universal conclusions; and (3) offering suggestions for transferability to cases with similar contexts, more than fixating on nomothetic generalizability (Anderson & Burns, 1989; Best & Kahn, 1993).

By presenting some of the findings based on his role as a "participant-observer" in this single case, the author anticipates, moreover, that other academic institutions pursuing similar initiatives for instructional-improvement may be able to gain insights to help inform their own future decisions related to this key area of post-secondary education.

METHOD

Because of the present author's involvement with instructional-improvement activities at the post-secondary level, he was invited by the chief medical resident at the university hospital to present a series of three instructional-development seminars (each to be held one week apart) for a group of 33 residents in internal medicine. These sessions were to form one segment of the residents' mandated "academic time" at the hospital, and all residents were therefore expected to attend. By virtue of being graduate physicians – and particularly being resident staff members in this training-research hospital – the subjects were already committed to the enterprise of teaching as part of their duties. For example, in their resident-training program, they all were assigned to teach lower-year medical students – in a variety of settings (e.g., large group lectures, tutorial groups, or small-group seminars). In addition, the residents not only periodically delivered formal presentations to their peers and faculty-members in the College of Medicine (as part of their "educational rounds" during their residency period), but they also occasionally had to "teach" specific medical or health-care procedures to individual patients and their families.

In his invitation to the author to conduct the workshops, the chief medical resident requested him to "spend some time on reviewing basic teaching skills and on presenting some new ideas about teaching in general." The invitation was accepted and the author began this assignment by first designing a participant pre-instruction questionnaire (consisting of four questions) that was administered to the medical-residents

at the beginning of the first workshop session. The purpose of the questionnaire was to determine what participants individually desired to learn from the seminars. A similar post-workshop questionnaire was subsequently administered to ascertain attendees' views on whether their initially expressed objectives on the pre-survey had been met. (The two sets of questions are shown in Tables 1 and 2.) Prior to the beginning of the first workshop, participants were asked to write responses to the questions, thereby providing the author with a list of possible workshop topics, instructional needs, and interests.

Taking into consideration these pre-instruction survey responses, the author then designed a set of pertinent learning experiences for the second and third workshop sessions, which attempted to meet participants' expressed instructional needs. The workshop topic-outline is shown in the Appendix. The basic instructional method that the author, as the seminar-leader, utilized in presenting the three sessions was one that has been identified in the research literature as being effective for instructional-improvement and for adult professional-development (Fullan & Miles, 1992; Knowles, 1989; Ralph, 1996; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987). This method consists of four parts: (1) presentation of the theoretical foundation, rationale, and supportive research-evidence for a particular skill; (2) demonstration by an experienced person of the instructional skill being learned; (3) practice of the skill or task by the learners; and (4) provision of formative feedback to the learner by individual(s) in the teaching or the leadership role. (In parts "3" and "4", interaction and discussion occur concerning the evaluation, and learners attempt to incorporate the feedback into their future practice [Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987]).

The seven instructional topics selected for the sessions (as shown in the Appendix) were generic teaching skills that were not only in large part suggested by the participants in their pre-surveys, but that were also recognized in the literature as being foundational competencies of effective instruction (Anderson & Burns, 1989; Lorber, 1996).

To illustrate how the sessions were actually conducted, a description is given of the basic steps followed to present some sections of the workshop, the outline of which is shown in the Appendix. In addition – and of equal importance – the author describes the manner in which he adapted his teaching style and instructional dynamics in working with this group of medical interns.

First, using a series of overhead transparencies with subheadings, drawings, and cartoons that illustrated each concept or skill of "effective presenting", the author described, defended, and demonstrated each of the key research-based skills identified as being fundamental to clear and structured presentations.

During the first session, the author attempted to convey to attendees that: (1) he was there to facilitate their professional growth in teaching; (2) he wished to help meet their specific instructional needs and interests; and (3) he would encourage them to participate in the learning experiences in order for them to achieve maximum benefit. He commended them in that they had already demonstrated exemplary personal and professional achievement in having reached this present stage in their medical careers. He stressed that his purpose in the series of workshops was not to be the proverbial "sage on the stage, but the guide on the side" in order to assist each of them to learn (or to enhance) certain instructional competencies at this particular stage in their professional development. Thus, during the first five minutes, an atmosphere of collaboration and support was established. The socio-psychological tone was both "task" and "relationship" oriented (Ralph, 1996).

During this first workshop, the attendees were also alerted that during the three sessions they would be applying the 4-step professional-development model (as described above); and that the author, as facilitator, would model and demonstrate specific instructional skills for short periods throughout the sessions. He further informed the residents during this first session that each of them should prepare an actual three- to five-minute teaching episode from their own professional field, and that they should be ready to present it to the group during the second or third session. Participants were also advised that the group, as a whole, would informally evaluate these mini-teaching performances, according to the instructional criteria that would be studied in the workshops. Attendees were further encouraged to incorporate and practice as many of the skills as possible within their own teaching situations conducted during their regular weekly routines at the hospital.

Throughout the "formal presentation" part of the first session, the author systematically drew participants' attention to the fact that he was deliberately modeling each of the listed skills at the same time as presenting them. For instance, a short time after clarifying the objective of the sessions (which he stated as: "In these sessions we will learn – or improve, depending on your particular situation – some instructional

techniques to enhance our overall teaching and communication skills.”), and after briefly describing its rationale and procedure, the author asked the group three questions. The first was: “How did I state my objectives a few minutes ago?” The second was: “To what extent did I meet these criteria?” and the third was “Why should instructors know and state what individuals should ‘learn’ or ‘be able to do’?” The author accepted and reinforced various responses from the participants, and he facilitated limited discussion of, and reactions to, the emerging viewpoints.

A similar pattern was followed with the other ten subskills. Thus, the first workshop session consisted of a blend of teacher-directed and interactive approaches. Throughout the presentation the author consciously integrated occasional bits of spontaneous humor, short question-answer episodes, and supportive remarks to reinforce participants’ input. Interaction was lively.

One week later during the second workshop session three attendees were selected to present their previously prepared “mini-lesson”, and after each one had “taught”, the group briefly provided written or oral formative feedback on the respective teaching performances. The author observed that there was not only a pervasive feeling of camaraderie and cohesion in the group, but that the three “teachers” incorporated several of the instructional subskills discussed at the first workshop. One doctor chose not to present a medical topic, but rather taught “How to replace your toilet” – since he had to perform that very task on the weekend before the session. Not only did he hold the group’s attention with clarity and humor, but he deliberately incorporated several instructional skills – and commented on them as he applied them, as well. Indeed, it was evident that the presenters appeared confident and competent in conducting their “micro-teaching,” and that the observers’ feedback was also largely related to the structuring-presenting behaviours examined previously.

At this stage of the second workshop, the author’s leadership role moved from one of “directing” to that of facilitating and observing: the volunteers “taught”, the observers offered their assessments, and the activity flowed along at a steady pace.

Following this “practice and feedback” interaction, the author presented a portion of the next two topics on the agenda (“questioning” and “responding”) – again reverting back to the first two steps of the professional-development model, namely: a description and rationale for, and a demonstration of, the subskills. During this section of the

second workshop the author's teaching style reflected the one used in the first week: one of direct instruction with some question-answer-discussion incorporated. Participants openly responded and interacted – both with the presenter and with each other – with respect to the skills being examined or issues raised about them.

Later, attendees were informed that during the final workshop session three other residents would be chosen to present their short “micro-teaching” episodes to the group, and, as before, they would be assessed on their teaching behaviours. Participants were advised that they would be permitted to utilize during their presentations any one (or more) of the instructional topics covered previously in the sessions. Presenters were also informed that they would be free to inform the group, prior to the presentation, of any specific teaching area(s) that they wanted observers to evaluate during their mini-lessons. As mentioned previously, participants were again encouraged to implement their newly acquired skills during their weekly hospital routines prior to the third workshop.

The third workshop session was conducted in a manner similar to the second, in that the three “micro-teaching” sessions were presented, each followed by the whole group's brief oral or written evaluatory comments. The third session also included the author's “formal presentation” of the remnant of the final two topics on the agenda, which had not been completed during the second session. At the conclusion of the third workshop, participants completed the post-seminar questionnaire (see Table 2). This elicited their views on the extent that they saw themselves having learned or having improved their individual teaching competencies, which they had initially identified on the first survey.

In order to verify the accuracy of the results of the pre- and post-survey results, a triangulation procedure was introduced, whereby data collected from multiple sources were examined in order to gauge the validity of the findings. In this way the primary comparison of the pre- and post-survey results was supplemented with two other data sources, namely: (1) the author's own observations and critiques of the six volunteers' mini-lessons presented during the second and third sessions, and (2) a written and oral report presented to the Dean of the College of Education and the author two weeks after the end of the workshops by the chief medical resident. His report provided a participant-observer's analysis of the workshops – based not only on his own involvement

(because he also attended and participated in all three sessions), but on his subsequent informal meetings and discussions with the 33 participants, in which he solicited descriptions of their perceptions and feelings about the workshop experience. The key purpose of this triangulation process was to establish the validity and reliability of the descriptive research by examining and comparing evidence from the three sources in order to determine the degree of consistency among the various observations and results (Anderson & Burns, 1989; Vockell & Asher, 1995).

The written responses from the participants' pre-instructional surveys, and later the post-instructional surveys, were collected, collated, and categorized using the "constant comparison" technique – a data-processing approach advocated by qualitative researchers (Vockell & Asher, 1995). With this methodology, the accumulated data are continuously categorized, being tested against gradually emerging groupings, and being re-categorized as needed, in order for the researcher to ground any emerging patterns or thematic propositions on the basis of the evidence itself, and not on prematurely formed opinions. These grounded themes were then compared to patterns that emerged from the other two data sources, namely, the author's assessments of the six mini-lessons, and the informal comments by participants recorded by the chief medical resident in his subsequent debriefing meeting(s) with the group. The key findings from the study are summarized below.

FINDINGS

From the outset of the first session – and throughout the workshop series – the author experienced a positive rapport with the medical residents: the author's anticipated apprehension of possible participant coolness, reluctance, or animosity was allayed. Rather, he observed that attendees expressed – both vocally and with body language – a genuine interest in, and desire for, "learning some techniques we had not encountered previously" (as one participant commented). What was noteworthy to the author was that he did not have to expend time and energy attempting to "de-fuse" attendees' negative reactions to, or to persuade unconvinced spectators of, the value of the skills, but that he could engage in encouraging willing learners.

Tables 1 and 2 display the major categories of responses that were extracted from the written comments on the pre- and post-workshop questionnaires. Although the wording of respondents' comments dif-

TABLE 1. Pre-workshop survey: The questions and subjects' responses (in categories)

Question and categories of responses	% rate of response
1. TO YOU, WHAT IS "EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION"?	
• to present clear, concise information	100
• to show learners, not just tell them, how to resolve problems	24
• to function as a teacher/learner team (two-way communication)	19
• to build on what learners already know	13
• to inspire/interest/enthuse learners to learn/read	13
• to use questioning effectively	6
• to be honest about one's weaknesses	6
2. WHAT SPECIFIC THINGS WOULD YOU LIKE TO LEARN FROM THIS SEMINAR?	
• to be able to do/improve "effective instruction"	33
• to organize and present material clearly	33
• to learn a variety of teaching methods	19
• to ensure that learners remember the material	13
• to conduct small-group instruction effectively	13
• to have better "stage presentation"	6
• to be an enthusiastic instructor	6
• to give helpful feedback to learners	6
3. WHAT DO YOU CONSIDER TO BE YOUR OWN PERSONAL STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES REGARDING TEACHING?	
Strengths	
• a good communicator	64
• a desire to be effective	19
• have insight into medical/scientific topics	6
• good planning, preparation skills	6
Weaknesses	
• lack of organizational skill (get "off track")	50
• gaps in knowledge-base	24
• difficulty in condensing material (to make it practical)	13
• lack of skill in using AV material/equipment	6
• lack of confidence as a teacher	6
4. ANY ADDITIONAL COMMENTS?	
• want sessions to be thought-provoking (to promote individual reflection)	6
• want a specific listing of good methods	6

For each question, figures may not total 100, because respondents wrote varying numbers of comments. Percentages are rounded.

ferred, their responses could be grouped into categories of common themes or of similar concepts. What was evident in the results shown in Table 1 was that respondents' views of "effective instruction" and their personal goals for the workshops both generally reflected the fundamental principles and basic practices of "good teaching" as identified in the pertinent research-literature (e.g., Lorber, 1996; Wittrock, 1986). Thus, by presenting in the workshops the generic teaching skills, as listed in the Appendix, the author was able to achieve the dual goals

TABLE 2. Post-workshop survey: The questions and subjects' responses (in categories)

Question and categories of responses	% rate of response
1. HAS YOUR INITIAL VIEW OF "EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION" CHANGED? EXPLAIN.	
• yes, am more informed (clarity/refinement/awareness)	45
• yes, am more analytical of teaching	19
• yes, ask better questions	19
• yes, excellent overview of methods	6
• no, same view (as before)	6
2. DO YOU FEEL YOU LEARNED WHAT YOU WANTED TO?	
• yes, it met my goals (stated previously)	82
• yes, it was useful (instructive/interesting/effective)	33
• yes, and more	33
• yes, especially in oral questioning	19
• yes, but give more on effective overhead transparencies	6
• yes, but give more on small-group instruction	6
• "hard to say" (need more opportunity to explore)	6
3. HAS YOUR VIEW OF YOUR OWN TEACHING STRENGTHS/WEAKNESSES CHANGED? EXPLAIN.	
• yes, more aware/analytical of mistakes	45
• yes, will work on questioning skills	19
• yes, now have source of information on teaching to consult	6
• yes, but am better than originally thought	6
• no, initial views have not really changed	6
4. ANY ADDITIONAL COMMENTS?	
• workshops were interesting (enjoyable/useful)	82
• had never been taught these things before	6
• want a detailed listing of key techniques	6

For each question, figures may not total 100 because respondents wrote varying numbers of comments. Percentages are rounded.

of: (1) addressing respondents' expressed instructional needs, and (2) introducing the foundational, research-based competencies recognized as being critical instructional techniques (Ralph, 1994).

Another finding extracted from the data in Table 1 was the considerable degree of instructional skill that the residents already appeared to possess prior to the sessions. The responses to question 3, for instance, suggested that the majority of the doctors were, already, experienced communicators – a crucial skill for all effective teachers to possess.

An examination of the results in Table 2 further suggests that these residents appear to have used the opportunity of the workshop experience to engage actively in the instructional improvement process. The affirmative responses for questions 1, 2, and 3 indicate that respondents saw themselves as applying their newly acquired teaching skills (or as "fine-tuning" previously mastered techniques) in actual practice. The

participant's response for question 2 stating that "It was hard to say" whether the individual had shown improvement, was made by a resident who was not able to attend all three sessions. In fact, two respondents expressed experiencing this same frustration during the workshops, in that they were obligated to "come and go" at various times because of other hospital duties. They stated that the continuity and flow of the sessions were thus broken for them. (Yet, both of these subjects also stated that they garnered some valuable insights despite these interruptions.)

The data showed that there were three areas that respondents desired to study more thoroughly, and had there been more time, arrangements could have been made to do so. These areas were: the effective use of instructional AV materials and equipment, the conducting of small-group teaching-learning activities, and the provision of more opportunity for participants to rehearse, review, and reflect – individually and together – on the workshop material.

An overall finding related to the methodology of the study was that the triangulation technique appeared to meet its intended objective, in that the general results that emerged from all three data sources indicated consistent patterns. All findings suggested an affirmative response to the initial research questions, in that the participants did learn new instructional skills (or improved existing ones), and that they were positively disposed to the overall workshop experience. Each one of the submitted post-questionnaires had one or more written comments to the effect that respondents developed their knowledge and skills. Examples of these responses were: "Yes, I learned a lot on my levels of questions. . ."; "Yes, . . . the little pointers (but effective ones) were very enjoyable and useful. . ."; and "I have refined my view of effective instruction I have more specific details to think about. . . ."

The evidence from these post-session self-reports was substantiated by the groups' evaluatory comments on the teaching performance of the six participants who presented their mini-lessons. A synthesis of the author's assessments of (and the groups' oral comments on) all six presenters revealed the following general observations of their micro-teaching episodes: (1) The overall quality of their presenting skills met or surpassed the standard considered as "competent" in relation to the assessment criteria established by the University of Saskatchewan's Centre for School-Based Experience (University of Saskatchewan, 1995). (These criteria are used to determine teacher-interns' mastery of basic teaching skills during their 16-week extended practicum at the end of their B.Ed. program.) (2) The presenters demonstrated both strengths

and weaknesses in their instructional skills – but the former were more numerous than the latter. (3) The subgroup of six presenters exhibited a higher degree of confidence and ease during their micro-teaching, as compared to that typically demonstrated by final-year education interns – when considered as a group – with whom the author has habitually worked over the past decade). (4) They demonstrated deliberate effort toward a conscious reflection upon and a desire to internalize specific teaching skills. (This was shown by their vocalizing of distinct, self-evaluatory comments during their mini-lessons. For instance, one subject stated (immediately after saying “I’m gonna attempt to. . .”): “Oops, I **am going** to. . .”. Another participant turned toward the author during her presentation, and declared (just after posing an oral question to the group): “Oh, oh . . . wasn’t I supposed to wait a few seconds before answering this?”

Another overall finding that was synthesized from the triangulated data was that the results from both the self-reported written responses and the assessments of the mini-lessons were generally consistent with those derived from the feedback that the chief medical resident reported in his final assessment of the workshops. In a follow-up letter to the author, he wrote, in part:

. . . thank you for your time and involvement. . . the sessions were eloquently presented and the Internal Medicine Residents were enlightened. . . I would certainly like to invite you back. . . for some additional sessions. One session in particular would be on the use of audio-visual and overhead material. . . .

Thus, with respect to the original research questions that guided this present study, the consistency of evidence extracted from the triangulated analysis suggests that the collaborative initiative achieved the intended goal of helping participants to improve their overall instructional competence. The third research question is now addressed: “What insights have emerged to inform future cooperative efforts in this area?” Some of these insights are presented in the following section.

DISCUSSION

Related to the examination of insights from this study on collaboration is a more direct question: “How may college of education faculty make distinct contributions to the instructional improvement of medical faculty?” There are at least three ways that are supported by a synthesis of findings derived from several sources: the present case-study, recent related research conducted by the author (Ralph, 1995b, 1996), and the

extensive body of literature both on effective professional development in instructional and supervisory contexts (e.g., Knowles, 1989; Showers, Joyce, & Bennett, 1987; Ralph, 1993), and on successful change initiatives in educational organizations (e.g., Fullan, 1991; Fullan & Miles, 1992; Marchese & Pollack, 1996).

Provision of reciprocal benefits

One way that faculties of education could contribute to developing medical residents' teaching is to be willing to offer their pedagogical knowledge and services to the latter. Collaborative efforts between the two units have potential to meet professional needs of both groups. Medical personnel (most of whom have never had any formal teacher-education) may gain desired pedagogical knowledge and expertise from a faculty typically well-versed in that field. At the same time, the latter could experience an elevation in their "campus-status" through their engagement in such professional relationships with a traditionally regarded prestigious group.

In the present study, the author detected no "territorial or turf protection" sentiments among the medical participants; in fact, the opposite was evident. For instance, the majority of the attendees wrote on their post-surveys, with various wording, that through participating in the workshops they either gained the satisfaction of having some of their own previous instructional methods confirmed as "being effective" by educational research and "experts", or that they learned some useful new techniques to apply to their teaching situations.

At the same time, the College of Education as an entity, and the author himself, received recognition both on campus and beyond for participating in such a cross-college project.

Matching style to needs

A second way that education faculty could collaborate with medical personnel in the area of teaching effectiveness is for the former to synchronize deliberately their leadership or teaching style to match the particular development level and needs of the latter. A helpful method of achieving this goal is through an application of "Contextual Supervision" (CS), a leadership model developed by the author (Ralph, 1993, 1996). With CS, the person in the supervisory (or assistance) role adjusts his or her "task" (or directive) and "relationship" (or supportive) behaviors in inverse proportions to the levels of "competence" (or ability) and "confidence" (or assurance) exhibited by the individual in

the supervisee (or learner) role, for the purpose of performing a particular instructional task.

As confirmed by the results of the present study, and by research on the effects of CS (Ralph, 1993, 1996), and of similar supervisory models (Glickman, 1990; Gordon, 1990; Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), the best initial approach to use in helping such individuals as resident medical-interns to enhance their instructional competence is for the workshop leader to use a leadership style that at first exhibits a relatively high degree of both "task" orientation and "support" behaviors.

This initial combination – as employed by the author during the first workshop session in the study – served to match the early developmental levels of most of the participants, which consisted of relatively low levels of competence and confidence to perform the particular teaching skills. At this preliminary stage, the attendees were generally uncertain as to their abilities and to the workshop expectations.

However, the leader was soon able to reduce the degree of his task and support responses, because the participants quickly grew more competent and confident in practicing their instructional and evaluatory skills during the second and third sessions. The author adjusted his "supervisory style" according to his observations of the "supervisees' changing development levels."

A key aspect of applying the contextual supervision principles is that a leader remaining fixated to a single teaching or supervisory style with skilled adult learners – such as medical doctors – will not only be ineffective in facilitating their professional development, but such intransigence could tend to bolster the traditional image of education-faculty members held by some of their university peers (mentioned earlier), as being "heavy on rhetoric and light on reality."

Modeling professional practice

A third way that educators could provide meaningful instructional assistance to persons who are studying medicine is for the former to model consciously the generic instructional skills in their own teaching and communication. If education faculty would exemplify good teaching through their own professional practice and conduct, then the principles and practices they promote and advocate would tend to be more convincing to observers.

This study also confirms previous research that has suggested that educational leaders who model enthusiasm in teaching, expertise in

their field, and a desire to empower team-members to share experiences and knowledge en route to the common goal (and who will do so with a spirit of humility) tend to be successful in helping both the individual and the group to develop in knowledge and experience (Brandt, 1992; Glickman, 1992; Sergiovanni, 1992).

In this study, the author was able to convey this message, in that he informed the group that he was willing to share his accumulated knowledge in the generic skills of pedagogy, but also that participants must feel free to draw on their own experience, and then to combine these sources and apply this "new knowledge" to their own specific field of subject matter. The ongoing task is for participants to continue to create their content-specific "pedagogical content knowledge" (PCK) (Shulman, 1987). PCK relates to specific teaching techniques or unique instructional tactics that professional teachers in each field gradually develop through instructional experience, as they learn to assist students to master specific concepts or skills, particular to each field of knowledge.

Although the overall findings from the triangulated data in this study were positive in nature, there were some limitations that need to be identified and accounted for in interpreting these results, and in conducting further future research related to enhancing teaching-learning on a cross-college basis. How is one to regard the accuracy of respondents' written self-reports on the post-surveys that recorded virtually no negative comments about the sessions? For instance, one potential weakness that has been identified in using the self-reporting technique in social-sciences research is that respondents may tend to rate themselves more favorably than they actually are (Best & Kahn, 1993; Borg & Gall, 1989). Yet, on the other hand, in a recent ERIC search of twenty-eight articles reporting on the accuracy of self-reporting as a social-sciences research approach, it was found that eighteen of these studies reported moderately to highly accurate results (as compared with results in those same studies that were derived from related data sources). The other ten articles reported inconclusive results as to the accuracy of self-reports (Ralph, 1995a). Furthermore, the degree of reliability and validity of self-reports apparently increased when respondents clearly understood the assessment criteria used in the evaluation.

A second possible limitation in the methodology of the present study was the fact that only six of the 33 participants actually taught a mini-lesson in front of the group. These individuals were not randomly selected, in that all attendees were reminded (at the conclusion of

sessions one and two) to be prepared to teach the following week. Then, at the beginning of each of those sessions, the author asked, "Who is ready? . . . Who would like to present, today. . . ?" Thus, it could be argued – as is also supported in the social-sciences research (Borg & Gall 1989) – that the six volunteers (three each week) were in all probability typical of most such volunteers: they tended to be keen participants, and they generally already modeled some of the attributes and skills being sought. Moreover, it is also reasonable to assume that if all the other twenty-seven nonvolunteers had performed and been evaluated (or if, at least, the actual selection of the six subjects had been conducted on a purely random basis), then the probability of having observed the high degree of instructional competence (as happened among the six) would have been reduced. As a consequence, the results of the study may not have been as positive, in that some of the presenters could have thus demonstrated a lower quality of instructional performance.

However, a counter-argument to these possibilities is the fact that the six subjects who did volunteer may have actually been more "typical" of the group than one might have at first considered. For instance, all thirty-three group-members possessed the following characteristics: (1) they had been previously assigned to instructional roles at the hospital, and had already been teaching in diverse contexts (and had expressed a desire to do it well); (2) because they had never previously taken formal teacher-training, they may have found the workshop material pertinent, or novel and motivating; (3) by virtue of the fact of their past successful accomplishments (i.e., in being selected and completing the rigorous medical program, and of reaching the status of "M.D.") they had already demonstrated a superior level of intelligence, achievement, and competence – as compared to the general population (Collins, White, & Kennedy, 1995); and (4) they displayed the general psychological qualities attributed to those who are high achievers (Buskist & Gerbing, 1990).

Thus, it is reasonable to assume that all group members in the study were motivated to learn new (or to improve current) teaching methods, and that they were willing to "fine-tune" the communication skills that they already were competently using. Over the three-week period, the author observed among them a lower degree of nervousness and anxiety than has often been detected among similar-sized groups of teacher-interns embarking on their extended-practicum experiences.

A third limitation to the study that is related to the question of transfer of knowledge – and one that appears in the research examining the transfer of new professional skills into practitioners' daily routines – is the extent of learners' achievement of mastery and internalization of the task at hand. Such internalization not only means that the skill becomes a permanent part of the learner's instructional repertoire, but also that the individual develops the reflective capacity to discern when, where, and how to apply or to modify it, according to each unique context.

That medical practitioners can acquire new instructional skills in a relatively short time-frame is known (Swanson et al., 1992); moreover, the results of the present study lend support to this finding. However, a more pressing question emerges, and that is: "Over the longer term, have these medical practitioners mastered the new techniques to the extent that they will be able to recall and to apply them, at will, weeks, months, or years later?" With respect to this issue of enduring internalization of learned skills, Showers, Joyce, and Bennett (1987) – on the basis of their synthesis of the research on professional development in education – concluded:

For a complex model of teaching, we estimate that about 25 teaching episodes during which the new strategy is used are necessary before all the conditions of transfer are achieved . . . Skill developed in training does not appear sufficient to sustain the practice until transfer is achieved. (p. 86)

Thus, even though the results of this study suggest that participants initially internalized certain instructional skills, further research would be needed to investigate the permanency of the transfer of this pedagogical knowledge.

This study has nevertheless shown that members from two historically diverse colleges were able to cooperate in successfully conducting an instructional-improvement initiative. Although a negative image of "teacher-educators from faculties of education" may well exist in some higher education circles, no evidence of this view was found in any of the interactions with the participants, or in the analysis of responses from the three data-sources in the study. On the contrary, the author's personal experience throughout the project corroborated the evidence drawn from the triangulation process: all of the results were consistent in endorsing the effectiveness of the entire workshop. One respondent's written comment on the post-survey, which was typical of many responses, illustrates this finding:

This course was a good idea. [His] teaching and [demonstrating the models] were very good. I now have information to consult before I teach and I can work on improving my teaching skills. . . . I found it very worthwhile. . . .

Therefore, in the light of this case and others like it, it is evident that we who work in the field of higher education need to affirm proactively the following assertions in our institutional life: that cross-disciplinary collaboration is possible; that each academic unit has something specific and worthwhile to contribute in reaching toward our common goal of improving the teaching-learning process; and that traditional institutional reactions – often characterized by ego- and turf-protection, departmental jealousy, and group isolation – should give way to increased inter-disciplinary cooperation. Indeed, as Fullan and Miles (1992) observe – based on their extensive review of research on change in educational organizations – that effective and lasting improvement occurs when the change process is managed by a “cross-role group” (p. 751). Such a cooperative team consists of members from all stakeholder groups, who are legitimized, empowered, and supported by senior administrators to engage in planning, implementing, assessing, and adjusting the specific change initiative(s).

The present study has provided some evidence that such collaborative relationships across departments can function – and can do so, effectively. As we contemplate entering the new millennium, may engaging in such initiatives become more common within and among our institutions.

APPENDIX

Instructional Skills¹ Presented in the Workshops

1. ATTRIBUTES OF EFFECTIVE TEACHERS
 - Human/supportive characteristics
 - Task/competency elements
2. STRUCTURING/PRESENTING SKILLS
 - states objectives
 - uses a motivational set (maintains enthusiasm)
 - gives clear directions/instructions
 - breaks information into manageable segments
 - uses clear transitions
 - summarizes during/at end of session
 - asks key questions
 - presents with clear sequence and appropriate momentum
 - demonstrates both general and specific knowledge of subject
 - provides for student practice/review (monitoring these)
 - models correct oral and written language
3. ORAL QUESTIONING
 - poses questions to monitor learner understanding
 - demonstrates clear/concise questioning patterns
 - asks a variety of levels of questions
 - used a directed questioning pattern with appropriate wait-time
 - distributes oral questions equitably
4. INSTRUCTOR RESPONDING
 - shows respect for learners
 - uses various forms of reinforcement/praise/probing
 - states reasons for rejecting student answer(s)
 - shows sensitivity to students nonverbal behaviour
 - avoids "echoing" student answers
 - encourages student interaction
 - demonstrates active listening to learners' input

¹ Adapted from: University of Saskatchewan. (1996) *The Internship Manual*. College of Education, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada.

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APTITUDES ACROSS HOLLAND'S TYPES: IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL-BASED COUNSELLING

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ABSTRACT. School-based counsellors use (objective) measures of aptitudes as part of their normal career assessment practice; thus, training programs for school and college counsellors need to provide more relevant training in the use of tests, especially aptitude tests. In this study, differences in aptitudes – as measured by the DAT-A (McBride, 1986) – were examined across Holland's (1985/1992) types. The results generally conform to Holland's descriptions of types, particularly when Intelligence (general ability, or *g*) is partialled out of specific aptitude scores. Implications are discussed for career theory and related assessment practice.

RÉSUMÉ. Les conseillers scolaires utilisent des mesures (objectives) des aptitudes dans le cadre de leurs méthodes normales d'évaluation des carrières, ce qui explique que les programmes de formation destinés aux conseillers scolaires et collégiaux doivent comporter un volet de formation plus pertinent en ce qui concerne l'utilisation des tests, surtout des tests d'aptitudes. Dans cette étude, les différences d'aptitudes (telles que mesurées par le DAT-A (McBride, 1986)), sont analysées selon les types de Holland (1985/1992). Les résultats concordent généralement avec les descriptions des types de Holland, particulièrement lorsque l'intelligence (c'est-à-dire l'aptitude générale ou *g*) est écartée des scores d'aptitudes spécifiques. L'auteur analyse les implications en ce qui concerne la théorie professionnelle et les méthodes d'évaluation connexes.

Career counsellors based in educational settings often include testing as part of their work with clients. Two of the most commonly used types of tests for such purposes include interest inventories and aptitude tests, and principles of sound practice dictate that counsellors using such tests should understand their relations to one another. This is a problem in which empirical research can make an important contribution to counselling practice. The problem of the relations between aptitudes and interests was at one time an active area of investigation but ceased to

be so around 1950 (see Randahl, 1991). The early investigators found product-moment correlations between measures of interests and aptitudes typically fell in the .20 to .40 range, and only rarely rose above .40, although some multivariate (canonical) correlations did rise above .50 (Randahl, p. 333). The consensus was that aptitudes and interests represented fairly distinct realms (Darley & Hagenah, 1955), with few consistent points of convergence, and that their interactions were complex beyond being adequately revealed by the methodologies at hand.

Although this consensus still exists (see Barak, 1981, p. 1; Lowman, 1993a; Spokane, 1993), recent research on Holland's (1985/1992; see Carson, 1994; Spokane, 1996) theory of vocational personality types has suggested new routes for reconsidering the relations between aptitudes and interests. Holland proposed the existence of six types of people: Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional. He argued that these types had characteristic interests, personality traits, aptitudes, and other traits. Finally, he suggested that a person-environment fit approach to matching people to corresponding jobs would result in optimal vocational outcomes. His theory has been tremendously influential in the field of career counselling and related assessment (Spokane, 1996). Pertinent to the present discussion is Holland's assumption of an essential convergence of interest and aptitude data as they contribute to stabilization of vocational personality. If vocational personality types are indeed integrations of aptitudes and interests (as well as other characteristics), then aptitudes and interests must be more closely related than the "consensus" indicates. This point clearly differentiates Holland's theory from otherwise similar theories (e.g., Lowman's [1993] inter-domain model, or Dawis' [1996] theory of work adjustment) that allow (and even assume) that aptitudes and interests are largely unrelated.

The most important of the new research indicating relatively strong associations between interests (organized within Holland's types) and aptitudes is Randahl's (1991) study reporting individual differences in scores on the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB; U.S. Department of Labor, 1970) across individuals differing in vocational personality type (as indicated by high-point codes on the General Occupational Themes [GOT's] of the Strong Interest Inventory [Harmon, Hansen, Borgen, & Hammer, 1994]). She used the eight "pure" aptitude tests from the GATB, dropping General Learning Ability (G) because of its "composite nature" (p. 338). Relying primarily on profile analysis rather than correlational methods, Randahl found that interest-based voca-

tional types differed in aptitudes in ways generally predicted by Holland's theory. She also found that aptitude-based types created by high-point scores on the GATB aptitude scales also differentiated individuals on the basis of interest-based vocational personality types. For example, individuals highest in Spatial aptitudes tended to be highest in Realistic interests, while those with highest aptitudes on the Verbal test scored most highly on measures of Artistic interests.

However, inspection of Randahl's (1991) results (p. 341) suggests that Investigative types tend to be highest or near the highest for each of the aptitudes. Given that she found that Investigative types were also highest on the G scale of the GATB, these results suggest that Investigative types may have scored so high on the various scales because they had higher general ability, and that each of the various tests also to some degree measured general ability, therefore resulting in high scores for each of these tests for investigative-type individuals. Randahl's results might have provided even more striking linkages between interest types and aptitudes had the variance in the various GATB scales associated with general ability first been statistically removed. Desmarais and Sackett's (1993) strategy of statistically removing the contribution of General Ability (*g*, or Intelligence) by regressing individual aptitude test scores onto a composite index of *g* would appear to offer a useful means of "fine-tuning" the relations between specific abilities and interests that Randahl sought to test. To that end, I conducted this study.

METHOD

Respondents

One hundred seventeen clients of the Vocational Assessment Project (VAP) located in the Faculty of Education at McGill University (in Montreal) served as participants (82 women, 35 men; mean age 26.28 years, *SD* = 9.04). Eight additional individuals who had received services were not included in this study because they did not complete some or all of the aptitude testing component. Respondents reported their ethnicity: English or French descent (English only: *N* = 38 or 32%; Bicultural English/French: *N* = 10 or 9%), Other European non-Jewish (*N* = 46 or 39%), Jewish (*N* = 9 or 8%), and all others (African-, Arab-, East Asian-, South Asian-, Latin American-Canadians, and other: *N* = 14 or 12%). Clients were drawn from several sources. A majority of clients were either referred through a university's counselling service or by master's degree counselling students working in community-based

practicum settings. The remainder were self-referred, presumably after hearing about the project by word of mouth.

Instruments and Procedure

In addition to a biographical history questionnaire and a measure of personality (Myers Briggs Type Indicator, Myers & McCaulley, 1985; the results of which are not reported here), respondents completed measures of aptitudes and interests. They completed the biographical history questionnaire prior to arriving at the assessment laboratory. They completed the aptitude, interest, and personality tests during an approximately three-hour period at the laboratory. Order of presentation of these three measures was randomly assigned to respondents.

INTELLIGENCE AND APTITUDES. The Differential Aptitude Tests-Adaptive (DAT-A) (McBride, 1986; Moe, 1988) served as the measure of aptitudes and provided the dataset from which estimates of general cognitive ability (*g*) or Intelligence were generated. Its content was derived from the Form V version of the DAT (Bennett, Seashore, & Wesman, 1982), with which it has been equated (Henly, Klebe, McBride, & Cudeck, 1989; McBride, 1986). The DAT-A has the same eight tests as the original paper-and-pencil DAT: Verbal Reasoning, Numerical Ability, Abstract Reasoning, Clerical Speed, Mechanical Reasoning, Space Relations, Spelling, and Language Usage. DAT-A selects items as each test proceeds based on analysis of DAT items using the Rasch (1966) model of item-response theory. Bennett et al. (1982, pp. 7-10; see also Carson, Stalikas, & Bizot, in press) provide a discussion of the psychometric characteristics for each test, and Spokane (1991) reports that psychometric evidence related to the original paper-and-pencil DAT is quite supportive. McBride (1986) and Henly et al. (1989) report factor analytic and other data supporting the comparability of the paper-and-pencil and the adaptive versions of the tests; however, they suggest that adaptive Clerical Speed (the only speeded test in the battery) may assess a somewhat different underlying construct than the original test.

For purposes of the present research, raw scores for the DAT-A were used instead of the sex-based norms. Use of sex-based norms might have obscured actual differences in aptitudes across types, particularly where large sex-related differences existed in interests. However, in making actual career guidance recommendations to clients, counsellors made use of all available relevant data, including sex norms.

INTERESTS. The General Occupational Themes (GOTs) of the fourth edition of the Strong Interest Inventory (SII; Hansen & Campbell, 1985; see Harmon et al., 1994) served as the measures of interests. Hansen and Campbell review substantial validity and reliability evidence for the scales of the measure, including evidence in support of its use with cross-cultural populations. Respondents were assigned to vocational personality types (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional) on the basis of high-point codes for the GOTs. In cases of ties, type assignment was made randomly between the tying scales.

Procedure

Clients were referred to the VAP by their counsellor or through self-referral. They brought their biographical questionnaire to their scheduled computerized testing session, where they completed the SII, DAT-A, and a personality test. The laboratory session took between 2.5 and 4.5 hours. Some clients may have taken longer to complete testing because of crowded conditions on some testing days. The administration order of tests was randomly assigned to clients to control for order effects. Following completion of testing, clients met with a counsellor. Counsellors included a counselling psychologist, a master's level counsellor licensed in the province, and graduate students in a counselling psychology training program. When necessary, clients were referred back to their initial agencies for further work (among those clients obtained through agencies), or were referred to an appropriate community-based career counsellor or agency (for those clients who were self-referred).

RESULTS

Principal components analysis was conducted on the sample of 117 respondents from whom a complete set of DAT-A scores were available. The analysis resulted in two factors with an eigenvalue greater than one; these two factors were retained for inspection (see Table 1). Factor 1 appeared to be the familiar General Cognitive Ability (*g*) or Intelligence factor typically found as the first and major factor in unrotated solutions, with each of the DAT-A scales loading heavily on it. Hereafter, I shall refer to this factor as "Intelligence." Factor 2 was more difficult to interpret in the unrotated matrix, but at any rate showed a mix of positive, negative, and neutral loadings of DAT-A scales, and was therefore clearly not an indicator of *g*. Factor scores were generated for all respondents for whom DAT-A scores were available,

and these scores served as the measure of Intelligence used in subsequent analyses. Means and standard deviations for the variables used in the study are shown in Table 1. ($N = 117$ for all subsequently reported analyses unless otherwise noted).

TABLE 1. Means and standard deviations of variables and principal components analysis of DAT-A scales

Scales and Component Information	Descriptive statistics		Component loadings	
	Mean	SD	I	II
DAT-A Scales¹				
Verbal Reasoning	33.40	11.47	.86	.03
Numerical Ability	29.50	9.03	.79	.06
Abstract Reasoning	36.21	7.45	.73	-.26
Clerical Speed & Accuracy	44.97	10.44	.54	.15
Mechanical Reasoning	46.57	9.66	.69	-.52
Space Relations	39.05	13.58	.80	-.41
Spelling	81.55	8.05	.61	.69
Language Usage	39.44	6.85	.77	.37
Eigenvalues			4.23	1.14
Variance Explained by Components			54.53	13.23
General Occupational Themes²				
Realistic	44.32	9.67		
Investigative	45.23	9.79		
Artistic	49.98	10.15		
Social	50.88	9.12		
Enterprising	45.11	9.45		
Conventional	46.81	10.56		

$N = 117$.

¹Scales were drawn from the Differential Aptitude Test-Adaptive (DAT-A; McBride, 1986). Only components with eigenvalues > 1 were retained.

²General Occupational Themes are drawn from the Strong Interest Inventory (Hansen & Campbell, 1985).

Intelligence correlated with the GOT scales at .26 ($p < .01$), .40 ($p < .001$), .18, .03, -.23 ($p < .02$), and -.14 for the scales Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising, and Conventional, respectively. The patterns of magnitude and signs of these correlations fit the hexagonal structure described by Holland (1985/1992), with the strongest positive and negative correlations being with the Investigative and Enterprising GOTs, respectively. Correlations between the various DAT-A scales and the GOTs are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2 Correlations between DAT-A and GOT scales

Scales	DAT-A Scales								
	<i>g</i>	VR	NA	AR	CS	MR	SR	SP	LU
VR	.86*	—							
NA	.79*	.60*	—						
AR	.75*	.60*	.55*	—					
CS	.57*	.35*	.43*	.42*	—				
MR	.70*	.58*	.48*	.40*	.30*	—			
SR	.79*	.62*	.54*	.60*	.36*	.71*	—		
SP	.64*	.51*	.46*	.30*	.42*	.23*	.47*	—	
LU	.78*	.72*	.56*	.47*	.26*	.41*	.79*	.63*	—
R	.26*	.21*	.09	.21*	.02	.39*	.30*	.03	.19*
I	.40*	.39*	.27*	.20*	.16	.43*	.33*	.28*	.27*
A	.18	.19*	.07	.15	.08	.11	.06	.18	.17
S	.03	.08	-.04	.09	-.01	-.06	.02	.06	.05
E	-.23*	-.16	-.26*	-.10	-.13	-.11	-.17	-.25*	-.22*
C	-.14	-.19*	-.04	-.04	.01	-.17	-.18	-.04	-.13

N = 117. Correlations are Pearson product-moment correlations. **p* < .05. Differential Aptitude Test-Adaptive (DAT-A; McBride, 1986) scales include Verbal Reasoning (VR), Numerical Ability (NA), Abstract Reasoning (AR), Clerical Speed and Accuracy (CS), Mechanical Reasoning (MR), Space Relations (SR), Spelling (SP), and Language Usage (LU). Intelligence (*g*) is the factor score for Factor I from the principal components analysis of the DAT-A scales. General Occupational Themes (GOTs) from the Strong Interest Inventory (Hansen & Campbell, 1985) include Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C).

Table 3 shows the means and standard deviations across the six vocational personality types for Intelligence and the various DAT-A scales (both raw scores and Z-scores). The table also shows the DAT-A scores with intelligence statistically partialled out. Although Investigative-type individuals have the highest aptitude scores for every aptitude except Mechanical Reasoning (for which Realistic-type dominates Investigative, albeit just barely), the picture changes dramatically once Intelligence is partialled out of aptitude scores. Such "g-less" scores generally conform more closely with Holland's descriptions for the various types (at least for Realistic, Conventional, and perhaps Enterprising types).

For example, Realistic types are revealed to be extremely high (relative to other types) for both mechanical and spatial aptitudes, and they score the lowest on measures of numerical aptitude, clerical speed, spelling, and language usage. However, their spelling and language

TABLE 3. Means and standard deviations of variables across vocational personality types

Variable Set and Variable	Vocational Personality Types					
	R (N = 9)	I (N = 10)	A (N = 31)	S (N = 34)	E (N = 15)	C (N = 18)
Intelligence						
Mean	-.12	.74	.03	.02	-.35	-.12
SD	1.33	.58	.99	1.00	.95	.95
DAT-A (Z-scores)						
Verbal Reasoning (VR)						
Mean	.05	.72	.04	.05	-.34	-.30
SD	1.02	.55	1.04	.97	.93	1.10
Numerical Ability (NA)						
Mean	-.35	.44	-.11	.10	-.35	.21
SD	1.37	.78	1.06	.84	1.01	1.01
Abstract Reasoning (AR)						
Mean	-.13	.48	-.09	.02	-.13	.01
SD	1.37	.59	1.01	1.08	.81	.99
Clerical Speed and Accuracy (CS)						
Mean	-.50	.30	.18	-.10	-.20	.13
SD	1.18	1.05	.63	1.07	1.39	.86
Mechanical Reasoning (MR)						
Mean	.64	.41	.07	-.13	-.14	-.32
SD	.91	.36	1.03	1.10	.99	.92
Space Relations (SR)						
Mean	.27	.53	-.09	.08	-.10	-.34
SD	1.10	.64	1.06	.97	.92	1.08
Spelling (SP)						
Mean	-.66	.76	.10	.06	-.65	.15
SD	1.22	.14	.83	.87	1.59	.61
Language Usage (LU)						
Mean	-.28	.69	.05	.02	-.28	-.13
SD	1.29	.69	1.06	1.12	.67	.77
DAT-A (Z-Scores, Intelligence removed)						
Verbal Reasoning (VR-R)						
Mean	.32	.12	.05	.06	-.08	-.37
SD	.99	.65	.91	1.14	1.20	.83
Numerical Ability (NA-R)						
Mean	-.40	-.23	-.21	.14	.11	.50
SD	1.37	.95	1.10	.69	.86	1.15
Abstract Reasoning (AR-R)						
Mean	-.06	-.14	-.16	.02	.23	.17
SD	1.01	.60	1.14	1.10	1.05	.71
Clerical Speed (CS-R)						
Mean	-.53	-.14	.21	-.13	.01	.24
SD	.98	1.00	.83	1.05	1.35	.85
Mechanical Reasoning (MR-R)						
Mean	1.03	-.20	.08	-.21	.16	-.32
SD	.63	.53	1.01	1.11	1.03	.79
Space Relations (SR-R)						
Mean	.61	-.11	-.17	.09	.31	-.39
SD	.86	.64	1.14	.84	.99	1.11
Spelling (SP-R)						
Mean	-.73	.36	.11	.06	-.53	.31
SD	.99	.44	.72	.94	1.65	.80
Language Usage (LU-R)						
Mean	-.28	.17	.05	.01	.01	-.04
SD	.99	.91	.91	1.10	1.04	1.12

N = 117. High scores on General Occupational Themes (GOTs) from the Strong Interest Inventory (Hansen & Campbell, 1985) were used to classify participants into vocational personality types; these types included Realistic (R), Investigative (I), Artistic (A), Social (S), Enterprising (E), and Conventional (C). Differential Aptitude Test-Adaptive (DAT-A; McBride, 1986) scales are reported from Z-scores.

usage appear to remain relatively atrocious even when Intelligence is partialled out, although *g*-less verbal reasoning jumps to the head of the pack after Intelligence is removed, suggesting that Realistic types may possess some specific strong verbal competencies that are fairly distinct from those associated with Intelligence. With Intelligence "removed," the Realistic-type individual appears to have strengths in hands-on areas that make use of spatial and mechanical abilities, as well as perhaps the "naming" of things (as tapped by the Verbal Reasoning test), as well as major deficits in the fine points of linguistic conventions (i.e., spelling, grammar).

Conventional types score lowest on measures of verbal reasoning, mechanical reasoning, and spatial abilities, but highest on measures of clerical speed and numerical ability. They are detail-oriented and have strong numerical competencies, and show deficits in spatial, mechanical, and the same verbal area in which Realistic types are strong. In fact, their specific aptitude pattern is more or less the exact opposite of the Realistic type; where Realistic is strong, Conventional tends to be weak, and vice versa.

Removing Intelligence from aptitude scores has an interesting effect on the relative magnitudes of aptitudes between Investigative and Enterprising types. It appears clear that once Intelligence is removed, Investigative types no longer dominate the aptitude picture, except perhaps in such areas as spelling and language usage. Once Intelligence is removed, Enterprising types turn out to have the **highest** specific ability for abstract reasoning. They have higher *g*-less aptitudes than Investigative types for abstract reasoning, numerical ability, clerical speed, mechanical reasoning, and spatial ability – in short, any ability that is not specifically linguistically oriented. However, as with Realistic types, Enterprising types remain extremely poor spellers even **after** Intelligence is removed.

The removal of Intelligence from aptitude scores has essentially no effect at all on the relative magnitude of aptitude scores for either Artistic- or Social-type individuals. It is interesting to note that the differences between Investigative and Artistic aptitude scores essentially disappear once Intelligence is partialled out, except that the spelling remains stronger (although moving in the direction of Artistic-type scores) and the clerical speed becomes relatively worse among Investigative types in the *g*-less condition. In fact, the *g*-less clerical speed of Artistic types is almost the same as the relatively high-scoring Conventional types, suggesting that these types may share a common

perceptual speed ability that remains relatively independent of Intelligence. Randahl (1991, p. 341) also found that compared to other types Artistic types scored highly on measures of clerical perception aptitude.

DISCUSSION

This study will be of limited interest to those who doubt the usefulness of specific abilities in applied contexts. I and others (Carroll, 1993, p. 634 and 637; Desmarais & Sackett, 1993; Spearman & Jones, 1950) have suggested that they are useful and real, and that for purposes of fine-tuning the recommendations of the career counsellor they may prove as important as Intelligence, but others (e.g., Harrington, 1995) have questioned the need for *any* objective assessment of specific aptitudes at all in the context of career assessment. Probably the major limitation of this study is its reliance on very small sample sizes for many of Holland's types, particularly Realistic, Investigative, Enterprising, and Conventional types. This small sample size led to my decision not to test for sex differences in most analyses, and in general to rely more on comparisons of absolute magnitude of profiles rather than tests of statistical significance. Thus, this study should be considered primarily exploratory and descriptive. The sample was also restricted to career clients, which may account for the relatively larger representation of Artistic- and Social-type individuals (who tend to seek out counselling assistance for career problems). The use of a largely European-Canadian sample may limit the generalizability of findings to other populations. On the other hand, the results were fairly clear-cut, at least as regards the effects of removing Intelligence on the relative magnitude of aptitude scores across the types, and I anticipate that the results would generalize fairly well to additional samples. And given that there are so few tests of Holland's theory using Canadian samples of any sort, this investigation's reliance on Canadians of restricted ethnic background might perhaps be forgiven. However, future research of this sort should, of course, broaden ethnic representation to other groups.

The results of this study provide support for and to some degree extensions of Holland's (1985/1992) descriptions of vocational personality types (also see Lowman, 1991). This study confirms that Intelligence (relatively high *g*) is the hallmark of the Investigative individual. However, when Intelligence is (statistically) removed, such a person is left with some specific verbal skills and not much else (at least, not much else as measured by the DAT-A). By inference, what contributes most to success among *non*-Investigative workers may be the specific

aptitudes that Investigative persons tend not to share to any great degree. For example, Realistic types have strong Mechanical and Spatial abilities, while Conventional ones possess strong Clerical and Numerical abilities. This study was somewhat less successful in differentiating Enterprising, Social, and Artistic types from the others on the basis of Intelligence and special aptitudes, although even for these types the results suggested some patterns of specific aptitudes unique to these types. Perhaps the use of additional aptitude tests than those included in this study would provide a basis for more clearly differentiating these types from others. For example, Lowman (1991) argues that there are tests of creativity and social abilities that can differentiate these types. The finding that there exists a negative correlation between Intelligence and interests in Enterprising and Conventional areas is particularly interesting, in that it suggests that extremely intelligent individuals may shy away from such fields, this despite some evidence that success in fields related to business and leadership may be particularly associated (positively) with Intelligence (see Bizot & Goldman, 1993, p. 24).

These findings have implications for career practice in schools and the workplace, particularly for those counsellors basing their work on Holland's theory. The results in general support the use of vocational personality types as a way of conceptualizing clients: aptitudes and interests do generally relate to one another in ways predicted by the theory. However, the degree to which they do so, while moderately robust, is nevertheless imperfect. There will be clients with Realistic interests who nevertheless lack strong Spatial and Mechanical aptitudes. There are Conventional individuals (based on interests) who lack strong Numerical or Clerical aptitudes. Some Investigative types may be high in Intelligence and little else, which has interesting implications for career recommendations: what sorts of occupations are most suitable for a "pure g" individual? The upshot is that although aptitudes and interests may converge much of the time, they do not do so all of the time. Given that prediction of future job performance of career clients is much stronger when based on objectively measured aptitudes than on the basis of interests (Bizot & Goldman, 1993; see Dawis, 1996), and given that such prediction is a primary reason why students and other clients receive career counselling in the first place, I recommend that counselors use (objective) measures of aptitudes as part of their normal career assessment practice. However, because training programs for career counsellors often provide woefully inadequate training in the use of objective measures of specific aptitudes (see Watkins, Campbell, & Manus, 1990), we also need to invigorate

and make more relevant our graduate counsellor training programs by revising their curricula to incorporate experience with such tests.

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I am grateful to Suzanne Kuchel who contributed to the literature review for this project in connection with a separate research study. I also thank the following organizations that provided funding for this study: Strong Research Advisory Board of the Stanford University Press (for project "Detection of False Vocational Personality Types") and the Computer Science Subcommittee and Social Science Research Subcommittee of the Graduate Faculty, McGill University (both for project "Detection of False Holland Types"). Address correspondence concerning this paper to the author at Ball Foundation, 800 Roosevelt Rd. C-120, Glen Ellyn, IL 60137 (E-mail: adcarson@ballfoundation.org).

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Marta Kedves

LA FORMATION DES ENSEIGNANTS À LA SUPERVISION DE STAGIAIRES

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RÉSUMÉ. Cet article présente les résultats d'un projet de recherche sur la façon d'apprendre aux enseignants à encadrer des stagiaires durant leur stage. En général, les enseignants qui acceptent des stagiaires dans leur classe n'ont pas suivi de formation pour ce type d'encadrement. Après un programme de formation conçu et dispensé à un groupe d'enseignants, on a recueilli des données qualitatives durant le stage pour savoir comment les enseignants appliquent les notions qui leur ont été présentées au cours des séances de formation. L'analyse des données révèle que les enseignants modifient leurs comportements d'encadrement comme prévu. Les enseignants se disent également d'avoir pu rencontrer des responsables de la formation des enseignants à l'université pour discuter de l'encadrement des stagiaires.

ABSTRACT. This article presents results of a research project on training teachers to supervise practice teachers in their placements. Generally, teachers who agree to accept student teachers for supervision in their classrooms do not have training in this kind of supervision. Following a training program, designed for and offered to a group of teachers, qualitative data were collected during the practicum to determine how teachers would apply the notions presented during the training sessions. Data analysis shows that teachers modified their supervising behaviours as expected. Teachers also expressed appreciation for having the opportunity to meet and discuss student teaching supervision with university teacher educators.

La formation des enseignants retient depuis de nombreuses années l'attention de plusieurs auteurs et chercheurs. On peut affirmer qu'il y a eu une évolution importante dans les programmes de formation à l'enseignement au cours des dernières décennies; on n'a qu'à penser à la prise en charge de ces programmes par les universités. Cependant, en examinant les ouvrages publiés sur ce sujet, on se rend compte qu'on se préoccupe plus de la sélection et du contenu des cours offerts dans les facultés d'éducation que de la qualité de la pratique de l'enseignement

par les futurs enseignants. Les facultés d'éducation se sont peu penchées sur la formation des enseignants associés¹ qui reçoivent les stagiaires et qui les initient à la pratique pédagogique en milieu réel. Les enseignants associés jouent un rôle important de formateur et, par conséquent, ils doivent faire preuve de compétence en termes de supervision de façon à assurer une formation efficace aux stagiaires qu'ils accueillent dans leur classe.

Cet article présente une étude exploratoire voulant faire ressortir l'importance de la formation des enseignants associés à la supervision comme moyen d'améliorer la formation des futurs enseignants. Un programme de formation à la supervision de stagiaires en enseignement a été offert à des enseignants associés dans le but de les aider à mieux superviser les stagiaires pendant leurs stages d'enseignement pratique. Ce programme visait également à créer des liens plus réguliers entre une faculté d'éducation et les écoles qui reçoivent les stagiaires.

Tout au cours du projet, des données de recherche ont été recueillies afin de décrire les modifications de comportements des enseignants associés en situation de supervision. D'autres données ont servi à cerner les perceptions des enseignants sur l'utilisation d'un tel programme pour améliorer les liens entre une faculté d'éducation et les écoles.

PROBLÉMATIQUE

Dans le processus de formation de futurs enseignants, le rôle de la composante "stages" est aussi important que celui de la composante "cours". Malheureusement, trop souvent ces deux composantes évoluent de façon indépendante, sans qu'il y ait nécessairement cohérence ou cohésion entre elles, et sans qu'il y ait collaboration étroite entre les professeurs d'université et les enseignants associés dans les écoles. Dans la formation des futurs enseignants, les stages d'enseignement pratique ont toujours été considérés comme étant essentiels et souvent les stagiaires les tiennent pour plus importants que la formation reçue dans les facultés d'éducation. Étant donné l'importance de la composante "stages", les enseignants associés se doivent d'assumer un rôle important de **formateur**. Pourtant, il appert que les programmes de formation à l'enseignement se sont très peu penchés sur le rôle des enseignants associés et sur leur préparation à assumer un tel rôle.

Les comportements des enseignants associés en situation de supervision

Une des lacunes importantes qui existent dans le cadre de la formation pratique à l'enseignement est le fait que l'on présuppose que tous les enseignants en exercice sont prêts à assumer un rôle de formateur

d'enseignants sans préparation ou formation préalable, mais uniquement à partir de leur propre expérience en salle de classe.

Une étude de Tannehill et Zakrajsek (1988) a révélé que certains enseignants associés font peu d'observation de l'enseignement fait par le stagiaire et donnent peu de feedback. Ocansey (1988) mentionne pour sa part que le feedback offert par l'enseignant associé est assez souvent vague et incomplet.

Les résultats rapportés par Dodds (1985) démontrent que l'enseignant associé est la personne qui exerce la plus grande influence sur un étudiant lors d'un stage. Plusieurs études (dont celle de Griffin, Hughes, Defino and Barnes 1981) ont montré que la sélection des enseignants associés est un des aspects les plus négligés dans les programmes de formation à l'enseignement. Cette sélection est souvent faite au hasard et pour combler des besoins pressants, sans tenir compte de la préparation des enseignants associés.

Selon plusieurs chercheurs (Guyton 1987; Hauwiller, Abel, Ausubel et Sparapini 1989), la grande majorité des enseignants associés ont peu de formation en supervision de stagiaires et sont d'accord pour dire qu'ils ont besoin de préparation à la supervision. Guyton et McIntyre (1990) signalent que des programmes de formation à la supervision de stagiaires s'avèrent efficaces pour offrir à l'étudiant-maître un contexte favorable à son apprentissage. Ils soulignent que lorsque les enseignants ont reçu une formation à la supervision, ils peuvent fournir une expérience de stage plus stable, une rétroaction plus spécifique et une expérience affective plus positive.

Les liens entre les professeurs d'université et les enseignants associés

En plus du manque de formation à la supervision, il existe une autre source de difficulté reliée à l'efficacité des stages: le peu de communication entre les professeurs d'université et les enseignants en exercice.

Locke (1984) et Dodds (1985) font ressortir le fait que les enseignants associés et les professeurs d'université ont des attentes et des perceptions différentes quant aux rôles de chacun dans la formation d'un futur enseignant. Boudreau et Bourdages (1994) soulignent qu'une telle situation ne peut que diminuer l'efficacité d'un stage comme moyen d'apprentissage.

Johnson et Yates (1982) rapportent qu'un certain nombre de programmes de formation ont des contrats écrits avec les écoles, mais que ces contrats sont très superficiels et ne constituent pas une base réelle de travail de collaboration. Griffin et al. (1983) ont pour leur part

identifié très peu de milieux où les programmes de formation et les conseils scolaires avaient établi des liens réels. Pour Turney (1977), certains facteurs sont à la base d'un travail de collaboration efficace en formation d'enseignants; parmi ceux-ci, il mentionne la création de canaux de communication formels et informels entre les écoles et les facultés d'éducation.

Il semble donc, selon les écrits cités, qu'au moins deux facteurs nuisent à l'efficacité des stages: le manque de formation des enseignants associés en supervision et le peu de liens réguliers entre le programme de formation et les enseignants associés. Ce constat justifiait la réalisation d'un projet visant à rehausser la qualité du processus de supervision des stages de même qu'à établir un lien de communication régulier entre le milieu scolaire et la Faculté d'éducation.

Le projet que nous présentons dans cet article s'inscrit dans le domaine de la recherche-action. Tout en réalisant le programme de formation à la supervision (action), des données ont été recueillies pour documenter l'impact du programme de formation (recherche) sur:

- a) le comportement des enseignants associés en supervision, et
- b) sur les liens entre les facultés d'éducation et les écoles quant à la supervision des stagiaires.

Le modèle de supervision

Un programme de formation a été élaboré à partir d'une adaptation du modèle de supervision clinique proposé par Brunelle et al. (1988). Cette adaptation comprend cinq phases.

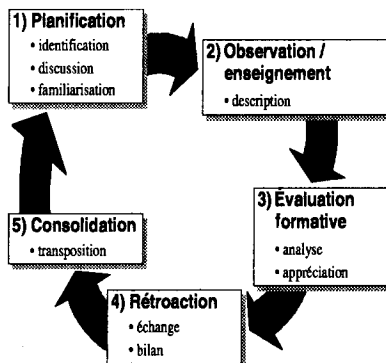


FIGURE 1. Les 5 phases du modèle de supervision clinique

La première porte sur la planification de l'observation: l'enseignant associé et le stagiaire identifient des éléments et des comportements à être observés pendant le stage. Durant la deuxième phase, l'enseignant associé observe le stagiaire pendant ses périodes d'enseignement. La troisième phase constitue une phase d'évaluation formative pendant laquelle l'enseignant associé fait une analyse et une appréciation de ce qui a été observé dans la phase précédente. La quatrième phase est l'étape de rétroaction qui est peut-être la plus importante pour le stagiaire. Il s'agit de l'étape pendant laquelle l'enseignant-associé échange avec le stagiaire sur les résultats de son observation. La dernière phase porte sur la consolidation des acquis et permet au stagiaire de modifier certains de ses comportements et d'intégrer à sa pratique pédagogique les commentaires et observations reçus lors de la phase de rétroaction.

ASPECTS MÉTHODOLOGIQUES

Les participants

Les conseils scolaires de la région d'Ottawa ont été sollicités afin de nous mettre en contact avec des enseignants intéressés à participer à un projet de formation à la supervision de stagiaires. Huit enseignants des conseils scolaires anglophones et francophones de la région d'Ottawa-Carleton ont participé sur une base volontaire à un programme de formation d'une durée de 12 heures. Ces enseignants ont aussi accepté de recevoir un stagiaire maître pour deux stages.

Parmi ces enseignants, trois oeuvraient au cycle moyen (4^e - 6^e années), deux au cycle intermédiaire (7^e-10^e années) et trois au secondaire (intermédiaire et supérieur - 9^e-13^e années). Leur expérience d'enseignement variait de 6 à 24 ans tandis que leur expérience de supervision allait de 0 à 6 ans, sauf pour un qui avait plus de 20 ans d'expérience dans ce domaine. Les enseignants du cycle moyen travaillaient avec des classes à niveaux multiples: chacune de ces classes était composée d'enfants de 2 niveaux scolaires.

Les sessions de formation

À partir du modèle ci-dessus, les auteurs ont élaboré et offert quatre sessions de formation, chacune d'une durée de trois heures. Les quatre sessions de formation suivies par les enseignants associés ont porté sur différentes composantes de la supervision de stagiaires en enseignement.

Le premier stage faisait suite à la première session de formation. Le second stage faisait suite aux sessions 2 et 3 axées sur l'observation de

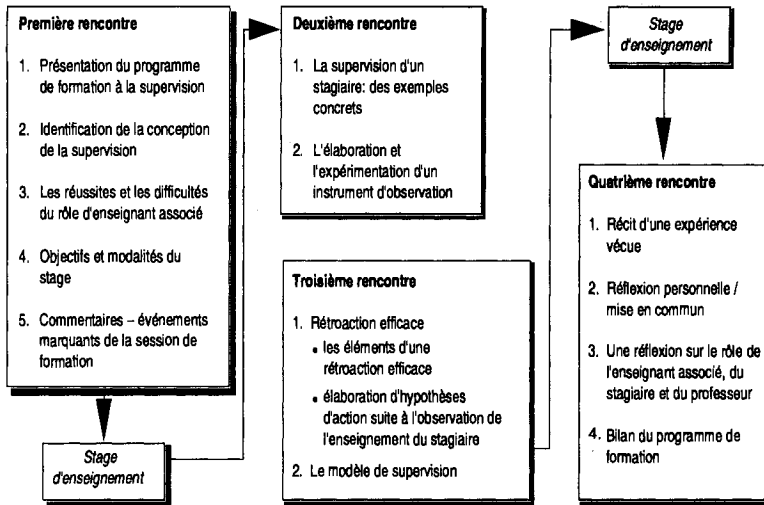


FIGURE 2. Les sessions de formation à la supervision

l'enseignement du stagiaire et des techniques efficaces de rétroaction. Les enseignants associés ont ainsi pu mettre en pratique les stratégies et les techniques discutées dans les sessions de formation. Une quatrième session servait à faire un bilan de l'expérience de supervision.

La **première session** avait pour objectif de faire émerger la conception personnelle de la supervision de stagiaires de chacun des enseignants associés. Un échange et une discussion portant sur cette réflexion personnelle ont ensuite suivi. La première session a également permis de clarifier les attentes mutuelles en regard du premier stage qui était imminent.

La **deuxième session** portait sur l'élaboration d'un instrument d'observation des stagiaires. Afin de réaliser cet objectif, les participants se sont interrogés sur la façon de réaliser la supervision de stagiaire de façon concrète. Ce questionnement a permis d'établir une liste des tâches qui devraient être accomplies par un enseignant associé pour rendre le processus de supervision efficace. La seconde partie de cette session a servi à présenter des techniques d'observation de même qu'une démarche pour élaborer un instrument d'observation de stagiaires. Les participants ont également pu amorcer l'élaboration de leur propre instrument d'observation. Cette élaboration s'est faite en groupe de 2 ou 3.

La **troisième session** avait comme premier objectif de finaliser l'instrument d'observation et de l'expérimenter en observant une leçon

donnée par une stagiaire sur vidéo. Suite à cette expérimentation, les participants ont été amenés à discuter des caractéristiques d'une rétroaction efficace dans le cadre de la supervision d'un stagiaire. La troisième session a été suivie d'un stage d'enseignement pratique de douze jours.

Après ce stage, la **quatrième session** a permis de comparer le modèle de supervision proposé à la réalité de la supervision vécue pendant le stage. Cette dernière session de formation a servi à mettre en perspective l'expérience en supervision que venaient de vivre les participants. Dans cette session, les participants ont également pu commenter l'expérimentation de leur instrument d'observation au cours du stage. Les participants se sont ensuite penchés sur le rôle des membres de la triade impliqués dans un stage: le stagiaire, l'enseignant associé et le superviseur universitaire. Enfin, en guise de conclusion, les participants ont pu faire un bilan du programme de formation à la supervision de stagiaires en enseignement.

La collecte des données

Tout au cours de la réalisation de ce projet, des données qualitatives ont été recueillies auprès des enseignants associés et des stagiaires. Différentes méthodes ont été utilisées: l'observation non-participante (Lincoln et Guba, 1985), les incidents critiques (Flanagan, 1954; Brunelle et al., 1988), les entrevues informelles et les documents écrits. Le tableau 1 présente les sources des données et les différentes méthodes utilisées.

L'observation non-participante et les incidents critiques relatés par les stagiaires ont permis de décrire systématiquement les comportements de deux des enseignants associés lors des deux stages. Les autres enseignants associés ont relaté leurs propres comportements lors d'entrevues informelles et chacun a présenté l'instrument d'observation utilisé durant le stage.

Les perceptions des enseignants associés sur les liens entre la faculté et les écoles ont été collectées à l'aide des entrevues informelles et des notes d'observation non-participante des sessions de formation.

L'analyse des données

L'analyse des données a été faite en utilisant ce que Goetz et LeCompte (1981) appellent "typological analysis". Cette stratégie consiste à utiliser comme point de départ de l'analyse un cadre de référence déjà établi (par exemple, une théorie ou des questions de recherche) auquel les données sont comparées. Le point de départ de l'analyse des données était les objectifs de la recherche.

TABLEAU 1. Collecte des données

	Enseignants associés	Stagiaires
Observation non-participante	X	
Incidents critiques		X
Entrevues informelles	X	X
Documents écrits	X	

Comme le premier objectif avait trait aux comportements des enseignants en supervision, les analystes (les chercheurs et l'assistant de recherche qui a agi comme observateur) ont lu les données en tentant d'identifier les comportements des enseignants associés qui se sont modifiés entre le premier et le second stage. Les analystes ont examiné en particulier les données portant sur l'utilisation d'un instrument d'observation et de techniques de rétroaction efficace. Ces aspects avaient fait l'objet de présentations et de discussions au cours de deux sessions du programme de formation.

Les données de la recherche ont été lues à nouveau par les analystes pour identifier les situations en relation avec le second objectif de la recherche, soit les liens entre la faculté et les écoles quant à la supervision des stagiaires. Les analystes ont d'abord fait une lecture individuelle des données. Ils ont ensuite comparé leur analyse, et les points de désaccord ont été discutés afin de dégager un consensus.

RÉSULTATS

a) Les comportements des enseignants en supervision

PHASE D'OBSERVATION Lors de supervisions antérieures et pendant le premier stage, la majorité des participants, en particulier ceux travaillant avec des classes à niveaux multiples, ont souligné le fait qu'il leur était difficile d'observer les stagiaires pour différentes raisons. Dans ce type de classe, les enseignants ont tendance à laisser la responsabilité d'un groupe au stagiaire et à travailler avec l'autre groupe. Pendant le premier stage, plusieurs des participants n'observaient pas systématiquement leur stagiaire. On faisait plutôt une observation globale à partir de laquelle la rétroaction donnée restait très générale et dans certains cas vague.

L'analyse des notes d'observation non-participante, des incidents critiques et des entrevues informelles avec les stagiaires permet d'affirmer

que les deux enseignants observés ont modifié leur stratégie d'observation lors du deuxième stage. Dans le cas du premier enseignant, les résultats de l'observation non participante ont montré qu'il a utilisé un instrument d'observation du stagiaire lors du deuxième stage alors qu'au cours du premier stage, il avait pris des notes de divers ordres et de façon non systématique. Un incident critique relaté par le stagiaire vient corroborer cette affirmation: "Aujourd'hui, il regardait ma façon de contrôler le groupe: à chaque fois qu'il y avait un comportement dérangeant, il le notait." Il écrit également plus loin: "Mon enseignant a utilisé plusieurs grilles pour m'évaluer et ça m'a paru très important." La seconde enseignante a aussi utilisé un instrument d'observation systématique pendant le deuxième stage alors qu'au premier stage, elle ne prenait aucune note. La stagiaire affirmait dans une entrevue informelle que l'enseignante avait "... un genre de grille avec des critères où elle cochant et puis c'était très bien."

Les autres enseignants associés ont affirmé lors des entrevues informelles que l'élaboration d'un instrument d'observation et son utilisation systématique ont facilité les tâches d'évaluation formative et sommative des stagiaires. Il leur a été plus facile de produire des rapports d'évaluation de stages plus détaillés portant plus souvent sur des particularités que sur des généralités. Par exemple, dans l'évaluation sommative du premier stage, un enseignant associé écrit: "Le stagiaire préparait bien ses leçons". Lors du deuxième stage, qui faisait suite aux sessions 2 et 3 du programme de formation, le même enseignant écrit: "La stagiaire est toujours bien préparée: les objectifs de ses leçons sont bien définis et elle utilise une variété de styles d'enseignement pour atteindre tous les élèves."

PHASE DE RÉTROACTION Les périodes de rétroaction avec le stagiaire pendant le premier stage sont restées à un niveau très général dans les deux cas. Les commentaires reçus par la stagiaire prenaient la forme suivante: "C'était bien dans l'ensemble. Tu circulais dans les rangs. Tu donnais de l'aide à tout le monde. D'après ce que j'ai pu observer, c'était bien". "Sur le plan pratique, essaie d'utiliser le tableau pour tes consignes. Pour ce qui est de la discipline, c'était correct. Il y avait moins de bruit, les élèves collaboraient".

Au cours du second stage, la rétroaction s'est faite sur des points plus précis, et de façon plus systématique. Les exemples qui suivent sont des exemples de commentaires reçus par les stagiaires pendant les sessions de rétroaction. "En ce qui a trait à l'organisation (de la leçon), elle t'a pris 9 minutes, la participation des élèves pour faire l'analyse était de 12 minutes, c'était correct." "Tu as bien commencé ton thème. C'est une bonne façon de débiter avec un retour sur l'activité de la veille: 29

élèves sur 31 ont participé à ce retour sur l'activité." "Au niveau de langage où ils sont rendus, utilise des synonymes".

Plusieurs des enseignants ont mentionné avoir établi des dossiers de la performance des stagiaires en observant à plusieurs reprises avec l'instrument d'observation qu'ils avaient élaboré. Ces dossiers ont permis aux enseignants associés de situer un comportement observé chez le stagiaire dans un continuum, d'en faire une analyse plus poussée et leur permettait d'avoir des éléments précis à discuter lors de la rétroaction.

La rétroaction est peut-être l'étape la plus importante aux yeux des stagiaires. En effet, quand on demande à un stagiaire si son stage a été réussi, la réponse est toujours positive quand il a reçu une rétroaction systématique et portant sur des comportements observables précis. À la lumière des observations faites auprès des enseignants associés et des commentaires mentionnés plus haut, il semble que les sessions de formation à la supervision ont contribué à aider l'enseignant à offrir une rétroaction plus spécifique et plus riche aux stagiaires.

b) Les liens entre la Faculté d'éducation et les écoles

Les enseignants-associés participant à ce programme ont apprécié avoir l'occasion de rencontrer les professeurs de la Faculté d'éducation à un autre moment que celui de la visite de stage et de pouvoir échanger avec eux sur les attentes de ces derniers en rapport avec le stage. Du point de vue des enseignants associés, la création d'un climat de confiance et d'échange entre eux et les professeurs a été un des aspects les plus satisfaisants de ce projet. Quelques-uns ont même mentionné qu'ils aimeraient que les professeurs s'impliquent encore davantage dans le déroulement des stages.

Parmi les aspects positifs du programme, un enseignant associé affirmait que "les interactions personnelles avec les professeurs ont été très utiles et satisfaisantes." Un enseignant a souligné l'importance d'établir une collaboration entre le professeur et l'enseignant associé: "Le professeur d'université et l'enseignant associé devrait communiquer ensemble dès la première semaine pour mieux aider l'étudiant maître. . .". Un autre parle du soutien que le professeur devrait apporter à l'enseignant associé: "Le professeur universitaire devrait avoir un rôle de support auprès de l'enseignant associé."

La collaboration entre les principaux partenaires impliqués dans la formation d'enseignants, les enseignants associés et les professeurs, est de plus en plus nécessaire. Le projet que nous avons réalisé avec un petit groupe d'enseignants associés a montré que le professeur peut jouer efficacement son rôle dans le cadre des stages en assumant également

une tâche de formation à la supervision auprès des enseignants associés. De plus, cette intervention comme formateur n'a pas à être très longue pour produire des effets concrets.

Ceci ne devrait cependant pas éliminer une forme d'intervention de la part du professeur auprès des stagiaires, intervention qui devrait amener le stagiaire à faire le lien entre les cours "théoriques" de l'université et la situation "pratique" du stage, lien qui peut difficilement être fait par les enseignants associés puisqu'ils ne sont pas tous familiers avec la formation reçue par les stagiaires dans le cadre des cours offerts à la faculté d'éducation.

CONCLUSION

À l'heure actuelle, la formation des enseignants est sujette à une remise en question et la formation des enseignants associés devrait également faire partie de cette réflexion. La grande majorité des chercheurs et des praticiens s'entendent pour affirmer que la composante "stage" d'un programme de formation à l'enseignement est cruciale. Cependant, l'enseignant associé appelé à superviser cette composante ne possède pas toujours les connaissances et habiletés lui permettant d'assurer l'efficacité optimale de cette activité de formation. Les observations faites dans le cadre de ce projet ont montré que les enseignants ne peuvent pas tous assumer sans préparation le rôle de formateur auprès de stagiaires en enseignement. Cet article a fait ressortir l'importance de la formation à la supervision de stagiaires en enseignement de façon à assurer des conditions optimales d'apprentissage. Nos résultats rejoignent ceux de Guyton et McIntyre (1990) puisque les enseignants qui ont participé au programme de formation à la supervision ont fourni une rétroaction plus précise et donc plus efficace pour les stagiaires. Ils ont également observé leur stagiaire de façon plus systématique.

Même si la recherche présentée dans cet article est une étude exploratoire, elle laisse entrevoir qu'une formation à la supervision de stagiaires influence les pratiques d'observation et de rétroaction des enseignants. Ceux qui ont participé à notre programme de formation ont en général transformé leurs pratiques pour les rendre plus spécifiques et systématiques augmentant ainsi la valeur pédagogique des stages d'enseignement pour les stagiaires.

Une étude de plus grande envergure avec un plus grand nombre de participants devrait cependant être entreprise afin de vérifier si les résultats obtenus par l'étude relatée ici peuvent être généralisés à d'autres situations ou d'autres contextes.

NOTE

1. Le terme "enseignant associé" désigne un enseignant d'école élémentaire ou secondaire qui supervise un futur enseignant dans le cadre d'un stage de pratique à l'enseignement.

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Marta Kedves

BOOK REVIEWS

FRANK DARNELL & ANTON HOEM. *Taken to Extremes: Education in the Far North.* Oslo: Scandinavian University Press (1996). 283 pp. \$39.30. ISBN 82-00-22588-7.

This book is very easy reading for the non-expert who would like to become somewhat knowledgeable about: a) the history of education amongst the indigenous peoples of the north, and b) the challenges they face in creating schooling that meets their own needs.

The authors begin by defining the terms they will use and suggest that the lessons learned from studying this particular context will resonate with individuals in other settings where peoples from minority and majority cultures meet. The scope of the story they tell is indeed broad, an attempt to describe the experience of schooling since contact with European civilization among all peoples of the north, save those in the Soviet regions. They present physical and demographic information about Alaska, northern Canada (the Yukon, the Northwest Territories, northern Quebec, northern Labrador), Greenland, and northern Sweden, Norway, and Finland. From here, they describe the history of western schooling in each of these regions and draw out the similarities in terms of political, economic, and social relationships that occurred after contact. The intention is to provide sufficient context to understand the contemporary situation and issues. These are dealt with using the following broad headings: organizational structure of schools, locus of control, curriculum, language of instruction, and professional development of teachers. The final chapter of the book summarizes what they believe are the lessons learned and presents their emerging theories of education in multicultural societies.

At this point, a word about the authors' provenance and mine might be insightful for the reader! Both these individuals have worked in the

north with Native Alaskans (Darnell) in the United States and Saami in Scandinavia (Hoem) for many years. They make it clear that they are representing their personal understandings of the issues under discussion. Similarly, I have worked with aboriginal peoples (both Inuit and First Nations) in eastern Canada (though not for as long as they). So all of us are outsiders, and the voices you hear represented in the authors' and my words are mere echoes of the lived reality. The definitive work on this story will wait until those involved in it have the time to tell the tale.

So, now as an outsider, I give you my response to this book. What is striking to me but not surprising (given the authors' backgrounds) is that the story of the Inuit in Canada's north, particularly those in northern Quebec (Nunavik) and northern Labrador, is not recounted in the same depth as the stories from Alaska and Scandinavia. And yet, in my experience, these stories are revelatory (especially that of Nunavik since it has a quite distinct political and thus educational history from the other regions). So, even as a compendium of historical events, the account is missing important details.

One of the issues they tackle is the debate over the role of schooling in indigenous communities: Is it to sustain the indigenous culture, to prepare students for life in the majority culture, or to prepare students for both? As the authors make clear, there is not necessarily a shared vision among indigenous peoples as to what the role should be, but it is very evident that the third option, while perhaps desired by the majority, is an incredibly demanding task to undertake.

As for the premise of the book that there have existed across these communities similar phases, I would agree. First, the emphasis by Europeans on cultural replacement was followed by a period of clearly voiced discontent by aboriginal peoples, which ultimately led to political accommodation towards aboriginal self-determination. The authors believe that there has, in fact, been remarkable progress at the policy level; nevertheless, student performance is still abysmally low. Thus, there is still much to be resolved, e. g., how to provide appropriate and adequate education to the children of these communities.

In exploring the ways in which change has and might continue to occur, the authors point out that the rate of change and degree of distinctness or integration between minority and majority cultures varies among the following features of society: technologies, economic systems, social order, and aestheticism. For instance, technologies are

frequently incorporated into lifestyles very quickly, e. g., the snowmobile has become a very common means of transportation in the Canadian north. Such a shift impacts on the other three aspects of society in differential ways and at differing speeds, e. g., purchase of gasoline (market economy) rather than hunting for food for the dogs (subsistence economy), learning to repair engines (basic southern mechanics) rather than learning to lead and care for a dog team (traditional land-based knowledge), and so on.

The tradition of slow evolution that they recount has been characterized as ultimately transformative (Falgout & Lewin, 1991), that is, leading eventually to minority-based schooling systems. The authors contrast this approach with the notion that one could actually question the very structures on which schooling is based and develop completely novel forms of schooling. Unfortunately, they do not give us a glimpse of what these might look like.

Darnell and Hoem believe quite strongly that there are lessons here to be learned by those in other multicultural contexts (as they choose to describe them). I take some issue with the notion that these indigenous communities can be described as such since they strike me as being made up in general terms of one minority culture and a majority culture (in the case of Quebec, a third culture which has both minority and majority status depending on the context). In addition, the minority cultures that are represented in these communities are caste-like minorities (e. g., black Americans in the United States who have no choice as to their group status) as opposed to voluntary minorities (e. g., an immigrant who makes a personal choice to take on minority status) to use Ogbu's (1987) useful classification. Thus, I believe the lessons are only applicable in the broadest, most abstract, sense to the majority of contexts that in Canada we would describe as multicultural, ones in which there is a mixture of individuals from minority cultures, most of whom are voluntary minorities.

Overall, what is useful about this book is the documenting of a series of similar histories in a readable format. For me what is lacking is a framework which would push the reader to grapple in depth with the issues and develop some concrete ideas about what might work, what might happen in the future. I am left with the feeling that I have eaten a decent meal but experienced nothing so delicious or mouth-watering that I'm inspired to seek out more.

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MARGARET GILLETT & ANN BEER (EDITORS). *Our Own Agendas: Autobiographical essays by women associated with McGill University.* Montreal & Kingston: McGill-Queen's University Press, 1995. 291 pp. \$22.95. ISBN 0-7735-1340-x.

Fifteen years ago, in her path-breaking *We Walked Very Warily: A history of women at McGill*, Margaret Gillett provided a broad spectrum of readers with an alternative history of McGill University. The book was an eye opener for those interested in women's issues and in Canadian educational history. Indeed, for some readers, even the very existence of women at McGill came as a major surprise. Superb educator that she is, the prize winning author followed suit with another volume. To celebrate the 100th anniversary of the admission of women to McGill, in 1984, Margaret Gillett and Kay Sibbald invited a variety of "McGill women" to contribute to a collection of autobiographical essays tentatively entitled "A Fair Shake." I remember the excitement of the centennial celebrations and the book launching of *A Fair Shake*. For many of us, McGill became a friendlier, more interesting place.

Our Own Agendas: Autobiographical essays by women associated with McGill University continues in the tradition of *A Fair Shake*. It presents an even richer variety of essays than the previous volume. From the nearly thirty autobiographies it is clear that McGill University, considered the bastion of "Anglo" higher education in Quebec, has attracted women from diverse ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds: Canada's First Nations, the descendants of European-Canadians, and those born and educated in other parts of the world, such as the Cameroons, India, and the United States.

The essays represent many life choices. Almost all of them deal with various forms of "otherness" – race, religion, sexuality. All but two were written for this volume; while the one by Judge Rosalie Abella fits beautifully, the other, by the humorist Erika Ritter, does not. It is probably unfair to single out a few individual essays from this rich collection. After all, they all present facets of remembered experience and most of them allow the reader to catch more than a glimpse behind

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the author's public persona. But we react personally to books, and reviewers are no exception. I admit that I was moved by Mary-Margaret Jones's "Prelude" and Ann Beer's "On Being Lucky." I enjoyed the contributions of Monique Bégin, Frieda Paltiel, and Sally Gibbs, among others, all of whom consciously highlighted aspects of their professional life while also dealing with their feelings and fears. I love Juliana Nfah-Abbenyi's fine ironical story about her encounters with sexism and racism at McGill. These forms of discrimination, together with alcoholism and violence, and their impact on each author's life, form an important part of many essays and I admired the authors' courage in dealing with such painful subjects. Yet, other stories seemed so geared towards the public that they left me dissatisfied. Why did the authors suppress even a hint of their private life? Did Violet Archer, Canada's foremost female composer, ever experience discrimination or despair, friendship and love? Autobiographies are not simply factual documents, so why, in the mid-1990s, do many women still silence their private self?

While *Our Own Agendas* is no "autogynography" – a genre recommended by Domna Stanton in which authors explore their innermost, gendered feelings – the book nevertheless provides the reader with many examples of thoughtful feminist life writing. I recommend this anthology – moving, entertaining, and always informative – to anyone interested in women's lives. It is both educational and a very good read.

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DAVID CORSON (EDITOR). *Discourse and Power in Educational Organizations*. Toronto: OISE Press (1995). 368 pp. \$29.50. ISBN: 0-7744-0426-4.

In the last two decades the dominant positivist orientation of the social sciences has increasingly come under sustained attack from a range of competing theoretical perspectives. While this assault was initially led by Marxists, feminists, and, more broadly, critical theorists from the 1970s, scholars in the 1980s and 1990s have used poststructuralism and postmodernism to construct a theoretical critique of positivism. With the exception of mainstream economics, this critique now permeates and informs the intellectual practices of the leading social sciences, including anthropology, history, political science, sociology, and psychology.

Within education the impact of this critique has been extremely uneven. Where some fields of study have been profoundly influenced by

the author's public persona. But we react personally to books, and reviewers are no exception. I admit that I was moved by Mary-Margaret Jones's "Prelude" and Ann Beer's "On Being Lucky." I enjoyed the contributions of Monique Bégin, Frieda Paltiel, and Sally Gibbs, among others, all of whom consciously highlighted aspects of their professional life while also dealing with their feelings and fears. I love Juliana Nfah-Abbenyi's fine ironical story about her encounters with sexism and racism at McGill. These forms of discrimination, together with alcoholism and violence, and their impact on each author's life, form an important part of many essays and I admired the authors' courage in dealing with such painful subjects. Yet, other stories seemed so geared towards the public that they left me dissatisfied. Why did the authors suppress even a hint of their private life? Did Violet Archer, Canada's foremost female composer, ever experience discrimination or despair, friendship and love? Autobiographies are not simply factual documents, so why, in the mid-1990s, do many women still silence their private self?

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Within education the impact of this critique has been extremely uneven. Where some fields of study have been profoundly influenced by

non-positivist approaches (notably the sociology of education and curriculum studies), others have remained entrapped within the yoke of a fading positivist hegemony. This is particularly the case of educational administration which has displayed a remarkable degree of insulation and inertia in its adherence to conventional theoretical paradigms and methodologies. It is against this background of insularity and an overwhelming dependence upon structuralist accounts of school management and organization that David Corson's edited collection, *Discourse and Power in Educational Organizations*, has been written.

The distinctive contribution of this volume to the study of educational administration lies in its conception of how and through what means power is exercised within educational institutions. Unlike conventional approaches which focus upon power as a function of formal authority, hierarchy, and office, Corson and his collaborators are concerned with power as a primarily discursive phenomenon that operates through language. As Corson puts it: "Language is the vehicle for identifying, manipulating, and changing power relations between people" (p. 3). This approach is reflected in the contributions by other authors to this collection, particularly in their shared advocacy of detailed ethnographic analyses of gender and educational leadership (Shakeshaft & Perry); teacher-supervisor instructional conferences (Blase & Blase; and Waite); and the commodification of "experience-near classroom examples" (Wortham). In this way, we are presented with an analysis of the operation and effects of power as it is expressed through and organizes the everyday cultural transactions that constitute school management and administration. That is, power is understood as an essentially *relational* phenomenon that is primarily concerned with the formation of individual subjectivity.

Discourse and Power in Educational Organizations is a timely and important contribution to a growing, if still marginal, body of literature that is only now beginning to challenge the received orthodoxies that have constituted educational administration. In Britain a similar approach has been charted by Stephen Ball and his colleagues in their attempt to develop a "policy sociology", while in Australia Peter Watkins, Jane Kenway, and other members of Deakin University's faculty of education have produced critiques of educational administration using insights drawn from theoretical advances associated with postmodernism and political economy. However, while the "discursive turn" that *Discourse and Power in Educational Organizations* brings to the study of educational administration is to be welcomed, its highly abstract and theoretically

dense style must limit its accessibility to a wide readership which it would otherwise deserve. Despite this reservation, I am sure that it will provide an invaluable aide to researchers and practitioners concerned with developing alternative analytical frameworks for exploring contemporary forms of educational governance.

STEVE JORDAN *McGill University*

JAMES F. SLEVIN & ART YOUNG (EDITORS). *Critical Theory and the Teaching of Literature: Politics curriculum pedagogy.* Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), 1995. 369 pp., \$22.95. ISBN 0-8141-0963-2.

Slevin and Young's selection of essays represents what they consider "a vital exchange of views" on the issues raised at the NCTE-sponsored Summer Institutes for Teachers of Literature in 1991 and 1992. The articles selected include contributions by keynote speakers at the two conferences (Barbara Christian, Peter Elbow, Gerald Graff, Mary Louise Pratt, and Robert Scholes), additional essays which the editors describe as having been "incubated" during the conferences, and further collaborative and conversational explorations of the original ideas. The text as a whole investigates the crucial questions that several decades of literary theory and criticism have implicitly raised for academic teaching; as the contributing authors imagine – and report on – alternatives to the discipline's long history of believing "coverage" to be an appropriate pedagogical model, "the canon" an agreed-on certainty, "the professor" the exclusive agent of learning, and the classroom as a place where education is "delivered", the struggle with issues of personal and institutional politics, and with theoretical and practical implications for curriculum and pedagogy.

The text is divided into the three sections listed in the subtitle: *Politics curriculum pedagogy*, and each section includes a range of articles in a variety of styles and forms. Overall, the contributions are of very high quality, and though every exceptional essay cannot be mentioned by name, certain ones such as Mary Louise Pratt's "Daring to Dream: Re-Visioning Culture and Citizenship" and Eric Cheyfitz's "Redistribution and the Transformation of American Studies", are noteworthy for the historically-grounded and intellectually-challenging "bookends" they provide the *Politics* section of the text. Similarly, Gerald Graff's "Organizing the Conflicts in the Curriculum", an extension of his influential 1992 challenge to "teach the conflicts", and Wendy Bishop's "Attitudes and Expectations: How Theory in the Graduate Student (Teacher)

dense style must limit its accessibility to a wide readership which it would otherwise deserve. Despite this reservation, I am sure that it will provide an invaluable aide to researchers and practitioners concerned with developing alternative analytical frameworks for exploring contemporary forms of educational governance.

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Complicates the English Curriculum" provide the *curriculum* section with a useful balance between specific suggestions for alternative organizational structures and an examination of at least one potential "site of resistance" to such alternatives. The *pedagogy* section is likewise enriched by Peter Elbow's, "The War between Reading and Writing – and How to End It" and Kathleen McComick's "Reading Lessons and Then Some: Toward Developing Dialogues between Critical Theory and Reading Theory", which, especially in tandem, consider the practical and theoretical implications of a much greater emphasis on **writing** in the classroom, and the politically multiplex contexts in which writing and reading always occur.

As this survey already suggests, various of the volume's essays evidence a lively contemporary tendency to "slip" between categories. David Bleich's and Min-Zhan Lu's contributions to the *Politics* section, for instance, could as appropriately have been included under *pedagogy*, since Bleich's is a description of the unexpected gender theorizing that emerged in a graduate class made up primarily of male students, while Lu's is an account of the sequence of assignments with which she challenges her students to explore their own implicit theoretical frameworks. Similarly, Anne Ruggles Gere and Morris Young's essay in the *curriculum* section, which traces the political and economic influences on the publication and reception of three significant cultural texts, could equally appropriately have appeared in the *Politics* section. The Elbow and McCormick contributions described above, moreover, are excellent examples of the ambiguous straddling evident throughout the collection, between the theoretical justification of curricula and the practical requirements of the classroom.

Exceptions to the collection's high quality of writing and thinking are infrequent enough not to necessitate specific mention. A more pressing criticism is the occasional sense that ideas are echoing and re-echoing unnecessarily, which is an impression that may result from the fact that most of the contributors are working with a pre-existing relationship to both Graff's "teaching the conflicts" challenge and Pratt's concept of "the contact zone". Certainly James Phelan's hypothetical debate, "Teaching Theorizing/Theorizing Teaching", provides a usefully problematized perspective on Graff's position, and Janice M. Wolff's "Teaching in the Contact Zone: The Myth of Safe Houses" demonstrates how Pratt's ethnographic concepts are applicable to classroom practice. Despite their unabashedly American perspective, virtually all the essays collected here are directly relevant to Canadian academic

teaching (and indeed, Pratt's description of "the polyglot citizen" could serve as a positive deal for English- and French-Canadians of all vocations and political postures), since their common feature is a powerful commitment to introducing **students** as a vital presence in a professor's reflections on critical theory. Certainly, from Keith Hjortshøj's candid description of his mistaken assumptions about a composition student's ability to James E. Seitz's provocative account of the pleasures of student-writing, these essays describe wise, energetic, and committed responses to the challenges that critical and literary theory pose for academic teaching throughout North America.

KATHLEEN VENEMA *University of Waterloo*

HENRY A. HUBERT. *Harmonious Perfection: The development of English studies in nineteenth-century anglo-Canadian colleges*. East Lansing: Michigan State UP, 1994. 215 pp. \$28.00 (Cloth). ISBN 0-87013-342-X.

At the time of its publication in 1983, James Berlin's *Writing Instruction in Nineteenth-Century American Colleges* was, as Donald Stewart aptly noted in the foreword, one of an "astonishingly small list of works of serious scholarship" that offered composition teachers a sense of their discipline's history. Before Berlin, it must have seemed even to writing teachers as though the role of university English" was primarily and preeminently the study of literature (especially the canon). Who, after all, would argue that the main concern of English departments should be rhetoric – or *want* to teach it – when rhetoric, reduced to "Freshman Comp," amounted to little more than dull "themes" of reluctant writers? But Berlin made clear that it had not always been thus, even in America. Steeped in knowledge of classical rhetoric, alert to the ways in which socio-economic conditions and epistemological assumptions shape pedagogy, Berlin made a convincing case that Freshman Comp was only a dark night in the rhetorician's soul – the result of pressure from a professionalizing middle class, the product of an assembly line philosophy of education, the "triumph of the scientific and technical world view." This historical perspective gave writing teachers a fresh sense of possibilities.

Writing Instruction in Nineteenth-Century American Colleges is a hard act to follow. Nonetheless, it is Berlin's study with which Henry Hubert's *Harmonious Perfection: The development of English studies in nineteenth-century anglo-Canadian colleges* will inevitably be compared – at least among compositionists and teachers of rhetoric, who seem to me his

teaching (and indeed, Pratt's description of "the polyglot citizen" could serve as a positive deal for English- and French-Canadians of all vocations and political postures), since their common feature is a powerful commitment to introducing **students** as a vital presence in a professor's reflections on critical theory. Certainly, from Keith Hjortshøj's candid description of his mistaken assumptions about a composition student's ability to James E. Seitz's provocative account of the pleasures of student-writing, these essays describe wise, energetic, and committed responses to the challenges that critical and literary theory pose for academic teaching throughout North America.

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main audience. The obvious reason for this comparison is that Hubert, like Berlin, has written the first book-length history of post-secondary writing instruction in his country. But the books are also similar in more subtle respects; though *Harmonious Perfection* is, in name and in substance, concerned as much with the teaching of English literature as it is with instruction in rhetoric and composition, the author is not an "English prof" but a "writing teacher" (the names tell us much about how each profession sees itself). As a result, his angle of vision is in many ways similar to Berlin's.

Hubert's thesis is that English studies in Canada emerged from contrasting educational philosophies, both imported from overseas. Early in the nineteenth century, the idealistic English philosophy stressed a classical, liberal education for an elite student body; the more practical Scottish philosophy stressed utility in education, drew on a strong tradition of teaching rhetoric, and opened its doors to a much wider range of students. The incompatibility of these philosophies presented few problems for a nation building from the ground up; in Canada, the Scots and the English simply established their separate Presbyterian and Anglican colleges, the one emphasizing composition and vernacular speech, the other training students to read and translate classical authors. But towards the middle of the century, universities became secularized. The emphasis changed from "transmitting Christian values" to "educating critical minds" and searching for "an alternative to the Christian tradition." Whole institutions were handed over to secular authorities. At the same time, interest in national literatures was increasing throughout Great Britain. The resulting "literacy-cultural orientation" determined the focus of English studies in Canada right up to the middle of the twentieth century. By the late 1880s, Canada's version of the age-old battle between poetics and rhetoric was over: "English lit" was in; rhetoric and composition were most definitely out.

Hubert, like Berlin, openly regrets the loss of the rhetorical tradition. Occasionally, in detailing the territorial struggles between rhetoric and poetics in Anglo-Canadian colleges, he laments "the jealous influence of English literature." On the whole, however, his perspective seems unbiased, and his treatment of the contending forces fairly balanced. Less satisfying is the style of Hubert's book, which at times reads like a doctoral dissertation. Clearly, a great deal of good research has gone into *Harmonious Perfection*, but one wishes the author had used it to better effect. On the rare occasions when Hubert enlivens his narrative with a telling anecdote or quotation ("When a man gets into literary

criticism at large," said Alexander Bain, "the temptation to deviate into matters that have no value for the predominating end of a teacher of English, is far beyond the lure of alcohol, tobacco, or any sensual stimulation.), one is reminded of all that the book might have been. Unfortunately, the people and pedagogies central to Hubert's history remain dry and all too distant.

That said, *Harmonious Perfection* is still a valuable contribution to studies in both English and rhetoric, one that fills a significant gap in our historical knowledge of post-secondary education in Canada. Yet important gaps in our knowledge remain, since the book's narrative takes us only to the edge of western Canada and the turn of the twentieth century. It is to be hoped that Hubert will now go on, as Berlin did in *Rhetoric and Reality*, to examine how educational developments in his nation's formative years played themselves out in the century following.

BRIAN TURNER, *University of Winnipeg*

BOOKS RECEIVED

The following is a list of books received by MCGILL JOURNAL OF EDUCATION / REVUE DES SCIENCES DE L'ÉDUCATION DE MCGILL. Not all the books received can be reviewed; however, reviews of some of these books may appear in this issue or in future issues. We wish to thank all of the publishers who have sent us review copies.

Booth, David & Reczuch, Karen. (1996). *The dust bowl*. (Ages 4-9). Toronto, ON: Kids Can Press (Tele: 416 925-5437; Fax 416 960-5437). 32 pp. Hard cover \$16.95. ISBN 1-55074-295-7.

Carroll, Michael Thomas (Ed.). (1996). *No small world: Visions and revisions of world literature*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English (Tele: 217 328-3870; Fax: 217 328-0977). 211 pp. \$19.95 (NCTE members \$14.95). ISBN 0-8141-3368-1.

Davis, Aubrey. (1996). *Sody Salleratus*. (Ages 3-7). Toronto, ON: Kids Can Press (Tele: 416 925-5437; Fax 416 960-5437). 32 pp. Hard cover \$14.95. ISBN 1-55074-281-7.

Edwards, Richard, Hanson, Ann, & Raggatt, Peter (Eds.). (1996). *Boundaries of adult learning*. New York. Routledge (Tele: 212 244-3336; Fax: 212 564-7854). 303 pp. \$22.95. ISBN 0-415-13614-8.

criticism at large," said Alexander Bain, "the temptation to deviate into matters that have no value for the predominating end of a teacher of English, is far beyond the lure of alcohol, tobacco, or any sensual stimulation.), one is reminded of all that the book might have been. Unfortunately, the people and pedagogies central to Hubert's history remain dry and all too distant.

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Edwards, Richard, Hanson, Ann, & Raggatt, Peter (Eds.). (1996). *Boundaries of adult learning*. New York. Routledge (Tele: 212 244-3336; Fax: 212 564-7854). 303 pp. \$22.95. ISBN 0-415-13614-8.

Emberley, Peter. (1996). *Zero tolerance: Hot button politics in Canada's universities*. Toronto, ON: Penguin Books. (10 Alcorn Avenue, Toronto ON M4V 3B2). 309pp. ISBN 0-14-025347-5.

Flurkey, Alan D. & Meyer, Richard J. (1994). *Under the whole language umbrella: Many cultures, many voices*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English (Tele: 217 328-3870; Fax: 217 328-0977). 184 pp. \$19.95 (NCTE members \$14.95). ISBN 0-8141-3051-8.

Fulkerson, Richard. (1996). *Teaching the argument in writing*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English (Tele: 217 328-3870; Fax: 217 328-0977). 184 pp. \$19.95 (NCTE members \$14.95). ISBN 0-8141-0190-9.

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Hitchcock, Graham & Hughes, David. (1996). *Research and the teacher. A qualitative introduction to school-based research*, 2nd ed. New York. Routledge (Tele: 212 244-3336; Fax: 212 564-7854). 370 pp. \$19.95. ISBN 0-415-10102-6.

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McClure, Amy A. & Kristo, Janice V. (Eds.). (1996). *Books that invite talk, wonder, and play*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English (Tele: 217 328-3870; Fax: 217 328-0977). 335 pp. \$19.95 (NCTE members \$14.95). ISBN 0-8141-0370-7.

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Parasnis, Ila (Ed.). (1996). *Cultural and language diversity and the deaf experience*. New York: Cambridge University Press. (40 West 20th Street, New York, NY 10011-4211). 306 pp. Hard Cover \$49.95. ISBN 0-521-45477-8.

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Hare, William & Portelli, John P. (Eds.). *Philosophy of Education: Introductory readings* (2nd Edition). Calgary, AB: Detselig Enterprises (Tele: 403 283-0900; Fax: 403 283-6947). 381 pp. ISBN 1055059-136-3.

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Sullivan, Patricia & Dautermann, Jennie (Eds.) (1996). *Electronic literacies in the workplace: Technologies of writing*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English (Tele: 217 328-3870; Fax: 217 328-0977). 347 pp. \$26.95 (NCTE members \$19.95). ISBN 0-8141-1307-9.

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Tonks, Douglas. (1996). *Teaching AIDS*. New York. Routledge (Tele: 212 244-3336; Fax: 212 564-7854). 195 pp. Hard cover: \$49.95; Paper: \$23.95. ISBN 0-415-90875-2.

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Constructing Professional Knowledge in Teaching: A narrative of change and development.

New York: Teachers College Press (1995). (By: Claudia A. Mitchell, 106).

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Discourse and Power in Educational Organizations.

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Our Own Agendas: Autobiographical essays by women associated with McGill University.

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Harmonious Perfection: The development of English studies in nineteenth-century anglo-Canadian colleges.

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(By: Kathleen Venema, 353).

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San Francisco: Jossey-Bass (1996). (By: Anastasios Karagiannis, 218).

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An Introduction to Classroom Observation.

London & New York: Routledge (1994). (By: Jon G. Bradley, 217).

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ERRATA

In the references following Morris and Leblanc's paper, *Multiple Intelligences: Profiling dominant intelligences of grade eight children*, published in this journal, Vol. 31 No. 2, the second author (J.P. Dionne) was omitted in the first two listings on page 138. They should have been printed as:

Morris, C., & Dionne, J.P. (1993b, June). *A qualitative analysis of Gardner's dimensions for intermediate students*. Paper presented at the 21st annual meeting of The Canadian Society for the Study of Education, Carleton University, Ottawa.

Morris, C., & Dionne, J.P. (1993c, December). *Perceived cognitive interests by grade eight pupils within Howard Gardner's framework*. Paper presented at the 35th annual meeting of The Ontario Educational Research Council, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, Ontario. (ONTERIS Microfiche Reproduction Service No. 95-05970).

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Hare, William & Portelli, John P. (Eds.). *Philosophy of Education: Introductory readings* (2nd Edition). Calgary, AB: Detselig Enterprises (Tele: 403 283-0900; Fax: 403 283-6947). 381 pp. ISBN 1055059-136-3.

Raggatt, Peter, Edwards, Richard, & Small, Nick (Eds.). (1996). *The learning society*. New York. Routledge (Tele: 212 244-3336; Fax: 212 564-7854). 302 pp. \$19.95. ISBN 0-415-13615-6.

Root, Robert L. Jr. & Steinbert, Michael. (1996). *Those who do, can: Teachers writing, writers teaching: A sourcebook*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English (Tele: 217 328-3870; Fax: 217 328-0977). 264 pp. \$26.95 (NCTE members \$19.95). ISBN 0-8141-1860-7.

Sullivan, Patricia & Dautermann, Jennie (Eds.) (1996). *Electronic literacies in the workplace: Technologies of writing*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English (Tele: 217 328-3870; Fax: 217 328-0977). 347 pp. \$26.95 (NCTE members \$19.95). ISBN 0-8141-1307-9.

Thom, Douglas J. (1996). *Leadership worldwide: The christian conscience factor*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Council for Educational Administration. (Order through HKCEA c/o CMA Choi Cheung Kok Prevocational School, 1, Tsing Hoi Circuit, Tuen Mun, NT, Hong Kong, or D.J. Thom, Faculty of Education, Lakehead University, 955 Oliver Road, Thunder Bay, ON P7B 5E1, Fax: 807 344-6807). 157 pp. ISBN 0-88663-017-7.

Tonks, Douglas. (1996). *Teaching AIDS*. New York. Routledge (Tele: 212 244-3336; Fax: 212 564-7854). 195 pp. Hard cover: \$49.95; Paper: \$23.95. ISBN 0-415-90875-2.

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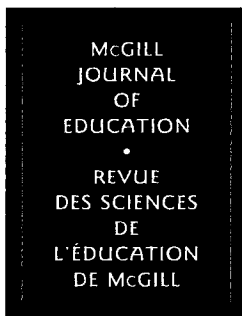
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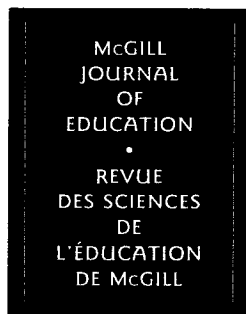
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