

ABSTRACT

THE PARENT REPORT: AN EXAMPLE OF THE USE OF COMPARATIVE EDUCATION IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING

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This study in comparative education examines the work of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec (Parent Commission) with a view to evaluating the role played by foreign educational ideas and practices on the recommendations of the Commission.

The method employed was to study the Parent Report, the working papers of the Commission and the foreign visits made by members of the Commission. The interview technique was employed to place the documentary information in its proper perspective.

The writer hopes that he has been able to establish that the Parent Commission adopted many educational ideas from abroad but only when these ideas suited the aim which they had set for Quebec's educational system.

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IN COMPARATIVE EDUCATION**

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A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
In Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements
For the Degree of Master of Arts
Faculty of Education
McGill University

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Montreal, Quebec
September, 1968

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to acknowledge the co-operation which he has received from many people and to thank all of them.

Particular thanks are due to the author's advisor, Dr. Roger Magnuson, for his interest in this project. His suggestions and co-operation were greatly appreciated.

The advice received from Professor Reginald Edwards, who first encouraged the writer to undertake this project, is gratefully acknowledged.

The writer would also like to thank those members of the Parent Commission and of its staff who were kind enough to grant him interviews.

Finally, the writer is greatly indebted to his wife for her patience, co-operation and invaluable aid throughout this project.

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INTRODUCTION

The use of comparative education in educational planning is an intriguing possibility. By studying educational practices in other countries, planners should be able to get the benefit of the experience already gained. Such a procedure would greatly help to reduce the risks inherent in planning educational change.

On the other hand, it must be realised that borrowing from others can be a dangerous thing if there are no guiding principles to aid in selection. There are a number of unfortunate examples of the harm done to a local culture by indiscriminate borrowing from others. In order to avoid this danger it is essential that the planners have a clear aim in mind, and that they have a deep understanding of the socio-economic context in which they are operating. They must also be able to grasp the important factors which allowed a nation to develop certain features of its educational system.

In many instances existing traditions stand in the way of accepting "foreign ideas" no matter what their intrinsic merit may be. Nor are planners free to disregard existing institutions if only because of the financial investment that they represent. For these reasons, reform in developed nations, short of revolution, foreign occupation

or war, usually takes the form of modification of the existing system rather than outright replacement. In these instances, trial and error may be one of the best ways of developing new concepts.

In the developing nations a different situation exists. Where a system of education has not had a chance to establish itself, borrowing from others is almost inevitable if rapid progress is to be achieved. Of course, in such instances, no one would pretend that the local socio-economic system will not be upset. But in any case, educational reform should be only one aspect of an overall plan aimed at changing the status quo, at improving socio-economic conditions.

Although a provincial educational system existed in Quebec, it did not meet the requirements of modern North American society. For this reason the people of Quebec have recently set aside well worn traditions in favour of a brand new system of education. The radical change this represents is a part of what has been baptized the "quiet revolution". It forms a major component of reforms which promise to affect directly the lives of the more than five million inhabitants of the province, of whom 80% are French-speaking (1961 census).

Behind the changes being implemented in Quebec's education lies a plan. The plan takes the form of a Report made by the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education

(the Parent Report). It was brought out between the years 1963 and 1966. The Parent Report is of interest to comparative educators for several reasons. First, it is an exercise in educational planning. Second, it contains evidence of planning based on extensive use of studies of educational ideas and practices from outside Quebec.

Statement of Purpose

It is the purpose of this study to examine the Parent Report as a document in comparative education with the aim of evaluating the role played by foreign educational ideas and practices on the recommendations of the Commission.

Sources of Information

The main sources of information were the Parent Report itself and the working papers of the Royal Commission held in the Archives of the Quebec Ministry of Education. The interview technique was employed with some members of the Commission and its staff in order to supplement and clarify the documents and to place them in their proper perspective.

A Unique Contribution

This study represents a unique contribution in that it is the first time that research has been done on the Parent Report as a whole and on those aspects of the

Report which are the concern of comparative education in particular. It is also the first time that anyone has consulted the working papers of the Commission for research purposes. Other studies or dissertations on the Parent Report which might serve as useful reference material do not exist, to our knowledge, at the present time.

Hypotheses

In addition to its main purpose, this paper examines a number of hypotheses:

1. That the members of the Commission reached consensus on educational aims for Quebec before determining the usefulness of educational ideas and practices from abroad; that these aims were chosen by the Commissioners themselves and not imposed on the Commission from outside.
2. That the Commissioners found the existing educational practices inadequate for achieving the aims that they had adopted for Quebec's educational system.
3. That the Commissioners did not let the fact that some countries might be following educational aims different from those of the Commission stand in the way of inquiring into educational practices in those countries.
4. That foreign visits were undertaken in order to get first hand knowledge of educational practices and in order to find working solutions to a number of particular educational problems, actual or anticipated.

BACKGROUND FOR CHANGE

A Province in Isolation

Well up to the 1960's Canada's Province of Quebec managed to function and to maintain the cultural identity of its French-speaking majority, but it did so in the face of increasing difficulties. This state of affairs existed because Quebec had developed a self-contained system of education which met the minimum requirements of training personnel for government and church, and of assuring the transmission of cultural values from one generation to the next.

French-speaking Quebec was able to maintain itself after a fashion, but it was not able to develop to the point where its culture could flourish completely unaided. Signs of weakness could be seen in its failure to absorb immigrants who went instead to swell the growing numbers of English-speaking Quebecers.¹

With the help of other French-speaking nations,

¹Report of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec, under the chairmanship of Mgr. Parent (5 vols.) (Quebec: Government of Quebec, 1963-66), IV, p. 109.

more particularly that of France, it has been possible for Quebec to draw on large enough resources to help counter-balance the numerical disadvantage under which it exists in North America. After the conquest in 1759 Quebec was largely cut off from its cultural sources in France and from that time on was forced to concentrate on preserving its way of life, at once Roman Catholic and French, in a predominantly Anglo-Saxon context. The collapse of France in 1939 and its slow recovery in the postwar years threw Quebec more and more on its own relatively meagre resources. In such a situation it is often easier to rely on isolation rather than on excellence to maintain cultural identity. Such an attitude developed in Quebec and was reflected in political life, which was conservative and isolationist, just as much as in the school system, which tended to shun innovations and to fear any ideas from outside which might upset the status quo.

While it may be possible for a culture to flourish in isolation, it does so at the risk of being backward in some respects. Quebec's commitment to the past led inevitably to its falling further and further behind its neighbours, economically as well as politically, to the point where it no longer became possible to hope that survival of a French-speaking culture could continue unless radical steps were taken to modernize its educational system.

The Church's Role in Education

Although it has just been said that French-speaking Quebec had withdrawn within itself, it should be remembered that education in Quebec until recently has been very much under the aegis of the Roman Catholic Church. In many ways, therefore, changes in the Church meant changes in the education system in Quebec. The school system of the province reflected the values, social and moral, which the Church in Rome put forth from time to time, notably in the Encyclicals.

Control of education in Quebec by the Church was in fact so complete that the latter could do almost anything it pleased without arousing opposition from the government, other lay bodies, or the public in general. An example of this may be seen in the article of the School Code which provided that everyone who taught in a public school must have a teaching certificate except priests and members of religious orders.² A further illustration is the fact that while a regulation of the Catholic Committee of the Council of Public Instruction provided that principals of normal schools (state owned and operated) be appointed by order of the Lieutenant-Governor in Council on the recommendation of the Catholic Committee,³ in actual practice they were

²Loi concernant l'instruction publique, Chapitre 59, S.R.Q., 1941 avec amendements jusqu'au 1er juillet 1950, Art. 68.

³Reglements du Comité Catholique du Conseil de l'Instruction Publique, 1er juillet 1961, Art. 213.

appointed on the recommendation of their bishop and were all either priests or members of religious orders, some without adequate training for their position.⁴

It seems sometimes as though the Church had found in Quebec that fertile field which had been lost in France after 1789. Reform of education in Quebec was indeed impossible, short of revolution, without the collaboration of a significant number of enlightened and influential ecclesiastical authorities.

Seeds of Change

With a background such as that just described, it seems improbable that Quebec's system of education could easily evolve to meet the following requirements:

1. Pass from church control to state control.
2. Move from a system geared to producing an élite to one serving the needs of the whole population.
3. Become a self-supporting and dynamic vehicle for French culture in North America.
4. Meet the requirements of a modern technically based urban civilization rather than the rural based society for which it had been designed.
5. Find a working compromise which would satisfy the requirements of the English-speaking minority within the province.

The magnitude of the task which the above changes

⁴Minutes of the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in the Province of Quebec, under the chairmanship of Mgr. Parent, July 7, 1961.

represent, combined with the inertia resulting from poor leadership, public ignorance and the active opposition of vested interests made drastic change impossible until 1961.

Many factors, however, combined to create a climate favourable to a spirit of reform in Quebec after 1960. One of these was undoubtedly the reform movement within the Roman Catholic Church inspired by Pope John XXIII which led to convening the Council, Vatican II (1962 to 1965). In its declaration, Gravissimum Educationis, Vatican II Council sets out clearly the responsibility of the state in matters of education:

The duty of dispensing education, which belongs in the first place to the family, requires the aid of the whole of society. Besides the rights of parents and of the educators to whom they confide a part of their task, there are definite obligations and rights which belong to the civil society, which is responsible for organizing what is necessary for the temporal common good.⁵

and further on:

It is also the role of the state to see that all citizens may participate properly in cultural life and be suitably prepared to exercise the rights and duties of citizens. The state, therefore, must ensure the right of children to an adequate school education, supervise the capacity of teachers, the studies and health of children, and in general, develop the whole school system.⁶

The Council established a new open-minded attitude

⁵L'Education Chrétienne: Déclaration conciliaire "Gravissimum Educationis" promulguée par S.S. Paul VI, le 28 octobre 1965 (Montréal, Fides, 1965), p. 7 (translated).

⁶Ibid., p. 9.

towards social reform and collaboration with others which is reflected in Pope John XXIII's encyclical Mater et Magister.⁷ Because of the ultramontane character of the Quebec church, the Rome reforms had a profound impact on the outlook of the clergy in the province. It is not an exaggeration to say that within a few years the Quebec church was transformed from an ultraconservative to a liberal institution.

Mgr. Parent told the author⁸ that the Commission owes a great debt to Charles de Koninck, formerly a professor at Laval University and one of the Church's most progressive theologians who was instrumental in laying the foundation for many of the ideas expressed by Vatican II. De Koninck's interview with the Commissioners in June 1963⁹ enabled several of them to clarify their ideas on the role of the state in education in general and religious education in particular.

Furthermore, while much of Quebec's intellectual elite seemed to be operating in a traditionalist, pre-scientific, 19th century literary-philosophical atmosphere before 1960, an important exception must be made for the group at Laval University working under the leadership of

⁷S.S. John XXIII, Mater et Magister (Montréal: Fides, 1967).

⁸Interview with Mgr. Parent, May 27, 1968.

⁹Minutes of the Parent Commission, June 28, 1963.

the Rev. Georges-Henri Levesque, Dean of the Faculty of Social Science between 1943 and 1954. Along with Fathers Dion and O'Neil, Father Levesque challenged the long held view that the ideal society for Quebec was an agriculturally oriented one. They maintained that Quebec's future lay in the direction of industrialization and urban growth. In addition, they were not afraid to take the issue to the public at large even though it meant incurring the wrath of the deeply conservative government of Maurice Duplessis and of much of the hierarchy of the church. It is these men who sowed and nurtured the seed which produced the "quiet revolution" of the 1960's in the province of Quebec.

All the aforementioned is included in this work in order to show two things: that Quebec had become aware of the changes taking place in the world of education, and that it was ready to accept new ideas on their merit regardless of origin or source.

II

THE ROYAL COMMISSION

When the Liberal government took power in 1960, the reform of education was given high priority. To that end a Royal Commission was charged with the responsibility of examining the state of education in the province and recommending appropriate changes. An Act of the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly of the Province of Quebec, sanctioned on March 24, 1961 (Bill No. 31 of the 1960-61 session), established the Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education under the chairmanship of Mgr. Parent.

The mandate of the Parent Commission is clearly set out in Part I of the Act:

. . . to study the organization and financing of education in the Province of Quebec, report its findings and opinions and submit recommendations as regards measures to be taken to ensure the progress of education in the Province.

An Order in Council (no. 1031, dated April 21, 1961) named the following members of the Commission:

1. The Right Reverend Alphonse-Marie Parent, P.A.,
Vice-Rector of Laval University, Quebec.
President of the Commission.
2. Gérard Fillion,
Managing Director of the newspaper "Le Devoir",
Montreal.
Vice-President of the Commission.

3. Paul Larocque,
Assistant Secretary of Aluminum Ltd.,
Montreal.
4. David C. Munroe,
Director of the Institute of Education,
McGill University, Montreal.
5. Marie-Laurent de Rome,
Religious of the Holy Cross, Professor of
Philosophy at Basile Moreau College, Montreal.
6. Jeanne Lapointe,
Professor at the Faculty of Letters,
Laval University, Quebec.
7. John McIlhone,
Assistant Director of Studies,
The Catholic School Commission of Montreal.
8. Guy Rocher,
Director of the Department of Sociology,
University of Montreal.

In addition to the full members, Arthur Tremblay, Assistant Director of the School of Pedagogy and Orientation, Laval University, and Technical Counsellor for the Department of Youth, Quebec, was appointed associate member, but without the right to vote.

Although not voting members, some members of the staff of the Commission played an important part in the deliberations of the Commission. These were the Secretary, Louis-Philippe Audet (professor of history at the Faculty of Education, University of Montreal), the Associate Secretaries, Michel Giroux and C. W. Dickson (member of the Protestant Committee of the Council of Public Instruction) and the Legal Advisor, Guy Houle.

In making its appointments, the Cabinet had to

ensure that the Commission reflected the bilingual and multi-confessional structure of Quebec society. It needed to give adequate weight to representation from the Roman Catholic clergy. The changing status of women in Quebec also had to be taken into consideration by the appointment of women commissioners.

It is to the credit of the government that it succeeded in meeting most of these requirements without unduly enlarging the membership of the Commission. It also managed to give an adequate voice to the business world in the persons of Gérard Filion and Paul Larocque.

We are, therefore, presented with the picture of a small group of men and women, representing most of the majority and minority interests in the province,¹ highly educated and cognizant of many of the ideas and practices in education throughout the Western world. They were assigned the task of inquiring into all aspects of education in the province and making recommendations for their improvement. How well they carried out their task and which methods they employed, is the main subject of this study.

¹Although not represented on the Commission, the Jewish community, an important one numerically in the Montreal area, was given the opportunity of making its views known through the person of Saul Hayes, Vice-President, Canadian Jewish Congress, interviewed by the Commission on February 26, 1962. (Minutes of the Commission, February 26, 1962).

III

THE PROCEEDINGS OF THE COMMISSION

The Parent Report itself does not give a true picture of the order in which the Commissioners examined and dealt with every question. A much better picture of the progress of the Commission can be gathered from examining its minutes.

Copies of the minutes of the Parent Commission which were found in the archives¹ extend from the first meeting held on May 16, 1961² to the one hundred and forty fifth, on February 12, 1965. Because the final two volumes (IV and V) of the Report were not presented to the government before March 1966, there is reason to believe that the archives are incomplete, in that they contain little material pertaining to 1965 and none to 1966. This is not too much of a handicap unless one wants to study the effects of the Report on the provincial elections of 1966. It is more than likely that some of the issues discussed during 1965 had a direct bearing on the elections.³

¹Archives of the Ministry of Education, 115 Côte de la Montagne, Quebec, Que.

²Meetings lasted two or three days each.

³Strangely enough, as early as April 4, 1962, the Minister of Education, Paul Gérin-Lajoie, had discussed with

With the copies of the minutes that are available it is possible to examine the day-to-day proceedings of the Commission over a period of three and a half years.⁴ At first the Commissioners were in considerable difficulty in coming to grips with the problem. They usually met for two or three days a week, and at first discussions seem to go full circle without reaching any useful conclusions. Bit by bit the Commissioners acquired the knack of working together, but it was not until March 1963, after their return from Europe that the Commission really began to function smoothly. In the minutes for December 27, 1962 one reads a remark by M. Fillion in which he finds it necessary to remind the members that the Report must be a joint effort representative of the entire Commission.⁵

Many things made it possible for the Commission to increase its rate of progress after 1963. For one, the first volume was submitted to the government in April 1963 and the Commission was fully committed to an extensive

the Commission the problem of publishing the Report in sections. He had asked for a report on the administrative structures by October 1962 so that it would not become an election issue. (Minutes of the Commission, April 2, 1962). Unfortunately, this warning was not sufficiently heeded and the final volumes of the Report became very much an election issue which may have contributed a major share to the defeat of the Liberal government which had initiated educational reform.

⁴For a list of references to foreign education in the Minutes of the Commission, see Appendix B.

⁵Minutes of the Parent Commission, December 27, 1962.

reform in the direction it indicated. For another, the members had come to know one another very well, they had learned to divide up the work among themselves and to put their ideas on paper before discussing them. Delegating some research hastened the work of the Commission.⁶

The work of the Commission may be roughly divided into broad categories according to a number of priorities in time sequence:

1. Setting up a Ministry of Education and determining the scope and powers of a Superior Council of Education.
2. Deciding what kind of educational system would be best for Quebec.
3. Examining the existing system and other systems of education.
4. Examining up-to-date teaching methods and coordinating them with current thinking on child psychology.
5. Financing the reforms and providing for their continuation.

The first category is clearly the subject of Volume I, the fourth of Volumes II and III and the fifth of Volumes IV and V. The second and third permeate all the work of the Commission from beginning to end, but the overall aims had to be set before any real reform could be recommended.

The broad categories just listed may give the impression that the Commission's work was systematically organized

⁶See Appendix A, "List of Work Done for the Commission".

and carried out. This could be misleading since the categories indicate a trend rather than a strict order of priorities. The minutes seem to indicate that the Commission had great difficulty in arriving at a formula which would establish priorities and sequence in their discussions.

IV

REFERENCES IN THE REPORT TO OTHER SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION

References in Volume I

There is a wealth of material in the Parent Report itself to support the hypothesis that the Commissioners were aware of what was going on in the world with regards to education.

Volume I of the Report, "The Structure of the Educational System at the Provincial Level", has a paragraph which lists those countries having undergone or being on the point of instituting radical changes in their systems of education. Reference is made to the Education Act 1944 (U.K.), the Langevin-Wallon Commission of 1945 (France), changes in Belgium and increased scope given to the United States Office of Education.

The next paragraph goes on to mention briefly that eight out of ten Canadian provinces have had commissions of inquiry on education.² That the Parent Commission had access to, and made use of these reports in quite evident

¹Parent Report, I, p. 73.

²Ibid.

since they are quoted, chapter and verse, when giving reasons for establishing an independent Council of Education.³ Mention is also made of a school management system copied on that of the State of New York.⁴

References in Volume II

Volume II, "The Structures and the Levels of Education", deals in pedagogical structures, and makes constant reference to other systems of education or to ideas which are in the forefront of contemporary thought in the field of education or other related areas.

The following table gives some indication of the importance of these references.

³Parent Report, I, p. 107.

⁴Ibid., p. 82.

TABLE 1

REFERENCES TO EDUCATION OUTSIDE QUEBEC IN VOLUME II

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Culture	C. P. Snow, <u>The Two Cultures and the Scientific Revolution</u>	U.K.	9
Aims of education	<u>General Education in a Free Society</u> , Report of the Harvard Committee	U.S.A.	11
Comprehensive or Composite High School	mention	U.K. U.S.A. Sweden Canadian provinces	16
Teacher training	James B. Conant, <u>The Education of American Teachers</u> <u>Higher Education</u> , Report of the "Committee on Higher Education" (Robbins Report)	U.S.A. U.K.	18
Technical education	mention	German "Laender" U.S.S.R. U.K. France U.S.A.	32

TABLE 1 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Minimum compulsory school attendance	mention	Europe U.S.A.	35
University entrance requirements	mention	Austria East Germany West Germany Belgium Denmark Scotland Spain France U.S.A. Greece Ireland Japan Luxembourg Netherlands Norway Sweden Finland Switzerland Hungary Argentina Brazil Canadian provinces	39
Primary school, length	mention	France U.S.A. U.K. Ontario	40

TABLE 1 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Child psychology	Piaget	Switzerland	41-42
Primary school, aim	Alfred North Whitehead	U.S.A.	44
Secondary school, options, electives	mention	France	50
Secondary school, technical	W. O. Lester Smith, <u>Education, an Introductory Survey; Better Opportunities in Technical Educa- tion</u> , H.M.S.O. publication	U.K.	54
Psychological factors in education	Willard C. Olson, <u>Les fondements psychologiques des programmes scolaires</u>	UNESCO	60
Higher education, aim	Alfred North Whitehead, <u>The Aims of Education</u>	U.S.A.	63
Higher education, technical	mention, M.I.T. mention, "Centre national de Recherche scientifique	U.S.A. France	62
Higher education,	<u>Higher Technological Education</u> , H.M.S.O. publication	U.K.	65
Pre-school education	mention "Organisation Mondiale d'Education Pre-scolaire" (O.M.E.P.)	U.K., U.S.A. France	77

TABLE 1 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Child psychology	Paul Osterrieth, <u>Introduction à la psychologie de l'enfant</u>	France	78
Pre-school education, origins	mention	France Switzerland Germany Italy Belgium England U.S.A.	79
Pre-school attendance and age of admission	mention	France U.K. U.S.S.R. U.S.A. Ontario	81
"Learning by doing" "activist school"	mention	Germany U.K. Switzerland	90
Teacher work load	mention Langevin-Wallon Commission	France	95
Primary school methods	mention, Cuisenaire-Gattegno (arithmetic), Ward, (music)		97
Primary school, age of admission	mention	Ontario Nova Scotia France Netherlands	103

TABLE 1 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Primary school, age of admission (cont'd)	mention	Germany Scotland England	103
Timetables	mention	France	106
Team teaching	mention	U.S.A.	110
Teacher training, visits to foreign countries	mention	England Germany Switzerland France U.S.A.	117
Teacher training, activist methods	"Recommendation 41: We recommend that the Department and the teachers' organizations arrange for training periods of several months' duration in various countries, especially England, Germany, Switzerland, France and the U.S., for the benefit of teachers who would later be cap- able of directing pilot-schools applying activist methods of education."	England Germany Switzerland France U.S.A.	122
Secondary education, length	mention	Sweden U.S.S.R.	123

TABLE 1 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Secondary education, "composite"	mention	France U.S.A. England Sweden Canadian provinces	131, 132
Pre-university	<u>15 to 18</u> , Report of the Advisory Council for Education (Crowther Report)	England	169
Specialist courses	Crowther Report	England	171
Pre-university colleges	mention <u>Summary of the Report of the</u> <u>"Groupe d'Etude des Grandes</u> <u>Ecoles"</u> (Boullache Report)	England France	177
High School	James B. Conant, <u>The American</u> <u>High School Today</u>	U.S.A.	183
Junior Colleges	mention, California	U.S.A.	183
Preparatory studies	mention	France	197
B.A., B.Sc., M.A., Ph.D.	mention, Robbins Report	England	198

TABLE 1 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Universities, first degree	mention	England Scotland U.S.A. France	200
Universities, degree specialization	mention Crowther and Robbins Reports	England	204
University development	<u>University Development 1957-1962</u> Report of the University Grants Committee	U.K.	218
University libraries	mention University of Toronto	Ontario	233
University, academic failure rate	Robbins Committee	U.K. U.S.A. France	234
Incorporation of Engineering and Administration schools into universities	mention	Europe	237
Continuing education, correspondence courses	mention	U.S.S.R.	238
University administration	mention	North America	241

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Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Student participation	Alfred North Whitehead	U.S.A.	242
Affiliated Institutions	mention University of London	U.K.	243
Teacher training in universities	Robbins Report	U.K.	275
Teacher training, specialization	J. B. Conant, <u>The Education of American Teachers</u> Robbins Report mention Instituts pédagogiques de l'enseignement secondaire (IPES) Certificat d'aptitude à l'enseignement secondaire (CAPES) mention	U.S.A. U.K. Canadian provinces France Belgium	276
Teacher training	J. B. Conant mention	U.S.A. France U.K. Canadian provinces	281
"Ecoles Normales Supérieures"	IPES, CAPES	France	293
Teacher Training Colleges	Robbins Report J. B. Conant	U.K.	305
Practice teaching	J. B. Conant	U.S.A.	311

TABLE 1 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Educational innovation	mention	U.S.A. England Germany	313
Teachers' needs, "credits"	J. B. Conant	U.S.A.	317
Higher education	mention	U.S.S.R. France England	331
Education of women	Carnegie Corporation mention	U.S.A. U.S.S.R. China	331
Exceptional children	<u>UNESCO, Statistics on Special Education, 1961; Mackie & Dunn, College and University Programs for the Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children, U.S. Office of Education; William M. Cruikshank and G. Orville Johnson, Education of Exceptional Children and Youth</u> mention	UNESCO U.S.A. France Europe Africa	339

References in Volume III

Volume III, "The Programmes of Study and the Educational Services", also makes constant reference to teaching methods and practices developed abroad. Most of these are included in the following table.

TABLE 2

REFERENCES TO EDUCATION OUTSIDE QUEBEC IN VOLUME III

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
The child	Maria Montessori, <u>L'Enfant</u>		4
	Jean-Jacques Rousseau, <u>Emile</u>		
	J. and E. Dewey, <u>Les écoles de demain</u>		8
Verbal expression	mention, M.I.T.	U.S.A.	25
	mention	France	
Learning to read	mention, New York State	U.S.A.	32
Language teaching	<u>The Teaching of Modern Languages</u>	UNESCO	63
Syllabus	mention, Roger Mackin of the University of Edinburgh preparing an elementary school programme for Pakistan	Scotland	65
Musical training	mention	Germany	79
		U.K.	
	mention, Ward method	France	
		UNESCO	
Film education	mention	U.S.A.	93
		England	
		UNESCO	

TABLE 2 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Mathematics teaching	Organization for European Economic Co-operation (OEEC), Organization for Co-operation and Economic Development (OCED) mention	Europe	105
	Georges Cuisenaire, <u>Les nombres en couleurs</u>	U.S.S.R. Belgium	106
	Stanford Project, Madison Project, Illinois Project, Greater Cleveland Project	U.S.A.	107
	School Mathematics Study Group (SMSG)	U.S.A.	109
	University of Maryland Mathematics Project		
Mathematics teacher training	<u>Strategy for Schools, a Bow Group pamphlet</u>	England	110
	<u>Introduction des mathématiques modernes dans l'enseignement élémentaire</u> , G. Zadounaiski	France	111
Mathematics programme	Modern Mathematics Programme (OEEC)	Europe	112
Science teaching	UNESCO manual for the teaching of science, 1957 mention	UNESCO U.S.S.R.	117 120
Physics	Physical Science Study Committee (PSSC)	U.S.A.	120

TABLE 2 - Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Biology	American Institute of Biological Sciences; Biological Sciences Curriculum Study (BSCS)	U.S.A.	121
Chemistry	American Chemical Society (CHEM Study) Chemical Bond Approach (CBA)	U.S.A.	122
Geography	<u>The Teaching of Geography</u> UNESCO, Paris, 1952	UNESCO	130
Social Science	Social Science Study Committee (SSSC)	U.S.A.	149
Technical education	Alfred North Whitehead, <u>The Aims of Education</u>	U.S.A.	164
Trade courses	mention	Canadian provinces	171
Moral education	<u>Half Our Future</u> , Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (Newsom Report) <u>General Education in a Free Society</u> , Report of the Harvard Committee <u>General Education in School and College</u> , Committee Report for Andover, Exeter, Lawrenceville, Harvard, Princeton and Yale	England U.S.A.	197

TABLE 2 Continued

Subject	Reference	Country	Page
Moral education continued	<u>Development of Moral and Spiritual Values through the Curriculum of California High Schools, California State Department of Education. Moral and Spiritual Values in Education, Los Angeles City School Publication.</u>	U.S.A.	197
	<u>Programmes et instructions commentées, MM. Labattre and Vernay</u>	France	
School Programmes	<u>Stages d'études régionaux sur les programmes scolaires de l'enseignement du premier degré en Europe occidentale, en Amérique latine et en Asie du Sud, UNESCO</u> <u>La revision des programmes scolaires UNESCO :</u> <u>Les fondements psychologiques des programmes scolaires, Willard C. Olson, UNESCO</u> <u>L'élaboration et la promulgation des programmes de l'enseignement primaire, UNESCO</u> <u>Programmes et plans d'études dans l'enseignement primaire, Robert Dottrens, UNESCO</u>	UNESCO	266

References in Volumes IV and V

Volumes IV and V deal with educational administration. Volume IV is subtitled "Religious and Cultural Diversity within a Unified Administration", and is concerned with denominational issues and with unifying the administrative structure. It deals with a situation peculiar to Quebec Province where foreign or other Canadian experience offers little or no parallel. There are consequently few if any references to other systems of education.

Volume V deals with educational finance, and offers some evidence of research by the Commission into educational finance elsewhere.

Under the title, "Educational Expenditure, a Social Investment",⁵ the Commission invokes studies by economists in many countries who have dealt with the economics of education. They mention the studies of Edding (Germany), Vaizey (England), Schultz (United States), Strumlin (U.S.S.R.), as well as studies made in France by the "Institut National de la Statistique et des Etudes Economiques". To quote the Parent Report:

The impossibility of making a comparative study of the cost of education in various countries is now generally recognized. Precise and reliable information is inadequate. That supplied by UNESCO, which has in the past been used for this purpose, is no longer viewed as a reliable source because of the errors to be found in the reports of that body as they apply to estimates of school attendance and educational expenditure.⁶

However, despite its reluctance to make a comparative

⁵Parent Report, V, p. 11

⁶Ibid., pp. 11, 12.

study of the costs of education in various countries, the commission does mention planning figures for the United States (James Killian), France (Commission de l'équipement scolaire, universitaire et sportif) and the United Kingdom (Robbins Report).⁷

With respect to the rest of Canada, due mention is made of the Economic Council of Canada's first Annual Review.⁸ Table XIII (Volume V, page 16 of the Parent Report) shows the population 10 years of age and over not attending school, by highest grade attended for Canada and the provinces, 1961. The source given is the Census of Canada, 1961, Schooling by Age Groups, Bulletin, 1.3-6, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa, Tables 102-103. This table is used to compare Quebec's school attendance record with that of the rest of Canada. There is also a reference to William J. McCordic, Financing Education in Canada, Ottawa, Canadian Conference on Education, 1961.⁹

In the section of Volume V which deals with university finance, reference is made to the Robbins Committee¹⁰ and to Financing Higher Education in Canada, Report of a Committee to the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada, University of Toronto Press, 1965.¹¹

The last important reference to educational ideas

⁷Parent Report, V, p. 12.

⁸Ibid., pp. 14, 15.

¹⁰Ibid., pp. 166, 167.

⁹Ibid., p. 20.

¹¹Ibid., p. 164.

from outside Quebec which appears in the Parent Report is one made to Alfred North Whitehead's Adventures of Ideas quoted by James M. Paton in Professional Status of Teachers, Canadian Conference on Education, 1961.¹² This reference is made in connection with the role of teachers' associations.

Importance of the References

A straight listing of foreign references in the Parent Report is a good indication of the extent to which the Commissioners went in their examination of current educational ideas and practices. A further examination of the use to which these references are put also helps to determine their relative importance.

From the foreign references in the Parent Report three categories of ideas seem to have had a major influence:

1. At the primary school level, the ideas of Piaget in the field of child psychology.
2. At the secondary school level, the new programmes developed in the United States for the study of science (PSSC, CHEM Study, etc.).
3. At all levels, but particularly at the pre-university, university undergraduate and post-graduate levels, the influence of the British reports appears predominant with respect to all aspects of school organization.¹³

¹²Ibid., p. 209.

¹³The British Reports are: Fifteen to Eighteen, Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England) (London: H.M.S.O., 1959). (Crowther Report); Half Our Future, Report of the Central Advisory Council for Education (England) (London: H.M.S.O., 1963). (Newsom Report). Higher Education, Report of the "Committee on Higher Education" (London: H.M.S.O., 1963). (Robbins Report).

V

REFERENCES TO COMPARATIVE EDUCATION
IN THE MINUTES AND OTHER PAPERS
OF THE COMMISSION

Comparative education as such played a minor role in the work of the Parent Commission. This does not mean that a great deal of effort was not made to become acquainted with what was going on in education elsewhere but that comparative education as a discipline did not become a major research tool of the Commission.

In July 1961, Guy Rocher suggested a comparative study be done with other Canadian provinces.¹ This proposal does not seem to have been taken up as a project in comparative education, although the Commissioners did study and compare the Reports of the Royal Commissions in British Columbia, Alberta, Manitoba and Ontario.²

In the Minutes for February 16, 1962, David C. Munroe tabled a list entitled "Suggested Studies of Foreign Systems of Education". There appears to have been some effort to carry out these studies. Among the documents of the Commission is a paper entitled "Etudes comparative de

¹Minutes of the Parent Commission, July 7, 1961.

²Ibid., August 10, 1961.

quelques systèmes scolaires" by Dominique Lefebvre. This document is translated and annexed as Appendix C. It compares some aspects of the French, Belgian and Dutch systems of education, but deals mainly with the denominational problem and state support for private or Catholic schools.

Among the work listed as done for the Commission (see Appendix A) there is mention of a study on Comparative Education done by a Rev. Father Donne. Unfortunately, no copy of this document could be found among the archives of the Commission.

Extracts and photostats made from the UNESCO publication, L'Education dans le Monde³ are among the documents of the Commission. Those found are for Scotland, the Netherlands, Germany, the U.S.S.R., Denmark, England and Wales. Found also among the papers were a series of questions about education in a number of countries accompanied by bibliographies.

The obviously fragmentary nature of the evidence of research in comparative education by the Parent Commission makes it very difficult to draw a definite conclusion about its quality and about its importance to the Commission. The Commissioners stated clearly that the UNESCO documents were unreliable.⁴ Comparative education as a discipline

³UNESCO, 1955 edition.

⁴Parent Report, V, pp. 11, 12.

was not well developed in any of the Province's universities at that time.

On the whole, it would appear that the Commissioners preferred to find out for themselves about education outside Quebec rather than rely on research done by others in the field of comparative education.

VI

FOREIGN VISITS

The Parent Commission made two trips abroad. The first one was made to the United States and Eastern and Western Canada at the beginning of May 1962. The second one was to Europe in January and February 1963. In both cases the Commission was split into groups so that more places could be visited in a given period of time.

Visits to the United States and

Other Parts of Canada

In a press release dated Montreal, April 24, 1962, the Royal Commission informed the public that it would:

. . . spend the two weeks from April 29 to May 12 visiting most of Canada's provinces and a number of American states to meet with people responsible for education at all levels in order to note the different solutions which have been found to meet administrative, pedagogical and financial problems. The Commissioners believe that this comparative study will be very useful in putting the various problems facing them in proper perspective.¹

The Commission divided itself into three groups to undertake these visits, and each group brought back a fairly voluminous documentation and prepared outline reports which indicate the kind of organization or institution which they

¹Translated from Document C 62-2495, Dated April 24, 1962.

investigated and, by implication, which particular aspects of education they were most interested in at that time.

Group I

Group I was formed of Mgr. Parent, John McIlhone, Paul Larocque and Michel Giroux. They visited the Maritime provinces and New England. One of the highlights of their itinerary was Harvard University, where they were introduced to team teaching by Paul Perry, the Assistant Director of the School and University Program for Research and Development (SUPRAD) and to the Apprenticeship and Internship plan of teacher training. They also had lunch with Professor Robert Ulich on May 9, and discussed, among other things, the best way of preparing teachers for their profession. Professor Ulich told the Commissioners that while he favoured a broadening of the general culture content of teacher training programmes, the importance of purely professional studies should not be forgotten and that there should be plenty of practice teaching. Professor Ulich also seemed to favour teacher training colleges rather than an option in education at a university, a point of view which is not shared by the Parent Report.

In Boston, the Commissioners also visited Brandeis University which they describe as "a very different kind of experience". They also went to Boston College, a Jesuit institution. In all, they spent four days in Boston, most of them visiting Harvard University and the Faculty of

Education of the University.

Group I flew to Albany, N.Y. on May 11. They were very much interested in the University of the State of New York which is responsible for education at all levels, and which operates as a corporation. In Volume I of the Report, the corporation idea is taken up briefly on page 82, but it was eliminated because of difficulties foreseen in financing such a corporation.

Another question which interested the Commissioners in Albany was the degree of freedom of local school boards to exceed the minimum set by the State; they quote "the sky is the limit" in this respect. This degree of freedom, while offering a maximum of freedom and encouraging initiative, was not adopted by the Parent Commission. The very much more rigid formula for a sort of foundation programme detailed in Volume V of the Report (pages 97 and 98) is an attempt to redistribute wealth to meet the large regional discrepancies found in Quebec. Other questions examined by Group I in Albany were the size of high schools (average 400 pupils in grades 10, 11 and 12) and the operation of parochial schools.

Group II

Group II was formed of David C. Munroe, Jeanne Lapointe and Louis-Philippe Audet. Their itinerary took them through Toronto to Ann Arbor and East Lansing, Detroit, and Chicago, ending in Washington, D.C.

In Toronto on April 30, Group II met Dr. F. S. Rivers, the Chief Director for Education in Ontario, and his assistants. The agenda for this meeting, prepared by Dr. Rivers at the suggestion of Professor Munroe, is worthwhile reproducing in full.

I. Administration 9.30 to 10.00 a.m.

- Topics:
1. Scope of responsibility, primary, secondary, higher, vocational, special, adult education, museums, libraries.
 2. Relations with government - role of Minister and Chief Director, special or advisory bodies.
 3. Role of individual members of legislature.
 4. Administrative structure.
 5. Local school areas.
 6. Methods of introducing reforms.

Resource personnel: Dr. F. S. Rivers, Dr. C. W. Booth, Mr. H. E. Elborn, Dr. R. W. B. Jackson.

II. Curriculum (Elementary and Secondary) 10.00 - 10.30

- Topics:
1. Separation of Primary and Secondary.
 2. Provision for minorities - religion, language.
 3. Curriculum planning.
 4. Policies in religious education.

Resource Personnel: Mr. J. R. McCarthey, Dr. S. D. Rendall, Mr. G. A. Pearson, Mr. L. M. Johnston, Mr. J. H. Kennedy.

(Coffee break, 10.30 - 10.45 a.m.)

III. Educational Finance - 10.45 - 11. 15 a.m.

- Topics:
1. Procedure in establishing annual budget.
 2. Comparative appraisal of tax sources - sales, corporations, special (gasoline, meals, etc.), real estate.
 3. Standard valuation of real estate.
 4. General financial policy - central, local.

Resource personnel: Mr. G. A. Pearson, Mr. F. S. Wilson, Mr. G. L. Duffin, Dr. R. W. B. Jackson.

IV. Teacher Education and Higher Education - 11.15 - 12.00 noon.

- Topics:
1. Training of Teachers - primary, secondary, technical.
 2. University expansion.

Resource personnel: Mr. J. R. McCarthy, Dr. R. W. B. Jackson, Mr. T. A. Leisham, Mr. C. A. Mustard, Mr. A. H. McKague.

After having lunch with the Hon. John P. Robarts, Premier of Ontario and Minister of Education, Group II paid a visit to the Toronto Metropolitan School Board. On May 1 the group met Drs. F. C. S. Jeanneret and Murray Ross, Chancellors of Toronto and York Universities. Particular attention seems to have been paid to discussing the relationship between the Government and the University and the relationship between York and its "parent", Toronto.

On May 2, Group II was at the University of Michigan. They were housed at the Faculty of Education. Talk revolved

around the question of teacher qualification and arranging for an adequate supply of qualified teachers. With the President, Dr. Harlan Hatcher, the main topic was university finance. At 5 p.m. on May 2, the group attended a seminar under the direction of Professor Claude Eggertsen, where a group of post-graduate students in comparative education were discussing their research findings. This side-trip into comparative education was followed up on May 5 when the three members of Group II discussed Quebec's educational system with students in comparative education.

Group II visited the Detroit Board of Education on May 4. They brought back a report outlining the functions of the Board of Education, Central Administration, Field Administration, Supervision and School Staff Organization for 1961-62.

The Graduate School of Education of the University of Chicago was visited on May 6. Discussions ranged from university financing through school organization and administration in the State of Illinois, to Federal Aid to education. The Commissioners seemed to be looking for information about optimum high school size, the role of "Junior Colleges" and all aspects of teacher training. On May 8 the group spent the morning at the school founded by Dewey at the University of Chicago.

Three days were spent in Washington, D.C., where Group II met with officers of the Office of Education and

of the National Education Association. Most of the interest seems to have been directed towards Federal Government aid to research and to foreign aid programmes.

Group III

Group III included Sister Marie-Laurent de Rome, Guy Rocher, Guy Houle, and C. W. Dickson. Their itinerary included Winnipeg (April 29), Regina (May 1), Calgary (May 2), Edmonton (May 3 and 4), Vancouver (May 5 and 6), Victoria (May 7), San Francisco (May 8 and 9) and Los Angeles (May 10 and 11).

Group III's itinerary was very extensive and had entailed considerable pre-planning. The following list of subjects for discussion shows how the groundwork was laid: (From a letter to the Hon. O. A. Turnbull, Minister of Education, Province of Saskatchewan, dated April 11, 1962)

. . . The following list, referring more specifically to Saskatchewan, includes topics that have interested us from reading your Annual Report.

1. Explanations of the Unit plan of promotion in the Elementary schools.
2. Organization and administration of Teacher Training.
3. How do separate school boards function within larger units?
4. System of training and licensing Secretary-Treasurers.
5. Methods used in equalizing valuations.

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5. Methods used in equalizing valuations.

6. System of allocating Provincial funds to local authorities.
7. Procedures employed in establishing central schools. What criteria are established?
8. How does the Province provide for Technical Education?
9. What are the functions of the Saskatchewan Educational Council?
10. What is Association French? What provision is made for instruction in French?
11. Relationship of the University with the Department of Education.
12. What is the organization of the Department of Education?

An answer to the above letter came from R. J. Davidson, A/Deputy Minister, Department of Education, Province of Saskatchewan, dated April 19, 1962. It indicates the kind of co-operation that was given the Parent Commission.

. . . I am indicating below the members of the staff who will discuss the topics mentioned in your letter:

- | | |
|--|---|
| Mr. H. Janzen
Director of Curricula | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Explanation of the Unit plan of promotion in the Elementary schools. - What are the functions of the Saskatchewan Educational Council - What is Association French? What provision is made for instruction in French? |
|--|---|

Dr. C. P. Collins,
Director of Teacher
Training

- Organization and admin-
istration of Teacher
Training.

Mr. C. H. Logie,
Director of School
Administration

- How do separate school
boards function within
larger units?

- System of training and
licensing Secretary-
Treasurers.

- Procedures employed in
establishing central
schools? What criteria
are established?

Mr. L. R. Barrett,
Supervisor of School
Grants and Statistics

- Methods used in equaliz-
ing valuations.

Mr. J. A. Doyle,
Director, Vocational
Education

- How does the Province
provide for Technical
Education?

Mr. A. C. McEown,
Vice-President,
(Administration),
University of Saskat-
chewan

- Relationship of the
University with the De-
partment of Education.

Mr. T. H. Waugh,
Assistant to the
Deputy Minister of
Education

- What is the organiza-
tion of the Provincial
Department of Education?

In the afternoon commencing at about 2 o'clock we are arranging for the Commission to meet with the elected head and other representatives of each of several educational groups, if this would be satisfactory to the Commission. The groups which we have approached for this purpose are:

The Saskatchewan School
Trustees Association

- Mr. L. S. Nicks,
President

The Catholic Section
of the Saskatchewan
School Trustees
Association

- Mr. J. G. McIntyre,
Chairman

Graton Roman Catholic Separate School District in Regina	- Mr. M. A. Riffel, Chairman
Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation	- Mr. W. A. Herle, President
Regina Public School Board	- Mr. A. S. Cochrane, Chairman
Regina Collegiate Board	- Dr. A. E. Perry, Chairman

It is noteworthy that Saskatchewan was on the point of dropping the grade system at the time of the visit, a procedure which was looked upon favourably by the Commission in its Report.²

The same sort of questions and much the same degree of co-operation were given to the delegation from Quebec in all the Western provinces.³

A slightly different but just as detailed list of questions was prepared for discussion with university authorities. The following example is taken from a letter to Dr. N. V. Scarfe, Dean of the Faculty of Education, University of British Columbia, dated April 3, 1962.

To date we have discussed several areas of interest about which we wish to obtain additional information. This list will be extended before our departure, I am sure.

1. Organization, administration and finance of Teacher Education.

²Parent Report, II, p. 105, 106.

³See Appendices D and E.

2. Administrative set-up of the University and its relationship with the Government and affiliated colleges.
3. Functions of the Council of Education.
4. Vancouver City School Administrative organization - elected board - finance - range of services.
5. Problems of the Chant Commission and the implications of its recommendations.
6. Provision for Technical and Professional Education.
7. The school examination marking system.
8. Means of providing for individual differences of pupils in cities, in small towns, in rural areas.
9. The role of the Provincially appointed Superintendents.
10. Relationship between Department of Education and local education authorities.
11. Opinions on the advantages and disadvantages of Junior High School organization.

Mr. Munroe also suggested that it might be to our advantage to have Dean Andren explain the educational organization in New Zealand.

About the visit to Vancouver, it is interesting to note that Group III met with Dean Chant, Chairman of British Columbia's Royal Commission, on the morning of May 5, and discussed the procedure followed in preparing the British Columbia report.

The visit to San Francisco and Los Angeles included the Berkeley campus of the University of California, Stanford University, Foothills Junior College, Claremont Colleges, Los Angeles Trade and Technical College and offices

of the Los Angeles School System.⁴ While the U.S. visit was not pre-planned in detail in the same way as the visit to the Western Provinces, there is evidence of a desire on the part of the Commissioners to investigate and observe solutions to the problems inherent in mass education.

Purpose of the Visits to the United
States and Canadian Provinces

In dealing with these visits, it is interesting to note that the Commissioners were looking for practical solutions to problems which they were facing at home. The visits of May 1962 were designed to allow the Commissioners to familiarize themselves with education outside Quebec as it existed in the other Canadian provinces and in three areas of the United States--New England, the Mid-West, and the Pacific Coast. It is fairly obvious from the documentation brought back from these visits that the Commission formed itself into three fact-finding groups with definite objectives in mind. They were looking for answers to particular problems. That they did not adopt everything they saw or heard is an indication that they were not slavish in copying from others. The main conclusion that can be reached is that the Commissioners examined many alternatives before adopting the one which they felt came closest to meeting Quebec's requirements.

⁴For further details, see Appendices F and G.

In a broad sense, the problems investigated can be grouped into four categories. First there was the question of school administration and finance, from the state or provincial Department of Education level to that of the school unit. Second was the similar question of administration and finance of university and higher education. Third was the problem of teacher training. Fourth were questions about teaching methods and programmes. The emphasis seems to have been placed on the first three categories.

Various Commissioners brought back different impressions from these visits. David C. Munroe, who was most familiar with the American educational scene, was looking for the location of decision-making and change-initiating powers within administrative structures.⁵ Most of the other Commissioners were engaged in an exercise in comparative education. They were completing their education with a first hand survey of public education.

A comment by Guy Rocher is worthwhile noting. On interview⁶ he stated that one thing that struck him was how different universities were from one another. Before the visit he had thought in terms of two types, Quebec's and the "others".

⁵Interview with Professor Munroe, February 12, 1968.

⁶Interview with Guy Rocher, May 31, 1968.

Consequences of the North American Visits

It is difficult to trace any recommendation made by the Parent Commission back to a particular item found on the itinerary of any of the three fact-finding teams. They brought back documentation, descriptions of systems of education, organizational charts and the like, but most of this could not be applied directly to solve Quebec's particularly difficult problems. Perhaps one could say that the visits made the Commissioners more aware of the "possible" in the educational field and of Quebec's comparative backwardness. It must also have facilitated access to contemporary educational literature.

Failing to find in Quebec a well established group of resource people familiar with other systems of education, the Commissioners were turning themselves into such a group.

Visit to Europe

In January and February 1963, most of the members of the Commission went to Europe, save for Gérard Fillion, Paul Larocque and Arthur Tremblay. They were accompanied by the secretaries, Louis-Philippe Audet, C. W. Dickson, Michel Giroux and the legal advisor, Guy Houle.

Countries visited were England and Scotland, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, West Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland and the U.S.S.R. Not all of the Commissioners visited all of these countries, but the whole group did

visit the United Kingdom and France. Only Mgr. Parent, David C. Munroe and Guy Rocher visited Russia. There was some attempt to split the group into two parts for the visit to England and for Scandinavia and the Low Countries.⁷

Unfortunately, the European visit is not as well documented as the one to the other Canadian Provinces and to the United States. There are various reasons for this. For one thing, the Commissioners had been working under pressure to put the finishing touches to Volume I of the Report, which was almost ready to go to press on the eve of their departure for Europe. The Commission may have set itself too great a pace, trying to see too much in too short a time. At any rate, after the initial visit to England and Scotland, the Commissioners seem to have felt that they were too much on the go to have time for writing up reports.

The original project, produced in February 1962 almost a year before, called for an exploratory visit by a delegate to arrange for the full-fledged visit to follow, but this was not put into effect. Instead, the Commission called on the Federal Department of External Affairs to help plan the tour. Although this procedure may have been more economical, it seems to have led to an unnecessarily heavy schedule of official receptions which tied the Commissioners down to a pre-arranged programme from which

⁷See Appendix H.

they could hardly escape.⁸

Things were a little better in the United Kingdom and France where some members had personal contacts of which they made good use. The itinerary for the United Kingdom speaks for itself:

Thursday - January 10th

Edinburgh

Friday - January 11th

Glasgow - Mgr. Parent,
Miss Lapointe, C.W. Dickson,
M. Giroux, G. Houle.

St. Andrews - J. McIlhone,
G. Rocher, D.C. Munroe,
Sister Marie-Laurent,
L.P. Audet.

Dundee

Monday - January 14th

London

Tuesday - January 15th

Woodbury Downs Comprehensive School - Miss Lapointe, Sister Marie-Laurent, J. McIlhone, C.W. Dickson.

St. Paul's - Mgr. Parent,
D.C. Munroe, G. Houle.

Grammar School - G. Rocher,
M. Giroux.

University of London - all.

Wednesday - January 16th

B.B.C. - Mgr. Parent, Miss Lapointe, Sister Marie-Laurent, M. Giroux.

L.C.C. - G. Rocher, J. McIlhone, C.W. Dickson, G. Houle.

Thursday - January 17th

Eton - Mgr. Parent, J. McIlhone, M. Giroux.

⁸For an example of a visit organized by the West German Ministry of Culture, see Appendix J.

Oxford - Miss Lapointe,
Sister Marie-Laurent;
G. Houle, L.P. Audet.

Technical Institutes (London)
G. Rocher, D.C. Munroe,
C.W. Dickson.

Friday - January 17th

Bristol - Sister Marie-
Laurent, L.P. Audet,
C.W. Dickson.

Birmingham - Miss Lapointe,
J. McIlhone, M. Giroux.

Southampton - Mgr. Parent,
G. Rocher, G. Houle.

Commentary on the visit to the United Kingdom is
available in the form of notes in the handwriting of
C. W. Dickson:

England

Impressed by

Insistence on local director of Education
National System - locally administered
Freedom of Inspectors and on job training
460 Comprehensive Schools - political issue
Sandwich System
Technical Education controlled locally
Youth Employment Service - Labour - Ed.
Co-operation between Univ. - Teacher Training
London - Ed. Committee, Sub-Committees
Woodbury Downs Comp. School - plus and minus
Henbury Comprehens. School
Buildings - Teacher Training
Secondary

Not Impressed By

Curriculum - examination controlled
30% of Teacher trainees have Univ. Ent. Req.
Multiplicity of Sub-committees
involved in Teacher Training - Univ. of London
Theoretical complication of authorities
5% of age group in Univ.

Limited use of television and radio due to
restricted channels.

Publishing businesses of Assoc. of Ed. Com and N.U.T.
Influence of Grammar School
Buildings - planning
structure

Scotland

Impressed By

Large School Authorities
High degree of freedom in curriculum
Small number of pupils in independent schools
Variety of school services and institutions
provided locally
Placing Museums under Ed. Dept.
Small number of Teacher Training Colleges
Independence of Scottish Council for Research
in Education
Ad hoc character of Advisory Council on Education
4 univ. have common entrance requirements

Not Impressed By

Selectivity of Sec. schools
Isolation of Universities
School Committees
a. branch of high. gov.
b. many members
c. many committees
Bulk Grant System
Segregation of pupils into types of institutions
Too many pupils leave at age 15
Restricted secondary school programme
Proliferation of over-lapping governing bodies
for ed. institutions.

C. W. Dickson, on interview, acknowledged that these notes were his but that they were never incorporated into a report, and in fact, that no complete reports were made on any of the European visits except for the case of Russia.⁹

The visit to Russia by Mgr. Parent, D. C. Munroe

⁹Interview with C. W. Dickson, February 30, 1968.

and Guy Rocher was thoroughly and efficiently organized by the Soviet authorities. The three Commissioners agree that they were able to see everything they had asked to see and to get the information they required. The Soviet Government's French-speaking interpreters were available where necessary. A report by Guy Rocher on Russian education¹⁰ bears witness to the fact that the Commissioners were made aware of those aspects of Russian education which have been reported by other Western observers.¹¹

Due to the lack of documentary evidence, one is forced to fall back on testimony gathered from the members of the Commission themselves, or of its staff. The most striking aspect of this testimony is that the Commissioners report so few aspects of European education which struck their fancy. One cannot help wondering just what the Commissioners were looking for in Europe. As opposed to their American visits they seemed to have few particular questions that needed answering. They were interested in visiting Eton in order to see just how a private institution could prepare for university and to study the sixth form. In the Netherlands they posed questions about the denominational

¹⁰For a translation of Rocher's report, see Appendix K.

¹¹George Z. F. Bereday, William W. Brickman, and Gerald H. Read (eds), The Changing Soviet School (London: Constable, 1960) and Nicholas De Witt, Education and Professional Employment in the U.S.S.R. (Washington: National Science Foundation, 1961).

character of its education system. For the most part, however, they seemed content simply to observe the system as it was without expecting too many answers. All the members of the Commission interviewed stated that they did not expect to find anything new in Europe, and Mgr. Parent remarked that in France one had to look beyond the mainstream of education to discover the new and innovative.

An interesting sidelight to the European visit is that although the Commission had left Quebec under conditions of what seem to indicate fatigue and stress, they returned in an excellent frame of mind to go on with their work. It seems as though their European visit had helped to dissipate any doubts that they may have had about their powers to do well in the interest of education in Quebec.

VII

AIMS AND A PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

The goals of education which the Parent Commission adopted are most clearly set out in Volume IV (page 3) of the Report:

Thus it can be said, as much for spiritual and humanistic as for practical reasons, that modern society, at once industrial and democratic by nature is dependent more than ever before on the education of everyone over a longer period of time. This is what has led us to state that the educational system, as such, must have three goals today:

- to make available to all, without distinction of creed, racial origin, culture, social environment, age, sex, physical health or mental capacity, an education of good quality satisfying a wide variety of needs;
- to allow everyone to continue his studies, in the field which best suits his abilities, his tastes and his interests, up to the most advanced level he has the capacity to reach, and thus have available to him everything which can contribute to his complete fulfillment;
- to prepare all young people for life in society, which means earning their living by useful work, intelligently assuming their social responsibilities in a spirit of equality and freedom, as well as to offer adults every opportunity for self-improvement.

Much the same goals can be found in Volume I, published three years earlier, but they are not so clearly formulated. In Volume I most of Chapter Four is devoted

to the discussion of the role of education in a modern industrialized and urban society.

While the main educational goals of the Commission were determined at the time of publication of Volume I of the Report, there was one issue which had to be settled before consensus could be reached on the best means of achieving these goals.

Guy Rocher remarked on interview that the French-Canadians on the Commission were all products of the collège classique and were not prepared at first to give up completely a system which had benefited them. Guy Rocher explains that the Commission only turned down the collège classique formula after coming to the conclusion that nothing could be done to adapt the collèges to modern requirements. Mgr. Parent adds that it had become impractical to multiply the number of collèges to meet the growing needs of the province.

For John Porter,¹ because Quebec's secondary education until the 1960's was based on private fee-paying schools (the collèges), Quebec was even more out of the general North-American value-pattern of social equality than the rest of Canada.

Before the 1960's, the philosophical inspiration for education in the French-language and in the English-

¹John Porter, The Vertical Mosaic (University of Toronto Press, n.d. [1965]), p. 93.

language Roman Catholic schools were the Papal encyclicals. There evolved from these encyclicals a doctrine called the "Principle of Subsidiarity" which declares that the state plays an assisting rather than an initiating role in education.² Much of this has been changed since Pope John XXIII's encyclicals, Pacem in Terris and Mater et Magister, as has been explained previously.³

Many of the 308 briefs submitted to the Royal Commission were from Roman Catholic organizations within the Province of Quebec. These briefs often do little more than rephrase the doctrine of "subsidiarity". Guy Rocher told the author that while the doctrine sets out some principles, it offers little or no practical solution to the major problems facing the Commission. In particular, the doctrine offers no help at all to anyone wanting to organize an efficient ministry of education and an educational system directly under the control of such a ministry.

Guy Rocher, the sociologist among the members of

²"This supremely important principle of social philosophy, one which cannot be set aside or altered, remains firm and unshaken: Just as it is wrong to withdraw from the individual and commit to the community at large what private enterprise and endeavour can accomplish, so it is likewise unjust and a gravely harmful disturbance of right order to turn over to a greater society of higher rank functions and services which can be performed by lesser bodies on a lower plane. For a social undertaking of any sort, by its very nature, ought to aid the members of the body social, but never to destroy and absorb them." Pius XI, Encyclical Letter Quadragesimo anno, 1931.

³See p. 9 above.

the Commission, probably deserves most of the credit for formulating the guideline which was adopted by the Parent Commission. This guideline is not philosophical, it is sociological, economic and pragmatic. Briefly, it meant finding out the requirements of a society and then building a school system to meet those requirements. For Quebec, it meant recognizing the fact that the Province's future lay in the direction of urbanization and industrialization and that its school system must help the Province to develop in this direction.

VIII

THE INFLUENCE OF OTHER REPORTS OR PLANS FOR EDUCATIONAL REFORM ON THE PARENT REPORT

Reports Studied by the Parent Commission

The Parent Commission studied a number of reports and plans of which the most important were the following:

Canada

Province of Alberta, Report of the Royal Commission on Education, 1959.

Province of British Columbia, Report of the Royal Commission on Education, 1960.

Province of Manitoba, Report of the Royal Commission on Education, 1960.

Province of Ontario, Report of the Royal Commission on Education, 1950.

France

Le Plan Langevin-Wallon de réforme de l'enseignement, 1947.

England

Fifteen to Eighteen, Report of the Ministry of Education's Central Advisory Council (Crowther Report), 1959.

Half Our Future, Report of the Ministry of Education's Central Advisory Council (Newsom Report), 1963.

Higher Education, Report of the "Committee on Higher Education" (Robbins Report), 1963.

United States

General Education in a Free Society, Report of the Harvard Committee, Harvard University Press, 1945.

Goals for Americans, Report of the President's Commission on National Goals (Gardner Report), 1960.

From a comparative education point of view it is useful to know the influence they played in shaping the views of the members of the Commission.

The Western Canadian Reports

The reports of the Western Provinces of Canada may be treated as a group for the sake of convenience since they all were produced about the same time, share much the same antecedents and have many similar characteristics. There was even some degree of collaboration between the Commissions and they held at least one joint meeting at Banff (British Columbia, Alberta and Manitoba).

The Western Reports were the result of the post-Sputnik reaction which swept through North American education. They reflect, in some form or other, those reservations about progressivism which were formulated by Hilda Neatby in her book, So Little for the Mind.

The reports of the Western Provinces were mainly concerned with examining existing conditions in the schools. The Commissions were given precise instructions. In the case of Alberta, for example, the inquiry was directed to take in a lengthy and detailed list of subjects. This

was in contrast to the terms of reference given the Parent Commission which were of a general nature.

The Parent Commission saw very little of interest in the Western Reports. If a consensus were taken of the Commissioners' opinions on the nature of these reports, it would agree very much with that of Dean N. V. Scarfe of the University of British Columbia's College of Education. Commenting on the Chant Report, Dean Scarfe called it "depressing, disappointing and reactionary" and said it was aimed at destroying progressive teaching methods in British Columbia.¹

While such strong criticism may not have been extended to all of the Western Reports, the impression they left with the Commissioners is that the reports seem to indicate that the Westerners were quite satisfied with their systems as they stood, and were content to tighten up the controls here and there without bringing in any major modifications. Such is the opinion on British Columbia's Report which followed a detailed study presented to the Parent Commission by the legal advisor, Guy Houle, in November 1961.²

The Hope Report

Ontario's Hope Report deserves a place of its own among those consulted by the Parent Commission. A resumé

¹Vancouver Sun, December 30, 1961, quoted by F. Henry Johnson in A History of Public Education in British Columbia (Vancouver: Publication Center, U.B.S., 1964).

²Minutes of the Parent Commission, November 24, 1961.

of this report was presented to the Commission by David C. Munroe (see Appendix L) on October 12, 1961. Comments of the Commissioners, freely translated, read as follows:

Ten years after the Report only a few recommendations have been followed. The problem of separate [i.e. Roman Catholic] schools is one factor. The Hope Commission had too many members, lasted too long and lost itself in too many unnecessary details.³

What most seems to have struck the Commissioners is the fact that the Hope Report was hopelessly compromised because it contained two minority reports. Mgr. Parent and Guy Rocher both stated on interview that the Hope Report was more useful in a negative than in a positive sense. It showed the Parent Commission what to avoid. Mgr. Parent insists particularly that the fate of the Hope Report made it quite clear that all precautions should be taken to avoid a minority report. He states clearly that rumours of an impending minority report in 1966, prior to publication of the final volume and to provincial elections, were not founded on fact.

Canadian Reports in Retrospect

The Canadian Reports which have just been discussed brought very little to the Parent Commission. While not an educational report as such, the Massey Report on Arts, Letters and Sciences⁴ may have been more useful. The

³Minutes of the Parent Commission, December 10, 1961.

⁴Royal Commission Report on National Development in the Arts, Letters and Sciences (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1951).

reports from Western Canada were too preoccupied with local conditions and affairs to interest a group of planners who wanted to create a new system of education starting from the ground up. The Hope Report was considered by the Parent Commission as fairly close to a failure and could only serve as a warning.

France and the Langevin-Wallon Plan

Because Quebec is largely French-speaking and has been trying to strengthen its links with France, the possible influence of French education on the Parent Commission remains an interesting question. For this reason, particular attention has been paid to French influence shown in the Report itself, the working papers of the Commission and in interviews with the Commissioners.

From all evidence, influence of the French system as it existed was surprisingly small. The Quebeckers took a good hard look at France and, for the most part, did not like what they saw. The closest they come to adopting some of the French practices is in nomenclature for university degrees. A more positive French contribution is the recommendation by the Parent Commission that the first two years of high school serve as guidance years along lines similar to the "cycle d'observation" being slowly developed in France at that time.

When questioned, the Commissioners stated that the highly centralized, over-rigid French system showed no

promise of being able to meet changing conditions. Even less could it answer the needs of Quebec.

Education in France has been the subject of a number of plans for reform. The most notable of these plans is the Langevin-Wallon Plan, dating back to 1947.⁵ Even though this plan, born out of the post-war ferment, has never been fully incorporated in French legislation, it remains the most progressive document on education which that country has produced to date. The Langevin-Wallon Plan has an important following in France. Its ideas did come across to the Parent Commission as witnessed by a number of references in the Report recorded earlier in this paper. Just how much influence did the Langevin-Wallon Plan have on the Parent Commission?

From documents alone, it is very difficult to pin down the influence of the Langevin-Wallon Plan on the Parent Commission. This is mostly due to the nature of the Plan itself rather than to other factors. The Plan is part and parcel of "progressive" educational thinking. It deals with major principles rather than with detailed planning. Its major principle is that of free access to education to all regardless of background and environment and to as high a degree as is compatible with individual ability. This principle it shares with the Parent

⁵Le Plan Langevin-Wallon de réforme de l'enseignement (Paris: Presse Universitaire de France, 1964).

Report.⁶ Indeed, it is this principle which places the Parent Report among "progressive" documents on education.

When interviewing members of the Parent Commission about the Langevin-Wallon Plan one gets a curious impression. The Commissioners all knew about the Plan, they knew its general nature, but the details of the plan seem to have left few traces. Mgr. Parent wonders if the Commissioners even studied the Plan at first hand because it was found difficult to procure a copy of the original. C. W. Dickson stated that a copy of the Plan had been circulated among the members of the Commission and had aroused great interest at the time. There is no reference to this in the minutes of the Commission.

Guy Rocher had a particular interest in the Langevin-Wallon Plan owing to his acquaintance with two leading French educators, Jean Capelle⁷ and Louis Cross⁸ themselves successors of Langevin and Wallon. Among the Commissioners, he alone was fully aware of its nature and contents. Rocher reported that Capelle and Cross were so committed to reforming French education that they would hardly talk about anything else. He goes so far as to suggest that they were

⁶The principles are listed on pp. 3, 4 Vol. IV of the Parent Report.

⁷Jean Capelle, L'Ecole de demain reste à faire (Paris: Presse Universitaire Française, 1966).

⁸Louis Cross, The Explosion in the Schools (Paris: SEVPEN, 1963), or L'Explosion scolaire (Paris: Comité Universitaire d'Information Pédagogique, 1961).

completely disinterested in discussing French education as it actually was.

It should be noted also that the Langevin-Wallon Plan bases itself on the practical requirements of the nation rather than on more philosophical arguments. This is, in the French context, both its strength and its weakness. The Plan does not go out of its way to convince Frenchmen of its soundness. Its approach is quite pragmatic, Cartesian, the French would no doubt say. This approach may have contributed to the Plan's failure to get sufficient support. Such a conjecture would explain, in part, why the Parent Commission took such pains to explain its position and did not rely on the logic of circumstances as did the Langevin-Wallon Commission.

To sum up, the influence of the Langevin-Wallon Plan on the Parent Commission is not at all obvious. There is evidence to show that Guy Rocher may have been influenced directly by these ideas but interviews with other Commissioners, notably Mgr. Parent and D. C. Munroe, suggest that the Langevin-Wallon Plan played only a minor part in influencing the ideas of the Parent Commission.

The British Reports

The British Reports had a profound influence on the Parent Commission. Both testimony and documentary evidence support this contention. Mgr. Parent states plainly that

the British reports were those which showed the most promise for planning the future of education. This view is supported by all the Commissioners interviewed. Even more than this, the Commissioners were impressed by the relationship which existed in the United Kingdom between the Royal Commissions and the Government or its agencies. The degree of freedom from interference in the affairs of the Commission embodied in this relationship is what the Parent Commission strove at all times to maintain.⁹

Noteworthy among the recommendations of the Parent Commission that can be traced back to the British reports are those on university finance found in the Robbins Report, and on the whole approach to secondary education found in "comprehensive" schools. The role of the comprehensive school in breaking down barriers between social classes is implicit in the Report. The "polyvalent" schools of the Parent Report are no more than comprehensive schools pushed to a further development.

It should be noted that the role of the school in providing equal opportunity to all children despite their varying socio-economic backgrounds is common to the

⁹There is only one clear instance of direct interference on the part of the Government in the affairs of the Parent Commission. On May 16, 1961 (Minutes of the Parent Commission, May 16, 1961) the Hon. Paul Gérin-Lajoie, Minister of Youth, paid a visit to the Commission and asked them to make an immediate recommendation about teacher training. The Commissioners felt that it was much too early to commit themselves to any one line on this question, and refused to give more than a tentative answer.

Newsom and Robbins Reports in England, to the Langevin-Wallon Plan in France and to the Parent Report.

The Influence of Reports or Plans from the United States

In addition to Conant's writings¹⁰ the Commissioners were aware of the contents of the Gardner Report from the United States.¹¹ Evidence for this statement takes the form of a summary of the Gardner Report drawn from the Saturday Review of December 17, 1960, which is among the papers of the Parent Commission.

Because the Gardner Report deals to some extent with the role the Federal Government should play in education in the United States, it was not particularly suitable as a source of information for the Parent Commission. That the Federal Government should have even indirect influence over Quebec's education would be anathema to any provincial organism. Nonetheless, the Gardner Report can be said to have formed part of the general background of knowledge about foreign education acquired by the Parent Commission.

Importance of Foreign Reports

If it were possible to establish a direct relationship between reports from outside Quebec and any particular

¹⁰See Table 1.

¹¹John W. Gardner, Goals for Americans, The Report of the President's Commission on National Goals. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall, 1960).

recommendation of the Parent Commission, it would be fairly easy to weigh the influence of these reports. Unfortunately, there is no such simple relationship.

What the Commissioners did was to gather from these reports and plans a vast pool of knowledge from which they drew to write their own report. The influence of any single document or group of documents is one of degree only. On interview the Commissioners all said how useful they found the British reports. They all agree that the Western Canadian reports were of little use. Ontario's Hope Report may have been useful to the extent that it served as a warning against disunity within a commission. In the case of the Langevin-Wallon Plan, it appears as though it served more as confirmation of ideas arrived at independently than as a source of inspiration.

IX

LINK BETWEEN RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE PARENT REPORT AND FOREIGN IDEAS AND PRACTICES

At the outset it was hoped that it would be feasible to establish links between some of the recommendations of the Parent Report and a number of ideas which clearly originated in one particular country or state. This relationship has been very difficult to establish.

Volume I contains recommendations about a Ministry of Education, its establishment and organization. Volume I also sets up a Superior Council of Education with a Catholic and Protestant Committee. The relationship between the Ministry and the Council is also determined. So much of this organization is tailored to fit Quebec's particular needs that it could hardly have grown out of foreign ideas and practices.

The recommendations of Volumes II and III come closest to satisfying the purpose of establishing links with ideas originating outside Quebec. But even there it is extremely difficult to determine a one to one relationship or anything near it.

Recommendation 14 of Volume II lays down the following four principles for an elementary school programme:

- a) The child requires concrete teaching and creative activity;
- b) the elementary school should take individual differences into account;
- c) the elementary school should give children an intellectual training and habits of work that will prepare them for secondary education;
- d) the elementary school should strive to adapt children to the conditions of life today and tomorrow.¹

To what extent to these principles reflect the ideas of any individual or of any existing system of education? Surely there are overtones of John Dewey, but how about Jean Piaget's theories on the perceptual development of the child? We appear to have a combination of applied child psychology and a conception of the role of the school in modern society.

Recommendation 16, Volume II, sets the elementary school duration at six years.² This follows French practice. It means a reduction of one year from the existing seven year elementary school. But the length of the elementary school is not set at six years by the Parent Commission solely because that is the trend in France. The separation is made between the elementary and secondary school at age twelve because it corresponds to a change in perceptual values, according to Piaget.³ It should be

¹Parent Report, II, p. 119.

²Ibid.

³Jean Piaget, La Psychologie et l'intelligence (Paris: Armand Colin, 1962).

pointed out that French education has not yet in practice taken much account of Piaget's work, in contrast to the Parent Report.

Recommendation 43 of Volume II recommends a two cycle secondary school, the first cycle corresponding to grades 7 and 8 and the second cycle to grades 9, 10 and 11.⁴ This clearly shows the influence of the "cycle d'observation", two years of observation and guidance at the beginning of secondary school which were gradually being introduced in France.

In addition to an elementary and a secondary school, the Parent Report recommends the establishment of "Institutes". These Institutes are designed either to give professional training, and in that case they are terminal, or to prepare for university entrance. They appear to be a combination of Junior College, Technical Institute and Sixth Form. In some respects they resemble the preparatory colleges found in France and elsewhere which prepare for entrance to institutions of higher learning. In other ways, they resemble trade and technical schools which cater directly to the labour market. Ontario's recently created Community Colleges are a close parallel to the Institutes.

Although there are precedents for institutions which are designed specifically for post-secondary specialized training or for university preparation, it seems more

⁴Parent Report, II, p. 153.

probable that the Parent Commission had other reasons for calling for the establishment of Institutes. One of these reasons must have been the finding of a task suitable for Quebec's classical colleges and normal schools. Another was its desire to prevent the proliferation of small universities within the province and to take some pressure off the existing universities. All this makes it very difficult to trace those influences which led to recommendations on the creation of Institutes.

It is in its recommendations dealing with teaching methods that the Parent Report shows most clearly an influence from abroad. Recommendation 223, for example, reads as follows:

We recommend that for elementary level teachers the introduction to the Ward, Orff-Bergese, Martenot methods or to any other method recognized by UNESCO and international conventions be intensified by means of summer courses and,⁵ in urban areas, by evening or weekend courses.⁵

Other recommendations also refer directly to outside ideas. Here is recommendation 244:

We recommend that, after tests in pilot schools, an introduction to mathematical logic be taught⁶ starting at the fourth year of elementary school.

This recommendation shows the direct influence of modern mathematics teaching in the U.S.A. The same can be said with reference to science teaching. Recommendation 258 shows the direct influence of PSSC and CHEM Study

⁵Ibid., III, p. 342.

⁶Ibid., p. 344.

programmes from the U.S.A.

We recommend that the laboratory work seek first of all to train the student in visualizing problems, in finding solutions for them, and in relating these problems and experiments to general principles. Laboratory work should also tend to develop in him the sense of precision, of manual ability and dexterity, of curiosity, wonderment, initiative, imagination, intuition, and objectivity.⁷

Recommendation 277 speaks for itself:

We recommend that this coordinator [of social sciences] acquire the services of the necessary specialists and that he be in touch with developments in the methods of teaching the social sciences in the United States.⁸

Volumes IV and V, dealing with structures and finance, show little direct evidence of foreign influence in their recommendations. They are much concerned with situations particular to Quebec, of which the religious question remains the most difficult. That the Parent Commission comes out in favour of a non-denominational unified administration cannot be said to have originated anywhere in particular.⁹

Of the 576 recommendations made by the Parent Commission, only the four just quoted, dealing with teaching methods and curriculum, bear evidence of direct influence from the United States. While it may be possible to trace

⁷Ibid., p. 346.

⁸Ibid., p. 349.

⁹Ibid., V, Recommendations 2, 13, 15, 31, 37, 53, pp. 245 to 254.

to Jean Piaget many of the recommendations about the nature and duration of elementary education, this can only be done by inference. The influence of French ideas and practices on the recommendations relating to school organization is equally difficult to establish.

X

CONCLUSION

At the outset of this research, it was hoped to establish that the Parent Commission made considerable use of the study of educational ideas and practices from many parts of the world in writing its Report. There is ample evidence to support this hypothesis in the form of direct references to foreign education in the Report itself, in the Minutes of the Commission, in the visits of the Commissioners, and in the working papers of the Commission. Interviews with the Commissioners also confirm this hypothesis.

It is no exaggeration to say that the Parent Commission attempted to familiarize itself with current educational ideas and practices throughout the developed nations and to apply the knowledge so gained to solving Quebec's particular problems.

In order to carry out their task, the Commissioners made little use of comparative education as a discipline but they did, in effect, become proficient in the study of foreign education on a comparative basis.

On the very important question of finding out where the Parent Commission obtained its guiding principles, it

can be shown that they had recourse to sociology rather than to philosophy. They accepted that Quebec's future lay in the direction of industrialization and urban concentration, that Quebec could not escape the North American context. The educational system they recommend is tailored to such a society and because of this draws heavily on ideas and practices which have evolved in similar societies.

When it comes down to finding out which country, state or province had the most influence on the Parent Commission, answers are not so easily arrived at. This uncertainty may be attributed to two main causes. The first is that Western countries already share a large common fund of ideas and practices. The second is that in the process of acquiring knowledge of foreign education, the Parent Commission brought about an amalgamation of ideas which blurred the boundaries necessary to determine the origins of these ideas.

Despite uncertainty, there is evidence to show that educational ideas from the United States had a strong influence on the recommendations dealing with the teaching of mathematics and science. The Parent Commission made good use of the research done in the United States in the latter part of the 1950's as a direct answer to Russian progress in the technical field.

French education, which might have had tremendous influence on a French-speaking province, does not appear

to be the main source of inspiration for the Parent Report. Evidence even supports the opposite contention, that many features of French education repelled the Quebeckers. They found the French system so centralized and so rigid that it was totally unsuited to any process that implied adaptation to changing socio-economic conditions. They were more sympathetic to the Langevin-Wallon Plan and to the ideas of the Mouvement pour l'Ecole Nouvelle. Although the Parent Report takes much the same "progressive" tone as the Langevin-Wallon Plan, it appears that these ideas were arrived at independently in Quebec.

The influence of Ontario on the Parent Commission is hard to determine. The quantitative goals, regionalization, and university organization may have been influenced by Ontario practices, but exact proof of this is not forthcoming. It is evident that the Hope Report influenced the Parent Commission in that it served as a warning to avoid minority reports if at all possible.

Educational ideas and practices from Western Canada, apart from attempts at modifying the grade structure, appear not to have had much influence on the Parent Report.

The United Kingdom had a strong and positive influence on the Parent Report. There are, as evidence, the numerous references to the Robbins, Crowther and Newsom Reports in the text of the Parent Report itself. Interviews with the Commissioners also bear out this contention. While the

ideas behind the comprehensive schools are shared with other countries, notably the United States and the Soviet Union, it can be said that the British example struck the Commissioners most favourably. In the all important question of freedom from constricting programmes and regulations, the British example had a profound influence on the Parent Report. In the realm of higher education, the influence of the Robbins Report is very marked.

The Parent Report makes so much good use of educational ideas from others that it may be asked if there is any innovation which originated within the Commission. One outstanding innovation is the linking up of new knowledge about child psychology with elementary school programmes and organization.¹ Another is the creation of the Institutes, which carry one step further up the ideas supporting comprehensive schools. The solutions offered to the religious problem are unique only because they apply to a unique situation; although other countries have similar problems, notably the Netherlands, religious issues become so intricately linked with local affairs that they can seldom be comparable.

One recommendation which Mgr. Parent says he has come to regret is that limiting the degree-granting powers

¹ Similar conclusions were reached independently by members of the Woods Hole Conference under the chairmanship of Jerome S. Bruner in September 1959 and published under the title, The Process of Education (New York: Vintage Books, a Division of Random House, 1960).

of new universities.² He argues that it would have been preferable to limit university facilities in ways other than by restricting their power to grant degrees.

It might be pertinent to ask if the Parent Report, with suitable adaptation, could be made to serve as a model for educational planning in other places than Quebec. It might be argued that inasmuch as the Parent Report assembles all that is best in Western education, why should it not serve as a universal model for educational reform and planning? The answer is that even though the Parent Report holds much that is universally valuable, it represents a solution worked out in answer to problems unique to Quebec. It is unlikely that identical conditions exist anywhere else.

The procedure worked out by the Parent Commission may serve as a very useful guide to anyone wanting to plan for educational reform. This procedure involves at least three areas of research:

1. An assessment of the existing system, compared to other systems.
2. A study of the socio-economic structures and the place of education within these structures in order to determine if the educational system is an element of progress.
3. A study of all available information supplemented by visits in order to acquire a large fund of knowledge about successful developments or promising ideas in education throughout the world.

²Parent Report, II, Recommendations 119, 120, p. 372.

Tying these three elements together is what gave rise to the Parent Report.

Hypotheses

At the beginning of this study a number of hypotheses were proposed. The first hypothesis, that the Commission first determined its aims before assessing the value of educational ideas from abroad, is sustained by the evidence presented in Part VII, dealing with the aims and a philosophy of education. There should be no doubt that the Commissioners knew very well what they were looking for in a broad sense although they may have hesitated over details.

The second hypothesis was that the Commission set aside existing practices in Quebec because they could not meet the requirements of the aims. This hypothesis is difficult to sustain because the Commissioners did not include much criticism of existing institutions in their Report. They particularly refrained from criticizing directly the collèges classiques. The fact that they went ahead and replaced existing structures and institutions almost completely without even making an effort to adapt them must speak for itself. Mgr. Parent, D. C. Munroe, Guy Rocher and Jeanne Lapointe³ all confirmed, on interview, that the Commissioners soon became convinced that

³Miss Lapointe was interviewed on February 14, 1968.

existing institutions could not be made to serve any longer and could not begin to meet the goals that the Commission had set for Quebec education.

The third hypothesis was that the Commissioners did not let the fact that some countries might be following educational aims different from those of the Commission stand in the way of inquiring into educational practices in those countries. Evidence to support this can be found in the care taken by the Commission to call on a wide range of experts from many countries and provinces. The documents consulted by the Commission and particularly the reports and plans mentioned earlier in Part VIII also support this hypothesis, as do the many references to current educational ideas and practices found throughout the Report. Guy Rocher's report on the visit to Russia also goes a long way to confirm the open-mindedness of the Commissioners with regard to foreign systems of education.⁴

The fourth hypothesis, that foreign visits were undertaken in order to get first hand knowledge of other educational practices and in order to find workable solutions to a number of problems, actual or anticipated, can be only partially sustained. There is little doubt that the May 1962 visits to the United States and to the Canadian Provinces were undertaken in order to examine working solutions to problems in education, but available documents

⁴Appendix K.

about the visit to Europe in January and February of 1963 are too fragmentary to sustain this hypothesis fully. The testimony of members of the Commission would indicate that the European visits were undertaken in order to make sure that no important new developments in European education had escaped the notice of the Commission rather than as a means of finding useful solutions to Quebec's educational problems.

Recommendations for Further Study

While this study has touched upon one aspect of the Parent Report, namely its use of foreign educational ideas, there are a number of other aspects in connection with the Report that would bear investigating.

Some of the circumstances which led to the appointment of a Royal Commission of Inquiry on Education in Quebec are mentioned briefly in Part I. These circumstances ought to be researched more fully in order to add to our knowledge of the Province and of the process of change in education.

A number of interesting possibilities for research may stem from the fact that the Parent Report is being used as a blueprint for educational reform. For example, it may be possible to establish a relationship between educational reform and economic development in Quebec; the rate of growth in Ontario could serve as reference.

The whole aspect of interaction between traditional educational ideas and new ideas introduced by the Parent Report should be of interest to educational planners.

An evaluation of the briefs submitted to the Commission should also be undertaken in order to establish by whom they were written and the reasons why certain groups submitted briefs to the Parent Commission.

APPENDIX A

LIST OF WORK DONE FOR THE COMMISSION

Author	Subject
Rev. Father O'Neil	The Religious Formation of Students of College and University Level
Rev. Father Donne	Comparative Education
Rev. Stanley B. Frost	Protestant View of Education
Mr. David McCord Wright	Educational Finance and Educational Policy
Prof. Reginald Edwards	Teaching Machines
Miles Wisenthal	Teaching of Religion in Protestant Schools - Jewish View Point
Wayne Hall	Status of Teachers in Protestant Schools of the Province of Quebec
H. D. Lead	The Teaching of Science in the Elementary and Secondary Schools
Naim Kattan	The School System and the Integration of Immigrants
Miss Frances Crook	The Teacher in the Protestant School of Quebec
M. F. Elkin	Themes and Values in the Handbook for the Teachers in the Protestant Schools of P.Q.
Miss Frances E. Crook	Mathematics in the Secondary School
Pierre Angers, S.J.	The Teaching of French at the Secondary and University Levels

APPENDIX A Continued

Author	Subject
Frances Crook Morrison	Quebec Protestant H.S. Leaving Examinations -Part 1 Size of School in relation to distribution of marks (1958-60) -Part 2 Oral French Marks in two Groups of Communities (1960) -Part 3 Students obtaining first class standing -Part 4 Variations in H.S. Leaving Marks (1958-62) -Part 5 Comparisons with Grade 10 and College Board Examinations
Jean Mehling	Revenues and Expenditures of Universities
René Durocher	Annex
Jacques Parizeau	The Financial Situation of School Commissions
C. J. R. Grossmann	School Finances - Suggestions for Quebec
Paul Lacoste	The Structures of French Higher Education in the Province of Quebec
C. T. Teakle	Modern Language Teaching
Jean Lotte	The Financing of Private Secondary Education
C. J. R. Grossmann	The Distribution of Provincial Subsidies to School Commissions

APPENDIX B

REFERENCES TO EDUCATION OUTSIDE QUEBEC IN THE MINUTES OF THE PARENT COMMISSION

Reference	Date
Secretary is requested to procure copies of Reports on Education of other Canadian provinces, of the Massey Report and Tremblay Report for study by Commissioners.	May 16, 1961
D. C. Munroe presents comparative study of moral and religious programme of Protestant schools in Quebec and Ontario.	June 22, 1961
Sister Marie-Laurent de Rome suggests comparative study of school systems of the Canadian provinces.	June 22, 1961
Vianney Décarie, Director of the Ecole Normale Supérieure de l'Université de Montréal, speaks of realisations of Paris and Pisa which he would like to see reproduced in Montreal.	July 7, 1961
Guy Rocher suggests a comparative demographic study with the other Canadian provinces.	July 7, 1961
Interview with E. Gallichet, Director of the Ecole Normale primaire of Limoges, France, who describes French system of teacher training.	July 7, 1961
D. C. Munroe submits comparison of the tables of contents of Reports on Education of Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta and British Columbia.	Aug. 10, 1961
Interview with Chanoine Charles Moeller, professor at Louvain University, Belgium, who describes the Belgian system of education, and mentions that of Holland.	Aug. 10, 1961

APPENDIX B Continued

Reference	Date
Mgr. Parent deposes programme of congress of the Canadian Conference of Universities and Colleges, to be held in Ottawa, November 13 to 15, 1961.	Sept. 29, 1961
Mention of the second National Conference on Education to be held in Montreal from 4 to 8 March, 1962.	Oct. 6, 1961
D. C. Munroe presents summary of Hope Report. Comments of Commissioners.	Oct. 12, 1961
Interview with S. D. Rendall, Superintendent of Ontario Secondary Schools, who describes Ontario's school system.	Oct. 13, 1961
Visit of M. Bernard, Cultural Attaché at the French Consulate in Montreal, who presents two copies of the <u>Encyclopédie pratique de l'éducation en France</u> , published by the French Ministry of National Education to the Commission.	Oct. 18, 1961
Interview with M. Vigneault, Director of Studies at the Ecole des Hautes Etudes de Paris, who speaks of the need to co-ordinate education and economic planning, and of education as a public service rather than the privilege of an élite.	Oct. 19, 1961
D. C. Munroe suggests a study of Reports of Royal Commissions of other provinces and of the Langevin Commission of France.	Oct. 27, 1961
Guy Houle presents his study of the Report of the Royal Commission on Education in British Columbia. His comments.	Nov. 24, 1961
D. C. Munroe presents a table comparing course levels in Ontario, Quebec Protestant and Quebec English Catholic schools.	Nov. 24, 1961
Proposal by L. P. Audet to visit several Canadian provinces, some American states including California, and some European countries. Committee formed of Mgr. Parent, G. Fillion, D.C. Munroe, and	Feb. 7, 1962

APPENDIX B Continued

Reference	Date
A. Tremblay to study question.	
Utility of foreign visits accepted. It is proposed that as many members as possible take part. Countries suggested: England, Ireland, Scotland, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Germany, Denmark and Italy. Other Canadian provinces and some American states also to be visited. Suggested date, September and October. Authorization to be requested.	Feb. 7, 1962
Preliminary report on Project to Visit Europe studied, and list submitted by D. C. Munroe, "Suggested Studies of Foreign Systems of Education". North-American trip should include Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta, British Columbia and California. Commission should be divided into groups. Committee set up to continue study composed of D. C. Munroe, Guy Rocher and L. P. Audet.	Feb. 16, 1962
Audet presents report of Travel Committee and text of letter to Minister requesting approval for visits. Project A: U.S. and Canadian provinces in three groups. Suggested date, April, May 1962. Project B: preliminary visit by delegate to prepare visit to Europe. Set aside in favour of preparation through Department of External Affairs. Project C: Europe. Visit accepted as advantageous and possible. Suggested date, September, October 1962.	Feb. 22, 1962
Brief study of <u>Encyclopédie pratique de l'éducation en France</u> . Descriptive rather than critical, it is not considered acceptable as a model for the Report of the Commission.	March 1, 1962
Visit to Canadian provinces and U.S. Commission divided into three groups.	March 16, 1962

APPENDIX B Continued

Reference	Date
Group 1, headed by Mgr. Parent and M. Giroux; Group 2, headed by D. C. Munroe and L. P. Audet; and Group 3, headed by G. Filion and C. W. Dickson. Preparations for visits started.	March 16, 1962
Letter from Minister of Youth confirming approval of visits.	March 22, 1962
Discussion with Minister, Paul Gérin-Lajoie as to advisability of visiting U.S.S.R. Possibility of only two or three Commissioners going.	March 22, 1962
Commissioners accept advisability of limiting visit to U.S.S.R. to three members; Munroe, Tremblay and Rocher suggested.	March 23, 1962
Munroe cites Cameron Report (Alberta) with regard to a Council of Education responsible to the Legislature.	March 23, 1962
Visit to Europe postponed due to request by Minister to publish first part of Report immediately. Suggested dates for visit, beginning of 1963.	April 2, 1962
Documents on education in U.S.S.R. sent to Commission by M. Aroutunian, Ambassador to Canada.	April 18, 1962
L. P. Audet gets approval of press release on visits to U.S. and Canadian provinces.	April 18, 1962
Commission authorized to suspend activities in Province in order to undertake visits to other Canadian provinces and the U.S. between April 29 and May 13, 1962.	April 18, 1962
G. Filion to remain behind during visits to prepare preliminary text of first part of Report.	April 19, 1962

APPENDIX B Continued

Reference	Date
First part of Report of Group 1 on visit to Maritime provinces and New England studied. Special interest shown in work of Deutsch Commission (New Brunswick), co-education, teacher qualifications in Maritimes, multiconfessional system in Newfoundland, and universities in Nova Scotia.	May 24, 1962
Letter from Hugues Lapointe, Quebec's representative in London, concerning his interest in the visit of the Commission to England and his hope of receiving them.	June 4, 1962
Information received from Messrs. Montague and Aroutunian concerning visits to England and the U.S.S.R. respectively.	June 12, 1962
D. C. Munroe mentions the Corporation of the University of the State of New York.	Aug. 7, 1962
Reports of Group 1 (Maritimes and New England) and Group 2 (Toronto, Detroit, Chicago, Washington) read and commented.	Aug. 7, 1962
Commission urged by M. Pagé, Deputy Minister, to visit Switzerland to study its school system.	Sept. 5, 1962
D. C. Munroe suggests possibility of studying changes in educational organization of principal countries over the past fifteen years. Suggests meeting Lord Amory, High Commissioner of Great Britain.	Sept. 5, 1962
Jean-Marie Joly offers to do a comparative study of examinations in various countries.	Sept. 5, 1962
D. C. Munroe advises that a meeting with Lord Amory could take place on Oct. 12.	Sept. 12, 1962
Tentative date for trip to Europe set for January 6, 1963.	Oct. 3, 1962
Itinerary of trip to Europe to include: Scotland, England, France, Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland, Sweden, Denmark. Russian for three members.	Oct. 11, 1962

APPENDIX B Continued

Reference	Date
Interview with Lord Amory on organization and reforms of education in the U.K.	Oct. 12, 1962
Interview with Paul Vignaux, of the Ecole pratique des Hautes Etudes de Paris, on the French system of education.	Oct. 12, 1962
Discussion of organization of visit to Europe.	Oct. 17, 1962
Request from Deputy Minister of Youth to curtail visit to Europe in interest of economy, but Commission prefers to retain original plan.	Nov. 1, 1962
Letter from Jean-Marie Joly on cost of comparative study of examination methods in other provinces and countries.	Nov. 21, 1962
Minister of Youth requests modification of European visit to save money. Mgr. Parent suggests cutting out U.S.S.R. and reducing time from six weeks to one month.	Nov. 21, 1962
Minister approves modified project of visit to Europe, which will take five weeks.	Nov. 22, 1962
Timetable of visit to Europe.	Dec. 14, 1962
Principal points of interest of European visit: normal schools, small universities, academies, lycées, observation period (cycle d'observation).	Dec. 21, 1962
Commissioners requested to list persons to whom official letters of thanks must be sent.	March 1, 1963
Commissioners requested, if possible, to write their comments on the visit to Europe. Guy Rocher's report on his trip to Russia will be distributed to the Commissioners, with those of Mr. Munroe and Mr. Giroux.	March 1, 1963

APPENDIX B Continued

Reference	Date
Experience of European countries in too early selection of pupils for secondary schools. Formula of Comprehensive schools.	March 15, 1963
Interview with Jean-Marie Joly, G. Noftling and Brother Louis Maurice, psychologists; Jean-Marie Joly outlines the stages of the intellectual development of the child, according to Piaget.	April 21, 1963
Interview with Mme. Thérèse Gouin-Décarie, Alphonse Morf, Gerald MacKay and Fred Lambert, psychologists. Piaget's stages of development; Hunt's <u>Intelligence and Experience</u> cited in opposition to Piaget. MacKay describes ungraded school and subject promotion.	April 24, 1963
Interview with Père Adrien Pinard, Monique Laurendeau and Gérard Barbeau, psychologists. Piaget's work verified in Montreal, Martinique and Haiti; Cuisenaire-Gattegno method.	April 25, 1963
Age for school entrance in Ontario, U.K., France, the Netherlands, Germany, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, Switzerland and U.S.S.R.	April 25, 1963
Division between elementary and secondary nonexistent in U.S.S.R.	April 26, 1963
Munroe, "Child centered School", hopes for an original formula rather than a transplantation of French, English or American forms.	April 26, 1963
Interview with Messrs. Hebb, Ferguson and Rabinovitch, psychologists from McGill.	May 1, 1963
Age for university entrance; example of Europe, Sweden.	May 2, 1963
Discussion on universities; Anglo-Saxon or American B.A., State University, French conception of the university, university colleges.	May 8, 1963

APPENDIX B Continued

Reference	Date
Report of the Committee on Local School Structure cites experience of England, Scotland, France, U.S., Maritime provinces, Ontario, and Western Provinces, Hope Report and UNESCO.	May 15, 1963
Interview with Miss Koroshilov, Russian student, who speaks of school system of the U.S.S.R.	May 20, 1963
Suggestion to avoid use of terms " <u>cycle d'observation</u> " and " <u>cycle d'orientation</u> " because of controversy surrounding them in France.	June 12, 1963
Interview with M. E. Gallichet, Director of the Ecole normale primaire de Limoges, France, who speaks of university preparation, normal schools and language teaching.	July 24, 1963
Interview with Canon Charles Moeller, professor at Louvain University, who speaks of universities in Belgium.	Aug. 12, 1963
Interview with Mr. H. P. Moffat, Deputy Minister of Education of Nova Scotia, who speaks of the school system of Nova Scotia.	Sept. 27, 1963
Interview with Dr. Max Fourestier, who speaks of the experiments at Vanves, France: " <u>mi-temps pédagogique et sportif</u> ", " <u>classes de neiges</u> ", " <u>classes climatiques de santé</u> " which date from 1950.	Oct. 30, 1963
Example of Sweden cited on problem of transition from elementary to secondary school.	Nov. 21, 1963
A report on the Technical School of Toronto is submitted to the Commission.	Feb. 19, 1964
Comparison of school attendance figures for Ontario, Quebec and Canada. Mention of Robbins Report on problem of university failures.	March 12, 1964

APPENDIX B Continued

Reference	Date
Mention of the Robbins Report and of a "University Grants Committee".	March 25, 1964
Robbins Report quoted on university organization, and possibility of creating a University Grants Committee.	April 7, 1964
Experience of American "Junior Colleges" and observations made during visit to California are quoted in connection with university entrance requirements. Length of university year in Sweden.	April 7, 1964
Example of British Columbia quoted in connection with granting of teaching certificates.	April 8, 1964
Mgr. Parent reports on his interview with Lord Robbins.	April 15, 1964
Retraining of teachers for "activity" methods; possibility of sending teachers to England, Belgium, France, Germany.	May 13, 1964
Current practice in England for setting up new universities (Sussex, York, etc.).	May 21, 1964

APPENDIX C

COMPARATIVE STUDY OF A FEW SCHOOL SYSTEMS

By Dominique Lefebvre

(Translated from the French original)

By "school system" we mean all the institutions which depend on the state, or on private persons, which are jointly responsible for education at all levels.

We will describe in succession the French, Belgian and Dutch systems.

ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION IN FRANCE

The school question was not first with respect to the church-state controversy in France, even though it affects French opinion to such an extent that one could say on the subject that the country exists in a "state of non-peaceful coexistence".

From the birth of the nation, the Capetian monarchy insisted on sovereignty in temporal matters, and Rome was forced to acquiesce. A working agreement existed between the princes who ruled over temporal affairs and the popes who ruled over spiritual affairs. This agreement was often strained but remained necessary. The Church was integrated in the nation. It was exclusively responsible for public services such as education, hospitals and civil

APPENDIX C Continued

registers births, marriages, deaths, etc. Corporate in civil law, the Church and State supported one another. Both offered mutual guarantees, controlled one another and quarrelled, but these were in the nature of "family quarrels".

From the Ancien Régime [before 1789] France inherited the three levels in education: primary, secondary and higher.

During the French Revolution, which broke up ancient institutions, the idea of a universally accessible education (therefore compulsory and non-paying) and free (in the sense that students or their parents were free to confess a religion or not) was planned, without being put into practice.

In creating the Imperial University in 1806, Napoleon put into practice the revolutionary idea of education--a public service, a responsibility of the State. The break with the Ancien Régime was complete. The Church lost its monopoly over education which was appropriated by the State. The break with the spirit of the Revolution was also great. The State monopolized education, imposed its programmes and control over the public sector under its jurisdiction and on the private sector in order to mobilize intellectual strength and to place it, with the other forces of the nation, under absolute

APPENDIX C Continued

obedience to the Emperor.

During the 19th century, the state monopoly in education was broken progressively. More and more freedom was granted in education. The State gave place to individual initiative, very often that of members of the clergy. Thus the Church was able to regain control of education by making use of the opportunity given to private individuals to teach or to establish schools. But the Church, although it had recovered a de facto monopoly, no longer had a legal monopoly. Its position was dependent on the government in power; up to 1876 it was right-wing and handed responsibility for education over to the Church.

The public sector existed, nonetheless, legally dependent on the State, even if the latter had temporarily lost interest in it, to the benefit of the Church.

In 1876, the governing group, Catholic, conservative and even royalist, was overthrown and replaced by a republican group who favoured the secular state. The Church was gradually eliminated from the public sector. A definite break came in 1905 (Law Separating Church and State). The Third Republic applied revolutionary principles.

1. Obligation for parents to educate their children to age 16.
2. Free choice for parents with respect to schools.

APPENDIX C Continued

3. The public sector is made accessible to all without religious distinction and with no religious belief to be imposed on anyone. It is free of cost [gratuit]
4. Freedom for anyone to establish a school exists in law. The State is not concerned with these schools which are termed free [libre]

Two networks are thus created: One is public, dependent on the State and secular;

The other private, mostly Catholic and dependent for support on private individuals.

1st Part - Public Education

The State is responsible, through the National Ministry of Education for:

Teachers: The teaching profession is open to all without distinction of religion, opinion or race. The only criteria applicable are those of university degrees or qualifying examinations which give access to the profession. Priests do not have access to qualifying examinations for teaching at the elementary or secondary level, by nature of their calling.

Teachers are civil servants paid by the State. Although they are free to express their opinions, they must respect freedom of thought in their pupils and not mix politics or religion with their teaching. But they are free to do as they please as private individuals.

Students: They are admitted to schools and universities

APPENDIX C Continued

without regard to religion, race or previous school origins. Schooling is free, teachers paid by the State and schools built and maintained by the State or local administrative units.

Subjects Taught

Subjects are determined by programmes originating with the administration; they cover all subjects except religion and theology.

Principles, religious theories, political theories which could be taught through certain subjects are banned. Only a non-religious moral code may be shown. The State pupil has a right to objective, non-religious truth. He is free to seek religious teaching elsewhere. The State does not guarantee such teaching but sets aside time for it. In elementary school, Thursday is the day for catechism holiday. In secondary school some periods are reserved for religious teaching outside school or for a chaplain's visits.

Examination standards are set by the administration. The State does not recognize any examinations but its own. However, be the school public or private, students will have prepared themselves for the examinations.

Thus it is clear that French public schooling is non-denominational and free.

APPENDIX C Continued

2nd Part - Private Schooling

It is mainly Catholic schooling, which, as all private schooling, has a legal right to exist. The Church, responsible for education during many centuries, which had in fact recovered its position during the 19th century, has been brutally ousted from the public sector. It now retains the only sector which the law permits - the private sector. From a collaborator in education, the Church has become a competitor.

Legal Rights of Public Schools

The right to open a private school is fully recognized in France. Such a school caters to pupils of its choice. Compulsory school attendance requirements are satisfied by such schools as much as by public schools. Governing bodies of such schools may set their own examinations, prepare their pupils for State examinations, choose their teachers as they wish.

Practical Limits to Rights

Private schooling is not controlled. But it is not supported by the State. Catholic parents, who already contribute to the support of the state system, pay the teachers of private schools.

The private sector having fewer resources is limited in recruiting its personnel, not so well paid as that of the State. A number of private schools can only

APPENDIX C Continued

subsist thanks to the presence of priests withdrawn from the parish ministry, whose services cost less than regular teachers . Other institutions, because of high fees, recruit only from the richer classes and thus completely lose their democratic character. Finally, many parents, unable to pay fees, enroll their children in the State schools, the more so as these do not prevent students from receiving religious training. State diplomas have a high standing and all students in private schools study for State examinations; thus private schools are practically forced to align their programmes with those of the State.

Lack of funds being the most important question, it is not surprising that the struggle in France is over the question of obtaining State funds for the support of the private sector.

Older laws allowed some contributions to private schools. More recent laws (Marie-Barangé - 31-12-59) have favoured the private sector, greatly perturbing the supporters of the public system. The Law of 31 XII 59 allows a triple option for private institutions. According to each of these options, State support increases with a corresponding increase of State control over programmes and teachers. Thus the State is trying to infiltrate the private sector, to which French Catholics and the

APPENDIX C Continued

episcopate are opposed.

The following conclusions can be drawn:

1. The underlying issue which divides Frenchmen over non-denominational schooling is not dead. It is stronger than ever. On one side the Church, separate from and competing with the State, free but with limited resources, uses its freedom and influence on Catholic voters to seek to obtain State support, not for the Church itself, but for a less favoured group economically--the Catholic parents. On the other hand, the State agrees to help but does so in order to penetrate the barrier which exists between the two sectors which each side is trying to break down to its own profit, engendering only rivalry and conflict.

2. The French example can hardly be chosen by those seeking a just solution to the school problem. The French solution is not a solution at all in the sense that the conflict has existed for 55 years and is not diminishing.

ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION IN BELGIUM

Belgium, like France and Quebec, has a majority Catholic population. Like France it went through the Revolution of 1789 and the régime of the Imperial University. Like France it had a serious school conflict but as opposed to France it resolved it in 1958.

APPENDIX C Continued

1st Part - Development Between 1830 and 1958

In 1830 the revolution broke with the past and the State monopoly in education ceased.

Two principles were recognized in 1831.

1. Freedom in education.
2. The existence of a public sector under State control beside a private sector.

How was this applied?

Primary Schooling

Every community must have a school but may "adopt" for that purpose a denominational school. Public schooling is, therefore, identified with private schooling.

During a short period (between 1879 and 1884) the government attempted to prevent "adoption" by separating the two sectors. This period was marked by a violent struggle between liberals and Catholics which the latter won, and the country returned to the system of "adoption", augmented by the fact that these schools were State supported and that compulsory schooling was introduced (1914).

In 1958 there was peace in the primary sector.

Secondary Education

Covering both public and private sectors, this education was restricted, in practice, to the bourgeoisie because it was fee-paying in both sectors.

Such an organization was unstable for two reasons,

APPENDIX C Continued

firstly because it represented an injustice for the poor, secondly because of the growth of technical schools not supported by the State.

A series of laws dating from 1933 provided State support for private technical schools. Help was accorded the private secondary system but with State control over the system. However, fees still had to be paid. A law passed in 1955 was directed against the private sector and caused the latent conflict to erupt.

Higher Education

Higher education has always remained outside the conflict as a result of fortunate circumstances in the distribution of universities (two State, one private Catholic, one private non-denominational).

All the universities give recognized diplomas. Their programmes are determined by the State Universities. The State gives much support to private universities.

2nd Part - The Pact of 1958

This pact granted advantages to both sectors.

Public Schooling

1. Priority is given the State in the establishment of new institutions according to requirements. The right of private organizations to multiply is limited.
2. In the appointment of teachers in the

APPENDIX C Continued

public sector, priority is given to those holding diplomas from a non-denominational establishment without excluding holders of certificates from private schools (a proportion was arrived at).

3. Funds made available for equipment in public schools.

Private Schooling

1. Recognition of the private sector. Private institutions are free to set their own programmes while respecting State norms. In case of fundamental changes leaders of the private sector would be confronted with those of the public sector.
2. Free schooling. The State will pay teachers' salaries and running costs, but in no case will contribute to the construction of new private schools.

To conclude it should be noted:

1. That the 1958 pact gives the private sector the right to exist and also the means to maintain itself. The State, while favouring its own sector, took pains not to depress the private sector, treating it as a collaborator rather than a competitor.

2. That the pact is provisional and that in a parliamentary system with universal suffrage it is always possible for a newly elected government to upset a precarious equilibrium.

3. That nonetheless this pact contributes to peace; it shows that long term solutions lie in the

APPENDIX C Continued

direction of concessions on both sides and not in the direction of intolerance and separation between sectors.

ORGANIZATION OF EDUCATION IN THE NETHERLANDS

Holland has a public and a private sector in education, but in contrast to France today and to Belgium in the past where two sectors, one Catholic and the other neutral, are potentially in opposition, there is in the Low Countries no conflict due to the fact that strong communities--Catholic, Protestant of a number of denominations and Jewish--are very much attached to their denominational schools, and as a consequence very respectful of the rights of other communities.

It must be added that contrary to Belgium and especially to France, education authorities are greatly decentralized. The State, on one hand, shares its authority with communes, which often reflect the different communities, and on the other hand instead of being indifferent to the private sector tries to collaborate as much as possible.

Religious diversity gives rise to a great variety of institutions.

1st Part - Higher Education

Given by six universities of which three are dependent on the State, a fourth on a Commune, a fifth

APPENDIX C Continued

private and Catholic, a sixth private and Calvinist and four higher institutions of which two are private, this education is given in accordance with State directives. But private or civic universities are autonomous so long as they respect the norms of the State. They grant diplomas recognized by the State. The State universities have Protestant faculties of theology according to their denomination. All of the universities receive considerable State support. But students pay high fees.

2nd Part - Secondary Education

It is given by a number of diversified institutions, some of them public and maintained by the State, others denominational but recognized and financed to a large extent by the State, lastly some institutions which refuse State support in order to remain completely independent. But such institutions are maintained by the Communes.

There exists, therefore, inequalities between the public and private sectors.

3rd Part - Primary Education

This education is compulsory and free. Parents have a choice of school.

In the private sector, institutions must not allow or do anything contrary to the respect of religious conceptions. Every commune, obliged to have a school, may

APPENDIX C Continued

be granted dispensation if a need does not exist. The Community Council has authority within State regulations. The Commune and the State share costs. The primary private sector is in the hands of school associations. If a number of parents in a community feel the desire to establish a school they may do so, the Commune must help them if the school follows normal criteria; it is financed the same way as a public school.

Private schools are multiplying while public schools are losing ground.

To conclude it can be said that the existence in Holland of a variety of communities of which no single one has a majority, having a certain amount of local authority, is a cause of tolerance, peace and diversity.

The State reserves two roles for itself.

1. Coordination, by setting norms equivalent to a minimum attainment on denominational schools which it supports financially to a large extent.
2. The task of supplying a neutral public sector for those who have no religion. In doing this the State provides equality before the law and a respect for religious minorities.

It appears, therefore, that the Dutch model is very attractive. The idea which the State has of its rôle in education may inspire those in Quebec who are looking for a formula which favours justice, progress and peace.

APPENDIX C Continued

FINAL CONCLUSION

The idea of secularity has evolved. First introduced by the kings of France to their own profit against Rome, it has extended considerably as the list of temporal powers of the State has increased, and especially since the State has become non-denominational. From that time on the laws of the Church (Canon Law) no longer directly regulated the lives of citizens, applied by "the arm of the state".

One very powerful, although indirect, weapon did remain in the hands of Rome and the episcopate in countries with a Catholic majority: that of pressure on the electors.

In educational matters this influence has often made itself felt, more so since no denomination (Catholic, Protestant or Jewish) will give up easily the right it deems itself to have to maintain its schools and to develop them if possible.

Under these conditions, what may be the potential of the State in educational matters in a democratic state?

To know this it is necessary to find out what is a citizen in a democratic state.

1. He is a voter, a holder of a fraction of power.
2. He is a creditor of the State. The State must grant him equal opportunity, at the beginning at least, helping if necessary

APPENDIX C Continued

those who are naturally responsible for his education (Parents).

3. He is a free individual. The State must guarantee him freedom of thought and religion, and that from school age on.

The attitude of the State, its rôle is a delicate one to the extent that it must be a complement to education which the parents cannot finance (2), this State must respect freedom which remains for parents to direct or not the minds of their children (3), while this State is under pressure from an electoral mass whose majority can vary (1). Therein lies an equilibrium difficult to achieve.

Educational freedom is not sufficient in itself.

If the State wants to increase its complementary rôle and establish a public sector, neutral and without fees, disregarding the private sector, it creates injustice by establishing unequal charges. The minority, hurt not legally but economically, will protest; if by chance it becomes the majority it brings the conflict to the surface again. This is the example of France today. If, on the contrary, the State hands over its complementary rôle by handing it over to the representatives of a religion, liberty is void for unbelievers or for those of another denomination. Minorities can one day get their revenge: this is the example of 19th century France and of Quebec at this time, it seems to me.

APPENDIX C Continued

Between these two extremes which bring about school conflict, there is an intermediary solution of equilibrium.

The State must complement the finances of parents but at the same time allow them to choose the school for their children. It must therefore:

1. Establish neutral institutions for those who do not belong to a religion. A public sector.
2. Give financial support to existing denominational schools. The private sector.

The State thus establishes equal freedom of opinion and of financial burden.

In addition the State can dictate certain norms concerning programmes and set examinations and teacher qualifications for the public sector it controls as well as for the private sector that it supports. Quality and progress and uniformity on school subjects are established.

Going further, it is possible to imagine that the State within the public sector may allow representatives from various denominations to give religious education to students of their respective denominations in public schools.

Likewise, it is not impossible to imagine denominational schools which accept non-believers or people from other denominations, while respecting their ideas and religion. (Example of Turkey and Tunisia).

APPENDIX C Continued

Thus it is probable that collaboration between the two sectors assuring pluralism not only on a national scale but within institutions would be for generations to come a radical means of teaching democracy.

APPENDIX D

QUEBEC ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION

SUGGESTED WINNIPEG AGENDA

MONDAY 30 APRIL 1962

- 9:00-9:45 - Meeting with Honourable S. E. McLean,
Minister of Education
- 10:00-11:00- Meeting with B. Scott Bateman, Deputy
Minister, G. M. Davies, Director of
Curricula
- 11:00-12:00- As required - Departmental Directors:
Administration - R. W. Dalton
Instruction - R. W. Lightly
Teacher Training - H. P. Moffat
Special Services - C. J. Muller
Vocational Training - J. C. Wakefield
(Acting)
Assistant Deputy Minister - R. R. Robertson
- 12:15-2:00 - Luncheon at the Fort Garry Hotel
- 2:15-3:00 - Meeting with Professor W. J. Waines, Vice-
President (Academic), University of Manitoba
- 3:00-3:30 - Meeting with Dr. W. C. Lorimer, Superinten-
dent of Winnipeg School Division
- 3:30-4:30 - Meeting with Bro. Jos. H. Bruns) Manitoba
G. M. Davies) Royal
Commission
- 4:30-5:30 - Further conferences, as required, with
Departmental staff

APPENDIX E

Edmonton, Alberta
March 26, 1962

Dear Dr. Munroe:

In reply to yours of March 21, I may say that I have made these tentative arrangements, subject, of course, to them being acceptable.

Wednesday, May 2

- 9:30 - Dean Coutts, Faculty of Education, Education Building
- 11:00 - Dr. M. E. Lazerte, who will come to Dean Coutts' office
- 2:30 - Dr. G. L. Mowat, Professor of Education
Vice-Chairman, Alberta Royal Commission
Education (now dissolved)
Fifth Floor, Engineering Building, University
of Alberta
(Dr. R. E. Rees, formerly Secretary of the
Commission, may also be available.)

Thursday, May 3

- 10:00 - Hon. A. O. Aalborg, Minister of Education, at his office
- 2:00 - Dr. J. W. Chalmers, Director of School Administration, Department of Education

Please let us know if you wish any changes, or additions, in respect of this schedule.

Yours very truly,

Dr. David C. Munroe
Commissioner
Royal Commission of Inquiry
on Education
Macdonald College P.O., Quebec

N. H. SWIFT
Deputy Minister

APPENDIX F

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. C. W. Dickson
English Secretary
Commission Royale d'Enquete sur l'Enseignement
3737 Est Rue Sherbrooke, Montreal
100 Place D'Youville
Quebec, Canada

Dear Mr. Dickson:

I have your letter of 10 April 1962 for which my thanks. I have, as well, talked with Dean Quillen of Stanford University to the end that we might mutually arrange your program for the two days of your visit to the San Francisco Bay Area. Dean Quillen and I have agreed that he will schedule your program for the 9th and that I will undertake the same task for the 8th of May.

May I suggest, then, that you come to University Hall at 10:00 o'clock in the morning on Tuesday, May 8, 1962, and proceed to Room 150 on the Main Floor where I and members of my staff will meet you. University Hall is located on the corner of Oxford Street and University Avenue in Berkeley. If you come by public transportation, the best arrangement would be to take a cab from the St. Francis Hotel to the East Bay Terminal, thereafter to take the F bus to Berkeley, getting off at University Avenue. University Hall is then to be found one block east of that intersection.

Unless I hear from you to the contrary, I will schedule meetings, including a luncheon, with members of my staff and other officers of the University whose capacities and specialities make it most likely that they will be able to shed light on the several questions which you have raised in your letter. Dean Quillen tells me that he will make arrangements for you to visit a junior college in the course of the next day.

I very much look forward to the visit of the subcommittee and will do all possible to make it pleasant and profitable.

APPENDIX F Continued

Should you have additional requests to make by way of subject matter coverage, or indeed, requests of a more general character, I hope you will not hesitate to let me know. Although I would appreciate an acknowledgment of this letter, in the absence of information to the contrary, I will expect to see you at 10:00 o'clock on Tuesday, May 8, at 150 University Hall.

Sincerely yours,

FRANK L. KIDNER

APPENDIX G

STANFORD UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Schedule for Visit of Members of The Royal Commission of
Inquiry on Education
Province of Quebec
May 9, 1962

All meetings in Room 17, School of Education

9:30 - 10:30 a.m.	Elementary Education Dr. Paul R. Hanna Dr. G. Wesley Sowards Dr. Fannie R. Shaftel
10:30 - 11:30 a.m.	Secondary Education Dr. Norman J. Boyan Dr. Dwight W. Allen Dr. Alfred H. Grommon
11:30 - Noon	School Finance Dr. H. Thomas James Mr. J. Alan Thomas
Noon - 1 p.m.	Luncheon at Stanford Union
1:15 - 2 p.m.	Higher Education - Junior Colleges Dr. Lewis B. Mayhew Dr. W. H. Cowley
2 - 4 p.m.	Visit to Foothill College

APPENDIX H

VISIT TO EUROPE OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION
OF INQUIRY ON EDUCATION

SCOTLAND: January 10 and 11.

January 10: Edinburgh: Mr. Rodger A, Principal,
Scottish Education Dept.
Dr. Douglas McIntosh,
Director of Education
Gilbert Bryden,
Secretary General,
Education Institute of Scotland

January 11: Group A: Glasgow: visit to a College of
Education, a secondary school
and a technical school
Group B: St. Andrews and Dundee
St. Andrews University
Dundee College of Education
Technical and rural schools

ENGLAND: January 12 to 18

Meeting with the Minister of Education, Sir Edward Boyle
Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday: the Commission
divides into three or four groups to visit:

"Comprehensive schools", public schools, "grammar
schools", elementary schools of the Education
Institute of the University of London.

Meeting with Sir R. Gould, National Union Teachers
Local Education Authorities
Visits to Eton, Oxford, Cambridge
Visits to Technological Institutes
Visits to the Education Institute of Bristol
University
the technical colleges at Birmingham
University

APPENDIX H Continued

FRANCE: January 19 to 27

Meeting with the Minister of National Education
the Directors of some departments:
1st degree, 2nd degree, technical
education, higher education, National
Centre for Scientific Research
authorities for private education

Study of administrative structures
pedagogical structures, courses
teacher training
educational research
teachers unions
audio-visual education, adult education

BELGIUM and HOLLAND: for Group A: January 27 to Feb. 2

DENMARK and SWEDEN and HAMBURG: for Group B: from Jan. 27
to Feb. 2

BONN - COLOGNE Feb. 2 to 5

ZURICH and GENEVA Feb. 5 to 10

PARIS: Feb. 10 to 14 and province

APPENDIX J

TRANSLATION (D.H.)

Standing Conference of the
Ministers of Culture

Documentary and Information
Service

Bonn, 24th, January 1963

Nassestrasse 11.

Visit of Canadian Educational Commission

Final Time-Table

2.2.1963
Saturday

Arrival of guests in Cologne (two participants from Hamburg, five from Amsterdam).
Afternoon: short address of welcome and discussion of programme in Hotel Konigshof, where all guests are staying. Introduction of interpreter.

3.2.1963
Sunday

Free for guests' own arrangements. It is to be proposed to the Foreign Office (Herrn Viefhaus) that a visit to the Cologne Museum or to a theatre in Cologne be arranged.

4.2.1963
Monday 9.30

First group (John McIlhone, C. W. Dickson) visit Elisabeth School, Bonn, Sandstr. 9 (Roman Catholic Primary School); Headmaster, Rektor Heim;

then to Paul-Gerhard School, Bonn, Renois Str. (protestant primary school); Headmistress, Rektorin Friebe).

APPENDIX J Continued

Note : School Inspector Oyen will be present during the visit and will provide an interpreter.

9.30 Second group (Paul Larocque, Guy Houle) visit Trade School, Bonn, Bornheimer Str. 9, Headmaster, Direktor Steiner.

9.30 Third group (Miss Jeanne Lapointe, Louis-Philippe Audet, Michel Giroux) visit Friedrich-Ebert Gymnasium (modern language high school), Dottendorfer Str. 166; Headmaster, Oberstudienrat Dr. Kirsch.

13.00 Lunch at the invitation of the Foreign Office.

16.00 Visit to Teachers' Training College, Bonn, Romerstrasse 163; Vice-Chancellor of the College, Prof. Dr. Schorar.

Evening free.

5.2.1963
Tuesday

10.00 Informative discussion for all guests at the Secretariat of the Conference of the Ministers of Culture.

15.00 Visit to the Educational Institute of the University, Director of the Institute, Prof. Dr. Derbolav.

18.50 Departure from Cologne for Zurich.

APPENDIX K

Report of the Visit to THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

By Guy Rocher

(Translated from the French original)

Pre-school training

There exists, in Russia, a system of pre-school training divided into two sectors: nurseries for children from birth to three years of age, and kindergartens for children between the ages of three and seven. In the Russian Federal Republic alone this two tier system caters to approximately seven million children. We visited one of Kiev's 318 kindergartens. Parents can send their children to these schools for the day or for the week. The school we visited received children only on a daily basis.

The school had 100 children divided into groups of 25 maximum. The programme is planned by the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and is followed by all kindergartens. Emphasis is placed on physical education, moral education, esthetics and memory training. But the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences has just introduced a programme of preparation for school work for the six year olds.

Each of Kiev's 13 districts finances its own

APPENDIX K Continued

kindergartens. Parents pay, according to their means, an amount varying between 2.5 and 12 roubles. This covers only part of the cost, which comes to 70 roubles per child. These schools are very costly since for 100 children we found a staff of 21 persons. Each group of 25 has a teacher and a helper. There is a trained nurse for the school and some administrative personnel.

While visiting this school, we were struck by the degree of order and rather strict discipline which is imposed on these young children.

General schooling

The distinction which we make between elementary and secondary schooling is not understood in the U.S.S.R. Instead, they speak of general schooling given in 4, 8 or 11 year schools. 4 year schools are found only in rural areas. In urban areas there are 8 or 11 year schools. In large towns the 11 year school is the norm. However, these 11 year schools can be either complete schools extending from grade 1 to grade 11 or schools which we would call secondary, having grades 7 to 11. We visited a school of this latter type in Moscow. The principal seemed to think that the school which he directs will eventually have only grades 9, 10 and 11.

The 1958 law, which reformed general schooling in

APPENDIX K Continued

the U.S.S.R., was often mentioned to us. This law was passed principally on the initiative of the communist party; it was first mentioned in Kroutchev's speech at the twentieth Congress of the Party, and adopted after much discussion and considerable modification. The first consequence of this law was to extend to eight years the period of compulsory attendance, i.e. from seven to fifteen years of age. A previous attempt to impose compulsory schooling extending over eleven years of school was recognized as unrealistic. Eleven years' compulsory schooling is supposed to be reintroduced in 1970. But it was admitted to us that this also appears unrealistic and will probably have to wait until 1975.

Secondly, the law attempted to "bring school closer to life"; by this is meant that the child must be initiated to manual work from the first year of school onwards, as well as to theoretical school work. In addition, full professional training begins at the 9th year. And in fact, every school prepares its pupils for a definite trade or profession. A small school prepares for only one or two trades, while a larger one may prepare for a number. Each school, therefore, has special workshops where the pupils in grades 9 and 10 work. Furthermore, each school has a basic factory corresponding to the speciality of the school; pupils go there for part-time

APPENDIX K Continued

training in their 9th and 10th years, and begin to work regularly from grade 11.

Compulsory schooling starts at age seven. We were told more than once that this age was selected with the approval of doctors who judged that children should not begin school before the age of seven. Children get six hours of classwork daily six days a week. Classes are held in the morning only, until two o'clock in the afternoon; school meals are, therefore, not served. There is a week's holiday in the fall, two weeks at the beginning of January, and one week in Spring. Summer holidays last 90 days for children in grades one to four; they are shorter for the older pupils who must work in the factories or in agriculture.

After grade 8, pupils may choose between a special technical school which leads directly to a trade, or a technicum of four or five years' duration, or employment in a factory with evening courses, or continuing secondary school until grade 11. In the latter case, they must choose a secondary school which corresponds with the profession in which they are interested.

From grade 9, for those who remain in secondary school, one third of the time is spent on technical or professional studies.

Two issues are being hotly debated at this time:

APPENDIX K Continued

first, the importance that should be given to general as opposed to specialized training from grade 9 on. At the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, at the Ministries and Institutions we visited, we were always told that opinion was divided on the subject. It would appear, from what we were told, that the majority favoured specialized training. It must be emphasised, however, that general studies are not understood to mean the same thing as for us. Emphasis is placed on the teaching of mathematics and science to such an extent that we would call it specialization. It is felt that scientific training has the highest status. Secondly, the training of gifted pupils. Kroutchev's speech had left the door open to accelerated training for gifted pupils. In the discussions which followed, this proposition was rejected on the grounds that it was contrary to polytechnic education which was desirable for children of the proletariat. Specialized schools for gifted children were set aside. We were told many times that this will have to be reconsidered in order not to sacrifice young people who are getting ready for University and scientific research. In fact, some experiments are being conducted outside the general framework of the law.

Each one of the fifteen Republics has its Ministry of Education. However, some laws cover the whole of the U.S.S.R. and there exists a general programme which specifies

APPENDIX K Continued

the scope of knowledge required in each discipline or subject. But each Republic is responsible for its plan and programme according to the economic resources of the region. Each Republic has its Academy of Pedagogical Sciences which carries out research and advises the Ministry, we were told. The various Ministries of Education meet frequently, especially since the law of 1958.

In addition to meeting the Minister of Education of the Ukraine and of Russia, we also contacted the Pedagogical Academy of the Russian Republic, which has ten specialized research institutes employing 640 researchers. It has at its disposal a library of a million books, and a publishing house for the publication of its books, reviews and experimental textbooks. It also has attached pilot schools and others used likewise in the town of Moscow.

The general training programme may be divided into three parts: from grade 1 to grade 4 the child learns to read, count and write; from grade 5 on, he begins specialized subjects; from grade 9 on, he trains for a trade or profession while completing his general education.

Education is carried out in the national language of the Republic. Outside the Russian Federal Republic, students start to learn Russian in grade one or two. In addition, considerable effort is devoted to a second or third language. In the schools we visited in the Ukraine,

APPENDIX K Continued

teaching of German or French began in grade 1, and of Russian in grade 2. In grade 1 and 2 a second language is taught through games, verbally. We visited an English class in grade 7 where the teacher spoke only in English during the period and where the pupils managed to read English quite well.

Since 1956, the Soviet Government has established a large number of boarding schools. We were told that after 1917 all the boarding schools were closed. But it was now considered that this was an error, and that a return should be made to the boarding school system. Two reasons seem to favour this change of view. Firstly, because many women are working, the boarding school is a solution to the problem of working mothers; secondly, it would appear, although this was never brought out clearly, that the Soviet Government finds the boarding school an excellent means of ideological training. While there was only one boarding school in Kiev in 1956, there are now 25 and 80 are predicted for 1980. Since 1956 more than 500 boarding schools have been established in the Ukraine. The boarding school we visited in the Ukraine was very well organized. It takes 650 pupils; it is an eleven year school. It is open to both boys and girls. In addition to classroom teachers, there are educators who take care of the children's other activities. Children sleep in 44 small dormitories for

APPENDIX K Continued

small groups ranging from four or five to thirty. To end this section we can say that we were very much impressed by the sum total of the work imposed on pupils in the general school and by the quantity of knowledge they are made to learn. We gathered the impression that students in grade 11 were more advanced than our own in the same grade. We were also impressed by the discipline existing in schools and by the constant propaganda to which the students are submitted, either in the teaching of history or by the many posters found in all the classrooms and corridors. To conclude, we have noted a number of times that what is called "general training" puts a strong emphasis on scientific culture.

Technical and professional training

In addition to the technical and professional training given in the general schools from grade 9 on, there exists in the U.S.S.R. a large network of specialized technical and professional schools, of evening courses and correspondence courses.

All of the technical and professional training in the U.S.S.R. comes under the State Committee for professional training of the U.S.S.R., of the different ministries of education of the Republics, in collaboration with a number of specialized ministries. The State Committee for professional training comes directly under the control of the

APPENDIX K Continued

Council of Ministers. It does not direct any schools itself, but it is responsible for the whole of the Union for programmes, teaching methods, number of years required, and the preparation of textbooks. It is assisted by a Scientific Council formed of a large number of specialized committees, to which collaborate specialists in various fields or subjects. The State Committee also has the responsibility of participating in the development of the plan covering the requirements and the training of skilled workers and technical cadres. The State Committee does not concern itself, however, with professional or technical training given in general schools but restricts itself to technical schools.

In each Republic, the ministries of education are responsible for adapting the programme and contents of the plan to the needs and economic possibilities of the Republic.

Pupils are admitted to technical school either after grade 8 or after grade 11. Those who are admitted after grade 8 follow two years of general training corresponding more or less to the 9th and 10th grade of the general training course. However, emphasis is already placed on preparation for the specialized profession of the school.

Generally speaking, technical schools in the U.S.S.R.

APPENDIX K Continued

are highly specialized, that is to say they prepare for a specific trade. We visited, for example, a technical school which trained workers for ball bearing plants and a technical school which trained workers and technicians for the railroads.

We were often told that one of the fundamental principles of the technical schools in the U.S.S.R. is that the student is participating in productive work. Each technical school is linked with a factory located in the district or beside the school itself. It is in this school that the students do their practical training in small groups, under the direction of their teacher. In addition, the school is equipped with the most modern equipment found in the factory or the industry. Students working in the school workshops are contributing to the factory's production. We were told many times that nothing was made in the workshops that was not put to good use. The school even sells to the factory the product of its pupils in its workshops, and the students receive one third of the revenue. When students work in the factory, they receive a worker's wage.

The programme taught seems to be divided into three parts: theoretical training required by the trade, practical training in a workshop or factory and general education. Emphasis is given to practical training which occupies much

APPENDIX K Continued

of the students' time, at least half. With respect to general education (general culture) it is not well developed from our point of view; it consists mainly of mathematics, science, history of the U.S.S.R., physical training and esthetics.

Russian technical schools have a strongly practical character, which the Russians insist upon and of which they seem quite proud.

Much attention is given to the non-academic or extra-mural activities of the students. We were told about the large number of athletics clubs, artistic organizations and technical clubs organized and maintained by the students. In one of the technical schools we visited, there was even an assistant principal who did nothing but help the students in their various activities. Factory and school shared a cultural centre at the disposition of workers and students.

Teachers did not appear to have much liberty to bring modifications to existing programmes. They participate in the discussions about the programme in their own discipline but once this has been established by the State Committee and the Ministry of the Republic, they must restrict themselves to what has been established.

There are two kinds of teachers in technical schools: those who teach theoretical subjects, who are

APPENDIX K Continued

engineers and specialists, and foremen for shop work, who are skilled workers, usually former students of the school who have worked a number of years in the factory. We were struck by the number of women who taught theoretical subjects and who acted as foremen.

Higher Education

Higher education is divided clearly into two sectors: universities on the one hand, higher institutes on the other. Roughly speaking, the distinction appeared to us as follows: universities train research personnel and teachers of theoretical subjects; higher institutes train technicians and practitioners in applied fields. Thus it is that most of the doctors are trained outside the universities in higher medical institutes; the same applies to engineers, dentists, architects, etc.

We visited Moscow University and Kiev University, and we met the Minister of Higher Education for the whole of the U.S.S.R. and his Deputy. The Minister of Higher Education is a member of the Council of Ministers for the U.S.S.R. He is responsible for the whole range of programmes, teaching methods and admissions for the universities and higher institutes of the U.S.S.R. In addition, he determines within the framework of the Plan the number of specialists in each discipline for the whole nation. Each Republic must in turn do the same thing for its own

APPENDIX K Continued

territory so that the number of admissions in each faculty or higher institute is determined ahead of time by the Plan. Each faculty has, therefore, a quota for admissions and elimination is carried out by entrance examinations. We were told that in some faculties only one applicant in ten was admitted while in others it was one out of three. As a result of this selection, the rate of failures at university or at higher institutes is very low. Asking this question seemed to give rise to astonishment. It would appear that the failure rate lies between 2 and 3%. It follows also that there are never too many specialists in a given discipline. It is only possible to lack specialists if the number of candidates does not match the number of positions available over the whole nation. The Minister informed us that the discrepancy between previsions and actual figures was, on the average, 3%.

The Minister emphasized that there are no dead ends in Soviet education. Every child can expect to accede to higher education if he is capable of it.

Students may enter a university or a higher institute following their eleventh grade, that is around eighteen years of age, which is considered ideal for the start of higher education. A priority is given, however, to those who have worked in a factory.

At present students are distributed as follows:

APPENDIX K Continued

40% Letters, 40% Science and Engineering, 10% Agriculture, 8% Medicine, 1% Art, 1% Law. The Soviet Union has had, as in other countries, a large increase in the number of students in universities and higher institutes. The increase has been felt for both sexes. At Moscow University about 50% of the students are women. However, the demographical increase does not appear to have caused any considerable difficulties. At Moscow University, we were told that they succeeded in keeping audiences to 200 students in the first years; for more advanced students, each has a tutor who determines his study programme and teaching is sufficiently individualized. This is in marked contrast to what we saw in universities in other countries. The number of hours of lecturing by professors has also been maintained below a maximum of eight or nine hours; there does not seem to be a minimum teaching load. This question seemed to astonish people. Predictions are, however, that within three years the number of students in first year will go from 400,000 to 800,000.

Professors are proposed for nomination by the faculty council. They are eventually appointed by a Commission of Accreditation of the Ministry of Higher Education of the U.S.S.R. This Commission of Accreditation sets the standards for the whole Union and approves all nominations. In practice, it accepts faculty

APPENDIX K Continued

recommendations in 95% of cases. Professors are appointed for a period of only five years. Every five years the faculty council makes an assessment of the work of the professor and reappoints him. In practice, however, professors at universities and higher institutes can count on a high degree of permanence.

Professors seem to have very favourable conditions for carrying out their research work. According to a number of testimonies, once a project has been accepted by the Faculty Council they can count on all the services and assistants required.

University professors receive a salary which is quite high compared to salaries paid in the U.S.S.R. A docent receives 320 roubles, a professor or department head 500 roubles and a dean 650. For comparison, it can be said that teachers in an eleven year general school receive a salary which is between 65 and 200 roubles.

Teacher Training

Teachers are trained either in pedagogical institutes or in faculties of education in the universities. There are faculties of education in almost every university; in the Ukraine there are 36 pedagogical institutes outside the universities.

We were given to understand that teachers must follow a five year course after the eleventh year. They

APPENDIX K Continued

specialize in the kind of teaching they have chosen; thus they can specialize in foreign languages, science, kindergarten teaching, etc.

From the third year on they do practical stages in schools. In fourth year they do a three month period of practice teaching. Generally the first stages are done in rural schools with the final stage in fifth year in schools like the ones in which they will be teaching.

Teachers' salaries in general schooling do not seem very attractive, nor do their working conditions. It was admitted that the tendency of teachers is to go into technical education, better paid and with higher prestige. It was also admitted that young people were "more interested in science and the cosmos than in education".

We were told that, in general, teacher training was satisfactory for scientific teaching, but less so for the teaching of Russian and foreign languages.

Adult Education

Even though there is not much talk about adult education in the U.S.S.R., there seems to be two kinds. Firstly, adult education is by courses and by correspondence. There appears to be a large network of such courses and particularly on technical training. Secondly, there clearly exists a large organization for popular education of a cultural and ideological nature. We have already

APPENDIX K Continued

mentioned the great number of culture centres found throughout the U.S.S.R., particularly in conjunction with the factory. Many educational voyages are organized throughout the U.S.S.R.

Behind this popular education organization clearly lies the party.

It must be emphasized that although not very noticeable, the party plays an extremely important rôle in education. We were able to see in particular the youth movement, called the Pioneers, partly modelled on the Scout movement. The Pioneers cater to youngsters up to the age of fourteen, for moral and civic education. For older students, the Komsomols form the shock troops of the young Communists. To conclude, our tour in the U.S.S.R. was prepared by the Central Committee of the Communist Party and it was done with the greatest care.

APPENDIX L

MEMORANDUM ON THE REPORT OF THE ROYAL COMMISSION ON EDUCATION IN ONTARIO (HOPE REPORT)

On March 21st, 1945 a Royal Commission on Education was appointed in Ontario under the chairmanship of Mr. Justice Hope "to enquire and report upon the Provincial educational system, and without derogating from the generality thereof, including courses of study, textbooks, examinations, financing, and the general system and scheme of elementary and secondary schools, involving private schools, separate schools, continuation schools, high schools, collegiate institutes, vocational schools, schools for the training of teachers and all other schools, and the system of provincial and local school administration." There were 21 members, four of whom were women, two being teachers and one a university president. The Commission held sittings on 142 days and met in committees as well. It received 258 briefs, 44 memoranda and heard 475 witnesses. In addition, individuals and committees visited other provinces and foreign countries, including England, Scotland, North Ireland, Sweden, Denmark and the United States. In September 1948 an editing committee was appointed and the

APPENDIX L Continued

Report was finally submitted on December 15th, 1950. Meanwhile one Commissioner and one of the Assessors had died. The Report was signed by 15 Commissioners, a minority report was appended by two others and this was supported with some reservations by two more. A further minority report and memorandum was submitted by four members who did not sign the majority report and a memorandum was attached to this by one member. A separate statement was submitted by the other Commissioner. The Report is a document of 933 pages.

The Report is divided into 30 chapters, with various appendices. In the concluding chapter it is stated that the Commission adopted an historical and comparative approach to the problem of providing universal education between the ages of 6 and 16 to meet the needs and provide for the welfare of every child through a system, the cost of which, would be proportionate to the resources of the Province. Consideration was given to the recognition of individual differences and for diversification of the instructional program in the advanced stages but throughout all levels emphasis is to be placed on the teaching of English, the social studies and the recognition of Christian and democratic ideals.

The Educational Scene and the Aims of Education are described in the first two chapters. These are supplemented

APPENDIX L Continued

by historical statements of considerable length and detail in each of the chapters and, while they are of interest to the student of educational history and philosophy, a much more limited treatment would have sufficed. It is also of interest to note that the dissenting Commissioner who prepared the separate statement says, "I must begin by dissociating myself entirely from those portions of the Report in which the various theories and philosophies of education are enunciated, in particular in the following chapters: I, The Educational Scene; II, The Aims of Education etc."

The outline of the Commission's proposals for the reorganization of schools is presented in Chapter III, where the Commissioners recommend that the existing 8-5 plan of administration be altered to a 6-4-3 pattern. This means, in fact, the reduction of the elementary program from 8 years to 6 and the division of post elementary education into two stages, with compulsory attendance being enforced in all but the final stage.

The remainder of the Report is directed toward the amplification and justification of this proposal. Psychological and sociological implications are examined in Chapter IV. Formal examinations are to be discontinued in the elementary school and it is recommended that "where at all possible, retardation of the progress of pupils, at any stage of the educational system, be avoided." (page 79).

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Counselling is to be provided and an improved system of individual records introduced. The practice of co-education is to be continued. All pupils who successfully complete the first four years of secondary school will receive a Secondary School Graduation Diploma from the local authority. Graduates may then enter the three-year Junior College where a uniform external examination will be required at the end of the course.

Within this framework provision is made for curricular changes, though the emphasis on English, social studies, religious instruction and health is to be continued. Religious education is to be introduced in the secondary school with the assistance of the clergy. No religious emblems or habits are to be permitted. Greater freedom is offered local authorities both in the preparation of courses of study and in the choice of textbooks. The old practice of authorizing and subsidizing texts is to be discontinued entirely. Classroom libraries are to be expanded. Homework is to be carefully regulated and the school session will begin on the first Tuesday of September after Labour Day, continuing to June 29th. Encouragement is to be given to research and experimentation.

Chapters 7 to 14 are devoted to the problems of school administration. After examining the evolution of the education system in Ontario and those in other countries,

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the Commissioners devised an ingenious formula whereby what they called the interna of education were divided from the externa, with the responsibilities of the local and central authorities carefully delimited.¹ Recognizing the complexities of the system of local school administration, the Commissioners attempted to reduce the number of individual school authorities but they found no way to unite the elementary and secondary schools effectively and it remained for the minority groups to bring forward such proposals. There is frequent reference to the Local Education Authority, apparently following the English pattern, but this appears to be a new name given to school districts which are little different from those which exist at present.

The structure of the Department of Education is no less complicated: and the proposals of the Commission are no less inconclusive. The position of the Chief Superintendent is above that of two Deputy Ministers and it is now proposed that he become a Deputy Minister with two Associate Deputy Ministers. The former would then become the chief advisor to the Minister, while the Associates would be responsible for the operation of the Department of Education.

¹Interna: curriculum, aims, philosophy, course of study, methods of instruction, textbooks, standards and examinations.

Externa: compulsory attendance age and enforcement, medical inspection, size of classes; buildings and playgrounds; teachers' salaries, certification and training; administrative systems and finance.

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Reference is made to the Central Advisory Council in England and in one form this proposal was rejected as an encroachment on the powers of the Minister. However it is suggested that the Minister might well appoint such a Council, to be responsible entirely to him, and it might give advice on certain specific matters such as the recognition of separate schools or the establishment of a committee to recommend salary scales for teachers. It is interesting to note that the proposal to establish such a Council was strongly opposed in the minority statements.

Chapter 15 reviews the various provisions now made for exceptional children and an impressive total of 22 special services are listed. It is recommended that these now be administered by the local authorities with the advice and assistance of a special branch of the Department of Education. It is also recommended that the province establish a special institution for uneducable children with an intelligent quotient below 50.

The problems of French language instruction are reviewed in Chapters 16 and 17. The status of French at the time of Confederation is recognized, and it is pointed out that German and Gaelic were also used in some settlements. These problems gave rise to the investigation carried out by F. W. Merchant of the Department of Education in 1910 and this led to the unfortunate Instruction 17 in

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in 1912 and the Privy Council judgment of 1917. The Report recognizes the right of French Canadians to instruction in their mother tongue in the elementary school, although it is stated that, while French may be taught in secondary school, English shall be the language of general instruction.

It was over the issue of Separate Schools that the Commissioners were in most serious disagreement and Chapter 18 of the Report, together with the appendix to the minority report, give authoritative statements of the opposing points of view. Both groups assert that an effort was made to compose their differences but it is obvious that there was a strong feeling on one side that exorbitant demands were being made upon them, on the other, that they were suffering severe injustice. The disagreement was obviously heightened by the fact that under the proposed plan of school reorganization the Separate School privileges would be reduced from eight years to six to conform with the structure of the new elementary school. These chapters include long extracts from several of the briefs. On a contentious issue such as this, no good purpose can be served by using quotations from opposing parties which are almost certain to rouse tempers rather than calm them.

Chapters 21, 22, 23 deal with the recruitment and preparation of teaching personnel. The history of teacher training in Ontario is fully described and systems of teacher

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education in other provinces and countries are examined. Some statistics are given to show the requirements and personnel and, again with one of the Commissioners dissenting, (who was himself a teacher), an interim report was issued on December 2nd, 1949. This, the Commissioners complain, was misunderstood and misrepresented (page 574) and the recommendations were followed only in part. The interim document recommended an alteration in the requirements for entrance to normal schools and this proposal was carried somewhat further in the final report which firmly rejected the suggestion that teacher education should be placed under the universities. Instead, it was recommended that the normal schools should be renamed junior colleges of education and they should offer a two-year professional course in preparation for elementary school teaching. The existing arrangements, whereby all secondary school teachers are trained in the Ontario College of Education at the University of Toronto, was endorsed. It remained for two Commissioners to recommend really significant changes in a minority statement. They stated it as their objective that all teachers should eventually be university graduates and with this in mind they recommended that Faculties of Education should be established in several of the universities to offer parallel academic and professional courses leading to the degree

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of Bachelor of Education. In considering conditions of service, the Commission recommended that the Advisory Council on Education establish a committee with representation from teachers, school boards and the Department of Education to establish minimum salary scales based on experience and qualifications which local authorities would be required to accept.

Three chapters are devoted to community programs, school sites and other educational agencies. These suggest close cooperation between all common groups in planning and operation of facilities that may be used by the community, auditoria and gymnasias being specifically mentioned.

The methods of financing education are reviewed in Chapters 27 and 28. The historical background of taxation policies is described in detail. The expenditures for education in 1949 are summarized as follows:

Ordinary expenditures, Department of Education	\$47,800,000	(22% of total government ex- penditure)
Expenditure from municipal sources	\$57,600,000	(34.5% of total municipal ex- penditure)
Capital expenditure	\$16,400,000	

The Commissioners accept the principle that to the fullest extent feasible, control of education should be decentralized and the primary responsibility for financing education must continue to rest with the local Education Authority. They propose a formula whereby elementary

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education should be supported by tax on the ratable property of individuals, both primary education being supported by taxes on individuals, corporations, public utilities and other corporate bodies. They recommend the equalization of assessments throughout the Province and ask that the Department of Education make the necessary adjustments in grants until this has been accomplished. Finally it is recommended that approximately 50% of the cost of elementary education be met from legislative grants and that 60% of the cost be covered for post-elementary education. Minority statements express dissatisfaction with the financial proposals, stating that the basic features of economics were never analyzed, that costs were never carefully studied and that the ability of the Province to meet increased expenditures was not seriously examined.

Since the deliberations of the Commission extended over five years, it is not surprising that during this period legislative and administrative changes were introduced by the government. A new scale of government grants was introduced in 1945 and the revision in 1949 was endorsed by the Commission. The Interim Report on Teacher Training in 1949 provided a basis for immediate government action. And in 1950 the Minister of Education announced sweeping reforms which gave local authorities much more freedom in the development of curricula and choice of

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textbooks. This action was also commended in the Report. Thus, while the Report of the Commission was long delayed, action was taken by the government on several of the most pressing problems.

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October 10th, 1961

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