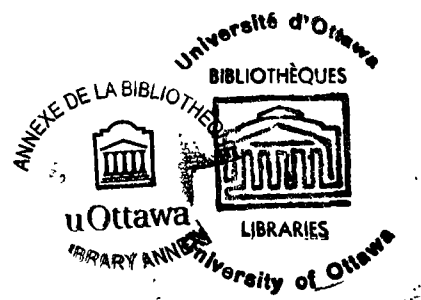


CURRICULUM POLICY
FOR THE
PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS
IN ONTARIO
1945-1965

by Rosemarie A. Hoey

Thesis presented to the School of Graduate Studies and Research of the
University of Ottawa as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy



Rosemarie A. Hoey, Ottawa, Canada, 1989

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis was prepared under the supervision of Dr. Harold Jakes of the Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa. The author appreciates his direction and support. Dr. Robert O'Reilly, Director of the Educational Studies Section, is also thanked for his on-going support, particularly during the revision process. Dr. Patrick Babin is also acknowledged for his guidance.

Professor Theodore Lowi was most helpful and encouraging through telephone conversations and a meeting in August 1987 at Cornell University. His advice and enthusiasm for applying aspects of his work in another research discipline were very supportive and timely.

Appreciation is also expressed to Dr. Harry Fisher, a former Deputy Minister of the Ontario Ministry of Education, to various personnel in the Curriculum Division of the Ministry of Education in Toronto, to Mr. Terence Campbell and the staff of the Archives of Ontario, and to Jeannette Schmidt and the staff of the Historical Collection of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education for their interest and assistance with this project.

The Carleton Board of Education is thanked for its on-going interest and support, particularly during the author's sabbatical year, 1981-1982.

The Ontario Secondary School Teachers' Federation demonstrated their support to the author by awarding her a Hunter Henry Memorial Fellowship in 1981.

Finally, the author acknowledges the continuous encouragement of her colleagues, friends, and family, particularly the support of her brother, Tom. Such debts are accepted with pride and humility.

CURRICULUM STUDORIUM

Rosemarie Ann Hoey was born in Toronto, Canada. She received a Bachelor of Arts degree in English and Sociology from St. Patrick's College, Ottawa in 1970. In 1971 she received a Master of Arts degree in English from Carleton University, Ottawa, and in 1972 a Bachelor of Education degree from Queen's University in Kingston, Canada. She was granted a Master of Education degree by the University of Ottawa in 1977.

ABSTRACT OF
CURRICULUM POLICY
FOR THE
PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ONTARIO: 1945-1965

Curriculum policy is a specialized topic for educators and curriculum-ists, but little is known about its theoretical bases and practice within educational literature. A selected review of the literature from public administration theory and empirical studies related to policy and policy-making provided a theoretical foundation for this study of curriculum policy types. The purpose of this study was to identify and analyze curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965.

The study consists of five sequential stages. The first stage is the establishment of a theoretical approach from which research criteria are developed and research questions emerge. Stages two and three, the assembling and investigation of the data, include the systematic retrieval of primary and secondary materials. This involves the chronicling of selected events in Ontario education and curriculum history for the given timeframe as well as the identifying and the retrieving of pertinent curriculum documents. Persons associated with curriculum policies during this period were also interviewed for clarification and affirmation of curriculum events and records. Interpretation, the fourth stage, applies the theoretical constructs, research criteria, and the research questions to the historical findings. The final stage, deduction and synthesis, consists of conclusions and generalizations which were drawn from the observations and collected data.

The detailed criteria, along with the theoretical approach, provide the solutions to the three research questions:

- (a) What forces determined curriculum policies during this period?
- (b) What were the curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965?
- (c) What type of curriculum policies characterized each designated era within the selected time period?

The theoretical framework which was adapted from the work of Theodore Lowi (1964, 1970, 1972, 1985) provides an opportunity to respond to each of the research questions.

The study demonstrates the utility of Lowi's policy types (1970, 1972). It also extends Lowi's typology of policy types and identifies five distinct types of curriculum policy: regulatory curriculum policy, redistributive curriculum policy, distributive curriculum policy, constituent curriculum policy, and curriculum non-policy.

The study demonstrates that curriculum policy, which is a specialized form of public policy, is influenced by such social, demographic and political forces as societal values, ethical systems, institutional arrangements, as well as the access and exercise of power. When this theoretical schema is applied to various curriculum policies for Ontario's public educational system from 1945 to 1965, several specific conclusions can be made. Since the research period of twenty years was divided into eras according to the five Ministers of Education for that time, it was possible to observe curriculum policies as a progressive pattern of cautious incrementalism. Certain types of policies appear to be more characteristic of some Ministers of Education and their administrations than of others.

Similarly, the personality and power for political leverage of the policy-maker, in concert with the social, economic and demographic contexts of the era, appear to be important determinants of the type of curriculum policy.

The thesis is an inter-disciplinary study which is descriptive, explanatory, and analytical. Its contributions contain many implications for further research. Finally, the Appendix items contain numerous historical items which are becoming difficult to locate. Such reinforce the conceptualization of curriculum policy as an interactive force which affects politics, education, and curriculum issues.

CURRICULUM POLICY
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PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ONTARIO:1945-1965

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INTRODUCTION

Society has always been concerned about education. At various historical points, education has been seen as a means of decreasing illiteracy, developing an improved workforce, resolving class differences, conveying particular philosophical and social tenets, and offering specialized forms of training or schooling. In the twentieth century such concerns have been articulated by a growing number of people, especially through the demands and expectations of the general public and politicians.

These are some of the reasons why education is a political matter. As many writers like Kogan (1978) have acknowledged, education finds itself in the paradoxical situation of reflecting the frequently conflicting and broad character of a society which it supports and from which it derives its life. From this situation comes the issues for educational policy and curriculum policy. Kogan states (p. 53) that discussions about the content, development and administration of the curriculum are crucial to debates about education policies. Boyd (1978) also notes

In attempting to preserve or reshape society, curriculum policy-makers are inescapably involved in a political act. . . . It is inevitable that the purpose of public schools and their curricula will be the objects of political struggles. (pp. 577-578)

The situation is neither new nor characteristic of any one school, school system, society, culture, or historical period. Curriculum policy and policy-making are political issues.

What Kogan and Boyd, as well as many other educational writers such as Kirst and Wirt (1973), have clearly recognized is the strong relationship between politics and education in general and between politics and curriculum in particular. To ignore such a liaison is to admit political and social naiveté (Wirt and Kirst, 1975). To study such a liaison is to

attempt to describe and understand, and possibly to suggest, an improved political social process.

This thesis attempts such a study. Its principal assumption lies in the view that politics, education, and curriculum are inseparable. Secondly, it also assumes that the bureaucratic structure of Ontario's educational system is characterized by a network of units and subunits, or subsystems, which have their own independent and interdependent functions. Thirdly, while curriculum is a crucial element for the functioning of a school and an educational system, it is the legislature which has ultimate control over the curriculum for the public school system. These issues form the bases for a study of curriculum policy-making for Ontario public education.

The problem which this study addresses is how to determine what the curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965 were and to analyze how they developed. To ascertain the answers, the following were the major questions which guided the research:

- (a) What were the curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965?
- (b) Who determined curriculum policies during this period?
- (c) What forces determined curriculum policies during this period?

Therefore, this historical case study is an analysis of curriculum policy-making for the public elementary and secondary schools of Ontario between 1945 and 1965.

The study describes the historical milieu of Ontario education during this time frame and analyzes the provincial records and documents which state or reflect the curriculum policy for these Ontario schools during this period.

The thesis consists of an introduction and five chapters. Chapter I is a selected review of the literature on policy, policy-making and curriculum policy-making from which a conceptual approach for curriculum policy-making is developed. Chapter II delineates the research problems and methodology used for obtaining the data. Chapter III describes the social and educational milieu in Ontario during the first twenty years following World War II. Emphasis is placed on chronicling historical events in curriculum. Chapter IV is an analysis and discussion of the findings in light of the historical context and the analytical criteria. A summary and conclusion in Chapter V completes the thesis.

CHAPTER I

RESEARCH PROBLEM AND METHODOLOGY

A. PURPOSES AND DIRECTION OF THE STUDY

Deciding the curriculum for Ontario public schools has been a political matter which pre-dates Confederation (for example, see Fleming, 1972; Hanchard, 1966; and McCutcheon, 1941), yet only since the end of World War II have analysts seriously addressed the connections between education and politics. By the 1970s a few probing researchers were stating that education is a political matter.

Writers such as Kogan (1978) describe how education found itself in the paradoxical position of reflecting the frequently conflicting and broad character of a society it supported and from which it derived its life. Out of this situation arise the issues for educational and curriculum policy. Kogan notes that discussions about the content, development, and administration of the curriculum are crucial to debates about educational policies (p. 53).

Likewise, Boyd (1978) says that:

In attempting to preserve or reshape society, curriculum policy-makers are inescapably involved in a political act. . . . It is inevitable that the purpose of public schools and their curricula will be the objects of political struggles. (pp. 577-578).

Such a situation is neither new nor characteristic of any one school, school system, society, culture, or historical period. The reality is clear: curriculum policy and policy-making are political issues.

Kogan and Boyd, like other educational researchers such as Kirst and Wirt (1972), clearly recognize the strong relationship between politics and

education in general and between politics and curriculum in particular. To ignore such a liaison is to admit political and social naivete (Wirt and Kirst, 1975). Studying such a liaison is an attempt to describe, to understand, and possibly to suggest an improved political process for developing curriculum policy.

The purposes of this study are twofold: to develop a thorough and adaptable theoretical framework for the purpose of identifying types of curriculum policy and, secondly, to apply such a framework to a specific period in Ontario education.

Such efforts to investigate a twenty-year span of Ontario curriculum policies are an exploratory extension of Lowi's typology. Lowi suggests that such an investigation is "logistically correct" (Telephone Interview, June 1988) because the study goes one step beyond his theoretical work since it undertakes to apply his typology to a specific area outside American federal politics.

The initial research problem was basically one of identification. This was hampered by several serious gaps in educational and curriculum research. For instance, there are theoretical gaps, such as no or assumed definitions, concepts and models of policy, policy-making and policy analysis. Secondly, there are data gaps because Provincial and Federal archival collections are limited, incomplete or undocumented. There are also research gaps due to limited historical research in Ontario education, and little policy identification and policy analysis. Therefore, it was necessary to search for a suitable theoretical framework in other disciplines. Such was found in the field of public administration. This approach gives the study an interdisciplinary orientation which strengthens

the objective rigours of the research since it takes the work of theorists and researchers in public administration and policy sciences and applies them to education--specifically, curriculum policies.

The theoretical framework is developed from several policy analysts, in particular Theodore Lowi (1964, 1970, 1972, 1985). Lowi's taxonomy of policy types, especially where it is used in specific policy areas (for example, Shiry, 1977), provides an inventive means of identifying and interpreting a specific policy-making situation. This study uses Lowi's schema to provide an identification instrument for analyzing a particular issue in policy research for a given period in Ontario educational history.

B. THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The entire study has three underlying assumptions. Its principal assumption is that politics, education, and curriculum are inseparable. It also assumes that the structure of Ontario's educational system is a bureaucratic network. Thirdly, while curriculum is a crucial element for the functioning of Ontario's educational system, it is the Legislature which has the ultimate control over the curriculum for the public school system. This third assumption recognizes the political milieu of public policy-making. Lowi (1964) identifies the policy context for bureaucratic governments. He argues that each type of policy, when properly classified, can be associated with its own distinctive arena of power and with its own political process as well as power structure.

The research problem of identifying the curriculum policies for Ontario public schools from 1945 to 1965 involves a five-stage process: establishing a theoretical base, retrieving and investigating data about the twenty-year period selected for the study, and using the theoretical schema to interpret the findings to proffer synthesis and conclusion.

During the five-stage sequence, the following questions guided the research:

- (a) What forces determined curriculum policies during this period?
- (b) What were the curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965?
- (c) What type of curriculum policies characterized each designated era within the selected time period?

Each question reflects the purpose of the study and the analytical approach which will be presented in Chapter II. The questions imply that there are several factors and processes which result in curriculum policies for the chosen "arenas of power" (Easton, 1965). The research questions identify the forces and direction which resulted in particular policies as they were found in the surviving Ontario Government curriculum documents for the years between 1945 and 1965.

Such forms the basis for the research problem of a study about curriculum policy for specific eras in Ontario's public education.

C. METHODOLOGY

This study is an exploratory thesis. It is not an historical case study, a content analysis, a critique, or an expose. The theory sources, as will be described in Chapter II's selected review of the literature, are intended to give the reader insight into the background of the problem.

The literature from the policy sciences provide a substantial theoretical basis for refining the concept of policy and policy types. Curriculum research offers a theoretical perspective for establishing an operational definition for curriculum policy. Thus, in Chapter II a theoretical framework is developed which can be applied to a specific area of curriculum

policy for the purpose of learning from an "accessible hard-copy record of the recent past" (Solomon, Jr., 1983, p. 426).

The period of this study was selected for several reasons: the researcher's interest in Ontario education and in Ontario's educational history; the development of policy studies and educational research, especially in curriculum, since 1945; a general acknowledgement of the global impact of World War II on humanity and on education in particular; and the occurrence of several events and changes in Ontario educational history during the selected timeframe.

The year 1965 provides a natural terminus for the thesis because the Department of Education was totally reorganized in that year (see Figure 8, p. 52); its subsequent effect on education in the Province offering a logical departure point for this study.

A final factor which influenced the selection of the timespan for this study was the position of the Minister of Education. Between 1945 and 1965, there were five Ministers of Education in Ontario (see Appendix I:A). One held the position simultaneously with the premiership and two ministers left the education portfolio to become Premier of the Province. While Chapter III highlights selected historical, social and demographic factors of the twenty years under study, knowing who held Ontario's educational portfolio affects the methodology of this thesis in two ways: it serves to categorize the twenty years into five divisions and, secondly, it provides a time reference for policy practices. Therefore, this thesis alludes to the Drew Era, the Porter Era, the Dunlop Era, the Robarts Era, and the Davis Era in reference to the periods when George Drew, Dana Porter, William Dunlop, John Robarts, and William Davis, respectively, held the

position of Minister of Education (see Appendix I:A). Although the latter Minister continued to hold the portfolio until 1971, his assuming the office in 1962 is still a helpful reference point up to the transition from a Department of Education to a Ministry of Education in 1965. In summary, these are the interests and historical factors which guided the choice of this particular research period.

The direction of this study was guided by the selected research period because it shows the interlocking nature of curriculum policy with political and educational institutions within a rapidly-changing social system. To help with the identification and isolation of information sources, a three-pronged data source was developed. Firstly, general educational and curriculum events for the Ontario public elementary and secondary schools from 1945 to 1965 are chronicled. This material, summarized in Chapter III, was found in a wide range of sources: Federal and Provincial records, theses, biographies, records of various educational associations and agencies, as well as numerous reports by these agencies and the Ontario Government. The major reference for presenting the historical content for this study is the authoritative seven-volume collection, Ontario's Educational Society (Fleming, 1971). A second major reference, particularly for the 1945-1955 period, is the archival material and final submission of the Royal Commission on Education in Ontario (1950), also known as "The Hope Report".

A further major data source for the study is the Ontario Government's curriculum documents, records, reports, and memoranda from 1945 to 1965. This major research source is sub-divided according to the three research questions which have been stated earlier in this chapter (see p. 6).

The third and auxiliary data source is the interviewing of politicians, administrators, and other persons who had been identified by the literature and government sources as having some involvement and/or vested interest in the topic during the time period of this research project (see Appendix III:A). The purposes of the interviewing activity are to clarify and to confirm actual historical events and their effect on curriculum. However, the principal data sources are the records and documents of the Provincial Government and Department (Ministry) of Education for Ontario from the selected time period. Several have been selected for the Appendix section of this study.

As Rowan (1970, Chapter I, p. 11) specifies, there are four common policy instruments: an Act of Parliament (which includes any legislature's law), a memorandum, Departmental practices, and the manner whereby a "minister or public authority settles an individual case" (p. 231). Therefore, the acts, regulations, sessional papers, and legislative debates of the Ontario Legislature from 1945 to 1965 were searched insofar as this material (according to specific definitions) pertained to educational and curriculum issues. The memoranda, records, and correspondence of the five Ministers of Education and their senior Departmental officials during this research period were also searched. The intent was to extract from these policy instruments an indication of what the curriculum policies were. The operational definitions, the research criteria, and the three research questions provide the tools for identifying curriculum policies which existed at the time.

Research methodology recognizes documentary sources and analysis to include printed or written materials. In documenting analysis, the fol-

lowing are used as a source of data: official records and reports; printed forms; textbooks; reference books; letters; biographies; diaries; compositions; themes or other prepared work; books, magazines, newspapers, college bulletins or catalogues; syllabi or courses of study; pictures, films, and cartoons (Best, 1970, p. 133).

The documentary resources for this thesis are categorized as primary and secondary sources. The primary sources include the Provincial legislative debates; sessional papers; legislative acts and regulations; specific programs or courses of studies, Departmentally issued lists and support documents designated for use in the Province's schools; memoranda and correspondence of/between ministers and personnel of the Department (Ministry) of Education; official records; textbook listings; speeches; and personal memoranda of Ministerial and Departmental personnel.

In compliance with the operational definitions which will be stated in Chapter II, the primary data sources were all searched for definitive curriculum policy statements. Frequently a resource, such as the Minister of Education's response to a question in the Ontario Legislature or in the annual Ministerial report, would also indicate the sources for developing a particular policy. Similarly, the primary source might show a lack of policy statements on a specific curriculum issue or a hesitancy to recommend policy action on an issue or proceed in a particular direction.

The items which are classified as secondary or support sources are biographical notations, historical texts, reference books, and theses. Anecdotes which can be found in reference texts and which were shared during the interviews are also supportive data material.

Access to many of the primary data source items requires Ministerial approval since the timeframe of the study impinges on the government's thirty-year restriction policy. This requires official permission to view certain government materials which are more recent than thirty years from the present date of the research project. Permission with specified procedures was received from the Ministry of Education's Deputy Minister (see Appendices II:A-F). Permission and assistance were also obtained to interview several employees of the Ministry of Education for the purposes of clarifying and confirming the research data. Nonetheless, in attempting to adhere to the objective rigours of the study's methodology, several problems were encountered in the gathering of primary data. It appears that the record-keeping procedures of the various government and support sources varied and/or have changed quite dramatically during the past forty years. For instance, numerous gaps are noted in correspondence files and speech records for several Ministers of Education and senior Departmental figures. The records of educational agencies were consulted and occasionally they could supply missing pieces of material. The records of the teaching federations, such as the Ontario Secondary Teachers' Federation, the Ontario Educational Association, and the Canadian Educational Association, were research sources.

However, the major repositories for the primary data are the Central Registry Series for Educational Records at the Archives of Ontario in Toronto; the Government Records Division of the Robarts Library, University of Toronto; the Resource Centre of the Ministry of Education, Mowat Block, Toronto; and the Historical Records Section in the Jackson Library at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education in Toronto. Material for the

George Drew Era is found at the National Archives in Ottawa. Many of these sources also have supplementary items such as conference reports, research papers, and mini-positional papers which provide a secondary reference. Every effort was made to find all possible primary material related in any manner to the research topic. Appendix II:F illustrates an instance when additional ministerial approval was sought for possible further material. Signatures, dating, stylistic expressions, and all minuscule notations were examined to assure the highest quality of authenticity, integrity, and credibility.

The gaps in primary sources and the lack of research in many areas of recent Ontario educational history prompted the use of a secondary data source--the interview--for clarifying and confirming purposes. The use of the interview as a scientific research device is highly recognized (Gergen, 1968; Best, 1970; Englehart, 1972). The immediacy and opportunity for feedback and digression which characterize the interview, as opposed to a questionnaire, as a research tool allow for the opportunity to obtain additional data, clarity, depth, and possible follow-ups (Borg, 1963).

The 15 men and women (see Appendix III:A) who were able to serve as interviewees between October 1981 and August 1982 had been identified by the primary or secondary sources as persons who had been directly or indirectly involved with curriculum policy in Ontario at some point between 1945 to 1965. Personal correspondence augmented several sessions and frequently resulted in additional resource material.

Following principles of specialized interviewing (Dexter, 1970), and because the interview was only for clarification and confirmation purposes, an interview schedule was not used. Preparation prior to the interview was

done in terms of familiarizing the interviewer with the interviewee's educational background and previous role in curriculum and frequently providing the interviewee with the principal research questions to help familiarize them with the direction for the meeting. Notes were taken with the interviewee's permission. Responses were relevant to the research area, particularly in assessing and confirming the external and internal influences as already noted by Kroll (1969). The personal perceptions of societal values and the characteristics of leadership roles were especially insightful. While the data source provided by the interviews is an auxiliary source, it proved to be an invaluable reference and catalyst for assessing the primary material.

Therefore, given the eclectic ranges of sources which are consulted and searched, the intentions are to indicate the accessible and surviving primary data, to preserve such materials for further research, and to present credible examples of curriculum policies. Thus, by Chapter IV of this study, one should be able to identify the policy type and classify the associated political process and power.

D. PRESENTATION OF THE STUDY

This thesis has five chapters. Chapter I has delineated the context and methodology for addressing the twofold research problem. Chapter II presents a theoretical schema and definitional basis which are developed from a selected review of the literature on policy, public policy, curriculum, and curriculum policy. Chapter III, which presents a selected overview of educational and curriculum events in Ontario during the first twenty years following World War II, is intended to establish a basis for the theoretical and analytical references. Chapter IV is an interpreta-

tion, particularly through the extension of Lowi's typology, of the theoretical framework to the curriculum context for the purposes of identifying and analyzing the related politics and curriculum policies for the given time period. Chapter V concludes the study by summarizing the conclusion and by offering interpretations for curriculum and curriculum policy.

CHAPTER II

A FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS

This chapter introduces the major components and a theoretical model for identifying public policy. The purpose is to establish a conceptual approach for classifying and analyzing curriculum policy for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965. The scope of the topic, however, requires several preliminary clarifications. These are addressed by focusing on the nature of public policy from which definitions and Lowi's taxonomy of policy types (1972) are presented. This approach requires recognition of the types of public policies within the broader areas of educational policies. In the course of presenting the analytical schema, definitions for the following core components are presented: policy, Lowi's typology of policy types, curriculum, curriculum policy, and a typology of curriculum policies.

A. THE CONCEPT AND NATURE OF A PUBLIC POLICY

Historically, the word "policy" traces its origins to classical times. Greek and Latin philosophers and statesmen coined such words as "polita", "polites", "polikos" and "polis" which translated to mean "administration", "citizen", "civic" and "city", respectively (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1974). Their patterns of usage remained relatively unchanged until the present century when population and industrial growth forced the politician, diplomat, industrialist and scholar to recognize the many areas in which contemporary policy issues were being referenced.

Conceptualizing debates were strikingly demonstrated by the post-World War II establishment of a field of theoretical and applied studies called

policy sciences (for example, Lasswell, 1951, 1970; Lindblom, 1958, 1959; Dror, 1968, 1971). While the literature on educational policies has been noticeably small (notable exceptions being Mann, 1976; Elboim-Dror, 1970; Boyd, 1978), analyses of foreign policy, economic policy, and defence policy are highly specialized. Yet, despite their classical origins, policy and policy-making are really modern issues reflective of complex societies and bureaucratic institutions. Despite the attention given to many specialized areas of policy, several social institutions, such as education, lack a long tradition of policy research and analysis. Whatever the reasons for this uneven attention, the task of establishing common parameters prompts investigation. Three elementary questions are raised: What are the crucial elements of a policy? Are all policies similar? What conditions are necessary for a policy to exist?

So, while many administrators and policy scientists might assume distinctions, others such as Kerr (1976) clarify the common criteria as to what constitutes a policy. A "rigorous definition is crucial" (p. 353), Kerr contends, in order to identify a policy within a proposal, to distinguish between public and non-public or private policies, and to engage in serious policy analysis. A policy, according to Kerr (pp. 352-354), must have four core criteria: there must be an agent, or policy-issuing body, which states an intention or goal (a policy) for the purpose of acting in a specified manner towards the achievement of a particular objective.

The purpose of Kerr's discussion (p. 352) is to establish criteria for determining the conditions of a policy which will definitely distinguish it from a plan, a promise, and a principle. Kerr would say, for example, that the statement "honesty is the best policy" is not a policy but a principle

because it lacks the "essential feature of any policy . . . namely, a conditional imperative" (p. 353) . The purpose and indicator of achievement must be noted by the policy-maker and client.

A further element to note is the frequently assumed distinction between public and non-public, or private, policy. This dimension has several implications when the matter is applied to actual businesses, industries and governments. It raises many questions when the matters of policy development, implementation, evaluation, and variations between personal and public policy differ. Kerr, in her analysis of what makes a policy successful or unsuccessful, considers that the criteria for a public policy are that the policy is announced (1976, p. 355), as when it is made public through some means of verbal or written notice. Published statements in a company's annual report or Minister's statements in a government's assembly would constitute such a public act. Unlike a private policy which need not be as thorough nor made public, this announcing action ensures that the policy is made known to those who may be affected by the policy and who could affect the circumstances of the policy's enforcement, as well as those who might have an interest in the fulfillment of the policy.

Another aspect which is critical to the nature of policy is the political interplay of policy components in bureaucratic structures. The determining factor is what Lowi (1964, 1970, 1972, 1985) identifies as coercion. He reacts strongly to the analysts who equate policy as simply a decision. According to Lowi (1970), the latter is a micro concept, while a policy is a macro concept associated with political behaviour. For him, the most crucial factor which holds the policy elements together is coercion (1970, 1972). As shown in Figure 1, his typology of policies indicates that coer-

TYPES OF COERCION, TYPES OF POLICY, AND TYPES OF POLITICS

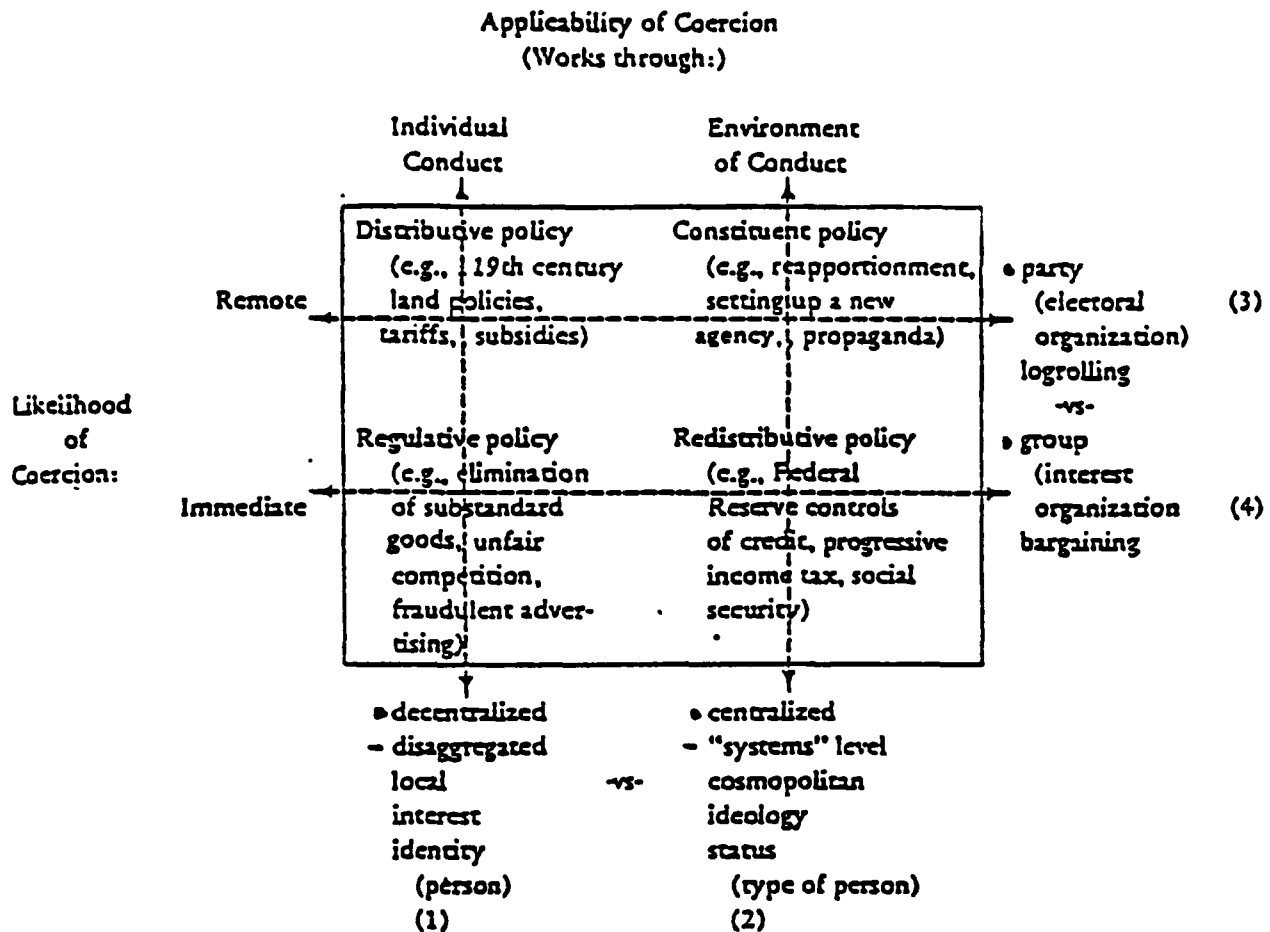


FIGURE 1:

Lowi's Typology of Policy

Source: Theodore J. Lowi, "Four Systems of Policy, Politics, and Choice," Public Administration Review, Vol. 32(4), July/Aug 1972, p. 300

cion involves a continuum of influence and power reflective of the manner whereby organizations attempt to stabilize relationships among members of a collective life pattern. Referencing his definitional assumptions to Hume's perception of political society, Lowi (1970) states his operating premise clearly:

Institutions are means of moralizing coercion. Administration is a means of routinizing coercion. Government is a means of legitimizing it. Power is simply the relative share a person or group appears to have in shaping and directing the instruments of coercion. Coercion is perhaps to the macrosocial level what power is to the microscopic or behavioral. (p. 314)

From this basis, Lowi initially defines policy as "deliberate coercion--statements attempting to set forth the purpose, the means, the subjects and the objects of coercion" (p. 315). Building on Easton's work (1965), public policy for Lowi involves the behaviour of administration, government, and publics or the authorities in a political system. Public policy without coercion is a non-entity. Without this power, a policy cannot achieve the resolution of the problems it was designed to serve. Therefore, if policy instruments exist to enable the routinizing and legitimization of the policy, then coercion is a critical factor affecting the concept of a policy (Rowan, 1970). So if, as noted earlier, the four most common policy instruments are an Act of Parliament (which includes any legislature's laws), a memorandum, departmental practices, and the manner whereby a "minister or public authority settles an individual case" (Rowan, 1970, p. 231), then, besides identifying an Act as the "highest-level legal policy instrument", a policy instrument could be a means towards achieving a policy's objective, rather than the policy itself. This variety of policy instruments complements Lowi's distinction (1972) that coercing may work

through an individual or the environment. The likelihood of coercion happening may be remote or immediate, depending upon the type of policy. Consequently, each method of coercing may have its own dimensions and context within which politics functions.

Lowi (1985) acknowledges that:

. . . Not all government actions emanate for policy
 . . . [yet] probably the most fundamental government
 actions are policies--actions that are repetitive,
 relatively consistent, and derived from some formally
 expressed value, goal, or intention. (p. 179)

Lowi presents his "formalistic" definition of a policy as a "rational exercise of political authority expressed as a guideline which seeks to bring the action of agents into some accord with the intention of the governing elite" (p. 179). This wording acknowledges the very exacting elements which are so critical for ultimately identifying and analyzing specific policies such as curriculum policies. Therefore, Lowi's definitions of policy will serve as the core operational definition for the study.

The important influence of the political environment or context should be realized. This element continues to raise the ongoing debate as to whether or not a public policy is an output (Bauer, 1968; Dror, 1968) or an outcome (Lindblom, 1968) of a social system. The resolution may be in realizing that an eclectic view of policy and policy-making is required. Distinguishing the various types of policy types still remains a problem. Therefore, Section B of Chapter II which follows will focus on Lowi's four-dimensional typology (see Figure 1, p. 19), and present a resolution to these conceptualizing concerns.

B. LOWI'S TYPOLOGY OF POLICY

The elements of coercion and politics, which have been addressed by policy and political scientists, such as Lowi, help to suggest why such analysts have undertaken to distinguish various types of policies. Figure 1 (p. 19) illustrates Lowi's four types of policy, the likelihood and method of coercion, as well as the types of politics common to particular policy forces.

Over the most recent twenty-five-year period, Lowi has refined his perceptions of how political systems operate. In a recent inquiry into the relationship between policy and administration, Lowi (1985) repeats that every type of state, or regime, creates a politics consistent with itself, as evidenced through rules and actions emanating from rules referred to by such policy instruments as laws, statutes, decrees, and regulations. Lowi further reasons that

. . . if policies are the State-in-action, then, if properly classified, there are types of regimes, each of which is likely to develop its own system of politics. This line of reasoning involves a considerable shift in the theoretical perspective--from the assumption that politics causes policy to the assumption that policy causes politics. (pp. 67-68)

Lowi argues that a "definition of policies divorced from all interests, other than the State itself, requires two elements: the language of law and the techniques of control" (1985, p. 179). Borrowing Roscoe Pound's phrase "the language of law" (Friedman, 1977), Lowi means the jurisprudence connotation of rule. Pound defines law as a "legal precept attaching a definite detailed legal consequence to a definite detailed statement of fact" (quoted in Lowi, 1985, p. 70 from Friedman and Macaulay, 1977, p. 855). So, given the increased size and bureaucracy of contemporary

governments, their agencies, such as government departments and ministries like a Department of Education, become the political means whereby a modern larger government communicates its "laws, or 'legal rules' . . . directly to citizens. . . ." Lowi articulates his conceptualization into a further refined definition of policy:

A policy is a rule formulated by some governmental authority expressing an intention to influence the behavior of citizens, individually or collectively, by use of positive and negative sanctions. (1985, p. 70)

Lowi developed his four-fold typology from the work of a legal theorist, H. L. A. Hart (1961) (Lowi, 1985). Hart's recognition of two definitions of law helps to explain Lowi's perception of the likelihood and application of coercion. Hart interprets the traditional view of a law as a rule which "imposes an obligation and then applies a sanction for non-compliance" as a primary rule. Lowi would argue that this situation is applicable to individuals who do not comply with regulative policy and to groups and individuals who do not abide by a redistributive policy. While the former is more characteristic of a decentralized political situation and the latter of a centralized environment, the likelihood of coercion is immediate because, as a primary rule, these two types of policy are basic or foundational. Failure to follow regulative or redistributive policies adversely affects the organization's existence so that the potential for using coercion helps to ensure that such policies are enforced.

On the other hand, a policy which "imposes no duties directly upon citizens [but instead] confers powers or facilities on them" (Hart, 1961, pp. 89-95; Lowi, 1985) is a secondary rule. Distributive and constituent types of policy tend to be so because the likelihood of coercion for the

individual and environment is respectfully remote. These types of policies are not critical or primary for the organization to operate and are therefore identified as secondary.

Lowi does caution about an ambiguous interpretation of the environment of conduct. For example, a change in tax rates is really coercion being applied through the environment. Lowi notes how it affects the individual's conduct without directly focusing on a specific individual. Therefore, to complete the illustration, one should see that an individual citizen's obligation to pay income tax is a primary rule or regulatory policy. The distribution of tax rates for individual filing purposes is an illustration of a secondary, or distributive policy, which can be adjusted or redistributed if given factors such as timing of payments affect the individual's ultimate handling of his/her income tax filing. Yet, the individual or group which fails to follow this distributive policy, which is now also a redistributive policy, will find him/herself subject to primary and immediate coercion, given the State's legitimized access to "the language of law" and the "techniques of control". As suggested through this example, a policy may be more than one type simultaneously (Telephone Interview, June 1988). However, Lowi summarizes that most types of policy can be identified as either a primary rule or a secondary rule (see chart format in Figure 2).

Such labelling, however, is simply a classification scheme for identifying specific types of discrete policies within the larger realms of education and curriculum policy. The labels do not necessarily explain or imply causes, outcomes, or impacts of the policy. Such becomes an analytical extension of the identification process which is really an effort to

Categorization of Public Policies which works through

	INDIVIDUAL CONDUCT	ENVIRONMENT OF CONDUCT
<u>Primary Rule</u> (imposes obligations or positions)	Regulatory Policy Traits: Rules impose obligations; rules of individual conduct, criminal in form Synonyms: police power, government intervention Examples: public health, industrial safety, traffic, antitrust laws	Redistributive Policy Traits: Rules impose classification or status; rules categorizing activity Synonyms: fiscal and monetary policy, overall budget policies Examples: income tax, Federal Reserve discount rates, Social Security
<u>Form of</u>		
<u>Expressed</u>		
<u>Intention</u>	Distributive Policy Traits: Rules confer facilities or privileges unconditionally Synonyms: patronage, subsidy, pork barrel Examples: public works, agricultural extension, land grants	Constituent Policy Traits: Rules confer powers; rules about rules and about authority Synonyms: overhead, auxiliary, government organization Examples: agencies for budgetary and personnel policy, laws establishing judicial jurisdiction
<u>Secondary Rule</u> (confers privileges, powers)		

FIGURE 2:

Specific Characteristics of
Policy Types, Types of Coercion and Types of Politics

Source: From "The State in Politics: An Inquiry into the Relation between Policy and Administration" by Theodore Lowi. In Regulation Policy and the Social Sciences (Roger G. Noll, Ed.), University of California Press, 1985, p. 74

link and explain the impacts of the policy. Chapter IV of this study attempts such a task in light of the material on Ontario education which is presented in Chapter III.

But a fifth policy type, non-policy, must also be recognized (Interview: Lowi, 18 August 1987). Several studies (Bachrach and Baratz, 1963; Boyd, 1978) have brought to public attention the influential force of policy-makers and organizations when they decide not to decide. Bachrach and Baratz describe the two sides of power--one quite visible and the other hidden. It is the latter which contributes to the non-decision behaviour because this power acts discretely to suppress open conflict and public discussion of issues to parties in power or control. However, non-decisions may also be strategies; for example, to allow for more time and more information to be acquired and/or for more resources to be involved or there may be a lack of desire or need to bring a policy issue forward. Whatever the reason, it would appear that the absence of a policy may be the result of no policy activity or of no need for such a policy up to that time in the polity. These circumstances could result in constituent policy whereby a new agency is established and new appointments are made. Likewise, as a result of such policies, a type of regulative policy could ensue, but this infers certain impacts on the society, its economy, and its politics.

What is deliberate is the argument that, within any bureaucratic government activity, public policies will exist, be they regulative, constituent, distributive, redistributive, or non-policy. As a result of their existence, political activity occurs. Therefore, this classification schema should enable one to identify types of curriculum policies as well

as who and what influenced them. Likewise, if each policy type has its own characteristics, then one should be able to distinguish five separate arenas of power or political attributes. To test these hypotheses in the educational policy arena of curriculum, it seems necessary to establish an operating basis for curriculum and curriculum policy, after which an investigation of a particular arena of policy power could test the theoretical schema.

C. CURRICULUM POLICY

One might presuppose that an operable concept of curriculum policy could be easily deduced by defining the word, curriculum, and associating it with the already-mentioned characteristics of a public policy. However, several factors make this task very difficult. Firstly, the definition of curriculum has been a disputed concept in curriculum and educational studies; secondly, the use of the word, curriculum, has varied historically within the educational setting; thirdly, curriculum matters which are conventionally addressed within the broader scope of educational issues are subsequently affected by many influences on educational policy, educational policy-making, and educational decision-making; and, finally, there is limited data on curriculum policy. As Wergin (1976) noted, the assumption has always been made that evaluation could change the policy-making process by evaluating its implementation and impact rather than at its origin and initial activities which result in policy (pp. 108-110). This discussion addresses these concerns and proposes an operational definition of curriculum policy.

The word, curriculum, is derived from the Latin word "currere" meaning "to run, particularly to run a race" (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary,

1974). Thus, curriculum denotes a race course with all its connotations of regularity, standards, and little deviation from the anticipated norm. Historically, curriculum referred to in an educational setting meant the course of study, the programs studied and their corresponding standards of performance. Many scholars, such as Eisner and Vallance (1974), have noted the evolution of the word and the ensuing conflicts of conceptualizing and philosophical debates during recent years. The result has been the increased globality of the term; for instance, curriculum includes "all those experiences of the child for which the school is responsible" (Ontario Ministry of Education, Education in the Primary and Junior Division, 1975, p. 3). Kirst and Walker (1971) note this pattern which has resulted in an on-going

. . . conflict over the proper bases for deciding what to teach. These developments have reached their logical (and absurd) conclusion in the present situation of the elementary schools where teachers may be expected to teach and children to learn reading, writing, several varieties of arithmetic, geography, spelling, science, economics, music, art, foreign languages and history at the same time that the children are supposedly helped to develop physically, morally, and intellectually, and are molded into good citizens. Furthermore, if the school is to take advantage of the millions of dollars invested in national curriculum development, each of these matters must be addressed independently with specially developed and packaged materials in the hands of specially trained teachers. Things are hardly less chaotic in secondary schools. (p. 483)

The essence of the debate rests in the amount of conflict or compatibility of the values underlying an educational system. Kirst and Walker conclude that:

. . . school programs seem to be a heterogeneous mixture of these different bases reflecting political compromises among the heterogeneous values in any state or local district. (p. 484)

Therefore, given the historical evolution of the word, curriculum, the scope of the word's usage, and the persistent value conflict, a curriculum will refer to a written plan depicting the scope and arrangement of the projected program for a school. Optimally, the curriculum should contain:

- (a) a statement of intention for use of the document as a guiding force for planning instructional strategies;
- (b) statements outlining the goals for the school for which the curriculum was designed;
- (c) a body of culture content that has the potential for the realization of the goals; and
- (d) a statement of an evaluation scheme for determining the worth and effectiveness of the curriculum system (Beauchamp, 1975, p. 196).

The scope of this operating definition of curriculum establishes a basis for distinguishing between curriculum and educational policy.

Curriculum is only one dimension of the school and educational system. Therefore, any consideration of curriculum policy must also address educational policies. The active association between political activity and educational institutions is acknowledged by many (Kirst and Walker, 1971; Kirst and Kirst, 1972, 1975; Boyd, 1978). The relationships exist on many levels simultaneously: national, state, provincial, municipal, community, and school. Boyd contends that, since schools and educational systems are the largest concrete extension of a basic social institution, "it is inevitable that the purposes of public schools and their curricula will be the objects of political struggles" (p. 578), given the heterogeneity and rapidly-changing nature of society. Educational policies and educational policy-makers are involved in political action.

Elboim-Dror (1970) states that education has three main sub-systems: policy formation, management, and implementation (p. 23). Educational policies serve to "guide the operations of the education system . . . [to] provide individual and societal goals and motivate us to look for what we want to become as individuals and as a society" (p. 232). However, the intangibility of educational goals, their vagueness and scope, as well as their inconsistency with cost and priority-setting, combine with the "means-end" relationship in education to create perplexing problems (pp. 232-251), particularly in the unpredictability of the political milieu. "Education is an insecure organization, submissive towards its environment, including other social organizations" (p. 241). It seems to feel the control of the political institutions more, possibly due to its high social value, its large public costs, the personal association of each member in society with some educational experience, and the "lack of full professional status and prestige accorded teachers and administrators" (p. 243).

Elboim-Dror summarizes her discussion of education's external influencing factors by describing the submissive context of the educational setting:

The ecological dominance and protectiveness in which the education organization exists shapes policy formation and determines many of its constraints. One of these is passiveness: all major policy decisions are made outside the organization, leaving only second-rate policies to be determined by the education organization, mainly in regard to the type of people who enter such an organization, their characteristics and patterns of work, and their inclination toward change, which in turn affects the dynamic character of the education organization. (p. 243)

Treating policy-making and decision-making synonymously, Elboim-Dror characterizes educational decision-making by many features: the lack of feedback, limited use of analysis and search for alternatives, a tendency towards incremental change, diffuse discretion, and heuristic decision-making (pp. 246-247) and consequently concludes that educational decision-making is a multi-faceted complex process--"the goals and policy decisions, resources, and clients of the system are dominated by the environment" (p. 249). As well, since education has traditionally relied upon past procedures and experiences to cope with its issues (p. 249) (also Kirst and Walker, 1971), the policy-/decision-makers follow a strategy of disjointed incrementalism (Lindblom, 1959; Braybrooke, 1963) until a crisis situation necessitates a decision.

Schools, as Kirst and Walker (p. 479) note, are the implementing arenas for curriculum policies but they are not necessarily the formulators, decision-makers, or authorizing agents of the policy. The dilemma has been recognized by others, such as Kerr (1976), who recalls the common analogy of the parliamentarian who legislates a traffic law but who is not the policeman enforcing it, suggesting some of the complexity and potential confusion if external and internal elements become involved in policy-making when implementors are not necessarily the policy/decision-makers.

Kirst and Walker (1971) suggest a similar dilemma for schools which must also

. . . implement policies formulated by other bodies, most notably policies of the district administration, the state and local board of education. . . . The policies executed by schools include specifically educational policies as well as others which, while they may have educational aspects, are not unique to schools or even characteristic of them." (p. 479)

As such, public education, as a legislated responsibility of the political system, is influenced by the system's polity. Therefore, theoretical political sources provide a basis to investigate the inter-relatedness between educational policy-making and curriculum within the context of the political environment.

Referring to Lerner R. Lasswell (1951, p. 18), Kirst and Walker build on their predecessors' definition of policies as a "body of principles to guide action" and classify curriculum policy as an "explicit or implicit" guide to action which indicates what children may or may not study and pursue in school. "When these requirements and pressures are uniformly and consistently operative, they amount to policy, whether we intended so or not." (p. 479) Kirst and Walker provide an operational definition of curriculum policy-making (1971); however, a theoretical review of policy and policy-making indicates that the premises they promoted are somewhat limited in their conceptualization and potential for use. Their definition seems to assume that all curriculum policies are alike in their formation, purpose, implementation and evaluation. While they acknowledge the political aspects of curriculum policy-making (p. 482), they neither examine the larger issues of educational policy-making in the context of curriculum policy-making, nor do they specify the degree of influential forces which some elements have on curriculum policy over other pressure sources. The following questions deserve attention: When is it developed? How is it formulated? What influences it? Such questions and distinctions about curriculum policy are needed.

From this general literature on policy, one can suggest that a curriculum policy is a general and comprehensive rule issued by some government authority, such as a Minister of Education or designate, who states a decision or determines a course of action about what and how something is taught and learned in schools, thereby influencing the behaviour of citizens, individually or collectively, through the use of positive and negative sanctions. So, in light of these probings and the extension of Lowi's typology, a set of characteristics for curriculum policy and curriculum policy types can be stated and they are presented in Figure 3 (pp. 34-35). The types of curriculum policies and their identifying criteria can result from the processes within the political bureaucratic system.

A further extension of Lowi's typology and of Figure 3 (pp. 34-35) is presented in Figure 4 (p. 37) wherein Lowi's cellular model is adapted to show the five specific types of curriculum policy and their general attributes. Section D of Chapter II which follows describes this typology for determining curriculum policy.

D. A TYPOLOGY OF CURRICULUM POLICY

The four distinct types of public policy which were developed by Lowi (1964 to 1985) establish a meaningful reference for further refinements of specific policy types in a discrete (Dror, 1968) bureaucratic arena such as curriculum. Lowi's work provides the language base for distinguishing among and between distinct policies and the subsequent political activities which they cause. By accepting Lowi's concept of coercion as the pivotal force, with the likelihood of its use being either immediate or remote and affecting either individuals or the environment, it is feasible to compose a typology of curriculum policies. Furthermore, a fifth type of curriculum

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. a policy* | a rule formulated by some governmental authority expressing an intention to influence the behaviour of citizens, individually or collectively, by use of positive and negative sanctions ¹ |
| 2. regulative policy,
distributive policy,
constituent policy,
redistributive policy ¹
and non-policy ¹ | types of policy (see Figure 2, p. 25, for Lowi's typology) |
| 3. curriculum | a statement of intention for use of the document as a guiding force for planning instructional strategies, statements outlining the goals for the school for which the curriculum was designed; a body of culture content that has the potential for the realization of the goals; and a statement of an evaluation scheme for determining the worth and effectiveness of the curriculum system ² |
| 4. curriculum policy | a general and comprehensive rule by some government authority (for example, a minister of education or designate) which states a decision or course of action to determine what and how something is taught and learned in schools, thereby influencing the behaviour of citizens, individually or collectively, by use of positive and negative sanctions |
| 5. regulatory curriculum policy | a direct statement of intended behaviour or direction of intended behaviour or direction to individuals about specific curriculum action and the consequences of compliance and non-compliance |
| 6. redistributive curriculum policy | a direct statement of intended behaviour or direction to the polity about specific curriculum action and the consequences of compliance and non-compliance |

FIGURE 3:

Operant Definitions for a
Selected Study of Curriculum Policy

Source: ¹ T. Lowi*, 1985
² G. Beauchamp, 1975

* Note that Lowi's use of "policy" refers to public policy

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| 7. distributive
curriculum policy | a direct statement of intended behaviour or curriculum policy direction to individuals about specific curriculum action which does not impose obligations on the individual's conduct |
| 8. constituent
curriculum policy | a direct statement of intended behaviour or curriculum policy direction to the polity about specific curriculum action which makes services and facilities available and/or confers powers or jurisdictions |
| 9. curriculum
non-policy | the absence of a rule by some governmental authority which expresses an intention to influence curriculum action individually or collectively by use of positive or negative sanctions |

FIGURE 3 (CONT'D):

Operant Definitions for a
Selected Study of Curriculum Policy

policy, curriculum non-policy, which exists outside the policy typology but which has the potential for becoming a specific type of curriculum policy, depending upon the internal and external forces (Easton, 1965) that influence the political system. Figure 4 (p. 37) represents these categorizations.

This figure extends Lowi's typology into the curriculum policy field; five distinct curriculum policy types are distinguishable: distributive curriculum policy, constituent curriculum policy, regulative curriculum policy, and redistributive curriculum policy. The fifth policy type, curriculum non-policy, is depicted as lying outside the four cells since its irregular or unstable or non-existent qualities have the potential, given contextual timing, demands and outcomes, to develop into any one of the other curriculum policy types or to dissolve if it lacks the characteristics of a public policy.

Regulative and redistributive curriculum policies are primary curriculum policy types because they clearly state expected curriculum behaviour and direction (see Figure 4, p. 37). Failure to comply would result in immediate coercive action towards the individual and environment (for example, school board or school). Specifically, the failure to comply with this type of policy could result in the disciplining of a teacher and/or staff or the withdrawal of financial or other supports to a school district or school board. The larger coercive presence of a Provincial education act and its regulations clearly legitimizes such policy powers.

Common regulative curriculum policies would include public curriculum policies about core subjects, authorized textbooks and their provision, program prerequisites, and specific subject composition as found in courses

Form of Intended Impact which works through

INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOURS

ENVIRONMENTAL BEHAVIOURS

Primary Rule
(imposes
responsibilities,
requirements

(Coercion
Immediate)

Form of

Expressed

Intention

(Coercion
Remote)

Secondary Rule
(provides privileges,
powers, benefits)

Regulatory Curriculum Policy

Traits: Statement(s) of expected
behaviour with obligations for defined
behaviour

Examples: core subjects; religious
education; cadet training; abolition
of exams; evaluating authorized texts;
provision of textbooks; authorization
of approval; time lines; funding

Redistributive Curriculum Policy

Traits: Statement(s) of expected
action which impose classification
schemas, status, or rules for
operation

Examples: an overview of skill and
concept continuum; optionality of
textbooks, emphasis on specific
subjects; provision of funds for
specific subjects

Distributive Curriculum Policy

Traits: Statement(s) allow for un-
conditional privileges and facilities

Examples: program optionality for
students participating in a specific
curriculum program or special project
participation

Constituent Curriculum Policy

Traits: Statement(s) which provide
power, authorization restructure to
existing operates. It may offer rules
for operation, auxiliary services,
and/or reform.

Examples: schemes for clarifying
student programs such as streaming;
dividing schools according to special-
ized purposes such as technical or
vocational or fine arts programs;
special education programs; agencies
and/or procedures such as textbooks
and courses for approval, reform or
development

Curriculum Non-policy - absence of a specific intention, focus, or purpose given; may
reflect need for research, time, unpreparedness, or newness of subject; issue may
dissolve or become a specific policy type

FIGURE 4:

A Typology of Curriculum Policies

Source: Adapted by author

of study, as for example in the case of religious education. Likewise, a particular policy-maker might establish a clear regulative curriculum policy, like cadet training, while another might not approve a Social Studies program. This would be a regulative curriculum policy.

A redistributive curriculum policy, which is directed more to the entire school system and political jurisdiction, could include a policy statement about the overall skill and organization continuum from Kindergarten to senior high school, schemes for clarifying student programs such as streaming into two-, four-, and five-year programs as well as schools designed for the delivery of specialized courses and programs. Essentially, redistributive curriculum policies establish powerful public rules for curriculum activity.

On the other hand, distributive and constituent curriculum policies are examples of secondary curriculum policy types because the likelihood of coercive behaviour is remote. The monitoring process by designated supervisors is one of persuasion, optionality, and coaching. For instance, distributive curriculum policies are illustrated by program optionality for students who participate in specific curriculum schema. So, for example, students who elect to take a four-year high school program in technical studies may select certain concentrations within a given range of choices. Similarly, special project participation in a specific subject area or curriculum schema is a further example of such a policy type whereby rules allow for privileges and primarily unconditional benefits.

Constituent curriculum policies tend to apply to the authorizing agency itself since such makes services and facilities available. So, when curriculum committees, positions, and access to these are established,

rules to set parameters for curriculum activity are made, affecting not just individuals but all who are involved with curriculum. In Ontario, the establishment and operation of a provincial curriculum review committee or curriculum writing team could be examples of constituent curriculum policy.

The fifth policy type, curriculum non-policy, would appear to reflect a contextual policy situation. The causal political forces may be hard to identify or they may be just a timing mechanism which is formative in nature. A government may be stalling for more time to decide a policy or may be caught off-guard by other activities in the polity. The rapid development of a health problem or a major science discovery may create a situation wherein there is no curriculum policy in existence. So, the absence of a policy activates political behaviour which in turn may result in a policy or, in fact, dissolve with time or research when the perceived need for a policy no longer exists. This matter will be examined more specifically in Chapter IV.

In general, it would appear that a large majority of curriculum policies are regulative policies. The language of these public statements of interest are very prescriptive and exacting in terms of approved resources. The presence of prescriptive documents (see Appendices I:C-I:V), school superintendents, as well as system or provincial examinations are common methods for ensuring compliance with the policy's intent. Failure to comply could result in a range of immediate coercive activities, including public awareness, and withdrawal of support which might range from withholding funds to rescinding authorization to teach for a particular individual.

Likewise, when the environment--meaning a school board, school or educational community--fails to follow a redistributive curriculum policy, then that organization becomes the attention of the bureaucracy's immediate coercive powers to ensure compliance. Again, negative public attention, such as court actions or withdrawal of approval, particularly financial support, would be coercive options to ensure compliance.

Distributive and constituent curriculum policies, on the other hand, would not seemingly raise the coercive behaviour of the political authorities so intensely. The patronizing action of these curriculum policymakers towards individuals and the environment would encourage a more incremental approach towards implementation. The extended range of other texts and curriculum resources, as well as the possibility for curriculum to be developed locally, clearly demonstrates how these two types of secondary policy essentially deal with the assignment of curriculum prerogatives and power.

Therefore, Lowi's typology does provide an operational language and framework for identifying and distinguishing various types of curriculum policies. The conclusion is to suggest that all curriculum policies are not alike and to propose that different curriculum policies cause different political action. Just as Kirst and Wirt (1972) and Wirt and Kirst (1975) stressed the strong liaison between politics and education, it would seem there has been a strong relationship between politics and curriculum policies or the lack thereof. The main intention so far has been to establish a theoretical framework for the purposes of identifying, describing, and appreciating specific criteria for recognizing curriculum policies. From these criteria, three research questions emerge:

- (a) What forces determined curriculum policies during this period?
- (b) What were the curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965?
- (c) What type of curriculum policies characterized each designated era within the selected time period?

E. SUMMARY

This chapter presents a review of selected literature on policy, curriculum, and curriculum policy. The work of many theorists, particularly Theodore Lowi, are presented. From Lowi's work, a typology of curriculum policies is developed and from these policy types several characteristics for specific curriculum policy types emerge (see Figure 4, p. 37). These criteria establish the basis for posing three research questions.

Chapter III which follows presents a selected review of the educational milieu in Ontario's from 1945 to 1965, providing the framework for applying the typology of curriculum policy types.

CHAPTER III

AN OVERVIEW OF ONTARIO'S SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT: 1945-1965

But by and large public school programs seem to be a heterogeneous mixture of . . . different bases reflecting political compromises among the heterogeneous values in any state or local district. A study of the value bases for various elements in the school curriculum and the groups who advance and defend each basis would add considerably to our understanding of curriculum policy-making. (Kirst and Walker, 1971, p. 484)

The credibility and adaptability of any theoretical schema lies in its replicability. From 1964 to 1985, Lowi's writings have examined the political context of bureaucracies; therefore, to explore the application of his typology in another bureaucratic milieu, this chapter describes the social and historical reference for the policy context of curriculum in Ontario's public elementary and secondary schools from 1945 to 1965. Chapter I explains the approach to this policy study, which is not an historical case study but rather a theoretical investigation, based on an actual period in recent Ontario educational history. Such has already been authoritatively reported (for example, Fleming, 1972). This chapter has two major parts; a brief historical description which describes the bureaucratic and political context for curriculum policies followed by a five-part synopsis of curriculum issues for each of the five ministerial periods which are included in the 1945 to 1965 timeframe. Figure 10 (p. 103) synthesizes curriculum issues in a social and historical context.

A. ONTARIO AFTER WORLD WAR II: THE FIRST TWENTY YEARS

1. A PERIOD OF GROWTH AND TRANSITION

Fleming (1972) begins his eighth volume on education in Ontario by stating:

Education became an increasingly important phenomenon for the Ontario citizen and for the society in which he lived between the Second World War and the early 1970's. (p. 1)

The two principal factors causing these phenomena were the growth of economy and the changing composition of Ontario's population. For example, from 1951 to 1961 the Canadian population increased about 28 percent from 14 million to 18 million (Porter, 1965, p. 33). The population in Ontario grew from 4 million in 1943 to over 7.8 million in 1971, an increase of 95 percent (Fleming, 1972, p. 33). The entire social picture is succinctly summarized by Fleming (1971a):

The number, rate of growth, age pattern, origin, and rural-urban distribution of Ontario's population have combined to place their own stamp on the province's educational development. Education has both responded to certain demographic factors and exerted a major evolution of these factors. (1971, p. 42)

Demographically, several factors illustrate the unprecedented transition of Ontario's social fabric--the shift from a rural to a dominantly urban population, the increased birth rate, immigration trends, migration patterns within the Ontario labour force, the age distribution of Ontario's population, the shaping of a definitive social structure as a result of class consciousness, new and redefined occupational levels, and social mobility.

Porter (1965) notes how the Depression of the 1930s and World War II halted the Canadian urbanization patterns of the 1920s (Chapter V, pp. 140-139). Despite the hard times on the farm, that lifestyle offered more stability than the unemployment lines in the country's cities and towns. The Royal Commission on Canada's Economic Prospects in 1957 (reported in Porter, 1965) verified that meeting war needs and increased markets over-

seas, as well as the availability of improved agricultural practice and technology, strongly boosted the economy. However, the higher-paying urban jobs still attracted the returning soldiers and the rural adolescents. The 1941 census reported that 45.7 percent of the Canadian population lived on farms. By the 1951 census, the percentage was 43.3, but by 1961 it had plummeted to 28.9 percent. From 1946 to 1958, Canadian farms lost 39,000 workers annually. The educational levels of the labour force were considered in several studies (for example, Porter, 1965) and also noted in the census. Although dramatic shifts to higher educational levels were noted between 1951 and 1962 for the citizens with only elementary education through to those with some high school experience, the education levels of the population (male and female), were higher in urban areas during this period (Porter, 1965).

The second major demographic factor was the change in the birth rate. Fleming (1972) reports that in 1937 Ontario had only 16.9 births per thousand. This rate changed to 20.7 in 1943; 23.8 in 1946; 26.1 in 1947; and peaked by 1959 at 26.8 births. The societal value placed on large families plus the return of service men and the constant arrival of immigrants are factors which determined this growth.

In the meantime, the appeal of Ontario's territorial size, its potential industrial base, and varied climate affected immigration to the province. In 1946 Ontario received 30,000 immigrants. The figure jumped to 147,000 in 1957 but dropped to 37,000 in 1961 only to rise to 117,000 in 1967. Nevertheless, emigration to Ontario from other Canadian centres was approximately 260,000 people. Population growth was still outstanding.

The implication of these statistics for demands on educational services and facilities is noteworthy. This dimension is underscored by a fourth demographic factor--the age distribution of the Ontario population. The low birth rates of the 1930s, coupled with the mortality rates of World War II, are reflected in both the 1941 and 1951 census. There was a less than 8 percent increase in the number of Ontario citizens between five and nineteen years of age for that period; but, between 1951 and 1961 the school-age population jumped by 64 percent from 1.040 million to 1.704 pupils. By 1966, over 30 percent of the Ontario population was school-age (Fleming, 1972).

A final demographic element in the social structure is reflected by class consciousness, occupational levels, and social mobility. Porter identifies education as an important criterion which affects society's composition.

Educational and occupational levels are highly correlated; that is, people who have little education are not likely to have high class position as measured by occupation.

Porter's application of the Blishen Occupation Scale on 1951 and 1961 census data illustrates the high correlation between educational levels as well as occupational and income levels. In 1959, for example, the average annual income of male university graduates was \$7,046 while the average income of males with only elementary education was \$3,266 annually. Such data help to point out the persistent myth that the "drawback of an inadequate education can be overcome by experience in the work world" (Porter, 1965, p. 384). Yet, despite the social and psychological barriers of income inequality, family size, regional differences, religious influence, and self-concept, the data suggest that the population eventually acknow-

ledged that industrialization demands a high involvement in education. The "heterogeneous values in any state or local district" (Kirst and Walker, 1971) are reflected in this data. Children tended to stay in school but, after reaching the compulsory school-leaving age of fourteen years, the statistics in Canada changed drastically.

In 1961 more than two-fifths of the fifteen- to nineteen[-year] age group were out of school. In 1951, at the beginning of the great industrial growth, three-fifths were out of school. That less than one-tenth of the age group twenty to twenty-four were still at school in 1961 indicates the low proportion who continued into higher education. This proportion was almost double that of 1951. . . . The ability of school systems to retain the fifteen- to nineteen-year-olds [was] generally greater in the western provinces than in the eastern ones, although by 1961 Ontario had pulled slightly ahead of Manitoba. (Porter, 1965, pp. 174-175)

These data show that many young people did leave school as soon as legally possible, yet Porter acknowledges that the social milieu could have influenced the length and direction of educational experiences.

Porter provides further evidence of the heterogeneity of the social and educational environment which affected social position and subsequent educational trends.

In 1956 seven-tenths of Canadian families had annual incomes of less than \$5,000. (p. 183)

Likewise:

In the D.B.S. survey on student income and expenditure, 22 percent of classical college students in the B.A. years reported parental incomes of more than \$10,000 a year. (Porter [Dominion Bureau of Statistics (D.B.S.)], 1956, p. 191)

These selected demographics reflect some of the aspects of economic growth between 1945 and 1965. One of the major contribution of Porter's research was the demonstration of the growth and strength of economic power

on Canadian society. Porter (1965), in an earlier study, identified "183 dominant corporation in the Canadian economy" (pp. 232-233). From 1948 to 1950, the power of these corporations extended to controlling 40 to 50 percent of the gross value of production in manufacturing and 90 percent of railway transportation and 170 directorships. In 1950, 18 all-Canadian corporations grossed over \$100 million. By 1960, there were 44 \$100-million corporations, 26 of which had assets under \$100 million in 1950 (Porter, p. 239). Economic growth, in terms of income, class structure, and corporational growth and wealth, proceeded at a phenomenally fast pace.

Therefore, economic and demographic growth were dominant and unavoidable factors which affected the evolution and direction of Ontario society between 1945 and 1965. This growth and change were reflected in the bureaucratic structure of the Ontario Government. The Department of Education also reflected the evolution.

2. ONTARIO'S DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION: 1945-1965

When Egerton Ryerson was fashioning the organizational structure of Ontario's educational services and the corresponding Government programs in the 1850s and 1860s, there were indicators that he envisioned some far-reaching force (McDonald and Chaiton, Eds., 1978).

Long before the 1940s, the Legislature, through the Province's Premier, assigned a portfolio to an elected member of the Legislature who was charged by legislated acts and regulations with responsibility for Ontario's educational system. The Dunlop Era was a break in this process but, as Harris (1967) describes, the organizational structure prior to 1964 reflects many Ryersonian traits.

The affairs of the department was [sic] conducted under his [the Minister's] supervision by a chief director, two deputy ministers, a registrar, and eight superintendents, each responsible for a particular branch: Elementary Education, Secondary Education, Teacher Education, Technological Education and Trade Training, Special Services (audio visual aids, school railway cars, guidance, etc.), Curriculum, Professional Development (in-service education of teachers), and Business Administration. (p. 5)

The organizational schemes for the Department of Education, shown in Figures 5, 6, 7, and 8, illustrate the growth and transition of the Department between 1945 and 1965. Specialization of educational services, as well as bureaucratic growth and development, is reflected in these organizational charts and are duly reported in the Minister's annual reports to the Ontario Legislature and electorate. In 1965, early in the Davis Era, the Department of Education underwent a major reorganization, shown in Figure 9. The overall responsibility of the Department fell to a Deputy Minister who was not an elected member of the Legislature but a civil servant. This person was supported by three Assistant Deputy Ministers consistent with the three distinct divisions within the Department: instruction, administration, and provincial schools/further education. The Department was also supported by several ministerial agencies, such as The Teacher's Superannuation Commission, as well as an Educational Policy and Development Council.

A comparative look at the 1946 and 1965 organizational charts for the Department suggests varied practices and viewpoints towards curriculum and educational policy; for instance, while both terms appeared in the 1965 chart, neither appeared in the 1946 chart. The word, curriculum, does not appear as a distinct entity within the Department until 1956 when the Curriculum and Textbook Branch was established. Prior to that time, cur-

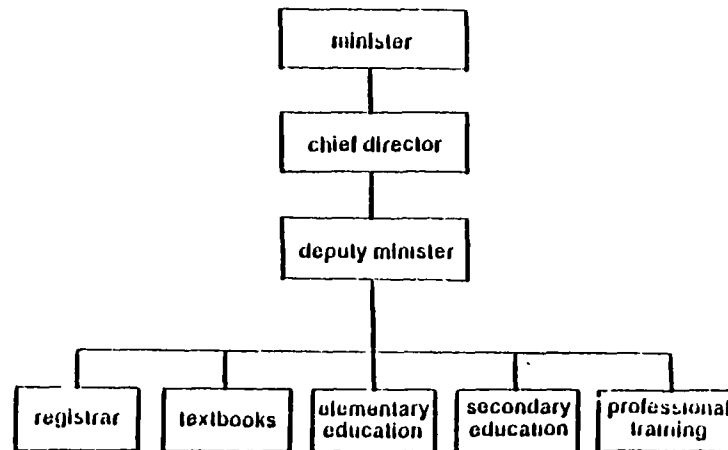


FIGURE 5:

. Organization of the Department of Education, 1946

Source: Minister's Report, 1946

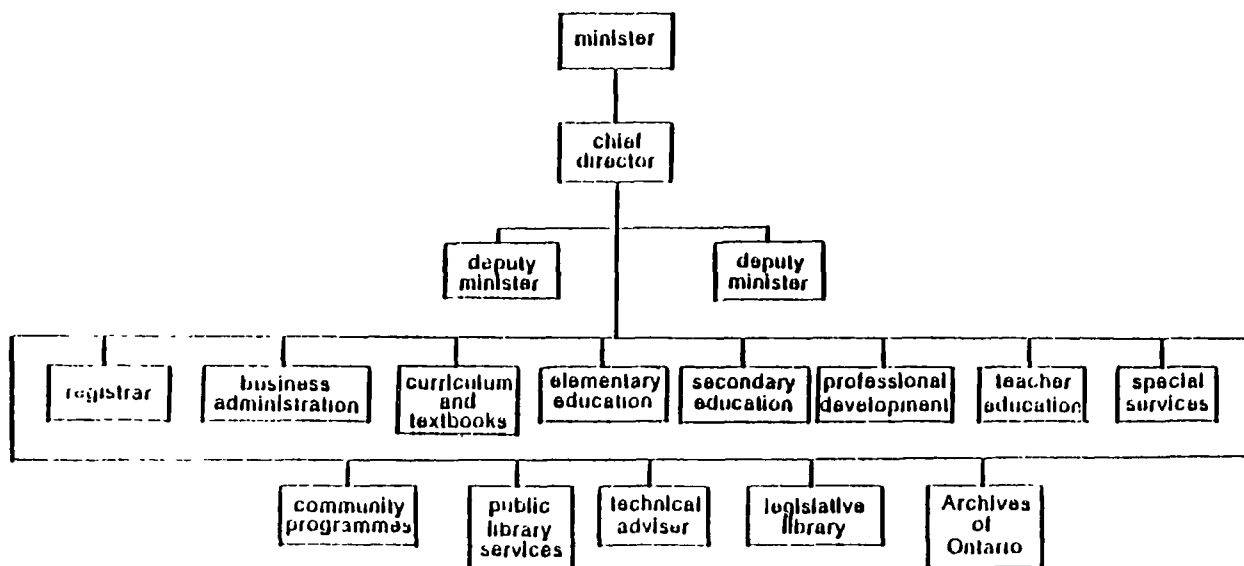


FIGURE 6:

Organization of the Department of Education, 1958

Source: Minister's Report, 1958

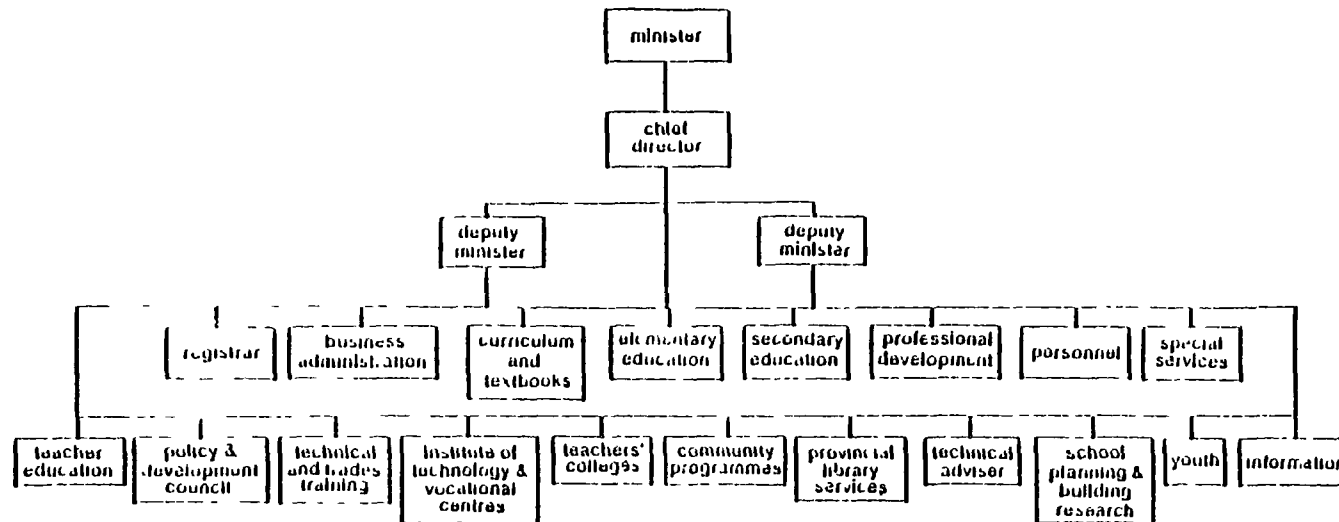


FIGURE 7:

Organization of the Department of Education, 1964

Source: Minister's Report, 1964

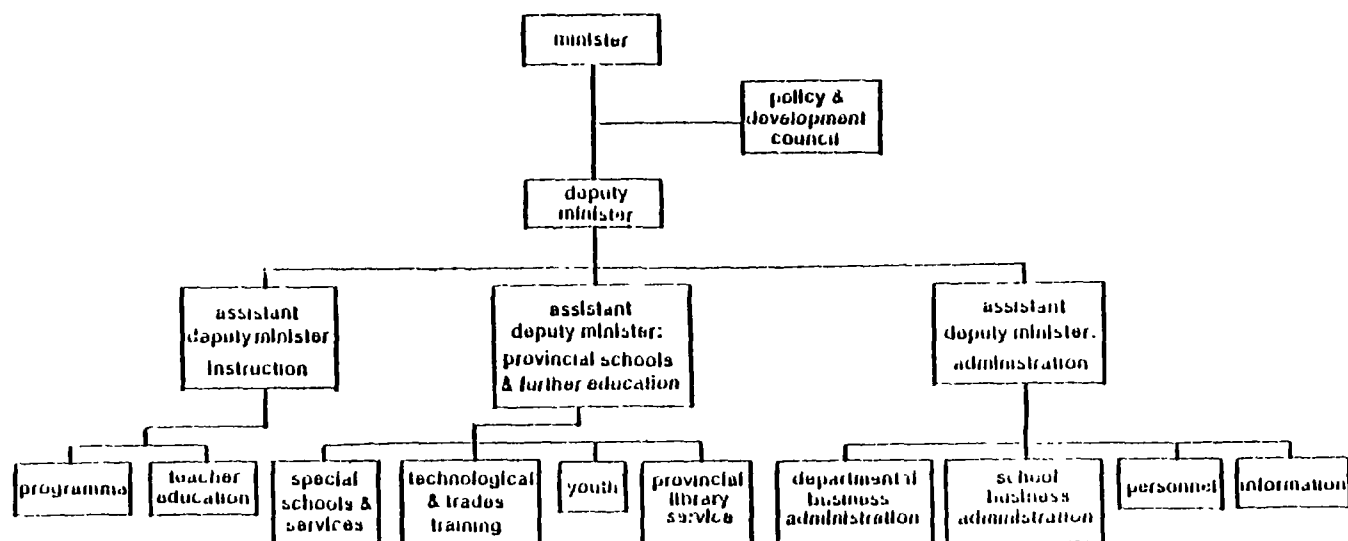


FIGURE 8:

Organization of the Department of Education, 1965

Source: Minister's Report, 1965

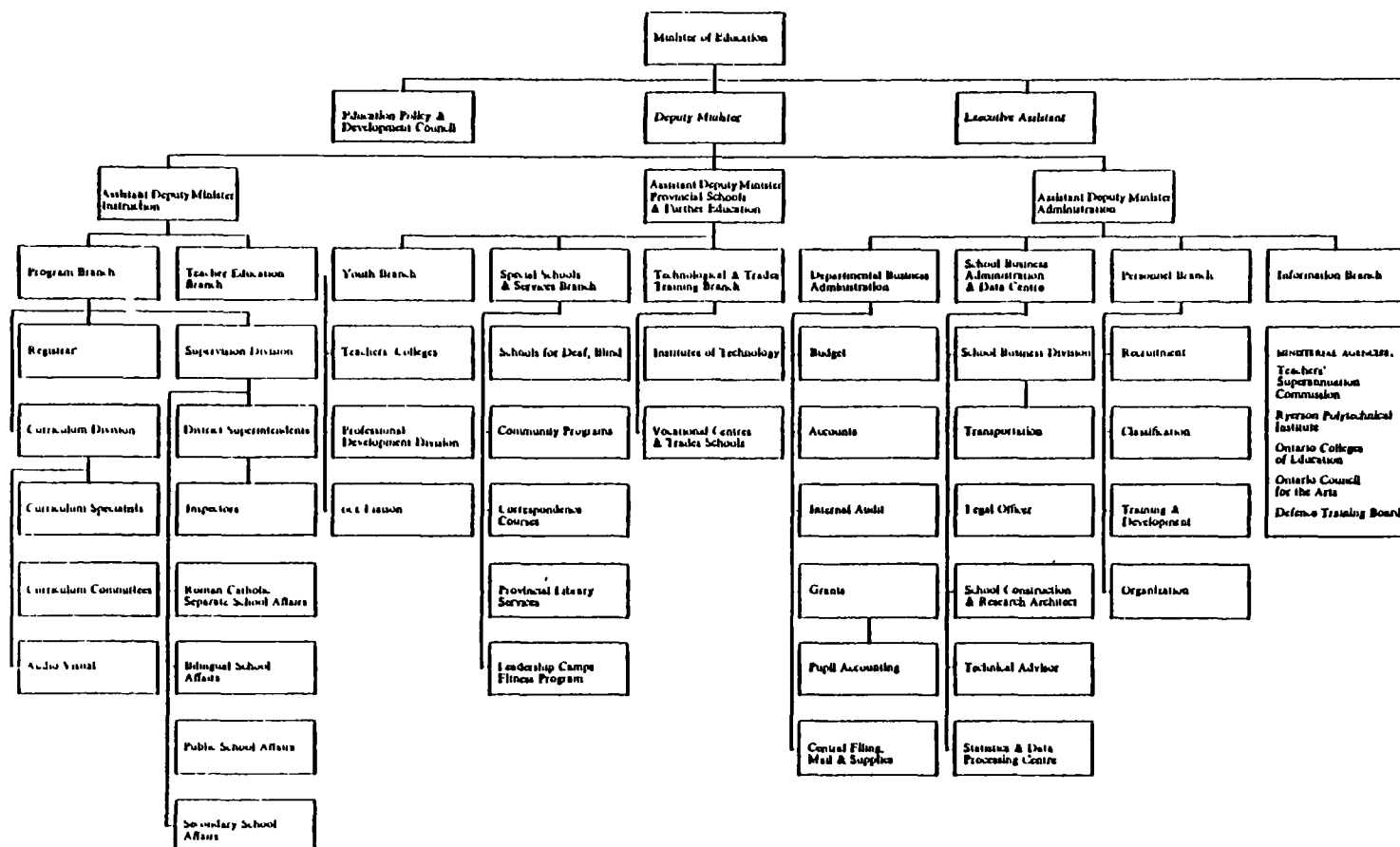


FIGURE 9:

Organization of the Department of Education (Detailed), 1965

Source: Ontario Department of Education records

riculum matters were addressed within the Textbook, Elementary Education and Secondary Education branches. The evolving use of the word "curriculum" is indicative of three major trends in the Department of Education between 1945 and 1965--decentralization, specialization, and provision of specialized services--making it more than just a regulative agency. While these changes evolved gradually and subtly, their pattern was constant (Interviews: Hodgins, McCarthy).

The 1920s are considered the period of greatest centralization for public education in Ontario (Fleming, 1972, p. 72). Everything from textbook costs to supervision was firmly controlled by the Department of Education. This situation stands in sharp contrast to the operation of the Department under William Davis, for example, who established an advisory body in 1964 known as the Policy and Development Council. Fleming (1972) sees this behaviour as indicative of "his determination to transform the department [sic] from a primarily regulatory to a service agency" (p. 80).

Fleming identifies the decision to leave the responsibility for assessing student achievement to the individual schools rather than to external examinations set, distributed, and evaluated by the Department in the years between 1935 and 1939 as a crucial move towards decentralization (p. 73). Although this decision was retracted in 1939, external examinations for Grades 8 and 13 students were dropped in 1949 and 1967 respectively (p. 73).

A second catalyst for the Department's evolution was the publication in 1937 of the Programme of Studies for Grades 1 to 6. While authored by Department appointees, Thorton Mustard and S. A. Watson, the Programme proposed certain practices which remained essentially intact until the late

1950s and 1960s . Such organizations as the Ontario Curriculum Institute (OCI) (Fleming, 1971e, Ch. 11) and the Ontario Mathematics Committee (Fleming, 1972, p. 191) augmented the changes and confrontations.

It was perhaps inevitable that a strong emphasis on curriculum reform would be part of the Davis program when the new minister got his bearings after his appointment in 1962. (Fleming, 1972, p. 195)

Nevertheless, the 1937 document stands as a significant signpost of change for the Department of Education and curriculum work in the Province's public schools. Philosophically based on the progressive theories of John Dewey, the document's content directly reflects the influence and substance of the reports of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education in Great Britain. These reports, submitted between 1927 and 1934 and commonly known as the Hadow Reports (excerpts given in Appendix I:B) after the Committee's chairman, bore the principal theme that a child developed and learned more readily through meaningful activities. Thus, Mustard, Watson and their selected committee of teachers retained this view by discouraging a macro scheme of very prescriptive courses, textbook listings, and supervision which stressed strict uniformity. Fleming (1972) wrote that the 1937 Programme implied a "weakening of administrative power at both the Provincial and local levels in favour of a teaching body with more freedom and discretion" (p. 73). While future Ministers of Education, such as William Dunlop, discouraged such progressivism (Fleming, 1972, p. 75; Harris, 1967), others, including Dana Porter, initiated plans which would lead to decentralizing the curriculum for the public schools.

Another factor affecting the functioning of the Department of Education was the passing of The Teaching Profession Act in 1944 and the establishment of the Ontario Teachers' Federation to which all practising

teachers belong through their respective affiliated federations. The OTF was embryonic in the 1920s, but by the 1940s their professional impact was politically strengthened and articulated (for example, see Robinson, 1968) and, although the immediate focus for the federations was economic- and benefits-oriented (Robinson, 1968; Interviews: Hodgins), the legitimacy established by the 1944 Act appears to have enabled the federations to become an active resource for on-going teacher involvement in many curriculum projects such as the Porter Plan (for instance, see H. Pullen's thesis, 1955).

However, it would be erroneous to conclude that the Department of Education was gradually becoming a figurehead organization. For example, it still retained its powerful regulation of teacher certification. Two factors which indicate the control of the Department over its jurisdiction are noteworthy--the role played by J. G. Althouse, Director of Education from 1944 to his death in 1956 and the additional services assumed, developed, and continued by the Department during the 1940s, '50s, and '60s.

In 1944, the Conservatives improved their 1943 minority electoral results with a decisive majority and the Premier, George Drew, who was also the Minister of Education, asked Toronto-based educator, J. G. Althouse, to leave his position at the Ontario College of Education and join the Department as the Chief Director. This was a position resurrected from the Department's 1906 organizational format. Althouse, who served in that position for three ministers, left an indelible mark on Ontario education. His diverse educational experiences and contacts ensured him a dominant role in Ontario education. He maintained an on-going liaison with the federations, trustees, and school administrators. He served as President of the then

influential Ontario Education Association (OEA) from 1948 to 1949 and was a regular speaker at its annual conferences. Frequently, he would use such engagements to state or underscore Departmental policies and preferences (see List of References, Part III). However, as Fleming (1972) acknowledges that

. . . while Althouse wrote and spoke in enthusiastic support of strong local authorities . . . [he] seems to have overestimated the share of power they actually exercised in relation to the department [sic]. The departmental [sic] machinery at his disposal was mainly designed for the exercise of supervisory functions. (p. 74)

Nevertheless, during his tenure, Althouse served as a dominant link with the daily functioning of the Department of Education.

A description of Ontario's Department of Education from 1945 to 1964 must include reference to the Royal Commission on Education, 1945-1950; the Porter Plan; and the Reorganized Plan for Secondary Schools more frequently known as the "Robarts Plan". These significant occurrences will be considered later in this chapter in the historical context in which they happened. The main intent of the above description is to illustrate the evolutionary nature of Ontario's Department of Education. Various historical events, values, organizations, and individuals served to shift the completion of the Department's curriculum activities.

3. CONTEXT FOR ONTARIO'S CURRICULUM POLICY (1945-1965): SUMMATION

This section highlights the many factors which made up the social and educational milieu of Ontario between 1945 and 1965. The multi-dimensional demands on the Provincial Government and the Department of Education and its curriculum were unpredicted. Figure 10 (p. 103) portrays chronologically the "heterogeneous mixture of different bases" in Ontario's society,

especially in its educational context, from 1945 to 1965 and, as an historical overview, depicts the various gradual and sharp departures from tradition as well as those dimensions of Ontario educational and social history which are part of the evolutionary picture.

The important influence of the policy context (Lasswell, 1971) and the personality impact of the policy-makers (Dror, 1968; Gergen, 1968; Andriole, 1979) are reflected in the amount and diversity of activities in educational matters, particularly on curriculum issues. However, the curriculum policies for each of the five eras of this study were a prescribed core of subjects: English (Reading, Spelling, Language), Mathematics (Arithmetic), Physical Education, and Social Studies (see Appendices I:F-I:Q). For example, Appendix I:C illustrates the rigid curriculum policies for Grades 1 to 6. The philosophy, methodologies, evaluation, and approved textbooks were clearly stated and reflected the centralized jurisdiction of curriculum practices. Likewise, the impact of the chief policy-maker (Dror, 1968) was felt in each era. Drew's policy for daily religious education and cadet training (see Chapter IV), Porter's abolition of high school entrance exams (see Appendix I:F, p. 220, "INTERMEDIATE DIVISION", item (d)), as well as Porter's shift to decentralizing the curriculum (column 5 of Figure 10 and Appendices I:F, I:H-I:J and I:M), illustrate the incremental shift for curriculum design and implementation policies. Appendix I:O reflects the same spirit during the Dunlop Era. Certainly the increase in educational budgets, student and teaching populations (Figure 10, columns 1-3), as well as external and internal events (Figure 10, columns 4-6), along with historical events, such as Sputnik in 1957, created a milieu wherein incremental policy-making did not keep satisfac-

tory pace in policy development. Consequently, the social and historical milieu was ripe for the new vocational and technical training curriculum policies of the Robarts and Early Davis Eras (Figure 10, columns 3-4).

Appendices I:R and I:T illustrate the complete macro curriculum policy of a Kindergarten to Grade 13 continuum with a smoother transition from elementary to secondary school. Porter's public statement that 46 percent of Ontario's youth left school when they reached sixteen years of age (Appendix I:E) was the incremental base for Robarts' discrete policy for a three-branched program (Appendix I:R).

By the Robarts Era, the social-historical context was primed for Robarts' closure (Gershuny, 1978) for the situation and, after the scanning of policy options and considering only six out of every hundred Grade 9 students were going on to university (see *The Robarts Era*, p. 87), specific macro and discrete policies were needed. Emphasis on the Sciences (see Appendix I:S), Mathematics, and job-oriented programs were established to meet an unprecedented school population and technological world. Incremental maintenance of core subjects was not enough. The curriculum policies of the Robarts and Early Davis Eras had a strong core base but a more eclectic optionality for intermediate and senior students in Ontario became a reality. Simultaneously, local school boards and schools were encouraged to experiment with program context. Thus, the curriculum policies of the latter two eras had an academic, a vocational, and a technological basis which envisioned three options for the students: college/university entrance, apprenticeship programs, or direct entry into the labour market (see Appendix I:V). Figure 10 (p. 103) depicts the social and historical setting for these curriculum policies and policy-making.

B. A SYNOPSIS OF SELECTED HISTORICAL EVENTS IN ONTARIO'S EDUCATION
AND CURRICULUM: 1945-1965

1. THE DREW ERA (1943-1948)

George Alexander Drew (1894-1973) was first elected Premier of Ontario on August 4, 1943, defeating the Liberal Government of Mitchell Hepburn. Drew's minority government returned with a majority in the 1944 Provincial election which the Provincial Conservative Party based on a "Twenty-Two-Point Plan" platform. The ninth and tenth points of the platform were specifically directed towards the Province's educational system (see Appendix I:D).

Drew, who retained the position of Minister of Education as well as the premiership, noted that education was one area where he was not satisfied with his government's progress. Two key events subsequently occurred. Firstly, in 1944, at Drew's request, John George Althouse joined the Department as Director of Education. This position, which was resurrected from the Department's 1906 organizational chart, carried a wide range of responsibilities and authority. The occupant was answerable only to the Minister, and Althouse exercised this prerogative (Fleming, 1972).

A second major event during this period was the establishment of a Royal Commission on Education by Order-in-Council. Chaired by Mr. Justice John Andrew Hope, the 21 commissioners undertook an all-encompassing study of education throughout the Province. The report of the Commission, however, was not submitted until December 21, 1950--long after Drew had moved to Ottawa as Leader of the Opposition for the Federal Progressive Conservative Party. Leslie Frost had become Premier in 1949 and Drew Porter had taken over the Education portfolio.

In the interim period of 1945 to 1949, Drew undertook a promissory approach to educational issues, indicating that there would be solid educational reform based on the Commission's findings. Drew's own strong military background (although he left the Army in 1918, he continued in an active leadership and literary role for the Militia in the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel) and the daily presence of World War II flavored Drew's speeches with common themes of instilling values of patriotism, Christian principles, and self-discipline. Such value statements reflected a perception which Drew held of the family, church, and school's responsibilities to instil strong ethical values for freedom and democracy (excerpts from Drew Papers, National Archives, pp. 69-71). As Premier and Minister of Education, Drew was able to influence certain educational and curriculum policies while still waiting for the report of the Hope Commission. For instance, cadet training for all male students in Grades 10, 11 and 12 became compulsory throughout the Province in 1944. By 1947, there were nearly 30,500 male students and 223 cadet corps in Ontario secondary schools (Drew Papers, National Archives).

Daily religious education for every public school student was compulsory. For example, in the Spring of 1944, the Director called S. A. Watson from his position at the Ottawa Normal School to prepare a religious education curriculum for the following September. Watson wrote a program in consultation with various resource persons and had a document ready for the schools in September (Fleming, 1972, p. 197; Interview: P. Watson, 1982).

Curriculum policies during the Drew Era were characterized by regulatory, non-policy, and redistributive curriculum policies (Lowi, 1972) (see Interpretation Summary, Chapter IV, p. 135-138). The 1937 Programme

(revised) and subsequent revisions (see Appendix I:C) had set a tone, pace, and focus which seemed to be most palatable to an administration caught within the strains of an escalating and costly war effort. Patriotism, character building, and the nuclear family were to be supported by a curriculum which developed nationalism, as well as basic reading, composition, and mathematical skills. The goods, services, and resources were available and/or just waiting to be developed and applied. Consequently, it was simply a matter of responsible utilization and distribution of such resources. Drew's nation-wide address on CBC Radio on September 24, 1943, is representative of his government's mega policy stance (Dror, 1971).

I believe that two of the most important departments of government are Health and Education. . . . Our whole future depends on the proper education of our youth. It will be the object of the Government to make sure that, as far as is humanly possible, every child, wherever they live and whatever the circumstances of their parents may be, will have an opportunity to be educated to the full extent of their individual capacity [sic]. But changes which undoubtedly should be made cannot be made overnight.

Drew continued his remarks by reviewing his perception of the state of the school's curriculum.

We took office immediately before the opening of a new school year. The curriculum in all schools, the courses of training, and the procedure for the school year had all been laid down. Desirable changes, therefore, are necessarily subject to very definite limitations during the course of the present school year. Changes in the near future will necessarily be changes of policy rather than of detail.

His personal values and principles were stated in his view of the child as an individual and learner.

One of the fundamental requirements of education is an early understanding of the duties of citizenship. Our children should know much more than they do now about the method by which we govern ourselves, whether it be

in the Dominion, the Provincial, or the Municipal [sic] sphere. If children, on completing their school years, are to take their place within a working democracy, then they must have a clear understanding of the essential facts regarding the machinery and purpose of the system under which we govern ourselves. They also must have a clear appreciation of the obligation of every citizen to take his part if the democracy is to survive. In building a responsible citizenship, it is essential that we return to simple ideas of personal discipline and recognition of constituted authority. There is widespread concern today about what we have come to call Juvenile Delinquency. . . . Is it not very largely a failure of education? The root of the trouble is in most cases a lack of discipline and an absence of the moral standards which should result from effective teaching in the homes, the churches, and the schools.

Similarly, he coloured his beliefs by stating his views of the times and his administration's goals.

So far as the schools are concerned, new responsibilities have been thrust upon them by the war and it will be our purpose to make sure, as far as we can, that the children of Ontario have a real understanding of discipline and responsibility. Our future will rest in their hands and as a Government we can have no higher ambition than to lay the firm foundation in our schools for that full measure of health, happiness and security which should be the lot of all our people if we make full use of the great opportunities which Divine Providence has placed at our disposal. (Drew Papers, 1943-1944, File 146 (3b), National Archives)

Such statements received public support from many sectors, as reflected in an Ottawa editorial:

It happens that we have come to the end of an epoch and it is essential that adjustments and improvements be made if the coming generation is to meet the new challenge of citizenship. . . . Basically sound is Mr. Drew's conception that the aims of education must emphasize the development of individual character. . . . He has chosen some excellent men to guide the reorganization of the department, including the revision of textbooks, and the fact that on his recent visit to Britain he made a special study of future British plans along this line is encouraging. In his new move Premier Drew will have the good will of the public. (Ottawa Evening Citizen, February 12, 1944)

Shortly thereafter, the press reported Drew's statement to delegates at the Ontario Educational Association's annual convention.

The aims of education are the development of character and of a sound body, and the training in clear thinking needed to tackle the problems of the day and express those thoughts in understandable words. (Toronto Globe and Mail, April 12, 1944).

Consequently, Premier Drew's address during the inauguration of Ontario's Twenty-first Legislature was being acted upon. Drew had clearly stated that education was a major priority for his administration as evidenced by the re-organization of the Department of Education's structure. Such discrete policy (Dror, 1971) was further revised by his statements to the Legislature:

Increasing emphasis will be placed upon the importance of the development of character. Religious education will be offered in public and secondary schools. Cadet training, under school control, will become a part of the regular programme. Physical and health education will be extended. The duties of citizenship and significance of Canadian institutions will be given a more important place in the school curriculum. Schools will be encouraged to develop a co-operative spirit and the habit of assuming responsibilities. (Drew Papers, "Addresses", p. 2, File 146, National Archives)

The expediency of action on Drew's two major curriculum policies is noteworthy because of his personality's influence (Dror, 1968) upon policy-making. Colonel Stanley A. Watson, who later became the Assistant Superintendent of Elementary Education, in reporting to the Royal Commission on December 18, 1946, outlined the preparation of the religious education program. Watson, who had been a master at Toronto's Normal School, was Principal of Ottawa's Normal School when he received the request to go to Toronto to start the project. Work began on the manual and text on June 12, 1944. British parallels, such as the Surrey Guides and the

Cambridgeshire Syllabus, were consulted, but Watson readily admitted the novelty of the exercise:

I came into the thing cold, and the books were entirely new to me. I made a study of them . . . and I arranged topics to form a tentative course of study to be submitted to a number of church leaders. One week after I began on June 19 we had that in form to send on to religious leaders and it was sent together with the regulations with a covering letter signed by Dr. Alt-house to numerous critics. (Then began the preparation of the manual whose proofs were sent by July 24 to 35 to 40 religious leaders.) The programme as finally amended was presented to the Minister on the 17 of August. . . . That went to press the next day. It was distributed without changes; it was authorized by the Minister; it was printed by the firm of Noble Scott, and the arrangement was made by the King's Printer. (Proceedings, Witness No. 452, Briefs to Royal Commission Vol. 2, pp. 5258-5259, Provincial Archives)

Drew was undoubtedly pleased with the quick regulatory exactness of the religious education policy which he felt was essential for developing human character. He constantly reminded the Ontario public of this policy during his numerous radio broadcasts. For example, in a address entitled Education for Tomorrow, Drew explained his policy clearly:

The simple truth is that the character of our people will determine the strength of our society, and the highest academic attainments will not give the pupils in our school much chance of personal happiness or usefulness to their community unless their character has been developed in our homes, our churches, and our schools in such a way that they will know how to use the education which they have received. That was the reason religious education became part of the curriculum in the public schools in September 1944. The provisional books issued for the teachers are undergoing a general revision with the assistance of the Inter-Church Committee on Religious Education and in that way still further improvements will be made in a course which is, I believe, giving very general satisfaction. It is the intention of the Department of Education to assure to the pupils in our elementary schools the teaching of those ethical standards of life which are the foundation of every good society. (Speech over a Provincial network, February 6, 1948, 8:00-8:15 p.m., Drew Papers, Vol. 311, File 314(3b), National Archives)

Drew's explicitness and directiveness were satisfactorily received. Almost four years earlier, on April 12, 1944, the Toronto Globe and Mail reported: "Miss Charlotte Whitton, Ottawa social research adviser to the Progressive Conservative Party, said that the introduction of religious instruction into Ontario schools by the Drew Government was one of the greatest steps forward in the direction of post-war reconstruction yet undertaken. She was addressing a luncheon of the home economics section . . . of the 1944 OEA's convention in Toronto" (p. 4).

This influencing theme of post-war reconstruction appears to have been a dominant attitudinal influence Drew's curriculum policies. The second major area of curriculum policy upon which Drew prided himself was cadet training. As he explained on numerous occasions, this compulsory course, which evolved into Citizenship Corps Training Programme (1947-1948), was intended to teach,

. . . in addition to physical and health education, basic foot drill, rifle shooting, and practical examples of good citizenship. This course is supplementary to the regular course in physical and health education, and is designed to develop loyalty, good sportsmanship, personal resourcefulness and discipline. (Radio Address, February 6, 1948, Drew Papers, p. 2. Vol. 311, File 314(3b), National Archives)

Drew's military background may have influenced his special concern for this curriculum policy and he undoubtedly felt that the Allies' victory was not a lasting indicator of international peace. For instance, during his address at Convocation Hall on November 9, 1945, when receiving a degree of Doctor of Laws, Drew bluntly noted: "The inescapable truth is that victory has given us no real sense of security" (Drew Papers, File 249-271, Folder 252 (3b), National Archives).

Public approval appears to have been evident given the historical context and prevailing values (Kroll, 1962). Drew's Government intended to extend cadet training "with the idea of installing in youth, discipline," and that in future it would be necessary "for nations who love freedom to prepare to protect it" (Toronto Globe and Mail, May 12, 1944,).

Never again should we be caught completely unprepared.
(Drew Papers, Vol. 304, Folder 177 (3b), National Archives)

Thus it should be of little surprise to note the tone and intent of Drew's address on April 8, 1947, to the Ontario School Inspectors' Association when he "learned a few weeks ago that a few schools in Ontario had closed down their cadet corps without any previous discussion with the Department of Education" (Drew Papers, Vol. 310, File 303 (3b), National Archives)..

Acting as Premier and Minister of Education, Drew did not hesitate to respond and he delineated his behaviour as well as intentions:

Immediately after receiving this information, I directed that all principals of Secondary Schools be informed that this training was to continue and that they were to disregard the instructions received from the Department of National Defence.

He continued by indicating the precise procedure and purposes which he as the chief policy maker intended to carry out.

I wish to take this occasion to inform you officially, as inspectors of the Secondary Schools of Ontario, that this training will continue and that the Ontario Department of Education is not prepared to accept any arbitrary limitation imposed by the Dominion Department of National Defence. The one simple point I wish to impress upon you is that cadet training is going to continue in our schools without any arbitrary reduction, and I also wish it clearly understood in the future that the principals of the schools in this province are not to act upon any Department of the Dominion Government in matters relating to school activities.

The supervision of education is a subject of exclusive provincial jurisdiction. Every Department of the Ontario Government will welcome discussion with any Department of the Government of Ottawa. But no Minister at Ottawa has any authority to give directions to principals, or anyone else connected with the schools of this province, in relation to any matter dealing with school activities. I thought it well that I should make this perfectly clear. (Drew Papers, Vol. 310, File 303 (3b), pp. 1-2, National Archives)

Such a precise statement leaves little doubt as to what the discrete policy regarding cadet training was, who determined it, and what force influenced its parameters. Such a regulatory and redistributive policy shows the coercive power of centralized politics where specific individuals are not named but the route for bargaining is unqualifiably defined.

Another area of redistributive policy for the Drew administration which affected curriculum projects was the financing of educational costs.

On March 18, 1944, Drew's March 17th radio address was reported:

The Premier said the granting of an additional \$3.5 million for education, amounting to one mill of general assessment, was not an alternative to the pledge made by the party. The carrying out of that pledge would take considerable time if it was to be done well, he said. 'Any attempt to make some snap decision would only have aggravated the very conditions which we are trying to cure,' the Premier continued. (Toronto Globe and Mail)

This was cautious progression towards alleviating the inequalities of the tax system on a mega scale and Drew did not hesitate to indicate how his administration wanted school boards and municipal councils to use educational grants. For instance, in a statement to the Ontario Legislature on March 22, 1946, Drew outlined the following statement as an alternative to all school boards accounting for increased education grants in their estimated tax needs to their respective municipal councils:

There are a number of places where the very opposite is the case. I do not think it is necessary to single out any particular school board or any particular municipality. The simple fact is that a number of school boards in urban municipalities have embarked on a spending spree which is denying any advantage to the taxpayers from these grants.

It is obvious that some school boards seem to think that they should try to find a way of spending all the money they can to use up these grants. This is not consistent either with the letter or the spirit of the instructions which were given.

We have been most anxious not to make any changes in the system adopted last year until we have received the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Education. I think it is only right, however, that I should impress upon those school boards and municipalities which are not co-operating, that a continuance of this course can only lead to a restriction of local authority over the use of these grants. . . . The stated purpose for which these large grants were made must be recognized or the government could have no choice but to take appropriate steps to assure some measure of control. (Drew Papers, Vol. 308, File 267 (3b), National Archives)

Such an explicit statement is typical of a regulative policy as well as indicative of the beginning of the shift from a strongly centralized to a decentralized system. For while the increased grant policy was a redistributive policy, its perceived abuse initiated a regulative policy statement with a very implicit indication of immediate coercion (Lowi, 1970) if the tenets of the policy were not met. At the same time, it is noteworthy to recognize the temporality of the policies as an interim measure until the Royal Commission made its recommendations inferring that rational and comprehensive measures were being taken to ensure that the best possible policies were established. In the meantime, cautious incremental policy-making was seen as the best pattern of action, although later accounts following the 1950 reporting of the Royal Commission had suggested

that the Drew Government had really been unsure of any direction (Stewart, 1956). The fact remains that, despite any major curriculum policy changes other than the compulsory religious education program and the compulsory cadet training for secondary school male students, there were really only cosmetic changes to the curriculum through the Department Textbook Branch.

Sidney D. Holmes, Editor-in-Chief, reported to a special committee for the Royal Commission that the general procedure for the preparation, editing and publishing of text books was very straightforward. The first step would be the establishment of a new course of study or a new curriculum, or a decision that the existing textbook was no longer suitable. Then a committee would be appointed to investigate the question of a new textbook, there being two methods for selection. The Department might appoint an author and commission him to write a textbook, or it might examine a number of books submitted by the publishers and a committee would choose or recommend a textbook (paraphrase of oral presentation to the Royal Commission by Mr. S. D. Holmes, Editor-in-Chief of Textbooks, on April 26, 1945) (Brief No. 10, p. 5058, Vol. 2).

Like other curriculum guidelines of the day, there was little allowance for variations and experimentation. Prescriptive programs were regulated by definitive resource and textbook listing. Occasional changes can be noted in the textbook titles, but the essential educational and curriculum policies were stipulated by the Minister, his Director, and Superintendents in Toronto, and enforced by the teams of Provincial inspectors who visited the Province's system of public education dominated by one-room schools.

Consequently, while the educational policies of the Drew Era were affected by contemporary values, there was only incremental curriculum change in policy. The preamble to the annual Grades 1 to 6 program was only changed by a rearrangement of introductory paragraphs (see Appendix I:C). The principle established by the British Hadow Commission in light of Deweyism remained intact. A specific grade system, a prescriptive listing of approved texts (see Appendix I:C), and a Provincial examination system at the end of Grades 8 and 13 guaranteed a certain pattern of homogeneous rigidity. The curriculum policies might be described as ones of cautious anticipation. The returning servicemen were creating unpredicted demands on an already small and ill-trained teaching force. Therefore, curriculum policies appeared to be characterized by cautious incrementalism as the Minister and his senior staff looked anxiously to the Hope Commission for concrete and long-ranging direction. The pending report of the Royal Commission unexpectedly gave Drew the opportunity for a non-policy situation (Bachrach and Baratz, 1962; Boyd, 1978) as the Commission continued with its investigation. However, while Drew could rationalize cautious incremental behaviour in terms of a need for comprehensive decisions for a situation of unprecedented growth and demands, the Frost and Porter Governments could no longer afford to buy more time as the mounting costs for the Royal Commission on Education and the non-policy behaviours began to cloud the next era.

2. THE PORTER ERA (1948-1951)

Dana Harris Porter (1901-1967), first elected to the Provincial Legislature in 1943, served in a variety of portfolios until he became Chief Justice of Ontario in February 1958. In 1944, he undertook the

establishment of a new portfolio, Planning and Development, until he became Minister of Education in 1948, a post he held until 1951. Porter was Attorney General for Ontario from 1949 to 1955 and held other portfolios until his 1958 appointment as Chief Justice for Ontario.

In 1949, Leslie Frost became Premier. Both men felt the pressure of the questions raised by the Opposition and the press about the pending report of the Hope Commission. After three years of investigation and mounting public expense, there were increasing cries for a report which Drew had promised would set the tone and direction of Provincial education for the rest of the century.

Fleming (1972, Chapter III) suggests that Porter's impatience led him to go ahead with the delivery of a speech (text given in Appendix I:E) to teachers at St. Thomas, Ontario, on November 3, 1949. Not only did Porter's announcement of the realignment of the schooling scheme into four divisions--Primary, Junior, Intermediate and Senior--mean a restructuring of the Province's educational system, it was also indicated a major shift towards decentralizing the curriculum process from Toronto to local curriculum teams (Fleming, 1971, 1972; H. Pullen's thesis, 1957; Robinson, 1969). On December 10, 1949, the Department of Education issued a circular (see Appendix I:F) which stated Grades 1 to 13 were divided into four divisions: Primary, Junior, Intermediate and Senior. Shifts in curriculum practice appeared evident. For instance, local boards were encouraged to experiment with grouping the Primary Division and parts of the Grade 13 courses were filtered into Grades 11 and 12 courses. But it was the Intermediate Division which appears to have had the strongest focus. For example, item 3 of the ten-item directive abolished high-school entrance examinations, the

number of obligatory courses decreased, and the allowance for more optional courses in the senior years of the Intermediate Division and terminal courses at the end of Grade 10 were provided. Pullen (thesis, 1955) describes the many activities and evolutionary practices that occurred prior to, during, and after Porter's speech, as well as subsequent memoranda which were issued from the Department.

Two major curriculum policy shifts are particularly noteworthy; namely, the procedure for textbook approval and the involvement of local educators in curriculum matters. As Pullen (thesis, 1955) notes,

. . . prior to the 1949 pronouncement, very little curriculum revision was being done either in Ottawa or in Ontario communities elsewhere. (p. 4)

But with Porter's 1949 incentives, which many including Pullen felt were augmented by the Minister's observation of teacher and federation involvement in curriculum work, especially since 1937,

. . . a new venture was launched when certain curriculum re-organization took place in Ontario and local co-ordinating communities were given a large measure of control over their curricula. This was a new, non-mandatory step in this province and attracted national attention. (p. 6)

From 1949 to 1953, the remaining records of local boards of education, federations, and OEA reported on a myriad of projects. But, as Fleming, among others, noted, the "courses of study produced did not, however, break much new ground" (1972, p. 189). Several explanations are offered by researchers such as Pullen and Fleming: the suddenness and the newness of this type of professional experience for the majority of teachers, the scarcity of teachers, and the advent of other matters (see Figure 10, p. 103) which were facing the Department at the time. Fleming suggests three explanations for the demise of the Porter Plan:

. . . the customary inertia that sets in after the novelty has worn off any new scheme . . . the satisfactory quality of the Department's intermediate courses which led local communities to see little . . . advantage in introducing their own variations . . . as well as the appointment of W. J. Dunlop as Minister of Education in 1951. (p. 189)

Dunlop's appointment will be addressed in the next section because the impact of the Hope Commission's report on Ontario education from 1950 to 1955 cannot be overlooked.

The Royal Commission on Education was appointed by Order-in-Council on March 21, 1945. Public hearings were conducted from April 11, 1945, to December 1946. The Commission continued to meet until October 27, 1950, and the first report was presented to the Legislature by Premier Frost on December 15, 1950.

After five years' of on-going criticism, few remembered its all-encompassing mandate. The public, and the press in particular, consistently negated the value and purposes it served. For example, an article published on February 3, 1951, stated that

. . . the voluminous Hope Report on education, a 500,000-word volume that was five years in the making, was tabled in the Ontario Legislature yesterday. It prompted joking and laughter among MPP's but no serious comment. (Toronto Globe and Mail)

Subsequently, it was of little surprise that Premier Frost rose in the Legislature on April 5, 1950, and said:

In the end, of course, the Government must take the responsibility for policy and for changes which are made now or in the future and changes will be made as indicated in view of circumstances which exist from time to time. (Leslie M. Frost Speeches [three boxes], Speech No. 3, p. 2, Public Archives)

Such remarks were consistent with Frost's later statements on February 7, 1951, in which he responded to the debate on the Throne Speech:

Those parts of the Report which are very extensive and upon which there is unanimous agreement on the part of the Commission . . . are subjects which deserve the utmost consideration.

to which he added:

The position of the Government then and now is simply this--that the Government in no way considers itself bound by the Report either in whole or in no part, whether the recommendations are unanimous or not. The Report and everything in the same will have to be considered in the light of what the Government finds to be in the best interests if all our people. In no sense has there been any delegation of policy to the Commission. Responsibility for policy must always remain in the elected representatives of the people. This is the position of the Government in relation to the Report and will so remain. (Leslie M. Frost Speeches [three boxes], Speech No. 70, p. 3, Public Archives)

The final message was very clear. Publicly, the Report of the Royal Commission on Education had not served as the intended unifying and directive force. Its recommendations fell into five distinct areas: a reorganization of the Province's school system from an 8-5 plan into a 6-4-3 program; a total reorganization of school districts throughout the Province in order to create larger units of administration; the termination of publicly-supported Roman Catholic separate schools at Grade 6; the use of English as the official language of instruction and communication in all publicly-supported Ontario schools; and (5) the creation of a new system of grants and educational financing (Goulson, 1966, p. 380).

However, according to a Toronto Star editorial on February 8, 1950, the Frost Government did not totally abandon the Report.

In his first reference to the royal commission [sic] report, the premier said his government would adopt a 'go slow' policy. He indicated the government doesn't plan to adopt the major proposal of the Hope Commission--division of the school system into three levels with resulting curtailment of separate school authority. (p. 1)

The crux of the matter appears to be that, because of the separate school issues, the Report's recommendation on the gradual decentralization of intended educational area, continued centralization of business and financial issues (Recommendations 55(a) and 55(b) in Appendix I:G), as well as ethical issues of curriculum development and implementation (Recommendations 16 and 17 also in Appendix I:G), were lost in the general malaise which followed the submission of the Report.

Later studies of the Report (Stewart, 1956; Goulson, 1966) suggest that the Hope Commission deserved a better reception and appreciation. Few critics remember the scope of its mandate, the philosophical basis it established, or its nine aims. As Goulson (1966) summarizes:

. . . beclouded by ridicule and misunderstanding were the sound research and reporting and the 'non-disagreement' proposals which made up the bulk of the presentation. These included important suggestions on such matters as expanded research and experimentation in education, province-wide improvement in library facilities, multiple authorization of textbooks, keeping abreast of audio-visual and other teaching techniques, closer medical and dental supervision of students, a graduated counselling service, less stress on external examinations, more diversified technical training, and closer concern for exceptional children. Barren on the surface, the Hope Commission has given life to many later developments in the province's educational system.

Through the 1950's the pall on Ontario education continued. The 1960's, however, brought forth a burst of government energy which expressed itself in several directions and at different levels. (p. 389)

Such observations also suggest another negative pressure on the Porter Plan. As Fleming correctly says: "The new plan was worked out by those who knew what the Commission was going to recommend" (p. 189). Therefore, given the public outcry against the Commission's Report and ill-prepared teacher committees throughout the Province, the impact of the Porter Plan

was understandably deflated and reduced to the process of incrementalism within Frost's preference for a "go-slow" policy route. So, during the Porter Era, curriculum policy was predominantly one of regulative, distributive, and constituent policy (Lowi, 1970, 1972). As Pullen (1955), Goulson (1966), and Fleming (1974) described in various details, the public outcry for a clearly-defined policy route on all facets of public education was becoming more pronounced. The optimistic tone of the press had become a plea for public accountability. Perhaps the public did not realize or appreciate the scope of the Royal Commission's mandate. The records catalogued by the Commission's Secretary, R. W. B. Jackson, contained in over of twenty-seven cubic feet, attests to the Commission's five years' of travel, hearings, and investigations. However, the death of one Commissioner, the debates, and eventually separately-signed statements by several dissenting Commissioners regarding the separate school questions left a pallor of frustration over the whole exercise.

In the meantime, Premier Drew left his Provincial post to become Leader of the Opposition for the Progressive Conservative Party in Ottawa. Leslie M. Frost, the Provincial Treasurer who had joined the Legislature in 1943, became Premier and, in 1949, Dana Porter, the first Minister of the Planning and Development Department since 1943, assumed the Education portfolio.

Given the incomplete state of the Royal Commission's final report, Frost and Porter appear to have exercised a form of closure (Simon, 1957) on the situation in terms of the whole matter of Provincial educational reform. Both men had been members of the Legislature before and during the establishment of the Commission, which suggests their awareness of the in-

ternal and external threshold factors affecting the Commission's functioning as well as the Government's handling of the operation. Socially and demographically (see Figure 10, p. 103), the needs were great and demanding. Consequently, in the context of the situation, it is no surprise that Porter undertook to make certain Province-wide policy statements which curiously reflected many curriculum reforms which appeared a year later in the Royal Commission's final report (see Appendices I:F and I:H-I:Q). Reasons for the time of the announcement are not to be found in the available research records. One can only surmise that, being spurned by regular press inquiries and rising educational costs, Porter perhaps took advantage of a scheduled address (text given in Appendix I:E) to educators in a small community to announce a total revamping of the schooling pattern into four major divisions and the unprecedented involvement of classroom teachers in curriculum planning and development.

The wave of interest and enthusiasm for these changes seemed to have caught the public and professionals off-guard. At the same time there was undoubtedly a professional and public concern about the students who did not continue on to high school. The Intermediate Division became a focus for wide attention. The Grade 8 entrance examinations for high schools were abandoned and pressure appears to have been on the students to complete two years of high school to qualify for some trade or commercial training programs (Interviews: Crossley, 1982; McCarthy, 1982; Fleming, 1972). Consequently, Porter's policy announcement was a politically astute move. Its timing appeared to placate the pending turmoil regarding the Royal Commission's seemingly unproductive behaviour and, because of the centralized form of government and political support, coercion (Lowi, 1970,

1972) of any form was remote. Provincially-controlled inspectors were charged with the local supervision of the Plan which gave all the appearances of a decentralized operation. Thus, the curriculum policy of the era had converted the internal and external influences into a consistent set of policies which served to generate numerous local curriculum projects and public awareness of educational activity. Even though the bustle of curriculum work gradually waned by the early 1950s (Pullen, 1955), the Porter Era had endured a potentially difficult period of curriculum policy-making which saw the Government through the transition period of a new minister and the public outcry against the recommendations of the Royal Commission finally submitted nearly thirteen months after Porter's speech.

The direction for educational policy, let alone curriculum policy, appears to have been uncertain following Porter's speech (general recommendations on curriculum from the Hope Commission given in Appendix I:G). The Department and the Government were able to revert to cautious incrementalism (Lindholm, 1959) which largely characterized the next ten years of educational and curriculum policy in the Province. As the Premier himself later explained in a speech on October 28, 1955, at the opening of Leslie Frost Public School in Lindsay, Ontario, since 1943, the Government had encountered a

. . . period of difficulty, expansion, perplexities, challenge and opportunity such as we have never before experienced. Very many of our policies had to cover completely new problems, the course . . . was pretty well uncharted. (Leslie M. Frost Speeches [three boxes], Speech No. 174, Public Archives)

It is essential to remember that the educational system of the late 1940s and 1950s was beleaguered by three major concerns which the Premier constantly reminded the Legislature and the public: the expansion of the

school population; the financing of the educational system; and the extension of the educational facilities, including everything from teacher training, certification, and textbooks to building new schools and school extensions (speeches given at the opening of the extension to Queen Elizabeth School, Renfrew, Ontario, November 4, 1959, and at the opening of the extension to Caledonia High School, Caledonia, Ontario, August 14, 1958, Leslie M. Frost Speeches [three boxes], Speech No. 262, Public Archives).

Undoubtedly, curriculum policy gradually became an ad-hoc matter as the aforementioned issues took precedence. Frost, like his Education Ministers (Porter, Dunlop and Robarts), continually told the public of the Province's building program.

For every working day in the last ten years or so such a new school, or addition, has been opened. (Leslie M. Frost Speeches [three boxes], Speech No. 305, April 22, 1959, Public Archives)

Such was the political milieu of the 1950s which saw a retired education-
alist recalled from retirement to head the Department which the Premier was later to describe as having the responsibilities for "Ontario's most important pressing problem" (speech given April 22, 1960, at the opening of Moira Secondary School, Bellville, Ontario, Leslie M. Frost Speeches [three boxes], Speech No. 363, Public Archives).

3. THE DUNLOP ERA (1951-1959)

William J. Dunlop (1881-1961) was Ontario's Minister of Education during a critical growth period in the Province's educational arena. When Porter became Attorney General for Ontario in 1951, Mr. Dunlop, 70 years of age and retired from the University of Toronto School, was working in the Community Programmes Branch of the Department of Education. Foley (1966) describes Dunlop and Porter's meeting with Dr. Althouse and Premier Frost

at which Dunlop was offered the office of Minister of Education in September 1951.

Accepting the appointment on October 2, 1951, Dunlop selected the provincial riding of Toronto-Eglinton and was elected to the Provincial Legislature in November 1951. Foley reports that Dunlop saw seven major problems facing him in this "unsought-for office" (p. 30) which included the urgency for new schools, qualified personnel and the "disturbing burgeoning of new educational ideas . . . the most vocal and strident of these trundlers of American educational ideas [being] the Progressivists" (p. 32). Foley quickly absolves Dunlop from any responsibility for allowing letters of permission to be granted to meet the teacher shortage. "Dr. Althouse was the architect of the emergency plan and . . . Dr. Dunlop . . . put it into effect and defended it in the Legislature" (p. 34). Later, to counteract Dunlop's critics, Foley argued that

. . . there were at least two occasions when he overruled the Department: he swept away that analogous combination of history and geography known as Social Studies . . . [and he] vetoed the precipitate scrapping of all rural schools. (pp. 34-35)

In speaking himself on CBC Radio on January 26, 1953, Dunlop continually underscored values of hard work and patriotism which sometimes earned him the nick-name "Mr. Status-Quo" (Foley, 1966). His radio audience frequently heard him say that his

. . . ideal in education is that our system will produce strong, rugged, intellect, right-thinking, religious, independent citizens who will be able to stand on their own feet, will take pride in hard work, and will not lose the pioneering spirit which enabled our forefathers to build up this Dominion of Canada which, we all agree, is the finest place in the world in which to live. (p. 6)

Augmented by the growing international conflict between the United States and Russia, the growth of Communism, and the 1957 demonstration of presumed Russian superiority in space with the launch of Sputnik, Dunlop's emphasis on academics, citizenship, and discipline typified the educational stresses of a period which was embarrassed by such texts as Hilda Neatly's book, So Little for the Mind (1953). However, despite Dunlop's personal anti-progressivism policy, changes in curriculum did occur incrementally outside the Department. Fleming (1972) records:

S. A. Watson, one of the key framers of the 1937 program of studies [headed] the Curriculum and Textbooks Branch. . . . J. R. McCarthy, an official with unusually strong progressive views [served] as Watson's assistant. For the most part, however, the atmosphere in the department [sic] was one in which Dunlop could be reasonably comfortable. (p. 190)

It was therefore left to external organizations to foster change which came in 1957 when the Ontario Teachers' Federation established the Ontario Mathematics Commission. Department of Education personnel became involved in the Commission's activities; however, as Fleming (1972) adds,

. . . a much larger proportion of staff time was devoted to supervisory activities than to curriculum development. New courses of study were often assembled in a very brief period of time and with no pretense at the kind of research for development work that might have led to real innovations. It was not to be expected that many radical ideas would sneak into the system through the textbook route, since a textbook that did not follow the course of study rather closely had little chance of being accepted. (p. 193)

Such regulative control fostered a stiff monitoring of curriculum policy. However, various other groups undertook involvement in curriculum matters which characterized the transition phase between the Dunlop and Robarts Eras.

Under the editorship of Northrop Frye, a joint committee of the University of Toronto and the Toronto Board of Education produced a synopsis of their deliberation entitled Design for Learning (1960). From this action, several outcomes ensued. A procedure of consultative committees consisting of elementary, secondary and university personnel met to study the content, methods, and areas for change which led to the establishment of the Ontario Curriculum Institute (OCI). Fleming (1972) reports on the various debates which were part of the OCI's operation, but participants, some of who were interviewed for this study, being Hodgins and McCarthy, would concur that

. . . while evidence of the extent to which the work of the institute [sic] influenced educational practice in Ontario is largely circumstantial . . . it could be coincidental that the operations of the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education began to expand and become much more comprehensive. (p. 195)

Fleming suggests that developments such as the OCI were catalysts for Departmental change. Certainly, when Dunlop was forced to resign in 1959 due to ill health, the demands and expectations being placed on the Provincial Government and the Department of Education were strenuous and vocal.

Curriculum policy during the Dunlop Era was characterized by a return to distributive, regulatory, and curriculum non-policies (see Interpretative Summary, Chapter IV, p. 135). Perhaps Dunlop's age, his initial reluctance for the job (Foley, 1966; Fleming, 1972), and the strongly visible and vocal figures of Premier Frost and Dr. Althouse, Director of Education, made the position of Minister of Education predominantly a figure-head position. Dunlop continually extolled the character-building virtues of the one-room school house (Interviews: McCarthy, 1982; Crossley, 1982) (see Appendix III-A). Foley's defensive response to the Minister, who

apparently became known as "Mr. Status-Quo", is a reflective legacy for ascertaining Dunlop's policy-making behaviour. Foley describes his subject as a man who had "already established a most harmonious relationship with the teachers of the Province, both elementary and secondary, among whom he was known as the "Great White Father" (1966, p. 30). Such remarks precede Foley's description of Dunlop's involvement in the major crucial issue of teacher shortage.

Campaigning for his first election on November 22, 1951, Dunlop reminded his electorate of "two advances in the educational sphere which have been made recently . . . the provision of free textbooks in elementary schools and the arrangement for paying half the cost of milk for boys and girls who require it" (Dunlop Papers, 1951-1954, R.G.2, Series D-10 [Boxes 1-3; Box 1+], Public Archives). In a CBC Radio broadcast on January 26, 1953, Dunlop stated:

There are some subjects on the curricula of our schools which must not be neglected . . . and I do not hesitate to say that more and more attention must be devoted to the teaching and the study of reading, writing, and arithmetic in the elementary schools and of English, mathematics, science, history, geography, and languages in the secondary schools. I am not overlooking the fact that we are providing vocational education nor do I forget that we are teaching music, art, shop work, home economics, physical education and similar subjects which are useful and necessary and I have no thought that the teaching of these should be curtailed but I do insist that the basis of vocational education, for example, must always be a good academic foundation.

and continued, in the same spirit of his predecessor, George Drew, by remarking:

My ideal in education is that our system will produce strong, rugged, intelligent, right-thinking, religious, independent citizens who will be able to stand on their own feet, will take pride in hard work, and will not lose the pioneering spirit which enabled our fore-

fathers to build up this Dominion of Canada which, we all agree, is the finest place in the world in which to live. (Dunlop Papers, "1952 in Education", p. 4, R.G. 2, Series D-10 [Box 2], Public Archives)

Later, in a publication entitled Education, Equality of Opportunity for All (1955) (Political Research Files, Progressive Conservative References, M.G. 32, C3, Vol. 288, National Archives), the writers reported under general sub-titles:

Religious Education - The 1944 course continues to be successful and publishers of the Teacher's Guide to Religious Education report a growing demand for the book. (pp. 29-36)

Curriculum - Special attention is constantly being given to thorough instruction in the basic fundamentals of education. In all types of schools, there are the compulsory subjects of English, Social Studies, Physical Education in all courses of Grades IX to XII. (pp. 29-36)

Textbooks - The Department reimburses local boards every year at \$3 a pupil for the textbooks and in most cases the books are usable for three or more years. The Department issues lists of approved textbooks from which boards and teachers may choose. (pp. 29-36)

Such election-urging overtures reflect the presence of redistributive policies and the political milieu (Lasswell, 1956; Kroll, 1962) wherein organizations and interest groups can be swayed or certainly influenced. Of crucial significance is the public awareness and belief that this situation of unprecedented change was being addressed in a controlled, straightforward manner. The juxtaposed image of retaining the best of the past with the best of the ever-increasing greatness of the future was the policy stance (see Appendices I:0-I:0).

Foley (1966) gives a defensive account of Dunlop's ministerial period in describing it "sometimes as contentious, sometimes as stormy, and even sometimes as furious" (p. 36), contributing to another perspective of Dunlop's curriculum policy-making.

But least anyone should assume that Dr. Dunlop during these eight years was but the mouthpiece of the henchman of his advisers in the Department, there were at least two occasions when he over-ruled the Department. He swept away that anomalous combination of history and geography known as Social Studies, for whatever social content the studies may have had they were neither history nor geography. In this he had the general support of the teachers in the Province. He vetoed the precipitate scrapping of all rural schools, and he supported his decision in this way: 'Experience shows that local interest in school affairs or even local pride in schools of a community is so important in the progress of education and in the development of democratic self-government, that it must be retained even if it means sacrificing some of the advantages of a single all-powerful area-wide Board of Education. . . . The quickest and surest way of killing local interest in the schools is to set up such a large unit of administration that the parents and other ratepayers will know little and care less about the schools board, the teachers and the schools.' (pp. 35-36)

Foley (1966) contradicts descriptions of Dunlop as reactionary and a believer of the axiom that the old ways are the best ways (p. 37). However, the fact remains that Dr. Althouse's sudden death in 1956, the international impact of Sputnik in 1957 and its implications on the shortcomings of mathematical and scientific instruction at all levels of schooling combined to create a situation of uneasiness for which stressing basic instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic was not enough for schools facing the present, let alone the future. Seemingly, the only means for quick innovation was the Textbook Branch (Interviews: McCarthy, 1982) (see Appendix III-A) but it was left to such external organizations as the Mathematics Commission (Fleming, 1974) and the University of Toronto and Toronto Schools Board (Frye, 1960) to initiate significant external influences on curriculum policy. In the interim, Mr. Dunlop's health was declining and he resigned on December 19, 1959. Premier Frost then appointed a young lawyer with keen economic interests in the Education portfolio.

4. THE ROBERTS ERA (1959-1962)

Despite the brevity of John Roberts' tenure as Minister of Education, his initiatives and innovations in educational matters were unprecedented. Many of his projects bore their more visible fruit under his successor William Davis, but John Roberts' global perspective of finance, inter-provincial relationships, and technological change enabled the Province to participate in a decade of financial and curriculum growth of theretofore unknown proportions. For instance, at the annual C.E.A. meeting in 1960. Roberts spearheaded and chaired the Standing Committee of Ministers of Education (C.E.A. Archives; Fleming, 1972, p. 161). However, it was Roberts' economic foresight which enabled Ontario to participate in the Federal-Provincial Technical and Vocational Training Agreement of 1961 whereby the Province embarked on extensive projects to build vocational schools and additions to existing schools. In an address at the official opening of the George Henry Secondary School in North York ..on January 27, 1966, Roberts explained that this Provincial-Federal participation was the result of the

. . . realization that the available pool of immigrant manpower from European and other sources was drying up and that consequently Canada would have to depend more and more on her own people, trained and developed in this country.

Nevertheless, this "building" theme had characterized many of the speeches delivered by Premier Frost and Education Minister Roberts. Six years earlier, Roberts reported to the Stanford District Teachers' Council in Niagara Falls, Ontario:

In 1958, we were able to say that we had built a new building or a major addition to an old building in this Province every day for ten years and this was taken to be a fairly dramatic figure. In 1960 we have passed this rate of construction for we will construct 557 such buildings or additions to accommodate 96,825 pupils at a cost of \$90,500,000. (Fleming, 1972)

Such statistical accounting, along with the reporting of increased per-student costs and potential strains on the Provincial taxpayer, certainly underscored Premier Frost's statement on April 22, 1960, during the opening of Moria Secondary School in Belleville, Ontario.

For on any test, education is Ontario's most important pressing problem [yet] the provision of the finest system of education for all our people is a major policy of this Government, and is a fundamental objective of the Canadian people. (Frost Speeches, Provincial Archives)

Nevertheless, notwithstanding the increased student population and constant building program, until the successful completion of a secondary school program, the retention of students was sorely uneven. Consequently, a major realignment of the secondary school education program was announced on August 28, 1961, for implementation with the Province's Grade 9 students in September 1962.

During a televised CBC provincial affairs program on April 4, 1962, Robarts reported that "at the present, 6 out of 100 students go on to university," and that, while he expected that number to increase in the next ten years, "it is doubtful if it will exceed fifteen."

Therefore, it was with great anticipation that the Government looked to the reorganized program, or the Robarts Plan, as A New Programme for Secondary Schools in Ontario was called. Essentially, the scheme, which came under the direct steersmanship of the Provincial Superintendent of Secondary Education, S. D. Kendall, was a response to the perceived need for vocational education. The intention was to shift gradually with the 1962 class of Grade 9 students from the General, Commercial, and Technical Programs to a three-branched scheme of Arts and Science, Business and Commerce, and Science, Technology and Trades on a five-year plan and a four- and two-year program.

Fleming (1972) and various Departmental records, including the Annual Reports, acknowledge that

. . . retention in the two branches was better in the courses which they replaced, and improved steadily, but perhaps as much because of the continuously rising levels of education being demanded by employers as the attractiveness of the programs themselves. (p. 21)

In 1962_, Robarts stated that the aim of the Programme was twofold; to retain more pupils longer in secondary school and to ensure for them a better preparation for the duties of citizenship and for vocations of their choice (Robarts Speeches, 1962-1969, R.G. 2, p. 9, Public Archives).

Yet, despite the options which the Programme provided, it was seen as rigid in its operation and the options which followed completion of the Programme were not always available, if indeed operational or in existence. Again, Fleming (1972) summarizes the situation:

The system had made a fairly credible response to the demands of society for higher levels of education at the secondary level. The process was, however, still far from complete. It soon became quite clear that a two-year program was a dead end, and that those who were capable of going further should not be encouraged to enter it. By the time the Reorganized Program was properly launched, it was also becoming evident that four years of secondary school education was inadequate to provide access to a large proportion of the more interesting, challenging, and remuneration occupations. The next logical step was a great expansion of non-university post-secondary educational facilities. (p. 22)

Curriculum policies during the Robarts Era were essentially a pattern of redistributive, distributive, and constituent policies for Ontario schools and curriculum (see Interpretative Summary, Chapter IV, p. 135).

Demographically and socially, the "baby-boom" children were in the intermediate grades and/or beginning high school. The demand for qualified secondary school personnel and the impact of urbanization on schooling

services were critical policy concerns. The perceived Russian superiority in technology areas was creating demands on the Science and Mathematics Programs so that the scope, frequency, and timing of factors (Kroll, 1962) influencing the political arena was intense. This scope of policy issues is reflected in the range of topics addressed by Robarts as Minister of Education at the Ontario Urban and Rural Schools Trustee's Association on June 28, 1960. In 1960, Robarts reminded his audience of the population growth in the Province's school since 1946:

. . . eighty-eight percent of the elementary school pupils [were] educated in schools of three rooms or more. . . . The Department of Education is aware that many fine scholars and leaders received their education in the Little Red School House, but is also aware that rural elementary education in this Province is changing, as are other aspects of our life. The Department encourages Boards to provide central schools wherever they find it possible to do so. (Robarts Speeches, 1962-1969, pp. 2-3, R.G. 2, p. 3, Public Archives)

and, in the same speech, announced that, effective September 1, 1961, no person could be appointed principal of a school with an enrolment of over 300 pupils without holding a Bachelor of Arts degree from a Ontario university, or its equivalent, as well as a Permanent First Class Certificate or a Permanent Elementary School Teacher's Certificate (p. 4). He also reviewed the status of teacher training and supervision and requested that Secondary School Inspectors focus on the work of young teachers. Likewise, in the same speech he re-iterated the incremental introduction of the new Grades 7, 8 and 9 Science courses in Chemistry and Grade 13 course in Physics were in various committee stages (p. 10). Similarly, a committee established by Mr. Dunlop in April 1959 to investigate the so-called "New Mathematics" was pursuing a complete review (p. 10). Gone was the summer preparation of new programs and teacher guides.

In addition, in the same speech, Robarts announced that, beginning in September 1960, after "some informal experimental work" in 1959 to 1960, thirty-six schools of the Province would "embark on an experiment to determine the value of this modern treatment of Mathematics for our Grade 9 classes [but that] future years will almost certainly see the continuation of this experimental work in high grades" (p. 11). Also, in this speech, Robarts addressed the teaching of History, especially in the intermediate grades, and the improved quality of textbooks, reflecting the more global scan he consistently exercised in policy-making formation.

However, it was for A New Programme for Secondary Schools in Ontario, commonly known as the "Robarts Plan", that Robarts is remembered (see Appendix I:R). The three-branch arrangement of the scheme, clearly defining courses for two-, four-, and five-year plans, was established at a time of intense Federal-Provincial relations focusing on mega policies (Dror, 1971) to curb unemployment, train the labour force in technology and technical areas, as well as tap the industrial and trade expertise of new immigrants. Robarts, as Minister of Education and later as Premier, sought and obtained federal funds. Never before or since did so many Ontario high schools have new shops, science and technological additions. The Robarts Plan was scheduled for incremental introduction in September 1962, although experimental adaptations began in 1961 (Fleming, 1972). In a speech December 7, 1962, at a Rotarians' annual banquet, Robarts explained that

. . . the proposed changes in the program of studies for the secondary schools of Ontario are based on the premise that it is impossible to devise a single course of studies that will minister to the needs of all pupils in all areas. (John Robarts Speeches, 1961-1962, pp. 5-6, R.G. 2, p. 3:A-P [Box 1], Public Archives)

A shift in curriculum policy was becoming more evident. Many people were involved in the process which was deliberately incremental in design, development, and implementation.

In August 1963, Robarts established a Provincial Advisory Committee on Technical and Vocational Training which was to act as a consultative and advisory agency and serve as a link between the Departments of Education and Labour. The strength of Robarts' influential personality (Dror, 1968) was evident throughout all these adjustments and innovations. J. R. McCarthy, who served as Deputy Minister of Education for William Davis, recalls him as a "statesman and a politician--over and above a politician" (Interview: J.R. McCarthy, 1982). Robarts started many curriculum projects. Like his predecessors, Premiers and Ministers of Education, Robarts spoke frequently on provincial affairs programs. Such opportunities enabled him to publicize the rationale for his government's policies. For instance, during a CBC television program on April 4, 1961, he stated that only 6 out of every 100 students in Grade 9 went on to university and that, while he felt that number would rise in the next 100 years, it was doubtful it would exceed fifteen (John Robarts Speeches, R.G. 2, p. 3, Series 3, Public Archives). Consequently, there was a move towards a policy perspective of the continuity between the elementary and secondary schools and eventually the labour market. During the opening of George S. Henry Secondary School, North York Township (Toronto), Ontario, on January 27, 1966, Premier Robarts stated:

It is our declared policy, as you know, to integrate the elementary and secondary aims of our schools system into one process which itself be projected in a continuous sequence to embrace post-secondary education both in universities and in other directions. (John Robarts Speeches, R.G. 2, p. 3, Public Archives)

Robarts reviewed the gradual establishment of the Robarts Plan under his own and Mr. Davis' direction as a tangible response to the mega policy required for meeting the twofold aim of retaining more students in school longer and providing a stronger guarantee for gaining their preferred careers and quality citizenship (p. 9). The discrete policy of on-going planning to anticipate technological and social change was Robarts' explanation for the "revitalization of the secondary school program as a whole [and the provision of] new optional courses . . . in geology, biology, world politics, man in society, modern literature, theatre arts and speech arts" (p. 10). While this address exceeds the actual limits of this research period, it does serve to account for the mega and discrete policy range (Dror, 1971) which was begun by Robarts and continued by William Davis. When Robarts became Premier on November 8, 1961, the stage was set for many innovations and renovations. Many (for example, Fleming, 1974; Interviews: McCarthy, 1982; Crossley, 1982) suggest that Davis was given credit for many changes which should really should have been attributed to Robarts. Nevertheless, Robarts had begun a process for curriculum policies which enabled further regulative and constituent curriculum policies to be established. As Premier, he probably repeated the process on a mega policy scale.

5. THE EARLY DAVIS ERA (1962-1965)

The initial years of William Davis' term as Minister of Education were characterized by an increased pattern and pace for change and decentralization indicated through the establishment of new organizations such as the Policy and Development Council in 1964, the realignment of the Department's organization in 1965, as well as the whole approach to curriculum development, revision, implementation, and evaluation.

Fleming (1972), among others (for example, Phillips, 1978; Interview: McCarthy, 1982), described Davis' leadership style as energetic, strong, and determined. Davis built on the expansionist approach of his predecessor and even resurrected advisory positions of earlier administrations by establishing the Policy and Development Council which was responsible directly to the Minister and was chaired by J. Bascom St. John, whose education columns (1958-1964) in the Toronto Globe and Mail had been a constant source of criticism. Despite St. John's critical adroitness, the role of the Council gradually slipped so that, as Fleming (1972) reports,

. . . by the end of the decade St. John was left alone as an advisor to the minister [sic]. . . . In this role, he was thought to be valued, since he had not lost his talent for analyzing a situation now his lack of hesitation in offering a frank and often pungently worded opinion. . . . It would be difficult to say to what extent his views influenced Davis since the latter, in his characteristic reluctance to reveal his own inner thoughts, seldom gave much indication of the sources of ideas that influenced him most. (p. 80)

Yet, when the Policy and Development Council was established in 1964, Davis stated that its responsibility was to conduct a continuing examination of matters of Departmental policy. It would appear that it had attempted to do so, at least in its initial years of operation (Fleming, 1972).

The Department's organizational charts (Figures 7 and 8, pp. 51-52), reported in the 1964 and 1965 Minister's Annual Reports, illustrate a second area of Davis' move towards specialization and decentralization and show how dramatically the Department had grown since the Drew and Dunlop Eras (Figures 5 and 6, pp. 49-50); Figure 9 (p. 53) reveals the increasing specialization within the Department as new needs were perceived. The move to the 1965 reorganization had been gradual on several counts and adjust-

ments continued after 1965. For example, in 1963, a Personnel Branch, a Youth Branch, and a Technological and Trades Training Branch were established. The latter was a support branch for the corresponding implementation of the Robarts Plan and, by 1966, was renamed the "Applied Arts and Technology Branch" (Fleming, 1972, p. 79).

Robarts, as Premier, and Davis, as Minister of Education, reminded the public in speeches at school openings and in the Legislature that changes were gradual, planned, and being implemented with great thought and control. In his accounting to the Legislature on September 8, 1964, Davis appeared to be aware of the historical aspect of reporting curriculum change with such phrases as "a five-year project to revise . . . is nearing completion" (excerpt on "curriculum" given in Appendix I:L).

Such reassurances and gradual indications of upcoming directions were likewise continued by other senior personnel such as H. E. Elborn, one of the Assistant Deputy Ministers of Education, in an address October 22, 1965, to the Thunder Bay Teachers' Institute at the Lakehead (see also Appendix I:V). After mentioning the role of Kindergarten, the contributions of summer courses to assist teachers in keeping abreast of the knowledge explosion, the inevitability of data processing and the computer in education, Elborn reviewed the former practice of having just a few individuals involved in curriculum revision, particularly the Mustard-Watson production of the 1937 Programme of Studies.

It is in the curriculum that the effect of the explosion of knowledge is bound to be felt. And it is in the curriculum field that a change in Departmental approach is most evident . . . but the pattern of curriculum revision today has a much broader base. Committees of subject specialists, classroom teachers, and university personnel now deal with each aspect of the school program . . . and now the spotlight is shifting to the Kindergarten and Grades 1 to 6 area. (Speech, 1965, pp. 6-7)

Elborn, like the Minister, was supporting the future for the 1965 appointment of the Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives which was to complete its report in 1968.

It would be erroneous to imply that this consultative and incremental team approach for inviting, assessing, and disseminating Departmental policies was constantly well orchestrated (Interviews: Crossley, 1982; McCarthy, 1982); but Fleming's observation of the "Davis" attitude seems particularly appropriate in light of his predecessors.

Davis deserves credit for initiating and guiding most of the sharp departures from tradition that characterized the decade. . . . There were some hesitant steps, a certain amount of unproductive effort, and a few false moves. It sometimes seemed to an observer that important decisions were made and actions taken with little advance planning. Yet there were certain clear principles underlying and tying together the major elements of the program. (p. 78)

Thus, the first three years of Davis' role as Minister of Education clearly indicated a new approach towards curriculum policies because of an unique blend of policy outputs which ranged from constituent policies for new situations to redistributive policies as the curriculum section of the former Textbook Division rose to unprecedented focus. The involvement of vocal people such as Bascom St. John, the teachers' federations, as well as business and industry, indicated a drastic revision from the period of single, two-person, or small group curriculum teams appointed from senior staff for expedient solutions to curriculum demands of twenty years earlier. McCarthy (Interview: 1982), despite his own skepticism of Jerome Bruner, felt that Davis, like his immediate predecessor, had a general theory about the nature of the learner and the nature of knowledge (Interview, August 1982). Thus, in the education and schooling process, the

focus was on the child. For Robarts, the "concentration was on vocational and technical training, and changes were made in these programs" (Fleming, 1982). McCarthy noted that, during the Dunlop period, textbooks--history texts, geography texts, physical education texts--were the one area within which they felt free to work. The Ontario Mathematics Association textbooks were measurably improved. Textbooks were big business. For Davis, the major thing was to make them free for Grades 9 and 10 (Interview: McCarthy, 1982). This focus on one small segment of the textbook situation was one of the procedures whereby Davis' leadership responded to societal values for democratic and equal access to educational institutions through a constituent but likewise regulative and redistributive policy.

Under Davis' leadership, the Department addressed a multiplicity of educational issues, problems, and future concerns at a steadily increasing pace of incrementalism; for example, the whole system of programs; the high dropout rate; educational behaviour; Grade 13; external examinations; educational research; and revision of the 1937 Primary and Junior Division programs (see Appendices I:S-I:U and I:Y for other examples). Consequently, it should not be surprising to observe, in retrospect, that the range of policy outputs was so varied. The exact timing and specificity of Davis' curriculum policy-making behaviour is difficult to ascertain; however, the data would suggest that he certainly had vision of where education in the Province should go, even if initially it was to continue the exactment and development of policies begun and/or revised by his predecessor, who was then Premier. Davis' curriculum policies appear to have evolved from his mega educational policy-making (Dror, 1968). Fleming (1972) believes there were "four main pillars" to the Davis' plan for educational reform:

. . . the extension of the system at the post-secondary level, with particular reference to the universities and the colleges of applied arts and technology; the overhaul of the administrative structure, including the reconstitution of the Department of Education and the amalgamation of the small school boards; the establishment of procedures for continuous curriculum renewals; and the improvement of teacher education. . . . At one stage, plans seemed to call for a fifth pillar: provision for the continuous leavening of practice in all spheres by a process of research and development. By 1971, despite the fact that various individuals and groups were dissatisfied with specific aspects of the set-up, and there was indisputably room for improvement, the universities were flourishing and the colleges of applied arts and technology were, within their own frame of reference, an undoubted success. . . . In the area of curriculum, the department assumed a role of enlightened guidance, providing models and materials for use of teachers, but making it clear that the latter must assume a degree of freedom and responsibility that they had not known in earlier decades. (p. 232)

While it would be naive to assume such achievements were primarily due to the policy-making abilities of Davis and his government, the economic, social and demographic columns of Figure 10 (p. 103) indicate the contextuality of Davis' policy-making. The "baby-boom" population, for example, was preparing for college and university in 1963, not clamouring for schools and teachers as they were in 1953 or possibly returning from war as they might have been in 1943 and 1944. Such historical and organizational dimensions, combined with ethical and societal values for higher education and technical skills, allowed a "political actor" (Allison, 1971) to proceed with policy procedures which would allow free textbooks in Grades 9 and 10, educational television, and the constituent policy of the respective high school for giving some credit to the Grade 13 candidate rather than the final grade relying solely on the final Provincially-set examinations.

When Davis presented the Department's estimates in a speech delivered June 2, 1965, in the Ontario Legislature (Speech Files, pp. 1-7, Public

Archives), he acknowledged the \$454 million, or 38 percent of the total government expenditure, which the Department spent (p. 1). Like his predecessor, George Drew, he described the Ontario student as the "Province's biggest single asset and our brightest hope for the future" (p. 1); but, in contrast, Davis was referring to 1.7 million students. After describing the Ontario school system as a "decentralized" (p. 2) one, he reminded the Legislature of the committees which were undertaking the revision of courses of study for Kindergarten and Grades 1 to 6.

The committees that will carry on this work include teachers and educational officials, of course, but provision is also being made for consultation with parents, university staff members, and community leaders. In this connection a committee of twenty-one members has been established under the distinguished Chairmanship of Mr. Justice Hall, not to do detailed work on the revision of the subject material, but to consider the general aims and objectives of the revision. . . . As this curriculum revision proceeds, bulletins will be printed and distributed to teachers describing the progress being made. The time has passed when courses of study can be written by two or three experts and then handed to principals and teachers to carry out in the classroom. A new course of study should not come as a surprise, nor should it come to teachers who are unprepared to implement it. Effort is being made to involve the teachers themselves in the formulation of the new program and to acquaint them with its pattern as it takes shape. (p. 7)

Such a regulative policy (Lowi, 1970, 1972) would not have existed in Drew's government. Porter had attempted to initiate it with his curriculum-writing teams ten to fifteen years earlier. Under Davis' curriculum policy-making, such inter-organizational networks made this constituent policy possible. The values, ethical systems, and institutional arrangements, given the historical milieu and other internal threshold factors, were able to work towards this form of curriculum policy.

At the same time, Davis also reported that the secondary school Reorganized Programme had steadily arrived at Grade 11 and "one gratifying

result of the operation of the Reorganized Programme has been a reduction in the number of drop-outs from 12.6 percent in 1962 to 1963 to 10 percent in 1963 to 1964" (p. 7). Such educational and curriculum policy was intended to reflect a positive and supportive output by the Department and the Government, thereby renewing requests for continued and renewed supports and demands on the political system to further these policies.

However, Davis never lost sight of the regulative and coercive form of policy (Lowi, 1970, 1972). In 1968, when presenting the Department's estimates, Davis reminded the Ontario Legislature of functional differences to be made, even in a decentralized Department of Education.

The point I wish to stress here is that a distinction must be drawn between 'operating' functions and 'policy-making' functions. I am suggesting that, in a highly-developed and mature educational system such as we have here in Ontario, 'operating' functions are most effectively and appropriately the responsibility of local agencies such as boards of education and boards of governors. The central Department of Education, on the other hand, must be responsible for overall planning. . . .

Educational policy-making must always have as its central concern the student in the learning environment. Hence, there is a need for feedback from the schools to help us determine whether the Department's philosophy of education does, in fact, have validity and viability when put into practice. This is the focal point around which all our deliberations must revolve. That is why I should like to cite several of many possible examples of the creative responses which have been forthcoming from local boards and schools as a result of the greater freedom to innovate what is provided by our philosophy of decentralization and democratization of education in Ontario. (Speech, "New Directions in Education", pp. 3-4, Minister of Education letterhead, 1968, OISE)

As these excerpts illustrate, the topics of governmental duties, responsibilities, and democracy are not totally unlike policy preambles of Davis' four immediate predecessors. However, while Drew and Dunlop twenty and ten years earlier, respectively, expanded upon the need for students to

be trained and directed to uphold given traditions and values, Davis, like Porter and Robarts, indicated the centrality of the student to the entire educational schema. The shift is incremental but the intent of the policy is clear--the Department of Education still held the larger and potentially coercive control over educational and curriculum policy. Earlier in the same text, Davis had reminded his audience:

It follows that the function of departmental officials is to develop and continuously review a comprehensive philosophy of public education. This educational planning--which must cover an extremely broad spectrum, taking into account the social and economic needs of all citizens--is then expressed as policy in two principal ways: through the distribution of funds, which are not unlimited and therefore must be invested with acumen. Being centrally located, the Department is also specially qualified to be a resource centre for new information and a clearing house for worthwhile ideas emanating from within and outside the province. (Speech, "New Directions in Education", pp. 3-4, Minister of Education letterhead, 1968, OISE)

Ultimately, the financial situation affected the delivery of such policies. It would appear that, like each of his predecessors, Davis left little doubt about who or what level of operation controlled the financial policies and their implementation.

Therefore, the curriculum policy of the first years of the Davis Era was an unprecedented blend of policy types (see Interpretative Summary, Chapter IV, p. 135). The educational policies revealed an incremental shift to decentralization; however, the Department unquestionably retained its regulative and distributive policies. Essentially, it was the discrete curriculum policies that were left to the local levels. At the outset, the Davis years reflected change in the topic, scope, and development of curriculum policy.

C. SUMMATION

The purpose of this chapter has been to present, in chronological fashion, the data which indicate: firstly, the types of curriculum policies for the public elementary schools in Ontario between 1945 and 1965; secondly, who determined these policies; and, thirdly, the forces determining these policies. Figure 10 presents a selected chronological overview of this period. Figure 11, which appears at the end of Chapter IV (pp.137 -138), presents the key curriculum policies for each era within the selected twenty-year span and, moreover, links Chapters III and IV by providing the analytical bridge for interpreting the curriculum policies for each era.

CHAPTER IV

AN INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

A. AN OVERVIEW

The focus of this chapter is twofold: to apply the theoretical framework to a specific period in Ontario education and, secondly, to interpret the findings in an effort to respond to the three research questions:

- (a) What forces determined curriculum policies during this period?
- (b) What were the curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965?
- (c) What type of curriculum policies characterized each designated era within the selected time period?

The results should be considered in two stages: the applicability of the framework and then the specific responses to the research questions.

B. CURRICULUM POLICY TYPES FOR ONTARIO PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS: 1945-1965

Figure 10 (p. 103) which summarizes Chapter III identifies selected forces which affected Ontario public education from 1945 to 1965. This section will focus on up to five dominant curriculum policies for each of the five eras as they were differentiated in Chapter III. Therefore, one may recognize not only curriculum policy types but also characteristics of the ensuing politics for each era, and the twenty-year period in general. These interpretations should offer substantial responses to the research questions. A concluding set of deductions will be presented in Chapter V.

1. THE DREW ERA (1943-1948)

(a) Social Forces

Chapter III describes how, when George Drew became Premier of Ontario and Minister of Education and thus the chief curriculum policy-maker in 1943, the world was in the midst of a world war. All facets of life in Ontario, as elsewhere in the world, were affected. The societal fear of increased juvenile delinquency and a fear of lasting warfare were seemingly critical factors for illustrating the evils of war and motivating a complacent society. Strengthening the relationships among the schools, church, and family for the purposes of developing citizenship, an awareness of government operations, and civic responsibilities were common themes in the chief Minister's speeches and interviews (see Chapter III, pp. 68-71). Drew's own military background prompted a personal commitment to these themes. On the other hand, societal demands for universal education, improved educational facilities, as well as improved technical and specialized education for exceptional students put further pressure on the government. For while the establishment of a Royal Commission was a political action to gain more time to respond to the public demands, it was also a political response to the public who may have been watching how the newly-elected majority government would follow up the promises of the "Twenty-two Point Plan" by which Drew and his Conservative Party had been elected. These circumstances impacted on curriculum policies for the Drew Era.

(b) Curriculum Policies

When Drew's Conservatives were elected, the regulative approach of the 1937 Programme of Studies had already systematized a sequential pattern of curriculum in Ontario schools for six years. Written in Toronto by a few select educators, the prescriptive approach of the Programme clearly regulated curriculum. The excerpts in Appendix I:C illustrate the general and comprehensive intentions of these public rules and leave little doubt as to the expected outcomes. This Programme undertook to ensure that each individual teacher offered each student in Ontario's public elementary and secondary schools a core curriculum in Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Physical Education, and Science. As described in Chapter III, Drew as the chief policy-maker undertook to ensure that such policies were developed, continued, and enforced by the annual school visit of provincially-appointed inspectors. Likewise, other methods such as the annual publication of the names of Grade 8 students who had passed their high school entrance exams and Grade 13 students who had completed eight or nine of the provincially-set senior matriculation examinations ensured compliance with the regulative set of curriculum policies.

At the same time, Drew saw that curriculum policies which clearly stipulated compulsory religious education for all Ontario public school students and cadet training for all secondary school male students were critical policies for combating the evils of war and an increasingly complacent society. Such societal circumstances enabled Drew's military and educational colleague, Colonel Watson, who had been seconded from Ottawa's Teachers' College for the summer of 1943, to prepare a provincial curriculum program in religious education for

implementation across Ontario for September 1943 (see Chapter III, pp. 64-65). Therefore, regulative curriculum policies typified the curriculum duration of the Drew Era.

(c) Interpretation

Drew's curriculum policies for religious education and cadet training are clear examples of regulatory policies. They impose very clear expectations of intended behaviour on the individual teachers and school. The coercive use power by the school inspectors to sanction and/or disapprove of how the individual teachers, schools, and school boards were implementing and enforcing these policies was immediate. For example, recall Drew's immediate actions with school inspectors (Chapter III, pp. 67-68) when he learned that some schools no longer provided cadet training. The imposition of such a policy and rules for operation were precisely stated as a primary rule.

At the same time, Drew's curriculum policies such as the cadet training policy also shared some of the characteristics of a redistributive curriculum policy because these policies stipulated expected action on the status of high school students and the rules for operating the cadet program throughout the Province. So, not only were individualistic responsibilities stipulated but primary requirements and responsibilities were also specified, thereby affecting the entire environment. Such a policy would trigger political action as various individuals, schools, and boards responded to the policy expectations as Drew clearly indicated that such curriculum policies were to be followed.

2. THE PORTER ERA (1948-1951)

(a) Social Forces

Chapter III delineates the social and historical context for Dana Porter's withholding of any curriculum policy statements until the Royal Commission had submitted its recommendations to the Minister, the Cabinet, and the Legislature. The atmosphere was one of seeming dissatisfaction and persistent demands for political action to cope with post-war needs and expectations. Fleming (1972) summarized the political milieu accurately:

The late 1940's were marked by increasing impatience while the Royal Commission on Education laboured over its report. The government hesitated to make any drastic changes in policy lest they conflict with the recommendations of the commission [sic]. Finally the minister, Dana Porter . . . would wait no longer, and announced a program of curriculum decentralization. (p. 75)

(b) Curriculum Policies

The text of Porter's speech in 1949 (text given in Appendix I:E) provides a mixture of curriculum policy types. Firstly, the reorganization of the thirteen grades "into four divisions--primary, junior, intermediate and senior" in an effort to "eliminate the marked dividing line between primary and secondary schools" (p. 217) is a clear example of a redistributive curriculum policy. The Porter Plan stipulated the expected actions to be taken in classifying and operating four distinct clusters of curriculum over thirteen grades. The overview of the skills and concepts to be implemented and evaluation within each of the four divisions was Province-wide. Such a primary rule characterizes the Plan as a redistributive curriculum policy.

However, the organization of the Primary, Junior and Intermediate Divisions so that students might "leave school at the age of sixteen with a formal education that leaves them with a sense of achievement rather than failure" (p. 217) is also illustrative of a distributive curriculum policy. Such is a direct statement of intended behaviour about a specific curriculum action but it does not impose strict obligations on the individual's conduct since the 'sense of achievement rather than failure' is subjective and desirable but not necessarily expressive in a coercive manner. Therefore, curriculum policies during the Porter Era were characterized as redistributive and distributive largely as a response to the social forces of a post-war period waiting for direction from a government body such as the Royal Commission. The presence of a third form of curriculum policy type is also evident and is addressed in the next section.

(c) Interpretation

Several studies (Goulson, 1966; Hodges, 1952; and Pullen, 1955) have considered the Porter Plan as an unique experience in Ontario curriculum policy. However, despite the seeming enthusiasm which the policy spawned, the resulting politics moved from dynamic activities to those of inactivity or failure.

The Porter Plan, which is really the essence of mega curriculum policy for the Porter Era, was regulative. Statements addressing core subjects, readers, and teacher training in reading reflect this feature of regulation (see Appendix I:E):

Local groups, however, will not be expected to prescribe courses in the basic skills of reading, arithmetic and handwriting. A vast amount of research in these fields has provided fairly conclusive evidence

as to the materials that should be included and the methods which should be used in the teaching of these fundamental skills. . . . It is proposed, for instance, to discontinue the authorization of readers in the first six grades and to substitute the permissive use of a number of series of readers from which selections may be made by individual boards. (p. 218)

So the paradox of curriculum politics is evident. While the policy allows for decentralized adaptation and implementation, it still coerces the political choice by centralizing the range of choices. This is further controlled by the regulative policy for teacher training.

The programme of teaching reading in the Normal Schools has already been modified, and readers recommended for use in the elementary schools will be available in order that graduates of the Normal Schools taking positions in September 1950 will be familiar with them, and with the best method of presenting the material they contain.

However, the unique feature of Porter's plan, permitting and encouraging the establishment of local curriculum committees, is a clear sample of a constituent curriculum policy.

The courses of study which will be prepared and issued by the Department will be in general terms. They will indicate the objectives to be attained and the principles to be followed. Rigid, detailed courses of study will not be provided. The responsibility for filling in the details of the various courses will rest at the local level, and it is anticipated that this will be accomplished through wide participation in the construction of courses by groups of teachers and inspectors in co-operation with other professionally competent persons selected by local authorities. (Fleming, 1972)

In this respect, the Porter Plan is a constituent curriculum policy because it stated directly to the polity, specifically the educators and general Ontario public, what it intended to see evolve in the development of local curriculum committees. It also conferred on them the power to design ". . . the details of the various courses

. . . at the local level". In Lowi's terms, these committees might be parallel to agencies for establishing judicial jurisdiction (see Figure 2, p. 26). The policy was applicable to the entire organization as the provincial public education system and, as such, exemplifies a constituent curriculum policy.

It is noteworthy, therefore, to recognize the subtle coerciveness of such constituent curriculum policy which appeared to be very liberating but which, in actual fact, was very regulating. It is difficult to prove conclusively that dramatic coercive action would have been taken against any individual teacher, school, or school board. At the same time, the forces which influenced curriculum changes seemed too preoccupied with what Porter called "the baffling problems of mass education, of retaining the essential fundamentals that apply to all, yet avoiding a regimentation that may stifle the imagination" (text given in Appendix I:E).

Some, like Pullen (1955), suggest that the political timing of such policy was off because teachers were unfamiliar and ill-prepared for such decentralized innovativeness and political independence. Others, like Fleming (1972), interpreted the political behaviour which resulted from such a curriculum constituent policy in mega policy terms:

This scheme . . . flourished for a brief period and then petered out in the absence of continued support from the top. Had it become a permanent part of the system, it would have reduced departmental responsibility very substantially, but in a way that would not have been strictly comparable to that implied by the program of 1937. (p. 75)

Fleming concludes that such curriculum politicking "would not have had the effect of placing more onus on every individual classroom teacher; it would have transferred responsibility to leading teachers working with inspectors." Thus, such curriculum policy would have "constituted an intermediate level of responsibility between the department and the individual teacher" (p. 75).

However, the incremental innovativeness of the Porter Plan succumbed to two dominant forces--who and what forces determine curriculum policy.

Firstly, there was the usual "inertia that sets in after the novelty has worn off any new scheme" (Pullen, 1955; Fleming 1972). Then, according to Fleming, there were two confirmed major sources which

"... killed the Porter Plan. The first was that the Department of Education used its resources of expertise to such good effect in producing courses for the intermediate division that local groups often failed to see any great advantage in introducing their own variations. The second was the official policy of indifference, if not actual disfavour, that accompanied the appointment of W. J. Dunlop as minister of education in 1951. Although the plan was not completely disowned, there was relatively little activity after the mid-fifties. (1972, p. 189)

Such politics (confirmed in Interviews: Hodgins, 1982; McCarthy, 1982) which followed the established policies reflect Lowi's assumptions as to how policy generates politics. It cannot be clearly proven whether or not the Porter Plan was a stop-gap multi-type curriculum policy to compensate for the state of curriculum non-policy and the maintenance of existing curriculum policy types while the Royal Commission continued its deliberations and preparation of its

final report. However, as described in Chapter III (The Porter Era, p. 73), Porter and Premier Frost left little doubt as to who was responsible for curriculum policy in the Province when the Royal Commission's recommendations met with such disfavour.

In the end, of course, the Government must take the responsibility for policy and for changes which are made now or in the future and changes will be made as indicated in view of circumstances which exist from time to time. (Hansard, Ontario Legislature, April 5, 1950).

Possibly the senior staff in the Department, especially Althouse, were the architects of the various policies for the Province's schools, but such conclusive evidence no longer exists. What does remain are the policy statements by the Premier and Minister of Education who took the responsibility for determining such policies. Likewise, the constants for determining curriculum policies were the forces of "mass education" (Porter, 1949), teacher shortages, and too little classroom space. In the Easton political systems model (1965), there were demands which created acute pressure on the educational arena of the Porter Era. New curriculum policy types, especially curriculum constituent policies which characterized the Porter Era, would not be seen again to this extent until John Robarts became the Minister of Education in 1959. The intervening six years seemed to be a period of predominant curriculum non-policy and status-quo curriculum policy types. The ensuing politics reflect such policies and the frustrations of many who tried to influence curriculum change.

3. THE DUNLOP ERA (1951-1959)

(a) Social Forces

Fleming (1972), in a chapter entitled "Quest for Organizational Efficiency" (pp. 62-116), states that the 1950s were "largely characterized by reactions to the overwhelming increase in enrolment, requiring rapid increases in expenditure, the recruitment of large numbers of additional teachers and the construction of hundreds of new buildings" (p. 75).

Appendices I:0-Q illustrate the Government's response to these four major pressures on curriculum and educational policies.

Figure 10 (p.103) also notes several forces affecting the curriculum arena. For instance, there was Althouse's death in 1956, Russia's successful launch of Sputnik in 1957, and the perceived poor state of the Science and Mathematics curriculum which resulted in the establishment by the Ontario Teachers' Federation in 1957 of a Committee on Mathematics and Science from a Joint Committee of the Toronto Board of Education and the University of Toronto. Such situations were forces on curriculum policy and its direction or lack thereof. Commentaries (Interviews: Crossley, 1982; McCarthy, 1982) suggest that Fleming's harsh criticism towards Dunlop's curriculum leadership may be justified.

Bureaucratic rigidities which increased apace under Dunlop, particularly after the death of Althouse, also reduced the departments' [sic] ability to attract those with initiative. As an instrument for the implementation of education policy, the department [sic] underwent a period of decline. Much of the trouble was directly attributable to Dunlop's method of operating. (p. 76, 1972)

Fleming's harshness is really directed more against the Department's organization which seemingly disintegrated with Althouse's death.

Many of the features that reduced the departments' [sic] effectiveness resulted from a kind of drift into practices that could only have been prevented by a fundamental shake-up at regular intervals. . . . A sudden death, like that of Althouse, however, threw matters into a great deal of confusion. (p. 76, 77, 1972)

Fleming summarizes serious problems with the regular organizational operation which could seriously affect curriculum policy by the very fact that situations of curriculum non-policy would result when forces requesting policy or change would not know where to go.

Therefore, the political milieu for curriculum policies during the Drew Era was one of instability and unprecedented demands for educational services.

(b) Curriculum Policies

Dunlop's four arrangements (text given in Appendix I:0) for the "next stages in the reorganization of school courses" following the Porter Plan are regulative curriculum policy. For example, the second arrangement states:

The Department's supervisory staff will examine the local adaptations with a view to ensuring ample provision for the mastery of "the three R's":, flexibility of promotion, and the recognition, in the secondary grades, of the requirements both of those pupils who will leave school as soon as the law allows and of those with the ability and determination to attempt longer courses. (p. 271, 1952)

The powerful presence of the Department's supervisory staff to ensure that core subjects ('the three Rs') were amply mastered is a clear, albeit subtle, statement of expected behaviour with obligation for defined behaviour.

The policy is also redistributive curriculum policy because it specifies the expected behaviour of the school board and its existing duties, even to its responsibilities for providing learning materials:

Pupils learn to use maps by using them, and in this connection it is pointed out that the General Regulations for Public and Separate Schools require the Board to provide the school with a mounted globe not less than 12⁰ in diameter, pupils' atlases in numbers sufficient for class use in Grades 4 to 10, both inclusive, and a reference atlas for the school library. (1955, p. 272).

The tone of these directions reflects the emphasis on specific subjects and learning resources which characterize the primary rule focus of Dunlop's curriculum policies. The preamble to Memorandum Curriculum: 9 (Appendix I:Q) which reminds the teachers, schools, and school boards that the "books listed are subject to the reimbursement grant for reference books in those municipalities where it applies in the manner set forth in the Grant Regulation" is a precise statement of expected curriculum behaviour and thus a regulative curriculum policy. For while the persuasive tone of such curriculum policy is to establish an "atmosphere of interest in good books and wholesome reading", the authoritative presence and indicator of intended responsibility is the Department's local representative; namely, the school inspector. For instance, there is the second-last paragraph in Memorandum Curriculum 8 (Appendix I:P):

A teacher who, because of lack of experience, feels doubtful of his ability to order wisely, or a principal who doubts the wisdom of an order submitted by a teacher is advised to consult the Inspector about the proposed order before sending it on. (1955, p. 280).

The underlying theme of encouragement is never far from the presence of some authoritative force, usually the area school inspector. None-

The underlying theme of encouragement is never far from the presence of some authoritative force, usually the area school inspector. Nonetheless, despite the reassurance of curriculum directions, there are few indications of any new or even expanding changes or developments in curriculum policy. Fleming (1972) frequently notes that Dunlop is "on record as favouring the eradication of every trace of progressivism" (p. 75); however, organizational changes in the Department's structure in 1958 (see Figure 6, p. 53), with the creation of the offices and position for a Superintendent of Special Services and Curriculum, indicate incremental changes were in operation.

(c) Interpretation

Fleming summarizes serious problems with the regular organizational operation which could seriously affect curriculum policy by the very fact that situations of curriculum non-policy would result when forces requesting policy or change would not know where to go.

Much of the decision-making was too centralized in that matters of relatively minor importance had to be approved at a high level. The structure was poorly designed to enable fresh ideas to rise to the top. Protocol prevented a minor official from by-passing an immediate superior with any suggestion for change in procedure or policy. (p. 141, 1972)

However, forces external to the Department, particularly through teacher groups, university professors, and individuals within the Department, persevered. Stanley A. Watson, who had helped write the 1937 Programme, became head of the Curriculum and Textbooks Branch and J. R. McCarthy, who later became Assistant Deputy Minister of Educa-

tion under William Davis, became Watson's assistant (also noted in Fleming, 1972, p. 190). McCarthy acknowledges how slowly change came about; in fact, "changes through textbooks were about your only viable route" (Interview: August 1982). There were strong regulative curriculum policies to be followed and anything not addressed by existing curriculum policies was left to a situation of curriculum non-policy (see Figure 4, p. 37). The harsh criticism of the Globe and Mail's education columnist, Bascom St. John, whose copy from 1958 until 1964 when Minister William Davis brought him into the Department to chair the Policy and Development Council, was a bitter commendation of the Provincial educational system.

Therefore, it would appear that the legacy left by the Dunlop Era in terms of curriculum policy is one of maintaining the status quo of existing curriculum policies with regulative curriculum policies really being the dominant policy type. Perhaps the political pressures of trying to meet the large enrolments, train teachers, and erect schools, when combined with the gentle personability of a retired educator in his seventies, were too demanding. Whatever the forces, the curriculum policies of the 1937 Programme with its basic skills core curriculum, combined with the new organizational arrangements of the Porter Era, were essentially the same. The frustrations of groups and persons predominately outside the Department were given an opportunity to direct themselves constructively when Premier Frost appointed John Robarts to the portfolio in 1959.

4. THE ROBERTS ERA (1959-1962)

(a) Social Forces

Figure 10 (p. 103) clearly suggests that the Roberts Era was characterized by major demographic changes and increased financial costs. As well, the success of Sputnik was having its own impact on Ontario curriculum matters, particularly for mathematics, the sciences, and technical education. As described in Chapter III, society and educators were taking their own initiatives to compensate for deficiencies in these curriculum areas. John Roberts' statesman-like approach and his long-range vision did not appear at first to have the characteristics of discrete (Dror, 1968) curriculum policy types. Roberts' vision needed substantial finances which he found in federal sources. In retrospect, the initial transition from the Dunlop Era to the Roberts Era was very incremental until one considers the basis upon which Roberts appears to have been consciously established his administration during his first few years as Education Minister. The forces with which he was dealing were complex, costly, and unprecedented.

(b) Curriculum Policies

At first, Roberts maintained the dominating regulative curriculum policies of the Dunlop Era with its compulsory core subjects. Again, Fleming (1972) surveys the evolution:

Curriculum changes initiated by the department [sic] during the late fifties and at the beginning of the sixties were numerous enough in one sense, but they tended to be of a rather minor nature. The lack of emphasis placed on this phase of the work was demonstrated by the fact that a much larger proportion of staff time was devoted to supervisory activities than to curriculum development. New courses of study were often assembled in a very brief period of time and with no pretence at the kind of research or development work that might have led to real innovations. (p. 193)

Nevertheless, Robarts brought to the political arena of curriculum a macro overview of mega (Dror, 1968) process which in time would result in specific curriculum policy types.

Prior to his assumption of the Premiership in 1961, Robarts had spent two building years quite unlike his predecessors. Curriculum change had tended to begin with primary programs, secondary education traditionally being seen as either a refined preparation for the university-bound student or as a basic skill training prior to the school-leaving age of sixteen. Robarts' vision included vocational and technical education and, while recommendations made by the Royal Commission on these areas had been seemingly forgotten during the Dunlop Era, prior to 1960 Ontario had not fully recognized the curriculum needs of this growing educational need. The dominant force behind these curriculum politics came from the Federal Government's 1961 Technical and Vocational Training Assistance Act. The lawyer and economist background of Robarts seems to have been very successful for Ontario was to receive the largest financial support of any of the Provinces under this Act. For instance, "expenditures for the construction of secondary schools rose from \$39,169,000 in 1960 to \$81,611,000 in 1963" (Fleming, 1972, p. 20).

All this is significant because, following Ontario's signing of the Federal-Provincial Technical and Vocational Training Association Act in 1961, major curriculum policies were established which impacted not just on vocational education but on all secondary school education.

By September 1962, the Reorganized Program, or Robarts Plan, was ready for implementation in select high schools around the Province. Appendix I:R is a copy of the official memorandum announcing this major curriculum policy.

Basically, the Robarts Plan was a constituent curriculum policy because it provided power and authorized restructuring to an existing operation which was the Ontario secondary school system. It provided for various streaming schemes for program and student achievement. Designating schools according to specialized purposes, such as vocational and technical education with corresponding specialized textbooks, courses, and community associations, are general examples of constituent policy behaviour wherein the element of coercion is remote and the environmental participants--namely, the school board and schools--are empowered to enjoy new privileges, powers, and benefits. However, the Robarts Plan has other characteristics which are addressed in the next section.

(c) Interpretation

As indicated earlier, the social forces affecting the Robarts Plan were complex, costly, and unprecedented. This perhaps explains why the Plan, which on a macro level is a constituent curriculum policy, is an intricate blend of all curriculum policy types on the discrete level (Dror, 1968).

For example, the language used in Section One is typical of a distributive curriculum policy in stating: "With the approval of the school board concerned, a principal may introduce wholly or in part the reorganized secondary school programmes of study announced by the

Minister in August 1961." The intended behaviour is direct but the optionality of time in whole or partial implementation is not coercive.

At the same time, while the conditions are set conditionally, the language of Section Two gives the supervisory inspector the authoritative opportunity to control the implementation of this policy. For instance, conditions for participation in the Plan were regulatively set: ". . . provided that the pupils' choices of Programmes by the end of Grade 9 fit that pattern of organization". Such a statement of expected behaviour is indicative of regulatory curriculum policy. The policy language used in Section Six, "Classification of Pupils", is also the language of a regulative curriculum policy.

Section Five, "Supervisory Staff", is an interesting blend of four curriculum policy types. For example, the opportunity for the "local school authorities" (sub-section (d)) to establish an Advisory Vocational Committee or a sub-committee is an example of constituent curriculum policy. The policy language of Section Five's preamble and of sub-section (a) is an interesting mix of a redistributive and regulative curriculum policy. For while the purpose of this study is not to be a content analysis, the use of such phrases as "should be permitted", "must interpret", "should be changed", "should be included" and "should be accepted" clearly indicate precise statements of curriculum policy direction. Similarly, while the consequences for compliance and non-compliance are not delineated in this public policy document, the potential coercive authority of the Department of Education is evident through references to other regulative policy

documents; for example, "Circular H.S. 1" and Section 70(6) of "The Secondary Schools and Board of Education Act". In fact, in the last paragraph is noted the power of the district or municipal inspector, yet the invitation still stands that "if his next visit is not imminent, the board may write to him for information or directly to the Department of Education" (Appendix I:R). Therefore, what can be noted in this critical policy document which typifies the Robarts Era is the intricate blend of four curriculum policy types. Yet, despite the openness and collegiality of curriculum policy development, implementation and revisions, a careful consideration of the policy statements should leave little doubt that the coercive, controlling power of the Department of Education is always present.

Finally, this tone and intent of the document, which unlike its predecessors was not issued under the Minister's signature, strongly suggests the move towards decentralized curriculum development and implementation begun during the Porter Era. The policy inclusion of local schools and their respective systems, trustees, principals, and teachers in the curriculum policy arena is a noteworthy link with the Porter Plan and a serious indicator of curriculum policy direction for the early Davis Era. However, while curriculum policy issues might be handled at the local levels, the Department of Education never relinquished ultimate authoritative control over educational finances, textbook approval, and teacher certification. Nonetheless, the significant mega and discrete (Dror, 1968) curriculum policy changes and unlimited optimism of the Robarts Era set an enthusiastic stage for more visible actions during the beginnings of the next period.

5. THE EARLY DAVIS ERA (1962-1965)

(a) Social Forces

The whole curriculum policy arena was becoming extremely intricate and the politics were very complex because of the impacting on other areas such as finance, as witnessed by the establishment of the Ontario Foundation Tax Plan in 1963 and the opening of a Youth Branch and a Technological and Trades Training Branch also in 1963. In 1965, Davis announced the reorganization of the Department (Figures 7 and 8, p. 54-55) as a reflection of "three guiding principles: integration, reallocation and decentralization" (Fleming, 1972, p. 80). The mega and discrete (Dror, 1968) policy visions of Davis became incrementally evident. Fleming (1972) described the forces and participants who impacted on curriculum policies (confirmed by Interviews: McCarthy, 1982; Crossley, 1982):

The first of these covered the abolition of separate sub-structures for elementary and secondary education in the light of the growing tendency to regard the two levels as part of an unbroken process. A second aspect of integration involved bringing together the functions of supervision, curriculum, and examinations in a single Program Branch. These functions were handled by what were called divisions until 1967, when they were renamed sections. A third aspect of integration was the merging of small units for the supervision of subjects such as music, art, and guidance with the Supervision Division, since they were now regarded as part of the regular program. (p. 80)

This incremental political shift is also constituent in nature. Fleming (1972) continues in his description of Davis' principle of reallocation:

Reallocation of functions meant the abolition of the position of chief director in favour of a single deputy minister, as already mentioned. Reporting to this official would be three assistant deputy minis-

ters responsible respectively for instruction, provincial schools and further education, and administration. . . . A second aspect of reallocation involved relieving many assistant superintendents and school inspectors of business and legal advisory functions which were to be exercised henceforth by officials in the School Business Administration Branch. Decentralization was to be carried out gradually as the existing organization evolved in that direction. Davis foresaw the establishment of "districts" in various parts of the province where superintendents and local inspectors might operate in close contact with local needs and respond quickly when assistance was required (pp. 80-82).

So, the first three years of the Davis Era are noteworthy for the multiplicity of curriculum policy action. Moreover, there seems to have been a clear vision of curriculum policy change even if at first there did not appear to be a clear plan of action. By 1965, there was a marked shift with the Department's reorganization. Nonetheless, the first three years were significant for two key reasons: the continuation of the curriculum policy work with its changes from the Robarts Era and the establishment of the foundation for an eclectic range of revised, new and experimental curriculum policies. All types of curriculum policies were involved and constituent curriculum policies are of particular note because of the people and forces which they included in their operation. Yet, as Dror (1968) stressed, the pivotal role played by the chief policy-maker was clearly supported by the very busy and eclectic visionary leadership style of William Davis. His strategy of integration, reallocation and decentralization, combined with the macro perception of educational reform, are seemingly unprecedented. "The establishment of procedures for continuous curriculum reform" (Fleming, 1972, p. 232) was one of what Fleming identified as the four pillars of Davis' program that mark this era as unique. Per-

haps the tendency to establish many politically-sensitive constituent curriculum policies is what underscores the uniqueness of the first years of the Davis Era. It also suggests the incremental nature of curriculum policy development, which will be addressed in Chapter V, the final chapter.

(b) Curriculum Policies

The first three years of William Davis' tenure as Minister of Education was a time of wide-ranging of curriculum policies. Like the preceding era, emphasis still remained with a set of regulative curriculum policies for core subjects. But, in the first years of the Davis Era, the projects begun by Robarts' policies expanded and the emphasis on secondary schools from that era extended to elementary education. During the first three years, the Province essentially saw, firstly, the extension of free textbooks to all Grades 9 and 10 students; secondly, increased implementation of the Robarts Plan; thirdly, the completion of curriculum revision of courses in Grades 7 to 13 Mathematics and Science programs. The conscious bid to lessen the gap between elementary and secondary school education created three notable constituent curriculum policies: the Grade 13 Implementation Committee and the Kindergarten to Grade 6 Review Committee. The establishment of a Policy and Development Council within the Department along with these major review projects indicated a third constituent curriculum policy as well as the new Minister's interest and support of research and development which in turn saw the parallel development of a major policy influence through the Ontario Curriculum Institute (see Fleming, Ontario's Educative Society, 1970, Vol. V,

Chapter 11). Yet, Fleming's observation is a cautious warning as to who and what forces determined curriculum policies:

Evidence of the extent to which the work of the institute influenced educational practice in Ontario is largely circumstantial. It could be coincidental that the operations of the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education began to expand and become much more comprehensive, that the influence of energetic and progressive officials including M. B. Parnall, J. K. Crossley, J. F. Kinlin, and a number of others became more pronounced. It was perhaps inevitable that a strong emphasis on curriculum reform would be part of the Davis program when the new minister got his bearings after his appointment in the fall of 1962. (Fleming, 1972, p. 195).

On the other hand, and quite unlike the previous four eras, the continuity of then current curriculum policies and the implementation of new policies regardless of policy type was no longer a stable process of incremental evolution. The momentum of pending changes, given the scope of the projects being undertaken and the increased number of people who were actively seconded to the Curriculum Branch, was unprecedented. The involvement and vocalizing of such study committees as those of the Ontario Curriculum Institute (OCI) appears to have been determining influences on Provincial curriculum direction. But again, since substantial evidence no longer exists, one is left only to conjecture as Fleming acknowledges:

Yet, although these developments might have occurred anyway, it is not hard to believe that departmental initiative was strengthened by the threat that an independently controlled agency (on which the department had minority representation) might usurp too many official responsibilities. It is true, of course, that a plausible line of demarcation was drawn: the OCI was to work out basic principles of curriculum and conduct only limited experiments to test the feasibility of certain ideas, while the department was to retain the sole power to prescribe courses of study and to determine when, where, and to what extent an innovative

procedure was to be adopted. The line of demarcation was, however, thin, and to some officials the department seemed in danger of being reduced to a position of issuing prescriptions in a mechanical sort of way. Departmental officials made sure that this danger did not materialize by performing their functions in a much more thoroughgoing manner than had characterized any previous period. (Fleming, 1972, pp. 195-196)

(c) Interpretation

Despite the complex and multi-level activities of curriculum projects during the first three years of Davis' time as Minister, it is possible to make several general observations. Firstly, the common thread of regulative and distributive core curriculum policies still persisted, although societal views and educational lobbying were felt from forces outside the Department's policy-makers' traditional ring of the Minister, Deputy Minister, Chief Director and Chief Superintendents. These forces were being augmented from such groups as the OCI, teachers' federations, and university committees, particularly at the University of Toronto. A second general observation is the approach to review committees, such as the Kindergarten to Grade 6 Committee (see Fleming, 1972, pp. 217-225) and the Policy and Development Council, which are both clear illustrations of curriculum constituent policies. The impact of such forces on curriculum policies is again largely circumstantial but it is, nonetheless, a force to acknowledge as Fleming does:

The Policy and Development Council was joined by a number of outstanding men who had played an important part in departmental affairs, but none of them stayed very long. They seemed to feel that the council was a kind of backwater where they had lost their power to influence events. Some returned to positions in the administrative hierarchy while others abandoned the department altogether. By the end of the decade St. John was left alone as an adviser to the minister. In this

role he was thought to be valued, since he had not lost his talent for analysing [sic] a situation nor his lack of hesitation in offering a frank and often pungently worded opinion. Unlike so many other public servants, he never developed a propensity for telling the minister what he thought he wanted to hear. It would be difficult to say to what extent his views influenced Davis, since the latter, in his characteristic reluctance to reveal his own inner thoughts, seldom gave much indication of the sources of ideas that influenced him most. (Fleming, 1972, p. 80)

The power of the chief policy-maker (in this case, William Davis) is underscored as the link and illustrated in Appendices I:R-V. Even though only one selected item (Appendix I:S) is from Davis directly, the potentially coercive presence of the chief curriculum policy-maker is always evident. For instance, speaking to the Legislature after nearly two years in his Education Ministerial position, Davis reports on the curriculum revisions in Science and Mathematics, new courses such as World Politics and Man in Society, as well as the involvement of classroom teachers in the implementation process. Twenty years earlier, as Watson had reported later to the Royal Commission, he had written the Provincial religious education courses with limited input from outside resources (see pp. 66-67); yet, within that short time, a new process of curriculum development had evolved. However, what did not change was the type of regulative and distributive policies--the Science and Mathematics courses for Grades 7 through 13 were still regulative and distributive. But, what was different was the course content and the course development. As Davis said: "In these disciplines particularly, no course of study can be considered complete in the sense that it is fixed for an indefinite period" (1964) (text given in Appendix I:S).

The role of the Curriculum Branch is evident in Memorandum 1965-65:13 regarding the revision of the curriculum for Kindergarten and Grades 1 to 6 (Appendix I:T). The recognition and acknowledgement given to the local inspectors and superintendents seems typical of the collegial tone of curriculum policy politics of the Early Davis Era. For example, the extension of research time, over two years, the invitational tone, and the secondment of curriculum consultants illustrate again how this form of constituent curriculum policy can create its own politics. Presumably, some schools with very specific curriculum concerns or those seeking particular recognition might want to invite members of the Curriculum Branch staff to visit their school. Similarly, involvement in such projects would offer a tangible means for affecting the primary and junior curriculum which was still the 1937 Revised Programme.

The appointment of an Implementation Committee to facilitate the report of the Grade 13 Study Committee (Appendix I:U) is a further illustration of Davis' eclectic approach to curriculum policy. Unlike the frictional atmosphere of the Dunlop Era, Davis' political astuteness to involve many of Dunlop's critics, such as Dr. Robin Harris from the University of Toronto, author of The Quiet Revolution (1967), as well as Bascom St. John, the Department's former harsh critic from the Globe and Mail, appears to have salved many contentious curriculum issues which still remained. Again, ensuring, through constituent curriculum policies, that experts were involved in curriculum development and implementation did not mean that the resultant curriculum policies regarding Grade 13 would not be regulative, distributive or

redistributive. What it did seem to imply is that the politics resulting from this new form of curriculum constituent policy might presumably ensure its policy implementation. Moreover, the coercive nature of the potential policy would be present. But, by having a broader awareness and commitment base for the curriculum policy, whatever its type, the outcomes interestingly enough appeared to have ensured the power of the Department as the policy-issuing body.

This political approach to the potential use of coercive power is clearly evident in the policy language of the memorandum of August 27, 1965, from H. E. Elborn, Assistant Deputy Minister (Appendix I:V). The regulatory tone of such directives, ranging from the filing of Ministerial memoranda to the classification of secondary pupils for grant purposes, should leave little doubt as to the possible coercive power of the Department. At the same time, Section Six, "The Role of the Curriculum Division", succinctly indicates the scope and intent of a political organization willing to undertake new political activities. Such language as "a wide variety of student needs", "audio-visual media and technological devices", and "living in a technological society" was not the curriculum policy language of the Drew, Porter or Dunlop Eras. Fleming implies that the personality of the chief policy-maker, William Davis, affected this multi-level approach. Again, for example, the establishment of the Policy and Development Council illustrates Davis' policy-making leadership style and what Fleming saw as his ability to

. . . separate advisory functions, to some extent at least, from administration. Davis was the kind of strong leader who might have made such a system work if he had really wished to do so. It was clear, however,

that he regarded the new council only as an extra source of ideas; he also expected the whole department to act to some extent in the same capacity. This was the implication of his determination to transform the department from a primarily regulatory to a service agency. (Fleming, 1972, p. 80)

Commentaries (Interviews: Crossley, 1982; McCarthy, 1982) support Fleming's statements. McCarthy added that he believed that the presence of Davis' predecessor, John Robarts, also flavoured the collegiality of curriculum development as well as the functioning of the entire Department, especially in these formative years of Davis' administration (Interview: McCarthy, 1982). From such observations, one might envision that curriculum policies for the first three years of the Davis Era were a blend of all five curriculum policy types but, despite updating course content, the curriculum policies of the 1930s and 1940s remained basically the same in all their regulative and distributive formats. Yet, there were two distinct differences in the early years of Davis' administration. Firstly, there was a political atmosphere of broad policy-making involvement which included classroom teachers, administrators, and education officers which was unlike the committees of the Porter Era. Secondly, and more specifically, the timing was more receptive because of need, funds, and enthusiasm. The extension of the Robarts Plan and curriculum work in the Kindergarten to Intermediate levels meant that all levels of the elementary and secondary school curriculum were being addressed. Educational television, the role of research and program development, and the initiation of new courses, such as Man in Society and World Politics, were reflective of the establishment of new distributive and redistributive curriculum policies.

reflective of the establishment of new distributive and redistributive curriculum policies.

Therefore, one may conclude that the curriculum policies for the first three years of the Davis Era were an intricate blend of all five curriculum policy types, reflecting an overall view of a skill continuum which was regulated by core subjects in Language Arts and revised Mathematics and Science courses. By high school, the optionality of the New Programme offered distributive and redistributive choice patterns, although the Grade 13 Provincial examinations still gave a regulative coercive impact for those following an university-bound curriculum.

Likewise, the forces and persons determining curriculum policies during this era were actively encouraged to be very involved; yet experienced policy-makers, such as J. R. McCarthy, and the determined leadership of the Minister left little doubt as to where the ultimate power for curriculum policies lay.

C. DISCUSSION

This review of selected curriculum policies for Ontario public elementary schools from 1945 to 1965 suggests that the type of curriculum policy which really dominates and/or typifies a particular era is usually determined by the social and demographic forces of the time. The policies established, maintained and realigned by the chief policy-maker in response to the social demands of a given time period does lend credence to Lowi's core thesis that "policies determine politics" (p. 299, 1972). By being able to identify and deduce types of coercion logically, it becomes possible to appreciate Lowi policies--"work through the environment of con-

duct" (Lowi, 1972). For instance, the regulatory curriculum policies which characterize the Drew and Dunlop Eras are reflective of determined, military background of the two chief policy-makers. As Lowi had written earlier (1964):

. . . A political relationship is determined by the type of policy at stake, so that for every type of policy there is likely to be a distinctive type of political relationship. (p. 688)

The regulatory focus on cadet training, religious education, and the traditional core subjects which were monitored by school inspectors who reported to a centrally controlled administration in Toronto suggests why curriculum policy change in the late 1950s had to come from political action outside the administration. On the other hand, the decentralized political relationships through local curriculum committees which Porter had initiated in 1949 as a result of the constituent and redistributive curriculum policies of the Porter Plan lacked a lasting effect of a primary steadfastness since the partners in this political arena seemingly lacked experience and will power to sustain this new curriculum political relationship. Incrementally, these would establish a curriculum arena (adopted; Easton, 1965) to ensure a more lasting set of political relationships between the politician and educator. The diplomatic statesmanship (McCarthy, 1982) of a Robarts, who incrementally yet steadily formed a financial basis for new and renewed distributive and constituent curriculum policies, suggests that a visionary policy-maker must form distinctive types of political relationships for every type of curriculum policy. Thus, the Robarts Plan was really based on new provincial relationships with the Federal Government. Davis sought new relationships with university groups, teaching federations, and the media through direct but dis-

crete involvement with such forces as the University of Toronto and such journalists as Bascom St. John. The coercive force of such constituent and distributive curriculum policies would appear to be a gentle but firm method of establishing curriculum change and stability. Likewise, the curriculum politics of centralized versus decentralized political action was in constant motion. However, the centralized policy source never relinquished coercive control of finance and professional certification. The regulatory policies of these arenas were and have remained centrally controlled. This could re-emphasize and extend Lowi's view that every type of policy does require a distinctive type of political relationship. Curriculum policies of all types necessitate political statesmanship.

D. SUMMARY

This chapter undertook to meet two objectives: the application of a theoretical framework of curriculum policy types to a specific period in the curriculum life of Ontario public elementary and secondary schools and, then, in meeting the study's fourth research stage of interpreting the findings, offering a synthesis and conclusion. The three research questions guided the probings and enabled the development of Figure 11 which graphically presents highlights of the findings. As an extension of Figure 10, Figure 11 focusses on the four/five curriculum issues which the surviving data indicates were critical curriculum policy issues for their respective eras and helps to demonstrate the continuity of many types of curriculum policies and suggests that the role of the chief policy-maker does impact on the type of curriculum policy and the corresponding political behaviour which occurs prior to, during, and after the establishment of the policy. Also, Figure 10 infers that a curriculum non-policy may be

an interesting phenomenon whereby policy-makers may try to bridge time gaps created by deficiencies in existing curriculum policies until new or revised curriculum policies of whatever type may be established. These are just some of the general conclusions which will be addressed in Chapter V. While it seems clear that the nature and number of variables affecting curriculum policy differs from era to era, there are certain curriculum policies which are largely regulative and distributive and which remain constant. The nature of their regulativeness or distributive qualities suggests that any changes will be mainly incremental.

Chapter V will undertake a synthesis of what this interpretative-theoretical framework has suggested to this point in its development and application. It will examine the contributions which the research has made and offer suggestions for further research and possible curriculum policy practice.

ERA	CURRICULUM POLICIES	TYPE(S)* OF CURRICULUM POLICIES	ADDITIONAL NOTES
DREW (1943-48)	1937 Prim./Jr. Programme compulsory core subjects: Reading, Spelling, English, Arithmetic, Math, Physical Education, Social Studies	reg./dist./redist. curriculum policies whereby local school inspectors were empowered to ensure that prescribed courses were met and students successfully passed Gr.8 exams to enter high school and Gr.13 exams to enter university	Drew's belief that curriculum (elem./ sec.) must encourage the study of gov't and good citizenship note CBC speeches and memo to all school inspectors when DND cancelled cadet program also, a curriculum non-policy era as Department of Education and Provincial Government waited for directions from the Hope Commission
	daily religious education	reg. curriculum policy	
	compulsory cadet training for all secondary school males	reg. curriculum policy	
	prescriptive, authorized texts only	reg. curriculum policy	
	compulsory core subjects: Gr.1-8 - Reading, Arithmetic, History, Geography, Science Gr.9-13 - English, Math, History, Geography, Science	reg./dist./redist. curriculum policies about core subjects were sustained	Hope Report did make many recommendations about research, library facilities, technical education, exams, and exceptional children (to name a few)
PORTER (1968-51)	<u>Porter Plan</u> (1949): realignment of 13 grades into 4 curriculum groupings: primary, junior, intermediate, senior (age groups intended)	redist. curriculum policy	Note the shift from a totally centralized planned curriculum to a decentralized curriculum prepared by committees at the local level (for example, Pullen's thesis)
	local curriculum committees established	dist./const. curriculum policy	
	abolition of Gr.8 entrance exams for high school	reg. curriculum policy	
	variety of Gr.1-6 reading series permitted with approval	dist. curriculum policy	

DUNLOP (1951-59)	compulsory core subjects: Elem. - Reading, Writing, Arithmetic Sec. - English, Math, Science, History, Geography, Languages, Phys. Ed.	reg./dist. curriculum policies (Dunlop's seeming preference to maintain particularly the traditional curriculum reg. policies earned him the title, "Mr. Status Quo"	also curriculum non-policies with the lack of updating, especially in Science and Math courses, as evidenced by such texts and reports as <u>Design for Learning</u> (Frye, 1960), <u>Quiet Revolution: A Study of the Education System of Ontario</u> (Harris, 1967), <u>So Little for the Mind</u> (Neatby, 1953)
	free textbooks for elementary school students	reg./dist. curriculum policies	
	no Social Studies programme but kept Geography and History as distinct courses (especially Gr.5-6)	reg. curriculum policies	
ROBARTS (1959-62)	compulsory core subjects: Elem. - see Dunlop Era Sec. - evolution as per Robarts Era	reg. curriculum policies	Robarts' economic foresight enabled Ontario to be active in the Federal-Provincial Technical and Vocational Training Agreement (1961)
	<u>Robarts Plan</u> (1961) academic->vocational->technological - arrangement of secondary school curriculum	redist. curriculum policy to evolve into reg. curriculum policy by 1965	funds for new schools, additions to existing schools, staff, and curriculum development were unprecedented
DAVIS--EARLY (1962-65)	compulsory core subjects: Elem. - see Robarts Era Sec. - as per Robarts Era but without division between Gr.9&10	reg./dist/redist. curriculum policies	Note Fleming's perception of "the four main pillars" to Davis' program for educational reform, one of which was the "establishment of procedures for continuous curriculum renewals" (1972, p. 232)
	free textbooks for Gr.9&10 students	reg. curriculum policy	
	increased implementation of Robarts Plan	redist. curriculum policy	
	curriculum revision of Math and Science courses for Gr.9-13	dist./const. curriculum policies	

* see Figure 3 (Chapter II) for operant definitions, especially for types of curriculum policies

FIGURE 11:
A Selected Overview of
Curriculum Policies and Curriculum Policy Types
for Ontario Public Elementary and Secondary Schools
(1945-1965)

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purposes of this chapter are to review the study; highlight the findings; draw attention to the implications and limitations of these findings; and state the study's conclusions. The chapter is presented in five parts according to the stated goals.

A. REVIEW OF THE STUDY

Curriculum policy is a specialized topic for educators, curricularists and politicians who are responsible for educational issues. Although the subject of curriculum policy is a term which appears frequently within educational literature, little is known about the practice. Theoretical development in this field is still little developed. One theoretical basis for examining policy was found in the field of public administration. A selected review of the literature in public administration theory and empirical studies which are related to policy suggest a solid theoretical foundation. But there are limited studies of educational policy and even fewer studies of curriculum policy. Therefore, since educational research and practice require a firm foundation in theoretical constructs, and given the political realities of the public educational arena, it becomes necessary to establish a theoretical perspective of policy before developing operant references to curriculum policy. From that orientation, it was possible to undertake the purposes of this study--namely, to establish a theoretical framework for recognizing and distinguishing types of curriculum policy and, secondly, to identify and to examine selected curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965.

For this study, an approach is developed from a focused review of public administration theory on public policy. This search, especially the work of Theodore Lowi (1964 to the present), yielded an interpretative approach. As a result, a sequence of five separate stages is used: firstly, the establishment of a theoretical basis from which a typology of curriculum policies is presented; then an investigation of the contextual data in light of the theoretical guidelines; this is followed by an application of the theoretical principles to the findings; then an interpretation of the findings is given; and, finally, a deduction and synthesis of the research material is presented.

The first stage, the establishment of the theoretical operants, lead to the refinement of a theoretical approach from which research criteria are developed and research questions emerge. Stages two and three, the retrieval and investigation of the historical data, include the systematic retrieval of primary and secondary historical material. These steps involved the chronicling of selected events in Ontario educational history for the given research timeframe, the identifying, retrieving, and assembling of pertinent curriculum documents, as well as the interviewing of persons associated with curriculum policy-making who might affirm and/or clarify the historical records and events. Interpretation, the fourth stage, involved the application of the theoretical constructs, research criteria, and research questions to the historical findings. Subsequently, the final stage, deduction and synthesis, included the drawing of conclusions and generalizations.

The established criteria and the theoretical approach enable the researcher to answer the three research questions:

- (a) What forces determined curriculum policies during this period?
- (b) What were the curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965?
- (c) What type of curriculum policies characterized each designated era within the selected time period?

In general terms, the study concludes that curriculum policy results in a specialized and on-going process of political interaction. Such politics appear to be the output of a conversion process within a particular political system. These reflect the personality and values of the chief policy-maker as well as the external and internal supports forces of the social and political milieu. The curriculum policies can be distinguished by five major groupings: regulatory, distributive, redistributive, constituent, and non-policy. The on-going activity of the political environment may affect the traits and types of curriculum policy. For instance, what might have been a curriculum non-policy at one point in time may, under new, different or renewed social and political circumstances, become one of the four specific curriculum policy types or it may dissolve, given the internal or external forces in the political system. By distinguishing such forces and by identifying who makes these policy decisions, one may facilitate awareness for policy-makers and people affected by such curriculum policies. Likewise, by separating individual and environmental behaviour, one may appreciate the use of coercive forces for complementation and adaptation. Figure 4 (p. 37) synthesizes this conclusion theoretically.

When this theoretical typology is applied to a specific period in Ontario educational history, specifically 1945 to 1965, and to a particular

educational matter; namely, curriculum policy, several interpretations and deductions can be made; these are listed in the section which follows.

The study demonstrates that curriculum policy is influenced by such external forces as societal values, ethical systems, and institutional arrangements. Likewise, internal factors, such as the access and exercise of power, internal organizational patterns with their format and informal network, and especially the personal leadership qualities and personality traits of the policy-makers in a given educational context are very critical influences on the actual political processes which characterize curriculum policies.

B. HIGHLIGHTS OF THE FINDINGS

Boyd (1978) comments that "one cannot understand policy-making without looking at the entire policy-making/policy-implementation cycle" which is an apt reference for studying curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965. Rather than consider the given time period in numerical blocks of time, such as every five or ten years, the application of public policy theory is applied according to the chief political agents responsible for curriculum policy-making, namely, the Premier of the Province and the Minister of Education. This proves to be helpful on several accounts: policy-making occurs at the upper echelons of an organizational structure and many theorists, such as Dror (1968) and Allison (1971), stress the influence, power, and personality of the policy-makers--especially the chief policy-maker. Consequently, the research is structured according to the names of the Ministers of Education for the twenty-year period: George Drew, Dana Porter, William Dunlop, John Robarts, and William Davis. It is noteworthy to recognize that Mr. Drew held the positions of Premier and Minister of Education

simultaneously. Mr. Porter became the Attorney General of Ontario after serving as Minister of Education, and Mr. Robarts and Mr. Davis became Premier after their respective tenures as Minister of Education. Significant political leverage (Gergen, 1968) is exercised by the person who holds the policy-making portfolio of the Minister of Education during the selected time."

The study illustrates that the overall motif of curriculum policy types for Ontario's public elementary and secondary schools from 1945 to 1965 is a developmental pattern of cautious incrementalism. Each Minister, as the chief policy-maker, has varying degrees of effectiveness and, during the twenty-year time span which this study addresses, responsibility for some curriculum policies gradually shifted to local school board jurisdiction. However, financial jurisdictions always remained with the chief Provincial policy-maker. The significant shift, which is now more popularly referred to as a movement from centralized to decentralized curriculum policy-making, seems to have begun in the Porter Era with the Minister's speech announcing the Porter Plan initiating localized curriculum projects.

Prior to that, curriculum policies during the Drew Era were typified by cautious policy-makers stressing predominantly regulative curriculum policies on curriculum issues such as religious education and cadet training. In the context of post-World War II economic and demographic situations, only cosmetic curriculum policy changes occurred; for example, changes in textbooks and program content. This approach to curriculum policies seemed appropriate in light of the then recently established 1937 Primary-Junior curriculum policies, which essentially remained the same until the 1970s, and the perceived pending impact of the Royal Commission. Thus, new curriculum policies of any type were suspended in anticipation of

the Commission's recommendations and the seemingly more urgent political issues of assisting the returning war veterans and other post-war needs and demands.

When Porter assumed his ministerial duties and the Commission had still not reported, the need for constituent curriculum policies was critical to meet the external/internal forces which were pressing the government for substantial curriculum outputs. Redistributive curriculum policies, such as those realigning the Kindergarten to Grade 13 continuum into four educational groupings and the regulative curriculum policy of abolishing the Grade 8 examination for high-school entrance, suggest some internal/external political action within the political policy-making operations. While cautiously incremental in light of the Royal Commission's imminent recommendations, and in view of the public cries in the press for the Commission's final report and through questions raised in the Legislature, it is evident that the curriculum policy-makers of the Porter Era had to respond to the public for the costs of the Commission and the escalating needs for more teachers, schools and textbooks.

During the Dunlop Era, the pattern of incrementalism continued, but in a disjointed fashion. The critical role played by the Director of Education, Dr. Althouse, who by then was serving his third Minister, was evident (Fleming, 1972; McCarthy Interview, 1982). His transitory role during these three Eras has not been fully documented, but it appears that the social and demographical demands of building schools and training teachers far outweighed any other external or internal forces to offset any major type of curriculum policy significantly beyond retaining the revised 1937 sequential program of Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic in the elementary schools and English, Mathematics, Science, History, Geography, languages,

and vocational training in the secondary schools. A good academic foundation was still considered the ideal. English, Social Studies, and Physical Education remained compulsory until the end of Grade 12. Consequently, curriculum innovations became non-policy matters since the on-going curriculum policy-making essentially distributed and redistributed curriculum policy, thereby earning the Minister the title of "Mr. Status-Quo". The sudden death of Dr. Althouse, the external organizational and institutional influences of such agencies as the Ontario Curriculum Institute, the Ontario Mathematics Commission, the University of Toronto, and the Toronto School Board, along with the historical impact of Sputnik, created a new political momentum when the Robarts Era began.

The talents and personable qualities of the new Minister made a fresh impact on curriculum policy during the Robarts Administration. This period was characterized by many curriculum policy types. But, while incrementalism is evident, the pace was quicker as more individuals and specialized factors became involved.

Revised distributive and redistributive curriculum policies resulted from a very active set of conversion processes. Constituent curriculum policies were established while other curriculum policies were reviewed. In an era which was witnessing the arrival of a "baby boom" in its secondary schools, rapid urbanization, plus the threat of Russian technological and scientific superiority, updated visionary curriculum policies became politically critical. Increased attention was given to the "New Math" curriculum, the Grades 7 to 9 Science programs, the revision of the Grade 13 Biology and Physics courses, the Grade 11 Physics course, and the Grades 12 and 13 Chemistry programs. Textbooks, their content, modernity and availability were crucial curriculum matters, reflecting many influ-

ences, particularly for regulatory and redistributive curriculum policies. The 1950s debate over the elementary school's Social Studies instruction, as distinct from the continuum of teaching history, reflects the curriculum debates in the non-scientific and mathematics disciplines. This mirrored a critical policy move towards a stronger, more coherent and definable integration of aims and program implementation between the public elementary and secondary curriculum. But it was the focus given to vocational and technical training which underscored the Robarts Era of curriculum policy types. "The New Programme for Secondary Schools in Ontario", or the "Robarts Plan", was a combined regulative, redistributive and constituent policy reflecting a myriad of external and internal demands and supports in an incremental five-year pattern. Based on industrial and economic references, this curriculum policy became an event and a process which was continued by Robarts' successor, William Davis.

The first three years of the Davis Era were characterized by a cautious but steady momentum of incrementalism as curriculum policy moved towards specialization and decentralization. Even the Department's revised organizational charts demonstrated this development. New personnel worked enthusiastically to meet the diverse curriculum needs of 1.7 million students from a curriculum continuum which was beginning to be seen as a flow from Junior Kindergarten to post-secondary education including adult re-training and post-doctoral research.

The early years of the Davis Era were marked by a wide range of curriculum issues indicating the shift in focus begun in the curriculum policies of Robarts. Robarts and Davis had a view of the learner which was different from the earlier policy-makers wherein the learner was fitted to the curriculum rather than a more amenable fitting of learner to the cur-

riculum. The mega policy of equal accessibility to schooling for all students was becoming a constituent and redistributive curriculum policy for the Davis Administration. This became more and more evident through an unlimited array of constituent and redistributive curriculum policies, ranging from free textbooks for all public elementary and secondary school students to the Grade 10 level to French-language schooling. Although the bargaining and networking for several curriculum policy issues began during the Robarts Era but attributed to Davis, the presence of his predecessor as the Premier and chief policy-maker seems to suggest a substantial political leverage for curriculum policies during this time. Thus, while the evolution was incremental, it was constant. By 1965, curriculum policy-making of all types became a major function of the political system. As the policy-makers energetically responded to the multiplicity of diverse demands and supports being made of them, a varied pace was functioning which prior to then had not been experienced.

Therefore, while the previous paragraphs summarize what were to be the curriculum policies for the public elementary and secondary schools in Ontario from 1945 to 1965, it is also noteworthy to recognize the incremental nature of curriculum policy development and implementation. All five curriculum policy types are evident in each of the five established eras. However, it would seem erroneous to suggest that curriculum non-policy existed in the Drew Era for the same reasons as the Davis Era. For example, the former was awaiting the recommendations of a Royal Commission as the fulfillment to political election promises; the latter was contending with an unprecedented fast pace of macro educational change and decision-making with the implementation of the "Robarts Plan" and a province-

wide shifting of curriculum content decisions from a central to a decentralized format for development and implementation.

Therefore, over the twenty-year period, one can observe an incremental shifting of curriculum development and implementative policies which are redistributive, distributive and constituent policies. A regulative core of curriculum subjects remains constant in all five periods but the number of people involved in their development, delivery, and assessment increases. The Porter and Early Davis Eras are noteworthy for their use of constituent curriculum policies while the Porter and Robarts Eras both established "Plans" which affected not just curriculum but many facets of educational policies and politics. Also, the efforts to decentralize curriculum policy development and activities begun by Porter "rested" for ten years and were rejuvenated with Robarts' visionary work and the enthusiasm of the Davis Era. Such reflections about cyclical developments which Figure 10 (p. 103) and Figure 11 (pp. 137-138) generate may serve further research.

C. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

This study of curriculum policies for Ontario's public elementary and secondary schools from 1945 to 1965 is descriptive and interpretative. It presents not only a theoretical approach from which one can view types of curriculum policy, but it also serves as a reference from which one can consider the strong link between education and politics in general and between politics and curriculum in particular.

The thesis is an inter-disciplinary study which has been supported by public administration theory and applied to an educational milieu within a political organization. As such, it offers several general and specific contributions.

- (a) It serves to add to the body of theoretical knowledge within educational studies.
- (b) It chronicles a selected period of Ontario educational history from a perspective of the Education Minister rather than the omniscient point of view. Since there are limited remaining copies of the Appendix items, a particular contribution is the assembling and presentation of historical curriculum items such as the 1937 Programme and the text of Dana Porter's 1949 speech.
- (c) It offers an interpretative approach for the analysis and understanding of policy types and, specifically, types of curriculum policy.
- (d) It identifies some of the major curriculum policy-making actors, actions, and processes for a selected twenty-year period in Ontario educational history. Such an extensive data base may be helpful for further investigations and replication.

From a more exacting perspective, the study makes the following specific offerings for the selected research period:

- (a) It identifies external forces which may affect the curriculum policy, such as population growth, urbanization, and technological development.
- (b) It indicates internal influences such as tradition, leadership, and corporate organizations on types of curriculum policy.
- (c) It identifies selected curriculum policies for a twenty-year period.
- (d) It recognizes who may have determined curriculum policies and who participated in the curriculum policy-making; for example, pol-

political leaders and community and university lobby groups and organizations.

- (e) It identifies the types of curriculum policy which resulted from the conversion processes within the Ontario political system from 1945 to 1965.
- (f) It suggests the inter-relationships among the many components of the political system, such as the Premier's Office and the Treasury, which convert the environmental supports and demands into curriculum non-policy or policy.
- (g) It suggests the inter-relationships between curriculum policies.
- (h) It recognizes the constant activity and importance of contextuality to curriculum policy and policy types.

D. IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The five-stage sequence of this study represents a multi-faceted step towards understanding and conceptualizing curriculum policy. It is not a means for forecasting or predicting general or specific curriculum policy. On the other hand, the study does stress the need for further research. The following general and specific items are recommended for future research consideration:

- (a) To examine the impact of policy-making on the adoption and implementation of a specific curriculum policy and policy types.
- (b) To review the theoretical bases of other disciplines, such as Political Science, for the purposes of refining and extending the empirical data and theoretical perspective of curriculum policy.
- (c) To examine the impact of curriculum policy implementation on further curriculum policy-making.

- (d) To identify the curriculum policy-making factors which may influence curriculum policy implementation.
- (e) To explore the means of evaluating curriculum policy and curriculum policy types in view of goal achievements, appropriateness, and application.
- (f) To investigate the possible presence of supporting agents or actors on the curriculum policy-making process.

Such general proposals might be developed into research questions.

The following suggestions arise from the historical domain of this study:

- (a) Apply the theoretical approach to the remaining years of the Davis Era.
- (b) Apply the theoretical approach to earlier and later administrations within the Ontario educational system.
- (c) Extend the chronicling of curriculum events in Ontario educational history prior to 1945 and after 1965.
- (d) Re-examine the impact of the Royal Commission on Education, 1945-1950, on Ontario educational development with particular regard to curriculum policy.
- (e) Extend the knowledge about the influence of many agencies and individuals who may have impacted on curriculum policy development.
- (f) Examine the influence or impact of such particular policy-makers in the Ontario educational system as school inspectors, superintendents, deputy ministers, and other senior policy-making positions such as chief director on curriculum policy and policy types.

E. CONCLUSIONS

The theoretical approach employed in this study is an innovative means for describing, analyzing, and interpreting who and what is involved as well as how and why curriculum policies exist. This makes the study significant because of its contribution to educational theory and practice.

The methodology provides a means for assembling data for analysis and interpretation. Its adaptability allows for investigations designed to bring together a mixture of potentially critical and influencing factors.

The theoretical approach also offers a means for further research. It is significant mainly because it gives a unified focus for explaining the intricacies of curriculum policy types within and beyond a given timeframe as well as within differing organizations and administrations. Likewise, this approach attests to the existence and practice of curriculum policy as a distinct organizational and political activity. This awareness may serve to sensitize the public, politician, policy-maker, and educator to the complex processes which characterize curriculum policy-making activities.

These observations reflect the newness of this form of curriculum research. The current awareness and comprehension of curriculum policy are very limited and beg for more theoretical and empirical investigations. Such research will advance the understanding of curriculum policies and facilitate future educational and curriculum policy-making.

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PART II: EDUCATION:
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MINISTERS OF EDUCATION, DEPUTY MINISTERS OF
EDUCATION, AND CHIEF DIRECTORS OF EDUCATION,
ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION 1945 TO 1965

APPENDIX I:A

MINISTERS OF EDUCATION

1943-48: Hon. George A. Drew
1948-51: Hon. Dana Porter
1951-59: Hon. W.J. Dunlop
1959-62: Hon. John P. Robarts
1962-72: Hon. William Davis

DEPUTY MINISTERS OF EDUCATION

1945-46: Major J.P. Cowles
1946-51: Dr. F.S. Rutherford
1951-56: Dr. C.F. Cannon
 Dr. C.W. Booth
 Dr. H.E. Elborn
 W.R. Stewart
1965-66: Dr. Z.S. Phimister

CHIEF DIRECTORS OF EDUCATION

(The 1965 reorganization
of the Department of Education
eliminated this position)

1943-56: Dr. J.G. Althouse
1956-61: Dr. C.F. Cannon
1961-65: Dr. F.S. Rivers

Source: Reports of the Minister of Education, 1943 to 1966

x1

PREFACE

The following question was referred to us by the Board of Education:—"To consider and report on the training and teaching of children attending nursery schools and infants' departments of public elementary schools, and the further development of such educational provision for children up to the age of 7 +".

We began our consideration of this problem in February, 1931, immediately after we had completed our Report on *The Primary School*. The Full Committee has sat on 32 days between February, 1931, and July, 1933, and has examined 89 witnesses (see Appendix I.A).

In March, 1932, the Committee appointed a Drafting Sub-Committee, consisting of four of its members, with Mr. W. A. Brockington as Chairman and Mr. R. F. Young as Secretary, with power, subject to the approval of the President of the Board of Education, to co-opt members from outside (1). In this way it was fortunate enough to secure the services of Professor R. H. Lawney, who placed at its disposal his wide knowledge and sound judgment, and who has rendered valuable help in the preparation of the Report. The Drafting Sub-Committee met on 26 occasions between March, 1932 and July, 1933.

We take this opportunity of thanking our witnesses for the valuable evidence which they put before us, and also all those other organisations and persons (whose names will be found in Appendix I) who were kind enough to furnish us with memoranda, specimens of work and apparatus, statistics, illustrations, and other data bearing on our inquiry. We desire to thank Professor H. A. Harris and Professor Cyril Burt, and Dr. Susan Isaacs, who, in addition to giving oral evidence, furnished us with valuable memoranda on the physical and mental development of children up to the age of seven, which are to a great extent summarised in Chapters II and III, and part of which are printed as Appendices II and III, respectively, to this Report.

(1) Under Clause 5 (iii) of the Order in Council of 22nd July, 1920, reconstituting the Consultative Committee

CHAPTER VII.—PREMISES AND EQUIPMENT OF
INFANT AND NURSERY SCHOOLS

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CHAPTER IX.—SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL CON-
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and teaching, whether they have a philosophical or a scientific basis, should be re-valued in the light of such specialised knowledge. For the teacher, especially, this scientific ground-work will confirm conclusions which she has deduced from daily association with her pupils, and will serve to correct some misconceptions she may have formed of the ways of childhood.

Against this background of scientific knowledge we have drawn, in Chapters IV and V, a picture of the internal economy of the infant school (including the nursery school and class); and in Chapter VI, we have dealt with the training and teaching in such schools. This latter chapter is necessarily different in framework and content from the corresponding chapters in our previous reports. The child has not yet reached that stage in which intellectual discipline has to be maintained by making the various branches of knowledge the subject of special study. In the infant school, there are activities, interests, experiences, and experiments, but no "subjects". Nor must it be forgotten that these interests and activities can develop only in so far as the physical well-being of the child is carefully safeguarded against the dangers by which too often it is threatened. Mind and body are not two separate entities; they are different aspects of a single personality, and the condition of cultivating the former is to pay a jealous regard to the needs of the latter.

Any realistic view of education must consider the infant school not as a place of instruction, but as an instructive environment in which the child, under the sympathetic care of his teacher, may cultivate his own garden. Of the infant stage more than of any later stage of education it is thus particularly true that "the curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored". The seemingly unordered ways of childhood, "mere wondering and staring at things", are in fact at an early period associated with efforts at rationalising, and these bring about gradually an order and a system; but in the beginning, the training will be through the senses based on children's play.

" 'Tis a delight to look on him in tireless play
attentively occupied with a world of wonders,
so rich in toys and playthings that naked Nature
wer enough without the marvellous inventory of man."

This has been recognised always by those who have closely observed the ways of the child. If the beginnings of knowledge

are on "the voluntary footing of sport", the interests and occupations of adult life may be imitated without any sense of labour—"his game is our earnest, and his drummes, rattles and hobby-horses, but the emblems, and mocking of mans businesse".

There is, however, always the danger that the liberal ideas underlying this conception of the infant school may be followed in the letter rather than in the spirit. The methods of Froebel, for example, were at first adopted in our infant schools in a mechanical and rigid form associated with "gifts" and set exercises based on them. Later, the humanism of Froebel was better understood, and the spirit of his teaching found freer scope. The following-out of the letter of the doctrine rather than its spirit results merely in adding new "subjects" to the time-table: the intellectual character of the "gifts" of Froebel is disregarded, and the children's "occupations" take their place beside the 3 Rs "as mere toys or amusing pastimes". It is only when the child is fully recognised as an individual and not as a member of a class, that there can be a perfect understanding of Froebelian principles. The adoption of individual and group methods in place of mass instruction has made possible the development of these principles, as well as the development of that special type or modification of the Froebelian practice which has grown up in Italy and elsewhere under the influence and practical example of Mme. Montessori. The differences between these two educational influences, and the contributions of each of them to existing systems of child-training, are discussed in our report. To Mme. Montessori we are under a special obligation for her personal attendance at one of our sessions, when she explained her method of child-training, and demonstrated, with the aid of her assistants, the use of her educational apparatus. We have touched also upon the researches of the eminent American scholars, Prof. Dewey and Dr. Gesell, to the latter of whom we are much indebted for his personal evidence. In the sections on nursery schools, we have made particular reference to the teaching and practical achievement of that great exemplar of nursery education in England, Margaret McMillan.

We have felt that we could not overstate the importance of that phase of school activity, both in the nursery stage and later, which involves co-operation with the doctor and the school nurse. One particular aspect of it is the opportunity for detecting early signs of retardation in children. As regards

remedial measures, it has apparently been found undesirable to segregate the pupils at this stage in special classes, unless it be to secure for retarded children open-air conditions which are not available for all the children. We trust that such special precautions may shortly cease to be necessary.

To these and many other aspects of infant training from the earliest years we have made allusion in Chapter VI, which is the core of our report. To this chapter we refer the reader for information as to "project" methods, speech-training ("His hardest labour is his tongue, as if he were loath to use so decentfull an organ"), the uses of educational apparatus, the place in the training of the child which is occupied by rhythm and movement, by constructive work and free drawing, by the reading of stories, by the love of acting, and finally and in due season, by the 3 Rs. The season of the 3 Rs is not the same for all children. Formal education, generally speaking, has been begun at too early an age in England, earlier than is usual in continental countries and in America; and we endorse the view that this early formal education "has received so large a share of the school time that other activities of equal importance to the young child have been starved". The child should enter upon the 3 Rs merely as if he were entering a fresh field of activity, allied to his customary pursuits. Reading is but another way of looking at pictures, writing but a variety of drawing, and elementary operations in number are associated with most of his childish occupations.

In the course of our report, we have made many reservations as to the efficiency of existing schools for infants. We desire to record our general opinion that such deficiencies as exist arise in very large measure from the physical conditions of the schools, such as the character of the buildings and their precincts, and the size of the classes: these conditions not only limit the opportunities of the teachers, but react unfavourably upon the methods they employ. We obtained memoranda from nearly 400 mistresses of infant and primary schools and departments, as well as of infant divisions and classes, in the areas of different education authorities, both urban and rural, throughout England and Wales. The impression which we have formed is that infant teachers generally are receptive of new ideas and methods, and that great improvements have been made, and are being made, in the training and teaching of children both below and above the age of five. A considerable number of "baby" classes

are now working, so far as conditions will allow, on the model of the nursery class. The results of the experience which has been gained in the more favourable environment of newly-provided nursery schools and classes, have, in fact, been applied in all kinds of infant schools, where it has been found possible to do so.

In Chapter VIII, the brief historical survey of the development of school architecture shows how much more closely suited to the requirements of young children are the schools of open-air design erected during the present century and especially since the War, than were schools of the older kind; but it shows also that the planning of the ordinary infant school is not yet in complete harmony with modern opinions of its function and activities. In the elementary requirement of floor space, for example, a more generous, and not a less generous, allowance for infants than for older children is an obvious necessity. We consider that the best architectural scheme for the nursery school is one which provides a series of open shelters, set in a garden-playground. In schools for infants generally (especially where there are nursery classes) there should be as close an approximation to this open-air design as circumstances will allow. We are painfully aware of the shortcomings of most of the existing school buildings, judged by such standards; but we do not consider that the simple requirements which we have enumerated are an impracticable ideal, and we commend them to the attention of education authorities as practical aims which should be ensued both in the adaptation of old buildings and in the construction of new schools.

In dealing with the staffing of infant schools, we have reaffirmed our opinion that teachers should be certificated. At the same time, we have faced frankly the special difficulties which are presented by infant divisions and infant classes in small schools, and we refer the reader to Chapter VII for the discussion of them. In areas having a large number of small schools, in which the infant class may not always be in charge of a certificated teacher, we think that the services of an advisory visiting teacher may be found not less necessary than for some other branches of specialised teaching; but we realise the danger of such appointments, unless particular care is taken to prevent the stereotyping of educational methods throughout the area. The special requirements of nursery schools and classes have led to the introduction into the schools of an element which is in the strictly technical

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
PROGRAMME OF STUDIES I-VI,
1937, 1938, 1940, 1941 (EXCERPTS)

APPENDIX I:C

PREFACE

This curriculum has been drawn by a committee of teachers. They began their work early in December, 1936, examining curricula recently issued in other provinces of Canada and elsewhere, reading reports of investigations and experiments in the field of elementary education, and consulting teachers and inspectors in every part of the province.

The curriculum, as issued for use in the schools in 1937-38, may require modification. Its defects will become apparent as it is put to the test of use in the classroom. Teachers and inspectors are earnestly requested by the Minister of Education to point out such defects and to offer any suggestions tending to the improvement of the curriculum as a whole or in any of its parts. All such suggestions will be carefully considered when the Programme is being re-issued for 1938-39.

The committee wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to all those whose published work they have used and in particular to the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education, Great Britain, whose reports, commonly known as the Hadow Reports,¹ have proved invaluable. To these reports they are indebted for the spirit and in some instances for the language of the introductory paragraphs appearing throughout this curriculum. The committee are grateful, too, to all the teachers and inspectors, upwards of three thousand in number, who have given valuable assistance in the selection and grade placement of curricular material. They wish finally to acknowledge their obligation to the publishing houses in Toronto and Montreal who have opened their stores to the committee and placed at their disposal large numbers of recent books dealing with every phase of elementary education, and to the R.C.A.-Victor Company, Toronto, who co-operated with the committee in selecting the phonograph records listed in the curriculum.

¹The Education of the Adolescent, 1927.

The Primary School, 1931.

Nursery and Infant Schools, 1931

This Programme of Studies applies only to Grades I to VI. The regulations regarding the Kindergarten and Form IV (Grades VII and VIII) remain unchanged. These regulations are given in "Courses of Study for the Public and Separate Schools, 1936."

For purposes of immediate classification the following table may be useful:

Junior First or Kindergarten Primary	Grade I
Senior First.....	Grade II
Junior Second.....	Grade III
Senior Second.....	Grade IV
Junior Third.....	Grade V
Senior Third.....	Grade VI

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INTRODUCTION

Any education worthy of the name must be planned in accordance with the best available evidence¹ on the nature of a child's development. Such evidence leads to the conviction that a child develops by virtue of his own activity. This activity comprises knowing and doing, which are to be regarded as synonymous terms, each of which implies purposeful effort. That the child's activity may result in development suited to his environment, it must be directed according to a plan. This plan, if it is to be accepted by the child as his own, must be determined by the nature of the child.

The function of the elementary school, therefore, is to provide for its pupils a stimulating environment in which their natural tendencies will be directed into useful abilities and desirable attitudes.

Children of elementary school age are active and inquisitive, delighting in movement, in small tasks which they can perform with deftness and skill, and in the sense of visible and tangible accomplishment which such tasks offer. They are intensely interested in the character and purpose of the material objects around them. They are at once absorbed in creating their own miniature world of imagination and emotion, and keen observers who take pleasure in reproducing their observations by speech and dramatic action; and still engaged in mastering a difficult and unfamiliar language, without knowing they are doing so, because it is a means of communicating with others.

In all these activities they demand and enjoy a definite sense of progressive achievement. Their activities are not aimless, but constitute the process by which children grow. They are in a very real sense their education; upon them the school must build its programme, offering the children fuller and more varied but more orderly opportunities for activity than they have hitherto enjoyed. In short, the school must follow the

¹For an admirable summary of such evidence see Hadow et al. *The Primary School*, pp. 22-57.

method of nature, stimulating the child, through his own interests, into activities and guiding him into experiences useful for the satisfaction and development of his needs.

It is important here to emphasize the fact that the experiences provided by the elementary school are designed to meet the needs of the child, not those of the adolescent or the adult. In the words of the Hadow report, "No good can come from teaching children things which have no immediate value for them however highly their potential or prospective value may be estimated."¹

The child's own immediate needs and capacities, then, must determine the character of the experiences provided by the elementary school. The child needs to live, to live with his fellows, and to live as they approve. To meet these three fundamental needs by activities based on the child's capacities and motivated by his interests is the special task of the elementary school.

In the light of these considerations it is apparent that "the curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored"² against some supposed future need. Its aim should be to develop in the child his physical powers and to train him in their proper use and control, to awaken him to the fundamental interests of civilized life so far as they lie within the compass of childhood, and to encourage him to attain to the orderly management of his energies, impulses, and emotions which is the basis of desirable attitudes.

This principle applied to the practical problem of framing a curriculum for childhood means, first of all, that a large place in the activities of the elementary school must be given to providing for the physical well-being and efficiency of the child. This is not merely a matter of the provision of suitable physical or remedial exercises. It involves care on the part of the school authorities that the child shall live, during the school day at least, in a healthful environment, and that all the exercises of the day shall be such as to make for natural physical development.

Attention to the physical welfare of the child is, then, the

¹*The Primary School*, p. 92.

²*The Primary School*, p. 93.

foundation of the school's activities because the child is, in the first place, a growing organism. But he is not only an organism with biological needs; he is also a member of the human family. His environment is a civilization created by man. If the child is to be at home in that civilization, as one free of the house, he must learn to take his place as an active, co-operative and intelligent member of his society. The curriculum, therefore, must provide for the child those intellectual activities and experiences which are necessary for his intelligent participation in the life of the home, the school, and the community. Language, including number, as the medium of thought and the instrument of human intercourse, reading by which he comes into contact with other minds and learns that life has a past and future as well as a present, some knowledge of the simpler facts of the material world as the home of man, the appreciation of beauty in the world about him and the creation of beauty in singing, dancing, drawing and constructive work—these things are of the essence of civilized life and are to be regarded, therefore, as fixing the general character and direction of the school curriculum. What is important is not that an adult standard of attainment should be reached in any one of them, but that interest should be quickened, habits of thoroughness and honesty in work established, and the foundations on which knowledge may later be built securely laid. The production of juvenile authors, mathematicians, and scientists is neither to be anticipated nor to be desired.³ It is reasonable, however, to expect that in the elementary school a child should learn, within the limits of his experience, to use the noble instrument of his native language with clearness and dignity, that he should acquire simple kinds of manual skill and take pleasure in using them; that he should admire what is admirable in form and design; that he should read some good books with zest and enjoyment; that he should acquire bodily poise and balance, a habit of natural and expressive motion, not merely as physical accomplishments, but as the outward sign and symbol of our common culture and civilization; and that he should learn that the behaviour of the physical universe is not arbitrary or capricious, but governed by principles some at least of which it is possible for him to grasp.

The school, then, by its activities, should stimulate the child towards the harmonious development of his physical and intellec-

tual powers. But the school should also join with the home and the church in the effort to guide the child in the formation of desirable attitudes. The curriculum, therefore, while it does not prescribe a course in morals nor include religion as a separate subject, should be pervaded by the spirit of religion. In all the activities of the school the child should be led to love mercy, to do justly, and to walk humbly. How these attitudes may best be developed must be left to the judgment of the individual teacher, whose unconscious influence is, perhaps, his strongest ally. One or two suggestions, however, may be useful. The reverent singing of simple hymns should give the child an opportunity of joining with his fellows in an act of common worship. The parables of Jesus and the great human stories of the Old Testament should be made the familiar possession of every child. This should be done largely by oral narration, and the narrative should be imbued with the spirit of the original story and animated by the actual words of Scripture. Finally, nothing should be done to lead children to the impression that religion is something apart from and superimposed upon the life of the school. The teaching of religion can have no greater assistance than through the constant practice of the Christian virtues in the daily life of the school.

In the foregoing paragraphs an attempt has been made to rest the curriculum upon sound general principles as enunciated in the Hadow Reports. It remains to add some suggestions as to how it may be administered in accordance with these principles.

1. The curriculum is arranged in six successive grades or levels of attainment. It must not be assumed that the work of each grade shall necessarily require a full school year. The grading has been done, on the best advice of practical teachers, to fit the yearly progress of ordinary children, but teachers everywhere will find "bright" children who can pass through the six grades in five years or even in four. In certain cases this acceleration will be advisable, and the curriculum has been arranged to permit, in individual cases, of easy promotion from one grade to another. In many cases the "bright" children, instead of being accelerated, should be given an enriched programme, and for this, too, ample provision has been made. In large urban schools it might be advisable to arrange three streams of children, one doing the work as outlined year by year, one doing the same work

INTRODUCTION

but more rapidly, and one doing considerably more each year than is required.

2. In some of the courses two or three grades may be combined and the work arranged in successive cycles as suggested in the case of Science. Indeed the only courses that are definitely sequential are Arithmetic and, in Grades I, II, III, Reading and Writing. When children of different grades join in a common activity it is only necessary to arrange that the more difficult phases of the work should be undertaken by the more advanced pupils, and to remember that the same sort of results should not be expected of all. It is hoped that the cycle arrangement will be tried as a method of simplifying the programme of the ungraded school, and may even find acceptance in graded schools, particularly where two or three grades are taught by one teacher.

3. In many of the courses as outlined the teacher is asked to select topics that will prove interesting and useful to the children of his class. It is obvious that the same topics will not be appropriate to a mining area in Northern Ontario, to an agricultural district in the Western Peninsula, and to an industrial city like Toronto or Hamilton. And within any specific area the choice of content will be conditioned by the teacher's own interests and training, by the available sources of information, and by the interests, needs, and capacities of the children. For this and other reasons it is strongly urged that each teacher choose for himself the topics around which to centre the experiences and activities of his children. This freedom of choice on the part of the individual teacher will make uniform standards of attainment in any given grade impossible. This is as it should be. The elementary school has no business with uniform standards of attainment. Its business is to see that children grow in body and mind at their natural rate, neither faster nor slower, and if it performs its business properly there will be as much variety of attainment as there is of intellectual ability. The only uniformity at which the elementary school should aim is that every child at the end of the course should have acquired the power to attack new work and feel a zest in doing so.

4. The absence of uniformity in the rate at which the children progress, in the extent of the field they explore, and in the nature

of the topics selected for exploration, will reduce the value of external examinations. This, too, is as it should be. If the curriculum is properly drawn it should so fit the capacities and interests of children that they will find in the experiences and activities of the classroom a good and sufficient motive for learning, without the unwholesome pressure of a "promotion" examination. The teacher will test his children at frequent intervals to determine whether they are acquiring the necessary skills, and on the evidence of such tests modify, if necessary, his teaching or plan remedial training for certain individual children. But anything in the nature of a final examination to measure the physical, intellectual, and spiritual growth of children is not only unnecessary but is prejudicial to such growth.

5. The abandonment of external examinations as the sole basis of "promotion" will make it unnecessary to devote the month of June to tedious drill on factual material. In June as in September the children should be enjoying new experiences and engaging in new activities instead of merely reviewing old "facts" for the sole purpose of reproducing them on an examination. Information that is interesting and useful is retained in virtue of its interest and use, not in virtue of its having been "crammed" for an examination—a fact of which we are all witnesses. What is necessary, then, if we wish children to retain certain "facts" is not to require that they be memorized for an examination, but to clothe those facts with interest and provide opportunities for their use—this, we think, teachers can and will do if given the necessary freedom.

6. The flexibility of the curriculum herein presented and the necessary abandonment of uniform examinations in the elementary grades will oblige teachers to give serious consideration to the problem of appraising the results of their efforts to develop in their pupils "useful abilities and desirable attitudes." The problem is, of course, an individual one and the teacher's appraisal must in many particulars be based on facts specific to his situation. There are, however, certain general factors that may enter into any such appraisal. First of all, the teacher should be sure that his pupils are living in clean, cheerful surroundings, are cultivating desirable health habits as evidenced in their clean, alert, happy appearance, and are developing proper attitudes towards health as shown by their interest in all the activities :

relating to personal and community health. Secondly, the teacher should satisfy himself that his pupils are acquiring the necessary skills. Do they read ordinary prose and poetry at sight with ease and comprehension? Can they read orally, recite verse and speak their lines in a play so that their auditors grasp the author's ideas and emotions? Do they express their own thoughts easily and accurately in speaking and in writing? Is their handwriting neat and legible and done with fair speed? Have they reasonable facility in the use of numbers for ordinary purposes? Do they sing with good tone and evident enjoyment? Are they gaining in power to express their ideas in some form of art? Can they amuse themselves in playing various outdoor and indoor games? Finally, the teacher should be concerned with the attitudes his pupils are developing in their work and play. Are they genuinely interested in the reading they are doing, and in the activities connected with the social studies and natural science? Are they thus acquiring interest in an ever widening world and in the fuller understanding of it? Does this interest manifest itself in independent reading, in voluntary language exercises, in various forms of art and handwork, and in worthwhile enterprises? In such enterprises are they learning co-operation, courtesy, thoroughness, singleness of purpose, self-control and "the joy of the working?"

7. The following paragraphs from Circular 82, issued under authority of the Minister of Education in April, 1937, apply with new force and significance to schools using the curriculum herein presented.

"The Minister urges the Inspectors to discourage, even more than they have done in the past, unreasonable requirements in the matter of homework for pupils in the elementary school. These children are at a period when vital energies are largely consumed in physical development, and consequently they must have time for rest and recreation. The school has no excuse for infringing upon the right of the children to sufficient time for sleep and play, and the right of the home to direct their activities outside of school hours. There can be no doubt that both of these rights are seriously encroached upon by the prescription of homework, ill-chosen in character and excessive in quantity. For pupils in Grades I to VI there is ample time during the school day to cover the course satisfactorily without burdening them with additional school work to be done at home."

"Supervised work in the classroom may well be substituted for many of the exercises that pupils are at present required to do at home. In order that the pupils may have adequate opportunity for seat-work, including independent study, the revised Regulations require that the teacher's time-table shall be so arranged that each child may have at least one and a half hours each day for this purpose. One of the charges frequently brought against the elementary school is that the pupil is not trained to study independently or to work out things for himself. The ungraded rural school, and the school with at least two grades in a classroom should not be open to this charge, for in such schools, because of the nature of the organization, opportunity must be given to classes to study by themselves. If such study periods are properly directed, there should be no question of the pupil's developing habits of independent study. It is in the case of graded schools in which there is only one class in a room that difficulty in this connection is likely to occur. Here the teacher often considers it his duty to teach his class continuously throughout the school day. Such a practice gives little opportunity to develop initiative, independence, or self-reliance. This deficiency may be removed either by organizing the school in such a way that each classroom will have two different grades—a plan that is favoured by many Inspectors—or by dividing the class into two sections for certain of the school subjects. While one section is being taught, the other section may be engaged in seat exercises or study. There can be no doubt that the judicious alternation of teaching lessons and study lessons will result not only in more rapid progress in learning but also in the development of proper habits of study."

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HEALTH

INTRODUCTION

Under the heading of Health are to be included those experiences incident to school life which favourably influence habits, knowledge, and attitudes relating to individual and community health.

The importance of these experiences will be challenged by no one who realizes that physical and mental health is the basis upon which all education must necessarily be founded. To live well is desirable but it is necessary first to live, and in order to live fully one must know and practise health habits.

Among the school experiences relating to health are to be included health service, health education, and physical training. Health service includes the maintenance of healthful surroundings, the provision, where feasible, of regular health examinations, the morning inspection of the children, the control of communicable diseases, and provision for rendering first aid in cases of emergency. Health education includes the development of proper health habits, backed at suitable age levels by knowledge of the scientific principles involved. Out of such instruction should emerge desirable attitudes towards personal and community health. Physical training includes free play, games, drills, and dances in the classroom and out of doors, together with exercises designed to develop and maintain physical efficiency.

Health should be regarded not simply as a "subject" of the curriculum but as a programme pervading the whole life of the school, not as the mere routine practice of health habits but as an ideal, the inculcation of which is no less important for national life than is that of the ideals of truth, goodness, and beauty.

The health programme should be arranged largely on the basis of the immediate needs of the children, with special consideration of any individuals who are "deviates" physically or mentally.

Technical Instruction:

Related to an activity in progress.

Given only in response to a felt need:

Preparation of materials.

Mixing of colours.

Methods of using various media.

Use of washes.

Use of a fixative.

Mounting of finished work.

Methods of indicating distance—

Converging lines.

Relative size.

Amount of detail.

Variation in colour intensity.

Experiences leading to an understanding of

Balance, Proportion, Colour Harmony.

BOOKS FOR THE CHILDREN

"Art Stories," Books I, II, III (Manual for Teachers). Gage. I—72,
II—81, III—92.

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ENTERPRISES

Enterprises are individual or group activities undertaken by the children for a purpose that appeals to them. Children engaged on an enterprise do not know what "subject" they are studying nor in what "period" according to a "time-table." The enterprise occupies part of their time for an afternoon, for a week, or for a month, and involves all types of school experience and activity. For instance, preparation for the performance of a play may involve the writing and practice of the dialogue, the planning and making of costumes, the construction of scenery, the calculation of the cost of materials, the writing of invitations, the learning of songs and dances, the decoration of the classroom. "There is no doubt that at such times what the children learn has a significance and a vitality not often reached in routine 'lessons'." In the planning and carrying out of an enterprise the children may learn in a short time more than they would otherwise learn in the course of a school year."¹

While an enterprise is of necessity teacher-inspired it should be regarded by the children as *their* enterprise, and should be planned and executed by them with a minimum of guidance from the teacher. So long as children are trained to do in school only what they are told, growth in initiative must be the result of extra-curricular activities; and so long as children are trained to depend on adult guidance in their work they will not develop the power of grappling with difficulties and overcoming obstacles. If, however, the energies and capacities of the children are released in the service of an enterprise which *they* consider worthwhile, it is astonishing what children can and do accomplish, and satisfying to reflect upon what they have acquired through their enterprise in knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

It is not intended that the use of enterprises should wholly replace the more familiar method of organizing children's school

¹The Primary School, p. 102

experiences. It would be extremely difficult by means of enterprises alone to secure for children the necessary amount of training in Arithmetic, Reading, and Writing, and still more difficult to secure a proper sequence. Certain other forms of activity such as Music or Art, while likely to be involved in most enterprises, should frequently be engaged in for their own sake. Children should learn to sing a song simply because the song is delightful, or draw a scene because drawing is such good fun. Then, too, it must be remembered, a change in teaching method should be adopted gradually. It might be wise to begin the use of enterprises, as many teachers have already done, by permitting the children to prepare an historical pageant, a patriotic programme, or an exhibit of some kind once in a term. But it is suggested, subject to the foregoing qualifications, that the work of the elementary grades should be increasingly informed by the principles of the enterprise method.

By permission of the Minister of Education for Alberta, the following outline of an enterprise is reproduced from the Alberta Programme of Studies. It is intended merely to indicate how an enterprise is planned, worked out, and brought to a successful conclusion.

A TYPICAL ENTERPRISE

Forest and Stream: A Movie Film and Illustrated Lecture

Theme:

Trees are very valuable in supplying many of men's needs. They beautify man's surroundings, and provide shelter, food, clothing, tools, recreation, education, luxuries.

Motivation:

A nature walk; leafing out of trees in the spring; forest fires in the fall; picture of a lumber-jack or lumber camp; talks about trees and their value; the commercial products of trees.

Prospects:

Discussions of the following:

- (a) Reference material for further information; books, bulletins, reports, pictures.

- (b) How pictures, clippings and specimens can be preserved for use.
- (c) Things we should like to know about trees and their use; how this material could be arranged under topics for study.
- (d) How we can display the results of our study (the culmination).
- (e) The making of the movie machine.
- (f) The making of the film; size of the picture; material and media.
- (g) Other illustrative material which might be used for the lecture and for room decoration: a frieze showing lumbering operations; specimens mounted; charts, graphs, maps, posters, models; sand-table set-up.

Preparation: Five Problems.

- I. A study of trees.—Their aesthetic value; growth and use in our immediate vicinity.
To make a collection of specimens, leaves, bark, seeds, cones, wood, pictures of types of trees.
- II. The forest regions of Canada.—The value of Canadian trees in supplying man's needs.
To make a frieze showing lumbering activities.
- III. The pulp and paper industry of Canada is one of Canada's major industries.
To make a movie film showing the development of written records from early days to a modern paper mill.
- IV. The conservation of forests.—What Canada is doing to preserve her natural wealth.
To make a set of posters. What we can do to help preserve trees and forests.
- V. The needs of man supplied by trees of other lands.
To make a large chart of mounted products obtained from trees outside the immediate vicinity.

Culmination: The Illustrated Lecture.

- (a) Assembling the material.
- (b) Decorating the room.
- (c) Inviting the guests.
- (d) Entertaining the guests.
- (e) Clearing away; and writing notes of thanks.

PROBLEM I

The study of trees; to make a collection of specimens—leaves, bark, seeds, cones, wood. Pictures of types of trees in immediate vicinity.

- (a) Recognize different trees by their leaves, bark, shape, seed.
- (b) The value of root, trunk, leaf, sap, seed, in preserving the life of a tree; the structure of the leaf; transpiration; respiration; manufacturing in the leaf.
- (c) Growth of trees year by year; how to tell ages of trees; stories found in the trunks of old trees.
- (d) The value of trees:
 - (1) In the city—shade, ornament and beauty, home for birds. Care of trees in parks, boulevards, streets. How to plant a tree.
 - (2) On the farm—fuel, windbreak and shelter.
 - (3) In commerce—articles of trade and commerce, material for public utilities.
 - (4) In controlling moisture. Forests help to keep the rivers supplied with water.

Things to do:

1. Make drawings of trees.
2. Make leaf prints on smoke-covered paper or in plasticine or clay.
3. Use leaves and cones in design.
4. Learn a poem about trees, and write original verses.
5. Plant a tree in the school-yard or at home and care for it.
6. Make a booklet containing pictures of different types of trees.
7. Make collections: mount and name leaves, bark, seed, cones, wood.

PROBLEM II

The forest regions of Canada. The value of forests in supplying man's needs.

To make a frieze showing lumbering activities.

- A. Location of Canada's forest regions. The Pacific forest, the Atlantic forest, the great northern forest, park lands. Abundant growth dependent upon climatic conditions, soil, and freedom from violent wind-storms. Soil.—A comparative study of Canada's five natural divisions.

Climate: temperature and moisture.

Temperature is governed by many factors: e.g., latitude, altitude, winds, ocean currents, etc. Rain-fall depends on direction of prevailing winds, presence and direction of mountains, distance from the sea. Condensation of moisture is caused by cooling of the vapour-laden air (e.g., going up the side of a mountain).

- B. Types of trees in each forest; kinds of lumber and use. The trees of the Atlantic forest have been largely cut down to give place to farms. These trees were both a help and a hindrance to the early French settlers. Stump fences are still to be seen.
- (1) Trees provided shelter, tools, material for boats, medicine for the control of scurvy, fuel.
 - (2) Trade developed with West Indies in pitch, tar, barrels, etc. The Norsemen visited America's shores and carried back supplies of wood.
 - (3) Trees provided ambush for the Indians in their attacks.
- C. How the lumbering industry is carried on; selecting the trees; cutting, sawing, hauling. The use of rivers in logging; the lumber camp, the life of a lumber-jack, dress, food, supplies; visitors to the lumber camp—doctor, minister, inspector.
- D. Reckoning lumber in a standing tree as a woodsman does. Reckoning by cords.

Things to do:

1. Make a large outline map of Canada showing the five natural divisions, the forest regions, rivers used for logging operations.

2. Make a rainfall map showing mountain ranges, direction of prevailing winds, path of ocean currents affecting climate.
3. Make models of a lumber camp and of a lumber-jack, sawmill, lumber yard.
4. Make a diary kept by a lumber-jack.
5. Make a picture for the frieze showing scenes in the life of a tree from the forest to the finished product.
6. Write stories of school desks:
 - (a) Of what are they made?
 - (b) Where may the wood have come from?
 - (c) Where were they probably made?
 - (d) What is varnish, and from where did it come?
By what route did it arrive at its present home?
7. Read about the following and tell stories:
 - (a) The Norse voyages to the New World; what was found and carried back.
 - (b) The Early French settlements, the Iroquois attacks; the method of attack and route of approach.
 - (c) Jacques Cartier's winter in Canada; the control of scurvy. Suppose you are one of Jacques Cartier's men. Tell the story of your experiences in the new world when you arrive back home.
 - (d) Early trade with the West Indies.
 - (e) Bees and barn-raising in the days of the early settlers.
 - (f) The U.E. Loyalists; use of potash in pioneer days.

PROBLEM III

The pulp and paper industry of Canada is one of Canada's major industries.

To make a movie film showing the development of written records from early days to a modern paper mill.

- A. The Egyptians wrote their records on stone in what was at first a sign language. The finding of the Rosetti Stone gave the key to the interpretation of this language.

Later an alphabet was developed. The Greeks and Romans used wax tablets and papyrus. Their writings are a great contribution to the civilized world. In mediaeval times, vellum and parchment were used. The books were beautifully illuminated, written by hand, and preserved in the monasteries. They are greatly prized to-day.

When the printing press was introduced, paper began to be used. Rags and wood, chiefly, provide the pulp for paper. Canada is one of the world's greatest producers of paper.

- B. The great northern forest as a producer of wood-pulp; kinds of trees used; steps in the process of making paper; the pulp and paper mill, the barker, grinder, digester, bleacher, screener, heated rollers; the amount of wood needed for an edition of a large newspaper.
- C. The use of water-power in the industry.
 - (a) Direct and indirect power; making electricity; the use of "white coal" or electricity.
 - (b) Canada's great wealth of water-power, and streams which provide it; location of pulp and paper centres throughout Canada.
- D. The value of the great northern forest as a home for fur-bearing animals, and as a means of livelihood for the trapper.
 - (a) Kinds of animals and value of these; how they are trapped; how the furs are transported; where they are shipped; great fur-trading centres.
 - (b) The life of the trapper—his hut, dress, food, manner of travelling. Canada's first trappers—Radisson and Groseilliers; the outcome of their expeditions; the *coureurs de bois*.

Things to do:

1. Find pictures of old records and learn their meaning.
2. Copy some Egyptian writing and translate it.

3. Make an illuminated page of your own. Practice on capitals first.
4. Make a graph comparing Canada's water-power with that of other countries.
5. Model a trapper and a trapper's hut.
6. Make a collection of pictures showing articles made of paper, and mount samples of different kinds of paper.
7. Make a map of Canada showing the great northern forest; sites of pulp and paper mills; streams and falls which provide power; and routes by which paper and pulp is shipped.
8. Make the movie machine.
9. Make the film, and fifteen or more pictures. (Wall paper makes a strong film, and news-print serves for crayon drawings.)
10. Make a small sheet of paper from wood shavings.
11. Discuss any other means of making paper.
12. Visit a newspaper plant.

PROBLEM IV

The conservation of forests. What Canada is doing to preserve her natural wealth. To make a set of posters.

- A. The value to Canada of her timber resources compared with other industries; revenue derived; comparisons with Norway, Sweden, Germany and France.
- B. Ports, routes and export.
- C. Waste in our forests and how prevented; what the government is doing; what we can do; fire patrol and look-out stations; lessons to be learned from other nations on forest preservation (Norway, Germany, etc.).
- D. Canada's national parks—extent, value, wild life, etc.

Things to do:

1. Make graphs showing the value of Canada's export of pulp and paper compared with that of other countries; the value of Canada's pulp and paper industry compared with that of other Canadian industries.

2. Make posters showing what the government is doing to preserve our forests, and how we can help.
3. Read and tell stories about the work of beavers; about great forest fires and fire control.

PROBLEM V

The needs of man supplied by trees of other lands. To make a large chart of mounted products obtained from trees outside the immediate vicinity.

- A. Products from sap: Maple sugar, tar, pitch, resin, rubber, turpentine.
- B. Products from bark and wood: Dyes, tannin, extracts, drugs.
- C. Products from leaves: Drugs, drinks.
- D. Products from seed: Foods, extracts, drinks, spices, palm-oil.

Things to do:

1. Make the chart of mounted products.
2. Read a story about one or more of the following, and tell it or give it in pantomime: Making turpentine; gathering rubber; the uses of spices in mediaeval times—where obtained, routes taken in search of these spices; palm-oil and the soap industry; the quebracho tree of South America—its use for tannin and its substitute, (celanese); vegetable ivory and buttons; the palms and panama hats.

THE CULMINATION

The movie machinery can be made from an ordinary large-sized packing box. The heavy rollers round which the newsprint is wrapped make splendid reels for the film.

The pictures should be trimmed, outlined in brown or black, and mounted on a long strip of heavy paper. (Cheap wall paper is suitable.)

Pictures suggested are the following: Egyptian records on stone; Phoenician records; the Rosetti Stone—sentence inter-

preted; records on wax tablets, Indian sign language, mediaeval illuminated manuscripts, a mediaeval book, the roll or script, the script folded and cut to make pages and leaves; a good stand of timber; the lumber camp, the lumber-jack at work; hauling the logs, a raft of logs, a forest fire, fire outlooks; beavers at work; a paper mill—the barker, grinder, digester, bleacher, screener, heated rollers; the first printing press; a modern printing press.

(These drawings may be very crude and far from accurate, but so long as they have a meaning to the child the purpose of the activity has been achieved.)

One corner of the room may be fitted up as a mediaeval scriptorium, displaying copies of hand-written manuscripts (illuminated) or original poems and stories illustrated.

In another corner on a sand table may be modelled the forest, the camp and its activities, the transportation of the logs, the mill and the lumber yard, or a modern pulp and paper centre. (See Shipley, "Pulp and Paper Making.")

Large maps and charts drawn by the pupils may be mounted together on a strip of picture moulding or piece of broom handle and hung in a convenient place for reference.

Posters, the frieze of lumbering activities, and art problems, may be used as decoration.

Collections, booklets, and models may be displayed on trestle tables.

OUTCOMES

Attitudes and Appreciations: additional interest for leisure time activities; deepened interest in environment; realization of the great value of our trees, and of need for forest conservation; increased respect and friendliness for other nations, through comparing our methods with theirs, a tendency to seek the causes of natural conditions.

Abilities: to co-operate through the understanding of collective needs and operations; to use books of reference; to show initiative and originality, to attack a problem with confidence

Skills: reading and collecting material; oral language in reports, reproduction of stories, recitation of verse, and dramatizations; arithmetic in measuring lumber; art—design, printing, pencil technique, modelling; music—songs about trees.

Knowledge:

Health: outdoor life, foods from trees, food of the camp.

History: written records, historic manuscripts, illumination, preservation of manuscripts, Caxton and the printing press, early French settlements, United Empire Loyalists and their use of trees, early traders in silks and spices

Geography: forest regions of Canada and North America; climate and soil; rivers—use in lumbering industry; natural divisions of Canada and North America.

Science: study of trees; the beaver; water power; making of paper; making of potash in pioneer days; forest-fire prevention.

Literature: poems about trees and rivers; stories of the great forests; the control of falls and rapids

References:

- Forestry Booklet, Department of Forestry, Ottawa.
- Booklets on Our Native Parks and Forest Conservation, Fire Prevention in Our National Parks
- Booklet on Power—St. Lawrence, Niagara and Canada, Water Power Branch
- Canada Year Book, Dominion Bureau of Statistics, Ottawa
- South America, by Carpenter, Macmillan
- North America, by Carpenter, Macmillan.
- Pulp and Paper, by Shipley, Longmans Green & Co., Toronto
- The Story of Man, Book I, by Harper Cory, Geo. G. Harrap & Co., London
- How We Are Clothed, Fed, Sheltered, by Chamberlain, Macmillan
- The World We Live In and How It Came to Be, by Gertrude Hartman, Macmillan Publishing Co.
- Gabriel and the Hour Book, by Evelyn Stein, F. C. Page & Co., Boston
- Studies in Citizenship, James McGraw, Educational Publishing Co., Toronto
- Enchanted Paths, by D. J. Dickie, Dent & Sons, Toronto
- Hearts High, by D. J. Dickie, Dent & Sons, Toronto
- Native Trees of Canada, by Morton, Department of Interior, Ottawa

PREFACE

This curriculum has been drawn by a committee of teachers, with the co-operation of Public and Separate School inspectors and officials of the Department of Education. It is to be used in the schools in 1938-39, and the Minister of Education requests that during the year teachers and inspectors set down from time to time suggestions tending to the improvement of the curriculum as a whole or in any of its parts. Towards the end of the school year teachers and inspectors will be invited to forward these suggestions to the Minister of Education. All such suggestions will be carefully considered when the Programme is being revised.

The committee wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to the Departments of Education in the other provinces of Canada, to the Scottish Council for Research in Education, and to the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education in England, from all of whom valuable bulletins and reports were received. They wish also to express their thanks to the publishing houses in Toronto and Montreal who placed at the disposal of the committee large numbers of educational books, and to the R.C.A.-Victor Company, Toronto, who assisted in selecting the phonograph records listed in the Programme.

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INTRODUCTION

No better statement of the principles underlying the education of young adolescents has ever been made than is contained in the report of the Consultative Committee from which are cited the quotations appearing below. This committee was constituted by the English Board of Education to consider and report upon educational questions. It comprises twenty of the leading educationists of England and Wales and until his recent death was under the distinguished chairmanship of Sir W. H. Hadow. The reports of this committee, popularly called the Hadow Reports, are generally regarded as embodying the soundest available opinions on educational theory and policy.

To this committee was referred in May, 1924, the question of the proper education of children between 12 and 15 years of age. The committee consulted witnesses representing every branch of educational, industrial, and religious effort, and examined a large number of memoranda submitted by educational authorities in all parts of the world. Their report on "The Education of the Adolescent" was submitted in December, 1926, and has become the basis for the reorganization of the English educational system.

The influence of this report is felt not only in England but elsewhere throughout the English-speaking world, and the introduction of new courses of study in Ontario, in line with the recommendations of the Consultative Committee, is but one phase of an almost world-wide movement for a curriculum "humane and realistic, unencumbered by the dead wood of a formal tradition, quickened by inquiry and experiment, and inspired, not by an attachment to conventional orthodoxies but by a vivid appreciation of the needs and possibilities of the children themselves."

"There is a tide which begins to rise in the veins of youth at the age of eleven or twelve. It is called by the name of adolescence. If that tide can be taken at the flood, and a new voyage begun in the strength and along the flow of its current, we think

that it will 'move on to fortune.' We therefore propose that *all* children should be transferred, at the age of eleven or twelve, from the junior or primary school either to schools of the type now called secondary, or to schools of the type which is now called central, *or to senior and separate departments of existing elementary schools.* Transplanted to new ground, and set in a new environment, which should be *adjusted, as far as possible, to the interests and abilities of each range and variety,* we believe that they will thrive to a new height and attain a sturdier fibre." (p. xix.)

"There are three great ends of human life and activity which we trust that our scheme will help to promote. One is the forming and strengthening of character—individual and national character—through the placing of youth, in the hour of its growth, 'as it were in the fair meadow' of a congenial and inspiring environment. Another is the training of boys and girls to delight in pursuits and rejoice in accomplishments—work in music and art; work in wood and in metals; work in literature and the record of human history—which may become the recreations and the ornaments of hours of leisure in maturer years. And still another is the awakening and guiding of the practical intelligence, for the better and more skilled service of the community in all its multiple business and complex affairs." (p. xxiii.)

"The forming and strengthening of character; the training of the tastes which will fill and dignify leisure; the awakening and guiding of the intelligence, especially on its practical side—these are the ends which we have had in view; and it is in their name, and because we think it may serve, in its measure, towards their attainment, that we commend this report to our readers. Not the least among these ends is the forming and strengthening of character, both individual and national. It is here especially that a national system of education may serve to elevate a nation. Great Britain, like other countries, but perhaps more than most, is passing through an era of industrialism. Industrialism has its grave effects on national life. It demands, only too often, a narrow specialisation of faculty; it produces, only too readily, a patterned uniformity of work and behaviour; and it may, unless

it is corrected, infect the minds of men with the genius of its own life. Education can correct industrialism, by giving to the mind the breadth and the fresh vitality of new interests, as it can also make industry more effective; and *we believe that the teachers of our country—given their opportunity—can bring the discipline of the school to aid the influence of home in making a new generation which alike in character, in tastes and in trained skill will justify them abundantly of all their labours.*" (p. xxiii.)

"There appear to be two opposing schools of modern educational thought, with regard to the aims to be followed in the training of older pupils. One attaches primary importance to the individual pupils and their interests; the other emphasises the claims of society as a whole, and seeks to equip the pupils for service as workmen and citizens in its organisation. When either tendency is carried too far the result is unsatisfactory. If, on the one hand, the education of older pupils be kept too general in the supposed interests of individual development, the pupil is apt to find himself ill-equipped on leaving school to cope with the demands of modern life. If, on the other hand, undue stress be laid in the school course on the needs of later life, and the training of the pupil be made too specific, the individual man or woman may be sacrificed to the workman or citizen. A well-balanced educational system must combine these two ideals in the single conception of social individuality. The general aim should therefore be to offer the fullest possible scope to individuality, while keeping steadily in view the claims and needs of the society in which every individual citizen must live." (p. 101.)

"Primary education should be regarded as ending at about the age of 11. At that age a second stage, which for the moment may be given the colourless name 'post-primary,' should begin; and this stage which, for many pupils would end at 16+, for some at 18 or 19, but for the majority at 14+ or 15+, should be envisaged so far as possible as a single whole, within which there will be a variety in the types of education supplied, but which will be marked by the common characteristic that its aim is to provide for the needs of children who are entering and passing through

the stage of adolescence." (p. 71.) "At the age of 11+ pupils from primary schools should normally be transferred to a different type of education from that given to pupils under the age of 11+." (p. 89.)

"The provision of curricula for the older children in Elementary Schools, where even in a single school may be found a wide range of types of mind and of conditions of environment, is not a simple matter; and *uniform schemes of instruction are out of the question if the best that is in the children is to be brought out*. We have had much evidence indicating that schools have planned special curricula with a large measure of success, and that this has not only given the children greater powers of adaptability in the occupations which they afterwards take up, but has also raised the standard of their intellectual attainments." (p. 102.)

"It must be remembered that, with the extension of the bounds of knowledge in each of the several subjects, the attitude of mind acquired by the pupil towards it, and his ability to search for further information from satisfactory sources, become at least as important as the information he actually obtains." (p. 101.)

"The number of the ideas which it is *essential* to grasp in the study of any subject is not large, and the matter of cardinal importance is that the teacher should help his pupils to grasp them. The danger which confronts a teacher (and it is a danger which may even increase, in proportion to his zeal and industry) is that he should 'condescend upon particulars' to an extent which bewilders the mind that he seeks to enlighten." (p. 106.)

"The work set out shall be (i) in accordance with the pupils' capacities, (ii) reasonable in amount, (iii) firm and clear in texture, and (iv) such as will secure something more than a passing interest. We attach much importance to this last point. An interest which stimulates the pupil's curiosity, and urges him to put forth serious efforts to acquire further knowledge, obviously

leads to a steady advance in the standard of attainment and an increasing degree of accuracy and thoroughness. Once the pupil's interest is genuinely aroused, nothing but the best, according to his insight and his capacities, will satisfy his aspirations. There are few teachers who have not seen, in one connection or another, the remarkable excellence of the work which is done by pupils when the subject has gripped their imagination and aroused their interest and enthusiasm. But we would not be understood to suggest the possibility of interesting every pupil in every subject in all its aspects, or to imply that there is no drudgery to be undertaken. On the contrary we would urge the recognition of differing interests. Pupils should be encouraged to follow, within reasonable limits, any special bent which they may possess." (p. 106.)

"For many years teachers have been aware of the difficulties created by the large number of separate subjects in the framing of a school time-table; and the tendency now, in many schools, is to regard the curriculum as a whole, and to make fewer subdivisions. (This is a principle which we would recommend to the consideration of all teachers. Its most important effect is to secure due proportion in the time allotted to, and in the treatment of, the different subjects. Beyond this, however, the observance of such a principle has many other advantages. There are subjects which share together an area of common ground. In mathematics and science, for example, calculation is often a common feature. If the teachers concerned adopt the same methods in the use of mathematical processes, much time is saved, and confusion in the mind of the pupil is avoided. In history and geography, again, a more extended treatment, going beyond brief oral lessons, encourages work in written English. Similarly in science and geography some of the work is common, and covers the same ground. The recognition of this fact means a definite economy of time." (p. 104.)

"This process of unifying the curriculum extends also to the subjects themselves. Thus the terms English literature (prose and verse), composition and grammar are replaced in the school time-table simply by English; mathematics, too, is used to cover

quotations. It comprises seven obligatory subjects—Health, English, Social Studies, Science, Mathematics, Music, and Art—together with three optional subjects—Crafts, Home Economics, and Agriculture. In classes where, for lack of equipment, the optional subjects cannot be adequately taught, it is hoped that an earnest effort will be made to give the students at least an introduction to one or more of the crafts, to home management, and to gardening.

The following time allotment is suggested, subject to modifications to suit local conditions:

Obligatory Subjects:

Social Studies.....	5 hours per week
English	5 hours per week
Mathematics	3 hours per week
Science	2½ hours per week
Health	2½ hours per week
Music	2 hours per week
Art	2 hours per week

Optional Subjects:

Crafts	} . . . 3 hours per week
Home Economics	
Agriculture	

In ungraded schools Grades VII and VIII may be combined for the most of the work as suggested in the Health outline. Where this is done care should be taken to ensure that there is no unnecessary repetition and that the outlines are followed in alternate years. There should be no attempt, except in *very* special cases to do the work of Grades VII and VIII in one year. Rushing children into Grade IX before they are approximately fourteen years of age has little to commend it.

SOCIAL STUDIES

INTRODUCTION

The aim of the whole course in Social Studies is to help the student understand the world in which he lives—the interactions of its geography and history which produce our social institutions. In Grades IV, V and VI the child learned something of the slow development of our social life, followed the discoverers who enlarged our world, and traced the explorations that revealed Canada and its neighbour, the United States. Now in Grade VII he learns how in North America settlement followed exploration, and how these scattered settlements grew into two great nations with common ideals and problems. In Grade VIII he is introduced into the wider community of the British Commonwealth, learning much of the geography and history of the Motherland and of the sister nations within the Commonwealth.

Any adequate treatment of these topics must recognize the influence of physical and climatic conditions on the community, the importance of the spirit and ideals of the settlers, and the effects upon community life of contingent and unforeseen occurrences. Thus geography and history combine to make the story of any community, which is in effect a story of the impact of nature upon man and of man upon nature. And the whole course will fail of its main objective if it does not engender in the students a genuine interest in social customs and problems and does not develop in them the ability to discuss such matters intelligently. As the story of a community is reconstructed, attention should be directed to the evolution of its social customs and the emergence of social problems in the past; and the study should culminate in a discussion of the problems which confront it to-day. Thus while geography, history, and civics each receives its due emphasis in the course, they fuse into a unified but unfinished story of community life.

An important phase of the work throughout is the discussion of current events. Properly handled, Current Events may well

Study of cattle:

- Discussion of beef and dairy types.
- Recognition of breeds in the community.

Study of soils.

- Separation of soil constituents.
- Mineral and organic matter in soil.
- Alkaline and acid or sour soils.
- Effect of adding lime to a sour soil and to clay.
- Work of earthworms in the soil

Study of fertilizers:

- Application and value of barnyard manure.
- Commonly used commercial fertilizers.
- Green crops as fertilizers.

Study of soils:

- Examination of sand, clay, and humus—
- Discussion of their sources
- Effect of humus upon water-holding capacity of sand.

Spring:

The school grounds:

- Cleaning up the yard.
- Destroying weeds.
- Plans for beautifying.

The school garden:

- Planning the garden
- Preparation of flower and vegetable gardens.
- Planting and care.

Germination tests of seeds.

Use of the hotbed and plant boxes:

- Starting plants for the gardens.

Planting shrubs and perennials.

- On the school grounds or at home.

Spraying:

- Preparing spray mixtures—
- For biting insects, and for sucking insects.
- Use of a common sprayer.

Making a lawn:

- Preparation of the soil.
- Sowing and caring for the lawn.

CORPORATE ACTIVITIES

A programme for young adolescents with their dawning sense of adulthood and their rapidly developing social consciousness should include some of the activities usually referred to as extra-curricular. A great many adults are of the opinion that the experience they gained in organizing and conducting literary, musical, and athletic societies at school was of great value to them as students and as adults. Some go so far as to say that the value of such experiences exceeds that of the ordinary academic work. A well-known educationist has said, "The most useful thing a child can learn at school is to get along with other people." In that opinion educationists and laymen alike will readily concur, and no phase of school life offers better opportunities for learning to get along with people than does sharing in the corporate life of the school.

Corporate activities provide not only a valuable training in co-operation but a useful discipline in the shouldering of responsibilities. And the teachers in the interests of their "pet" organizations should not deprive the pupils of these responsibilities. It is far better that a championship should be lost or a concert have a hitch in it than that the over-zealous watchfulness of the teachers should leave nothing to the initiative of the taught. It is well to remember that foot-ball matches, plays, pageants, concerts and the like are not so much ends in themselves as means to an end—the development in the pupils of such social and civic virtues as sportsmanship, courtesy, initiative, co-operation, resourcefulness, and sense of responsibility.

A more fundamental and permanent value of this training lies in the fact that, in connection with their own organizations, pupils realize the satisfaction born of willing service and even sacrifice in devotion to a cause. This is of the very essence of loyalty, and many students to whom the word loyalty is almost meaningless do in connection with this type of school activity experience the *reality*.

Among the forms of corporate activity that teachers have found practicable first mention should be made of student

assistance in the maintenance of school discipline. "Much of the discipline of the classroom, corridors, playground, assembly-room, can be left to the pupils themselves."¹ This, of course, cannot be done overnight; but boys and girls can be encouraged and gradually trained to control and inspire one another in many subtle ways that will suggest themselves to sympathetic teachers.

Many large schools make full use of the daily or weekly assembly as a form of student training. There is indeed much to be gained in permitting the students to plan and conduct the regular and special assemblies of the school. The opening exercises, the making of announcements and reports, the discussion of school policies, the introduction and thanking of artists or speakers, the arrangement and conduct of special programmes—these and similar activities have a training-value which should not be lightly esteemed.

The more specific forms of corporate activity need only be suggested. They include class and school associations—literary, musical, and athletic; clubs, dear to the heart of the adolescent—camera, stamp, bird, art, drama, journal; and public presentations such as concerts, pageants, exhibitions, and fêtes.

These corporate activities not only bind the school together and afford valuable training in public conduct, they also form an admirable link between the school and the homes of the children. Every effort should be made to enlist the sympathy and support of the parents in all forms of school activity, and many parents can most readily be interested in these corporate activities in which they see their children's growing self-control and self-reliance.

¹*The Education of the Adolescent.*

LIST OF BOOKS

GENERAL

Psychology:

- Pressey: *Psychology and the New Education*. Harper.—2.50.
 Rivlin: *Educating for Adjustment*. Ryerson.—3.00.
 Symonds: *Mental Hygiene of School Children*. Macmillan.—1.75.
 Wheeler: *Youth, Psychology of Adolescence*. University of London Press.

Curriculum:

- Board of Education: *The Education of the Adolescent*. H.M. Stationery Office (Dawson).
 Scottish Council for Research in Education: *Curriculum for Pupils of Twelve to Fifteen*. University of London (Clarke, Irwin).—2.50.
 Young: *The Junior High School*. McGraw, Hill.—3.75.
 Norton and Norton: *The Foundations of Curriculum Building*. Ginn.—2.50.

Teaching:

- Board of Education: *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers*. H.M. Stationery Office (Dawson).
 Skinner et al: *Introduction to Modern Education*. Heath (Copp Clark).
 Lowth: *Everyday Problems of the Country Teacher*. Macmillan.—2.25.
 Brown: *Problems in Classroom Management*. Houghton-Mifflin. \$1.50.
 Lane: *A Teacher's Guide Book to the Activity Programme*. Macmillan.—2.00.
 Stothers: *Classroom Records*. Gage.—1.00.

SOCIAL STUDIES

Atlases—Pupils:

- Canadian School Atlas, Elementary Edition. Dent.—.45.
 Social Studies Atlas. Gage.—.30.
 Phillip's Dominion Atlas. Moyer.—.45.
 Nelson's School Atlas. Nelson.—.60.

Atlases—Teacher:

- Burpee: *Historical Atlas of Canada*. Nelson.—1.25.
 Goode: *Goode's School Atlas*. Rand, McNally (Gage).—3.60.
 Bartholomew: *Oxford Advanced Atlas*. Clarke, Irwin.—3.00.

Citizenship—Pupils:

- Wallace: *A Reader in Canadian Civics*. Macmillan.—.30.
 Goldring: *We Are Canadian Citizens*. Dent.—.65.

PREFACE

This Programme of Studies, issued in 1937, has been revised twice in accordance with the suggestions of the inspectors and teachers who used it during the past three years. Further suggestions tending to its improvement will be welcomed by the Minister of Education, indeed it is hoped that at each reprinting of the Programme suggestions from inspectors and teachers may be incorporated, and the work of the elementary schools of Ontario kept abreast of modern educational thought.

The committee in charge of revisions wish to repeat their acknowledgements to the Departments of Education in the provinces of Canada, and to the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education in England, whose reports, commonly known as the Hadow Reports,¹ have proved invaluable. To these reports they are indebted for the spirit and in some instances for the language of the introductory paragraphs attached to each section of the Programme.

The committee are grateful, too, to all the inspectors and teachers who have reported on the Programme and whose suggestions have been used in making the revisions. They wish also to express once more their thanks to the publishing houses who co-operated in the preparation of the book lists, and to the R.C.A. Victor Company, Toronto, who assisted in selecting the phonograph records listed in the Programme.

¹The Education of the Adolescent, 1927.

The Primary School, 1931.

Nursery and Infant Schools, 1931.

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INTRODUCTION

Any education worthy of the name must be planned in accordance with the best available evidence¹ on the nature of a child's development. Such evidence leads to the conviction that a child develops by virtue of *his own activity*. This activity comprises knowing and doing, which are to be thought of not as separate processes but as two phases of the same process. That the child's activity may result in development suited to his environment, it must be purposeful effort, *directed according to a plan*. This plan, if it is to be accepted by the child as his own, must be determined by the nature of the child.

The function of the elementary school, therefore, is to provide for its pupils a stimulating environment in which their natural tendencies will develop *under adult guidance* into useful abilities, desirable interests and acceptable attitudes.

Children of elementary school age are active and inquisitive, delighting in movement, in small tasks which they can perform with deftness and skill, and in the sense of visible and tangible accomplishment which such tasks offer. They are intensely interested in the character and purpose of the material objects around them. They are at once absorbed in creating their own miniature world of imagination and emotion, and keen observers who take pleasure in reproducing their observations by speech and dramatic action; and still engaged in mastering a difficult and unfamiliar language, without knowing they are doing so, because it is a means of communicating with others.

In all these activities they demand and enjoy a definite sense of progressive achievement. Their activities are not aimless, but constitute the process by which children grow. They are in a very real sense their education; upon them the school must build its programme, offering the children fuller and more varied but more orderly opportunities for activity than they have hitherto enjoyed. In short, the school must follow the

¹For an admirable summary of such evidence see Hadlow et al. *The Primary School*, pp. 22-57.

method of nature, stimulating the child, through his own interests, into activities and guiding him into experiences useful for the satisfaction and development of his needs.

It is important here to emphasize the fact that the experiences provided by the elementary school are designed to meet the needs of the child, not those of the adolescent or the adult. In the words of the Hadow report, "No good can come from teaching children things which have no immediate value for them however highly their potential or prospective value may be estimated."¹

The child's own immediate needs and capacities, then, must determine the character of the experiences provided by the elementary school. The child needs to live, to live with his fellows, and to live "in favour with God and man." To meet these three fundamental needs by activities related to the child's capacities and motivated by his interests is the special task of the elementary school.

In the light of these considerations it is apparent that "the curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored"² against some supposed future need. Its aim should be to develop in the child his physical powers and to train him in their proper use and control, to awaken him to the fundamental interests of civilized life so far as they lie within the compass of childhood, and to encourage him to attain to the orderly management of his energies, impulses, and emotions which is the basis of desirable attitudes.

This principle applied to the practical problem of framing a curriculum for childhood means, first of all, that a large place in the activities of the elementary school must be given to providing for the physical well-being and efficiency of the child. This is not merely a matter of the provision of suitable physical or remedial exercises. It involves care on the part of the school authorities that the child shall live, during the school day at least, in a healthful environment, and that all the exercises of the day shall be such as to make for natural physical development.

Attention to the physical welfare of the child is, then, the

¹*The Primary School*, p. 92

²*The Primary School*, p. 93.

foundation of the school's activities because the child is, in the first place, a growing organism. But he is not only an organism with biological needs; he is also a member of the human family. His environment is a civilization created by man. If the child is to be at home in that civilization, as one free of the house, he must learn to take his place as an active, co-operative and intelligent member of his society. The curriculum, therefore, must provide for the child those intellectual activities and experiences which are necessary for his intelligent participation in the life of the home, the school, and the community. Language, including number, as the medium of thought and the instrument of human intercourse, reading by which he comes into contact with other minds and learns that life has a past and future as well as a present, some knowledge of the simpler facts of the material world as the home of man, the appreciation of beauty in the world about him and the creation of beauty in singing, dancing, drawing and constructive work—these things are of the essence of civilized life and are to be regarded, therefore, as fixing the general character and direction of the school curriculum. What is important is not that an adult standard of attainment should be reached in any one of them, but that interest should be quickened, habits of thoroughness and honesty in work established, and the foundations on which knowledge may later be built securely laid. The production of juvenile authors, mathematicians, and scientists is neither to be anticipated nor to be desired. It is reasonable, however, to expect that in the elementary school a child should learn, within the limits of his experience, to use the noble instrument of his native language with clearness and dignity; that he should acquire simple kinds of manual skill and take pleasure in using them; that he should admire what is admirable in form and design; that he should read some good books with zest and enjoyment; that he should acquire bodily poise and balance, a habit of natural and expressive motion, not merely as physical accomplishments, but as the outward sign and symbol of our common culture and civilization; and that he should learn that the behaviour of the physical universe is not arbitrary or capricious, but governed by principles some at least of which it is possible for him to grasp.

The school, then, by its activities, should stimulate the child towards the harmonious development of his physical and intellec-

tual powers. But the school should also join with the home and the church in the effort to guide the child in the formation of desirable attitudes. The curriculum, therefore, while it does not prescribe a course in morals nor include religion as a separate subject, should be pervaded by the spirit of religion. In all the activities of the school the child should be led to love mercy, to do justly, and to walk humbly. How these attitudes may best be developed must be left to the judgment of the individual teacher, whose unconscious influence is, perhaps, his strongest ally. One or two suggestions, however, may be useful. The reverent singing of simple hymns should give the child an opportunity of joining with his fellows in an act of common worship. The parables of Jesus and the great human stories of the Old Testament should be made the familiar possession of every child. This should be done largely by oral narration, and the narrative should be imbued with the spirit of the original story and animated by the actual words of Scripture. Finally, nothing should be done to lead children to the impression that religion is something apart from and superimposed upon the life of the school. The teaching of religion can have no greater assistance than through the constant practice of the Christian virtues in the daily life of the school.

In the foregoing paragraphs an attempt has been made to rest the curriculum upon sound general principles as enunciated in the Hadow Reports. It remains to add some suggestions as to how it may be administered in accordance with these principles.

1. The curriculum is arranged in six successive grades or levels of attainment. It must not be assumed that the work of each grade shall necessarily require a full school year. The grading has been done, on the best advice of practical teachers, to fit the yearly progress of ordinary children, but teachers everywhere will find "bright" children who can, if need be, pass through the six grades in five years or even in four. In special cases this acceleration will be advisable, and the curriculum has been arranged to permit, in individual cases, of easy promotion from one grade to another. In most cases the "bright" children, instead of being accelerated, should be given an enriched programme, and for this, too, ample provision has been made. For dull children a modified programme and special attention

on the part of the teacher will be required, if they are to progress as *they should* with their social group, and with no sense of inferiority. In large urban schools it might be advisable to arrange three streams of children, one doing the work as suggested for each year, one doing the simpler phases of the same work, and one doing considerably more of the work for each year than is required.

2. In some of the courses two or three grades may be combined and the activities suggested for the different grades carried on in successive years. Indeed the only courses that are definitely sequential are Arithmetic and, in Grades I and II, Reading and Writing. When children of different grades join in a common activity it is only necessary to arrange that the more difficult phases of the work should be undertaken by the more advanced pupils, and to remember that the same sort of results should not be expected of all. It is hoped that combining grades will be tried as a method of simplifying the programme of the ungraded school, and may even find acceptance in graded schools, particularly where two or three grades are taught by one teacher.

3. In many of the courses as outlined the teacher is asked to select topics that will prove interesting and useful to the children of his class. It is obvious that the same topics will not be appropriate to a mining area in Northern Ontario, to an agricultural district in the Western Peninsula, and to an industrial city like Toronto or Hamilton. And within any specific area the choice of content will be conditioned by the teacher's own interests and training, by the available sources of information, and by the interests, needs, and capacities of the children. For this and other reasons it is strongly urged that each teacher choose for himself the topics around which to centre the experiences and activities of his children. This freedom of choice on the part of the individual teacher will make uniform standards of attainment in any given grade impossible. This is as it should be. The elementary school has no business with uniform standards of *attainment*. Its business is to see that children grow in body and mind at their natural rate, neither faster nor slower, and if it performs its business properly there will be as much variety of

¹All, in fact, but arithmetic, which is definitely sequential, and in the Junior Grades, Reading and Writing.

attainment as there is of intellectual ability. The only uniformity at which the elementary school should aim is that every child at the end of the course should have acquired the power to attack new work and feel a zest in doing so.

4. The absence of uniformity in the attainments of the children and the rate at which they progress, in the extent of the field they explore, and in the nature of the topics selected for exploration, will make uniform external examinations impracticable. This, too, is as it should be. If the curriculum is properly drawn it should so fit the capacities and interests of children that they will find in the experiences and activities of the classroom a good and sufficient motive for learning, without the unwholesome pressure of a "promotion" examination. The teacher will test his children at frequent intervals to determine whether they are acquiring the necessary skills, and on the evidence of such tests modify, if necessary, his teaching or plan remedial training for certain individual children. But anything in the nature of a final examination to measure the physical, intellectual, and spiritual growth of children is not only unnecessary but is prejudicial to such growth.

5. The abandonment of external examinations as the sole basis of "promotion" will make it unnecessary to devote the month of June to tedious drill on factual material. In June as in September the children should be enjoying new experiences and engaging in new activities instead of merely reviewing old "facts" for the sole purpose of reproducing them on an examination. Information that is interesting and useful is retained in virtue of its interest and use, not in virtue of its having been "crammed" for an examination—a fact of which we are all witnesses. What is necessary, then, if we wish children to retain certain "facts" is not to require that they be memorized for an examination, but to clothe those facts with interest and provide opportunities for their use—this, we think, teachers can and will do if given the necessary freedom.

6. The flexibility of the curriculum herein presented and the necessary abandonment of uniform examinations in the elementary grades will oblige teachers to give serious consideration to the problem of appraising the results of their efforts to develop in their pupils "useful abilities, desirable interests and acceptable attitudes." The problem is, of course, an individual one and the

teacher's appraisal must in many particulars be based on facts specific to his situation. There are, however, certain general factors that may enter into any such appraisal. First of all, the teacher should be sure that his pupils are living in clean, cheerful surroundings, are cultivating desirable health habits as evidenced in their clean, alert, happy appearance, and are developing proper attitudes towards health as shown by their interest in all the activities relating to personal and community health. Secondly, the teacher should satisfy himself that his pupils are acquiring the necessary skills. Do they read ordinary prose and poetry at sight with ease and comprehension? Can they read aloud, recite verse or speak their lines in a play so that their auditors grasp the author's ideas and emotions? Do they express their own thoughts easily and accurately in speaking and in writing? Is their handwriting neat and legible and done with fair speed? Have they reasonable facility in the use of numbers for ordinary purposes? Do they sing with good tone and evident enjoyment? Are they gaining in power to express their ideas in some form of art? Can they amuse themselves in playing various outdoor and indoor games? Finally, and *most important of all*, the teacher should be concerned about the interests and attitudes his pupils are developing in their work and play. Are they genuinely interested in the reading they are doing, and in the activities connected with the social studies and natural science? Are they thus acquiring interest in an ever widening world and in the fuller understanding of it? Does this interest manifest itself in independent reading, in voluntary language exercises, in various forms of art and handwork, and in worthwhile enterprises? In such enterprises are they learning co-operation, courtesy, thoroughness, singleness of purpose, self-control and "the joy of the working?"

7. The parents, also, have a right to know at stated intervals how their child is "getting along." And the wise teacher will enlist the parents' interest and support in his efforts to direct wisely the child's development. The report to the parents, therefore, should give the necessary information regarding the child's attendance and punctuality, his progress, his interests and attitudes. Progress in each of the types of activity that make up the new programme for Grades I to VI might be indicated in terms of A, B, C, when A is explained in a footnote as indicating

unusual excellence, B as indicating satisfactory progress, and C unsatisfactory. Attitudes such as courtesy, helpfulness, co-operation and leadership should be reported in brief comments, as should any special interest a child is developing. Such reports demand, as does the whole Programme, that the teacher make a careful study of each child. To say that such reports will take too long to prepare is to suggest that the teacher is too busy with Education to think about his pupils.

8. It is obvious that the new Programme cuts across the traditional subject-by-subject arrangement, and that, therefore, rigid time limits must be abandoned. In planning the work and play of a class, it may be sufficient to remember that the "time table" should be flexible, should permit the necessary variety, and should provide in just balance for each type of activity. What is the just balance? How should the time be divided? Keeping in mind the possibility of overlapping and the necessity of flexibility, the following scheme is suggested:

English.....	30%
Social Studies.....	20%
Health.....	10%
Natural Science.....	10%
Arithmetic.....	10%
Music.....	10%
Art.....	10%

Roughly, 10% means one half hour per day.

9. The following paragraphs from Circular 82, issued under authority of the Minister of Education in April, 1937, apply with new force and significance to schools using the curriculum herein presented.

"The Minister urges the Inspectors to discourage, even more than they have done in the past, unreasonable requirements in the matter of homework for pupils in the elementary school. These children are at a period when vital energies are largely consumed in physical development, and consequently they must have time for rest and recreation. The school has no excuse for infringing upon the right of the children to sufficient time for sleep and play, and the right of the home to direct their activities outside of school hours. There can be no doubt that both of

these rights are seriously encroached upon by the prescription of homework, ill-chosen in character and excessive in quantity. For pupils in Grades I to VI there is ample time during the school day to engage in the necessary activities satisfactorily without burdening them with additional school work¹ to be done at home."

"Supervised work in the classroom may well be substituted for many of the exercises that pupils are at present required to do at home. In order that the pupils may have adequate opportunity for seat-work, including independent study, the revised Regulations require that the teacher's time-table shall be so arranged that each child may have at least one and a half hours each day for this purpose. One of the charges frequently brought against the elementary school is that the pupil is not trained to study independently or to work out things for himself. The ungraded rural school, and the school with at least two grades in a classroom should not be open to this charge, for in such schools, because of the nature of the organization, opportunity must be given to classes to study by themselves. If such study periods are properly directed, there should be no question of the pupil's developing habits of independent study. It is in the case of graded schools in which there is only one class in a room that difficulty in this connection is likely to occur. Here the teacher often considers it his duty to teach his class continuously throughout the school day. Such a practice gives little opportunity to develop initiative, independence, or self-reliance. This deficiency may be removed either by organizing the school in such a way that each classroom will have two different grades—a plan that is favoured by many Inspectors—or by dividing the class into two sections for certain of the school subjects. While one section is being taught, the other section may be engaged in seat exercises or study. There can be no doubt that the judicious alternation of teaching lessons and study lessons will result not only in more rapid progress in learning but also in the development of proper habits of study."

¹This applies as truly to Enterprises as to Arithmetic or Spelling.

Carving

In soap

In soft woods

Design

Making original designs for decoration

Lino Cutting

Book plates, Christmas cards, etc.

Construction

Making objects for real purposes

Use of paper, cardboard and thin woods

Lettering

Frechand lettering on maps, posters, etc.

Sewing

Making articles for children's own use

Making simple gifts

Making costumes for plays

Knitting

Making useful articles

Using large needles

Weaving

Using simple frames or looms.

May be made by the older pupils

Technical Instruction

Related to an activity in progress

Given only in response to a felt need

Preparation of materials

Mixing of colours

Methods of using various media

Use of washes

Use of a fixative

Mounting of finished work

Methods of indicating distance

Converging lines

Relative size

Amount of detail

Variation in colour intensity

Experiences leading to an understanding of

Balance, Proportion, Colour Harmony

/ ENTERPRISES

The Play-Way of Learning

The adult who observes groups of children in their out-of-school activities is impressed by their concentration on the thing in hand, the energy they expend, and the inventiveness they frequently display in accomplishing their ends. We say that they are "interested." We must not confuse this "interest" with "amusement." These children are "interested" in the sense that they are actively pursuing a purpose.

For if one examines the procedure children follow in their activities one will see that these activities arise from needs or purposes which the children strongly feel. They decide upon the line of action to be employed in achieving their purpose after discussion among themselves. They plan their undertaking together and each child agrees to be responsible for some part of the undertaking.

One will note further that the success of the undertaking depends upon the ability of the children to work together. Sometimes the scheme breaks down because they are not capable of sustained co-operation. When the project is carried through to a successful conclusion, the result is satisfying to the children, though judged by adult standards it may be very imperfect.

One may observe, also, that the goals children choose as the aims of their activities are *objective*; that is to say, the children are able to conceive beforehand, in a general way, the result of their work. They are *immediate*, in the sense that they can be accomplished within a space of time that the child's mind can grasp. Remote goals have little reality or appeal for children. Finally, they are *accessible*. The goals selected are usually within their power to achieve. Goals that are achieved to the satisfaction of the child are likely to inspire him to further activity.

This play routine is a natural method of learning constantly used by children in their daily life.

✓ The Enterprise "a Natural Way of Learning"

The school has adopted this natural way of learning and *re-directed* it to educational ends. When employed by the school it is called "The Enterprise." In a school "enterprise" the purpose of the children is immediate and objective. Their aim is to make a play-house, to perform a play, or to construct a model castle; and beyond this concrete result they do not see. The aim of the teacher, however, is much less limited. Her primary purpose is to provide the children experience in social living—experience in selecting worthwhile things to do, in arriving at plans of procedure through discussion and mutual consent, in finding means to achieve their aim, using available resources, obtaining the necessary information, developing the required skills, and in carrying plans through to a successful conclusion.

The teacher has secondary aims, too. Through the purposeful activity of the enterprise she may aim to help the pupils to improve their spoken or written English; to afford them experience in reading, in using books or other sources to obtain information, to extend their knowledge of topics under consideration. But while she will utilize the interest of the children in the enterprise to accomplish these aims, her main purpose is to provide for growth in the ability of children to live and work together. "We learn to do by doing," and just as children learn to walk by walking, and to read by reading, they learn to be courteous by being courteous, and to co-operate by co-operating.

The Enterprise Cuts Across Subject Matter Lines

An enterprise, then, is a group activity undertaken by children for a purpose that appeals to them as being worth-while. Children engaged on an enterprise may not know what "subject" they are studying nor in what "period" according to the timetable. "It matters little to the learners whether an interesting item of knowledge or experience is properly called geography, history, dramatization, or literature, the important thing to them as learners is that it is interesting, and is useful for them in the life they are living as boys and girls."¹ The enterprise may occupy part of their time for an afternoon, for a week, or

¹Programme of Studies for the Elementary School (Alberta), p. 4.

for a month, and may involve all types of school experience and activity. For instance, preparation for the performance of a play may involve the writing and practice of the dialogue, the planning and making of costumes, the construction of scenery, the calculation of the cost of materials, the writing of invitations, the learning of songs and dances, the decoration of the classroom. "There is no doubt that at such times what the children learn has a significance and a vitality not often reached in routine 'lessons'." In the planning and carrying out of an enterprise the children may learn in a short time more than they would otherwise learn in the course of a school year."¹

• Growth of Self-Direction

While an enterprise will usually be teacher-inspired, it may frequently be suggested by the pupils themselves; or it may grow out of some interest which the children are displaying at the time which the teacher will make use of. However it arises, it must be accepted by the children as *their* enterprise, and should be planned and executed by them, with wise guidance on the part of the teacher who should always be ready, if need arise, to offer advice and encouragement or to direct the children to sources of information they may require for the proper carrying out of their plans. But the teacher will defeat her purpose if she allows herself to *prescribe* the enterprise, or to *dictate* the method by which it shall proceed. So long as children are trained to do in school only what they are told, growth in initiative must be the result of extra-curricular activities; and so long as children are trained to depend on adult direction in their work they will not develop the power of grappling with difficulties and overcoming obstacles. If, however, the energies and capacities of the children are released in the service of an enterprise which *they* consider worthwhile, it is astonishing what children can and do accomplish, and satisfying to reflect upon how they have grown through their enterprise in knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

To proceed in this way involves the exercise of considerable freedom on the part of the children; but the teacher must bear in mind that freedom lies not merely in the removal of restraints

¹The Primary School, p. 10¹

It depends, rather, upon the growth of the power to act independently and must be accompanied at all times by consideration for the rights, the comfort, and the convenience of other people.

It should be remembered that the value of an enterprise is in the social attitudes developed, and in the interest and activity stimulated rather than in any results that may be exhibited. The learning is in the doing, not in the thing done. Children, who live in the present, not in the past, may lose interest in a project when it has been completed. This provides a challenge to the teacher who should be prepared always to suggest new and purposeful activities to follow those in progress.

Providing the Fundamental Skills

It is not intended that the use of enterprises should wholly replace the more familiar method of organizing children's school experiences. It would be extremely difficult by means of enterprises alone to secure for children the necessary amount of training in Arithmetic, Reading, and Writing, and still more difficult to secure a proper sequence. "The social need for ability to read and write, and the social demand of conformity and accuracy in language and number make it necessary for the teacher to provide special training in these *fundamental skills*, in addition to the training brought about by the enterprise."¹ Certain other forms of activity such as Music or Art, while likely to be involved in most enterprises, should frequently be engaged in for their own sake. Children should learn to sing a song simply because the song is delightful, or draw a scene because drawing is such good fun. But it is suggested, subject to the foregoing qualifications, that the work of the elementary grades should be increasingly informed by the principles of the enterprise procedure.

For further suggestion and advice regarding the carrying out of enterprises the teacher is referred to "The Enterprise in Theory and Practice" by Donald Dickie. (See List of Books, p. 129.)

¹ Alberta Programme of Studies for the Elementary School, p. 5.

TYPICAL ENTERPRISES

Grades I, II, III

Our Story Book Friends—a parade
 A Reading Festival—a programme
 Our Nursery Rhyme Friends—a pantomime
 An A. A. Milne Book—a class book
 We Play House—an exhibit and play
 Children of Other Lands—a pageant
 Land of the Midnight Sun—a play
 We Visit Japan—a Japanese tea-party
 A Harvest Festival—a display and programme

Grades, IV, V, VI

Our Pond—a natural science exhibit
 We Go Travelling—an exhibit of models
 Do You Believe in Fairies—an operetta
 A Spring Pageant—a programme of dances, etc.
 A School Bazaar—an exhibit and sale of work
 Canadian Coat of Arms—an exhibit and lecture
 A Good Health Club—an open meeting
 How Christmas Came to Canterbury—a play
 In Search of the Western Sea—an animated map
 A Pageant of Progress—a group of murals
 Water and Life—an exhibit
 Heroes of Discovery—a frieze
 Here Comes Summer—an outdoor fête
 The Classroom Newspaper—a weekly or fortnightly issue

PREFACE



A democratic society is constantly undergoing change. → Revision of the course of study for the schools of such a society is, therefore, a continuous process. In a sense, the current programme must always be regarded as tentative, and subject to modification from time to time to meet new needs and changing conditions. Suggestions tending to the improvement of courses will be welcomed by the Minister of Education; indeed it is hoped that at each reprinting of the Programme suggestions from inspectors and teachers may be incorporated, and the work of the elementary schools of Ontario kept abreast of modern educational thought.

` The committee in charge of revisions wish to acknowledge their indebtedness to the Departments of Education in the provinces of Canada whose courses of study have been freely consulted. They are grateful, too, to all the inspectors and teachers who have reported on the Programme and whose suggestions have been used in making the present changes. They wish also to express once more their thanks to the publishing houses who co-operated in the preparation of the book lists, and to the R.C.A. Victor Company who assisted in selecting the phonograph records listed in the Programme.

Toronto, August, 1941.

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INTRODUCTION

→ Education for Democratic Living

Two considerations must govern the framing of a programme for the elementary school. The first consideration is the kind of society in which the child lives and for which he is being prepared; the second is the nature of the child's development.

The schools of Ontario exist for the purpose of preparing children to live in a democratic society which bases its way of life upon the Christian ideal.

Such a society aims to provide the greatest possible opportunities for the self-realization, security and happiness of every individual in it. It attempts to secure certain basic freedoms, to maintain legal justice, to achieve economic justice, and to afford the individual opportunities to participate in all decisions affecting his welfare.

From each individual a democratic society expects the finest service of which he is capable, and a willingness to make sacrifices for the common welfare. It demands that he recognize and accept his responsibility to act not only in the interest of self but in the interest of all.

The citizen of a democratic state lives in a society that is constantly undergoing change. He must, therefore, be able to adjust himself to new and changing conditions, and he must have the flexibility of mind that will enable him to meet changing conditions with intelligence.

A further characteristic of a democratic society is its group organization. In order to pursue the ordinary concerns of living, people associate themselves in social groups of various forms. The family, the school class, the church congregation, the club, the circle of friends, the municipal community, workers or business associates engaged in similar pursuits, are examples of these groups; and when one speaks of a person as "a member of society" one thinks not only of his citizenship in the Dominion and the Empire, but of his membership in such groups as well.

EXCERPT FROM
"TWENTY-TWO POINT PLAN", 1943

APPENDIX I:D

SCHOOL TAXES TO BE CUT

9. There will be a sweeping revision of our whole system of real estate taxation so that the owning and improvement of homes and farm land, which are the very foundation of our society, will not be discouraged by excessive taxation. As an initial step in that direction the Provincial Government will assume at least 50% of the school taxes now charged against real estate. It is however to be clearly understood that this change will not affect the authority of the local school boards.

10. Our educational system will be completely revised so that every child in this Province will have an opportunity to be educated to the full extent of their mental capacity, no matter where they live or what the financial circumstances of their parents may be. Vocational training will be made a much more important part of the school work so that children may be prepared to earn a living by practical vocational instruction. The important place of our teachers in each community will be fully recognized.

11. Steps will be taken to assure that every child is given the greatest possible opportunity to face life with a healthy body and mind. Health measures will be established so that medical, dental and other health protection will be available to all.

12. Steps will be taken immediately to prepare plans for great public undertakings which will create employment in the period of readjustment immediately after the war.

Source: "Twenty-Two Point Plan", 1943, p. 5

EDUCATION MINISTER ANNOUNCES CHANGES IN SCHOOL CURRICULUM

FUNDAMENTAL CHANGES in the Ontario system of education, to be spread over a period of years, were announced by Hon. Dana Porter, Minister of Education and Attorney-General, in an address before the St. Thomas and Elgin teachers recently. The changes involve a complete revision of the curriculum for all elementary and high schools.

Of principle import is the fact that High School Entrance examination will be discontinued at the earliest possible date. Other features of the Porter Plan to give greater flexibility to Ontario's system of education are:

1. Reorganization of the present 13 grades into four divisions, primary, junior, intermediate and senior, to eliminate the marked dividing line between primary and secondary schools.

2. Organization of the primary grades, I to III, which would permit one teacher to have under her charge pupils of all three grades.

3. Under the Junior Division, Grades IV to VI, would remain with one teacher for approximately three years.

4. Pupils of Grade VII to X, comprising the Intermediate Division, would be given a well-rounded-out course enabling many of them to leave school at the age of 16, with a formal education that leaves them with a sense of achievement rather than failure.

5. The responsibility for the outlining of courses in elementary schools will be placed as much as possible at the local or municipal level, particularly so in the fields of social studies, science, art and related subjects.

(Continued on page 2)

Education Minister / Minister of Education
(Continued from page 1)

In view of the importance of Mr. Porter's announcement, the text of his address follows:

"Ever since I assumed the office of Minister of Education about one year ago, I have held discussions with respect to changes in the school curriculum. There are so many viewpoints to be considered and there could be so many complex repercussions in any drastic curriculum changes that progress must of necessity be slow. I think, however, that it is apparent to all that many changes are overdue. In some aspects of our school course, we are attempting to do too much. In other phases we have neglected some of the fundamentals. In coming to any decisions on this vastly important question, we must keep in mind always a general view of the objectives of our school system. To what extent should our courses treat with general knowledge and understanding? To what extent should they be designed to give training in special subjects? How can we best, by a proper combination of courses and by proper emphasis of a variety of subjects and of methods, move towards the mental discipline and the self-reliance and the ability to think that should be the residue when the years of school are over?"

"The great educational problem of modern times is one of mass education. According to our laws, we must be prepared to give every child up to the age of sixteen a sound foundation for living in the modern world. There are those who cling to the opinion that education is largely a matter of mental drill. Some uniformity of standards must be maintained if our certificates are to be worth anything. Every child is entitled to acquire a stock of knowledge that is common to all, as far as is humanly possible. It would appear, therefore, that there must be some measure of uniformity. But education can very easily become too highly regimented. Knowledge can to some extent be presented in a series of manuals and drill books. To some extent it is true that drill cannot be neglected. The habits of industry, of care, of concentration, are still just as fundamental to any system of education as they always have been in the past. No matter what new fields we may enter and no matter what new experiments we may try, all will be useless unless based upon a methodical approach. There is no real substitute for the hard grind, if we are to accomplish our main purposes.

"A school is much more than a drill hall. Education cannot be meted out in uniform doses. Uniform text books, uniform methods of teaching are a very easy approach to the training of the boys and girls who enter our schools, but if we stop there we fail to fulfil our task. Thus we merely attempt to give a sort of 'canned' education. By this means it is possible to instil a routine, an obedience, an acceptance and, with it all, an attitude of resignation. A person may become an efficient craftsman or a skilled worker in a routine system, as a result of such training. But would he become a useful citizen? Talents of leadership and creative ability may thereby be crushed. T. S. Eliot in his 'Notes on the Definition of Culture' said, 'For there is no doubt that in our headlong rush to educate everybody, we are lowering our standards and more and more abandoning the study of those subjects by which the essentials of our culture—of that part of it which is transmissible by education—are transmitted; destroying our ancient edifices to make ready the ground upon which the barbarian nomads of the future will encamp in their mechanized caravans.'

"It is a fact that should be significant to all of us that in the period of English History when literary society was at its zenith, the system of general education was fragmentary. Sir G. M. Trevelyan, in his 'English Social History' summed it up in this way. 'Yet in spite of the decadence of the only two Universities that then existed in England, in spite of the decay of the endowed schools specially charged with secondary education, the intellectual life of the country was even more brilliant, and the proportion of men of genius per head of population in the irregularly educated England of George III was immensely greater than in our own day. It would seem that the very highest products of the human mind are the outcome of chance and freedom and variety rather than of uniform organization; of the balance of town and country, rather than the dead weight of life in great cities; of literature, rather than of journalism; of arts and crafts

ADDRESS BY DANA PORTER (NOVEMBER 3, 1949)

APPENDIX I-E

Source: Ontario Government Services, Vol. 2, No. 17
Toronto: Queen's Park, November 15, 1949

"It is, therefore, important to endeavour to retain flexibility in our curriculum and flexibility in the teaching of the subjects in our curriculum. Education in the schools does not merely consist in the memorization of text books and the solution of problems in arithmetic and in science. The greatest part of education depends upon personality. The personality of the student is developed and nourished by contact with the personality of the teacher.

"In the elementary school programme that we have in mind, responsibility will be placed as much as possible at the local level for the outlining of the courses. This will be particularly so in the fields of social studies, science, art, and related subjects. The centres of interest which will form the basis of studies for elementary children in these fields will be closely related to the nature, needs, and resources of the community and to the experiences of the children in the communities in which they live. It must be obvious to everyone that in these studies the particular aspects which should receive emphasis in the early years and the type of expression which should be expected in art forms and in written composition should vary considerably as between the mining areas of northern Ontario, the industrial centres, and the agricultural communities. Local groups, however, will not be expected to prescribe courses in the basic skills of reading, arithmetic and handwriting. A vast amount of research in these fields has provided fairly conclusive evidence as to the materials that should be included and the methods which should be used in the teaching of these fundamental skills. The results of this research have been embodied in text books which are already on the market and in teachers' manuals which accompany these books. This is one example of the approach toward the double-headed problem of the fundamental drills on the one hand and the flexible requirements for the imaginative side on the other. It is proposed, for instance, to discontinue the authorization of readers in the first six Grades and to substitute the permissive use of a number of series of readers from which selections may be made by individual boards. The programme of teaching reading in the Normal Schools has already been modified, and readers recommended for use in the elementary schools will be available in order that graduates of the Normal Schools taking positions in September, 1950, will be familiar with them, and with the best method of presenting the material they contain.

"In considering this whole problem of revising the curriculum, we should view the whole school course from the beginning to the end as one long sequence of development. A complete revision of the curriculum for all the elementary and high schools is being planned. When you try to visualize what this change involves, you will readily conclude that it must come about gradually. It will involve many new problems that may arise on the way, and every change in one Grade will have its repercussions upon the curriculum in higher Grades. In order to avoid abrupt changes which might adversely affect the educational progress of the pupils, the revision will be spread over a period of years. Teacher-training courses will be adjusted to changes in the curriculum. Teachers in the schools will be informed well in advance, in order that they may reorganize their courses of study and methods of teaching. Changes considered radical will be tested with small groups before being introduced into the schools generally; but certain definite changes in line with the principles of this contemplated revision will come into effect in September, 1950.

"It is the considered opinion of the Department that the sharp contrast between the elementary school and the secondary school should be eliminated. We are fully aware that this exists at the present time and that it has been accentuated during recent years. The proposed revision will provide for courses to be continuous throughout the Grades. The High School Entrance examination will be discontinued at the earliest possible date. We are giving consideration to the means by which this can best be effected and the obvious difficulties overcome. There will be a redistribution of the teaching load in the High School Grades. At the present time you will agree, no doubt, that this is unequal. It is proposed to reduce the number of subjects in Grade IX and to transfer to Grades XI and XII some of the work at present assigned to Grade XIII.

"For purposes of curriculum, the present thirteen Grades will be reor-

"I. PRIMARY DIVISION (roughly equivalent to the present Grades I to III).

"II. JUNIOR DIVISION (equivalent to Grades IV to VI).

"III. INTERMEDIATE DIVISION (comprising the present Grades VII to X).

"IV. SENIOR DIVISION (Grades XI to XIII).

"I shall comment upon the first three. Plans for the Senior Division have not yet been completed."

I. PRIMARY DIVISION (Grades I to III).

"Consideration will be given to an organization of the primary grades which would permit one teacher to have under her charge pupils of all three grades. A class might then consist of from eight to ten pupils of each of the age groups, six-year, seven-year, eight-year, who would remain with the one teacher approximately three years. Under such an organization from eight to ten pupils would move on to the next division (Junior Division) each year while from eight to ten beginners from kindergarten, or directly from home, would enter the class. By such an organization rigid grade limits can be broken down and it is hoped that much of the wastage at present resulting from retardation may be avoided.

"For subjects such as reading, writing and arithmetic, it will be possible to organize the class into a small number of groups, each group of children having relatively the same degree of attainment. It will be possible thus for a six-year-old who is a superior reader to become a member of a more advanced reading group, or for an eight-year-old who is backward in arithmetic to work with a less advanced group in that subject, while working with his own age group in the other activities of the class.

"Many of the activities of the class might be engaged in by all pupils, children of all age groups participating together. The tasks required and the degree of attainment expected would vary with the age, aptitudes and abilities, of the children, more being expected from the older, more experienced and more able pupils.

"Such an organization approximates conditions which obtain in the ordinary life of children out of school where children within a relatively narrow range of variation of age normally engage in the same play activities. This organization will provide a useful means of providing for individual differences and varying rates of attainment. It will at the same time make possible an enriched programme for the more able children while they retain their membership in their own age group with children of their own degree of social development.

"It is confidently expected to enlist the co-operation of a few local school boards in experimental testing of this form of organization during the coming year."

II. JUNIOR DIVISION (Grades IV to VI).

"An organization of the Junior Division similar to that proposed for the Primary Division is suggested, where such is feasible. A class would consist of from 24 to 30 pupils in which approximately one-third of the pupils come from each of the age levels 9, 10, and 11. Under such an organization the pupils would remain with one teacher for approximately three years.

"One great advantage of this organization is that it will materially lessen the need for remedial programmes in such subjects as reading and arithmetic at a later stage. These programmes are, in effect, an admission that the work of the earlier grades has been inadequate. Remedial programmes aim to repair damage after breakdown has occurred; but the attention of the curriculum builder should be given to preventing any such breakdown."

III. INTERMEDIATE DIVISION (Grades VII to X).

"The curriculum for the Intermediate Division will be designed as a unit

Courses are offered in one building or several, or whether part of the work is taken in elementary schools and part in High Schools.

"At the present time there is an arbitrary break between Grades VIII and IX which prevents proper articulation between the elementary and secondary levels. This artificial barrier to proper articulation will be removed with the discontinuance of the Entrance Examination.

"About 46 per cent. of our pupils leave school by the time they attain the age of sixteen and for these pupils a well rounded-out course must be provided, if only that they may finish formal schooling with a sense of achievement rather than of failure.

"For those pupils who are likely to remain in school and to enter the Senior Division, the Intermediate Division provides an exploratory period in which most pupils will select the course in which they expect to specialize. The curriculum at this stage must provide not only a core of material required by all pupils but a range of optional subjects for the purpose of exploration as well. It must also provide vocational subjects for those pupils who have already decided to enter business and industry at the age of sixteen."

METHOD OF REVISION.

"The courses of study which will be prepared and issued by the Department will be in general terms. They will indicate the objectives to be attained and the principles to be followed. Rigid, detailed courses of study will not be provided. The responsibility for filling in the details of the various courses will rest at the local level, and it is anticipated that this will be accomplished through wide participation in the construction of courses of study by groups of teachers and inspectors in co-operation with other professionally competent persons selected by local authorities.

"This outline should indicate our general approach towards curriculum changes, and the general purposes that we think should be held in view. There will, of course, be many special changes in various subjects of the curriculum. It is not my intention to outline these in detail. Many decisions in this respect have not yet been settled. We have, however, definitely reached these broad decisions as indicated, and within the scope of this more or less flexible outline other changes from time to time may be fitted in. One recognizes that education is not static. It is a continuous growth. It must reflect changing needs and changing conditions and yet, in view of all this, we must not fear to cling to certain immutable fundamentals that do not change even in swift-moving times. As an example of what we have in mind, I might mention contemplated changes with respect to the teaching of geography. It is proposed to discontinue the authorization of the Public School Geography which is at present in use. For generations, our study of geography in the schools has presented to the pupil the picture of Canada as a land of inexhaustible wealth. It is natural that this viewpoint should have been emphasized. The impression conveyed has been sanguine and comforting. Indeed, it may have contributed to an attitude of undue complacency as a result of which people have become profligate in their exploitation of our natural resources. We have overlooked almost entirely the great and absorbing problem of conserving these resources while making the proper use of them. Pupils read of our illimitable forests, our unlimited mineral wealth and the inexhaustible fertility of our soil and of our rivers and lakes teeming with fish. The pupil has not been told, however, that if you burn up your forests or cut them down without making adequate provision for their regrowth, the whole economy suffers. He has not been taught that when streams dry up because of deforestation and rivers and lakes are polluted, wild life suffers and game fish cease to exist. These and many closely related questions may be now treated with a new and more realistic approach. The subject of conservation shall be given sufficient space so that the children now in our schools may have some appreciation of this whole fascinating subject. In addition to this, it is considered desirable to introduce instruction in map reading as part of the geography classes. Until now, map reading has been generally considered of importance for military purposes only. It is a most appropriate practical branch of the subject of geography. It will enable pupils, in a very definite way, to relate the principles of geography to their own neighbourhood, and, incidentally, it will lay a foundation of practice and knowledge which may be very useful in many civilian pursuits or, if the necessity arises, in military activities as well."

(Continued on page 4)

Education Minister Announces Changes in School Curriculum

(Continued from page 3)

"With this new approach to the curriculum, we hope that some progress will be made towards solving the baffling problems of mass education; of retaining the essential fundamentals that apply to all, yet avoiding a regimentation that may stifle the imagination. We should endeavour to provide sufficiently for those pupils who are not academically brilliant, but who may look forward to varied and solid achievement. At the same time, we must do something to encourage, to stimulate and to give incentive to those with the more brilliant minds and the rarer talents of genius who are so precious to our civilization. We should try, by every means in our power, to avoid allowing our system of mass education to deteriorate into mediocrity and when Trevelyan says, 'but even if the future can never again produce giants like Burke, Gibbon and Johnson, let alone Milton, Newton and Wren, the number of educated people capable of enjoying an intellectual life of some kind may yet be greater than in the past,' let us not resign ourselves to this fate. It may not be possible to have both, but let us not lose sight of the danger of suppressing potential genius by spreading education too thin. More than at any time in the history of the world, responsibility rests upon the teaching profession—a responsibility of a new and more complex kind. You are attempting to give guidance to the many, and you are expected to recognize the special needs and to give special attention to the few."



ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION



MEMORANDUM

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REVISION OF CURRICULUM

It was announced recently that plans for a revision of the Curriculum were being made by the Department of Education, and it was stated that teachers and others concerned would be informed of the proposed changes well in advance.

The following pages contain a statement of changes that have been decided upon, and indicate the lines along which further changes will probably be made.

Dana Porter
Minister of Education

Toronto,
December 10, 1949

REVISION OF CURRICULUM

It was recently announced that a revision of the curriculum for Ontario schools is being planned by the Department of Education. This revision will become effective over a period of years in order that abrupt changes which might adversely affect the educational progress of the pupils may be avoided.

Many features of the revised curriculum have been suggested by experimental work undertaken in Ontario and elsewhere. Certain of the proposed changes will be given further testing with small groups before being introduced into the schools generally. Valuable criticisms of existing conditions and useful suggestions and advice regarding desirable changes have already been received from the Ontario Teachers' Federation which has generously undertaken to provide further assistance of this sort. The Ontario School Inspectors' Association is offering its research services, particularly in connection with the problem of the better articulation of the grades in the Intermediate Division.

Changes to take effect in September, 1950, are indicated below.

I. PERMISSIVE USE OF TEXTBOOKS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

- (a) The authorization of the readers at present in use for Grades I to VI will be discontinued as of June 30, 1950.
- (b) Permissive use of the series of Readers for Grades I to III (Primary Division) and Grades IV to VI (Junior Division) listed in the attached schedule is approved. Other series, if found appropriate and suitable, will be added to the list from time to time.
- (c) Pupils will not be required to buy these books.
- (d) School boards will be required to provide readers in numbers sufficient for the use of the pupils. One basic reading series should be selected. Boards should make their selec-

tion after consultation with teachers, principals, and inspectors concerned. Selection should be made early in 1950, so that teachers may become acquainted with the readers and the accompanying manuals before the readers are presented to the pupils. A sufficient number of books from other series to provide supplementary reading may be chosen if desired. Books will be retained in the school, and with proper care should last for many years.

- (e) Legislative grants on expenditures for the purchase of these books will be paid by the Department of Education at the rate applicable to the board concerned, regardless of the "ceiling".
- (f) Regulations will be amended to provide for the above changes.
- (g) The financial statement for 1950, and the grant form for the year 1951, will be amended to provide for the inclusion of these expenditures in a special category.
- (h) Students attending the Provincial Normal Schools, and students attending the Ontario College of Education who take the public school option, will have special instruction in the use of the new approved readers from January to June, 1950.
- (i) Teachers attending summer courses in Education, Auxiliary Education, Primary Methods, the Normal School summer sessions, and refresher courses will receive instruction in the new reading programme.
- (j) Authorization of the Ontario Public School Geography is discontinued. Permissive use of certain modern geography text-books will be approved, and the titles will be announced at an early date. Consideration will be given to the listing of new books in English and Social Studies and an announcement regarding them will be made at a later date.
- (k) Following the usual practice of the Department, the use of the readers and the Ontario Public School Geography at present authorized will be permitted for one year after the termination of the authorization, on resolution of the school board.

II. DIVISIONS OF THE CURRICULUM

The revised curriculum will provide for four Divisions.

- Primary Division —roughly equivalent to the present Grades I to III.
- Junior Division —equivalent to Grades IV to VI.
- Intermediate Division—equivalent to Grades VII to X.
- Senior Division —Grades XI to XIII.

PRIMARY DIVISION

- (a) Tentative revision of the curriculum for the Primary Division will be made and will be in the hands of the teachers before the close of the present school year.
- (b) This revision will make possible an organization which will permit one teacher to have under her charge pupils of all three grades. A class may then consist of from eight to ten pupils of each of the age groups, six-year, seven-year, eight-year, who will remain with the one teacher approximately three years. Under such an organization from eight to ten pupils will move on to the next division (Junior Division) each year while from eight to ten beginners from kindergarten, or directly from home, will enter the class.
- (c) Certain boards will be asked to establish this organization on an experimental basis in a limited way in September, 1950. Other boards who wish to adopt the new organization at that time may do so, after consultation with the inspector and with his approval.
- (d) After the results of the experimental classes are known it is expected that this organization will be used generally where the board considers it feasible and desirable. Where it is not practicable to adopt this form of organization, the revised curriculum will permit an organization of the course as at present but rigid grade limits should be broken down, and much of the wastage at present resulting from retardation should be avoided.

- (e) The revised curriculum is designed to remedy two defects of the present system of organization which have been repeatedly drawn to the attention of the Department by school inspectors, teachers, and others:

(i) There is unnecessary retardation of pupils who are held in one grade for a year's time and are then required to repeat a grade. Many children are able to complete the work of a grade in 6, 7 or 8 months. These children should be allowed to proceed without waiting for the end of the school year. Some children cannot complete the work of a grade in the 10 months of the school year but could complete it in 12 or 14 or 16 months. These pupils should be allowed to proceed at their own rate and undertake the work of the next grade when they are ready to do so.

(ii) It has been found that many pupils in the higher grades have serious reading defects. Expensive and cumbersome programmes of remedial reading have been advocated to correct these defects. The organization of the Primary Division as outlined, the provision of adequate graded reading material in the Primary and Junior Divisions, and the use of modern methods of teaching should go a long way to prevent such difficulties from arising.

- (f) For subjects such as reading, writing, and arithmetic, the class may be organized into a small number of groups, each group of children having relatively the same degree of attainment. A six-year-old who is a superior reader may then become a member of a more advanced reading group, or an eight year-old who is backward in arithmetic may work with a less advanced group in that subject, while working with his own age group in the other activities of the class.
- (g) Most of the other activities of the class may be engaged in by all pupils, children of all age groups participating together. The task required and the degree of attainment expected will vary with the age, aptitudes and abilities, of the children, more being expected from the older, more experienced and more able pupils.

- (h) The proposed organization approximates conditions which obtain in the ordinary life of children out of school. There, children within a relatively narrow range of variation of age normally engage in the same play activities. The new Primary Division offers a useful means of providing for individual differences and varying rates of attainment. It will at the same time make possible an enriched programme for the more able children while they retain their membership in their own age group along with children of their own degree of social development.

- (i) Activities in written English, Social Studies, Science, and Art, and the instruction to be given in Health, should be outlined by teachers, or groups of teachers, with the advice of the inspector, to meet local conditions and the needs of the pupils.

JUNIOR DIVISION

It is proposed that a similar organization for the Junior Division will be made where such an organization is feasible but it will not be required for the school year beginning in September, 1950.

INTERMEDIATE DIVISION

- (a) The curriculum for the Intermediate Division will be designed as a unit for pupils of the age range of 12 to 16 years.
- (b) No change in the administration of public, separate, or high schools is required to implement this revision.
- (c) The purpose of the revision in these grades will be:
- (i) to overcome the barrier to proper articulation between Grades 8 and 9 which now exists;
- (ii) to provide a well-rounded course for the pupils who leave school by the time they reach the age of sixteen so that they may finish formal schooling with a sense of achievement rather than of failure;

- (iii) to provide an exploratory period in which pupils who are likely to remain in school and to enter the Senior Division will select the course in which they expect to specialize.
- (d) The High School Entrance Examination is discontinued at once. A later announcement will be made regarding the mode of promoting Grade VIII pupils in June, 1950.
- (e) The full revision of the courses in the Intermediate Division cannot go into effect until the revisions of the Primary and Junior Divisions are operative, but some modification of the course in Grade 7, to become effective in September, 1950, may be expected and a later announcement regarding this will be made.
- (f) Through an increased range of choice in Grades IX and X, pupils will be afforded a wider opportunity for exploring subject fields, and principals will be given more freedom in time-table construction. Commencing in September, 1950, the number of obligatory subjects in Grade IX will be reduced to English, Social Studies, Mathematics, Physical and Health Education, and Guidance. It will be possible, therefore, for principals so to arrange time-tables in Grades IX and X that each pupil, if he so desires, will have the opportunity of covering a range of optional subjects prior to making a selection of specialized courses in Grade XI. In practically all of these optional courses, a course taken in Grade X will not necessarily be dependent upon a course in the same subject taken in Grade IX. It will be possible to arrange independent and parallel courses in a subject, which may be taken singly in either or both grades, or used in rotation in the smaller schools where it is necessary to combine pupils of both grades in an optional subject.
- (g) In Vocational Schools, principals may offer in Grade IX any combination of the practical subjects which are basic to the specialized Industrial, Agricultural, Home Economics, Commercial or Art Courses, provided the time allotment to such subjects meets the minimum requirements set by the regulations. Moreover, with the approval of the Minister, a school may organize special two-year courses in Grades IX and X for pupils who intend to enter business or industry at age 16.

- (h) The success of the reorganization of the curriculum of the Intermediate Division will depend on the full co-operation of the teachers of Grades IX and X and the teachers of Grades VII and VIII. It will be necessary for the teachers of each grade to appreciate what is being attempted in each of the other grades. Frequent conferences of the teachers concerned will be necessary, and the fact that Grades VII and VIII may be conducted in Public and Separate Schools while Grades IX and X are conducted in Secondary Schools must not be permitted to hinder harmony and understanding.

SENIOR DIVISION

Immediate steps will be taken to distribute more equitably over Grades XI, XII, and XIII the weight of prescribed work in the courses leading to Upper School Examinations for the Secondary School Honour Graduation Diploma and for entrance requirements to Normal Schools and University Courses. Fuller details of modifications in the subject courses of Grade XI for the school year 1950-51, to implement this suggested change, will be issued later.

III. INCREASED EMPHASIS ON CONSERVATION AND MAP READING

(Intermediate and Senior Divisions)

The proper use and conservation of our natural resources of forest, farm and water supply is a matter of pressing importance in our economy. The need has been impressed upon the Department of Education of turning out graduates from our schools who have a favourable attitude to the problems of conservation and who will have some knowledge of means that can be employed. It is obvious that conservation cannot be added to the curriculum as a separate and distinct subject, but it is necessary to include in the revised courses adequate information and suitable activities to develop the desired favourable attitude. This

will involve the inclusion of suitable material in the courses in Mathematics, English, Social Studies, Geography, History, Science and Agriculture and this problem is now under consideration.

The care and management of the farm woodlot will form an important topic, particularly in rural areas, and the pupils should be given some idea of the Mathematics required as suggested in the report of the Ontario Royal Commission on Forestry. The courses in Geography and History will be modified to make pupils aware of the effect of the devastation of forests on our water supply, the water table, the supply of wild life, and the productivity of the soil. The causes, effects, and the prevention of erosion will be considered in the Science courses and specific instruction regarding the maintenance of the fertility of the soil will be provided in the courses in Agriculture.

Specific reference will be made to localities in Ontario which have suffered through forest depletion and soil erosion; and consideration will be given to possible methods of repairing the damage which has been done. Pupils will be made aware of methods at present employed for the preservation of our forest resources and study will be made in the localities affected, of proposed River Valley Developments, their aims, and the plans that have already been established.

The subject of map reading is closely related to the study of conservation. It is proposed to introduce this study as a part of the courses in Social Studies and Geography at the appropriate grade levels. (The maps of the National Topographic Series will be used,—scale: 1" to the mile, where they are available, and, scale: 2" to the mile, in those parts of Ontario that have not yet been provided with 1" to the mile maps. Maps on scale of 1" to the mile are available for most of southern Ontario.) It is expected that the map reading will include considerable work in the field and for this purpose a knowledge of the use of a simple compass will be required.

Steps have been taken to include instruction in Conservation and Map Reading in the Normal Schools and the College of Education. By the end of June, 1950, 1,500 teachers who have given consideration to the increased emphasis on conservation and who have been trained in map reading will be added to those now in service who are already equipped to carry on this work. Instruction in conservation and in map reading will also be offered in the summer courses to be held in the summer of 1950.

IV. REMOVAL OF OBSOLETE MATERIAL

It is plain that additions cannot be made to a curriculum that is already overloaded unless relief is provided in other directions. Topics that have become obsolete or of minor importance will be removed from the courses and every effort will be made to keep the requirements of the curriculum within manageable proportions.

Toronto, December 10, 1949

The Curriculum

16. We do not propose to outline in detail the curricula and courses of study for the reorganized educational system. We do not think it desirable for us to attempt this task; and we are convinced that, if our schools are to meet individual needs, the curricula and courses of study should be suggestive rather than narrowly prescriptive, and should be developed through co-operative effort by all who are concerned with the educational development of the child. This method of procedure is necessary if we are to promote in our schools that spirit of initiative, experiment and co-operation which should characterize education in a democracy.

17. We consider it desirable, however, to provide some guidance to those whose responsibility it will be to formulate the detailed arrangement of curricula and courses of study. Accordingly, we indicate the general nature of a programme which we believe will realize the aims of education which we have outlined. In doing so, we have considered the educational system as a whole; we have excepted only the programmes of special education and the adaptations of the programme for those elementary schools in which French will be a subject of study and language of instruction and communication with the permission of the Minister of Education, to which special attention will be given later. Within these limits, we present the broad outlines of curricula for each stage of the reorganized educational system.

(p. 106)

55. We therefore recommend

- (a) that, to the extent feasible, a policy of gradual decentralization of the internal of education be initiated, with increasing control of such items as curricula, courses of study, textbooks, supervision of instruction, and the establishment and operation of special services being delegated to local education authorities administering local school units of such size as to warrant the possession of such comprehensive powers and duties;

- (b) that, to the extent feasible, the control of such externa as the business administration of schools, the provision of satisfactory post-elementary education, the provision of a sufficient number of schools, the enforcement of statutory provisions for compulsory attendance, the transportation of pupils, or services in lieu thereof, the financing of the minimum programme, and capital expenditure remain decentralized from the standpoint of the central authority, but be centralized under the control of such local education authorities.

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ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
RE: PROMOTION FROM GRADE VIII
AND ADMISSION TO GRADE IX

APPENDIX I:H

Promotion From Grade VIII and Admission to Grade IX

The immediate discontinuance of the High School Entrance Examination was announced in *Memorandum re Revision of Curriculum (Curriculum 1)* dated December 10, 1949, and an announcement regarding the method of promoting pupils from Grade VIII in June, 1950, was promised.

The procedure for promoting pupils of Grade VIII of the public and separate schools to Grade IX and the admission of pupils to Grade IX is outlined in the following statement.

PROMOTION FROM GRADE VIII

1. Promotions of pupils of a public or separate school will be made by the principal of that school subject to revision by the inspector. This is in accordance with Section 9 (2) (b) of the General Regulations for Public and Separate Schools (Ontario Regulations 95/45 as amended by O.Reg 112/49), which reads as follows:

- 9.—(2) Subject to revision by the inspector, the principal shall,—
(b) promote pupils from one grade to another.

2. The prime consideration which should govern the principal in recommending the promotion of a pupil is whether the best interests of the pupil will be served by his promotion. The principal must decide in the light of his knowledge of the pupil whether it will be better for him to proceed to Grade IX or to remain in Grade VIII.

3



ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT
OF
EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

Re PROMOTION from GRADE VIII
and ADMISSION to GRADE IX

CURRICULUM : 2
40,000-MARCH, 1950

3. Each principal will prepare a list of promoted pupils to be submitted through the inspector to the secondary school principal. It is desirable that this list should indicate the teachers' estimate of each pupil's ability in the various school subjects of Grade VIII and provide any pertinent information regarding the pupil which is in the possession of the elementary school principal and would be of use to the teachers of Grade IX in advising the pupil as to the programme he should follow.

4. The promotion list submitted to the inspector by the principal of the elementary school should be accompanied by a list of the pupils not promoted. The inspector should scrutinize carefully all cases of non-promoted pupils to assure himself that the best interests of these pupils will be served by remaining in Grade VIII, and after consultation with the principal, the promotion list should be revised, if necessary.

5. The secondary school principal should arrange to provide as much information as possible for the teachers of Grade VIII regarding the courses and options which his school is prepared to offer. This information should be made available to the pupils and their parents to assist them in choosing the most suitable available programme.

6. Elementary school inspectors and secondary school principals concerned should consult regarding the most convenient method of providing the principal of the secondary school with the required information regarding pupils in his high school district who have been promoted to Grade IX.

7. Each pupil who is promoted from Grade VIII to Grade IX shall be given by his principal a statement or a completed report card showing clearly that the pupil has been promoted. Pupils should be directed to retain this statement for presentation to the principal of the Grade IX which they will enter.

8. No report will be required by the Department of Education of pupils who are promoted from Grade VIII to Grade IX but it is considered important that accurate records of promotions be retained in each school for future reference. The use of Exam. Forms 14 and 14a "Principal's Report on Standing of Candidates for High School Entrance Examination" is discontinued.

ADMISSION TO GRADE IX

1. (a) A pupil who has been promoted from Grade VIII to Grade IX in the manner outlined above shall be admitted to Grade IX.
- (b) Pupils of private schools, pupils from outside Ontario, and other special cases, shall be admitted to Grade IX after the principal has satisfied himself that the applicant is competent to undertake the work of that grade.

This is in accordance with Section 17 of The High Schools Amendment Act, 1950.

2. No report of pupils admitted to Grade IX by the secondary school principal will be required by the Department of Education, but record of such admissions should be made in the school.

3. Some school boards have already made arrangements for the reception by the secondary school on the last two school days of June of pupils promoted to Grade IX. These promoted pupils will be conducted to the secondary school by an elementary school teacher. The secondary school principal will arrange for members of his staff to show the pupils the various departments of the school and to explain the work offered in these departments.

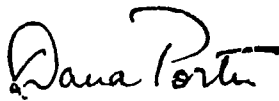
4. After he has had time to make an intelligent choice, the pupil should be required to indicate his choice of courses and options offered in a written statement, and this statement should be signed by the pupil's parent.

5. It may be expected that in some cases pupils may be promoted prematurely. The principal of the secondary school and the elementary school inspectors should form a committee to study such cases and to consider what action should be taken to improve the situation for the next year.

6. It may also be expected that some pupils will enter Grade IX for whom the present courses offered in Grade IX will not be suitable. It will be the duty of the principal and staff of the secondary school to arrange programmes that will meet the needs of these pupils.

7. In order that a unified and continuous programme may be provided in The Intermediate Division it would seem advisable that curriculum committees consisting of teachers of Grades VII, VIII, IX, and X should be established. Such

committees have already been organized on an experimental basis in a number of centres. A further statement regarding the establishment of curriculum committees will be issued at a later date.


Minister of Education

Toronto, March 30, 1950.



ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT
OF
EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

Re ESTABLISHMENT OF LOCAL COMMITTEES ON CURRICULUM

CURRICULUM: 3

40,000 — MAY, 1950
10,000 — JULY, 1950
5,000 — APR., 1960

Ministry of Education, Ontario
Historical Collection

Establishment of Local Committees on Curriculum

The establishment of local curriculum committees consisting of teachers of Grades 7 and 8 and of Grades 9 and 10 was referred to in Memorandum re Promotion from Grade VIII and Admission to Grade IX (Curriculum: 2), dated March 30, 1950. Such committees have already been organized in a number of centres. The following statement outlines the functions that curriculum committees may be expected to perform and describes a suggested procedure for their organization. Although the procedure of organizing local curriculum committees may vary with different localities, the simplest and most convenient unit of organization will be that which includes a Secondary School and the Elementary Schools, both Public and Separate, from which the Secondary School draws its pupils. For each local unit there should be established:

- (a) a Coordinating Committee;
- (b) Teachers' Committees.

FUNCTION OF THE COORDINATING COMMITTEE

The function of the Coordinating Committee will be:

- (a) to appoint local curriculum committees consisting of teachers of Grades 7 and 8 and of Grades 9 and 10;
- (b) to refer to these committees problems related to local curriculum planning;

- (c) to make arrangements for the meeting of such committees;
- (d) to call general meetings of teachers concerned for the purpose of receiving and discussing reports submitted by the committees;
- (e) to arrange for the coordination of courses of study into a unified and continuous programme;
- (f) to recommend to the boards concerned the administrative steps required to give effect to changes finally agreed upon.

CONSTITUTION OF THE COORDINATING COMMITTEE

1. In cities with supervisory officials, the following administrative officials shall be members of the Coordinating Committee:

- (a) the Director of Education;
- (b) the Superintendent of Secondary Schools (or the Principals of Secondary Schools);
- (c) the Superintendent of Public Schools (or the Inspectors of Public Schools);
- (d) the Inspectors of Separate Schools.

2. In other centres, the following administrative officials shall be members of the Coordinating Committee:

- (a) the Principal(s) of the Secondary School(s);
- (b) the Inspectors of the Public Schools and of the Separate Schools from which the Secondary School draws the majority of its pupils.

3. There may also be appointed to the Coordinating Committee, as constituted above and at its discretion, additional members who will represent:

- (a) Principals of the Public and the Separate Schools;
- (b) teachers of Grades 7 and 8 of the Public and the Separate Schools, and of Grades 9 and 10 of the Secondary Schools;
- (c) local units of the affiliates of the Ontario Teachers' Federation.

FUNCTION OF TEACHERS' COMMITTEES

1. The chief function of teachers' curriculum committees is the planning of local instructional programmes for the Intermediate Division. The work of these committees will vary in nature according to the needs of the community, and the scope of work undertaken by each committee will depend upon the problem assigned. The most common assignment will be the construction or revision of detailed courses of study for the various grades. The work of a committee, however, may include such problems as the planning of a guidance or a health programme, the improvement of handwriting in schools, or the preparation of source material for teaching such topics as conservation. In some of this work, a committee may find it advantageous to enlist the services of persons outside the teaching profession through cooperation with organizations in the community representing the home, business, industry, agriculture, or labour.

2. Since the curriculum should be understood to include all the experiences and activities in which pupils participate

under the direction of the school, it is the function of each curriculum committee to relate its work to the programme as a whole. Local committees of teachers will be able to take advantage of the many opportunities for coordinating subject instruction. For example, through coordinated planning, a field trip may combine the topic of soil erosion in Science with map using in Social Studies; a report of the trip may be used as an exercise in English Composition; and the exercise out-of-doors will provide opportunities for Physical Education.

3. It is the responsibility of curriculum committees to keep detailed courses of study well balanced and within reasonable limits. Topics which have become obsolete or which have little application to the life of the pupil should be omitted from courses. Problems of minor interest to the community should be replaced by those of more pressing importance.

4. Curriculum committees may help teachers to improve their instruction by providing them with valuable teaching aids through:

- (a) organization of typical units of instruction;
- (b) preparation of source material on special topics related to more than one subject;
- (c) selection of reference books and materials;
- (d) evaluation of films and film strips;
- (e) investigation of material within the community which may be used to make the programme of instruction more realistic and of more immediate interest.

REFERENCE BOOKS ON CURRICULUM PLANNING

Curriculum committees may obtain helpful suggestions from recently published reference books such as the following, which have been found useful. More complete bibliographies are suggested in several of these books.

Krug: Curriculum Planning. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1950.

Jersild: Child Development and the Curriculum. Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, 1946.

Ministry of Education (England): School and Life. H. M. Stationery Office, London, 1947.

Yearbooks of Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D.C.

1944—Toward a New Curriculum

1945—Group Planning in Education

1946—Leadership Through Supervision

1947—Organizing the Elementary School

1948—Large Was Our Bounty

1949—Toward Better Teaching

1950—Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools



Minister of Education

May 15, 1950.

FOREWORD

The *Memorandum re Establishment of Local Committees on Curriculum* (Curriculum : 3), dated May 15, 1950, gave directions and suggestions to provide for the revision of courses within a local school system by a Coordinating Committee and Teachers' Committees. To assist these Committees in their work, the accompanying circular contains a statement of objectives for the revision of the curriculum in the Intermediate Division, and suggestive outlines of courses of study in certain subjects for Grade VII.

In the preparation of these outlines, recommendations received from the Ontario Teachers' Federation and the Ontario Educational Association were given consideration. The suggested courses are based on modern educational thought and practice in Canada and elsewhere. They were prepared by committees of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association comprising inspectors of Elementary and Secondary Schools and the representatives from the staffs of the Ontario College of Education.

The outlines are not prescriptive, and detailed prescriptive courses will not be issued by the Department of Education. They are designed solely to help Teachers' Committees in drawing up courses of study suited to their particular communities by indicating a general field for study in a given subject, and by providing an example and a basis for discussion.

For the year commencing September, 1950, a school board has permission to use the following types of courses under the circumstances stated:

1. Where a Teachers' Committee has completed its work of drawing up a course of study, such course may be used on the recommendation of the Coordinating Committee;
2. After the necessary modifications have been made by Teachers' Committees to suit local conditions, the suggested outlines, or any one or more of them, may be used on an experimental basis on the recommendation of the Coordinating Committee;

3. Where a Teachers' Committee has not proceeded far enough in its work to recommend its own course or changes in the suggested outlines, the suggested outlines submitted herewith may be used with the approval of the elementary school inspector.

Where a school board does not make use of the foregoing permission, the present authorized course shall be followed.



Minister of Education

Toronto,
June 15, 1950.

FOREWORD BY DANA PORTER: EXCERPTS FROM CURRICULUM
GUIDELINES FOR INTERMEDIATE DIV (June 15, 1950)

APPENDIX I:J

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OBJECTIVES FOR THE REVISION OF THE CURRICULUM IN THE INTERMEDIATE DIVISION

In the revision of the curriculum for the Intermediate Division, the chief aim is to provide a programme for Grades VII, VIII, IX and X which will be

- (a) unified and continuous,
- (b) adaptable to the individual differences of pupils ranging in age from 12 to 16 years, and
- (c) suited to the needs of the local community.

Unity and Continuity

A recent survey in Ontario indicated that out of all pupils entering the elementary schools approximately 56% continue their education to the end of Grade X, but that only 21% complete Grade XII. Many pupils in Grade IX start four-year courses which they do not finish, and in many cases they drop out of school with a sense of frustration or failure. It is apparent, therefore, that Grade X, instead of Grade VIII, should be recognized as the end of a definite stage in the school education of the majority of pupils.

By grouping Grades VII to X in a single Division of the Curriculum, a unified and continuous programme can be designed for these grades to meet the needs of pupils in the age range of 12 to 16 years and to provide a well-rounded course for pupils who may leave school at the end of Grade X. One of the artificial barriers to continuity has been removed by the abolition of the High School Entrance Examination. The extent to which the programme of the Intermediate Division can be unified and coordinated will depend upon the degree of cooperation between teachers of Grade VII and VIII in the Public and the Separate Schools and teachers of Grades IX and X in the Secondary Schools. In a local school system, it is essential that teachers of one grade be familiar with what is being done in each of the

other grades, and that teachers of one subject know what teachers of other subjects are trying to accomplish. Sharing responsibility for constructing courses of study is an effective means of achieving this objective.

Individual Differences

One of the aims of the school programme is to provide for each individual those activities which are adapted to his particular capacities and in which he may participate with reasonable success and satisfaction.

Pupils in the age group of 12 to 16 years possess a wide range of abilities and interests which must be given opportunities for trial and growth. It is during this adolescent period also that many pupils develop strong vocational interests, and it is important that these pupils find in the school curriculum opportunities to pursue courses related to these interests.

To meet the demands arising from these individual differences, the curriculum of the Intermediate Division should be kept flexible and diversified. In Grades VII and VIII, individual differences may be met through a variety of activities within the common course offered to all pupils. While this principle will apply also to the obligatory subjects of Grades IX and X, further opportunities for meeting individual differences will be afforded in these grades through optional subjects and special courses.

Community Needs

School programmes should be designed to meet the needs of the local community and so to appeal to the immediate interests of the pupils. School and community life should be closely linked, and local situations should be used to illustrate school instruction. The pupil's own community is the best place to get at first hand an understanding of his physical and social environment. Through this understanding of the physical, economic, and social relationships in his own community lies the surest way to his understanding of the wider relationships between the present and the past, and between our country and the rest of the world.

To achieve these objectives, the responsibility for constructing detailed programmes has been placed on local authorities. Local curriculum committees consisting of teachers of Grades VII, VIII, IX and X are well qualified to assume this responsibility.

Their ideas arising from daily experience in school will contribute to the practical success of the programme. They will also be able continually to evaluate and revise their courses of study on the basis of actual use and experiment.

Freedom within wide limits to construct courses of study has been used with success in many parts of Ontario. Such programmes, designed to meet local needs, have been effective in holding the interest of pupils, decreasing the number of pupils dropping out of school, and improving the quality of community life. Curriculum planning by local committees of teachers will extend these beneficial results and will enable schools to provide more realistic and interesting courses.

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAMME

The programme of the Intermediate Division should be designed as a unit for pupils of the age range of 12 to 16 years. To meet the needs of these adolescent pupils along the lines suggested in the objectives of the curriculum for the Intermediate Division, the organization of the school programme in this division should include

- (a) obligatory subjects.
- (b) optional subjects and courses, and
- (c) special courses.

Obligatory Subjects

It is recommended that a common, general course be offered to all pupils in Grades VII and VIII, with special adaptations to meet individual differences within a class group. In Grades IX and X, part of the programme should consist of obligatory subjects containing the common learnings and experiences which make up a well-rounded general education for pupils of this age-group. The time allotted to these obligatory subjects would be approximately 60% of the total in Grade IX, and 40% in Grade X. The remaining time should be allotted to the optional subjects, but the courses in such subjects should be kept general in character in order that they, too, may contribute to the general education of the pupils selecting them.

Optional Subjects and Courses in Grades IX and X

The number of optional subjects offered will depend upon the facilities of the school, the qualifications of the staff, and the limitations imposed by the maintenance of an economical pupil-teacher ratio. In Vocational and Composite Schools, optional courses as well as optional subjects should be made available in these grades. In order that pupils may have as wide a choice as

possible, even in smaller schools, it is suggested that certain optional subjects be offered on a two-year rotation plan. A course of study in Science, Art, Music, Agriculture, Home Economics, Shop Work, or Commercial Work need not be dependent upon the course of the preceding year in the same subject. The offering of alternate, parallel courses in each of these subjects on a rotation plan will not only simplify timetable organization, but also will enable a pupil to choose the subject in either or both grades. Under this arrangement, some pupils may select in Grade IX the subjects in which they have decided to specialize in the Senior Division, other pupils may explore several subject fields before making a final choice, and pupils who are required to repeat a subject need not repeat the same course content.

Special Courses for pupils who intend to leave school at age 16

Where a sufficient number of pupils indicate their intention of leaving school at the end of Grade X, a school may organize special courses adapted to the needs of such pupils. In addition to appropriate work in English, Social Studies, Elementary Mathematics and Physical Education, these courses should comprise considerable training in those skills which, together with related information, are basic to homemaking, agriculture, business, or apprenticeship in the industrial trades. Such courses may also contain options in music (vocal or instrumental), in art, and in a variety of crafts.

Since these special courses must be organized by local curriculum committees to meet specific needs, they will necessarily vary in subject content. In every case, however, it is important that emphasis be placed on those activities and experiences which will promote desirable attitudes and efficient work habits. Pupils completing such courses should experience a sense of achievement which will enable them to enter employment with confidence and to participate in leisure-time activities with enjoyment.

Organization of the Time-table

In arranging time tables, principals of secondary schools and of graded elementary schools will have to make special modifications to suit local conditions and to meet limitations imposed by school facilities, teaching staff, transportation of pupils or

optional subjects and courses. In most cases, a school week of 40 periods, of 40 minutes each, will provide for the best distribution of teaching periods.

In order to reduce the difficulties of transition from Grade VIII to Grade IX and to retain a closer relationship between teacher and pupil in all grades, it is suggested that a number of subjects be assigned to a *home room* teacher in each grade of the Intermediate Division. For example, the subjects of English, Social Studies and Mathematics might be assigned to the home room teacher in Grades VII and VIII, while the other subjects might be divided among teachers who are specially trained in the respective subjects. This grouping would divide the time about equally between the home room subjects and the specialized subjects. In Grades IX and X, various groupings of subjects might be used to provide for an allotment of 25% to 35% of the total time to the home room teacher.

Courses and Subjects of Study

Grades VII and VIII

English	Science
Social Studies	Art
Physical Education	Music
Mathematics	Home Economics or Industrial Arts

Grade IX

General Course

Obligatory Subjects

English	Physical Education
Social Studies	
Mathematics	Guidance (Occupations)

Options

Any three or four of

Science or Agricultural Science, French, Art or Music or Art and Music, Shop Work or Home Economics, Agriculture, Typewriting or Business Practice or Typewriting and Business Practice.

Note 1: A pupil who intends to select in Grade XI a course qualifying him for entrance to university should select French as an option in Grade IX.

Note 2: When the approval of the Minister has been obtained, special courses (see p.11) may be arranged for pupils who do not intend to qualify for an Intermediate Certificate.

Vocational Courses

In Vocational Schools, the time allotted to the teaching of the practical subjects in any one of the Industrial, Agricultural, Home Economics, Commercial, or Art courses shall not be less than twenty-five per cent (25%) of the total time. In a timetable of a pupil exploring two vocational courses, the time allotted to the teaching of the practical subjects of those courses shall not be less than thirty-five per cent (35%) of the total time. Special vocational courses may be arranged with the approval of the Minister.

In the Industrial Course, Drafting is an obligatory shop subject.

Grade X

General Course

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Options

Any four or five of

Mathematics, General Science or Agricultural Science, Latin, French, Greek or Spanish or German, Art or Music or Art and Music, Shop Work or Home Economics, Agriculture, Typewriting or Business Practice or Typewriting and Business Practice.

Note 1: With the approval of the Principal, a pupil who is not a candidate for an Intermediate Certificate may select fewer than four options.

Commercial Course

Note 2: In schools with Departments of Agriculture, a pupil taking both Agriculture and Shop Work may select five options.

Note 3: The principal should make certain that the pupil in the General Course selects the options which are essential to the course he intends to pursue in Grades XI, XII and XIII.

Note 4: Re Prerequisite Options. Standing in Mathematics or a language in Grade X is a prerequisite for the corresponding subject in Grade XI. Standing in Science or Agricultural Science, Art or Music or Art and Music, Shop Work or Home Economics, Agriculture, Typewriting or Business Practice or Typewriting and Business Practice in either Grade IX or Grade X is a prerequisite for the corresponding subject in Grade XI.

Industrial or Agricultural Course

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Vocational and Related Subjects

Shop Work or Agriculture
and Shop Work
Mathematics
Science or Agricultural
Science

Options

Any one of

Art or Music or Art and Music, Drafting, French.

Home Economics Course

Vocational Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Obligatory Subjects

Home Economics

Options

Any two of

Mathematics, Science or Agricultural Science, French, Art or Music or Art and Music, Commercial Work.

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Vocational and Related Subjects

Commercial Subjects
Business Arithmetic

Options

Any one or two of

French, Shop Work or Home Economics, Art or Music or Art and Music, Science or Agricultural Science.

Art Course

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Vocational Subjects

Art

Options

Any two of

Mathematics, Science, Shop Work or Home Economics, French, Music, Commercial Work.

Guidance Programme in Grades VII, VIII, IX and X

The provision of opportunity for choice of optional subjects and courses makes guidance an essential element of the curriculum of the Intermediate Division. Guidance should not be considered as a separate subject for which one or two teachers of the staff are responsible, but rather as a purpose which integrates the whole school programme and a service for which every teacher assumes a share of responsibility. An effective guidance programme must be directly concerned with the development and adjustment of each individual pupil. It must provide him and his parents with educational and occupational information which is accurate and up-to-date. Through group-guidance and individual counselling, the pupil should be led to make intelligent choices with respect to his education and his future vocation.

The optional subjects of the Intermediate Division afford the best opportunity for exploratory experiences upon which the pupil may base his choice of a specialized course in the Senior Division. They should also provide him with valuable occupational information incidental to the subject fields concerned. This type of guidance, however, must be supplemented and coordinated by group work and counselling for which regular periods are allotted on the time-table. Group work in guidance should present a broad survey of occupations and afford opportunity for class discussion of topics related to vocations and school courses. Through individual counselling, each pupil may acquire specific information regarding the occupations and the educational courses in which he is particularly interested, and discuss his own abilities and qualifications.

Guidance, including a study of Occupations, is obligatory in Grade IX, and may be continued in Grade X. The Grade IX Course of Study in Occupations will be revised for the school year 1950-51. In Grade X, where provision may be made for Group Work in Guidance (Occupations), the course will be that outlined in the revised pamphlet. More detailed information on Guidance is given in Circular I: 3, "Guidance in the Intermediate Division, Grades VII to X".

Intermediate Certificates

An Intermediate Certificate will be granted, on the recommendation of the principal of a Collegiate Institute, a High, Continuation, or Vocational School, or on the recommendation of the principal of a Public or Separate School, with the approval of the inspector concerned, to a pupil who has completed successfully the courses of study for Grades VII, VIII and IX and one of the courses for Grade X.

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
 RE: TEXT-BOOKS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES:
 JUNIOR AND INTERMEDIATE DIVISIONS

APPENDIX I:K



ONTARIO
 DEPARTMENT
 OF
 EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

Re TEXT-BOOKS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES (GEOGRAPHY, HISTORY and MAP READING)

Junior and Intermediate Divisions

CURRICULUM: 4
 40,000—SEPTEMBER, 1950

Ministry of Education, Ontario
 Historical Collection

Text-books Geography, History, Map Reading Junior and Intermediate Divisions

1. The discontinuance of the authorization of the Ontario Public School Geography was announced in Memorandum re Revision of Curriculum (Curriculum: 1, December, 1949), and it was intimated that modern Geography text-books and other books dealing with the Social Studies would be approved for permissive use and that an announcement regarding them would be made.
2. Books approved for permissive use now available from the publishers are listed in Schedule One.
3. Pupils will not be required to buy these books, but School Boards will be required to provide them in numbers sufficient for the use of the pupils.
4. It should not be necessary for a book to be provided for each pupil. The number of books required should be determined through consultation between teacher and inspector. The books will be retained in the school and with proper care should last for many years.
5. Legislative grants on expenditures for the purchase of these books will be paid by the Department of Education at the rate applicable to the board concerned.

6. When purchases are being considered, it should be borne in mind that other books are being prepared by various publishers and that within a reasonable time other text-books in Geography and History will be available. It will then be possible for teachers to select the books which appear to be most suitable for the particular needs of their classes.

7. (a) The geography text-book, *Canada and Her Neighbours*, listed in Schedule One, deals mainly with the geography of Canada and briefly with the United States and Alaska. The book has been recently revised and material dealing with conservation and the wise use of our natural resources has been woven naturally into the text.

There is no suitable world geography at present available. Some books are in preparation and an announcement regarding them will be made when they are received from the publishers and found to meet the objectives of the revised curriculum.

Canada and Her Neighbours is suitable for use in Grades VI, VII, and VIII.

(b) *The Story of Canada* is an introductory text in Canadian History prepared for the use of elementary school pupils. It deals much more fully with the social history of our country than such texts formerly did. Many references to the use that has been made of our natural resources since settlement began in Canada have been incorporated into the text to assist the teacher in his efforts to develop a favourable attitude to this important subject. The book is suitable for use in Grades VI, VII, and VIII.

(c) *Steps in Map Reading* is designed to assist pupils in the use and interpretation of maps with various scales such as may be found in geography text-books and atlases. It is intended for use in Grades V, VI, VII, and VIII.

(d) *By Map and Compass* is a pupils' manual for teaching the interpretation and use of the large scale Canadian Topographical map. This book is suitable for use in Grades VII, VIII, IX, and X.

THE USE OF ATLASES

Pupils' Atlas

It is very desirable that atlases for the use of pupils should be provided in sufficient quantities. Schedule Two contains a list of atlases suitable for the use of pupils in the schools of Ontario. This list is not exhaustive.

Reference Atlas

Where possible a large atlas for reference use should be provided in the school or classroom library. The reference atlases listed in Schedule Two have been presented to the Department for examination and they appear to be up-to-date. These books are expensive and should be chosen only after careful examination.

No pupils' atlas or reference atlas is given special approval. No special provision is made for paying grants on atlases, other than that provided for certain boards in the grant regulations.

SCHEDULE ONE

Anderzhon: <i>Steps in Map Reading.</i> W. J. Gage & Co.....	\$1.00
Brown et al: <i>Story of Canada.</i> Copp Clark Co.....	1.95
Mustard: <i>By Map and Compass.</i> Macmillan.....	.65
Taylor et al: <i>Canada and Her Neighbours.</i> Ginn & Co.....	2.50

(Prices quoted are subject to usual discounts.)

SCHEDULE TWO

PUPILS' ATLASES

<i>Atlas of the Dominion of Canada.</i> The Book Society.....	\$.60
(Specially prepared for Canadian Schools)	
<i>Hammond's Comparative World Atlas.</i> The Book Society.....	.95
<i>Dent's Canadian Atlas.</i> J. M. Dent & Sons.....	1.45
(Specially prepared for Canadian Schools)	
<i>Modern Canadian Atlas of the World.</i> The Ryerson Press.....	.60
(Specially prepared for Canadian Schools)	
<i>Nelson's School Atlas.</i> Thos. Nelson & Sons.....	1.25
(Canadian Edition)	
<i>Rand McNally Classroom Atlas.</i> W. J. Gage & Co.....	1.60
(Specially prepared for Canadian Schools)	
<i>World Pocket Atlas.</i> Thos. Nelson & Sons.....	.85

(Prices quoted subject to usual discounts.)

REFERENCE ATLASES

<i>Citizen's Atlas of the World.</i> Thos. Nelson & Sons.....	18.00
	less 20%
<i>Encyclopaedia Britannica World Atlas.</i> The Book Society.....	18.75
	Schools—\$15.00
<i>Goode's School Atlas.</i> W. J. Gage & Co.....	5.00
	less 20%
<i>Rand McNally Cosmopolitan World Atlas.</i> W. J. Gage & Co.....	15.50
	Schools—\$12.40

Dana Porter

Minister of Education

September 15, 1950



MEMORANDUM

Re TEXT-BOOKS

PRIMARY, JUNIOR, and INTERMEDIATE
DIVISIONS

ARITHMETIC	-	-	-	-	Grades III - VI
READING	-	-	-	-	Grades VII - VIII
SPELLING	-	-	-	-	Grades II - VIII
SOCIAL STUDIES	-	-	-	-	Grades VI - VII - VIII
ENGLISH	-	-	-	-	Grades IX - X

CURRICULUM: 5
40,000—FEBRUARY, 1951.

Ministry of Education, Ontario
Historical Collection

Text-books Arithmetic, Reading, Spelling, Social Studies, English Primary, Junior, and Intermediate Divisions

1. The authorization of the following text-books has been cancelled from June 30, 1951:

Junior Arithmetic, Grades III, IV, V, VI (Educational Book Co., Ltd.)

The Canadian Speller, Books I and II (W. J. Gage & Co., Ltd.)

Life and Literature, Books I and II (Educational Book Co., Ltd.)

Living English, (Clarke, Irwin & Co.)

An English Highway, (Longmans Green & Co.)

A Junior School English Course (Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons).

2. Following the usual practice of the Department, the use of texts in Arithmetic (Grades III to VI) and Spelling (Grades II to VIII) and English (Grades IX and X), at present authorized, will be permitted for one year after the termination of authorization, on resolution of the school board.

3. Books approved for permissive use in Grades II to VIII which are now available from the publishers, or which will be available shortly, are listed in Schedule One.

3

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
RE: TEXT-BOOKS: PRIMARY, JUNIOR AND
INTERMEDIATE DIVISIONS

APPENDIX I: L

4. Pupils of Grades II to VIII will not be required to buy these books, but school boards will be required to provide them in numbers sufficient for the use of the pupils.

5. It should not be necessary for a book to be provided for each pupil. The number of books required should be determined through consultation between teacher and inspector. The books will be retained in the school and with proper care should last for many years.

6. Legislative grants on expenditures for the purchase of books listed in Schedule One will be paid by the Department of Education at the rate applicable to the board concerned.

7. Text-books in English approved for use in Grades IX and X are listed in Schedule Two. (Note:—The provision of paragraphs 4 and 6 respecting purchase by pupils and legislative grants does not apply to books listed in Schedule Two.)

8. Additional titles will be added to the approved lists as suitable books become available.

Dana Portin

Minister of Education

February 15, 1951

SCHEDULE ONE

(Books approved for permissive use, Grades II—VIII)

ARITHMETIC

Living Arithmetic		Ginn & Company
Grade III		\$1 10
Grade IV		1 10
Grade V		1 15
Grade VI		1 15
Study Arithmetic		W. J. Gage & Co.
Grade III		\$1 30
Grade IV		1 30
Grade V		1 30
Grade VI		1.30

READING

Grade VII	<i>Life and Literature, Book I,</i>	W. J. Gage & Co	\$1 25
	<i>Beckoning Trails</i>	Ryerson & Macmillan	1 40
Grade VIII	<i>Life and Literature, Book II,</i>	W. J. Gage & Co	1 25
	<i>Life and Adventure</i>	Ryerson & Macmillan	1 50

SPELLING

Pupil's Own Vocabulary Speller (Revised edition)		Macmillan Co
Grade II		\$0 60
Grade III		60
Grade IV		65
Grade V		65
Grade VI		65
Grade VII		70
Grade VIII		75
Combined Grades II and III		80
Combined Grades IV, V, VI		1 10
Combined Grades VII and VIII		1.15
My Spelling		Ginn & Company
Grade II		\$0 65
Grade III		65
Grade IV		70
Grade V		70
Grade VI		70
Grade VII		75
Grade VIII		75
Combined Grades II, III		.95
Combined Grades IV, V, VI		1 30

SPELLING

<i>Canadian Spellers</i>	<i>W. J. Gage & Co.</i>
Grade II.....	\$0.55
Grade III.....	.55
Grade IV.....	.65
Grade V.....	.65
Grade VI.....	.65
Grade VII.....	.70
Grade VIII.....	.70

SOCIAL STUDIES

The Great Adventure, Donald Dickie, J. M. Dent & Sons, \$1.95.

The Great Adventure is an introductory text in Canadian History prepared for the use of elementary school pupils. References to the use that has been made of our natural resources have been incorporated into the text where historical development justifies such references. The author has attempted to make meaningful to senior elementary school pupils the story of the growth of constitutional government in Canada. The book is considered suitable for the more able pupils of Grade VI, and for Grades VII and VIII.

SCHEDULE TWO

(Books approved for permissive use, Grades IX—X,
see Paragraph 7 above.)

ENGLISH

<i>Living English</i> , Diltz & Cavell.....	Clarke, Irwin
<i>An English Highway</i> , Moon, McKay.....	Longmans Green
<i>A Junior School English Course</i> , Potter.....	Pitman
<i>English Practice</i> , McLeod.....	Copp Clark
<i>Mastering Our Language</i> , Paton.....	Dent
<i>Working with English</i> , Rennie & Anderson.....	Ryerson

FOREWORD

The *MEMORANDUM RE ESTABLISHMENT OF LOCAL COMMITTEES ON CURRICULUM* (Curriculum: 3), dated May 15, 1950, gave directions and suggestions to provide for the revision of courses within a local school system by a Coordinating Committee and Teachers' Committees. To assist these Committees in their work, the accompanying circular contains a statement of objectives for the revision of the curriculum in the Intermediate Division, and suggestive outlines of courses of study in the subjects for Grades VII, VIII, IX, and X.

A school board may use the following types of courses under the circumstances stated:

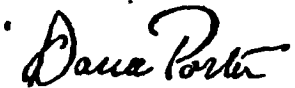
1. Where a Teachers' Committee has completed its work of drawing up a course of study, such course may be used on the recommendation of the Coordinating Committee;
2. After the necessary modifications have been made by Teachers' Committees to suit local conditions, any one or more of the courses outlined in this circular may be used on an experimental basis on the recommendation of the Coordinating Committee;
3. Where a Teachers' Committee has not proceeded far enough in its work to recommend its own course or changes in the suggested outlines, the outlines submitted herewith may be used experimentally in a secondary school on the recommendation of the principal or in an elementary school on the recommendation of the elementary school inspector.

Where a school board does not make use of the foregoing permission, the present authorized courses shall be followed.

In the preparation of these outlines, recommendations received from the Ontario Teachers' Federation and the Ontario Educational Association were given consideration. The suggested courses are based on modern educational

thought and practice in Canada and elsewhere. They were prepared by committees of the Ontario School Inspectors' Association comprising inspectors of Elementary and Secondary Schools and representatives from the staffs of the Normal Schools and the Ontario College of Education.

The outlines are not prescriptive, and detailed prescriptive courses will not be issued by the Department of Education. They are designed solely to help Teachers' Committees in drawing up courses of study suited to their particular communities by indicating a general field for study in a given subject, and by providing an example and a basis for discussion.



Minister of Education.

Toronto,
May 1, 1951.

FOREWORD BY DANA PORTER: EXCERPTS FROM CURRICULUM GUIDELINES FOR INTERMEDIATE DIV (May 1, 1951)

APPENDIX I:M

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OBJECTIVES FOR THE REVISION OF THE CURRICULUM IN THE INTERMEDIATE DIVISION

In the revision of the curriculum for the Intermediate Division, the chief aim is to provide a programme for Grades VII, VIII, IX, and X which will be

- (a) unified and continuous,
- (b) adaptable to the individual differences of pupils ranging in age from 12 to 16 years, and
- (c) suited to the needs of the local community.

Unity and Continuity

A recent survey in Ontario indicated that out of all pupils entering the elementary schools approximately 56% continue their education to the end of Grade X, but that only 21% complete Grade XII. Many pupils in Grade IX start four-year courses which they do not finish, and in many cases they drop out of school with a sense of frustration or failure. It is apparent, therefore, that Grade X, instead of Grade VIII, should be recognized as the end of a definite stage in the school education of the majority of pupils.

By grouping Grades VII to X in a single Division of the Curriculum, a unified and continuous programme can be designed for these grades to meet the needs of pupils in the age range of 12 to 16 years and to provide a well-rounded course for pupils who may leave school at the end of Grade X. One of the artificial barriers to continuity has been removed by the abolition of the High School Entrance Examination. The extent to which the programme of the Intermediate Division can be unified and coordinated will depend upon the degree of cooperation between teachers of Grades VII and VIII in the Public and the Separate Schools and teachers of Grades IX and X in the Secondary Schools. In a local school system, it is essential that teachers of one grade be familiar with what is being done in each of the

other grades, and that teachers of one subject know what teachers of other subjects are trying to accomplish. Sharing responsibility for constructing courses of study is an effective means of achieving this objective.

Individual Differences

One of the aims of the school programme is to provide for each individual those activities which are adapted to his particular capacities and in which he may participate with reasonable success and satisfaction.

Pupils in the age group of 12 to 16 years possess a wide range of abilities and interests which must be given opportunities for trial and growth. It is during this adolescent period also that many pupils develop strong vocational interests, and it is important that these pupils find in the school curriculum opportunities to pursue courses related to these interests.

To meet the demands arising from these individual differences, the curriculum of the Intermediate Division should be kept flexible and diversified. In Grades VII and VIII, individual differences may be met through a variety of activities within the common course offered to all pupils. While this principle will apply also to the obligatory subjects of Grades IX and X, further opportunities for meeting individual differences will be afforded in these grades through optional subjects and special courses.

Community Needs

School programmes should be designed to meet the needs of the local community and so to appeal to the immediate interests of the pupils. School and community life should be closely linked, and local situations should be used to illustrate school instruction. The pupil's own community is the best place to get at first hand an understanding of his physical and social environment. Through this understanding of the physical, economic, and social relationships in his own community lies the surest way to his understanding of the wider relationships between the present and the past, and between our country and the rest of the world.

To achieve these objectives, the responsibility for constructing detailed programmes has been placed on local authori-

ties. Local curriculum committees consisting of teachers of Grades VII, VIII, IX, and X are well qualified to assume this responsibility. Their ideas arising from daily experience in school will contribute to the practical success of the programme. They will also be able continually to evaluate and revise their courses of study on the basis of actual use and experiment.

Freedom within wide limits to construct courses of study has been used with success in many parts of Ontario. Such programmes, designed to meet local needs, have been effective in holding the interest of pupils, decreasing the number of pupils dropping out of school, and improving the quality of community life. Curriculum planning by local committees of teachers will extend these beneficial results and will enable schools to provide more realistic and interesting courses.

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAMME

The programme of the Intermediate Division should be designed as a unit for pupils of the age range of 12 to 16 years. To meet the needs of these adolescent pupils along the lines suggested in the objectives of the curriculum for the Intermediate Division, the organization of the school programme in this division should include

- (a) obligatory subjects,
- (b) optional subjects and courses, and
- (c) special courses.

Obligatory Subjects

It is recommended that a common general course be offered to all pupils in Grades VII and VIII, with special adaptations to meet individual differences within a class group. In Grades IX and X, part of the programme should consist of obligatory subjects containing the common learnings and experiences which make up a well-rounded general education for pupils of this age-group. The time allotted to these obligatory subjects would be approximately 60% of the total in Grade IX, and 40% in Grade X. The remaining time should be allotted to the optional subjects, but the courses in such subjects should be kept general in character in order that they, too, may contribute to the general education of the pupils selecting them.

Optional Subjects and Courses in Grades IX and X

The number of optional subjects offered will depend upon the facilities of the school, the qualifications of the staff, and the limitations imposed by the maintenance of an economical pupil-teacher ratio. In Vocational and Composite Schools, optional courses as well as optional subjects should be made available in these grades. In order that

pupils may have as wide a choice as possible, even in smaller schools, it is suggested that certain optional subjects be offered on a two-year rotation plan. A course of study in Science, Art, Music, Agriculture, Home Economics, Shop Work, or Commercial Work need not be dependent upon the course of the preceding year in the same subject. The offering of alternate, parallel courses in each of these subjects on a rotation plan will not only simplify time-table organization, but also will enable a pupil to choose the subject in either or both grades. Under this arrangement, some pupils may select in Grade IX the subjects in which they have decided to specialize in the Senior Division, other pupils may explore several subject fields before making a final choice, and pupils who are required to repeat a subject need not repeat the same course content.

Special Courses for pupils who intend to leave school at age 16

Where a sufficient number of pupils indicate their intention of leaving school at the end of Grade X, a school may organize special courses adapted to the needs of such pupils. In addition to appropriate work in English, Social Studies, Elementary Mathematics, and Physical Education, these courses should comprise considerable training in those skills which, together with related information, are basic to homemaking, agriculture, business, or apprenticeship in the industrial trades. Such courses may also contain options in Music (vocal or instrumental), in Art, and in a variety of crafts.

Since these special courses must be organized by local curriculum committees to meet specific needs, they will necessarily vary in subject content. In every case, however, it is important that emphasis be placed on those activities and experiences which will promote desirable attitudes and efficient work habits. Pupils completing such courses should experience a sense of achievement which will enable them to enter employment with confidence and to participate in leisure-time activities with enjoyment.

Grade IX Course for Slow Learners

With the discontinuance of the High School Entrance Examination, the chief principle governing the procedure for pro-

moting pupils from Grade VIII to Grade IX is stated in the *Memorandum re Promotion from Grade VIII and Admission to Grade IX (Curriculum: 2)*, dated March 30, 1950, as follows:

"The prime consideration which should govern the principal in recommending the promotion of a pupil is whether the best interests of the pupil will be served by his promotion. The principal must decide in the light of his knowledge of the pupil whether it will be better for him to proceed to Grade IX or to remain in Grade VIII."

Since it is realized that the regular courses in Grade IX may be inadequate to meet the needs of some pupils whose best interests will be served by promotion, the *Memorandum* states in paragraph 6, on page 6:

"It may also be expected that some pupils will enter Grade IX for whom the present courses offered in Grade IX will not be suitable. It will be the duty of the principal and staff of the secondary school to arrange programmes that will meet the needs of these pupils."

The type of special course which may be provided for pupils whose rates of learning fall considerably below average will depend upon (a) the number of such pupils presenting themselves in Grade IX, and (b) the facilities and teaching staff of the secondary school. If the number of pupils is too small to constitute a separate class, such pupils will have to be included as a group in one of the regular Grade IX classes and given a modified programme. If a sufficient number of pupils applies, a separate Grade IX class should be organized with a programme suited to the special needs of the pupils.

In recent years experiments with these special classes have been conducted in a few secondary schools in Ontario. Included in the classes were pupils who had failed in the High School Entrance Examination, and who in some cases had been retarded as much as four years in reading and language work. From these experiments valuable information has been gathered, and certain general conclusions have been drawn. The following data acquired are offered for the purpose of assisting principals in organizing similar programmes:

1. The class makes better progress if it is in charge of a competent home-room teacher who is sensitive to the needs of slow learners, and experienced in ministering to them.

Special pupils spend approximately half time with a home-room teacher to whom is assigned the work in English, Social Studies, and Mathematics. The home-room teacher is also responsible for individual counselling and guidance, and should be able to administer and interpret the group and individual tests required. Group testing is preceded by informal assessment of the pupils' abilities during the first two weeks of school; individual tests and case studies of certain selected pupils are made later in the term.

In addition to the qualifications covered by certification, the home-room teacher requires special skill in handling individual pupils or groups who are progressing at varying rates. Experience in elementary schools is found to be invaluable. A Supervisor's or Specialist's Certificate in Auxiliary Education is highly desirable evidence of special interest in the problems of slow learners.

2. In the skill subjects each pupil of the special class is permitted to begin at his achievement level and to proceed at the rate of learning of which he is capable.

When a slow learner is admitted to a regular Grade IX course in a subject involving reading and number skills, he may find himself on unfamiliar ground where he is unable to respond satisfactorily to the teacher's questions. When instruction is given at or near his level of achievement in reading and number skills, his readiness to answer is likely to be equal to that of pupils in the regular classes.

It is essential, therefore, that the slow learner receive the type of individual instruction which will permit him to work at his own level and progress at his own rate. This may be accomplished by dividing the class into small teaching groups of four or five pupils having approximately equal abilities in the skill subject being taught. Minor difficulties in spelling, language, reading, or mathematics, which often cause frustration and block progress, are easily detected and overcome in this type of instruction.

3. The number of teachers who instruct a class of slow learners is kept to a minimum.

These pupils find it difficult to adjust themselves to more than two or three teachers each day; accordingly, the activity subjects of the programme should be restricted in range in order that the number of specialized teachers can be limited to four or five. The optional subjects best suited to this type of pupil have been found to be Science, Typewriting, Shop Work or Home Economics, but in some cases pupils are permitted to substitute other options, such as Art or Music, if they so desire.

4. Wherever possible, special class pupils participate in activities with pupils of the regular classes.

This may be accomplished by including groups from the special class with the regular classes in Physical Education, or in activity subjects, such as Industrial Arts or Home Economics, Art or Music. Special class pupils are also encouraged to participate in the extra-curricular activities of the school, and wherever a pupil shows a special aptitude in a subject or an activity, he is given the opportunity of gaining the satisfaction which comes from success. Sometimes these pupils excel in subjects for which they have special aptitude.

5. The home-room teacher is provided with adequate teaching materials for the various levels in reading, spelling, language, and mathematics represented in the class. Suitable reference material is also provided for social studies and science.
6. The content of the courses of study in the various subjects is carefully selected.

The vocabulary of the reading material used is suited to the capacities of the pupils, and exercises are adapted to the achievement level of each of the groups into which the class is divided. In Mathematics remedial work based on diagnostic testing is given as needed, and problems are based on actual life situations. The courses in Social Studies and Science are developed around themes or projects which are closely related to home and community life, in order to stimulate interest in a continuation of these studies. Wherever possible and practicable, subjects are correlated.

Organization of the Time-table

In arranging time-tables, principals of secondary schools and of graded elementary schools will have to make special modifications to suit local conditions and to meet limitations imposed by school facilities, teaching staff, transportation of pupils, or optional subjects and courses. In most cases, a school week of 40 periods, of 40 minutes each, will provide for the best distribution of teaching periods.

In order to reduce the difficulties of transition from Grade VIII to Grade IX and to retain a closer relationship between teacher and pupil in all grades, it is suggested that a number of subjects be assigned to a *home-room* teacher in each grade of the Intermediate Division. For example, the subjects of English, Social Studies, and Mathematics might be assigned to the home-room teacher in Grades VII and VIII, while the other subjects might be divided among teachers who are specially trained in the respective subjects. This grouping would divide the time about equally between the home-room subjects and the specialized subjects. In Grades IX and X, various groupings of subjects might be used to provide for an allotment of 25% to 35% of the total time to the home-room teacher.

Courses and Subjects of Study

Grades VII and VIII

English	Science
Social Studies	Art
Physical Education	Music
Mathematics	Home Economics or Industrial Arts

Grade IX

General Course

Obligatory Subjects

English	Physical Education
Social Studies	Guidance (Occupations)
Mathematics	

Options

Any three or four of

Science, French, Latin, Art or Music or Art and Music, Shop Work or Home Economics, Agriculture, Typewriting or Business Practice.

Note 1: A pupil who intends to select in Grade XI a course qualifying him for entrance to university should select French as an option in Grade IX.

Note 2: Where the approval of the Minister has been obtained, special courses (see p. 11) may be arranged.

Vocational Courses

In Vocational Schools, the time allotted to the teaching of the practical subjects in any one of the Industrial, Agricultural, Home Economics, Commercial, or Art courses shall not be less than 25% of the total time. In a time-table of a pupil exploring two vocational courses, the time allotted to the teaching of the practical subjects of those courses shall not be less than 35% of the total time. Special vocational courses may be arranged with the approval of the Minister.

In the Industrial Course, Drafting is an obligatory shop subject.

Grade X

General Course

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Options

Any four or five of

Mathematics, Science, Latin, French, Art or Music or Art and Music, Shop Work or Home Economics, Agriculture, Typewriting or Business Practice.

Note 1: With the approval of the principal, a pupil who is not a candidate for an Intermediate Certificate may select fewer than four options.

Note 2: In schools with Departments of Agriculture, a pupil taking both Agriculture and Shop Work may select five options.

Note 3: The principal should make certain that the pupil in the General Course selects the options which are essential to the course he intends to pursue in Grades XI, XII, and XIII.

Note 4: Re Prerequisite Options. Standing in Mathematics or a language in Grade X is a prerequisite for the corresponding subject in Grade XI. Standing in Science, Art or Music or Art and Music, Shop Work or Home Economics, Agriculture, Typewriting or Business Practice in either Grade IX or Grade X is a prerequisite for the corresponding subject in Grade XI.

Industrial or Agricultural Course

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Vocational and Related Subjects

Shop Work or Agriculture and
Shop Work
Mathematics
Science

Options

Any one of

Art or Music or Art and Music, Drafting, French.

Home Economics Course

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Vocational Subjects

Home Economics

Options

Any two of

Mathematics, Science, French, Art or Music or Art and Music, Typewriting or Business Practice.

Commercial Course

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Vocational and Related Subjects

Commercial Subjects
Business Arithmetic

Options

Any one or two of

French, Shop Work or Home Economics, Art or Music
or Art and Music, Science.

Art Course

Obligatory Subjects

English
Social Studies
Physical Education

Vocational Subjects

Art

Options

Any two of

Mathematics, Science, Shop Work or Home Economics,
French, Music, Typewriting or Business Practice.

Guidance Programme

The provision of opportunity for choice of optional subjects and courses makes guidance an essential element of the curriculum of the Intermediate Division. Guidance should not be considered as a separate subject for which one or two teachers of the staff are responsible, but rather as a purpose which integrates the whole school programme and a service for which every teacher assumes a share of responsibility. An effective guidance programme must be directly concerned with the development and adjustment of each individual pupil. It must provide him and his parents with educational and occupational information which is accurate and up-to-date. Through group-guidance and individual counselling, the pupil should be led to make intelligent choices with respect to his education and his future vocation.

The optional subjects of the Intermediate Division afford the best opportunity for exploratory experiences upon which

the pupil may base his choice of a specialized course in the Senior Division. They should also provide him with valuable occupational information incidental to the subject fields concerned. This type of guidance, however, must be supplemented and coordinated by group work and counselling for which regular periods are allotted on the time-table. Group work in guidance should present a broad survey of occupations and afford opportunity for class discussion of topics related to vocations and school courses. Through individual counselling, each pupil may acquire specific information regarding the occupations and the educational courses in which he is particularly interested, and discuss his own abilities and qualifications for them.

Guidance, including a study of Occupations, is obligatory in Grade IX, and may be continued in Grade X. More detailed information on Guidance is given in *Circular I: 3, "Guidance in the Intermediate Division, Grades VII-X"*

Health Programme

Since one of the primary aims of education is the promotion of good standards of physical and mental health for each individual, all divisions of the school programme should contribute to the realization of this objective. Local educational and health authorities are responsible for the health of the pupils, but the carrying out of an effective health programme in the school depends upon the cooperative efforts of administrators, teachers, members of special health services, and members of the caretaking staff.

It is suggested that the health programme in local schools be studied at least annually by a representative committee. Such a committee might consist of the medical officer of health and the public health nurse, a member of the board, the principals concerned, and teachers of Physical Education, Guidance, Science, and Home Economics.

The health programme may be considered under the following headings:

1. Maintenance of a healthful physical environment;
2. Instruction in the principles of healthful living;
3. Provision of special health services;
4. Preservation of good mental health.

Healthful Environment

The school must provide accommodations which promote the health of the pupils. To maintain good health standards within the school attractive colouring of rooms and corridors, cleanliness of floors and furniture, proper seating and lighting arrangements, sanitary washrooms and lunchrooms are essential. Teachers must give constant attention to the temperature, lighting, and ventilation of their classrooms. Outdoor activities should be carried on whenever practicable to provide the benefits of sunshine and fresh air. For such activities suitable areas and equipment are essential.

Health Instruction

Most of the health instruction related to the physical development of the pupil will be given in the course in Physical Education. Courses in other subjects, however, provide instruction in the principles of healthful living which lie within their field. Some of this instruction will be given incidentally as suitable opportunities arise; much of it will be part of the regular units of the various courses. For example, *Physical Education* will stress the importance of physical fitness, the relation of exercise to the structure and functions of the body, the effects of fatigue and the need for rest and relaxation, the effects of stimulants and narcotics, the necessity for good posture, and the principles of first aid. *Social Studies* may include information and activities related to public health services, health legislation, community facilities, advances in medical science, and pioneers in health improvement. *Science* may include topics on the structure and functions of the organs of the body, the composition and function of foods, water and milk supply. *Home Economics* affords opportunity for instruction in nutrition, selection of foods, personal grooming, health factors in the home, and elements of home nursing.

Health instruction in all courses should aim to develop desirable attitudes to personal health which will promote good personal health habits.

Health Services

Special medical, dental, or nursing services are the direct responsibility of the public health authorities in cooperation with the local school board. The physical welfare of the

pupil, however, is the immediate concern of every teacher. The teacher is responsible for observing and reporting symptoms of ill-health, apparent physical deficiencies, or poor health conditions in the school. Full cooperation between teachers and the administrators of special health services is essential.

Mental Health

The mental health of the pupil is inseparable from and as important as his physical well-being. Happy school relationships, purposeful and self-directed activity, and the successful accomplishment of daily tasks help to ensure good mental health. Teachers and guidance counsellors must be alert to the unfavourable disturbances and anxieties in pupils which may result from regimentation, undue competition, overloading of homework, frustration, or poor class management within the school, and from other causes.

Intermediate Certificates

An Intermediate Certificate will be granted, on the recommendation of the principal of a Collegiate Institute, a High, Continuation, or Vocational School, or on the recommendation of the principal of a Public or Separate School, with the approval of the inspector concerned, to a pupil who has completed successfully the courses of study for Grades VII and VIII, and one of the courses for Grades IX and X.

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
RE: LEGISLATIVE GRANT ON EXPENDITURES FOR
TEXT-BOOKS AND LIBRARY BOOKS

APPENDIX I:N

Text-books

1. All boards will be reimbursed for amounts expended in 1951 for text-books, permissive use of which has been approved, up to a maximum of \$3.00 per pupil of average attendance for 1950 of pupils in Grades I to VIII. These text-books are listed in this pamphlet.
2. Pupils will not be required to buy these books.
3. Books will be retained in the school and with proper use should last for many years.
4. School boards are advised to consult the inspector before making expenditures on which reimbursement is expected, in order that only the necessary number of copies of any text-book may be purchased.
5. School boards are asked to make separate orders for text-books for which reimbursement is to be claimed and not to include any other items on these orders.
6. Separate vouchers on which no other items are shown should be obtained for expenditures on which reimbursement is to be claimed. Publishers have agreed to bill boards for text-books eligible for the special grant on separate invoices. The invoices from all publishers will be on paper of the same distinctive colour (goldenrod).

3



ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT
OF
EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

Re LEGISLATIVE GRANT ON EXPENDITURES FOR TEXT-BOOKS and LIBRARY BOOKS, 1951

CURRICULUM: 6
40,000 — MAY, 1951

Ministry of Education, Ontario
Historical Collection

7. Where purchases are made from a local dealer, separate vouchers should also be secured for text-books on which reimbursement will be claimed. Local dealers will be supplied with goldenrod-coloured blank invoice forms by the publishers with whom they deal. Only text-books for which reimbursement may be claimed should be listed on these goldenrod invoices.

LIBRARY BOOKS

1. Boards in urban municipalities with population under 2,500 and boards in rural municipalities with population under 20,000 will be reimbursed for the amount expended in 1951, with the inspector's approval, for library books up to a maximum of \$1.00 per pupil of average attendance for 1950 of pupils in Grades I to VIII.

2. School boards are advised to consult the inspector before ordering library books on which reimbursement is expected to assure themselves of the inspector's approval of the library books which they intend to purchase.

3. Orders for library books for which reimbursement may be claimed should be on a separate order form on which no other items are included.

4. Separate vouchers on which no other items are shown should be obtained for expenditures on library books. These vouchers need not be of a special colour but should be clearly marked "Library Books".

PAYMENT OF SPECIAL GRANT IN 1951

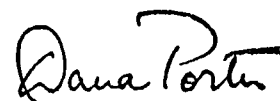
1. As soon as the maximum amount on which reimbursement will be claimed has been spent, the invoices and proof of payment shall be forwarded to the inspector. If the maximum amount has not been spent before December 31, 1951, the invoices and proof of payment for whatever amount has been spent shall be forwarded to the inspector at that time.

2. Forms will be forwarded to the inspector on which he will make application to the Department for the amount of reimbursement to which each board is entitled. The inspector will forward the application to the Department as soon as possible after the board concerned has submitted to him its invoices and proof of payment.

3. Reimbursement will be made by the Department as soon as possible after the inspector's application has been received.

4. Because of the provision for reimbursement outlined above, expenditures made in 1951 for text-books and library books will not be included in the approved cost on which 1952 general legislative grants will be claimed.

5. In calculating the 1951 cost of operating for the 90% or 95% limitation on 1952 grants, 1951 expenditures for text-books and library books will be a deductible item up to the amount of the reimbursement.


Minister of Education

TEXT-BOOKS FOR WHICH REIMBURSEMENT MAY BE CLAIMED

READING

PRIMARY DIVISION

Curriculum Foundation Series *W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.*

Pre-Primer We Look and See
We Work and Play
We Come and Go
Primer Fun with Dick and Jane
First Reader Our New Friends

Friends and Neighbours
More Friends and Neighbours

Streets and Roads
More Streets and Roads

Easy Growth in Reading Series *John C. Winston Co. Ltd.*

Pre-Primer Mac and Muff
The Twins, Tom and Don
Going to School
Primer At Play
First Reader I Know a Secret

Along the Way
The Story Road

Faraway Ports
Enchanting Stories

Ginn Basic Readers *Ginn and Company*

Pre-Primer My Little Red Story Book
My Little Green Story Book
My Little Blue Story Book
Primer The Little White House
First Reader On Cherry Street

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We are Neighbours
Around the Corner
Finding New Neighbours
Friends Far and Near

New Alice and Jerry Books *Copp Clark Company Ltd.*

Pre-Primer Skip Along
Under the Sky
Open the Door
Primer The New Day In and Day Out
First Reader The New Round About

The New Down the River Road
The New Friendly Village

The New Through the Green Gate
The New If I Were Going

Reading for Meaning Series *Thos. Nelson & Sons (Canada) Ltd.*

Pre-Primer Tip
Tip and Mitten
The Big Show
Primer With Jack and Janet
First Book Up and Away

Come Along
On We Go

Looking Ahead
Climbing Higher

JUNIOR DIVISION

Canadian Parade Readers *J. M. Dent & Sons (Canada) Ltd.*

Young Explorers
Gay Adventurers
Proud Procession

7

Canadian Reading Developing Series *Copp Clark Company Ltd.*

Up and Away
Wide Open Windows
All Sails Set

Highroads to Reading *Thos. Nelson & Sons (Canada) Ltd.*

Riding With the Sun
Over Land and Sea
On the Beam

New World Readers *The Ryerson Press
Macmillan Co. of Canada Ltd.*

Over the Bridge
Under the North Star
My World and I

INTERMEDIATE DIVISION

Life and Literature, *W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.*
Book I,
Life and Literature,
Book II.
Beckoning Trails *Ryerson & Macmillan*
Life and Adventure

BOOKS APPROVED FOR PERMISSIVE USE IN ROMAN CATHOLIC SEPARATE SCHOOLS

PRIMARY DIVISION

Faith and Freedom Reading Series *Ginn and Company*

Pre-Primer Here We Come
This is Our Home
Here We Are Again

8

Primer This is Our Family
First Book These Are Our Friends

These Are Our Neighbours
This is Our Parish

This is Our Town
This is Our Valley

Canadian Catholic Corona Readers *Ginn and Company*

Happy Days
Playmates
Paths of Grace

JUNIOR DIVISION

Canadian Catholic Corona Readers *Ginn and Company*

Tales to Tell
Stories for Every Day
Treasure Trove

INTERMEDIATE DIVISION

Canadian Catholic Corona Readers *Ginn and Company*

Fact and Fancy
Wide Horizons

BOOKS APPROVED FOR PERMISSIVE USE IN SCHOOLS IN WHICH FRENCH IS A SUBJECT OF INSTRUCTION WITH THE APPROVAL OF THE MINISTER

PRIMARY DIVISION

Pre-Primer Frou-Frou et Fin-Fin *Ginn and Company*

9

"Foi et Liberté series"

Pre-Primer Chez Nous
Primer Notre Famille

Ginn and Company

"J'apprends à lire" series

Pre-Primer Bébé, Marie et Jean
Primer Qu'il fait bon chez nous
La porte est ouverte
Histoires et contes amusants

W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.

"Cathédrale" series

Pre-Primer Viens voir
Viens travailler, viens jouer
Viens te promener
Primer On s'amuse
Des amis nouveaux
Encore, encore des amis

W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.

F. E. C. series

Book II

Frères des Ecoles
Chrétiennes, 949 Cote St.
Montreal

JUNIOR DIVISION

"J'apprends à lire" series

Le trésor des jeunes conteurs

W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.

F.E.C. series

Book III

Frères des Ecoles
Chrétiennes

C.N.D. series

Lecture à haute
voix IV et V

Congregation de Notre
Dame, 3040 Sherbrooke St. W.
Montreal

**BOOKS APPROVED FOR PERMISSIVE USE,
GRADES II—VIII**

ARITHMETIC

Living Arithmetic

Grade III
Grade IV

Grade V
Grade VI

Ginn and Company

Study Arithmetic

Grade III
Grade IV

Grade V
Grade VI

W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.

Junior Mathematics

Grade VII Book I

Grade VIII Book II

W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.

SPELLING

Canadian Spellers

Grade II
Grade III
Grade IV

Grade V
Grade VI
Grade VII
Grade VIII

W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.

My Spelling

Grade II
Grade III
Grade IV
Grade V

Grade VI
Grade VII
Grade VIII
Combined Grades II, III
Combined Grades IV, V, VI

Ginn and Company

Pupil's Own Vocabulary Speller (Revised edition)

The Macmillan Co. of Canada Ltd.

Grade II
Grade III
Grade IV
Grade V
Grade VI

Grade VII
Grade VIII
Combined Grades II and III
Combined Grades IV, V, VI
Combined Grades VII and VIII

SOCIAL STUDIES

Anderzhon:	Steps in Map Reading	W. J. Gage & Co. Ltd.
Brown et al:	Story of Canada	Copp Clark Co. Ltd.
Dickie:	The Great Adventure	J. M. Dent & Sons (Canada) Ltd.
Mustard:	By Map and Compass	Macmillan Co. of Canada Ltd.
Taylor et al:	Canada and Her Neighbours	Ginn and Co.

Additional titles may be added to the approved list as suitable books become available.

PUBLISHERS

COPP CLARK COMPANY LTD.....	517 Wellington Street W., Toronto
J. M. DENT & SONS (CANADA) LTD.....	224 Bloor Street West, Toronto
W. J. GAGE & CO. LTD.....	84 Spadina Avenue, Toronto
GINN AND COMPANY.....	1331 Yonge Street, Toronto
MACMILLAN COMPANY OF CANADA LTD.....	70 Bond Street, Toronto
THOS. NELSON & SONS (CANADA) LTD.....	91 Wellington Street West, Toronto
THE RYERSON PRESS.....	299 Queen Street West, Toronto
JOHN C. WINSTON COMPANY LTD.....	60 Front Street West, Toronto



ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT
OF
EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

Re CURRICULUM

Progress of the Revision

CURRICULUM: 7

40,000—FEBRUARY, 1952

Revision of the Curriculum

Almost three years have elapsed since the Honourable Dana Porter, then Minister of Education, announced substantial changes in the courses for Ontario schools, and invited school boards and teachers to co-operate with his Department in the experimental development of the new courses. The announced objectives were to secure flexibility of organization to permit progress according to the pupil's ability and industry, to encourage individual effort and initiative on the part of the pupil, to discourage over-teaching or "spoon-feeding" and to emphasize the continuity of the educative process, at least up to the school-leaving age. Mr. Porter stressed throughout the urgent need of sound preparation in English and in Mathematics

Many school boards responded to the invitation to participate in working out the new courses; to all of these the Department of Education expresses its gratitude. Literally hundreds of teachers, both individually and through their professional organizations, devoted themselves wholeheartedly to the task of revision; their efforts are warmly appreciated. Numerous groups of interested citizens made thoughtful and practical suggestions, which are gratefully acknowledged.

Local experimentation has tended to centre upon the Primary Division (Grades I-III) and the Intermediate Division (Grades VII-X). In the former division, it is already clear that more grades than one may be grouped together with resultant benefits in Reading, in Arithmetic and especially in Handwriting. It is also clear that not every teacher is

able to undertake such a combination. Where kindergartens are maintained, the grouping of Grades II and III seems to be an effective combination. These are but examples of the findings indicated by early experiments and now available for general use. Other findings will be reported as soon as they are verified in practice

In the Intermediate Division, an unprecedented measure of co-operation has been achieved by teachers of public, separate and secondary schools, to the immediate benefit of the pupils concerned. It is in this division that the content of school courses assumes great importance; for this reason the Department has issued some pilot courses for the guidance of those engaged in experimentation. These courses are in broad outline; they are intended to be suggestive rather than prescriptive; they also serve to point the need of solid and sustained work and of a good mastery of the fundamental subjects.

Such progress has been made in the various experimental projects that it is now possible to consolidate and implement significant findings

The following arrangements for the next stage in the reorganization of school courses are announced.

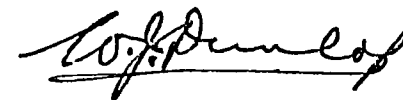
1. Boards which have been developing revised programmes are asked to continue that work. They will shortly be requested to inform the Department (a) what revisions have been effected in their schools, (b) what further revisions are planned for the near future, (c) what provision is made for thorough teaching of the fundamental subjects, (d) what provision is made for the secondary education of those who will leave school at age sixteen, (e) what precautions

are taken to maintain a challenging secondary school course for pupils of good ability and industrious habits, (f) what means are used to fit pupils into courses appropriate to their interests and abilities. These boards will also be asked to report upon the apparent advantages and disadvantages of their arrangements as they develop.

2. Boards which have not hitherto carried on experimental programmes will be required to direct their schools to follow courses of study issued by the Department for the various grades and divisions. Most of these courses will be in outline only, and will require local adaptation. The Department's supervisory staff will examine the local adaptations with a view to ensuring ample provision for the mastery of "the three R's", flexibility of promotion, and the recognition, in the secondary grades, of the requirements both of those pupils who will leave school as soon as the law allows and of those with the ability and determination to attempt longer courses.

3. The Department, in collaboration with the universities, is now working out a better distribution of the present requirements of Grades XI, XII and XIII for college entrance. In this task, which will continue, particular attention is being given to the development of sound work habits and to the improvement of English usage and comprehension. To these ends, a special invitation is extended to the teachers and principals of secondary schools to submit suggestions at an early date.

February 7th, 1952



Minister of Education

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
 RE: SELECTION OF TEXT-BOOKS IN SOCIAL
 STUDIES (JUNIOR DIVISION)

APPENDIX I:P

Social Studies Courses, Grades 5 and 6

Some teachers have expressed the opinion that, heretofore, in many schools the geographical content of these courses has not been adequately treated and they have been taught as if they were courses in History. Actually, the courses are less the story of the discoverers than a description of what the discoverers found. The aim of the Grade 5 course is to give the pupil a view of the world as a whole; to familiarize him with the location and characteristics of various important land masses and bodies of water; and to provide him with a description of important parts of the earth as they were when the discoverers found them, with particular reference to the climate, the resources, interesting geographical features, and the people. The motives that drove the discoverers and explorers in their quest should be made clear as the tale unfolds. In Grade 6 the course deals in somewhat greater detail with the discovery and exploration of North America, particular attention being given to the explorations that led to a knowledge of the surface geography of Canada. The story of what happened to these lands and peoples as a result of their contact with Europeans belongs to a later stage in the study of Geography and History.

The globe should always be used to locate the various areas of the world dealt with and to relate their position to that of the pupils' homes. The Grade 5 pupil will for the first time be making extensive use of maps and it will be necessary for the teacher to make clear the conventions that are used in maps. Pupils learn to use maps by using them, and in this connection it is pointed out that the General Regulations for Public and Separate Schools require the Board to provide the school with

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ONTARIO
 DEPARTMENT
 OF
 EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

Re Selection of Text-books in Social Studies (JUNIOR DIVISION)

CURRICULUM: 8

30,000—MARCH, 1955
 54-49771

Historical Collection

a mounted globe not less than 12" in diameter, pupils' atlases in numbers sufficient for class use in Grades 4 to 10, both inclusive, and a reference atlas for the school library.

Attention is drawn also to the book, Anderson: STEPS IN MAP READING (Gage). This book is listed in Circular 14 and is subject to the reimbursement grant. The book was designed for use chiefly in Grades 6 and 7, but the teacher of Grade 5 will find the material on pages 1 to 28 helpful in developing notions of direction and the concept of the earth as a sphere. In fact, if terms such as "environment" and "symbol" which occur in these pages, were explained, the average Grade 5 pupil could probably read the pages for himself.

APPROVED TEXT-BOOKS

The text-books listed below have been placed on the approved list (Circular 14, February, 1955) for the courses in Social Studies in Grades 5 and 6. These books have been written by Canadian educators, illustrated by Canadian artists, and produced by Canadian publishers. They have been written to assist the teacher in achieving the aims of the course.

Grade 5

Lambert, THEY WENT EXPLORING, Book Society, \$2.00
Hamilton, PIRATES AND PATHFINDERS, Clarke, Irwin & Co., \$2.00
Code & Daniher, A WORLD DISCOVERED, J. M. Dent & Sons, \$2.00
Tait, THE WORLD WAS WIDE, Ryerson Press, \$1.85

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Grade 6

Chatterton et al, NEW WORLD SOCIAL STUDIES, J. C. Winston Co., \$1.95
Tait, BREASTPLATE AND BUCKSKIN, Ryerson Press, \$1.85
Tanser, WESTWARD TO THE AMERICAS, (Revised, 1955) Longmans Green & Co., \$2.00
(Prices quoted are subject to the usual discounts.)

It is anticipated that in most schools one of these books will be chosen as the basic text-book for the grade concerned. In addition a sufficient number of copies of one or more of the other books should be available in the classroom library for reference purposes. A careful examination should be made of each of the books before one is selected as a basic text. To aid teachers or committees of teachers charged with the task of making the selection some comments are offered in this memorandum about the qualities a satisfactory text-book should possess. Desirable characteristics of text, illustrations, maps, and other features are outlined as a basis on which books in Social Studies may be judged. If other books appear in this field, they may be evaluated on the same basis.

TEXT

(a) **Coverage of Course:** The book should adequately cover the course as set forth in the Programme of Studies. In some cases the authors have considered that the work of certain men mentioned in the Programme is not important enough to be extensively treated. In some cases the author has considered that the work of an explorer not mentioned in the course is important

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enough to be treated in the text. The explorations of Burton, Speke, and Baker were considered by one author too intricate for detailed treatment in Grade 5. Another author considered that the explorations of Vitus Bering were important enough to form a part of the course and has included them. In some of the books the story of the conquest of Mount Everest has been included. These features are not to be considered as deviations from the intention of the course.

(b) **Accuracy and Authenticity:** All information must be accurate and statements of fact must be verifiable by reference to recognized authority.

(c) **Interest:** (i) **Narrative.** For children of these grades the text should be in the form of a story or stories. The history of the discovery of the world is, in fact, a story made up of episodes which are complete stories in themselves. The course should be so treated. If the author has imagination, can write vividly, and is himself enthusiastic about his subject matter, the text will be interesting. Attempts to "write down" to children are invariably failures.

(ii) **Concreteness.** Concrete language is preferable to abstract. Where a general statement containing abstract nouns is used it is clarified and made more intelligible by the use of a concrete example.

(Here, for instance, is an illustration taken from a History of England. In describing social conditions in England in the 18th century the writer states, *The rural peasantry . . . were left without much moral or religious training of any sort.* This general statement is given life and becomes memorable by the concrete example, *We saw but one Bible in the parish . . . and that was used to prop a flowerpot.*

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(iii) **Detail.** There is a tendency in some books to overdo the use of proper names—native tribes, chieftains, unimportant small villages. While these may give an apparent air of authenticity, they do not add to the interest. They soon become burdensome and are, in most cases, lacking in significance.

(d) **Language:** (i) **Clarity.** The language should be clear and precise without vagueness or ambiguity. Pupils accustomed to text-books written with clarity in which words are given their precise meanings will tend to express themselves with exactness and clarity.

(ii) **Readability.** Vocabulary and sentence structure should, of course, be suitable to the grade level. Considerations of "vocabulary control", however, or mechanical application of the "Lorge formula", or other such device used to determine "readability" should not be allowed to kill the freshness or naturalness of the author's style. These devices are useful helps in estimating the "readability" of a passage after the writer has completed it; synthetic prose written to fit the "Lorge" or other formula is invariably stilted, and unnatural.

(e) **Objectivity:** Statements referring to members of particular national, racial, or religious groups should be objective, unbiased, and free from derogatory implication.

(f) **Index:** Every social studies text-book should contain an index, as well as a table of contents, partly for the convenience of the reader and also because the use of the index is a "reading skill" that has to be taught. The social studies text-book should contain material for that teaching.

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ILLUSTRATIONS

(a) **Illustration a Teaching Device:** An illustration should be used to emphasize or clarify a point in the text, or to say something that can be said better in a picture than in words. (There is truth in the adage, "One picture is worth a thousand words.") The illustration has no value unless it helps the reader to grasp the author's message more fully. It should not be used only to "break pages of type" or merely for decoration. (Chapter "headpieces" and "end-pieces" or "fillers" used on a part of a page that might otherwise be left blank may be exceptions to this rule.)

(b) **Authenticity:** Details of dress, weapons, tools, and implements, vehicles, landscape, etc., must be authentic and accurate.

(c) **Portraits:** Portraits of historical characters drawn by book illustrators are of little if any value to pupils at this stage. Authentic portraits of many of the characters referred to in these books do not exist. If they do, the book illustrator is seldom able to reproduce the features with accuracy and it is doubtful if there is any good purpose to be served by such reproduction.

(d) **Colour:** Clean black and white line drawings are often superior to coloured illustrations. The use of colour, by reducing contrast, sometimes obscures detail that should be made very clear.

(e) **Artistry:** To be of most value an illustration should, in addition to conveying its message clearly, meet the accepted canons of design as to composition—unity (balance, clearly

defined centres of interest, rhythm) and variety. If the illustrations in the pupils' text-books are artistic productions, the long term effect should be to elevate the public taste in art.

(f) **Position on the Page:** It is bad page layout to place an illustration in the middle of the page unless it comes at a point where the thought is complete and an illustration is required. An illustration is badly placed if the reader's eye must pass over it to complete the sentence he is reading. It is good practice to place a marginal illustration or diagram beside the point in the text that is being illustrated.

(g) **Captions:** The caption under an illustration should be regarded as a teaching device. It should be used to draw attention to important details of the illustration. A caption that does not add something to the illustration is of no value.

MAPS

(a) **Conventional Signs:** The pupils in these grades are meeting maps for the first time or at least are making extensive use of them for the first time. The illustrative maps should, therefore, resemble as nearly as possible the conventional map found in an atlas, and should employ the recognized conventional signs. If colour is used, it is preferable to show bodies of water in pale blue rather than brown or green. Other accepted conventions of map making should be adhered to.

(b) **Lettering:** Lettering should be clear and conventional. "Arty" lettering should not be used. Spelling of names of places on maps and in the text should be consistent. If there is reason for using different spellings in map and text an explanation should be given.

(c) **Detail:** Unnecessary detail should be omitted but every place named in the text should be shown on an accompanying map. If a locality is not important enough to be shown on a map, reference to it might well be omitted from the text

GEOGRAPHICAL TERMS

New geographical concepts should be developed as they are introduced and new terms should be explained when they are first used.

Explanation may be made by

- (a) definition or explanation in the text,
- (b) diagram, illustration, or marginal drawing (with caption).

If the explanation will cause too great an interruption of the story, the diagram and explanation should be placed at the end of the chapter, or in an alphabetical series at the end of the book with an appropriate method of referring the pupil to the explanatory material.

BOOK LISTS

An important aim of any course in Social Studies should be to encourage in the pupil a continuing interest in the subject. If the teacher is accomplishing this purpose in Grades 5 and 6 the pupil will want to read other books pertaining to the course. Book lists containing titles suitable for use in connection with the course should be included in the text-book.

These lists should be up-to-date, and should

- (a) list books that are available and suitable to the grade level,
- (b) indicate books that are out of print but are available in libraries,
- (c) indicate books suitable as teachers' references but too advanced for children's reading,
- (d) give the name of the Canadian publisher or importer,
- (e) include short stories, essays, or other material relating to the courses contained in the readers on the approved list.

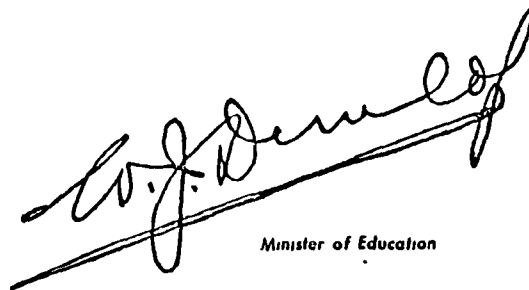
EXERCISES AND ACTIVITIES

If exercises or activities are suggested, in addition to exercises of the recall type (which are the least valuable though they are admissible), there should be some that are thought-provoking, that require reflection, that stimulate the pupil to seek further information and require him to make judgments. If further information is required some indication of where it is to be found should be given. Activities suggested should be for a purpose that the pupil can readily understand. They should be practical and such as can be carried out in an ordinary classroom. Exercises or activities that are mere busy work should have no place in the text-book.

FORMAT

- (a) The layout of the page should be attractive.
- (b) Type should be clear and easily read
- (c) Paper should be durable and should not produce glare under strong light. Glazed paper tends to be hard on the eyes.
- (d) Binding—durable, not easily soiled, with attractive design, should permit book to lie open when in use.

It is unlikely that all the features listed will be present in all these books as they are now presented. If some are absent the selection committee must weigh their omission against other desirable features that are included and make their decision having in mind the price of the books.



Minister of Education



ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT
OF
EDUCATION

MEMORANDUM

Re BOOKS for SCHOOL LIBRARIES
(Elementary Schools)

CURRICULUM: 9
30,000—APRIL, 1955

Ministry of Education, Ontario
Historical Collection

Memorandum re Books for School Libraries

The Department is asked from time to time for suggestions about books of recent publication suitable for the use of school libraries. The following list contains the names of books published within the last few years that appear to be valuable for supplementary reading or reference purposes. Most of the books listed are by Canadian authors and deal with matters of Canadian interest. Most of them also are directly related to the courses of study in Grades 5 to 8. A few have been on the market for some time and have proved their value as supplementary reading in schools. These books are drawn to the attention of School Boards and teachers who contemplate making additions to the school library. The books listed are subject to the reimbursement grant for reference books in those municipalities where it applies in the manner set forth in the Grant Regulations.

In each case the name of the Canadian publisher is shown. The prices shown are list prices as furnished to the Department by the publisher. Most of these books can, no doubt, be obtained from local booksellers. If the books are purchased locally the bookseller might properly charge the list price as he will have been at the expense of paying carriage charges from the publisher and the cost of handling; he may, however, be able to grant a discount to School Boards. If books are not to be obtained locally, they may be purchased direct from the publishers at the usual discount of 20% to schools. If several books are to be

ordered and several publishers are involved, the bulk order may be sent to The Co-operative Book Centre, 146 Wellington Street West, Toronto. The Book Centre has agreed to assemble the books from various publishers, send them in one shipment, and bill the Board on one invoice. Books ordered from The Book Centre will also be subject to the publisher's discount of 20% to schools.

The following extracts from the courses of study are repeated here to remind the teacher of the importance attached to extensive reading by the pupil and the value of the classroom library in fostering this habit.

SUPPLEMENTARY READING

The most important phase of the English course is supplementary reading. Indeed its importance can scarcely be over-estimated. When a child has learned to read, he will extend his own education indefinitely, provided he has enough suitable books and proper guidance and encouragement in their use. Such extensive reading should be regarded not merely as a source of information but as a desirable form of recreation. The child who has learned to love reading is not only likely to continue his education all through life, but is prepared profitably to enjoy his leisure. . . .

THE CLASSROOM LIBRARY

To cultivate properly the love of reading and to form the habit of finding in books information and enjoyment, *children must have ready access to books*. Every classroom, then, should have a small library of well-chosen, attractive books—well-chosen in that they appeal to the natural interests of children, and attractive in size, binding, and general format. The needs of the younger children in this regard should

receive particular attention as they are less likely to find for themselves books which they can read with pleasure and profit. The classroom library should contain reference books related to the Programme of Studies, and story books to be read for delight should also find a place on its shelves. Books for supplementary reading should not be purchased in sets. Forty different books are of much greater value in a classroom than forty copies of the same book.

Programme of Studies, Grades 1-6.

An atmosphere of interest in good books and wholesome reading should be established in the English classroom and in the school library by the provision of attractive library facilities, including adequate shelving and a wide variety of reading with emphasis on interesting books of adventure and noble deeds. . . . Teachers should make good use of the facilities of the travelling library and should co-operate with and encourage the use of the community library. But neither of these agencies can take the place of a well-stocked school library containing the sort of reading which young people like and from which they can derive most benefit.

Curriculum I: 1.

The importance of the classroom library in the English programme requires the teacher to assume responsibility for the selection of suitable books. The fact that a considerable sum of public money is devoted each year in the form of legislative grants to the improvement and enlargement of classroom and school libraries adds to this responsibility.

The following are excellent reference books on children's reading containing advice on the choosing of

books for children from kindergarten to early high school years.*

Arbuthnot, M. H.: CHILDREN AND BOOKS, 1947, pp. 626, \$4.00, W. J. Gage and Company.

Frank, Josette: YOUR CHILD'S READING TODAY, 1954, pp. 328, \$4.75, Doubleday Canada Ltd.

Smith, Lillian H.: THE UNRELUCTANT YEARS, 1953, pp. 193, \$4.50, American Library Association.

Thomson, Jean: BOOKS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS, 1954, pp. 297, \$7.50, The Ryerson Press.

THE UNRELUCTANT YEARS by Lillian H. Smith, contains a wealth of wisdom about children's reading distilled from the author's years of experience as Head of the Boys' and Girls' Division of the Toronto Public Libraries. It does not contain exhaustive lists but deals with the principles of selection and discusses, with ample illustration, the qualities that constitute good literature for children. To quote from the author's Foreword: "The importance of the selective function in finding and making known the best in children's literature is the theme of this book. To tolerate the mediocre and the commonplace is to misunderstand the purpose of book selection and the significance of literature."

BOOKS FOR BOYS AND GIRLS contains an annotated list of some 2000 titles edited by Jean Thomson, now Head of the Boys' and Girls' Division, Toronto Public Libraries.

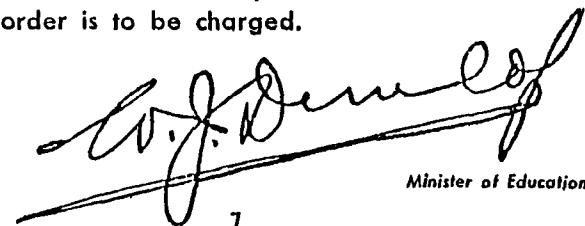
*These books may be borrowed from the Teachers' Reference Library, Travelling Libraries Branch of the Department of Education, 206 Huron Street, Toronto. The catalogue of the Teachers' Reference library has been sent to all schools; the facilities of this library are available to all teachers in public and separate schools (except those in the largest urban centres). See catalogue for conditions governing the borrowing of books.

Only those books considered to be of permanent interest to boys and girls have been listed, including the best of American, English, and Canadian children's literature. The book should be of particular value to Canadian teachers because it reflects the taste of Canadian boys and girls as observed by children's librarians in Canadian Public Libraries over a period of many years.

Teachers of Grades 7 and 8 are also referred to Curriculum 1:4 (Intermediate Division Supplementary Reading List) and the leaflet, Supplementary Reading Books added 1955.

A teacher who, because of lack of experience, feels doubtful of his ability to order wisely, or a principal who doubts the wisdom of an order submitted by a teacher, is advised to consult the Inspector about the proposed order before sending it on.

The lists contained in the reference books named above show the name of the original publisher, but for books published out of Canada the name of the Canadian importer is not shown. Books from these lists, however, can be secured from Canadian booksellers or from The Co-operative Book Centre if author, title, and publisher are clearly shown on the order. The order should also show clearly the address to which the books are to be sent, and the name and address of the person or School Board to whom the order is to be charged.



7

Minister of Education

GENERAL

THE SCHOOL TRAIN, Acker, Helen, 1953, pp. 118, \$1.95, Nelson, Foster and Scott, Limited.

This story was inspired by the work of Jas. R. Chalmers, the teacher of school car No. 4, which travels west out of Port Arthur. Six school cars are operated under the direction of the Department of Education to supply schooling for children along the railway lines of Northern Ontario for whom other educational facilities are not available. The story of the school cars has not previously been told in book form, and, although this book is fiction, the background is authentic. The author is an American who has spent much time in Northern Ontario. This book is the result of a visit to school car No. 4 made by Miss Acker in 1947. Suitable for grades 5 to 8.

THE GREAT ISLAND, Bice, Clare, 1954, pp. 103, \$3.00, Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

Two boys in search of pirate gold in the caves along the rugged Newfoundland coast became involved with mysterious strangers who were engaged in archaeological and scientific research. Illustrated by the author. Grades 5 to 7.

MUSKOKA HOLIDAY, Boyle, Joyce, 1953, pp. 216, \$2.00, Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

This is a story of the adventures of a group of children who went to Muskoka for their summer holidays. The author, Dr. Joyce Boyle, is an experienced writer of children's stories. She is a teacher on the staff of the Forest Hill Public Schools. Grades 6 to 8.

WHERE THE HIGH WINDS BLOW, Campbell, B. D., 1951, pp. 220, \$1.25, The Book Society.

A vivid account of the experiences of the author during five years in the Canadian Arctic as an employee of the Hudson's Bay Company. Contains an excellent description of Eskimo life. The black and-white illustrations by Phillip Bear are admirably clear and expressive. Grades 6, 7, and 8.

THE TRAIL OF THE RED CANOE, Govan, Margaret, 1954, pp. 179, \$2.00, J. M. Dent & Sons.

The story of a canoe trip in Algonquin Park. The author is the director of a private camp for girls near Huntsville, Ontario.

PADDLE-TO-THE-SEA, Holling, Holling Clancy, 1941, \$3.50, The Allen Ltd.

The travels of a toy Indian canoe from the head of the Great Lakes down the St. Lawrence River to the Atlantic Ocean. The full-page illustrations portray in a striking manner the character of the country through which the little boat passes. Grades 4 to 6.

THE ASCENT OF EVEREST, Hunt, John, 1954, pp. 160, \$1.25, Clarke, Irwin & Company Ltd.

THE ASCENT OF EVEREST, RETOLD FOR YOUNGER READERS, 1954, pp. 96, 75¢.

The story of the conquest of Mount Everest in 1953. Well told and well illustrated.

CONSERVATION AND WILD LIFE

THE ADVENTURES OF SAJO AND HER BEAVER PEOPLE, Grey Owl, 1935, \$2.50, British Book Services.

Story of two Indian children and their animal friends. Grades 6 to 8.

LAND AND WATER TRAILS, Jaeger, Ellsworth, 1953, pp. 227, \$2.95, Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

A good reference book for the classroom library on camping, woodcraft, and wild life. Grades 7 and 8.

THE FRIENDLY FORESTS, Moore, A. C., 1954, pp. 96, \$2.75, The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

An excellent supplementary book on Conservation. It describes the forests on this continent as they were when the first settlers came. Explains the effect of deforestation on top soil, water supply, and wild life. Explains the relationship between deforestation and floods and discusses means of restoring the forests. Good illustrations, Grade 8.

THE FIRE PATROL, Reynolds, Dickson, 1949, pp. 192, \$2.00, Thos. Nelson and Sons.

A story of the British Columbia forests. Two boys spend a summer as forestry helpers with the men who guard the forests from fire and blight. The book contains interesting accounts of wild life and an account of the fighting of a great forest fire. Grades 7 and 8.

PETER THE SEA TROUT, Thistle, Mel, 1954, pp. 177, \$2.75, The Ryerson Press.

A fictional account of the life history of an Atlantic sea trout. Peter's curiosity and desire for wisdom took him through many rivers, lakes, and Atlantic coast waters and led him into many adventures with other fish and aquatic animals from snails to whales. The author, a native of Newfoundland, is now a resident of Ottawa. Grades 5 to 8.

CANADIAN HISTORY

DRUMS OF NIAGARA, Acland, Eric, 1953, pp. 226, \$2.50, Thomas Nelson and Sons.

An adventure story of the period of the American Revolution and the coming of the Loyalists to Upper Canada.

THE GOLDEN TRAIL, Berton, P., 1954, pp. 147, \$2.00, Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

This is a story of the Klondike gold rush 1896 to 1899. It is fiction but historically authentic. The author, Pierre Berton, is the Managing Editor of Maclean's Magazine.

THE NOR'WESTERS, Campbell, Marjorie W., 1954, pp. 176, \$2.00, The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

An account of the North West Company from its formation to its amalgamation with the Hudson's Bay Company. Contains a good account of the Selkirk settlers. Suitable for supplementary use in connection with Unit 4 of the Grade 7 Social Studies Course.

REBEL ON THE TRAIL, Cook, Lyn, A Story of the 1837 Rebellion, 1953, pp. 247, \$2.50, The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

This is a novel suitable for grades 7, 8, and 9, interestingly written with authentic background. The author was the first full-time children's librarian in the City of Sudbury. She has written two other books for children, *The Bells on Finland Street*, and *The Little Magic Fiddler*.

SON OF THE MOHAWKS, Edwards, C. A. M., 1954, pp. 188, \$3.00, The Ryerson Press.

The story of Pierre Radisson's capture by the Mohawks, his adventures with the tribes, and his escapes during the years 1652 to 1654. Historically authentic and full of dramatic action.

REBELS RIDE AT NIGHT, Hayes, John F., 1953, pp. 286, \$3.00, The Copp Clark Company Ltd.

An adventure story for boys. The story provides a vivid description of the beginnings of the Rebellion of 1837, the clash at Montgomery's Tavern, and the aftermath of the Rebellion.

TREASON AT YORK, Hayes, John F., pp. 314, \$2.75, The Copp Clark Co. Ltd.

This is a story of the War of 1812, the scene being laid at York (Toronto) and Fort Niagara. There is a vivid description of the capture and burning of York in 1812. Grades 7 and 8.

BUCKSKIN COLONIST, Hayes, John F., 1947, pp. 251, \$2.75, The Copp Clark Co. Ltd.

An exciting story of the Selkirk settlers, packed with adventure. Grades 7 and 8.

A LAND DIVIDED, Hayes, John F., 1951, pp. 285, \$2.75, The Copp Clark Co. Ltd.

A story of the expulsion of the Acadians. This book won the Governor-General's Award for juvenile fiction in 1953.

The author of these books is a Canadian, was educated in Winnipeg, is at present Vice-President and General Manager of the Southam Press, Montreal.

THE PICTURE GALLERY OF CANADIAN HISTORY, Jeffreys, C. W.,
The Ryerson Press.

Volume I—1942, pp. 268, \$2.75

„ II—1945, pp. 271, \$2.75

„ III—1950, pp. 252, \$2.75

An excellent reference series for the classroom library, Grades 7 and 8. Contain several hundred pictures drawn from old prints and paintings or from surviving objects of the past in Canada and a large selection from the imaginative pictures and episodes of Canadian History made by the artist during a period of 40 years. The text contains notes on those pictures about which additional information seems to be required.

CANADIANS OF LONG AGO, Kidd, Kenneth E., 1951, pp. 174,
\$2.00, Longmans, Green and Company.

This book is sub-titled, *The Story of the Canadian Indian*. It deals with the social organization and life of the coast Indians, the Indians of the plains, the Algonquins and the Iroquois. The Hurons are treated as a branch of the Iroquois family. The book is suitable as a reference and for supplementary reading in connection with Unit 2 of the grade 7 Social Studies course. It is well illustrated, interestingly written, and the information contained is authentic. Mr. Kidd is the Curator of the Ethnographical Collection, Royal Ontario Museum of Archaeology. He has had considerable experience with giving talks to groups of school children who visit the Museum and the language of the book is well suited to the Grade 6, 7, and 8 levels.

BLACK FALCON, Knox, Olive, 1954, pp. 192, \$3.00, The Ryerson Press

An adventure story of the Canadian West at the end of the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th century based on authentic material. Grades 7 and 8

LITTLE GIANT, Knox, Olive, 1951, pp. 196, \$2.75, The Ryerson Press.

An adventure story set in the Canadian Northland in the early days of the Hudson's Bay Company. The hero, Henry Kelsey, is a historical character and the book is based on his journal and records of the Hudson's Bay Company. Grades 7 and 8.

NORTH FOR ADVENTURE, Lambert, R. S., 1952, pp. 208, \$1.95, McClelland and Stewart Limited.

A story based on the travels and experiences of Samuel Hearne, an officer in the employ of the Hudson's Bay Company, who discovered the Coppermine River. The book is written as fiction but all episodes are derived from Hearne's Journals and no fact incompatible with the Journals has been introduced. R. S. Lambert is Supervisor of School Broadcasts for the C.B.C. He is the author of the text book, *They Went Exploring* (Book Society). Grades 6 to 8.

FRANKLIN OF THE ARCTIC, Lambert, R. S., 1949, pp. 354, \$2.50, McClelland and Stewart Limited.

A vivid and absorbing biographical novel of the life and adventures of Sir John Franklin. Historically authentic, good illustrations and maps. This book earned the Governor-General's award for juvenile books in 1949, and, in the same year, the medal of the Canadian Association of Children's Librarians for Canadian books.

THE SCARLET FORCE, *The Making of the Mounted Police*, Longstreth, T. Morris, 1953, pp. 182, \$2.00. The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

This book covers the history of the early days of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police and relates the story of the Force from its founding until 1900. Suitable for supplementary use with Unit 5 of the grade 7 Social Studies course. Longstreth is the author of a history of the R.C.M.P. for adults called *The Silent Force*, and other books.

THE FORCE CARRIES ON, Longstreth, T. Morris, 1954, pp. 182, \$2.00. The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

A sequel to *The Scarlet Force*, describing the expansion of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. It contains a good account of the training of a Mounted Policeman. Grades 7 and 8.

RAIDERS OF THE MOHAWK, *The Story of Butler's Rangers*, Miller, Orlo, 1954, \$2.00, The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

This is a fictional account of the famous Loyalist regiment which was raised during the American Revolution and was of great assistance to the Loyalists on their migration to Canada. Written for grades 7 and 8. The author is a Canadian engaged in radio work in London, Ontario.

BUCKSKIN BRIGADIER, McCourt, Edward, 1955, pp. 150, \$2.00, The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

A story of the North West Rebellion in 1885, and Major-General Tom Strang, known in the west as the "buckskin brigadier", who gathered together a group of cowboys, Mounted Police, Calgary Home Guard and the Alberta Mounted Rifles to fight the rebels. An interesting story. Grades 7 and 8.

CARGOES ON THE GREAT LAKES, McPhedran, M., 1954, pp. 226, \$2.75, The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

The author tells the story of a summer spent in freighters on the Great Lakes. The book contains a vast amount of information about types of freighters and cargoes, Canadian and American ports, and life aboard ship. Grades 7 and 8.

THE BOY WHO RAN AWAY, Phelan, J., 1954, pp. 152, \$2.50, The Macmillan Company of Canada Limited.

An adventure story of pioneer days in the Canadian Northwest. The author, a former Ontario high school teacher, is now a librarian in the Toronto Public Libraries.

FREEDOM TRAIN, Sterling, Dorothy, 1954, pp. 191, \$2.75, Doubleday.

This is the story of Harriet Tubman, a negro slave who escaped to Canada and helped many slaves to escape via the Underground Railroad. Many escaped slaves formed a small community of freedmen in St. Catharines which became their home. Grades 7 and 8.

FAMOUS CANADIAN STORIES, Tait, George E., 1953, pp. 312, \$1.95, McClelland and Stewart Limited.

This book contains excellent supplementary material related to the grade 7 course in Social Studies. The vocabulary, sentence structure, and general arrangement are suitable for that grade. George Tait is the author of the text-books *Breastplate and Buckskin*, and *The World Was Wide*, as well as a number of "juveniles"—*Wake of the West Wind*, *The Silent Gulls*, and *The Saddle of Carlos Perez*—which have been well received. He is Professor of Education at the Ontario College of Education.

RETURN OF THE VIKING, Wuorio, Eva-Lis, 1955, pp. 208, \$3.00, Clarke, Irwin & Company Ltd.

The story is a mixture of fact and fantasy centring around four historical characters—Lief the lucky, Louis Hebert (the first Canadian farmer), Nils von Shoulitz (a Polish leader in the Patriots' war, 1838), Prince Rupert (whose interest in Radisson and Groseilliers led to the founding of the Hudson's Bay Company). Good illustrations. Grades 6 to 8.

BRITISH HISTORY

THE MARCH OF TIME, Horniblow and Sullivan, 1953, The House of Grant (Canada) Ltd.

Book 1, *Stories of Long Ago*, pp. 150, 86¢.

A series of stories of the ancient world simply told. Grades 4 and 5.

Book 2, *Mighty Men and Mighty Deeds*, pp. 160, 95¢.

Stories of heroes of the Roman world and Europe after the fall of the Roman Empire. Grades 4 to 6.

Book 3, *Kings and Queens, Knights and Heroes*, pp. 232, \$1.08.

Contains stories from British History from the Roman invasion to the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

Book 4, *Makers of Our Modern World*, pp. 226, \$1.08.

Contains stories from British History—1600 to the present day. The stories are very simply told and the books are very easy reading for Grade 8 but they are on the Grade 8 course in Social Studies.

THE VALLEY GROWS UP, Osmond, Edward, 1953, pp. 82, \$2.50, Oxford University Press.

A story of the growth of an English valley through the centuries—from 5000 B.C. to the present time—as it gradually develops from an uninhabited hillside and swamp to become the site of a busy modern town. Excellent illustrations in black and white and in colour. Grades 6 to 8.

A PORTRAIT OF THE MIDDLE AGES, Price, M. R., 1951, pp. 256 + 32, \$1.50, Oxford University Press.

An excellent account of social life in England from 1066-1485. Well illustrated. Grade 8.

A PORTRAIT OF BRITAIN UNDER TUDORS AND STUARTS, Price & Matlier, 1954, pp. 256+32, \$1.50, Oxford University Press.

Excellent supplementary reading material for use in connection with the Grade 8 course in Social Studies.

TEACHERS' REFERENCES

THE WHITE AND THE GOLD, Costain, Thomas B., 1954, pp. 482, \$5.00, Doubleday Canada Ltd.

This book covers the history of the French Regime in Canada to 1700. It is written in considerable detail in an interesting style with some stirring passages. Contains many admirable passages of background material which put events in Canada in the context of contemporary events in France.

SAINTE-MARIE AMONG THE HURONS, Jury & Jury, 1954, pp. 128, \$3.50, Oxford University Press.

This book is an account of the excavations begun in 1948 at Sainte-Marie, the residence of the Jesuit Mission to the Huron Indians near the present town of Midland. This residence was occupied by the missionaries from 1640-1649. The book reconstructs in detail the surroundings and daily lives of these missionaries, the first Europeans to make a settled abode in Upper Canada. Wilfrid Jury, an outstanding Canadian archaeologist, is Curator of the Museum of Indian Archaeology in the University of Western Ontario.

THE PARKMAN READER, Morison, S. E., 1955, pp. 524, \$6.75, McClelland and Stewart Limited.

An excellent selection from the writings of Francis Parkman, with introduction and notes, covering the French period in Canada to 1763.

Publishers

THOMAS ALLEN LTD., 266 King St. W., Toronto

THE BOOK SOCIETY OF CANADA LTD., Shepherd Ave., Agincourt

BRITISH BOOK SERVICES (CANADA) LTD., 1068 Broadview Avenue, Toronto

CLARKE, IRWIN & CO. LTD., 103 St. Clair Ave. West, Toronto

COFF CLARK CO. LTD., 517 Wellington St. West, Toronto

J. M. DENT & SONS (CANADA) LTD., 224 Bloor St. West, Toronto

DOUBLEDAY CANADA LIMITED, 105 Bond St., Toronto

W. J. GAGE & COMPANY LTD., 84 Spadina Ave., Toronto

THE HOUSE OF GRANT (CANADA) LTD., 88 Metcalfe St., Ottawa

LONGMANS, GREEN & COMPANY, 20 Cranfield Road, Toronto 16

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY OF CANADA LTD., 70 Bond St., Toronto

McCLELLAND & STEWART LTD., 25 Hollinger Road, Toronto

NELSON, FOSTER & SCOTT LTD., 87 John Street, Toronto

THOMAS NELSON & SONS (CANADA) LTD., 91 Wellington St. West, Toronto

OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS, 480 University Avenue, Toronto

THE RYERSON PRESS, 299 Queen St. W., Toronto

THE CO-OPERATIVE BOOK CENTRE, 146 Wellington Street West, Toronto

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
RE: REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
PROGRAMMES COMMENCING SEPTEMBER 1962

APPENDIX I:R

1961-62:37
10,000



ONTARIO

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Memorandum to

Members of Secondary School Boards
Members of Advisory Vocational Committees
Secretaries of Secondary School Boards
Directors and Superintendents
Principals of Secondary and Private Schools

RE INFORMATION PERTAINING TO THE REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL
PROGRAMMES COMMENCING SEPTEMBER, 1962

General information will be included in the brochure "After Grade Eight" to be issued particularly for teachers and parents of pupils in Grade 8, and details will be given in Circular H. S. 1, 1962-63, to be issued to Principals.

1. Adoption of New Programmes of Study

With the approval of the school board concerned, a principal may introduce wholly or in part the re-organized secondary school programmes of study announced by the Minister in August, 1961, commencing with Grade 9 in September, 1962, and continuing thereafter as the pupils proceed to the higher grades. A board may defer the introduction of all or part of the plan to a later year at its discretion. Schools in which the general plan has not been adopted will be deemed to be continuing the General Course, the Commercial Course, or the Technical Course, as the case may be, leading to the Secondary School Graduation Diploma now issued to pupils successfully completing these courses.

2. Adoption of the Plan in Small Schools

Those schools which hitherto have offered only the General Course and which because of small enrolment cannot yet establish any Branch other than Arts and Science may offer the Five-Year Programme and the Four-Year Programme in that Branch when the enrolment of Grades 10, 11, and 12 is sufficient to support two classes in each grade with a minimum of 20 pupils per class, one following each Programme, provided that the pupils' choices of Programmes by the end of Grade 9 fit that pattern of organization. Very small schools which cannot differentiate between Programmes will offer the Five-Year Programme in the Arts and Science Branch, or the General Course as formerly, in order that capable pupils may obtain, after successful completion of four or five years of the Programme, the Secondary School Graduation Diploma or the Secondary School Honour Graduation Diploma which will be required as they proceed to post-secondary education.

3. Accommodation and Equipment

In schools becoming composite for the first time with the erection of additions, it is not expected that all accommodation will be filled before 1964 or 1965 since only Grade 9 pupils will be enrolled in the new Branches in 1962-63. Boards and principals are urged not to create classes which are too small merely to justify filling the space in the first year or two of operation. For instance, by careful planning, a group of boys numbering 60-72 may well be divided into 2 classes for classroom subjects and into 3 classes for shops.

In these schools, some pupils will have completed one or more years of the Industrial Arts option, and may wish to continue this option through Grade 12. When the school becomes composite, this option will be continued as Shop Work and the instruction will be given in the technical shops on a rotation or semester plan. These pupils may not specialize in one particular shop.

Some boards which operate high schools or collegiate institutes are providing under the Federal-Provincial Technical-Vocational Training Agreement accommodation in which the vocational courses will be offered. Under The Secondary Schools and Boards of Education Act these boards have appointed Advisory Vocational Committees. Even though these boards are offering the regular Commercial Course and the One-Year

Special Commercial Course at this time, subject to general legislative grants, the vocational pupil grant on behalf of pupils in these courses will not apply until (a) the board offers Grade 9 of the reorganized programmes in both the Business and Commerce and the Science, Technology, and Trades Branches and (b) the new school or addition is available for use.

4. *Teaching Staff*

The Department has taken steps to give emergency training to prospective teachers of technical subjects according to the most careful estimate possible of the number that will be required in September 1962. In the employment of technical teachers, prior consideration must be given to (1) those who are certificated, and (2) the candidates on course at the Ontario College of Education who are subsidized under the Federal-Provincial Agreement. If it is found in May that in certain trade categories no qualified person is available, consideration will be given to offering an emergency training programme to persons who can meet the admission requirements and who have a contract with a board. The details with respect to the engagement of unqualified persons are given in Memorandum 1961-62:43.

Some technical teachers in the first year may be asked to teach part time in a second shop or, for example, in a class of Mathematics, Science, or Geography. Where necessary, the Department will issue Letters of Permission to boards on behalf of these teachers to assist the schools in this initial period of adjustment.

Summer courses leading to an Interim Vocational Certificate, Type B, in Occupational Training will be offered in Toronto commencing in 1962. Applicants will be required to complete one, two, or three of these courses according to their present qualifications. An occupational trade test will be required of applicants who are not now qualified in the specific skills which they wish to teach.

Where teachers holding the Specialist Certificate in Industrial Arts, now employed in the secondary schools, are affected by the conversion of their shops to technical shops, these teachers will have an opportunity to attend summer courses in order to qualify as technical teachers. A Letter of Permission will be issued, to a maximum of three years on behalf of any such teacher, to a board to cover the period of time necessary for him to qualify. If an Industrial Arts teacher so affected chooses to teach other subjects and proceeds immediately to an acceptable university degree, a Letter of Permission will be issued on his behalf provided that he continues satisfactory progress toward qualification as a high school assistant.

Inquiries regarding vocational courses for technical teachers or occupational teachers may be directed to Mr. R. D. Phillips, Director, Vocational Teacher Education, Ontario College of Education, 371 Bloor Street West, Toronto.

Arrangements are being made also to attract more persons into teaching the commercial subjects by offering emergency professional training toward a vocational certificate permitting the holder to teach specified skills or parts of the work in the Business and Commerce Branch.

Although the supply of basically qualified secondary school teachers is improving in relation to the rapidly increasing demand, it may not be possible in certain subject fields for all boards to obtain such teachers or persons who are able to qualify professionally by taking summer courses beginning in 1962. When no applicants are available who may present secondary school teaching qualifications by September 1, boards are urged not to engage, subject to a Letter of Permission being issued, any person who has little likelihood of securing a basic secondary teacher's certificate in the near future no matter how well he may otherwise seem to be qualified. Such a person has no security in the profession since his position must be advertised each year. Only those who have made real progress toward a university degree and will complete it extramurally within three years should be considered. When in the future the supply of teachers equals the demand, unqualified persons teaching in secondary schools and the boards which continue to employ them may be in a very embarrassing position.

In the reorganization of the school programmes the best teachers should be encouraged to teach several classes in each of at least two programmes or in one programme of two or more branches. To achieve the objectives of the plan pupils who would otherwise leave school prematurely must be induced to remain profitably until graduation. This can be done only by offering them a good quality of instruction and a fair cross-section of the teachers who will be able to motivate them to their best efforts.

Each school board must convince its teachers that the success of the school in the future will be judged not so much by the outstanding achievements of a few pupils as by its contribution to the community through the training and later service as citizens of all the pupils at their respective levels of ability.

5. *Supervisory Staff*

When a board appoints a principal or other senior supervisory officer, the members collectively express initial confidence in his ability to organize, direct, and supervise. Unless this confidence has been misplaced,

he should be permitted to function as the educational official who will inform the board of the effect of the new plan on the school(s) and will recommend changes of policy. The board on its part must interpret the needs of the community and consult with the principal on the degree to which organization should be changed to meet them. A few examples will be given where co-operation and consultation between principal and board in the form of recommendation and approval, respectively, may be expected under the new plan.

(a) The smooth functioning of a school under the new plan will require a good guidance programme involving close and harmonious relationships with the elementary schools. The technical features of guidance should be in the hands of one or more trained persons. But every good experienced teacher of Grade 9 undoubtedly can contribute toward the effective functioning of the school's counselling programme. Teacher counselling time at the rate of one period per week for every 20 pupils should be included in the timetable. If the school lacks trained guidance personnel, a few experienced teachers interested and skilful in public relations should be encouraged to attend summer courses. The guidance department in a large school should be accepted as a regular part of school organization since the principal of the present day is too busy an official to continue the informal counselling service given by his predecessors.

Before Grade 8 pupils are approached in February or March for an indication of probable options to be taken in Grade 9 the principal must have the approval of the board for the options which he proposes to include in the Grade 9 year. Since this may entail employment of additional teachers with special qualifications, the month of February will probably be the month of decision for the board and principal. Although the range of possible options is great, a small school need not attempt to provide more than are economically feasible. No option should be considered until there is a reasonable hope that a competent teacher will be available. This will be even more important when a board later contemplates establishing some of the new options in Grades 11 and 12 of the Four-Year Programme in the Arts and Science Branch.

(b) Whereas the courses of the Five-Year Programme are determined generally by the requirements of post-secondary education, a greater freedom is possible in the other programmes. On the recommendation of the principal a board may request permission of the Department of Education to introduce an option in Grades 10, 11, and 12 of the Four-Year Programme which is not listed in Circular H. S. 1. After thorough discussion of the question, in view of the needs of the pupils and the community, the principal or other supervisor will be asked to submit to the Department for approval a draft outline of the proposed course.

(c) The same freedom may be exercised in even greater measure in the Two-Year Programme. This shorter programme may well be deferred until the demand for it is established. Some boards of new composite schools will delay its introduction until the other programmes are fully launched.

(d) Much of the responsibility for the Occupational Programme rests with the local school authorities. It is intended for pupils of age 15 or 16 who have been transferred rather than promoted to the secondary school. Pupils in classes organized in the Occupational Programme in any school of a system under an Advisory Vocational Committee will be considered to be vocational pupils. The courses are of short duration; they are intended to meet local needs in the service occupations and the accommodation provided is readily adaptable to various courses. Therefore, this Programme may rightly be placed under the supervision of a sub-committee of the Advisory Vocational Committee including trustees who are especially interested in fitting courses to the needs of pupils of limited ability. Approval of the courses in this Programme is the responsibility of the district or municipal inspector. It is the expectation of the Department that not more than 10% of the enrolment of a school district will be classified in the Occupational Programme. Occasionally it may be desirable to obtain part-time instruction by persons in supervisory positions in service establishments who are not members of the school staff. Letters of Permission may be obtained on behalf of such persons for a limited period of time.

6. *Classification of Pupils*

The principal's prerogative in classifying and promoting pupils will remain unchanged with the exception that pupils awarded a Secondary School Graduation Diploma after four years of the Five-Year Programme will be admitted to Grade 13 in the subjects listed on the Diploma.

It is the prerogative of the board to approve the programmes and options to be offered in a school; it is the function of the school staff to counsel and advise pupils, especially those of Grades 8 and 9 regarding these opportunities and the courses best suited to their capabilities; it is the right of the successful pupils and their parents to make choices from the branches, programmes, and options which are available.

A pupil may repeat any grade once to retain his place in a programme. Under special circumstances, upon the recommendation of the principal and by resolution of the board he may repeat a second time in the same grade and programme. In most cases, however, pupils who fail a grade for the second time will be

counselled and persuaded to attempt another programme more suited to them in the school or in a provincial trade school. For others there is no alternative but immediate employment; it is hoped that the school authorities will assist in placement when the pupil is deserving of this help.

If a board is concerned that some pupils will spend two years each in successive grades, such pupils should be cautioned that repeating more than one year may bring them into the category where fees may be charged by the board in the seventh year of attendance in a secondary school (see Section 70 (6), The Secondary Schools and Boards of Education Act).

7. Flexibility

The expansion of secondary education in the Province of Ontario in the past twenty years has led to great diversification in school districts, in types and sizes of schools, and in means of transportation—all conditioned by circumstances physical, economic, or geographic in nature. The Department wishes to permit the maximum degree of flexibility for schools of all types, to give principals and boards the greatest freedom possible, subject only to the stipulation that the degree of uniformity necessary for the maintenance of good provincial standards be preserved, and to set the objective that every young person may have the best education which he is willing and able to obtain.

The district or municipal inspector is the person best qualified to answer questions which are of concern to a board and which the principal may not be able to answer. If his next visit is not imminent, the board may write to him for information or directly to the Department of Education. It is not expected that information from the Department will cover all the exigencies of organization and accommodation, some of which are indeed complex. The initial drafts and outlines for courses of study are to be regarded as tentative and experimental, subject to improvement according to experience.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, reading "J. S. Rivers". The signature is fluid and cursive, with a long horizontal line extending from the end of the name.

Chief Director of Education.

TORONTO, February 2, 1962.

EXCERPT WILLIAM DAVIS ADDRESS TO
ONTARIO LEGISLATURE (SEPTEMBER 8, 1964)

APPENDIX I:S

9. CURRICULUM:

A five-year project to revise the course of study in Science and Mathematics for Grades 7 through 13 is nearing completion. During the past year course outlines have been prepared in Mathematics for Grades 7, 8, 11, and 12, in Physics and in Biology for Grade 13. Two science options, Biology and Geology, have been developed for Grades 11 and 12 of the Four-Year Programme. With the issuing, during the coming school year, of new courses in Chemistry for Grades 12 and 13 and in Mathematics for Grades 9, 10, and 13, the project will have been completed.

In developing the new courses, the selection of content has been governed by the students, present background in Science and Mathematics and by the amount of teacher preparation necessary. In these disciplines particularly, no course of study can be considered complete in the sense that it is fixed for an indefinite period.

In accord with the policy of providing numerous options in the Four-Year Secondary School Programme to meet a wide variety of needs and interests at that level, the following new courses have been issued: Modern Literature, World Politics, Speech Arts, Man in Society, Theatre Arts, as well as the courses in Biology and Geology already referred to. These courses, in which the teachers are encouraged to adapt the material for different class situations, have had widespread public approval. There will be others to follow. Distributive Education, Data Processing, Nursing Assistants will be among the first. A complete revision of the courses in Music for Grades 7 through 13 will be undertaken this year. New courses in Health for the Intermediate Division will also be issued.

Five curriculum research specialists with broad experience in the fields of teacher education, inspection and research have been seconded to the Curriculum Branch for preparatory work on the revision of the courses for Kindergarten and Grades 1 to 6. At its present stage of development this project involves the compilation of educational information on aims, organization, research, methods and content from many areas of the United Kingdom, the United States, and other provinces of Canada. Because several of the studies planned or in process in the Ontario Curriculum Institute have direct relevance, the reports of this research will be of great value to the Departmental committees.

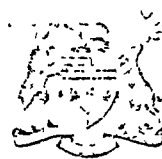
The day has passed when curriculum revision can be considered a matter of assembling subject specialists to issue new courses of study. The 58,000 teachers in the Provincial system, who are the key to the implementation of any course of study, must be involved at several stages. The Department has made a beginning in providing leadership in this process. During the past year workshops and familiarization sessions were held throughout the Province in the subjects of Mathematics and in History and Modern Languages--projects that involved the cooperation of several Branches in the Department.

It is expected that this phase of curriculum development will receive increasing emphasis in the future.

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
RE: REVISION OF CURRICULUM FOR KINDERGARTEN
AND GRADES 1 TO 6

APPENDIX I:T

1964-65:13
12,000



ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

44 EGLINTON AVE. W.
TORONTO 12, ONTARIO

Memorandum to Directors of Education
Superintendents of Elementary Schools
Inspectors of Elementary Schools
Secretaries of Boards of Education
Secretaries of Elementary School Boards

10-1-65

Re: The Revision of the Curriculum for
Kindergarten and Grades 1 to 6

1. A comprehensive revision of the school programme for the Kindergarten, and the Primary and Junior Divisions will be a major responsibility of the Curriculum Branch during the next two years.
2. The assistance of local superintendents and inspectors is essential to the success of this project at every stage. It is the Department's intention to keep these officials informed of developments by means of periodic information bulletins, to draw upon their experience and possibly to ask their assistance in conducting surveys, as these may be found desirable.
3. It would be appreciated if superintendents and inspectors would inform the Superintendent of Curriculum of any special features in curriculum adaptations or in instructional organization that may be of interest to the several curriculum committees that will begin work this year. Communications should be directed to

Superintendent of Curriculum,
344 Bloor Street West, Suite 600,
Toronto 4, Ontario.

4. The following personnel are on loan to the Curriculum Branch of the Department of Education to serve as curriculum consultants during the school year 1964-65

Mr. J.K. Crossley - Inspector of Public Schools, Fort Erie
Miss D.H. Dunn - Inspector of Separate Schools, Ottawa
Mr. N.B. Massey - London Teachers' College
Miss P.A. Moore - Peterborough Teachers' College
Mr. E.J. Quick - Toronto Teachers' College

5. In the course of assembling information concerning courses of study, research projects and other curriculum studies being developed in local systems it may be useful for members of the Curriculum Branch staff to visit selected schools throughout the Province. The advice of the local inspectors will be sought in selecting the schools to be visited.

2.

The following would be some of the purposes of such visits:

- (a) To interview members of the supervisory staff in respect of particular projects for the supervision of which these officials are responsible
 - (b) To interview the principal and teachers involved in the project
 - (c) To observe the project or programme in operation
 - (d) To meet with groups of local teachers in order to test their reaction to specific curriculum concepts
 - (e) To gather other expressions of opinion as these may be offered.
6. Visits would be made with the concurrence of the local superintendent or inspector and the details arranged between the Curriculum Branch and the principal of the school.
7. Your co-operation in these matters will be appreciated.

W. R. Stewart

for Chief Director of Education

TORONTO, September 9, 1964.

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
RE: APPOINTMENT OF IMPLEMENTATION COMMITTEE

APPENDIX I:U

1964-65:17
6006



DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

44 EGLINTON AVE W
TORONTO 12, ONTARIO

MEMORANDUM

Re Appointment of an Implementation Committee

The Minister of Education recently announced the appointment of an Implementation Committee which will be charged with the responsibility of facilitating and expediting further studies along the lines suggested in the Report of The Grade 13 Study Committee, 1964.

The Minister stated that the initial membership of the Implementation Committee will be limited to representatives of the Department and the Universities and that liaison will be established immediately with the several organizations which are in a position to assist in further investigation of the proposals that have been made.

Mr. J.R. Thomson, Assistant Superintendent of Secondary Education, will be the chairman and Dr. C.A. Brown, Registrar of the Department, will be the secretary of the Committee. The other members are Mr. P.H. Cunningham, Superintendent of Business Administration; Dr. James A. Gibson, President of Brock University; Dr. Robin S. Harris, Principal of Innis College, University of Toronto; Dr. R.W.B. Jackson, Director, Department of Educational Research; Mr. M.B. Parnall, Superintendent of Curriculum and Text-Books; and Mr. J. Bascom St. John of the Departmental Policy and Development Council.

The Minister hopes that organizations and individuals will continue to offer comments and suggestions as studies proceed. For convenience communications of this nature may be addressed to the Secretary, Implementation Committee, Department of Education, 44 Eglinton Avenue West, Toronto 12, Ontario.

W. R. Stewart

Deputy Minister

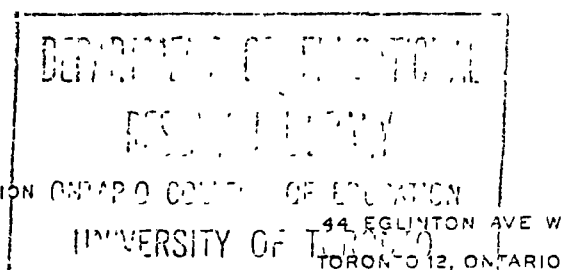
TORONTO, September 23, 1964

ONTARIO DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MEMORANDUM
RE: THE ROLE OF CURRICULUM DIVISION

APPENDIX I:V



ONTARIO
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION



MEMORANDUM TO SCHOOL OFFICIALS

- Re: 1. Future Distribution of Memoranda to Schools
2. Reading of Memoranda
3. Teacher's Identification (Superannuation) Number
4. Lists of Teachers Requiring Inspection
5. Procedure for Obtaining a Permanent High School Certificate
6. The Role of the Curriculum Division
7. Fire Drill
8. Classification of Secondary Pupils

1. Future Distribution of Memoranda to Schools

In keeping with the principle of integration, "School Officials" as used in the title of this memorandum will include, as in the past year, Directors of Education, Superintendents of Secondary Schools, Secondary School Inspectors, Principals of Secondary Schools, Elementary School Inspectors, Secretaries of Secondary School Boards, Principals of Inspected Private Schools, and Departmental Officials. The Principals of Inspected Private Schools will note that not all the items in the memoranda are applicable to their schools.

2. Reading of Memoranda

Over a period of years the chief means of communicating information to secondary school staffs and officials has come to be the numbered memorandum. Sufficient copies of each are sent to every school and board in order that principals, teachers, and secretaries may be kept informed. Copies should be filed in folios in each staff room and the principal's secretary should ask the head of the department to initial the principal's copy whenever an item is included which concerns his department.

At the first staff meeting in each school in September, the principal is requested to reiterate to all his teachers and his secretarial staff that it is one of their duties to keep informed about memoranda issued to the schools. The principal, however, is the official whom the Department of Education holds responsible for application of changes affecting the instruction and internal administration in the school.

3. Teacher's Identification (Superannuation) Number

In the tens of thousands of active files of school teachers in the Department a surprising number of exact name duplications occur. Many files are now listed by Teacher's Identification Number, rather than by name, to gain the advantages of modern filing procedures.

In the secondary schools it is essential

- (a) that school secretaries complete each Teacher's Timetable with the Teacher's Identification (Superannuation) Number (not to be confused with the number on a teacher's certificate);
- (b) that teachers insert their Teacher's Identification Number at the upper right-hand corner of any letter or form submitted to the Depart-

4. Lists of Teachers Requiring Inspection

Teachers who expect to apply in the spring of 1965 for (a) permanent certificates, (b) endorsement of certificates, or (c) admission to Type A Seminars, the Secondary School Principal's course, or other courses, for which successful experience is required, should arrange with their principals at the beginning of September for inspection during the year if their names have not already been forwarded to the District or Municipal Inspector in the list of teachers requiring inspection. Requests which reach the inspectors in the spring term cannot always be fulfilled, especially if travelling time is involved.

5. Procedure for Obtaining a Permanent High School Certificate

Teachers should be reminded that an interim teaching certificate does not become permanent automatically after teaching for two years subsequent to the date of the interim certificate, even if the teacher has been inspected each year. The following two conditions must be met:

- (a) the quality of the teaching must meet the standard set by the Department for the granting of the permanent certificate, as certified by the inspector concerned, and
- (b) the application, made on Form 613, with the experience certified by the principal, must be submitted to the Department along with the interim certificate.

In a large municipality which has a Superintendent of Secondary Schools, the application form should be forwarded to the Municipal Superintendent who, in turn, will submit it to the Department.

Every effort is made to issue the permanent certificates before September 1, but it is not always possible to process all applications and mail the certificates by that date. In any case the interim certificate is valid for five years.

Principals should ask their secretaries to obtain a supply of Forms 612 and 613 which may be given to teachers when they are ready to apply for permanent certificates.

6. The Role of the Curriculum Division

The staff of the Curriculum Division is being reorganized and augmented as a consequence of the Minister's statement of objectives for the school program.

In summary, these objectives include:

- (a) articulation of courses of study, Grade 1 to Grade 13;
- (b) provision of new courses and programs designed to meet a wide variety of student needs;
- (c) promotion of the best of new teaching methods, materials, and techniques, including ETV and other audio-visual media and technological devices;
- (d) the continuing revision of curriculum publications in order that the school program may benefit from the findings of educational research and from the latest developments in scholarship and in the world of business and industry;
- (e) redirection of emphasis in the curriculum to prepare students for living in a technological society;
- (f) ensuring, insofar as the school program can do so, that the sense of identity and integrity of the individual and the values of our society are preserved and enhanced.

An increase in the Curriculum Division complement will provide sufficient staff to assume curriculum responsibilities for all phases and levels of the school program.

It is planned that, beginning in September of this year, members of the Curriculum Division Staff will visit the elementary and secondary schools of the Province. The purpose of such visits will be two-fold:

- (a) to identify the curriculum needs of the classroom teacher by obtaining teachers' evaluations of courses of study and by compiling suggestions for improvement of courses;
- (b) to assist in the interpretation to teachers of the aims of the several courses and to provide information concerning available materials which will assist the teacher in achieving these aims.

It should be noted that the Curriculum Division Staff will not be reporting to the local administration or to the Department concerning the organization of schools, or the effectiveness of the instructional program, or the competence of the teachers.

It is hoped that the informal visits of the Curriculum Division Staff will serve as an effective means of communication with teachers regarding curriculum and that the consultations will assist in improving the educational programs in the schools.

7. Fire Drill

Each principal is reminded to test the fire alarm system in his school at the commencement of the school year and to comply with regulations requiring fire drill.

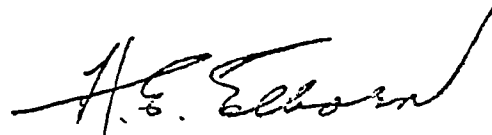
8. Classification of Secondary Pupils, Academic or Vocational, for Grant Purposes (Repeated from Memorandum 1964-65:3)

It is important that secondary school pupils enrolled in Grade 9 under The Reorganized Programs of Study be classified correctly in the daily registers of attendance in order that the reports submitted for grant purposes may be consistent with the totals in the registers. The following policy should be adopted:

- (i) Subject to (ii) and (iii) below, all pupils enrolled in
 - (a) the Business and Commerce Branch,
 - (b) the Science, Technology, and Trades Branch,
 - (c) the Occupational Program, or
 - (d) the special one-year courses in Business, Commercial Work, Technical Subjects, Home Economics, and Vocational Art leading to a Secondary School Graduation Diploma in the special field,

shall be classified as Vocational for grant purposes, provided that an Advisory Vocational Committee has been established.

- (ii) For any board, the maximum number of Grade 9 pupils that may be classified as Vocational for grant purposes in any year is two-thirds of the Grade 9 enrolment.
- (iii) A board whose secondary school enrolment is less than 200 may not appoint an Advisory Vocational Committee.



H. E. Elborn
Assistant Deputy Minister.

August 27, 1965.

CONTACT LETTERS

APPENDIX II

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Ontario

Ministry of
Education
Ministry of
Colleges and
Universities

Telephone 416/965- 6913 13th Floor
Mowat Block
Queen's Park
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 1L2
Our file number MA 230
Your file number

November 20, 1981.

Miss Rosemarie Hoey,
1755 Riverside Drive,
Apt. 1208,
Ottawa, Ontario.
K1G 3T6

Dear Miss Hoey:

Dr. H. K. Fisher, Deputy Minister, has asked me to
reply to your request of November 2 for permission
to review certain restricted materials and
documents presently in custody of the Archives of
Ontario.

This is simply to state that I have already referred
your letter to the appropriate Ministry officials
from whom you should be hearing shortly.

Yours sincerely,

George E. Mills,
Information Officer,
Registrar Services Branch.

GEM/11



Office of the
Deputy Minister

Ministry of
Education

Ministry of
Colleges and
Universities

Mowat Block
Queen's Park
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 1A2
416 965-2605

November 27, 1981.

Miss Rosemarie Hoey,
Apt. 1208,
1755 Riverside Drive,
Ottawa, Ontario.
K1G 3T6

Dear Miss Hoey:

I have your letter of November 2 in which you request permission to examine documents of the Department of Education situated in the Archives of Ontario.

Permission is granted to you to examine the documents in the Archives' Central Registry under classification Series P-3 for 1951-1965 inclusive, a period which is within the terms of reference of your thesis. Moreover, you are permitted to read and refer to those miscellaneous materials specified in your letter that relate to the same period.

Any photocopies of the items concerned which you may obtain are, of course, intended strictly for your own perusal. They should not be given or shown to any other person or stored where they might be accessible to unauthorized individuals. If and when you have no further use for the photocopies, advice on their disposal should be sought from the Archives. Photocopying should be restricted to documents of exceptional research value but if large volume orders are to be involved, I would suggest that microfilming would be preferable on the grounds of security, apart from being more economical.

This access permission is restricted to you personally and does not apply to anyone else employed by or working with you unless separate and specific authorization is given.

Please accept my best wishes in your research towards your doctoral thesis.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read "H. K. Fisher".
H. K. Fisher,
Deputy Minister.



Office of the
Deputy Minister

Ministry of
Education

Ministry of
Colleges and
Universities

Mowat Block
Queen's Park
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 1L2
416 965-2605

December 21, 1981

Miss Rosemarie Hoey
Apt. 1208
1755 Riverside Drive
Ottawa, Ontario
K1G 3T6

Dear Miss Hoey:

Dr. H. L. Willis, Director of Educational Studies at the Faculty of Education, University of Ottawa has written to me recently about your doctoral project on curriculum policy-making in Ontario. Specifically, Dr. Willis requested permission for you to interview Ministry of Education personnel who are, or were, involved in curriculum.

Within the present organizational structure of the Ministry, Curriculum Development is a division headed by Mr. R.A.L. Thomas, Executive Director. If you will contact Mr. Thomas at this address (telephone 416 - 965-5624), I am sure arrangements can be made for you to interview some appropriate branch directors and education officers. You might be well advised to allow adequate time for setting up the arrangements, and to be prepared to specify dates of your availability here for the interviewing. I should also mention that there are not many personnel here whose Ministry experience overlaps the historical period of your study.

You will no doubt recall my letter of November 27, 1981 to you with respect to permission to examine Department of Education documents in the Archives of Ontario. I am sure we will be able to further accommodate your interests through arranging for some interviews with appropriate personnel.

Yours sincerely,

H. K. Fisher
Deputy Minister



APPENDIX II:D

Ministry of
Education

Telephone 416 965-5624

2nd Floor
Mowat Block
Queen's Park
Toronto Ontario
M7A 1L2

Our file number

Your file number

January 19, 1982

Miss Rosemarie Hoey
1208 - 1755 Riverside Drive
Ottawa, Ontario
K1G 3T6

Dear Miss Hoey:

Thank you for your letter of January 5, 1982 with reference to interviewing Ministry of Education officials for your study on curriculum policy-making. I appreciate your having indicated some dates when you expect to be in Toronto.

In order to get some interviews organized for you I am asking Mr. R.C. Blackwell of the Elementary Education Branch to contact you by phone for setting up some detailed arrangements. Mr. Blackwell has already spoken to some staff for possibilities during February 15 - 19. It has been noted from your letter that you plan to see Mr. John Storey on February 17.

I expect you may have heard from Mr. Blackwell by the time you receive this response, and through him you should be able to make the contacts you need.

Yours sincerely,

R.A.L. Thomas
Executive Director
Curriculum Development
Division



Ontario

Archives of
OntarioMinistry of
Culture and
Recreation

Tel: 965-6883

77 Grenville Street
Queen's Park
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 2G9

March 25, 1982

Ms Rosemarie Hoey
1208-1755 Riverside Dr.
Ottawa
Ontario
K1E 3T6

Dear Ms Hoey:

Thank you for your letter of March 18, 1982.

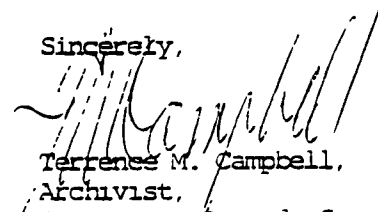
First of all, concerning Dana Porter's St. Thomas speech, there seems to be no complete copy extant in the Department of Education collection. I checked the Ontario Government newsclipping collection, however, and there are a number of clippings from different papers covering the speech.

Secondly, for the period you're interested in, there is no ministerial series per se. The correspondence and records that do exist would be found in P-3, the Central Registry series you've been examining. There do exist, however, three boxes of Mr. Dunlop's files pertaining almost exclusively to election campaigns, general correspondence, riding material etc. This material is subject to the 30-year rule and you would require clearance from the Deputy Minister to examine them. The clearance you received earlier pertains exclusively to P-3 and a specific list of other series. Of course, you would have access to the public speeches of Mr. Frost and Mr. Roberts.

One final point. I am going to be on holidays April 5 - 9, and out of the office on a field trip on April 13. I suggest that since retrieval of P - 3 and some of the unprocessed material is something of a problem, you may wish to schedule your visit to the Archives on April 14, 1982.

I'll look forward to seeing you then.

Sincerely,


Terrence M. Campbell,
Archivist,
Government Records Section

TMC:smd



Office of the
Deputy Minister

Ministry of
Education

Ministry of
Colleges and
Universities

Mowat Block
Queen's Park
Toronto, Ontario
M7A 1L2
416 965-2608

April 8, 1982.

Miss Rosemarie Hoey,
Apt. 1208,
1755 Riverside Drive,
Ottawa, Ontario.
K1G 3T6

Dear Miss Hoey:

I have your letter of March 29 in which you request permission to examine additional Department of Education documents situated in the Archives of Ontario.

Permission is now granted to you to examine the election campaign items, riding activity files and general correspondence files of three former Ministers of Education, namely Hon. W. J. Dunlop, Hon. John Robarts and Hon. William G. Davis. It is understood that these files are not included in the classification Series P-3 for 1951-1965.

You are reminded that any photocopies of the items concerned which you may obtain are, of course, intended strictly for your own perusal. They should not be given or shown to any other person or stored where they might be accessible to unauthorized individuals. If and when you have no further use for the photocopies, advice on their disposal should be sought from the Archives. Photocopies should be restricted to documents of exceptional research value but if large volume orders are to be involved, I would suggest that microfilming would be preferable on the grounds of security, apart from being more economical.

Please accept my good wishes for continued success in the completion of your doctoral thesis.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "H. K. Fisher".
H. K. Fisher,
Deputy Minister.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

APPENDIX III

SECTION A: INTERVIEWS (I)/AUXILIARY CORRESPONDENCE REFERENCES (C)

<u>Contact</u>	<u>I/C</u>	<u>Date</u>
Roger Ingall - Member of Provincial Committee on Aims and Objectives of Education in Schools of Ontario (Hall-Denis Report) - Former Chairman of the Ontario Teachers' Federation Curriculum, Revision Co-ordinating Committee - Superintendent, Carleton Board of Education, Nepean, Ontario	I	Oct. 14/81
Noel Clark President O. P. S. M. T. F. Toronto, Ontario	C	Nov. 16/81
George V. Meek Former President Ontario Teachers' Federation Toronto, Ontario	I	Nov. 16/81
J. K. Crossley Retired Director, Special Projects Branch Ministry of Education Toronto, Ontario	I	Nov. 16/81
John Storey Regional Director of Education, Central Ontario Region	I	Jan. 21/82
Dr. Harry Pullen Retired Educator/Professor White Rock, B.C.	C C	Nov. 11/81 Dec. 9/81
Dr. Doris Ryan Director of Graduate Studies O. I. S. E. Toronto, Ontario	I	Nov. 17/81
Dr. Bruce Doern Professor School of Public Administration Carleton University Ottawa, Ontario	I	Apr. 5/82
Dr. George S. Tomkins Professor Centre for the Study of Curriculum and Instruction University of British Columbia Vancouver, B.C.	I	June 9/82 (Ottawa)

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES (CONT'D)

APPENDIX III
(CONTINUED)SECTION A: INTERVIEWS(I)/AUXILIARY CORRESPONDENCE REFERENCES(C) (Cont'd)

<u>Contact</u>	<u>I/C</u>	<u>Date</u>
Dr. Nora Hodgins Toronto, Ontario	I	May 16/82
Dr. William Boyd Professor College of Education The Pennsylvania State University University Park, Pennsylvania	I	Jun. 11/82 (Ottawa)
Dr. J. R. McCarthy Retired Deputy-Minister of Education Professor O. I. S. E. Toronto, Ontario	I I	Apr. 14/82 Aug. 10/82
Dr. Robert Thomas Minister of Education Toronto, Ontario	I	Aug. 11/82
Dr. Charles Phillips Retired Toronto, Ontario	C	Jan. 11/82
Dr. Willard Brehaut Professor O. I. S. E. Toronto, Ontario	I	Nov. 17/81
Patrick Watson Canadian Broadcasting Corporation Toronto, Ontario	I	Feb. 5/82 (telephone)
Dr. John Stapleton Dean of Education Lakehead University Thunder Bay, Ontario	I	Jun. 11/82 (Ottawa)
R. C. Blackwell Education Officer Ministry of Education Toronto, Ontario	I/C	Nov. 1981 to Jun. 1982

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES (CONT'D)

APPENDIX III
(CONTINUED)SECTION B: ONGOING REFERENCE SUPPORT

<u>Contact</u>	<u>Years</u>
Terrence M. Campbell Archives of Ontario Archivist Fovernment Records Section	1981-84
Jan Schmidt Librarian O. I. S. E.	1981-82
Darlene Lamonthé Librarian O S. S. T. F.	1981-85