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THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS IN FRANCE

By

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153231

G. J. K.

## PREFACE

The writer's interest in the field of this research might be said to have had its earliest beginnings in 1916 to 1919, when he started his formal education in the primary schools of France. It was certainly turned, in general, toward comparative education by elementary and secondary schooling in the United States from 1919 to 1930 and by additional study on the junior college level in a French lycée from 1933 to 1934. It was particularly directed toward teacher education by his later experience as a student and teacher, in teacher-training institutions.

In all these experiences the writer was struck by the seemingly great differences between the educational philosophy of France and that of the United States. These differences were especially marked in the statements of philosophy as aims and purposes of education and in the application of that philosophy as methods of teaching. When he began his graduate study of comparative education in 1938 he found himself looking at various European and Latin American systems of education with ever-heightening interest in such differences along the purpose-methods line.

During World War II, the writer was stationed, first in England where he had the opportunity to visit many schools, and later in France where he visited every type of French school and was able to discuss educational problems and

philosophy with French educators of all ranks and at all levels of education. After V-E Day, he was assigned as an instructor in the Department of Education at Biarritz American University, Biarritz, France. In this position, he taught comparative education for two terms to American and French soldier-students, ranging in rank from private to lieutenant colonel, all more mature than the average college student and inclined by recent experience to be purposefully interested in the aims, organization, and methods of various educational systems.

During this period of teaching at Biarritz American University, it was possible to arrange tours to many types of French schools, both public and private, classical, non-classical, and vocational, from the nursery school through the university. In all, thirty-one schools were visited over a period of four months.

In addition to the school visits it was possible to invite French school teachers and educational officials to discuss French education with the classes. One of the questions most frequently asked by the students was: "What are the purposes and social aims of your school?"

During February and March of 1946, the writer was a United States representative to the Ninth International Conference on Public Education held at Geneva, Switzerland, under the auspices of the Bureau of International Education.

During this period he had an opportunity to confer with various French and other European authorities on problems related to the training of teachers. After this meeting ended he spent two weeks in and near Paris, where he consulted with officials of the French Ministry of Education and made preliminary observations of eight schools, in preparation of the groundwork for this study.

This preparation was continued from March to November, 1946 by correspondence with officials of the French Ministry of Education, with the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation in Paris, with the Bureau of International Education in Geneva, and with school teachers and administrators in France. The study was also discussed with several French educators who were visitors to the United States on official missions in 1946 and 1947.

In November 1946, the writer returned to France as technical advisor of the United States Delegation to the First General Conference of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. At the close of this meeting, he stayed in France to complete the assembly of data for this study. He collected all official French government publications and much of the other materials listed in the bibliography of this study on the subject of French education in general, and teacher preparation in particular. He again renewed his discussion with French educational officials who made it possible for him to visit thirty-seven schools during

November and December, 1946. Among the schools visited were the Ecole Normale Supérieure of France at 45 rue d'Ulm, Paris, the Institut International de Pédagogie, at Sèvres, various normal schools for training teachers of such special subjects as physical education and vocational and technical education, and normal schools in the provinces as far west as Nantes and Bordeaux and as far south as Toulouse.

This dissertation is the result, therefore, of long interest but relatively recent study. It does not pretend to evaluate. It tries only to give a clear and true picture of the present organization and program for the preparation of teachers in France. This emphasis is given, not because evaluation is unimportant, but rather because a clear and true picture is more important and is basic to all accurate evaluation. The writer believes that such a picture is more likely to be achieved, at least in the limited compass of a doctoral dissertation, if it is made by one who resists the temptation to judge the worth of the institutions thus depicted.

George J. Kabat

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1. Purpose of this Study.

The purpose of this study is to describe the present system of preparing teachers for the schools of France. While such a study of teacher education in any country would presumably be of value to students of education, there are reasons why a study of teacher education in France would have particular use in comparative education. For more than a century the French schools have enjoyed a fame which has gone far beyond the range of the political, financial, industrial, or scientific influences of that country.

Many of the educational systems throughout the world are patterned to a large extent upon that of France. The school systems of Latin America, Southern and South Central Europe, The Near East, and, to a considerable extent, the Far East, have borrowed heavily from the French in establishing their modern educational programs. Outside the English-speaking and Nordic areas of the world, we are apt to find not only a similarity to the administrative structure of the French educational system, but also a philosophy of education, a curricular organization, and a methodology much indebted to French models.

For these reasons, a study of the present system of

teacher education in France is thought to be of sufficient importance to warrant the present description.

## 2. Methods Used in Making this Study.

In so far as possible, primary sources have been used throughout this study. Five kindergartens, twenty-two elementary schools, thirty-one lycées (classical secondary schools), four collèges modernes (new multilateral secondary schools), eleven technical-vocational secondary schools, four private elementary schools, nine primary normal schools, three technical normal schools, three higher normal schools, and four universities were visited. Intensive visits were also paid to the Musée Pédagogique, the national education library in France and to the Ministry of National Education.<sup>1</sup>

During all of these visits, brief conversations were held with students, teachers, and school directors. In some cases, it was possible to take over a class. This was the case at the Ecole Normale de Jeunes Filles (Primary Normal School for Girls), at Nantes, where for two hours there was a general interchange of questions on education in the United States and in France. Even children in elementary and

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<sup>1</sup> These visits were made possible through letters of introduction furnished by the Ministry of National Education. (For copies of the letters and their translation, see Appendix, pp. 1-4.) The contact with the National Education Library and its director made it possible to obtain a complete bibliography on the subject of teacher training in France.

secondary schools were asked what they thought of their school work and school requirements. As a result of these visits the exchange of educational ideas is still going on by correspondence.

### 3. Limitations of this Study.

As indicated in the table of contents, this study is limited to the preparation of teachers in France in the following categories: elementary schools, secondary schools, teachers for special subjects or activities such as physical and health education, recreation, and the preparation of university teachers.

A further limitation of this study is that it deals only with the state-directed and state-supported normal schools of France which prepare teachers for the public school system of the nation. The parochial and private schools are much fewer in number and effect a much smaller percentage of the school population. This limitation should not be considered a serious omission in a study of the preparation of teachers in France in view of the fact that students graduating from any level of the parochial or private schools must pass the same state examinations at the same time and at the same place as students graduating from the public schools in order to get recognition of their scholastic achievements. Hence, the parochial and private schools must offer their students much of the same preparation as do the public state supported and directed institutions.

In this connection, it is important to point out that the non-state supported schools are not denied the privilege of offering their students additional subject-matter fields. Therefore, the church schools offer as part of their curriculum, subjects designed to give certain religious attitudes, beliefs, and loyalties. The few private non-sectarian schools, supported by the remaining members of the old aristocratic order, tend to promote a feeling of the superiority of their class in addition to preparing the student to pass the examinations which lead to the coveted state diplomas and degrees. Hence, although it can be said that the parochial and private non-sectarian schools possess complete autonomy and receive no state aid,<sup>2</sup> it must be recognized that their curriculum must prepare their students for the state written examinations.

#### 4. General Educational Administration in France.

In order to eliminate repetition and explanations in each of the succeeding chapters, it seems desirable at this point to provide a brief description of educational administration in France. This administration is characteristic of the French system wherever it may be found.

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<sup>2</sup> One of the first educational acts of the occupation authorities and the Vichy Government in 1941 was to give state aid to parochial and private schools. This decree, along with all other occupation decrees, was abolished after the liberation of France in 1944.

France is recognized as a highly centralized country in more ways than one. In general, the national government makes all laws, and local officials are elected or appointed to see that national decrees are carried out. This is true of all laws except those concerning purely local interests. State's rights versus federal control could never be an issue in France. All roads and railroads lead to Paris. All distances are measured from Paris.

France's educational organization reflects this highly centralized pattern. All teachers, supervisors, and administrators are responsible through channels to the competent minister, most often the minister of national education. There exists but one cadre of teachers, responsible to and appointed in the last analysis by the minister or by his representative. The educational budget is prepared and proposed by the minister, passed upon by the cabinet, and voted by the legislative body. For the most part, one course of study applies to all schools of the same type, and the same number of hours are devoted in all classrooms to the same subject.

On occasion one finds evidence of less rigid centralization. In the first place, a few educational establishments are under the supervision of ministers other than the minister of national education. For example, agricultural schools are under the minister of agriculture, several higher technical schools are under interested ministers, the National Military Academy is under the minister of war, the Naval



Academy is under the minister of the navy, and the school of mines is under the minister of public works.<sup>3</sup>

Technical instruction is adapted to the needs of the region where each particular school is found. More and more one finds the tendency, in the elementary schools particularly, to use local environment as an aid to teaching, lending a variety to instruction of the same subject in different schools. Of late, the ministry of education has encouraged a few selected schools to experiment with new methods. One of these experiments has resulted in the national adoption of a new type secondary school program to be discussed in a later chapter.

No matter how vigorously attempts at decentralization might be tried by a few, all schools at all levels continue to receive supervision and directives from the central authority. For the most part, teaching conditions and methods are the same, and the recruitment and training of teachers, instructors, and professors are identical throughout France.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> International Examination Inquiry-Carnegie, Atlas de l'Enseignement en France. Paris: L'Imprimerie Ramlot, 1933. p. 7.

<sup>4</sup> International Examination Inquiry-Carnegie, Ibid., p. 8.

For a general statement of the historical development of this highly centralized system, none can be more brief and to the point than Kandell's description:

The present system of education in France is virtually a creation or re-creation of the Third Republic. It is marked by two characteristics - the first is control of education in the hands of the state authority on the principle introduced by Napoleon in 1808; the second is its triple division or the coexistence of elementary, vocational or technical, and secondary systems side by side, each administered by separate sections in the Ministry of Public Instruction, or in the case of some forms of vocational education by other Ministries, without articulation or coordination. . . . . From the point of view of administrative control and of the definition of aims and purposes, the French system is national; from the point of view of articulation and the provision of opportunities, it still continues the division into one type of education for the masses and another for the privileged few, with tenuous links between the two. While the tradition of secondary education goes back to the Napoleonic period, the system of elementary and vocational education was reorganized under the Third Republic. A system of elementary and higher elementary schools had been organized under the Guizot Law of 1833, but had practically fallen into desuetude under the reaction following the middle of the century. Free secular elementary education was established under the Third Republic in 1881 and was followed in the next year by a law of compulsory attendance. The lay character of elementary education was progressively assured by the law of 1886, which secularized the teaching body in public schools, and by the law of 1904, which suppressed the teaching congregations and closed all the free schools conducted by them. In 1880 the foundation for vocational education was laid by the creation of trade schools (*ecole manuelles d'apprentissage*), and six years later the higher elementary schools were restored. For young children the *ecole maternelle*, which had existed under various names since 1801, were reorganized by a decree of August 2, 1881. Two years earlier the system of normal schools for

elementary school teachers had been revised to meet the new conditions. All the laws and decrees governing the elementary system were brought together in the organic law of 1886 on which the present system rests.

Public instruction in France is organized on the principles of neutrality in religious matters and laicity. Parents and churches are expected to provide for the religious education of children, and the State cooperates for this purpose to the extent of holding no school sessions on Thursdays. . . . The situation is, however, different in Alsace-Lorraine, where the French Government has practically been compelled to accept the regime which prevailed under German rule and to refrain from imposing the principles of neutrality and laicity in education.<sup>5</sup>

A great deal of autonomy is found in the French universities due to the fact that these institutions receive grants from private sources and because by tradition they have been at the top of the educational hierarchy in France. However, two factors operate to minimize the importance of any endowments that French universities may receive. The first is that in order to get full value from a gift, a university must invest it immediately in buildings or equipment which will have more or less permanent value. It cannot afford to endow chairs in view of the rapidly inflating franc. For example, if in 1919 a university had received one million francs, such a gift would have had a purchasing power of \$200,000, as the franc was then quoted at five francs to one dollar. Had the money been invested in such a

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5 I. L. Kandel, Comparative Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1933), pp. 119-122.

way as to give 50,000 francs yearly income to endow a chair, this same amount today would have the purchasing or wage power of \$100, as the legal exchange rate of the franc is now 119 francs to one dollar. Hence, endowments have little value in helping the universities maintain any independence from state control. Secondly, the only French degree or diploma which permits one to practice his profession in France is the one issued by the State. Nevertheless, university faculties determine the contents of the examinations and examine the candidates. Another feature of state control of universities is the entrance examination and the number of students permitted to embark in any one profession each year. This figure is also determined by the central authority. For example, a university that might wish to raise its quota of physics students would need to get the permission to do so from the central authority. The quota allowed is usually based on the anticipated need in a given profession.

The central educational authority in France is the Minister of National Education. The only member of the ministry who may be replaced due to changes in the political majority is the Minister himself. All others are civil servants who function under the established codes and decrees. Hence, in spite of frequent political changes, the central educational authority actually changes very slowly. Basic laws affecting educational policy are well established

and durable.

The following list of component offices of the Ministry of National Education indicates the wide range of functions assigned to that ministry:

Minister of National Education

Cabinet of the Minister

General Administration Division

Division of Higher Education

Division of Secondary Education

Division of Elementary Education

School Equipment Service

Service of German and Austrian Affairs

Service of Foreign Educational Relations

Division of Technical and Vocational Activities

Division of Adult Education and Youth Activities

Division of School Hygiene

Division of Colonial Education

Research and Documents Services

Division of Arts and Letters

Division of Museums

Archives Division

Division of School Building and Architecture

Physical Education Division

National Center for Scientific Research

The above listed divisions or services function on a national scale unless otherwise indicated by their title, in

which case they function on an international or colonial basis. The four divisions found in the Minister's immediate cabinet take precedence and have authority over all other divisions and services.<sup>6</sup>

It is quite obvious that it would be impossible to direct and supervise all French educational activities at all levels without some system of regional or district offices. The map of France, Chart I, on the following page illustrates how this is done.<sup>7</sup>

It will be noted that France is divided into seventeen regions, including Algiers, called academies. Each region is headed by a director, who is the educational authority for his region. He is responsible only to the various inspectors and chiefs in the minister's cabinet. His post is usually non-political, and it is for the most part a civil service appointment.

A university is located in each city which is the seat of the region and the rector of the university is responsible to the Inspector General of the Division of Higher Education in the minister's cabinet. All other non-university educational personnel in the region are responsible through channels to the director of the region. It should be made clear at this juncture that the academy is not a school--it

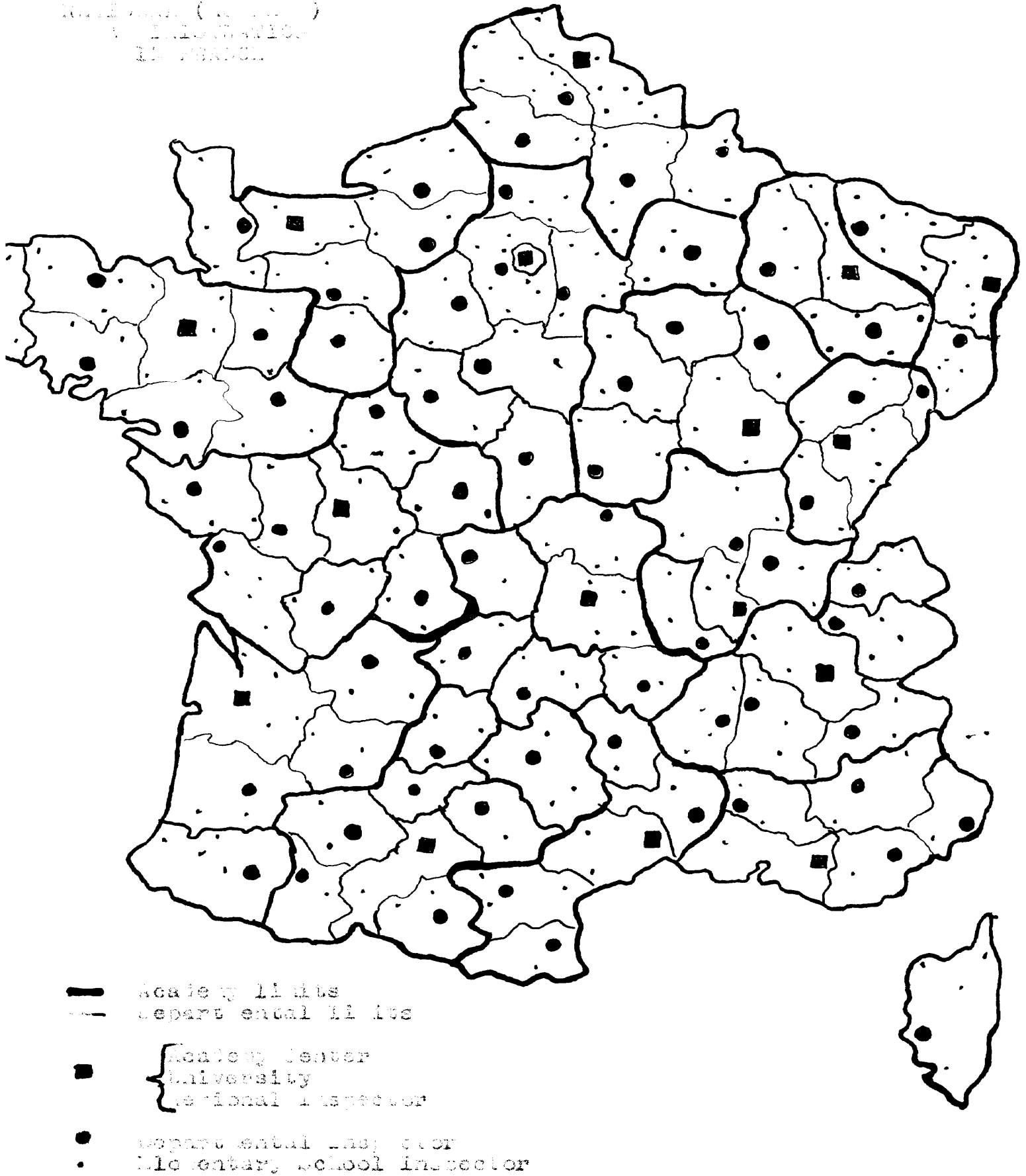
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6 Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Annuaire de l'Éducation Nationale (Paris) p. 22.

7 Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ibid. p. 56

## CHART I

Map of the State of  
Louisiana  
in 1900



is an office in charge of all non-university education in a given region. Under each academy or region director are more civil servants in charge of various educational functions in the departments of each region. The number of departments in each region vary from three to nine. Paris itself is considered a department and is the academic seat for eight other departments. Table 1 presents each academy center and the departments that each includes.<sup>8</sup>

Besides the academy director, who has the duties of general educational supervision for all the departments in each region, there are attached to his office supervisors of physical education, youth movements, and technical-vocational training. Each department has a chief-supervisor responsible to his academy director, and under each department chief supervisor there exist one or more supervisors of primary schools depending on the population of the department.

Each department has at least one of the following schools above the primary grades: boys' lycée, girls' lycée, boys' primary normal school, girls' primary normal school, boys' technical college, girls' technical college, boys' higher elementary school, and a girls' higher elementary school. In a few instances, increasingly so in recent years, coeducational schools at all levels are found.

The normal schools found in each department train teachers for that department only. Special applications

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<sup>8</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. p. 57.



TABLE 1

## UNIVERSITY AND ACADEMY DIVISIONS OF FRANCE

ACADEMY CENTER	DEPARTMENTS
Paris .....	Cher, Eure-et-Loire, Loiret, Loire-et-Cher, Marne, Oise, Seine, Seine-et-Marne, Seine-et-Oise.
Aix .....	Alpes-Maritimes, Basse-Alpes, Bouches-du-Rhone, Corse, Var, Vaucluse.
Alger .....	Alger, Constantine, Oran.
Besancon .....	Doubs, Haute-Saone, Jura, Territoire de Belfort.
Bordeaux .....	Basses-Pyrenées, Dordogne, Gironde, Landes, Lot-et-Garonne.
Caen .....	Calvados, Eure, Manche, Orne, Sarthe, Seine-Inferieure.
Clermont-Ferrand ....	Allier, Cantal, Correze, Creuse, Haute-Loire, Puy-de-Dome.
Dijon .....	Aube, Cote-d'Or, Haute-Marne, Nièvre, Yvonne.
Grenoble .....	Ardeche, Drome, Hautes-Alpes, Haute-Savoie, Isere, Savoie.
Lille .....	Aisne, Ardennes, Nord, Pas-de-Calais, Somme.
Lyon .....	Ain, Loire, Rhone, Saone-et-Loire.
Montpellier .....	Aude, Gard, Herault, Lozere, Pyrenees-Orientales.
Nancy ..	Meurthe-et-Moselle, Meuse, Vosges.
Poitiers .....	Charente, Charente-Maritime, Deux-Sevres, Indre, Indre-et-Loire, Vendee, Vienne.
Rennes .....	Cotes-du-Nord, Finistere, Ile-et-Villaine, Loire-Inferieure, Maine-et-Loire, Mayenne, Morbihan.
Strasbourg .....	Bas-Rhin, Haut-Rhin, Moselle.
Toulouse .....	Ariège, Aveyron, Gers, Haute-Garonne, Hautes-Pyrenées, Lot, Tarn, Tarn-et-Garonne.
(17 Academies)	(93 Departments)

must be made and permission received to teach in a department outside of the one where the teacher is trained. Special consideration is given to teachers who marry and who have received their training in separate departments. Health is also considered as a factor in moving from one department to another. As the chief educational supervisor for each department is responsible for training a sufficient number of teachers for his schools, he is reluctant to give permission to move unless he has an over-supply of teachers, which is usually not the case.

The department chief is not responsible for any secondary or higher schools in his department. The rectors or directors of these institutions are directly responsible to the academy director or the ministry, whichever the case may be. All examinations for secondary degrees are held at the seat of each academy.<sup>9</sup>

The following chart gives a general view of the French educational ladder. It was derived from the 1933 publication listed below,<sup>10</sup> with a few modifications necessitated by recent changes as noted by the writer and as reported in conversations with officials of the Ministry of National Education.

In 1945, the Commission Langevin, appointed by the Minister of National Education, studied the existing educational framework in France and suggested changes as indicated in the

---

9. Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ibid. pp. 59-215

10. International Examination Inquiry--Carnegie, Atlas de l'Enseignement en France. Paris: L'Imprimerie Raulot, 1933. p. 18.



11

Chart III below. To date the Langevin plan has not been adopted but is looked upon favorably by many teachers and is being discussed by educators and laymen with much interest.

A brief interpretation of Chart III is necessary in view of the different means by which one may enter the normal schools. The primary normal school which trains teachers for the primary grades may be entered either directly from the upper elementary school or from the classical secondary school, usually at the age of 16, in any event, after the completion of ten years of schooling and upon passing the entrance examinations. The upper elementary normal school, which trains teachers for the upper elementary grades (6 through 10) is entered directly from the primary normal school, or upon completion of the classical secondary school. The superior normal school for the preparation of secondary school teachers, of which there are only two in France, is entered upon satisfactory completion of the lycée only and upon passing the entrance examination. These two schools prepare men and women for teaching jobs in the lycée, which is the classical and academic secondary school. The Superior Normal School of France is entered from the university, usually after completion of two years of university work. It prepares teachers for the universities.

The chart cannot show a wide variety of special technical schools and normal schools which prepare teachers for special fields. These will be discussed later.

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11 Daniel Girard, "Projet de Reforme de l'Enseignement de la Commission Langevin," Bulletin of Information, National Association of Teachers of French, Vol. 7, No. 2, 1946, p. 2.

## CHART III

## RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE LANGEVIN COMMISSION

Highest Degree for Studies, Research, or Teaching				
Age				
25 24 23 22	3rd Cycle	Scientific Research	Higher Professional Schools	Training of University and higher School Professors
21 20	2nd Cycle	Technical, Scientific, Law, and Medical Institutes		Training of Secondary School Teachers
18 19	1st Cycle	Preparatory Schools for Science, Medicine, Law Arts and Letters	Arts and Trade Schools	Training of Elementary School Teachers
Diploma of Secondary Studies			Certificate of Professional Aptitude	
17	Upper Secondary School			
16	Theory	Professional and Practical Training		
15	Technical, Modern and Classical Schools	Apprenticeship	Agriculture	
		Pre-Apprenticeship	Industry or Commerce	
Lower Secondary School				
14				
13	General Education / option of (Manual Arts ) Latin or a			
12	(Musical Educ.) 2nd Modern			
11	(Plastic Arts ) / language			
	(Experimental ) at age of			
	Science ) 13			
10 9 8 7	Primary School			
6 5 4 3	Kindergarten			
2 1	Nursery School			

### 5. Schools for Which Teachers are Specifically Trained.

With few exceptions, one could make the statement that teachers for all educational levels, from the nursery school through the university, receive special training, including a period of supervised apprenticeship.

All teachers for the kindergarten, elementary, and upper elementary grades receive special training in normal schools and do their practice teaching in the training schools attached to each departmental normal school. A small percentage of the secondary school teachers receive normal school training. However, all secondary school teachers serve a period of closely supervised apprenticeship. The large percentage of secondary school teachers who receive their teaching certificate via the university must attend special lectures on pedagogy and pass special examinations in education.

The great majority of the teachers in the technical, vocational or professional secondary and higher schools receive special training along with their subject-matter studies and must pass special examinations to qualify as teachers.

Eighty percent of the teachers on the university faculties are graduates of the Superior Normal School of France.<sup>12</sup> In general it is safe to say that no nation in

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12. As told to the writer by the President of the Superior Normal School of France, December 19, 1946.

the world puts so much emphasis on the pedagogical indoctrination of its university faculty members as does France.

#### 6. Trends in the School Population in France.

In any consideration of teaching as a profession or when the State, as is the case in France, determines the number of candidates it will admit to the various categories of normal schools, it is necessary to take into account the trend of the school population. Although in France public education is free in a sense that scholarships take care of whatever fees may be levied, in reality it is free only at the elementary school level. In many families, when a child reaches the age of 11 or 12, he may become an immediate economic asset to the family if his efforts are directed toward gainful employment. This factor is particularly important if the economic wage of the head of the family is so low that the children need to begin at an early age to support not only themselves but to contribute to the home. This latter factor has, in the past, played an important part in making education unavailable to many beyond the elementary school.

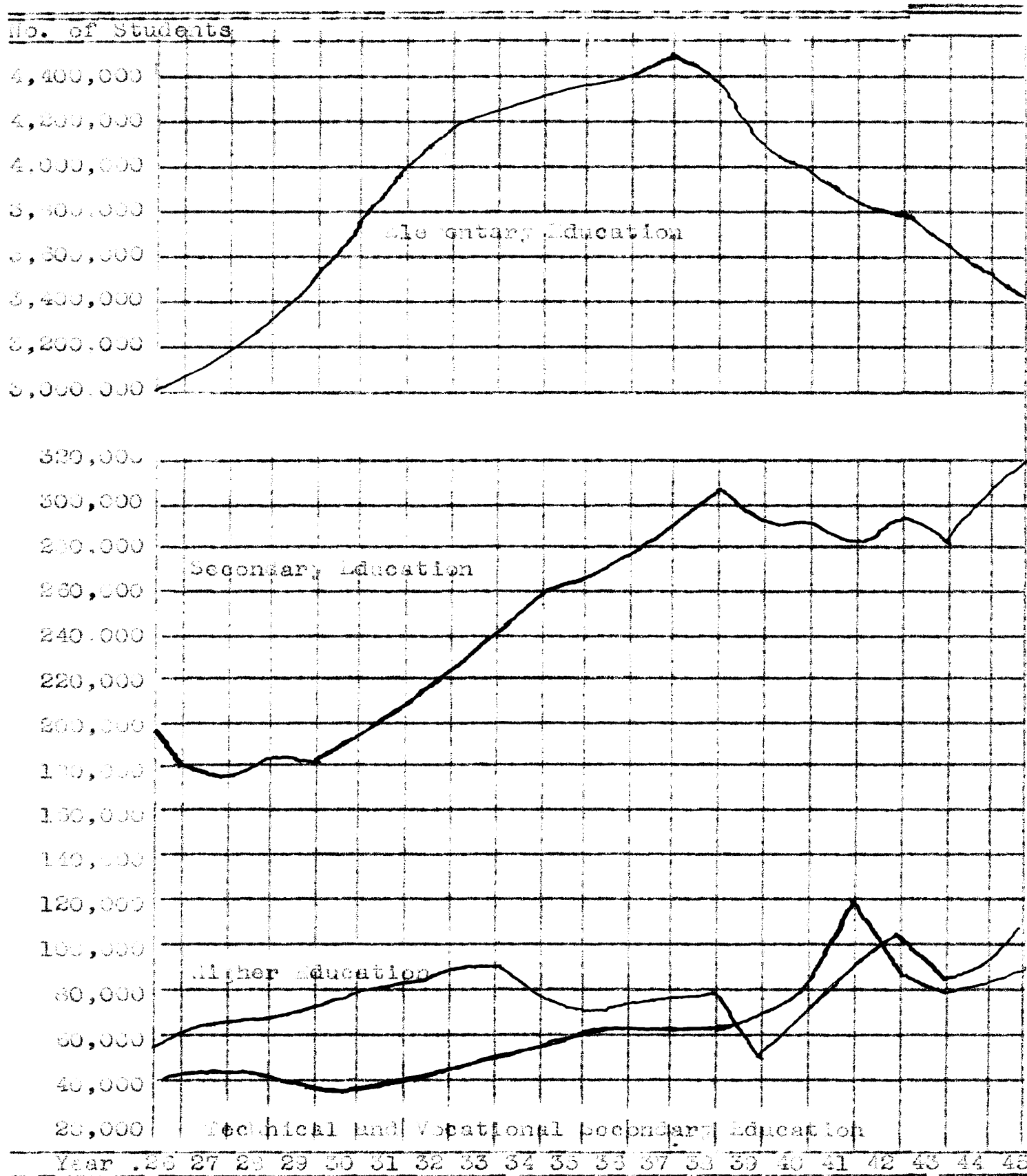
On the following page Chart IV shows the population trend for elementary, secondary, and higher schools, as well as for technical and vocational training at both the secondary and higher school level.

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<sup>14</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale. Annuaire de l'Education Nationale (Paris, Imprimerie Nationale, 1946), p. 960.

## CHART IV

## EVOLUTION OF THE SCHOOL POPULATION SINCE 1926





A brief explanation of Chart IV may be necessary. Accurate statistics are unavailable prior to 1925. The enforcement of the school laws adopted by the Third Republic between 1880 and 1921 was lax until after World War I, partially due to the fact that the people were not ready to accept the authority of the State over the Church in education.

The sharp decrease in enrollment in institutions of higher learning from 1939 to 1940 is due to France's active participation in the war. For the same reason, there was a great increase in vocational and technical education, partially implemented by the fact that after the occupation of France by the Germans, students were given exemptions from forced labor battalions. Student exemptions from labor battalions also accounts for the rapid increase in the enrollments of higher educational institutions from 1940 to 1943. The sharp drop in enrollment in both of these categories from 1943 to 1944 can be explained by several factors. For one thing, students were getting restless and as probabilities of liberation became more certain, many joined the underground movement. Another important fact is that the academic year 1943-44 was interrupted by intensified bombing of many ports and major cities of France. School buildings more often than not served as barracks for the enemy. With the concentration of German troops in France,

more and more schools, particularly colleges and universities, had to be closed for school purposes.

The trend of elementary school enrollment reflects the drop in birth rate more than any other factor.

The rather definite increase in enrollment in secondary schools reflects the popularizing of this level of education in France. The slight ups and downs from 1939 to 1944 reflect again the results of the war. In many instances, secondary school students were given diplomas at the age of 15, which they would not have received until the age of 18 in normal times, provided they volunteered for work camps in Germany. In any event, the drop was never greater than 10,000 out of a total of 280,000 indicating that a very small percentage availed themselves of the opportunity to obtain a "cheap" diploma. It is quite likely that a good portion of the 10,000 can be attributed to bombed-out schools or schools taken over for enemy quarters.

As the chart indicates, the enrollment in all types of schools above the elementary schools is at present on the increase. There is every reason to believe that this trend will continue. Observations seem to indicate that during the past twelve years the school buildings and equipment have not kept up with the needs. Teachers, administrators, and other school officials, as well as laymen, concur with this point of view.

The statistics furnished by the University Statistical

Bureau indicate the number of candidates entering teacher-  
 15  
 training institutions.

TABLE 2  
 CANDIDATES GRADUATED FROM PRIMARY NORMAL SCHOOLS

YEAR	MEN	WOMEN
1920	4617	5135
1925	4904	5463
1930	5540	5923
1935	5860	5810
(16) 1938	5325	5246
1945	9744 (men and women) (17)	

There are six higher normal schools training teachers for the universities, secondary schools, technical schools, and for physical education. Statistical information on graduates from these schools for the years 1938 and 1945

15 A. Rosier, Directeur, Bureau Universitaire de Statistique, Letter to George J. Kabat, Paris: 18 Dec. 1946.

16 As 1940 was not a normal year, the figure for 1938 was given.

17 No breakdown between the numbers of men and women is available for 1945. The writer was told by educators that in spite of the serious attempts to recruit men for the primary normal schools, the number had dropped to an unprecedented figure. Classes visited in men's normal schools tended to bear this out.

was furnished by the Bureau Universitaire de Statistique. The table below, furnished by Mr. Mosier, director of that bureau, gives these figures.

TABLE 3

## ENROLLMENTS IN FRENCH HIGHER NORMAL SCHOOLS, 1938 AND 1945

	A	B	C	D	E	F
	Normale			Fonte-	Enseign-	Educ.
Year	Sup.	Sevres	St. Cloud	nay	Technique	Physique
1938	195	107	67	62	166	44 (men only)
1945	130 Men	141 Women	57 Men	70 Women	153 Men	53 Men & Women

- A. These are the figures for the Superior Normal School of France. This school, the only one of its kind in France, prepares men for university teaching positions. Note the drop.
- B. The Normal School of Sevres includes women only except during its short summer term, which is not included in these figures. The figures given above are for its regular school year only. Note the rise.
- C. The Superior Normal School of St. Cloud prepares men teachers for positions in boys' lycées. Note the drop.
- D. The Superior Normal School of Fontenay-en-Rose prepares women teachers for girls' lycées. Note the rise.
- E. The Superior Normal School for Technical-Vocational Education prepares men for teaching positions in secondary and higher technical and vocational schools. Note the drop.
- F. There are now two schools called Superior Normal School for Sports and Physical Education. In 1938 there was only the one for men with a graduating class of forty-four. When the writer visited these two schools in December of 1945, there were 33 in

the graduating class of the school for men and 110 in the graduating class of the school for women.

Detailed treatment of the above-mentioned schools will be given in the succeeding chapters.

The inverse ratio of teachers in training to students in school is an alarming one for France. Educational officials and laymen are aware of what is going on. It is not the purpose of this study to go into the causes for this condition. Conversations with French educators indicate that the causes can be summed up as: (1) The pay of school teachers does not compare favorably with that of other workers, even of day laborers. (2) Teachers cannot engage in side occupations. (3) The black market is below the dignity of teachers. (4) With the rapid devaluation of the franc, the security of pensions for civil servants is doubtful.

In 1931, the population of France was 41,228,446, of which 2,714,697 were foreigners. Table IV below describes the literacy status of the population.<sup>18</sup> In this table, literate means the ability to read and write, popularly referred to as functional literacy.

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<sup>18</sup> Encyclopedie Francaise, Education et Instruction.  
Paris: Librairie Larousse, 1939, Vol. 15, 04-14.

TABLE 4

DEGRE D'INSTRUCTION DE LA POPULATION FRANÇAISE (1931)  
(EDUCATIONAL ACHIEVEMENT OF THE FRENCH POPULATION)

Age Group	Male		Female		Total		
	French	Foreign	French	Foreign	French	Foreign	Total
Below 5	1,715,671	99,699	1,677,201	97,159	3,392,872	196,858	3,589,730
<u>5-10 years of age</u>							
..Literate	1,056,240	56,379	1,062,661	53,642	2,118,901	109,021	2,227,922
..Unknown	360,027	25,632	337,196	23,812	697,223	49,444	746,667
..Illiterate	267,058	22,180	245,276	20,950	512,334	43,130	555,464
<u>10 years and up</u>							
..Literate	13,892,517	1,120,099	15,503,510	672,553	29,396,027	1,792,652	31,188,679
..Unknown	431,301	116,480	581,502	59,912	1,012,803	176,392	1,189,185
..Illiterate	532,900	216,493	850,709	130,707	1,383,609	347,200	1,730,809
Total	18,255,714	1,655,962	20,258,055	1,058,735	38,513,769	2,714,697	41,228,466

On the whole, France can be considered a literate nation. It is not the purpose of this study to determine its educational problems or shortcomings. Its purpose is rather to describe its system of teacher recruitment and training and to give a picture of the duties and responsibilities assigned to the teaching profession.

The introduction has attempted to point out the number and types of teacher-training establishments as they exist today and to give a general description of educational administration in France. The following chapters will describe the various types of normal schools in some detail.

## CHAPTER II

### THE PREPARATION OF PRE-SCHOOL AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

#### 1. The Origin of the Elementary Normal School.

The history of the certification of teachers in France is closely related to the origin and history of the normal school. As indicated in Chapter I, the teacher is one of the most important factors in establishing the quality of a school system. The philosophy and purposes behind his training will determine to a great extent how the educational needs of the people are to be met.

From the middle ages to modern times, the church exercised a monopoly on elementary education. Instruction was given by the church and often in the church. On rare occasions a school managed by one teacher succeeded in existing outside the direction of the church, sometimes hidden in the woods. From this circumstance, the French coined the term, école buissonnière (school in the woods). The term école buissonnière is also said to have been derived from the name Ferdinand Buisson, an early educator in the First Republic. However, it is more likely that Buisson, a pre-revolutionary underground teacher, operated under a false name which was logically chosen since he taught a school in the woods.

The precedent of church authority in education was established in the year 1203 when the Pope, Innocent III,

established the University of Paris. At that time, any primary instruction given outside the church was regarded as unimportant. For the most part all university teachers were church trained.

In the seventeenth century, elementary teachers received their authorization from the church, after which they were free to set up a school and charge whatever fees they might wish. This does not mean that a few did not select a poor though bright boy on occasion to give him instruction, but this was an exception. In 1698, Louis XIV published an order which read: "Nous voulons qu'il soit établi des maitres et des maitresses d'école dans toutes les paroisses pour instruire les enfants de l'un et l'autre sexe dans les mysteres de la Religion, pour les conduire a la messe, comme aussi pour apprendre a lire et a écrire..."<sup>1</sup>

Until the establishment of the First Republic, the monarchy was apparently satisfied to leave all school matters in the hands of the church. The students were instructed by church teachers. In the accounts of Turgot in 1773, of Necker, in 1781, and those who followed until 1789, not a single expenditure for schools is mentioned.<sup>2</sup>

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1 "We wish to have school masters and mistresses placed in all parishes to instruct the children of each sex in the mysteries of Religion, to conduct them to mass, as well as to teach reading and writing."

Code Soleil, Le Livre des Instituteurs, Paris: Librairie Soudier, 1947. p. 63.

2 Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 64.



The principle of State control and of the establishment of national education was expressed as early as 1789. "All the children of the State," said La Chalotais, "must be brought up by members of the State." This is the origin of French public schools. A decree of 1791 made it obligatory that all teachers and professors take a civil oath, and another law of 1792 abolished all private and secular educational institutions. All schools having been abolished by this decree, as previous to its passage all schools were private or secular, it was necessary to build new ones. "Do not look at the expense," cried Danton, "after bread, education is the first need of the people!" The revolutionary assemblies pressed with ardor the establishment of a system of national education, several projects were begun, but only the principles were established.<sup>3</sup>

Talleyrand, in his report to the Constituent Assembly (1791), put forth a fundamental principle: "There shall be created and organized a system of public instruction common to all citizens, free as regards that portion of education indispensable to all men." As regards elementary education, there shall be "primary schools to teach to all children their first and indispensable lessons, to imbue them with principles that must direct their actions and make of them, while keeping them from ignorance, happier men and more useful citizens." Condorcet devised a plan for the selection

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<sup>3</sup> Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 64

of instructors by the municipal council assisted by the  
<sup>4</sup>  
 fathers of families.

The first primary normal school opened in Strasbourg  
 in 1811, although plans for one had been advanced to the  
<sup>5</sup>  
 Assembly as early as 1794 by Lakanal.

In the third year of the First Republic there were no  
 trained teachers although there were many pupils. To remedy  
 the situation Lakanal had a decree adopted to the effect  
 that any citizen possessing a certificate of good citizen-  
 ship and morals could open a school and teach. Parents were  
 obliged to send their children to school for a period of at  
<sup>6</sup>  
 least three years. These teachers were probably the first  
 certified by the Republic. Other decrees stipulated that  
 the Republic must furnish all instructors with a building  
 necessary to establish a school and a household with garden  
 attached. It was further stated that primary school teach-  
 ers should instruct in "Reading, writing, arithmetic, and  
 republican morals." The same assembly also envisaged a nor-  
 mal school for Paris to instruct in methods of teaching 400  
 students who were to return to their Departments to instruct  
 others in the methods of teaching they had learned in Paris.  
 This school, taught by the great men of letters of that day,  
 ran for four months and closed its doors. It was not until  
 1872 that a normal school opened in Paris.<sup>7</sup>

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4 Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 65

5 I. L. Kandel, Comparative Education, (New York:  
 Houghton-Mifflin, 1933), p. 548

6 Code Soleil, Op. cit., p. 65

7 Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 66

By decree of 1808, Napoleon assigned the University the task of establishing normal schools. The decree stated that the school should expound the best methods to teach the art of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and it further stipulated that the authorities should make certain that the instructors did not go beyond this limit.<sup>8</sup> It is possible that Napoleon did not wish to have repeated the errors which forced the first normal school to close after four months of operation. Apparently, the early decrees regarding the church and education were forgotten, as the Christian Brothers were reinstated by the University and were the only operators of real normal schools.

In Napoleon's organization, the education of girls was neglected. "I do not believe," said Napoleon, "that it is necessary to bother with the education of girls. They cannot be instructed better than by their mothers."<sup>9</sup> With the Restoration, Napoleon adopted principles which were to his interest. The principle of education for the Church and for the Monarchy soon returned. The decree of April 8, 1824, sanctioned that which already existed and education including teacher training was officially turned over to the Christian Brothers. Although the decree of 1808 had stipulated that no one could teach who did not have a diploma issued by (although not earned at) the University, a teacher's diploma was issued in 1816 to anyone who could

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<sup>8</sup> Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 66.

<sup>9</sup> Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 67.

read, write, and do arithmetic. By 1828 the Brothers of the Christian Schools needed only a certificate of obedience to permit them to teach.

In spite of Napoleon's new sympathy toward the Brothers, non-sectarian schools continued to exist in the provincial villages where a schoolmaster often held forth in his one-room home which also served as his kitchen, livingroom and bedroom. These were, however, feeble attempts, and by force, law, and degree the people were to lose not only their government but their schools as well.

The French term "école libre" which literally translated means "free schools" does not mean free schools in the American sense of the word, but rather in the English sense of meaning that anyone or any organization that so wishes is free to establish a school.

This idea was established by the Guizot laws of 1833. These laws, among other things, stated that: All individuals 18 years of age or older could teach with the only conditions being the possession of diplomas of aptitude and a certificate of good morals. The supervision of private schools previously considered a function of the state was organized in such a way as to respect the idea of "free teaching," without regard to methods. Civil and criminal courts were the sole authority with power to stop one from teaching. School attendance was not obligatory, but each community had to have a school (public,

private, or secular), and each department had to support a normal school either by itself or in cooperation with another department or organization. Committees of school inspection were created in each community and were composed of the mayor, the priest, the pastor (few of these existed), and several notables. As for the course of study in the schools during Guizot's regime, one can get a good insight by reading his discourse given to the Assembly on May 2, 1833. "What must the teacher do? Does he give at a certain hour a lesson on morals and religion? No, he opens and closes the school with a prayer; he has the catechism lesson recited; he gives history lessons by reading holy history. He must give all instruction a moral and religious character. It is the best way to dissipate these miserable morals, these new perils to which the revolutionary classes are prey."<sup>10</sup>

Thus the church was returned to its place of prestige and privilege in education. The counter-revolution of 1846 only confirmed that which already existed when it proclaimed: "Teaching is free (i.e., anyone is free to teach). Freedom to teach is exercised depending upon the individual's morality and his capacity as determined by the law and supervised by the State."<sup>11</sup> The separation of Church and State had been reconciled -- each became the other.

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<sup>10</sup> Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 63

<sup>11</sup> Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 69

Reaction against revolutionary institutions and principles became more profound. Under the pretext of liberty, the church wanted to control all teaching. Further agreements were reached through the efforts of Thiers and Dupanloup resulting in the Falloux law of 1850 which proved not only that the church was regaining control of education but also that it had regained control of the State; hence, of everything under the State, including education.

Under the Falloux law, the inspection of schools was left solely in the hands of the mayor and the priest. The instruction of girls was almost exclusively in the hands of the church. The course of study in the normal schools was limited, and it was made unlawful to teach anything except religion, morals, reading, writing, elements of the French language, arithmetic, the metric system and religious songs. This law was amended in 1854 by returning to the departmental administrators the authority to appoint elementary teachers, a right given them by the law of 1808 and taken away from them by the law of 1833. It was further amended to recreate the departmental council. In spite of these amendments, the school teacher remained under the influence of the priest. He remained choir leader, bell ringer, and church sweeper. The priest inspected the schools. At the commission on teaching in 1849 Thiers said: "I, who would not confide secondary education exclusively to the clergy, would not hesitate to give them

primary education. The school should always be in the hands of the priest or the sexton." In 1862, 23 percent of the men and 44 percent of the women were unable to sign their names to their marriage certificates.<sup>12</sup>

The tug-of-war for the control of education was finally resolved in 1920 in favor of the State. In 1881 the normal school curriculum had been somewhat liberalized to include algebra, modern languages, and manual work. With the exception of slight modifications in 1905 the pattern of the normal school remained unchanged until 1920.<sup>13</sup> At this time all authority was taken over by the State, and the course of study was reformed and lengthened.

The period from 1789 to 1920 indicates the importance attached to the teacher, his selection, his training, and his responsibilities. The teacher emerged the servant and intellectual leader of the people, the people who controlled the State. Three important principles regarding education were permanently established during this 130-year period, namely: compulsory elementary education, a State-supervised freedom for private or sectarian schools, and gratuitous, lay-controlled public education completely neutral on religious matters. Normal schools were definitely established as the training and proving grounds for all public school personnel.

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<sup>12</sup> Code Soleil, Ibid. p. 70.

<sup>13</sup> I. L. Kandel, Op. Cit. p. 549.

The official Code Soleil lists the important laws passed since 1881 which effect teacher status for the primary schools.<sup>14</sup>

- (1) The law of June 16, 1881 requires a certificate of aptitude for all persons who wish to teach and abolishes the equivalences which were permitted by the law of 1850.
- (2) The primary normal schools are public establishments (law of July 19, 1889), gratuitous (law of June 16, 1881), founded and maintained by the departments.
- (3) The maintenance of students and the salary and maintenance of professors is the duty of the State.
- (4) Students who wish to become elementary teachers must finish their baccalaureat and their professional education in the normal school.
- (5) The student-teachers do their practice teaching in the elementary schools or kindergartens annexed to the normal school.
- (6) All teachers for whatever level of teaching must receive basic pedagogical training. Teachers for secondary schools and higher institutions will receive their training at either a university or at the Superior Normal Schools.

The present system of primary normal schools is a result of the law of August 9, 1879.<sup>15</sup> "Each department must establish a primary normal school for men and one for women sufficient to assure the recruitment of its public school teachers. By permission of the President of the

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<sup>14</sup> Code Soleil, Op. Cit. pp. 74-7.

<sup>15</sup> Louis Schwartz, Code Prichard.  
Paris: Hachette, 1939. p. 513.



Republic, two departments may establish a school by joint effort. The original construction and the maintenance of the school is an obligation of each department. The director is appointed by the Minister of Public Education. An administrative council shall advise the director. The Council is to be made up of the Director of the regional academy, and representatives of elementary, secondary, and higher schools, as well as the departmental prefect."

## 2. Primary Normal School Entrance Requirements.

Under a rigid national system of school leaving and school entrance examinations, the entrance requirements of normal schools are the same throughout France for any type of school. At the present time there are eighty-nine normal schools for men and eighty-eight for women.<sup>16</sup>

The following entrance requirements were established in 1946 by the Minister of National Education.<sup>17</sup>

Age: All candidates must be at least 15 and not more than 17 years of age on the 1st of January of the year in which they take the entrance examination. In some cases, depending on circumstances the director of the regional academy (chairman of the examining committee) is authorized to extend the limit not more than one year.

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<sup>16</sup> International Examination Inquiry-Carnegie, Atlas de l'Enseignement en France. Paris: l'Imprimerie Ranelot, 1933. p. 174.

<sup>17</sup> Ministere de l'Education Nationale, Programme des Concours de Recrutement des Eleves-Maitres et des Eleves-Maitresses, Paris: Vuibert, 1946. pp. 1-14.

Application for permission to take the examinations:

The application must be made by the candidate at the office of the inspector of the regional academy in which the student resides at least one month before the examinations are to be held.

The candidate must furnish:

- (1) His birth certificate. (He must be native born or, if naturalized, his naturalization must have been completed at least seven years before his application.)
- (2) His written request for permission to take the examinations indicating the school or schools he has attended since the age of 12.
- (3) A certified copy of his brevet elementaire (obtained after satisfactory completion of the combined école primaire and the école primaire superieure or completion of the école primaire and five years of secondary school, in any event, 10 years of education.)
- (4) An enlistment to serve for ten years as a public school teacher. This must be accompanied by an official statement from his parent or guardian authorizing the candidate to contract for the above enlistment and agreeing to defray the student's expenses to the State if the student should voluntarily leave school or if he should, for cause, leave his post before his ten-year period has terminated.

The only scholastic credential needed to gain permission to the examination for entrance to the primary normal school is the Brevet Elementaire. This certificate, which indicates satisfactory completion of ten years of schooling, is given only after the student has satisfactorily passed the State oral and written examinations.

The examinations are held in each department, the first session in June or July and the second session in September or October. The exact date is set by the Minister of National Education at least one month in advance. The examinations begin the same day in all departments. The written examinations are usually prepared by the director and the inspector of the academy. They may be prepared by the Minister of National Education. The examinations are sealed, and they are opened on the day of the examination in the presence of the candidates by the president of the examining committee.<sup>16</sup>

In order to present himself for this examination the candidate must have attained the age of 15 by the 1st of January of the year during which he is applying. No exceptions can be made as regards age for this examination. All candidates for the Brevet Elementaire must apply at the office of the academy inspector for his department. He must apply at least one month before the date set for the examination. In applying for admission to examination the candidate must furnish the following:<sup>17</sup>

- (1) A request for permission to take the examination, written and signed by himself. This paper must be notarized.
- (2) His birth certificate. (For women, the marriage license, if married, the divorce papers, if divorced, or her husband's death certificate, if she is widowed.)

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16 Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Programme des Examens du Brevet Elementaire. Paris: Vuibert, 1946. p. 3.

17 Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 4-6.

- (3) All applications must be accompanied by ten francs in stamps. (Nine cents at present rate of exchange.) (War orphans are exempt from this tax.)

The examining committees are named each year by the director of the academy upon the recommendation of the departmental academy inspector. The sessions are held at the departmental seat of each department unless exceptions are made by the Minister of National Education upon recommendation of the director of the academy. The departmental academy inspector or his representative presides over the committee, and each committee elects a secretary. The committee must be composed of the following: two inspectors of primary or kindergarten instruction; two directors or professors of modern colleges or of continuation schools; one permanently certified teacher of public primary instruction; and one member of a private primary school. Other members of the committee are chosen from among the civil servants or retired civil servants of public education. Where the number of candidates requires several committees, there must be at least eight persons on each committee. For oral examinations the committee may be split into various examining sections, but no orals section may have less than three members. The committee may deliberate on the acceptability of a candidate only when at least two-thirds of its members are present. A simple majority determines the acceptability of a candidate

for the Brevet Elementaire. In case of a tie, the vote of the president of the committee shall be the determining vote. Special examiners may be attached to the committee for tests of drawing, singing, sewing, and gymnastics. These participate in committee deliberations only when the specialty for which they were attached is being considered. The departmental professor of agriculture may be called in for rural students. During the month following the closing of the sessions, the minutes of the committee, signed by the president and secretary are sent to the director of the academy who delivers the diploma Brevet Elementaire under his signature. It is to him that all requests for information or reconsideration must be addressed.<sup>18</sup>

The examinations for the Brevet Elementaire are described below:<sup>19</sup>

Written examination, first series:

- (1) A composition in French on a subject concerning morals or literature (time:  $2\frac{1}{2}$  hours);
- (2) A test on history or geography (time:  $1\frac{1}{2}$  hours);
- (3) A test in mathematics: the solution of two problems, one in algebra and the other in geometry (time: 2 hours);
- (4) A test in physical or natural science (time:  $1\frac{1}{2}$  hours);

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<sup>18</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 6-7.

<sup>19</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale. Ibid. pp. 9, 13, 16.

- (5) A penmanship test of about twenty lines written from dictation followed by three questions on language (time: 40 minutes following the dictation).

The score on each of the written tests is lowered by one if penmanship is poor, and by two points if both penmanship and composition are poor, and three or four points if either or both are very poor.

#### Oral examinations, second series:

- (1) The oral reading and explanation of a French text. (The candidate must present five or six selections from his studies during the school year previous to taking the examination or selections of equivalent difficulty.)
- (2) Oral questions on arithmetic, algebra, and geometry;
- (3) Oral questions on moral and civic instruction;
- (4) Oral questions on history and geography;
- (5) Oral questions on physical and natural sciences; (Each of the above 5 examinations last approximately 15 minutes for each candidate.)
- (6) A practical test in drawing: profile of a simple object or a decorative design;
- (7) The rendition of a school song chosen from five offered by the candidate and followed by simple questions on music (time: 10 minutes maximum);
- (8) A physical education test, as follows:

For boys--less than 16 years of age:

Run 60 meters, running high jump, throw a weight of 4 kilos, running broad jump, rope climbing with the aid of the legs.

For boys--16-18 years of age:

Run 80 meters, running high jump, throw a weight of 4 kilos, running broad jump, rope climbing with use of arms only.

For girls--all ages.

Run 60 meters, standing broad jump, running high jump, throw a weight of two kilos or rope climbing using the legs.

- (9) A practical test for girls in sewing or needlework. (In parts of France where lace making is important a test of this art shall be included.)

Each of the tests (oral and written) shall be scored on the basis of 0 to 20. The coefficients for each test is fixed as follows:

First series - written

French Composition	3
History or Geography	2
Mathematics	2
Physical and Natural Sciences	2
Spelling	2
Penmanship	1

Second series - oral

Civics and Morals	2
French	2
History and Geography	2
Mathematics	2
Physical and Natural Sciences	2
Drawing	1
Music	1
Physical Education	1
Sewing	1

A score of zero on any one test disqualifies a candidate. No candidate can be admitted to the second series if he has not obtained a passing score on the first series (i.e., 10 out of a possible 20). No candidate can

receive the Brevet Elementaire if he has not averaged 10 or above in both series. The results of the examination are announced in the presence of the candidates.<sup>20</sup>

The examinations for the Brevet Elementaire are given under very strict conditions. The following regulations indicate the discipline which must be observed during the examinations:<sup>21</sup>

At the opening of the session, the secretary of the examining committee shall call the roll. As each candidate's name is called, he stands and comes forward to sign the register and otherwise identifies himself. The candidates are called to order in one group or in several, depending on the total number under the surveillance of members of the committee as designated by the president.

Each written examination must have the candidate's full name at the top and folded under, the fold being opened only after the papers have been scored. The written examination is not public. The oral examination is public. In the case of girls, only women are admitted to witness the oral examination. The president of the committee acts as a police officer.

All communication between candidates is forbidden during the tests. All fraud or attempted fraud immediately excludes a candidate. If the fraud is not discovered until after the diploma has been issued, the Minister of National Education may recall it.

Examinations for the Brevet Elementaire are also given at several places where the French government maintains schools outside of the country proper or in its colonies. These schools are located in Istanbul, Syria,

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20 Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. p. 11.

21 Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 11-12.



Athens, Salonica, Cairo, Tangiers, Sofia, Beyrouth, Madrid, and Shanghai. In Istanbul, the committee on examinations is presided over by the French Ambassador to Turkey or his representative and five members are chosen from among the professors of the Lycée de Balata-Seraï. At Athens the committee is composed of members of l'Ecole Française d'Athens. In the other centers, the committee is presided over by the French Minister or Consul. All examinations, with the exception of those from Athens, are sent to the Minister of National Education and submitted for review to the director of the Paris academy. After they have thus been reviewed, the Minister announces the results. The diplomas are delivered by the Paris academy. The examinations from Madrid are reviewed at the academy of Bordeaux or at the academy of Toulouse.

Although the examinations seem rather rigid, a certain amount of latitude is permitted. Instructions from the Ministry of Education regarding this point were issued on the 30th of September, 1920, and are still in force. The following is a translation of the Ministry's instructions which serves as a frame of reference for the examining committee.

"The French composition will be on a moral or literary theme, it shall not be a question of literary history or moral theory. One can propose a commentary or a maxim on the discussion of simple problems of practical morals insisting more on good

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22 Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. p. 14.

23 Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 14-15.

sense and thinking rather than on memory. If a literary subject is chosen, it must not be forgotten that the official program is not imperative; the list of works studied varies from school to school. Therefore, one cannot insist only on knowledge of the authors on the official list. However, one can propose subjects simple enough and generally known, for it would be inadmissible that one should present himself for the examinations of the Brevet Elémentaire or for entrance to the normal schools without knowing something from Corneille, Racine, Voltaire, and a certain number of works of major importance. One could, for that matter, even in the composition require the candidates to comment on a few beautiful verses or several choice lines of prose for which the text would be given. Thus, we would detect not the quality of their memory, but rather the quality of their intellectual habits.

"As regards the new tests in history or geography and in the physical or natural sciences, the time allotted (one and one-half hours) does not permit long developments of the subject. The best questions will be those which will require the student to think and to prove that he has thought; in the sciences, those questions which require him to prove that he has seen with his own eyes, and, if one can say so, seen with his hands. In the orals, it is possible to substitute for the recitation of a lesson the examination of a physical phenomena, the realization of a simple experience, the description of the composition of a rock, a plant, or an animal, it is toward this method that the examination should be directed. It goes without saying that the application of the sciences to agriculture and industry should not be neglected."

On the basis of the above instructions from the Ministry of National Education, it would seem that the examinations should even be a learning experience for the candidate. Observations of the procedure would indicate that the examining committees do not commonly accept the opportunity given them by the Minister. Examinations are for the most part measures of memory. In a Circular of the Ministry,

issued on the 31st of May, 1937, the Minister made similar practical suggestions for the music test.

It would seem that the tests given above could be used as measures to determine a student's ability to enter and follow the work of the primary normal school. However, such is not the case. The possession of the B. E. (Brevet Elémentaire) is only the key which opens the door to another examination committee, which gives a very similar examination to select those who will enter the primary normal school. The only logical reason that can be found for the existence of the entrance examination is that more candidates apply than can be admitted; hence, a method of elimination must be found. The entrance examination is that method.

Examinations for permission to enter the primary normal schools:

All examinations are in two series: oral and written.

The examination of the first series is written and consists of:

- (1) A spelling test consisting of a dictation of about twenty lines which the candidate will write out, followed by four questions; two on the subject of grammar, and two on vocabulary. After the dictation is written the candidate is given 30 minutes to answer the questions and to reread his composition. (This part of the examination carries a coefficient of three, of which one is for the composition, one for the questions, and one for the penmanship.)
- (2) A written commentary on some piece of French writing. (Two hours) (coefficient of 1)

- (3) Mathematics: solution of two problems, one on geometry and the other on arithmetic or algebra. (two hours) (coefficient of 2)
- (4) Modern language (other than French); (two hours) (coefficient of 1)

The examinations of the second series are oral and consist of:

- (1) Reading a French text, followed by an interrogation on the ideas expressed therein. (twenty minutes for each candidate) (coefficient of 3)
- (2) An oral examination on mathematics. (twenty minutes for each candidate) (coefficient of 3)
- (3) The student will listen to a lecture, literary or scientific, for one-half hour. It will be in the form of a lesson on composition, and the subject matter may be in any one of the following: history, geography, physical science, or natural science. The student will then write, in class, a composition from the notes he has taken. (one hour)(coefficient of 3)
- (4) A music test consisting of a scale exercise and the rendition of a song chosen from a list established by the academy. (coefficient of 1)
- (5) A manual arts test for boys and a sewing test for girls. (coefficient of 1)
- (6) A physical education test. (coefficient of 1)

Each test shall be graded from 0 to 20.

No candidate can be admitted to the examinations of the second series if he has not obtained a passing score for the first series. The lowest passing score is 10.

In the various tests of the two series, the score of zero is given only after deliberation of the jury. The score

of zero in any one test eliminates the candidate from  
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 further consideration.

All candidates for entrance to the primary normal schools must be examined by the same committee named by the Director and presided over by the Inspector of the Academy or his representative. The committee must consist of:

- (1) The director and the professors of the departmental normal schools;
- (2) Two inspectors of elementary or kindergarten schools;
- (3) Professors from the lycées or classical colleges;
- (4) Professors from modern colleges or from continuation schools (higher elementary);
- (5) Other members chosen from among the civil servants or retired civil servants of public instruction.

No retired civil servant can serve on the committee if he has been in retirement over two years.

No professor can examine his own students.

The committee may function only when at least two-thirds of the members are present.

Each test must be scored by at least two members of the committee.

All oral examinations will be witnessed by at least two members.

In case a vote is necessary, a simple majority will decide the issue. In case of a tie, the vote of the president of the examining committee is considered as deciding the issue.

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24 Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Programmes du Concours de Recrute ont des Éleves-Atres et des Éleves-Atresses. Paris: Vuibert, 1946. pp. 5-6.

The candidates who pass are placed on a list in the order of their average score, and the list is transmitted to the Director with the minutes of the examination.

A supplementary list made up in the order of the average score may be submitted.

The Director announces the list of the successful candidates for teacher training in the order of their scores not later than the 31st of December of the year the examination was taken.<sup>25</sup>

The successful candidates are now ready to begin their teacher training.

### 3. The Course of Study in Primary Normal Schools.

The basis of the present course of study in the primary normal school was determined by the organic law of the 18th of January, 1887. The law was modified by another decree of the 13th of August, 1920. The following is the program<sup>26</sup> set by these laws:

There are two separate programs: one for the primary normal schools, training men teachers (instituteurs), and the other for primary normal schools for women (institutrices). Both sexes completing the training are then licensed to teach in kindergartens or elementary schools through the fifth grade, which is the basic elementary school in France, while a smaller number are licensed to teach in grades six through eight. As pointed out in the introduction, elementary schools are, for the most part, non-coeducational. However, schools for either sex may have, and usually do

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<sup>25</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale. Ibid. pp. 6-7.

<sup>26</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Plan d'études et Programmes des Ecoles Normales d'instituteurs et d'institutrices. Paris: Vuibert, 1940. P. 5.

have teachers of both sexes.

The basic course of study for both sexes in these normal schools is, by authority of the above-mentioned laws, as follows:

Article 82--The course of study in the primary normal schools of either sex must consist of instruction in:

- (1) General and professional morals
- (2) The elements of psychology and sociology, applicable to education and basic scientific philosophy
- (3) Pedagogy
- (4) French language and literature
- (5) The study of a foreign language
- (6) History
- (7) Geography
- (8) Arithmetic and algebra
- (9) Geometry
- (10) Measuring, surveying, and leveling (for male teachers);
- (11) Physical and natural sciences with their principal applications to home economics, hygiene, and child care (for female teachers)
- (12) Agriculture and horticulture (for male teachers)
- (13) Drawing and design
- (14) Music and singing
- (15) Physical education
- (16) Manual arts

Article 95--Instruction in the primary normal schools of either sex conforms to the programs annexed to the present law.

Article 96--The division of the subject matter is determined for each year and in conformity with the Table 5 below: <sup>27</sup>

Table 5 below indicates the number of hours per week given over to each subject in the primary normal school for men.

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<sup>27</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ibid. p. 7.

TABLE 5

Course of Study  
Primary Normal Schools (Men)

Subject Matter	Hours Per Week			Total
	1st yr.	2nd yr.	3rd yr.	
Psychology and Sociology applied to Education, Pedagogy, Morals, Scien- tific Philosophy	2	2	2*	6
French Language and Literature	4**	4**	4**	12**
History and Geography	3	3	2½	8½
Modern Language	2	2	2	6
Mathematics	3	3	2	8
Physical and Natural Sciences and Hygiene	4	4	4	12
Theory of Agriculture	0	1	1	2
Drawing and Modelling	2	2	2	6
Geometric Design	1	1	1	3
Music and Singing	2	2	2	6
Physical Education	2	2	2	6
Manual Arts and Agriculture	<u>4</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>12</u>
Total	29	30	28½	87½

\* Does not include pedagogy, referred to in Article 100.

\*\*Does not include outside reading and study on the student's own initiative.



Slight differences exist in the program of studies in the primary normal schools for girls, as can be seen in Table 6 below:

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TABLE 6

## Course of Study

## Primary Normal Schools (Women)

Subject Matter	Hours Per Week			Total
	1st yr.	2nd yr.	3rd yr.	
Psychology and Sociology Applied to Education, Pedagogy, Morals, Scientific Philosophy	2	2	2*	6*
French Language and Literature	4**	4**	4**	12**
History and Geography	3	3	2½	8½
Modern Language	2	2	2	6
Mathematics	3	3	1	7
Physical and Natural Science, Hygiene and Home Economics	4	4	5	13
Drawing and Modeling	2	2	2	6
Geometric Design	1	1	1	3
Music and Singing	2	2	2	6
Physical Education	2	2	2	6
Housemaking (Sewing, Mending, Washing, Ironing and Cleaning) and Plant Culture	4	4	4	12
Total	29	29	27½	85½

\* Does not include pedagogy referred to in Article 100.

\*\*Does not include outside reading and study on the student's own initiative.

Besides the minimum course of study for the three-year period as outlined above, various decrees of the Minister of National Education also set a minimum standard for student life and activities during the three years they are in the primary normal school. With few exceptions all students are boarders; hence, it is easy to regulate their training on a twenty-four hour basis. As all expenses connected with this three-year period are carried by the State, the student must accept the responsibility of living within the law. The following articles<sup>29</sup> direct the student's activities:

Article 97--At least eight hours sleep shall be allowed at all seasons.

The use of the days with the exception of Thursdays, Sundays, and holidays, shall be as follows:

During the daylight hours, at least five hours in the men's schools and five and one-half hours in the women's schools shall be spent in keeping one's self clean, at meals, recreation, games, school care, and physical exercise.

For the working hours, at least five hours shall be spent each day in study, class preparation, and observation or practice-teaching.

The schedule of classes must be such that they will not exceed four hours per day, exclusive of music and singing, physical education, and manual arts.

Article 98--The use of time is regulated by the director, aided by the faculty council, and approved by the director of the academy.

The schedule must be such that students on detached assignment to annexed schools or in practice teaching can attend their classes.

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<sup>29</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ibid. pp. 6, 9 and 10.

Article 99--At the beginning of each year, the director, assisted by the faculty council, shall determine for the approval of the academy inspector the conditions under which student-teachers shall do their observation and practice teaching.

The number of students detached for observation and practice teaching shall be calculated in such a way that each one will have at least fifty half-days each year for three years in either elementary schools or kindergartens.

Article 100--During the last year of training at the primary normal school, there shall be one weekly lesson in pedagogy. It shall consist of practice teaching demonstration to illustrate a point, the discussion of questions regarding method or discipline, the examination and critical analysis of school work, written exercises, or the explanation or analysis of a problem in pedagogy. The directors of the training school will assist in these weekly conferences. These conferences shall give the student-teachers the benefit of critical analysis by the faculty and the directors.

Article 101--In the primary normal schools for women, as an application of the lesson in home economics, the student-teachers will participate regularly in the kitchen activities, in washing and ironing, in personal hygiene, and in gardening.

Article 102--The regular days when students may leave the school are Sundays and holidays.

In the primary normal schools for women, the students may leave only on request of their parents or guardians. A walk shall be organized for those who remain in school. Individual requests for permission to leave may be authorized by the directrice.

Article 103--Summer vacations in the primary normal schools begin July 15 and end September 30. Other vacations are fixed by the academy director and are the same as for the lycées and colleges.

Article 105--The directors of the primary normal schools shall request the parents of all students

to furnish the school with a list of the persons with whom they permit their children to correspond. All letters written to students shall have the signature of the writer on the envelope.

The professional courses and pedagogical training of candidates are further specified in the annex to the law of January 18, 1887, with official changes since its adoption. The courses are followed two hours per week over a period of three years. The following is a detailed description of the subject-matter content of the professional courses: 30

#### First Year

##### Educational Psychology:

An introduction to psychology, including an analysis of the mind and of conscience. The influence of inheritance and of the body on character and mentality and the influence of environment on the individual's way of thinking and his mental ability.

##### The nature of intelligence:

- (1) Spontaneous actions and reactions--the subconscious. Understanding one's self. Practical consequences to education.
- (2) Understanding others. Sensations and perceptions. Errors of interpretations; illusions, dreams, hallucinations. Education for understanding, observation and interpretation.
- (3) Recalling the past; memory, psychological mechanism of remembering. The association of ideas. Conditions for acquiring, conserving and recalling what has been experienced. The types

mnemonics; visual, auditory, and motor. Different types of memories. The failures of memory; forgetting and alterations in memory. The training of memory. Pedagogical rules.

- (4) Foreseeing the future and its necessity for planned action. Practical consequences obtained from the unreliability of forecasting.
- (5) Imagination. Scientific invention. Poetic and artistic creation. Imagination in the child; his taste for stories, fairy tales and adventure. To what extent and by what means can we cultivate the imagination of the child?
- (6) Attention; spontaneous and voluntary. Distractions and mental fatigue. The training of attention and means of attracting and fixing it.
- (7) Abstract and general ideas. How they are formed. General ideas and words. Different degrees of abstractions and generalities and their danger. The necessity of using concrete and intuitive methods of teaching.
- (8) Beliefs and superstitions. Psychological and social factors influencing our beliefs and our doubts.
- (9) Reasoning. Its spontaneous forms: intuitive reasoning and reasoning by analogy. Reasoning by thinking: inductive and deductive. A study of the most frequent errors of judgment in reasoning. The critical spirit. Training judgment and reasoning.
- (10) Thinking, its style of expression by language.

#### The senses:

- (1) Pleasure and pain. Methods of regulating in the child the love of pleasure and how to harden him to pain.

- (2) The emotions and their effect on the body. The emotions of children; fear, timidity, anger, and how to treat them.
- (3) Personal tendencies. The instinct of self-preservation. The needs of the body and their adjustments to social requirements. Love of ownership and its manifestation in children. The need for activity. Children's games.
- (4) Altruistic tendencies; sympathy, pity, friendliness and love.
- (5) Impersonal tendencies. The curiosity and love of science. Admiration and love of beauty. The culture of taste. Religious and moral sentiments.
- (6) The passions: their formation and methods of conquering them.

#### Activities:

- (1) Reflex movements and instructive action.
- (2) Habits. Body habits and physical education. Intellectual and moral habits.
- (3) Will. Its mechanism. How it is developed and established as regards movements, sentiments, and thinking. Being master of one's self. Training of the will.
- (4) Character. Developing and training character.
- (5) The human personality.

#### Experiences and observations which student teachers should have:

- (1) Measure the height, weight, strength, and lung capacity of pupils in a training school.
- (2) Measure their sight, hearing, sense of smell and their sense of touch.

- (3) Measure their memory.
- (4) Study the day dreaming and wishful thinking of children.
- (5) Measure their span of attention and mental fatigue at various times of the day.
- (6) Measure the nature and extent of imagination in children.
- (7) Study the assertions made by pupils and do research on their motives.
- (8) Measure the judgment and reasoning of children under Binet-Simon tests.
- (9) Study and observe the language of children, their vocabulary and syntax at different periods in their scholastic life.
- (10) Study the temperament and character of various pupils and follow their development and modification during their school life.

General pedagogy:

- (1) The social and moral aims of education. Training and education. The legitimacy of the actions of the educator. The limits of his powers.
- (2) The educator. The foundations of his authority. The moral and intellectual abilities necessary to be an educator--can they be acquired? The education of an educator.
- (3) The pupil. The various stages in the physical, intellectual, and moral life of the child. Different types of intellects and personalities. The necessity of adapting the methods of teaching to different ages and abilities.
- (4) The pupil and the psychology of the class. The rules of group teaching and how they differ from the rules of individual teaching.

- (5) How can one obtain order and the best conditions for teaching? Discipline--how can it be reconciled with the respect for the personality of the child? Examine the theories of educational method and the methods employed in school.
- (6) How and why should one prepare for a class?
- (7) The seating of pupils in class. Seating according to physical aptitudes of students (sight, hearing, etc.) and according to intellectual and moral development of the pupils.
- (8) The scheduling of lessons during the different days of the week and hours of the day taking into consideration the oscillation of attention and mental fatigue. Study the grouping of a class composed of several intellectual levels.
- (9) The lesson. Lecturing and the use of books. To what extent should use be made of one or the other. Under what conditions is each method best.
- (10) Intuitive, direct, and active methods. Their advantage and disadvantage. Teaching by the activity method. Under what conditions should attractive (winning, pleasing, etc.) methods be used?
- (11) Different types of questioning. Socratic and controlled questioning. Pattern questioning (i.e., around the class according to pattern). The difficulties of the question method and the qualities of a good interrogation.
- (12) Written lessons. Their number and their aim. Should they be prepared in class? To what extent? The correction of written papers in class.
- (13) Written compositions, contests and the distribution of prizes. What is their pedagogical value? To what extent should one use rivalry?



- (14) The activities of the teacher outside of the class. Recreation and school walks. (Refers to recreation of the teacher between classes and during recess. It is common practice for the teachers to form abreast and walk up and down the school yard in cadence.)
- (15) The joint activities of parents and teachers.

During the second year of the primary normal school, the student teachers continue the work begun in the first year but on a wider horizon as is made evident by the following program of pedagogical studies for the second year. Both sociology and education play an important part in this program which, like the first year, takes two hours per week.<sup>31</sup>

#### Moral and Educational sociology:

Introduction. The nature of society and the necessity of social intercourse. The influence of social life on the material, moral, and intellectual life of the human being. Social and moral laws. Types of societies.

#### Economic Sociology:

- (1) The study of groups having as their aim the satisfaction of material needs. Corporations, professional associations and cooperatives. The family and the State in economic life.
- (2) Types of production in various societies. Work; intellectual, inventive, directional, and manual work. Social and economic conditions of workers. Reciprocal relations of various persons who contribute to production. The distribution of labor.

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<sup>31</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 16-19.

- (3) Types of monetary exchange in various societies. Value and price. Monopoly, money, and credit.
- (4) Remuneration of labor. Savings.
- (5) Different types of property.
- (6) Influence of economic change on institutions, mores, and ideas.
- (7) The moral effect of the division of labor. Solidarity of economic groups. Its influence on education. The necessity for a dual education, general and special, so that everyone may participate in modern life.

Sociology of the home and family:

- (1) Different forms of family life. A study of how and why the family has lost some of its functions.
- (2) The nature of the family. Marriage; its social and moral character.
- (3) Reciprocal relations of husband and wife. The progressive uplifting of the dignity of womanhood.
- (4) The relationship of parents to their children. The authority in the family.
- (5) The moral influence of family life.
- (6) The family and the school. How the school comes to the aid of the family in one of its essential duties. The relationship which must exist between the school and the family.

Political sociology: tribes, cities, empires, nations, confederations:

- (1) What is a nation? The study of the formation of national unity. The role of the common ideal in such a formation. The national language and provincial dialects. The national character.

The principals of nationality. Patriotism. The role of the school in maintaining and strengthening national unity and developing patriotism.

- (2) The State, its functions and how they vary. New concepts of the activities of the modern state (public education, welfare and social hygiene). The progressive separation of church and state.
- (3) Constitutions of states. Reciprocal relationships between the citizen and the state and between citizens. The social hierarchy and its various forms. Systems of caste, aristocracies and democracies. Individual rights. Liberty and its limits.
- (4) Various forms of government; monarchies, oligarchies, popular governments, and parliamentary governments. Universal suffrage and limited suffrage. Proportional representation. Women's accession to political life. The relationship of the executive to the legislative. The particular importance of education in a democracy.
- (5) The courts. Causes of crime. The use of punishment in various societies.
- (6) Relationship of nations to states. Solidarity and antagonisms. Peace and war. Arbitration. The League of Nations. The United Nations.

The sociology of religion, art, and science:

- (1) Primitive forms of religion, art, and science.
- (2) Tribal, city, national, and universal religions.
- (3) The social role of religion.
- (4) The progressive separation of religion from art and science in modern society.

- (5) The influence of environment on artistic and scientific production. The limitations of the influence of the environment on the originality of the artist and the intellectual.
- (6) The influence of society on education. The duration and nature of education varies, depending on the functions of the society.
- (7) The social role of the school.

Pedagogy:

- (1) A study and examination of the methods of teaching the various subjects in the elementary school (reading, writing, spelling, grammar, history, geography, arithmetic, the metric system, morals, etc.)
- (2) A study and critical examination of the textbooks used for each subject.
- (3) A discussion of the classes observed in the training school.
- (4) Reading and discussion of the more important modern and contemporary published works in pedagogy.
- (5) In the primary normal schools for women, a special unit of study will be included on the methods used in kindergartens.

During the third and final year of the primary normal school, the student teacher is subjected to a considerable amount of observation and practice teaching. Whereas, in the second year he covered the aims, methods, and importance of the social sciences, as well as pedagogy, the third year introduces him to the aims, methods, and importance of the physical and natural sciences, plus the practical application of educational methods. The following is the program of

professional studies included in the third and last year of  
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 the student-teacher's training: This portion of the professional program, exclusive of observation and practice-teaching, consumes two class hours per week.

General principles of science and morals:

The Sciences:

- (1) Purpose and difficulty of scientific research.

Its methods:

- (2) Deduction; the method of the science of mathematics.
- (3) Experimentation, induction and hypothesis; the methods of physical sciences.
- (4) Observation, classification, and experimentation; the methods of natural science.
- (5) Critical analysis of documents, observations, and witnesses; the methods of the moral sciences.
- (6) General conclusions resulting in; the laws of nature, the great hypotheses on the construction of matter, the explanation of life, the evolution of animals, the history of the universe, the place of man in the world, the value of science, its limitations and the relationship of reason and science.

Morals:

- (1) Reason and action. The relationship of morals and science.
- (2) Ideal morals. Methods of defining morals; intuitive, inductive, and deductive.

- (3) Various conceptions of ideal morals; obedience to a superior authority, obedience of one's conscience, social interests, justice, and solidarity.
- (4) The attractiveness of moral ideals and the sentiment of obligation. Their rational foundation.
- (5) Moral liberty; its degrees and limits.
- (6) Moral and social responsibility.
- (7) Virtue and happiness.

Morals of the profession:

- (1) Professional development and culture. The education of the teacher must continue throughout his life. The role of educational conferences. The necessity of fighting against falling in a rut, of continually improving the methods and continuity of instruction.
- (2) The professional conscience. Regularity and energy in the accomplishment of everyday tasks.
- (3) Educational neutrality: it is the duty of the State (the educator) and the teacher as the State's representative.
- (4) Other duties of the State as educator; it must not teach anything contrary to its moral and judicial principles.
- (5) The precautions to be used in choosing textbooks.
- (6) The teacher's duties to his students; respect of each student's natural personality, treat all with kindness and equality. He must care for and visit students who are ill.
- (7) Obligations to other teachers. Duties to directors and adjutants.
- (8) Relationship with those whose duties it is to supervise and direct public education.

- (9) Relationships with the student's families.
- (10) The role of the teacher in the extra-curricular duties of the school.
- (11) The private life of the teacher. As educator, he must set the example. He has obligations as concerns his dress, his language, and his conduct. Why commercial operations are forbidden to all teachers.
- (12) The teacher and public life. Is it possible for him to have discord between that which he teaches in school and his opinions expressed in public? Reasons why administrative functions are forbidden as an activity for teachers.
- (13) The teacher as secretary to the mayor.
- (14) The rights of teachers, their status, the departmental council, protection and guarantees against the arbitrary person.

#### School administration:

All teachers must familiarize themselves with the Organic Law of October 30, 1886, the decrees and directives of January 18, 1887, and all the more important regulations relative to school administration. These laws establish the chain of command in educational administration, school supervision, and the accounting of school expenditures.<sup>33</sup>

Basically, the education course requirements for student-teachers has not changed since the first courses were put into effect. The content has been reinterpreted, but the number of hours per week per subject has remained the same. The same is true of the subject-matter courses required of student-teachers preparing for positions in

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<sup>33</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. p. 31

the elementary schools. With the exception of slight differences to account for sex, all student-teachers take the same subject-matter courses in all primary normal schools.

The outline below covers the subject-matter fields 34  
studied in the three-year primary normal school program:

#### French Language and Literature:

##### First Year (four hours per week during each year)

- (1) Reading and discussion assignments of the most important literature of the Ancient times and Middle Ages to include: Homer, Virgil, Caesar, Songs of Roland, Racine, Moliere, La Fontaine, La Bruyere, Voltaire, Victor Hugo, Lamartine, and others.
- (2) Composition for one hour every two weeks.
- (3) Studies of the French language for one hour every two weeks.

##### Second Year

- (1) Reading and discussion of the most important literature of Ancient times, of the Middle Ages, and of Modern times, both prose and poetry, to include: Socrates, Aristotle, Plato, Cervantes, Corneille, Racine, Moliere, Montesquieu, Rousseau, Balzac, and others.
- (2) French composition for one hour every two weeks.
- (3) The French language for one hour every two weeks.

##### Third Year

- (1) Reading and discussion of other important literary workers of all ages, to



included: Plato, Aristotle, Shakespeare, Goethe, Corneille, Descartes, Boileau, Pascal, Buffon, Voltaire, Alfred de Vigny, Victor Hugo, and others.

- (2) French composition one hour every two weeks.
- (3) French language one hour every two weeks to include history of the language and spelling.

#### Foreign Language (Modern)

The student-teacher shall choose one foreign language which he shall pursue for two hours per week for three years. The courses shall emphasize reading, vocabulary, translations, and the study of the works of important authors in the language chosen.

#### History (two hours per week for three years)

##### First year

##### Antiquity to the Middle Ages

- (1) Prehistoric man.
- (2) Early civilizations and empires including Egypt.
- (3) Babylon, Syria, Phoenicians, and Persians.
- (4) The Hebrews. The civilization of Palestine, Monotheism, and the prophets.
- (5) Greek; myths, oracles, and sports.
- (6) Sparta and Athens, the colonization of Greece, and Greek wars.
- (7) The century of Pericles and the arts of Athens.
- (8) The Greek city-state, the Athenian Republic, the people's assembly, and slavery.

- (9) The Athenian Empire and Spartan wars.
- (10) Alexander, the conquest of Asia, the diffusion of Greek culture, what the modern world owes to Greece.
- (11) Primitive Rome, the family, the city, and religion.
- (12) The function of aristocratic government and the role of the Senate.
- (13) The Roman army, the conquest of Italy and the Mediterranean.
- (14) The results of the conquests, the influence of Greece, moral and social transformations.
- (15) The end of the Republic. The Empire.
- (16) Roman civilization under the Empire, the Roman world, and Roman peace.
- (17) Constantine and Christianity under the Empire.
- (18) Principles of Roman law.

#### Europe Through the Middle Ages

- (1) Gaul before the Roman conquest and under Roman domination.
- (2) The Barbarians, mores, and social habits of the Germans.
- (3) Clovis and the Monarchy of the Franks.
- (4) Charlemagne. The attempt to reconstruct the Roman Empire. Political organization, the social state, and the renaissance in arts and letters during the reign of Charlemagne.
- (5) The invasions of the 9th Century and the downfall of the empire.
- (6) Feudalism, the social order of feudalism, living conditions in the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries.

- (7) The Arabs. Their empire and civilization.
- (8) The Crusades in Asia, Africa, and Europe.
- (9) The Church in the East. Attempts at theocratic government by Gregory VII, Innocent III, and Boniface VIII.
- (10) The States General.
- (11) The origin of French cities, principal types of communities, the economic and political organization of a nearby city.
- (12) French civilization in the 13th century, the universities, architecture, and sculpture.
- (13) The organization of European states; England, Germany, Italy, and Spain.
- (14) The Hundred Years War and its consequences; human misery, economic ruin, development and decadences of the states assemblies, permanent taxes, national sentiment, and monarchies.

## Second Year

### The Renaissance to 1815

- (1) Humanism and the cult of antiquity.
- (2) The artistic Renaissance in France and Italy. The effects of the Italian wars on French art. Classical art.
- (3) Philosophy and religion during the Renaissance. The reforms, counter-reforms, and the Council of Trent. International consequences, the rupture of Christian unity, the change in theocratic ideology, general attitudes toward the religious wars of the 16th and 17th centuries. Political consequences, the consolidation of absolutism in England and France. Protestantism and the monarchy. The politics of Henry IV, Richelieu and Louis XIV. Social and moral results:

Puritanism in England, the catholic renaissance and Jansenism in France. Intellectual developments; the critical attitude, Bacon and Descartes, the birth of Biblical criticism, the Jesuits and education, Protestantism and the arts. The Edict of Nantes and its revocation.

- (4) The institutions of the French monarchy under Louis XIV.
- (5) The nobility, the bourgeois, and the workers and peasants in the 17th century.
- (6) Diplomacy and the system of alliances in the 17th and 18th centuries. The military.
- (7) The English constitution of the 13th century. The Tudors. Nature of the English revolutions in the 17th century. The organization of parliamentary government in the 18th century. The Magna Carta.
- (8) The Prussian state up to the 18th century. Frederic II, his education, and his character.
- (9) Russia. Peter the Great and Catherine II.
- (10) Popular attitudes in the 18th century. The philosophers and economists. The despotism of Louis XVI in France and Joseph II in Austria. Montesquieu, Voltaire, Rousseau, Turgot and Condorcet.
- (11) The Revolution. The reforms of the Convention. Revolutionary dictatorship in Paris and in the departments. Anarchy. The declaration of the Rights of Man. The constitution of 1791 and of year III.
- (12) Effect of the French Revolution on Europe. The fight for republican ideas. Napoleon.
- (13) The nature of Napoleon's government.

- (14) Church and State. Review of the developments since the 18th century.
- (15) Napoleon and Europe. Napoleon's strategy. National uprisings against Napoleon. Causes of Napoleon's downfall.
- (16) Art in the 17th and 18th centuries and its evolution in France since 1815.

### Third Year

#### 1815 to the Present

- (1) The Congress of Vienna. The new Europe. The Holy Alliance. Metternich, Richelieu, and Chateaubriand.
- (2) Parliamentary regime in France from 1814 to 1848. The origin of political parties. Political and economic systems. The memoirs of Villele, Guizot, Broglie, Thiers, Saint-Simon, Proudhon and Auguste Comte.
- (3) The Second Republic. The Church and the university. The Coup d'Etat. The constitution of 1848.
- (4) The Second Empire. The Plebiscite. The police and the courts. The foreign policy of Napoleon III.
- (5) The end of the imperial regime. The national assembly. The republican constitution of 1875. The Sixteenth of May. The principal social and economic laws. Laws effecting education. The religious question and the separation of church and State. The army and the navy.
- (6) The French colonial empire. The system of colonization.
- (7) The development of the democratic regime in England; traditions, public instruction, and education. Political and social reforms. Colonial expansion. The Dominions. Nationalism in Ireland,

Egypt, and India. Discussions of Peel, Palmerstone, Disraeli, Gladstone, O'Connell, Parnell, and Lloyd George.

- (8) The independence of Belgium. The question of language. The religious question. The Belgian Congo.
- (9) Life, mores, and ideologies in Italy from 1815 to 1859. The role of France in Italian unity. The economic development of modern Italy.
- (10) Germany from 1815 to 1914. The unification of the Germanic states. Economic developments, science, and industry. PanGermanism. German commercial methods. Bismark, Beust, and Audler.
- (11) Race conflicts in Austria-Hungary from 1815 to 1914.
- (12) The Balkan question in the 19th century. The new Balkan states. The Treaty of London, 1913. Charles I of Roumania.
- (13) The Russian Empire. Czarism. The growth of revolutionary parties. The conflict with Japan and the cause of the Japanese victory.
- (14) Japan. The revolution of 1868. The conflict with Russia. The new China.
- (15) Independence and the Constitution of the United States. Territorial expansion. Population growth in the United States. Economic development. The cause and effect of the Civil War. Beliefs of Monroe, Lincoln, T. Roosevelt, and Wilson.
- (16) The formation and development of the South American Republics. Their relationship with the United States and with Europe.
- (17) The German menace. The war of 1870. The Triple Alliance. The Franco-Russian Alliance and the Franco-English Entente. Morocco. The state of Europe in 1914.

- (18) The principle phase of the War of 1914-18. The treaties of the peace. The new Europe. The League of Nations.
- (19) The French civilization and the role of France in the world.

## Geography (one hour per week)

### First year

#### General Principles of Physical Geography

- (1) The discovery of the world. Great commercial routes. The discovery of America. African and Pacific explorations. The Polar regions.
- (2) The shape of the earth and its dimensions. Poles, equator, tropics, zones, parallels, longitude, latitude, and degrees. Types of maps and globes.
- (3) The atmosphere. Air and water currents. Climates and soils and their influence on flora, fauna, and man.
- (4) The earth's surface. Vegetation, minerals, and soils.
- (5) Mountains, lakes, rivers, oceans, deserts, and plains. Fog, rain, snow, glaciers, and wind.

### Second Year

#### Human Geography

- (1) The place of man in the history of the earth. Primitive life, savages, and civilization.
- (2) Population problems.
- (3) Race, language, and religions.
- (4) Natural products of the earth.
- (5) Conditions of production; organization and division of labor between the various occupations.

- (6) Productive animals and their contributions.
- (7) Precious and practical metals and coal.
- (8) Industrial centers and agricultural regions.
- (9) The civilization of large cities.
- (10) Railroads and other forms of commercial communication.
- (11) Colonization. The relationship between economic development and colonization. Principle systems of colonization. The political organization of colonies.
- (12) Protectorates, Mandates, and spheres of influence.

Third Year (one hour every two weeks)

Geography of Western Europe

- (1) Physical geography.
- (2) Human geography.

#### Scientific Courses

##### Mathematics First Year

- (1) Arithmetic (one hour per week)  
Mental calculations, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, decimals, and the metric system.
- (2) Algebra (one hour per week)
- (3) Geometry (one hour per week)

##### Second Year

- (1) Arithmetic (one hour per week)  
Fractions, decimals, square roots, and commercial arithmetic including book-keeping, money and banking.



(2) Algebra (one hour per week)

(3) Geometry (one hour per week)

Third Year (two hours per week)

(1) Trigonometry.

(2) Cosmography. The earth, the moon, the sun, the stars, the calendar, eclipses, planets, and comets. The ocean routes and maps, tides, compasses, navigation, weather, sextant, and directions.

(3) Descriptive geometry.

Physical sciences (The program in physics, chemistry, and biology is only offered as a guide, but must be adapted to the needs of the region.)

Physics (one hour per week for three years)

Chemistry (one hour per week for three years)

Natural Sciences (one hour per week for each year)

First Year

(1) Geology. Applied geology and historical geology. The geology of France, of the region and of the department. The relationship between the geology and the civilization of an area.

(2) Botany.

a. Cells, roots, barks, skin, leaves, the anatomy and morphology of plants, plant diseases, grafting, plant nutrition, fertilizers.

b. Reproduction, flowers, fruits, grains, and other edibles and non-edibles.

c. Classifications of plant life.

## Second Year

- (1) Animal biology.
  - a. Classification of animals.
  - b. Anatomy and physiology, digestion, circulation, respiration, excretion, the nervous system, the muscles.
  - c. Special studies of animals. Vertebrates and invertebrates.

## Third Year

- (1) Evolution of man and animals. The use and value of animals to man's progress.
- (2) Heredity, Darwin and natural selection, mutation.
- (3) Hygiene.
  - a. Infectious diseases.
  - b. Air, amounts of air needed for life, purification of air, lung diseases, asphyxiation, and the dangers of dust. Ventilation.
  - c. Light, the importance of sunshine to health. Natural light and artificial light. Light and the classroom.
  - d. Water. The importance of a sanitary water supply. The purification of water. Water as a cleansing agent.
  - e. Alcoholic beverages. Their value and their danger.
  - f. Food and its use for proper body building.
  - g. Personal hygiene. The care of skin, hair, ears, eyes, teeth, mouth, and feet. Parasites and their methods of destruction. The importance of daily inspection of children in the classroom.

- h. Clothing hygiene. The necessity for keeping clothes clean.
- i. Home and classroom hygiene. The necessity for having plenty of light, air, and heat. Cleanliness of one's immediate environment. Rat and mice control.
- j. Venereal diseases.

Theoretical Agriculture (one hour per week during the second and third year of the three year program).

- (1) The soil and its care. Irrigation, fertilization, cultivation, rotation of crops, weed control.
- (2) The harvest and conservation of agricultural products. Storage.
- (3) Plant cultivation. Types of useful plants.
- (4) Domestic animals, their care and use.
- (5) Rural economics. Agricultural associations.
- (6) Farm sanitation, health, and labor.
- (7) The agricultural situation in France. The relationship between agriculture and industry.
- (8) The role of the rural teacher.

Drawing (three hours per week for three years)

- (1) Artistic designs and models. Their educational value.
- (2) Geometric design. Its use in industry, agriculture, and in the home.

Singing and Music (two hours per week for three years)

- (1) Theory and history of music. Its value to civilization.
- (2) Group singing, choirs, solos, duet and quartette.
- (3) School songs, classical music, popular music, folk music.

(4) Composing.

(5) Piano and violin lessons.

**Manual Arts (four hours per week for three years)**

(1) Work with paper, cardboard, and paste.

(2) Woodwork and use of woodworking tools.

(3) Metal work. Tools used in metal work.  
Soldering and working with wire.

**Physical Education (two hours per week for three years)**

(1) Calisthenics.

(2) Track and field events.

(3) Outdoor games.

(4) Hiking.

(5) Swimming.

**Special instruction in primary normal schools for women.**

In general, the program is the same. However, special adaptation is made as indicated by the following:

**Household Arts (four hours per week for three years)**

(1) Sewing and mending.

(2) Knitting, embroidery, woolens, cottons, and colors.

(3) Pattern making for children and women's clothing.

(4) The sewing machine. Its use and repair.

(5) Kitchen arts; cooking, canning, etc.

(6) The care of furniture, floors, and walls.

(7) Washing, ironing, and home cleaning.

(8) Gardening.

Rural Home Economics (one hour per week during the third year only).

(1) The feeding and care of domestic animals.

(2) Bovines of the area. Milking. Feeding of milk-giving bovines. Animal husbandry. Sanitation of stables.

(3) Milk, cheese, and butter.

(4) The raising of sheep, pigs, and rabbits, and the preparation of the meat for the table.

(5) Chicken breeding.

(6) Apiculture.

(7) Care of fruit trees and the canning of their produce.

(8) The vegetable garden.

(9) The soil, its use and care.

(10) The marketing of farm products.

Hygiene (same as for men except for feminine hygiene and child care)

(1) Feminine hygiene.

(2) Child care. How to care for the newborn. Cleanliness, clothes, and bedding. Natural and artificial feeding. Medical attention needed for the newborn such as medical examinations, dental examinations, and vaccinations.

Thus, we see that the course of study for the student-teacher is well defined by the Minister of National Education

with the advice of his staff. However, one must not draw the conclusion that there is no room for individual initiative. To begin with, the detailed outline of the three-year course of study found in primary normal schools represents the minimum subject matter which must be presented. It does not establish a maximum. There is much room for class discussion, not only of various pedagogical issues but also of social, economic, and political issues. Furthermore, various schools adapt the subject matter to the needs of the region and they do use local environment as a teaching aid.

An outstanding feature of this course of study is that it not only gives the student-teacher the pedagogical preparation deemed necessary for the duties he will assume, but it also prepares him to take his place in the social life of the community and puts him near the top of the group of so-called "intellectual elite".

To many, this might not be considered an advantage but if one understands the nature and prestige of culture in French social life, it is easy to understand why even the elementary school teacher must have at his fingertips a vast reservoir of detailed knowledge. It is true that much of the subject matter he studies in the primary normal school will be of little, if any, direct value in teaching seven year old pupils, but it is necessary and vital if he is to maintain the respect of the intellectual community

and thereby the respect and admiration of the whole community. That is the French way.

The principles on which the present course of studies is based are found in the educational reform laws of August 18, 1920. In an address to the rectors and inspectors of the academies given by the Minister of Education on September 30, 1920, the educational principles which the program was to implement were stated as follows:

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The primary normal school is essentially a school to prepare teachers. It is not an institute of pedagogy nor is it a school of higher education where pedagogy is developed. It is rather a school where pedagogy is taught. It must be taught from the first year. Why should we wait longer to acquaint the student-teachers with the general principles of the art which they are destined to practice for the rest of their lives? . . . . During the first year, the student-teachers will study general principles of education, those which lend themselves to all aspects of instruction and during the second year they will study the methods of teaching the various subjects found in the elementary school. It is during the second year that they will study the work of modern and contemporary educational practices. . . . . During the third year of their teacher training, the students will do their practice teaching and will observe masters at the various levels of the elementary school. Emphasis will be placed on the development of their professional morale, and they shall be thoroughly acquainted with school-room supervision and administration. . . . . The reforms of 1920 give the normal schools their proper function in our educational system. At no time, from the time the student enters until he leaves, must he be allowed to forget that he is there to become a teacher. . . . . His professional education must be the objective of all the efforts of the school; it must begin the first day of the first year.

However, for a man whose mission it is to teach others, general education must be an integrated part of his professional education. The teacher must be an educated man. Therefore, it is necessary that the normal school pursue further the scientific and literary training with which he already has some acquaintance. This, then, is the purpose and function of the subject-matter content of the normal school program.

#### 4. Nature of the Duties to be Encountered by a Teacher in the Kindergarten or Elementary School.

The graduate of a primary normal school has the Certificat d'Aptitude à l'Enseignement Primaire. Depending on his practice-teaching assignment, he may teach in either kindergarten or primary grades. The primary elementary school is composed of grades one through five, or grades one through eight. Kindergartens employ only women teachers, while teachers of the primary grades are both men and women.

For the sake of convenience, the duties of the primary teacher are here divided into two categories: curricular and extra-curricular. The curricular duties include all classroom and school activities, while the extra-curricular duties, common to teachers in either kindergarten or primary grades, include all duties outside the school. The first duties are determined by the needs of the school program, and the second by the needs of the community.

The aim and purpose of the kindergarten (école maternelle ou classe enfantine) is stated in article 2 of the educational laws of January 18, 1887, as follows: "The

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36 Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Programmes des Écoles Maternelles et des Classes Infantines.  
Paris: Vuibert, 1945, pp. 9-10.



various courses of the kindergartens have as their aim the beginning of physical education, intellectual education, and moral education of the young child. The kindergarten is not a school in the ordinary meaning of the word; it is shelter to safeguard the child from the dangers of the street, the dangers of loneliness and dangers of unsanitary lodging. It must, therefore, encourage daily attendance of those children whose mothers work each day outside the home or who are too occupied with other home duties to care for the child. It shall also provide recreation and education for other children who do not have companions of their own age. The most important aspect of the program shall be the health of the child."

The methods to be employed in the kindergarten shall be those which imitate as much as possible the educative processes of a devoted and intelligent mother--methods essentially natural, familylike, and always adaptable to the needs of each individual child.<sup>37</sup>

The kindergarten teacher's task is recognized as an important one, indeed, if she is to substitute for a "devoted and intelligent mother." The program for which the teacher must be prepared is divided into two parts: one for children two to five years of age and the other for children five to six years of age. The two programs are similar in content,

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<sup>37</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. p. 11.

but adapted to the two age groups. In general, there are five categories of activities: games and songs; manual exercise; moral education; observation lessons; language and calculations, drawing, writing and reading.<sup>38</sup>

The following is a brief description of each of these activities: Games and songs includes free play and directed play, games with toys and games without toys; games of action; group songs and singing by the teachers; music appreciation. Manual exercises include pearl stringing; the making of flowers, cutting paper dolls; block construction, etc. Moral education develops good habits, a sense of honor, cooperation with playmates, sanitary habits, politeness, kindness, respect and loyalty to parents, the nation and God. Observation lessons include walks through parks, gardens, zoos, streets, and the observation of a picture on prearranged table demonstrations after which a memory or retention quiz is given. The study of the habits of life around them. Language lessons incorporate pronunciation, games of questions and answer, oral conjugations with proper tense and simple past, present and future, recitations and oral reading by the teacher. The child is encouraged to learn to count by grouping objects up to ten and to draw straight lines, curves, circles, cubes, and simple objects. He may learn to write letters and simple words with illustrations.

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<sup>38</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 12-8

It can be said that besides giving the child a wholesome environment, the kindergarten is a good preparatory school for the primary grades. It teaches him to work and play with others and it acquaints him with his own abilities.

By contrast with the kindergarten the primary school is immediately academic not only by its program but also by its accomplishments. Table 7 below gives the schedule of activities of the elementary school program and indicates the curricular duties of the teachers at the various levels of the elementary school.<sup>38</sup>

The subject matter content of the French primary school and kindergarten, by comparison with the United States, is much more academic. Children are encouraged to learn to read and to work with numbers as early as the age of four. Memory training also begins at an early age.

The stress is clearly on academic achievement from the first year the child enters the school. Tradition has set the pattern, and the prestige of academic learning demands that it should not be delayed. There is little evidence that less emphasis is placed on academic learning today than was the case thirty years ago. However, it can be said that the French primary school today does adapt its program to the slow learner better than it did at that time.

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<sup>38</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Nouveaux Horaires et Programmes de l'Enseignement Primaire. Paris: Vuibert, 1945. pp. 3 and 16.

Table 7

## SCHEDULE OF THE PRIMARY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Subject or Activity	Hours per Week				
	1st yr.	2nd & 3rd yr.	4th & 5th yr.	6th yr.	7th & 8th yr.
Morals and Civics	1½	1½	1½	1½	2
Reading	10	6	3½	3½	-
Writing	2½	2½	1½	1½	-
French Language	2½	5	6½	6½	5
History and Geography	-	1½	2	2	3
Arithmetic	3-3/4	3-3/4	5	5	4
Science	-	1	2	2	3
Drawing and Manual Arts	1½	1½	1½	1½	3
Singing and Music	1½	1½	1½	1½	2
Group activities <sup>1/</sup>					
Physical Education <sup>2/</sup>	2½	2½	2½	2½	3
Recreation	2½	2½	2½	2½	1
Total	30	30	30	30	30

<sup>1/</sup> Directed classroom group or team activities such as preparation of a workbook. The purpose is to teach cooperation.

<sup>2/</sup> To be held either just before or after the recreation period giving a total of 1 hour per day of physical activity.

A description of the subject matter covered in the seventh and eighth years of the primary elementary school will serve two purposes. One, it will give a definite idea of the teaching that must have preceded the last two years of the primary elementary school as well as the duties of the teacher in this two-year period. And, two, it will indicate the learning level of twelve to fourteen-year old pupils.

The following description of the seventh and eighth course content, is taken from the latest official publication, and is at present in force:<sup>39</sup>

#### Program of Studies

(Seventh and Eighth Year Primary Elementary School)

#### Moral and Civic Instruction (two hours per week)

- (1) The nature of conscience and character. Self-education.
- (2) Justice and solidarity.
- (3) The principal duties of the individual. Family and social duties.
- (4) The dignity of various types of employment.
- (5) Studies of the functions of public services. The services of the state and the municipalities. The value of contracts. Justice of peace and lower courts. Labor laws. Welfare and public aid laws. Taxes.
- (6) Practical studies of the social organizations with which the pupil comes in contact such as local co-operatives, unions, and farm syndicates.
- (7) The political and administrative organization of the nation.

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<sup>39</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 16-28.

## French Language (five hours per week)

Review and consolidation of materials previously learned.

- (1) Reading and recitation--oral and silent reading (silent reading both at home and in school shall be tested by oral and written exercises). Students shall write compositions on texts read aloud in class. Particular attention shall be paid to spelling, punctuation, and pronunciation. As much as possible, the works of great writers shall be used.
- (2) Vocabulary.--Various meanings of words. How words change meaning. Original meaning and derived meaning. Proper and metaphorical meaning. Synonyms and antonyms.
- (3) Grammar.--Sentence parsing. Exercises of recognition, such as: nouns, adjectives, verbs (regular and irregular), active and passive voice, the imperative, various uses of the subjunctive and conditional, prepositions, etc.
- (4) Modifying phrases.
- (5) Spelling by having the student write from oral dictation by the teacher. The dictation shall be of entire sentences rather than of disconnected words.
- (6) Conversation and practical writing. Story-telling. Oral question and answer. Telephone conversation. Letter-writing. The sending of a telegram. Writing and replying to written invitations. Debating. Group discussions.

## History (two hours per week)

A review of Egyptian, Hebrew, Greek, and Roman history.

The work-a-day world of antiquity. Tools and slavery.

- (1) The social order of France in the 18th century. Industry in the 17th and 18th centuries.
- (2) The development of ideologies and of French civilization in the 17th and 18th centuries.
- (3) The French colonial empire in the 18th century.

- (4) Louis the XVI. Historical development of the French Revolution.
- (5) The French Revolution. The downfall of the Monarchy (May 5, 1789-August 10, 1792). The First Republic and its activities. The end of the First Republic.
- (6) The Empire. The development of the present French state.
- (7) The origin of the big industries. Industrial progress since the middle of the 18th century. The steam engine. The nature of modern industry.
- (8) The Second Empire and the War of 1870.
- (9) The democratic Republic. Its educational program.
- (10) Scientific progress and the acceleration of economic activity. The steam engine, the turbines, electricity and the combustion engine. The conquest of space; the railroad, the steamboat, the automobile, the airplane.
- (11) Agricultural progress in France. The depopulation of agricultural regions and the changes in demographic equilibrium.
- (12) Changes in social legislation and in working conditions.
- (13) The great discoveries in science and hygiene.
- (14) Revolutionary propaganda and the awakening of the national spirit.
- (15) The period between two wars (1870-1914); Economic and political rivalries, the division of the world, the awakening of the Yellow race.
- (16) The War of 1914-1918 and its immediate effects.
- (17) France today. The occupation and liberation of the country.

### Geography (one hour per week)

- (1) Review of the essential factors of physical and human geography. Review and perfection of geographical nomenclature by constant use of maps.
- (2) The economic activities of France and of the French Empire. Food products, textiles, sources of energy (coal, waterpower, etc.), metallurgie, transportation, commerce, and the relationship of the French economy to world economy.
- (3) The earth's surface. The continents, the seas and the great oceans. Relief, climate, rivers, zones of vegetation, and the division of the continents. Habitats of men. The regions of large populations. The large cities and their basic characteristics.
- (4) A few of the great world powers: England, the United States, and the U.S.S.R.

### Arithmetic (applied) (four hours per week)

The application of the pupil's acquired knowledge of arithmetic to problems in daily living. In family activities, social legislation (social insurance), in school life, in rural and agricultural activities, in urban and industrial activities depending on the environment and interest of the pupil.

### Science (three hours per week)

In all the primary elementary schools, the teaching of science in the eighth grade will be made practical. The knowledge obtained in the previous years of study will be applied to real life activities. The environment and its needs will determine the areas of instruction to be emphasized.

- (1) The tools of the artisan.
- (2) The equipment and needs of the home. Gas, heat, cooking, electricity, water, etc.
- (3) Types and utilization of mechanical power.
- (4) Hygiene and sanitation.
- (5) The soil; its care and productivity. Farm animals and farm products. Gardening. Fruit trees and vines.



- (6) The management and utilization of the kitchen. Washing, cleaning, and home care. Sewing, mending, and care of clothing. The preparation of foods.

#### Drawing and Manual Arts (six hours per week)

Drawing shall be used in all class activities such as geography, mathematics, science, and manual arts.

Manual arts for boys shall deal with the farm or urban shop, and for girls, it shall concern itself with home management. In any case, it shall be made practical and of immediate use in daily real life activities.

#### Music and Singing (two hours per week)

Choral sing and music appreciation, using the radio and phonographs.

#### Physical Education and Recreation (four hours per week)

Physical education shall include the group type of exercise and individual exercises, such as climbing, high jump, broad jump, pole vault, races, and throwing. It shall also include corrective exercises on an individual basis.

Recreation shall include various group games and dances, such as: volleyball, rugby, touchball, folk dances, rhythmic exercises, and popular dancing.

The seventh and eighth years of the primary and elementary schools have been used to indicate the curricular duties of the teacher, because these two years represent the end of the primary studies and the completion of school attendance for a large part of the student population. The end of the eighth year is a natural break in the French educational system. At this time, pupils continuing their education make one of four scholastic choices: They may continue in a post-graduate elementary school which places emphasis on practical

studies; they may enter the fourth year of the academic lycée, the technical college (vocational secondary school), or any of the many semi-professional schools.

The eight years of the primary elementary school are divided into five categories as follows:

Preparatory section, one year, for pupils 6 to 7 years of age;

Elementary course, two years, for pupils 7 to 9 years of age;

Middle course, two years, for pupils 9 to 11 years of age;

Superior course, one year, for pupils 11 to 12 years of age;

End of studies section, two years, for pupils 12 to 14 years of age.

The extra-curricular or out-of-school duties of the primary teacher are not as easily defined and vary according to locality. In general, it may be said that they are more numerous and more important in the rural village and small town, and may be practically non-existent in the metropolitan areas.

The great and comprehensive task which faces the young teacher is well explained to him in the instructor's handbook with which he becomes acquainted and which he studies during his final year at the normal school. It states:<sup>40</sup>

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<sup>40</sup> Code Soleil, Le Livre des Instituteur. Paris: Soudier, 1947, pp. 9-10.

It is necessary to bring the new teacher to an immediate and exact understanding of his mission. His first contact with the active life of teaching can determine the success of his entire career. He must, therefore, from the first day, convince himself of the importance of his role.

And yes, it is as simple as that! A humble village and a few quarreling children. All the same, it is a corner of France confided to him. He will be its educator, moralizer and philosopher. These seemingly ungrateful children: It is his duty to make men of them. He must have no doubts about them. If he observes them closely, he will see in their eyes the reflection of a new soul, clay which he can mold in his hand and from which he can make thinking men. He must learn to make himself loved and respected, and he will discover their hearts.

And, on the other hand, he must look at himself, and he must stop appraising all of his knowledge, in order that he may humbly realize all that he has yet to learn. It is a frequent practice of the new primary teacher to consider himself the wise man of the village. Wise man, yes, he may be more so than the brave and noble people around him. But he must not forget that the babbling wise man soon passes for a fool. The villagers are of good blood, they talk little, but they observe and they judge. The teacher has much to gain in mixing with them and in becoming interested in their way of life. Isolation brings loneliness and leads to laziness, the first error to be avoided.

The instructions to the teacher point out that his first duty is that of the intellectual worker, not only as regards his pupils but also as regards all the people in the community. The teacher is told that he must keep up with new developments in his field at least to the extent of reading all official publications. He is encouraged to attend at least one professional conference each year.

It is up to the teacher to take the lead in various youth activities such as the scouts and summer camp colonies, as well

as in the adult activities of his community. He must interest himself in the various community problems, but he must place himself above local discords which often develop in any community.

By law, the teacher is not permitted to accept any private employment for additional remuneration. He may, in cities of less than 2,000 population, accept the part-time and after school hours position of secretary to the mayor on the condition that it does not impair his classes or his professional life.<sup>41</sup>

There is a wide range of extracurricular activities in which the teacher is permitted to participate. For example, one of the responsibilities which it is suggested he assume is that of acting as a counsellor to former pupils of the elementary school. It is recommended that he follow their activities, encourage them, and give them guidance in the difficult task of making a living and playing a useful role in the community. The teacher, further, is encouraged to take a leading part in the activities of Youth Hostel groups, parent's associations, alumni groups, adult education, study circles, educational film centers, and art, theatre, and music associations.

The instructions point out that the school children have been entrusted to his care by the parents. Hence, the teacher

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<sup>41</sup> Code Soleil, Ibid. pp. 23-4.

has specific responsibility to the parents. He must keep them informed not only of their children's academic progress, but also of each child's attitudes, his likes and dislikes, his ability to adjust and to cooperate with others. He must also keep the parents informed of any medical attention or physical correction the child may need.

The teacher also has the general responsibility of "selling" the advantages of education to the community, in general, and to the parents of school age children, in particular. Although there are laws which make primary school attendance compulsory and which impose fines and imprisonment on the father or guardian who does not have his child in school, the teacher is asked to accomplish the same end by moral suasion and to fall back on the law only as a last measure.

When one considers the curricular and extracurricular duties of the elementary school teacher, it is evident that his job is a full-time one for seven days of each week. The responsibility of the teacher, if measured by the task he should assume, is indeed great. His is a profession to which he must devote his life in order to succeed. He must have the ability and strength to do the job and the personal pride to do it well.

Those responsible for the educational system of France believe that their method of selecting and training elementary

school teachers is one which assures a corps of men and women able to assume the responsibilities and duties which will be entrusted to them.

### CHAPTER III

#### THE PREPARATION OF ACADEMIC SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

The academic secondary school in France, the lycée, is the most important preparatory school for students wishing to enter institutions of higher learning. It has been accused by some French educators and laymen of being undemocratic, as it has catered not only to the intellectual elite but also to the bourgeoisie. Up to the end of World War II, many lycées maintained their own preparatory primary schools of five years. The public primary school of eight years, similar to the one in the United States, was considered the finishing school for the common people.<sup>1</sup>

Parents who intended to give their children an academic secondary education sent them to the primary preparatory schools annexed to the lycées. Thus, their segregation from the common people was assured throughout their scholastic life. Reforms now being carried out are designed to eliminate these special primary preparatory schools, and all the children of all the people will attend the same primary elementary schools, at least for the first five years.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Henri Wallon, "La Reforme de l'Enseignement et l'Enseignement Primaire," L'Education Nationale, 45: 1-4, October 31, 1946.

<sup>2</sup> Henri Wallon, Ibid., pp. 1-4.

At the end of the fifth year of the primary school, students may take examinations to enter the first scholastic year of the lycée. This is one method of entering the academic secondary school. However, the student may also enter by completing all eight years of the primary school and upon passing an examination he may enter the non-classical program of the lycée at the beginning of the fourth year.

#### 1. Methods of Obtaining a Secondary School Teaching Certificate.

All persons wishing to receive one of the various certificates of aptitude for teaching in the academic secondary school must be graduates of this school itself before they can enter the superior normal schools or the university to complete the academic and pedagogical requirements for teaching at the secondary school level.

The following series of tables indicates the various programs of studies which may be pursued in the academic secondary school. These tables do not include the program of the alternative new progressive curriculum adopted for the lycées in 1945, commonly referred to as Les Sixièmes Nouvelles. Teacher preparation for this new program will be treated in the last part of this chapter.

It should be noted that the French system of numbering scholastic years is in reverse to that in the United States.



Hence, the lycée composed of seven years has the following nomenclature for each of these years:

First year, age group 11 to 12, is the "sixth year" (sixième).

Second year, age group 12 to 13, is the "fifth year" (cinquième).

Third year, age group 13 to 14, is the "fourth year" (quatrième).

Fourth year, age group 14 to 15, is the "third year" (troisième).

Fifth year, age group 15 to 16, is the "second year" (seconde).

Sixth year, age group 16 to 17, is the "first year" (première).

Seventh year, age group 17 to 18 (plus), is the last year and has the special title of Philosophy, Mathematics, or Experimental Sciences, depending on the student's major field to be followed in an institution of higher learning.<sup>3</sup>

At the end of the première the student must take and pass the first part of the examinations for the second degree (the diploma given upon satisfactory completion of the lycée) referred to in French as the Baccalaureat, première partie. (The first degree given in French schools is the Brevet Elementaire referred to in Chapter II.) If the student successfully passes this examination, he may enter the last year majoring in either philosophy, mathematics, or

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<sup>3</sup> In this chapter, the French name will be used underlined, i.e., in referring to the fifth scholastic year of the lycée the term seconde will be used throughout, etc.

experimental science, at the end of which he may take the examinations for the Baccalaureat, deuxième partie. He is then entitled to enter an institution of higher learning upon passing entrance examinations and follow the program for which he prepared himself in the lycée. The following tables indicate the course of study in the lycées.

TABLE 8

Schedule and Programs Leading to the Second Degree  
(Horaires des Etablissements du Second Degré)

Established by the laws of June 27, 1945, modified by the Amendments of July 13 and August 14, 1946.<sup>4</sup>

"Classe de Sixieme" (Age 11 to 12)

	<u>Classical 5/</u>	<u>Modern 5/</u>
French	4 hrs.	6 hrs.
Civics and Social Studies	1	1
Latin	5	-
Modern Language	3	5
History and Geography	2½	2½
Mathematics	2	2
General Science	1½	1½
Physical Education	1	1
Drawing	1½	1½
Music	1	1
Manual Arts	1	1
Total hours per week	<u>24½</u>	<u>23½</u>

<sup>4</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Enseignement du Second Degré, Paris: Vuibert, 1946, pp. 2-6.

<sup>5</sup> The student may choose one or the other. As he progresses the number of choices he has increases.

TABLE 9

"Classe de Cinquième" (Age 12 to 13)

	<u>Classical</u>	<u>Modern</u>
French	3 hrs.	5 hrs.
Civics and Social Studies	1	1
Latin	5	-
Modern Language	3	5
History and Geography	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Mathematics	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$
General Science	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Physical Education	2	2
Drawing	1	1
Music	1	1
Manual Arts	1	- 1
Total hours per week	<u><math>23\frac{1}{2}</math></u>	<u><math>22\frac{1}{2}</math></u>

TABLE 10

"Classe de Quatrieme" (Age 13 to 14)

	<u>Classical A</u>	<u>Classical B</u>	<u>Modern</u>
French	3 hrs.	3 hrs.	5 hrs.
Latin	4	4	-
Greek	3	-	-
Civics and Social Studies	1	1	1
1st Modern Language	3	3	3
2nd Modern Language	-	3	4
History and Geography	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$
Mathematics	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$
General Science	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$
Physical Education	2	2	2
Drawing	1	1	1
Music	1	1	1
Manual Arts	1	1	1
Total hours per week	<u><math>25\frac{1}{2}</math></u>	<u><math>25\frac{1}{2}</math></u>	<u><math>24\frac{1}{2}</math></u>

TABLE 11

"Classe de Troisième" (Age 14 to 15)

	<u>Classical A</u>	<u>Classical B</u>	<u>Modern</u>
French	3 hrs.	3 hrs.	5 hrs.
Latin	4	4	-
Greek	3	--	-
Civics and Social Studies	1	1	1
1st Modern Language	3	3	3
2nd Modern Language	-	3	4
History and Geography	3	3	3
Mathematics	2½	2½	2½
General Science	1	1	1½
Physical Education	2	2	2
Drawing	1	1	1
Music (Optional for boys)	1	1	1
Manual Arts	1	1	1
Total hours per week	<u>25½</u>	<u>25½</u>	<u>25</u>

TABLE 12

"Classe de Seconde" (Age 15 to 16)

	<u>Classical A</u>	<u>Classical B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Modern</u>
French	4 hrs.	4 hrs.	4 hrs.	4 hrs.
Latin	3	3	3	--
Greek	4	-	-	-
1st Modern Language	3	3	3	3
2nd Modern Language	-	4	2	3
History	2	2	2	2
Geography	1½	1½	1½	1½
Mathematics	1½ (Opt)	1½ (Opt)	4	4
Physical Science	-	-	4½	4½
Experimental Science	3½	3½	-	-
Physical Education	2	2	2	2
Drawing	1	1	1	1
Music (Optional)	1	1	1	1
Manual Arts (Optional)	1	1	1	1
Total hours per week	<u>28</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>29½</u>	<u>27½</u>

TABLE 13

"Classe de Première" Age 16 to 17)

	<u>Classical A</u>	<u>B</u>	<u>C</u>	<u>Modern</u>
French	4 hrs.	4 hrs.	4 hrs.	4 hrs.
Latin	3	3	3	-
Greek	4	-	-	-
1st Foreign Language	3	3	3 (1 hr)	3
2nd Foreign Language	-	4	2	3
History	2	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2	2
Mathematics	1½ (Opt.)	1½ (Opt)	4	4
Physical Science	-	-	4½	4½
Experimental Science	3½	3½	-	-
Physical Education	2	2	2	2
Drawing (Optional)	1	1	1	1
Music (Optional)	1	1	1	1
Manual Arts (Optional)	1	1	1	1
Total hours per week	28	28	29½	27½
Total hours less options	23½	23½	23½	24

TABLE 14

Final Year Class - Philosophy, Experimental Sciences  
or Mathematics (Age 17 to 18)

	<u>Philosophy</u>	<u>Experimental Sciences</u>	<u>Mathematics</u>
Philosophy	9 hrs.	5 hrs.	3 hrs.
Literature	1	1 (Opt.)	-
Modern Language	1½	1½	1½
Classical or Modern Language (Optional)	1½	1½	1½
History	2	2	2
Geography	2	2	2
Mathematics and Cosmography	1½	4	9
Physical Sciences	2	5	5½
Natural Sciences	2	4	2
Physical Education	2	2	2
Drawing (Optional)	1	1	1
Music (Optional)	1	1	1
Total hours per week	26½	30	30½
Total hours less options	23	25½	27

The student who has finished the above program and successfully passed parts one and two of the baccalauréate is now able to apply for admission to one of the superior normal schools or to a university in order to prepare himself for a teaching assignment in the academic secondary school.

Although the vast majority of teachers in the academic secondary school received their training in universities, the superior normal school approach is more thorough in so far as exposure to educational methods is concerned. It will be described first.

## 2. Superior Normal Schools.

There are two superior normal schools which specifically prepare teachers for teaching in the lycées or modern colleges (non-classical secondary schools). One, for men, is located at Saint Cloud, and the other, for women, at Fontenay-aux-Roses. Both of these schools are on the outskirts of Paris. Although it is true that the Ecole Normale Supérieure at 45 rue d'Ulm, Paris, also turns out some graduates who teach in the secondary schools, the majority join the faculties of the universities; within a period of five years from the date of graduation hence, this school is not considered in the same category as the other two, and therefore it will be described in a separate chapter.

The two superior normal schools, of Saint Cloud and Fontenay, were reorganized by the decree of February 19, 1945, and assumed the descriptive title of Ecoles Normales Supérieures Préparatoires à l'Enseignement du Second Degré. (Superior Normal Schools to prepare for teaching in secondary schools.)<sup>6</sup>

Like all institutions of higher learning in France, the two superior normal schools require the student to take an entrance examination. For whatever school he may apply, these entrance examinations are referred to as the programmes de concours d'entrée.

A unique feature of the entrance examination is the recommendation that applicants prepare themselves by approximately two years of studies above the baccalaureate. These preparatory studies may be taken at any university or in post graduate courses of any of the following secondary schools:<sup>7</sup>

Academy - Paris, College Chaptal (men) letters or science majors

Lycée Fenelon (women) letters or science majors

Lycée Jules Ferry (women) letters or science majors

Lycée Henri IV (men) letters or science majors

Aix, Lycée d'Aix (women) letters or science majors

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<sup>6</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ecoles Normales Supérieures. Paris: Beresniak, 1946, p. 1

<sup>7</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid., p. 6.

- Besançon, Lycée de Besançon (men and women)  
letters majors' only
- Bordeaux, Lycée de Bordeaux (women) science  
majors only
- Lille, Lycée de Lille (men) letters and science  
majors
- Lyon, Lycée de St. Etienne (men) letters and  
science majors
- Reims, Lycée de Nantes (women) letters majors  
only
- Toulouse, Lycée de Toulouse (men and women)  
letters and science majors

The preparation recommended during these two years is purely academic and in either literature or science, depending upon the examination the applicant plans to take. A glance at the statistics on candidates and admissions should suffice to prove the advisability of studying for two years above the baccalaureate before attempting the examinations. The student may take as many or as few courses as he may think pertinent to prepare him for the examinations. He may, of course, study on his own without registering for any classes. Preparation beyond the last year of the lycée is entirely optional. The two tables below give the statistics on the number of applicants and admissions for the years 1938 through 1945.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>8</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid., p. 5.



Statistics of Admission

TABLE 15

## SUPERIOR NORMAL SCHOOL OF ST. CLOUD (MEN)

Year	Candidates		Acceptable		Admitted	
	Letters	Sciences	Letters	Sciences	Letters	Sciences
1938	158	110	29	34	15	15
1939	154	110	30	31	15	15
1940	168	62	17	19	8	9
1941	120	101	30	32	15	15
1942	162	142	60	46	20	15
1943	161	106	53	29	20	15
1944	109	133	38	28	21	15
1945	107	90	31	24	20	15
Total	1135	834	288	243	134	114

TABLE 16

## SUPERIOR NORMAL SCHOOL OF FONTENAY (WOMEN)

Year	Candidates		Acceptable		Admitted	
	Letters	Sciences	Letters	Sciences	Letters	Sciences
1938	188	116	46	33	17	16
1939	189	101	47	30	15	14
1940	143	110	38	23	14	14
1941	171	85	41	27	15	14
1942	203	70	73	11	33	11
1943	161	117	45	28	20	15
1944	211	150	40	32	20	15
1945	141	89	59	25	21	15
Total	1407	838	369	209	155	114

The above tables indicate that over a period of eight years, 4214 candidates (men and women) took either the letters or science entrance examination for the two superior normal schools. Of this number, 1229, or only 29 percent made acceptable scores. However, due to limitations on the number permitted to enter each year only the top 12 percent or 517 were accepted.

A student who believes himself qualified to take the entrance examination makes formal application to do so at any one of the seventeen academy bureaus. He must satisfy the following minimum requirements:<sup>9</sup>

- (1) He must have been a French citizen for at least five years prior to application.
- (2) He must be at least 19 years of age and not over 25 on the 31st of December the year of the examination.
- (3) He must have the Baccalaureate diploma or a recognized equivalent.
- (4) He must enlist to serve public education for ten years, including the three years of studies at the superior normal school where he will receive board, room, and tuition. In case he should not complete his ten-year contract, his guardian, if he is a minor, must agree to repay the government the cost of the board, room and tuition for the period of attendance at the normal school.

The Minister of National Education sets the date for the examination. The written part of the examination is given on

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<sup>9</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid., p. 2.

the same day and at the same hour in each of the academy centers, and all candidates who successfully pass the written work come to Paris at government expense to take the orals. The orals are public. The candidate indicates on his application whether he wishes to be examined in letters or science. The following are the subjects of the examination:<sup>10</sup>

I. A. Letters examinations (written)

A French composition, five hours, coefficient of two.

A philosophical composition, four hours, coefficient of one.

A history composition, four hours, coefficient of one.

A modern language translation, four hours, coefficient of one.

One of the following tests at the option of the student, each of four hours and a coefficient of one.

- a. Philosophy - a second composition.
- b. Classics - a Latin translation.
- c. Modern literature - a critique of a literary masterpiece.
- d. A composition on geography.
- e. A theme in a modern language without the use of a dictionary.

B. Letters examination (oral)

The discussion of a French text, 30 minutes, coefficient of two.

Geography interrogation, 30 minutes, coefficient of one.

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<sup>10</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid., pp. 3-6.

The candidate may choose one of the following, each lasting 30 minutes and each having a coefficient of one.

- a. Interrogation on philosophy.
- b. Classics (Latin and Greek).
- c. Modern literature - explanation of a French text written during the 16th century.
- d. History interrogation.
- e. Modern language - the explanation of a foreign language text.

(Each explanation is made after one hour of preparation by the candidate for the written examinations and after thirty minutes for the oral examinations.)

## II. A. Science section (written)

A mathematics composition, four hours, coefficient of two.

A physics composition, three hours, coefficient of one.

A chemistry composition, three hours, coefficient of one.

A natural science composition, three hours, coefficient of one.

A candidate may choose one of the following, lasting four hours each, with a coefficient of one.

- a. Mathematics - a second composition.
- b. Natural Science - a second composition.

## B. Science section (oral)

Interrogation in mathematics, 30 minutes, coefficient of two.

Physics interrogation, 30 minutes, coefficient of one.

Chemistry interrogation, 30 minutes, coefficient of one.

Natural science interrogation, 30 minutes, coefficient of one.

Laboratory exercise in physics or chemistry, two hours, coefficient of one-half.

Laboratory exercise in the natural sciences, two hours, coefficient of one-half.

The candidate must choose one additional interrogation in mathematics or natural science, 30 minutes, coefficient of one.

The jury of examiners posts the list of those who have passed, and the number to be admitted to each school is chosen from the top of the list downward. Each question of the written and oral is graded from 0 to 20. Any grade below 10 is considered failing. The scores made on each question are added to arrive at the total score for each candidate. A question with a coefficient of two is graded from 0 to 40; hence, below 20 would be failing on such a question.

The course of study at the superior normal school depends upon the student's chosen major. The students taking the scientific course must choose either the section of mathematics, physics, and chemistry or the section of physics, chemistry, and natural science. The difference is one of emphasis only. The students in the first section take courses to prepare them for the examinations of the certificate of aptitude for those subjects, and the students in the second section take courses which will prepare them for

certificate of aptitude examinations emphasizing physics,  
chemistry, and natural science in that order.<sup>11</sup>

Students who have passed the entrance examinations for the letters course are divided into three groups; (1) French language and literature, (2) history and geography, and (3) modern language (German, English, Spanish, Italian).

During their three years at the normal school, the students in the literary course place emphasis on the following, depending on the choice of section they have made:

First section - French philology and literature.

Second section - Modern and contemporary history and general geography

Third section - Philology and literature of the foreign country and language the student has chosen.

The students in the modern foreign language section must spend their second year in a foreign country where their major foreign language is the vernacular. They are given an all expense fellowship by the Minister of National Education. The students in the literary studies follow courses which will prepare them to take the examination for the certificate of aptitude in that teaching field. For each subject-matter field in which the student becomes competent he is given a license. It is possible for a student to have two or three licenses. For example: if he has followed the program of courses in the second section of the scientific studies, he must obtain a license for physics,

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<sup>11</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid., p. 6.

one for chemistry, and another for natural sciences. The possession of these certificates is necessary for permission to take the final examination for a teaching diploma at the end of the third year.

All the students in the two superior normal schools, regardless of their major, must follow courses in psychology, sociology, and pedagogy.<sup>12</sup> It should be noted that these two schools do not prepare professors for the classics, this is done at the universities only.

The professional courses at the normal school are given under the direction of staff members who are judged competent in both methods of teaching and subject matter. As compared to the professional preparation of elementary teachers, that of the secondary teacher is very limited. By far the major emphasis is on subject matter.

A minimum of twenty conferences of one hour each is devoted to discussions of teaching methods. These conferences follow reading assignments in the field of methods, history, and development of secondary education. The conferences are followed by six hours of observation per week for three weeks. Following this period of observation the student takes over a class for fifteen days under the supervision of the professor. He prepares the lessons, corrects the papers, and experiments with the various methods that he has been acquainted with in the theory classes.

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<sup>12</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid., p. 7.

With the exception of requirements for teaching in the experimental secondary school program (to be discussed in the latter part of this chapter) there has been no post-war change in the requirements for teaching in the academic secondary schools. As there are only two normal schools to prepare academic secondary school teachers, the great majority are trained in the university which is entered by examination after the acquisition in the baccalaureate.

### 3. University Training for the Secondary Teaching Certificate.

Certificates of aptitude for academic secondary school teaching are granted upon the passing of examinations after the candidate has accumulated the necessary licenses by university examinations in related subject-matter fields, as mentioned above. The candidate must be registered for a minimum of two years in a university. The number of certificates of aptitude granted each year is not dependent on the number of candidates who pass but rather on the number of teachers immediately needed. This number is determined<sup>14</sup> by the Minister of National Education.

Kandel groups the certificates of aptitude for teaching the academic subjects in secondary schools into five groups as follows:<sup>15</sup> (Up to the present writing there has been no change to this grouping.)

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<sup>14</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Conditions d'Admission aux Agregations. Paris: Vuibert, 1946, p. 3.

<sup>15</sup> I. L. Kandel, Comparative Education. New York: Houghton-Mifflin, 1933, p. 836.



License for teaching philosophy: A. Certificate of general history of philosophy. B. Certificate of psychology. C. Certificate of logic and general philosophy. D. Certificate of ethics and sociology.

License for teaching letters (French and classical humanities): A. Certificate of Greek studies. B. Certificate of Latin studies. C. Certificate of French literature. D. Certificate of grammar and philology.

License for teaching history and geography: A. Certificate of ancient history. B. Certificate of medieval history. C. Certificate of modern and contemporary history. D. Certificate of geography.

License for teaching modern foreign languages: A. Certificate of classical literary studies. B. Certificate of foreign literature (English, German, Italian, Spanish, Russian, Arabic). C. Certificate of philology in the foreign language selected. D. Certificate of practical studies in the foreign language selected (one school year of foreign residence and study).

License to teach science. There are three groups in the sciences, and certificates are required for all subjects in each group: Group I. Differential and integral calculus, mechanics, general physics. Group II. General physics, general chemistry, and one of the mathematical sciences listed under I. Group III. Zoology or general physiology, botany or geology, and one of the physical sciences listed under group II.

#### 4. The Agrégation as a Secondary School Teaching Certificate.

The agrégation is the highest teaching diploma or certificate which one can earn in France. As the title indicates, it is an aggregation or collection of licenses and certificates in a given subject-matter field and includes all possible aspects of a given field of knowledge. It differs from the doctorat in that a written dissertation is not required.

A person who holds the agrégation has only to write and defend a thesis, usually philosophical to earn the doctorat. The doctorat is often earned in France after the person has become a university professor, and he defends his thesis before his colleagues.

There is no specific limit to the period of university attendance for earning the agrégation. As soon as a student has earned all the licenses required for a particular subject-matter field, he may present himself for oral and written examination in his chosen field, providing he has the other requisites. These are:<sup>16</sup>

- (1) A request for admission to the examination, including a certified statement which shall read: "In case of success, I shall place myself at the disposition of the Minister of National Education to occupy a post in a secondary school for at least five years. The first two years of my assignment, beginning October 1, 194-, shall be exclusively spent in a public institution of France."
- (2) Proof of French citizenship and a birth certificate.
- (3) The licenses for the various subjects in the field for which the agrégation is sought.
- (4) A certificate indicating the candidate has completed the necessary pedagogical orientation conferences or the equivalent.
- (5) A court certificate showing no criminal record and a certificate of military status.

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<sup>16</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Conditions d'Admission aux Agrégations Masculines et Féminines Diplômes d'Etudes Supérieures. Paris: Vuibert, 1946, pp. 7-10.

- (6) A medical certificate of health.
- (7) A biographical sketch.
- (8) A personal application form indicating in detail the certification of the licenses held, giving date and place they were obtained. The candidate must give all evidence possible which proves his ability to take the examinations, and, particularly, must he indicate with accuracy how he became a naturalized citizen if he was foreign born.
- (9) The age limit for the agrégations is fixed at 30 the 1st of October following the examinations. This limit can be extended to the limit of the number of years of military service plus the number of years of university service valid for retirement.

If the applicant can fulfill all of the above requirements, and, if after his application is examined by a jury, he is accepted, he takes the examination for the diploma agrégation in the field he has chosen. The examinations are in two forms, written and oral. The candidate who does not pass the written examination is not accepted for the orals. The following are examples of examinations in the major subject-matter fields. The candidate may choose only one.<sup>17</sup>

A. Agrégation in Philosophy--written.

- (1) Two compositions in philosophy lasting seven hours each. Each has a coefficient of two.
- (2) One composition on the philosophy of a famous writer (ancient, middle ages, or modern) lasting seven hours. A coefficient of two.

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<sup>17</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid., pp. 28-36.

- (3) Prepare a lesson after five hours of preparation on a subject in philosophy to take forty minutes. Coefficient of two.

Oral

- (4) An explanation of three philosophical treatises, French, Latin, or Greek (or English or German). The duration of each explanation is one-half hour. Each has a coefficient of one.
- (5) Prepare a lesson in five hours, and give same in a fifty-minute class period.

B. Agregation in history--written.

- (1) A composition on ancient history prior to 476 A.D., lasting seven hours. Coefficient of two.
- (2) A composition on history concerning the period from 476 to 1559, lasting seven hours. Coefficient of one.
- (3) An historical composition dealing with the period from 1559 to the present day, lasting seven hours. Coefficient of one.
- (4) A composition on geography concerning the area of the candidate's residence, lasting seven hours. Coefficient of one.
- (5) Given six hours to prepare, the candidate will write a history lesson (45 minutes writing time) on a period not previously discussed by him. Coefficient of two.

Oral

- (6) The candidate will give a forty-five minute demonstration lesson in history for which he will be allowed six hours preparation time. Coefficient of two.

In preparing both the oral and written lesson the candidate will furnish from memory a bibliography and a list of teaching aids he needs. In so far as possible these will be placed at his disposal.

C. Agrégation in geography--written.

- (1) A composition on physical geography lasting seven hours. Coefficient of one.
- (2) A composition on human and economic geography lasting seven hours. Coefficient of one.
- (3) A composition on regional geography lasting seven hours. Coefficient of one.
- (4) A composition on modern or contemporary history lasting seven hours. Coefficient of two.
- (5) The candidate has six hours in which to write a forty-minute lesson on physical or human geography. Coefficient of two.
- (6) The candidate has three hours in which to prepare a written explanation of a topographic map. He will draw certain conclusions regarding its physical aspects and the effect of the geography of the area represented by the map on civilization and culture. Coefficient of one.

Oral.

- (7) The candidate has six hours in which to prepare a demonstration geography lesson lasting fifty minutes. It shall be on an aspect of geography not previously discussed by the candidate. He shall make a freehand map on the blackboard to use in the lesson. Coefficient of two.

D. Agrégation (for women) in history and geography--written.

- (1) A composition on the history of ancient times or the middle ages lasting six hours. Coefficient of four.
- (2) A composition on history dealing with modern or contemporary times lasting six hours. Coefficient of four.
- (3) A geography composition lasting six hours. Coefficient of four.

### Oral

- (4) The candidate has six hours to prepare a forty-five-minute history lesson. Coefficient of four.
- (5) The candidate has six hours to prepare a forty-five-minute lesson on the history of art. Coefficient of three.
- (6) The candidate has six hours to prepare a forty-five-minute geography lesson. Coefficient of four.

(Each of the above three lessons shall be demonstrated.)

### E. Agrégation in letters for secondary teaching--written.

- (1) A French composition on the contributions of an important writer lasting seven hours. Coefficient of twelve.
- (2) A Latin theme lasting four hours. Coefficient of six.
- (3) A Greek theme lasting four hours. Coefficient of six.
- (4) A Latin translation lasting four hours. Coefficient of six.
- (5) A Greek translation lasting four hours. Coefficient of six. (The use of dictionaries is permitted. Translations are from French to the classical language.)
- (6) The candidate has six hours to prepare a demonstration lesson on an author. Coefficient of nine.
- (7) The candidate has two hours in which to prepare an oral explanation of a piece of literature. Coefficient of seven.
- (8) The candidate has two hours to prepare an oral explanation of a selection of ancient French literature. Coefficient of two.
- (9) The candidate has two hours to prepare an oral explanation of a selection from classical Latin. Coefficient of six.

- (10) The candidate has two hours to prepare an oral explanation of a selection from classical Greek. Coefficient of six.
- (11) An improvised oral explanation of a classical Latin selection without the use of a dictionary allowing thirty minutes for preparation. Coefficient of three.
- (12) An improvised oral explanation of a classical Greek selection without the use of a dictionary and allowing thirty minutes for preparation. Coefficient of three.

F. Aggrégation (open to both men and women) in grammar--written.

- (1) A French composition on the contributions of an important author lasting seven hours. Coefficient of nine.
- (2) A Latin theme lasting four hours. Coefficient of five.
- (3) A Greek theme lasting four hours. Coefficient of five.
- (4) A translation from French to Latin lasting four hours. Coefficient of five.
- (5) A grammar exercise of Latin and of Greek (coefficient six), another of ancient French, and a fourth of modern French (coefficient six). Total time allowed seven hours.

Oral

- (6) An oral explanation of a modern French selection allowing two hours of preparation. Coefficient of nine.
- (7) Allowing one-half hour for preparation the candidate shall give an oral explanation of an ancient French selection. Coefficient of three.
- (8) Allowing two hours for preparation the candidate shall give an oral explanation of a Latin selection. Coefficient of eight.
- (9) Allowing two hours for preparation the candidate shall give an oral explanation of the contributions of a Greek author. Coefficient of eight.

- (10) An explanation, without dictionary, of a classical Latin selection allowing one-half hour for preparation. Coefficient of four.
- (11) The oral explanation of a Greek selection after one-half hour of preparation without the use of a dictionary. Coefficient of four.

An important feature of the whole French diploma system beyond the secondary school is that there is no minimum number of years of study required. Theoretically it would be possible for a student to obtain all the degrees without ever attending a class in an institution of higher learning. Practically it does not work that way, and, in all likelihood, it would be impossible. The student must be registered in a university. If he is French and working toward a diploma which will permit him to practice a profession, he must take entrance examinations. He must have a professor-advisor. He must accumulate licenses in various subjects within a given field, and, in view of the high competition, it is unlikely that he would pass the written and oral examinations given by the professors if he had not attended many lectures and sought guidance and advice from them. Hence, the popular notion that it is possible to get a French degree without class attendance is without foundation.

In view of the fact that the Agrégation is the highest teaching degree, the question may well be raised as to why the candidate must agree to teach in the secondary school



for a minimum of five years. French educational laws do not give the reason in any written document, but French educational officials have explained it by saying that it is desirable to assure a constant supply of subject-matter experts in the secondary schools. The five-year period also serves as an apprenticeship to university teaching.

On the basis of observation and conversations with teachers holding the Agrégation, it is reasonable to assume that at least five years of concentrated study are needed beyond the baccalaureate before one can be considered ready to attempt the examination.

#### 5. The Duties of the Secondary School Teacher.

Whereas the elementary school teacher had many extra-curricular duties due to the fact that he usually began his career in a small village school, and he was called upon to render many services to the community, the secondary teacher approaches the description of the professor in the ivy tower, rather removed from mundane matters. Particularly is this apt to be true of the teacher (called professor by the French) in the academic secondary school. For the most part, his duties are purely intellectual.

There is also an added factor which contributes to limit his activities, namely, that the lycée is not found in the village or small community. It is only in recent years that the professor has become actively interested in

the community life, particularly its economic and political aspect. The pre-war professor was able to live a comfortable and secluded life. It was his colleague in the elementary school who led the militant and socially minded teacher's organization.

Where the distance between teacher and pupil in the elementary school has been bridged and the two now work cooperatively, the academic secondary school professor still holds himself aloof from his charges. Intellectual discipline is severe and up to the present time the lycée has served the purpose of weeding out all who could not keep up with its requirements of strict mental exercises.

As the entire program of the academic secondary school serves the purpose of preparing the student to pass the second part of the baccalaureate, only the last year of the teaching program will be outlined in detail. All teaching duties are directed to this end. As pointed out earlier in the chapter, the course in the last year of the lycée is divided into three programs of studies; philosophy, experimental sciences, and mathematics. Successful completion of one of these programs and the attainment of the second part of the Baccalaureate is the greatest scholastic hurdle in a student's academic career.

The following is a detailed description of the subject matter of the three programs in the last year of the lycée

which prepare the student to pass his final examination:<sup>18</sup>  
 Teaching these courses or those leading to them is the  
 professor's chief duties.

### Philosophy Course

Philosophy (nine hours per week during the year)

(The order of topics listed below need not be followed.  
 It is sufficient that all be covered at some time.  
 Professors have the liberty to establish their own  
 sequence and may cover any additional materials they  
 wish.)

Intorduction - General nature of philosophy.

Psychology

- (a) The purpose of psychology. The nature of psycho-  
 logical activity and its relationship to physio-  
 logical activity. Introspective reasoning and  
 objective reasoning.
- (b) Sensations and perceptions.
- (c) The association of ideas, memory, and imagination.
- (d) Abstractions and generalizations. The role of  
 symbols. The relationship of language to reasoning.
- (e) Judgment and reasoning.
- (f) Tendencies, movements, sensitivity, and activity.
- (g) Pleasure and pain. Physical and moral order,  
 emotions, and passions.
- (h) Instincts, habits, and will.
- (i) Conscience, subconsciousness, and personality.

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<sup>18</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Enseignement du  
 Seconde Degre. Paris: Vuibert, 1946, pp. 7-34.

- (j) Problems of metaphysics raised by psychology: reason and liberty.

### Logic

- (a) General process of thinking: intuition, reasoning, deduction and induction, analysis and synthesis.
- (b) Science and the scientific spirit.
- (c) The purposes and methods of the mathematics. Their role in the realm of science.
- (d) The experimental sciences, the establishments of facts, the discovery and verification of laws, principles, and theories.
- (e) Some examples of theories in physics, chemistry, and biology.
- (f) The social sciences; the role of history and sociology.

### Morals<sup>19</sup>

- (a) The moral problem; science and morals.
- (b) The nature and value of social conscience.
- (c) Responsibility, duty, and rights. Justice and charity.
- (d) General principles of social life. Morals and personal life. The life of the body and the life of the spirit. The dignity of the individual. The relationship of personal morals and social life.
- (e) Morals and home life, the family, morals and the birth rate crisis.
- (f) Morals and economic life, the division of labor, solidarity, the profession, the social question.
- (g) Morals, international relations, and patriotism.
- (h) Humanity. The duties towards mankind without consideration of race. The duties of nations toward their colonies.

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<sup>19</sup> Much of what the French call morals is really in the realm of the social sciences, particularly sociology.

## General Philosophy and Metaphysics

- (a) Theories of learning and the principles of reason.
- (b) The value of science and the idea of truth.
- (c) Space, time, matter, and life.
- (d) Spirit and freedom.
- (e) God.

Besides the above which is designed to consume approximately one-half of the allotted time, the professors are called upon to select topics for special study, emphasis, and discussion. In the course of the year the student is expected to become thoroughly acquainted with the major works of the following authors: Plato, Aristotle, Marc-Aurelius, Lucretius, Descartes, Pascal, Malebranche, Spinoza, Leibnitz, Berkeley, Hume, Condillac, Rousseau, Kant, A. Comte, Renau, Cl. Bernard, Stuart Mill, H. Spencer, and Cournot.

### Letters (one hour per week during the year)

The professor shall have complete liberty to organize the literary studies on this course. He should include some contemporary French writers.

### Classical Languages (one and one-half hours per week during the year--optional)

The professor will select Latin and Greek authors to be studied. Cicero and Plato should be considered.

### Modern Languages (one and one-half hours per week compulsory and a second period of like time in a second language is optional during this year)

Reading, recitation, and discussion of literary works shall be the most important activity of this subject. As much as possible, all reading, discussion, and recitation will be in the foreign language concerned.

Contemporary writers should be studied as well as those below:

For German: Goethe, lyric poetry, and critical works of the 18th and 19th centuries.

For English: Selected works of great American and English authors of the 19th and 20th centuries.

For Italian: Dante, Boccace, Machiavelli, Tasso, and others.

For Spanish: Calderon, Cadalso, Unamuna, Perez de Ayola, and others.

### History (two hours per week during the year)

The contemporary period (1848-1929). Europe in 1848. Nationalities and liberal movements, economic, and social problems. The revolution in France in 1848, the Second Republic and reaction until 1851. National and liberal movements in Italy, Germany, and Austria--revolution and reaction.

France under the Second Empire, Napoleon III and authoritarianism. The liberal evolution of the regime. The economic problems and their social results. Foreign policies of Napoleon III. The Crimean War and the Congress of Paris.

The development of Italian unity.

Bismark and German unification. The war of 1870-71. Austria and the compromise of 1867.

Russia under Alexander II. The reforms.

The church under Pius IX, the Syllabus and the Council of the Vatican.

England, the triumph of economic, political, and social liberalism. Gladstone and Disraeli.

European expansion during the epoch of economic liberalism. Emigration, colonial politics of England and France. The exploration of Africa.

France from 1871 to 1914, the National Assembly, and the constitutional laws of 1875. Political evolution. Social and economic developments. The Third Republic and the French colonial empire.

The principal nations in 1914: England; its economic difficulties and the Irish question, democratic evolution, the Dominions. The German Empire; Bismark, Wilhelm and the rising economy. Russia and the reaction of Alexander III and Nicholas II, the revolutionary movement of 1905. The United States after the Reconstruction, population movements, economic expansion, and imperialism.

Developments in the Far East, China and Japan.

The development of ideologies, sciences, and the arts from 1848 to 1914.

International relations from 1871 to 1914. The Congress of Berlin, the Triple Alliance. Imperialism and colonial rivalries. The partition of Africa. The Franco-Russian Alliance, and the Triple Entente. The Morrocan and Balkan crises from 1905 to 1913.

The War of 1914-18. Immediate causes and principal phases, the treaties of the peace, the League of Nations.

New developments in Europe: The revolution of 1917 and the creation of the U.S.S.R. The German Revolution of 1918. The dictators, fascist Italy, National-socialistic Germany, the Iberian crises, the democratic nations, and their problems.

International problems: The Treaty of Versailles, territorial problems, international finances, and politics. Opposition to the enforcement of the Treaty of Versailles. The awakening of Turkey, Japanese expansion, the rearmament of Germany. The failure of collective security.

The world economic crises and its consequences, pre-ludes to the War, the first aggressions, China, Ethiopia, Spain, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Albania. The German-Polish tensions, and the declaration of war in 1939.

Geography (two hours per week during the year)

The principle economic forces of the earth. The position of the world's natural resources. International transportation.

The British Empire, U.S.S.R., and the United States. Other nations dependent on natural resources.

The economic life of the earth--economic goods.

Natural resources and their international aspect.

World transportation systems.

Mathematics and Cosmography (one and one-half hours per week throughout the year)

Higher algebra, the solar system, the planets, the sun. The earth, moon, comets, and stars.

Physical Sciences (two hours per week throughout the year)

Physics; principles of dynamics and energy, electricity. Chemistry; general and organic.

Natural Sciences (two hours per week throughout the year)

Hygiene; personal, social, and community.

Anatomy and physiology of animals.

Anatomy and physiology of plants.

Drawing (one hour per week throughout the year)

Drawing of objects, nature, scientific apparatus, models, architecture, maps, landscape.

Art appreciation. Manual arts. Commercial Art.

Music (optional)

The outstanding feature of the above described course of study for philosophy majors is that it is both intensive and extensive in philosophy (per se), history, literature, psychology, and sociology, and geography. As to the rest of the subject, it attempts to discuss the practical application of what the student learned in previous years. This task is the duty of the philosophy professor as well as the task of the scientist.

Mathematics Course

Philosophy (three hours per week throughout the year)

(See the portion of the program for morals and logic in the philosophy course.)

Modern Languages (one and one-half hours per week throughout the year)

(Same program (one language only) as found in the philosophy course.)

Classical Languages or Second Foreign Language (one and one-half hours per week throughout the year)

(Same program as found in the philosophy course.)



History (two hours per week throughout the year)

(Same program as found in the philosophy course.)

Geography (two hours per week throughout the year)

(Same program as found in the philosophy course.)

Mathematics (nine hours per week throughout the year)

## Arithmetic

The history of numbers, their use and necessity in modern civilization. The origin and purpose of fractions. Measurement and proportions. The power of numbers.

Decimals, addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Short cuts in number work. The use of 10. Theories concerning numbers.

## Statistics

Fractions; their property and operation. Comparative numbers and sizes. Decimal fractions, changing decimals to fractions and vice versa.

Squares and cubes. The metric system, weights, and measures.

## Algebra

The history and purpose of algebra. Equations, algebraic addition, multiplication, subtraction, and division. Logarithms. Square roots. Coefficients. Variables. Rectangular coordinates, graphic representation. Arithmetic and geometric progression. The use of tables.

## Trigonometry

A definition of the functions of tangent. Trigonometric equation. Triangles. Graphic presentation. The use of the tables of natural value and the tables of logarithms of five decimals.

## Kinematics

Relativity of movement. Trajectory. Uniform rectilinear movement and varied rectilinear movement.

Vector speed, average speed, speed at a given moment.  
Curvilinear movement.

Vector acceleration of a rectilinear or curvilinear movement. Circular movement; uniform and vibrating.

#### Statics

Composition of force. Mass. Equilibrium of a free material point. Equilibrium of a point on a plane; on a curve. Reaction of surface. Friction.

#### Geometry

Plane, solid, descriptive. Conics, ellipse, hyperbole, and parabole. Cylinders.

#### Cosmography

Celestial sphere, zenithal distance and height. The earth, sun, moon, planets, comets, and stars. System of Copernicus, laws of Kepler and Newton.

#### Physical Science (five and one-half hours per week throughout the year)

Physics: Dynamics, energy, systems of unity, acoustics, magnetism, and electricity.

Chemistry: general and organic.

#### Natural Sciences (two hours per week throughout the year)

(The same program as is found in the philosophy source.)

#### Drawing (one hour per week throughout the year)

(The same program as is found in the philosophy course.)

#### Music (one hour per week throughout the year)

(The same program as is found in the philosophy course.)

#### Experimental Science Course

#### Philosophy (five hours per week throughout the year)

The philosophy of the sciences: The advent of intelligence and its essential manifestations. Invention.

Thought; intuitive and reasoning.

The birth of science: its need, techniques, intellectual curiosity.

Mathematical sciences, physical sciences, biological sciences, social sciences.

The exigencies of reason and the scientific spirit.  
The intellectual vocations and scientific aptitudes.  
The relationship of science to philosophy.

Social philosophy: elements of psychology, sociology, and morals. The problem of truth and freedom. The idea of God.

Letters, Classical and Foreign Languages, History and Geography are the same as found in the philosophy course.

Mathematics and Cosmography (four hours per week throughout the year)

These subjects are the same as found in the mathematics course except that they are limited to their practical application in experimental sciences and are scheduled only four hours per week instead of nine.

Physical Sciences (five hours per week) and Natural Sciences (four hours per week, both throughout the year) are the same as in the mathematics course with the exception that more time is devoted to practical application, laboratory, and field experimentation and observation.

Drawing and Music (each one hour per week)

These subjects are the same as found in the philosophy course.

A professor possessing the Agrégation will teach in one of the three programs offered in the last year of the lycée. In view of his thorough training it is unlikely that he would be required to teach in any of the first six years of the academic secondary program. These would be more likely entrusted to professors holding diplomas

from the two superior normal schools or possessing a license from a university.

Of the three programs offered in the last year of the lycée, the philosophy program is heavy in literature, classics, philosophy, history, and geography, while the mathematics program is heavy in the sciences and mathematics. The experimental sciences program seems to be a practical application of the subject-matter field of the other two programs, at least, its subjects are more evenly balanced.

6. Training Teachers for Les Sixièmes Nouvelles, (the new curriculum of the "progressive" secondary schools).

In accordance with the recommendations of the Commission for Educational Reform, the Minister of National Education decreed that a certain number (200) of experimental classes should be established in institutions of secondary education.<sup>20</sup> Consequently, it was necessary to give a brief orientation to the teachers who would instruct in the new classes. For this purpose the Minister selected the Institut International de Pédagogie (International Institute of Pedagogy) at Sèvres on the outskirts of Paris. This school was founded in 1881 as L'Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Enseignement Secondaire des Jeunes Filles (The Superior Normal School of Secondary Education for Young Women).<sup>21</sup> Originally the school was created to prepare women

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20 Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Les Sixièmes Nouvelles, (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1946), p. 5.

21 C. Richard, L'Enseignement en France (Paris: Colin, 1925), p. 68.

secondary school teachers for the girls lycées, which were also created at the same time. It was intended that it should be on a par with the Superior Normal School for men in Paris. It took its new title after the first world war when its directrice, an admirer of the progressive Rousseau Institute in Geneva began educational experiments and invited European educators to attend special courses and observe demonstrations at Sevres.

As the International Institute of Pedagogy is probably the most progressive school in France, it was natural that the Minister should elect to hold the orientation courses for the Sixièmes Nouvelles within its walls.<sup>22</sup> A ten-day conference was organized from the 17th to the 27th of September, 1945, for the purpose indicated above, and 172 teachers (70 men and 102 women) from all parts of France volunteered to be oriented at government expense. The government had sought 200.<sup>23</sup>

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22 The buildings and grounds which the school has occupied since its origin were formerly a ceramics factory and the home of nobility. It was occupied by the Germans during the war and was only reopened in October, 1944. The school still uses the laboratory that had belonged to the ceramics factory.

23 C. Richard, Ibid., p. 7.

The ideas for the Sixièmes Nouvelles which grew out of the recommendation of the Commission for Educational Reform were not new. One recommendation was that the government abolish the student segregation which, by the old system, was bound to begin at the age of eleven. At this age the masses who could not hope to remain in school through the university attended either the upper elementary school (now called the Modern College), or a vocational secondary school. Meanwhile, the economic and sometimes the intellectual elite entered the academic and classical lycee. For a country born of three revolutions and usually leaning toward the political left, this system, in the opinion of many Frenchmen, was at best rather inappropriate.

Another recommendation of the Commission was to the effect that a guidance program should be put into effect in the first year of the secondary school and that students should have an opportunity to choose and try out various courses. Every pupil, regardless of birth, was to have an opportunity to try out in the secondary school. A further recommendation of the Commission was that all secondary schools should have the same prestige and that vocational and technical secondary schools should also offer cultural subjects.

The official importance attached to the first session to train teachers for the new secondary school program was

evidenced by the presence of the Minister of National Education and his immediate staff.<sup>24</sup>

Three foreign educators with international reputation were also present, gave lectures, and led discussions. They were: Lyr of Czechoslovakia; Carleton Washburne, formerly Superintendent of Schools at Winnetka, Illinois; and Joseph Laverys of the Institute of Education at the University of London.

The conference of lectures, discussions, and demonstrations was directed by A. Weiler, a former student and teacher of the Rousseau Institute in Geneva, who was assisted by seven other French educators including the Director of the Superior Normal School at Sèvres. The services of the National Pedagogical Library were made available to the conference.<sup>25</sup>

The following is the daily schedule of orientation for the teachers at the first ten-day training conference:<sup>26</sup>

Monday, September 17, 1945 -

- (1) Lectures to the conference on school reforms and Les Sixiemes Nouvelles and an explanation of the program to be followed for the remainder of the conference.

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24. C. Richard, Ibid., p. 7

25. C. Richard, Ibid., p. 8

26. C. Richard, Ibid., pp. 9-10

## Tuesday -

- (1) The psychology of the child, age 11 to 12. (Children in the first scholastic year of the secondary school would be of this age. The modern education program was to be started in the first year only. Students already in the secondary school would continue in the old programs of study.)
- (2) Coordination of the various subject matter around centers of interest (core curriculum).
- (3) The role of manual arts in the education of the child.
- (4) Dramatic games (with demonstration) as a means of teaching literature.

## Wednesday -

- (1) The social studies (*étude du milieu*). The physical and human environment.
- (2) Learning in cooperative group activities.
- (3) Dramatic games as a means of teaching.
- (4) Demonstration of educational manual activities (printing, modeling, woodwork, etc.).

## Thursday -

- (1) The place of hygiene and physical education in the school.
- (2) Learning at the adolescent level, his attitudes, personality, and aptitudes.
- (3) Demonstration of manual arts.
- (4) Marionettes in teaching manual arts and literature.

## Friday -

- (1) The establishment of a cumulative record on each student. Its purpose and use in guidance.



- (2) The use of tests.
- (3) Demonstration of manual arts.
- (4) Choral singing.

Saturday -

- (1) The organization of a class.
- (2) Morale and discipline.
- (3) Guidance and orientation.
- (4) Methods of teaching various subjects (history, literature, and geography) in the modern school.
- (5) Games and child learning.

Monday -

- (1) Methods of teaching science in the modern secondary curriculum.
- (2) Methods of teaching foreign languages in the modern secondary school curriculum.
- (3) Address by Carleton Washburne.
- (4) Relationship of the Sixièmes Nouvelles with the center of pedagogical research.
- (5) Classical music and the modern curriculum.

Tuesday -

- (1) Reforms in education.
- (2) Music education.
- (3) Manual Arts.
- (4) Review of the conference thus far.

Wednesday -

- (1) The activity method.
- (2) Music education (continued).

(3) Manual Arts (continued).

(4) General discussion.

Thursday -

(1) Closing session at the Sorbonne, address by the Director General of Education.

With this ten days of orientation, teachers with a pioneering zeal went to their new assignment with the official blessings of the Ministry of National Education.

They could not expect to find the task an easy one. Many of their colleagues did not welcome the new innovation, too much cooperation could not be expected and before long it was evident that many were outright antagonistic to the whole idea of general, modern, or cultural education for all adolescent youth. However, all 172 of the teachers for the new curriculum had volunteered, they wanted to correct a traditional "evil" in the caste system of education and they believed in learning for a social purpose rather than for its own sake.

At their request, the Minister of National Education called another conference during the Easter holiday of 1946 to review the accomplishments and plan for the future. At this conference, both the national director of secondary education and the national director of technical-vocational education were present to plan and collaborate on the new program.

As a result of this first experiment, the teachers reported that for the first time in their teaching career, they were faced with the task of teaching the so-called cultural subjects to pupils who were not all of above-average intelligence. They were convinced of the necessity of giving everyone a taste of cultural and social education, even an introduction to foreign languages and civilizations to students who would not eventually become teachers, civil servants, or middle class bourgeois. The teachers found that the activity method, discussions, and group projects kept their new students interested, whereas, they could not maintain interest with the classical dictation, copy, and recitation methods which prevail in classes where students are preparing for the State examinations.

As a result of this conference, it was decided that during the academic year 1945-46 the Sixièmes Nouvelles now in existence would become the Cinquièmes Nouvelles and 500 new Sixièmes Nouvelles would be started. The following program, outlined in Table 17 below, was adopted for the next academic year:<sup>28</sup>

Law of June 5, 1946. - The schedule of classes of the Sixièmes and Cinquièmes Nouvelles of secondary education in conformance with the table annexed to this law.

Article 2. All existing laws in contradiction are abrogated.

Article 3. The director of secondary education is assigned the duty of executing this law which shall be published in official journals and which shall be enforced, effective October 1, 1946.

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<sup>28</sup> G. Monod, Ibid. p. 16.

TABLE 17  
Schedule (Weekly Throughout the Year)

<u>"Sixièmes Nouvelles"</u>		<u>"Cinquièmes Nouvelles"</u>	
<u>I. Common Core</u>			
French	4 hrs.	French	4 hrs.
Civics	1	Civics	1
History and Geography	2½	History and Geography	2½
Foreign Language	4	Foreign Language	3
Sciences	3½	Sciences	3½
Social Studies	2	Social Studies	2
Plastic Arts	1½	Plastic Arts	1½
Music	1	Music	1
Manual Arts	2½	Manual Arts	2½
Physical Education	2	Physical Education	2
	<u>24</u>		<u>23</u>
<u>II. Individual Research</u>			
Letters	1	Letters	1
Foreign Language	1	Sciences	1
Sciences	1		
<u>III. Research in Fields of Special Interest</u>			
Plastic Arts	1½	Letters	1
Music	1½	Sciences	1
		Foreign Language	1
<u>IV. Optional</u>			
Latin	3	Plastic Arts & Music	2
		Latin	4½

During the summer of 1946, conferences and seminars to prepare additional teachers for the new secondary education program were carried on at Sèvres along the lines of the first conference in September 1945.

The hope has been expressed by a few educators that in a short time all secondary education will be in schools called collèges modernes, offering general, vocational, and academic education. The importance of professional education for teachers at the secondary level has been made more apparent by the new experiments.

The Superior Normal School at Sevres, now a coeducational institution both in the normal school and in the annexed secondary training school, is the center of research and training for the new educational experiment. Effective this year student-teachers without prior experience are beginning the four-year course. They are admitted after twelve years of elementary and secondary education. It will be another three years before a definite and full program of teacher training will have been developed.

#### 7. Statistics on Secondary School Attendance and Diplomas.

In 1945, the following enrollment figures were given for the three types of secondary schools.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>29</sup> Bulletin Officiel de l'Education Nationale, March 14, 1946, p. 17.

Boys Academic Secondary Schools ( <u>lycées</u> )	125,890
Girls Academic Secondary Schools ( <u>lycées</u> )	68,033
Tech-Vocational Colleges (boys)(Sec. Schools)	60,773
Tech-Vocational Colleges (girls) (Secondary Schools)	36,467
Modern Colleges (boys) (Secondary Schools)	62,573
Modern Colleges (girls) (Secondary Schools)	62,047
Total . . . . .	418,833

Successful completion of the academic secondary school is marked by the acquisition of the baccalaureat. As indicated earlier in this chapter this diploma issued in two parts is based on a total of thirteen years of elementary and secondary education. The first part of the baccalaureat may be earned at the end of the twelfth year of education. Both written and oral examinations are required for each part. At least the last five years of study for this diploma must be in the lycée.

The following tables indicate the total number of baccalaureat diplomas issued since 1809.<sup>30</sup>

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<sup>30</sup> Piobetta, J- B-, Le Baccalaureat. (Paris: Bailliere et Fils, 1937), pp. 305-309.

Tables 18 through 21 are from the pages of this reference.

TABLE 18  
Baccalaureat Diploma in Letters and in the Sciences  
Granted from 1809 through 1892

Year	Baccalaureat		
	in letters	in sciences	Total
1809	31	1	32
1810	656	10	666
1811	983	43	1026
1812	1632	24	1706
1813	1658	16	1674
1814	578	20	598
1815	908	6	914
1816	2078	1	2079
1817	1981	7	1988
1818	2316	15	2331
1819	2297	9	2306
1820	3059	10	3069
1821	4503	27	4530
1822	1573	22	1595
1823	1790	16	1806
1824	1970	18	1988
1825	2161	14	2175
1826	2201	27	2228
1827	2158	28	2176
1828	2574	43	2617
1829	2863	46	2909
1830	2816	34	2850
1831	3190	46	3236
1832	3280	50	3330
1833	3489	67	3556
1834	3499	71	3570
1835	3684	65	3749
1836	3454	84	3538
1837	3518	79	3597
1838	3150	74	3224
1839	3116	83	3199
1840	3410	88	3498
1841	2700	76	2776
1842	2767	92	2859
1843	2963	62	3025
1844	3382	73	3455
1845	3184	74	3258
1846	3903	112	4051
1847	3312	126	3438
1848	3666	87	3753

TABLE 18 (continued)

Baccalaureat Diploma in Letters and in the Sciences  
granted from 1809 through 1892

Year	<u>Baccalaureat</u>		Total
	in letters	in sciences	
1849	3686	100	3786
1850	3279	119	3398
1851	3992	134	4126
1852	3264	101	3365
1853	1670	1226	2896
1854	2038	2236	4274
1855	2055	2123	4178
1856	2071	1655	3726
1857	2074	1841	3915
1858	2116	2015	4131
1859	2325	2024	4349
1860	2505	1906	4411
1861	2872	2103	4975
1862	3288	1947	5235
1863	3506	1824	4330
1864	3316	1734	4050
1865	4097	1763	5860
1866	2947	1632	4579
1867	3340	1583	4903
1868	3359	1725	5584
1869	4221	1831	6052
1870	3975	1701	5676
1871	3859	1361	5220
1872	4371	1776	6147
1873	4424	1905	6329
1874	4325	2061	6386
1875	4333	2111	6444
1876	3298	2128	5426
1877	3373	2065	5437
1878	3632	2242	5874
1879	3719	2221	5940
1880	3907	2278	6185
1881	3951	2303	6254
1882	3692	2369	6061
1883	3597	2628	6225
1884	3830	2729	6559
1885	3901	2806	6761
1886	3812	2930	6742
1887	3948	2654	6602
1888	3866	2978	6844
1889	3844	2635	6479
1890	4076	2689	6765
1891	4142	2956	7098
1892	-----*	2127	2127

\* See next table on explanation below.



In 1892 there was a change in the curriculum which affected the diploma Baccalaureat és Lettres. The change did not effect the Baccalaureat és Sciences until the year 1893. This will show up in the next table.

TABLE 19

<u>Baccalaureat</u>						
Year	Classical		Modern			Total
	Letters Philo.	Letters Math.	Philo.	Sciences	Meth.	
1892	2560	473	---	---	---	3033
1893	3910	687	138	240	205	5380
1894	4405	944	221	325	302	6197
1895	4329	941	322	394	460	6446
1896	4655	1062	380	407	659	7163
1897	4975	1071	428	397	767	7648
1898	4672	1276	494	336	892	7670
1899	4533	1165	533	322	1026	7580
1900	4497	1197	505	271	894	7364
1901	4534	1214	548	304	963	7263
1902	4529	1210	530	276	1003	7548
1903	4421	1262	614	228	1143	7668
1904	4633	1280	742	208	1205	8068
1905*	2072	485	530	106	563	3756
1906	596	28	240	11	125	1000
1907	90	6	51	2	16	165
1908	60	3	16	2	5	86
1909	28	4	6	---	6	44
1910	19	1	12	---	1	33

\* Note overlap with next table from 1905 to 1910

During the years 1905 to 1910 there was a reorganization of the curriculum for the Baccalaureat, hence, some students took their examinations under the old plan and others under the new examinations.

TABLE 20

Year	<u>Baccalaureat</u>		Total
	Philosophy	Mathematics	
1905	2387	1186	3573
1906	4933	2028	6961
1907	4437	2318	6755
1908	4556	2170	6726
1909	4716	2404	6920
1910	4502	2561	7063
1911	4526	2600	7126
1912	4553	2691	7244
1913	4765	2773	7538
1914	4824	2972	7796
1915	5017	3114	8121
1916	4332	2675	7005
1917	4459	3421	7849
1918	4602	3615	8217
1919	6193	3809	10002
1920	6133	3789	9929
1921	6094	3764	9858
1922	6188	3596	9784
1923	6405	3724	10130
1924	6633	3907	10540
1925	7137	3682	10819
1926	7528	3844	11372
1927	8592	4671	13263
1928	9076	3888	12964
1929	10023	4261	14284
1930	11186	4043	15229
1931	9861	4894	14755
1932	10641	4842	15483
1933	10752	4235	14987
1934	9547	3586	13133
1935	9574	3365	11939

From 1821 to 1896 a special Baccalaureat in physical sciences was granted. Table 21 below gives the number of diplomas granted in this field for the above years.

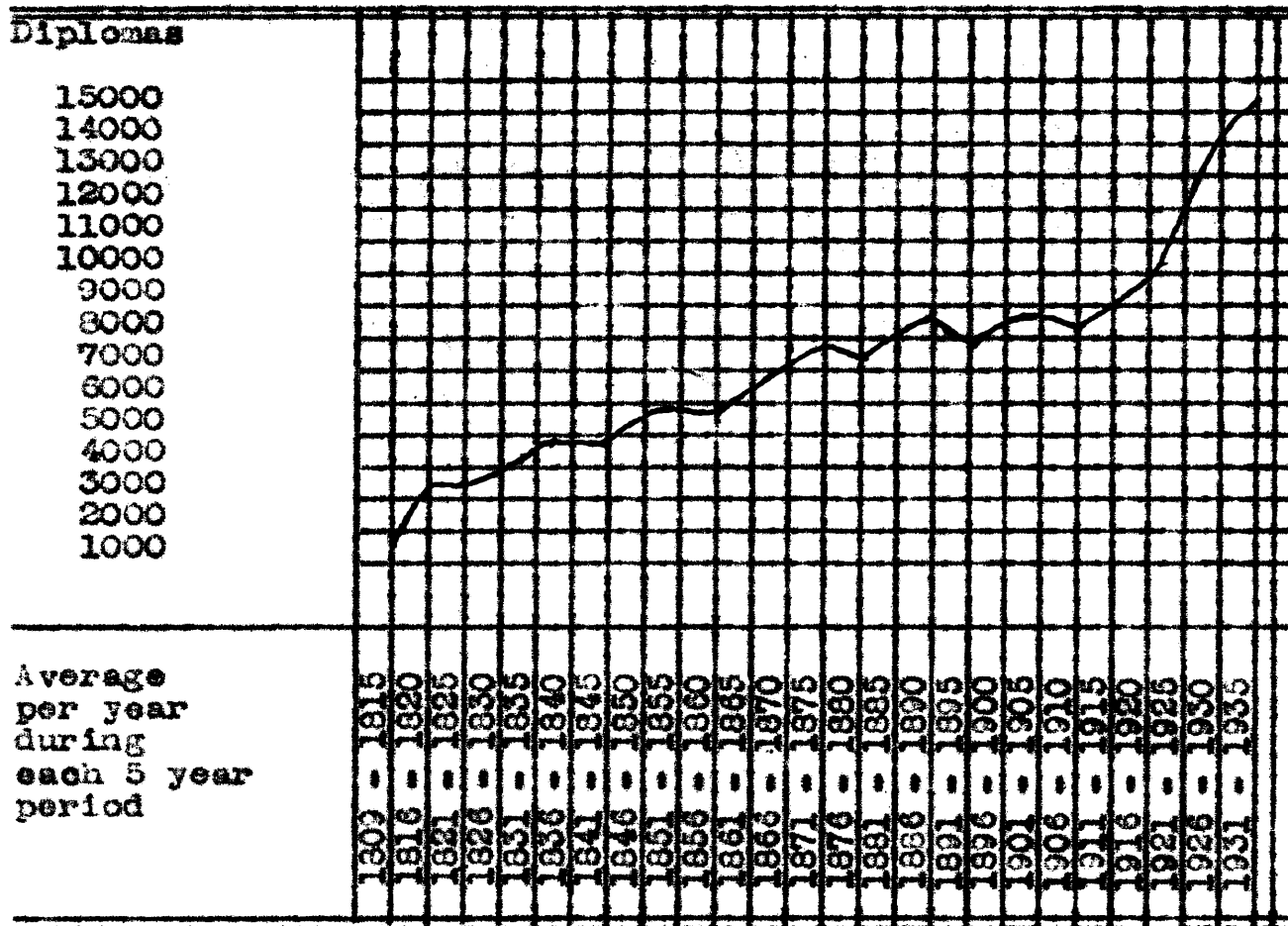
TABLE 21

year	diplomas	year	diplomas	year	diplomas
1821	1	1846	541	1871	537
1822	27	1847	496	1872	744
1823	20	1848	436	1873	706
1824	146	1849	592	1874	673
1825	255	1850	749	1875	686
1826	255	1851	773	1876	674
1827	334	1852	725	1877	580
1828	414	1853	623	1878	626
1829	390	1854	355	1879	676
1830	379	1855	---	1880	625
1831	15	1856	---	1881	581
1832	12	1857	---	1882	580
1833	10	1858	---	1883	552
1834	15	1859	137	1884	628
1835	14	1860	186	1885	622
1836	22	1861	247	1886	585
1837	178	1862	311	1887	676
1838	371	1863	402	1888	662
1839	357	1864	438	1889	798
1840	386	1865	501	1890	885
1841	397	1866	526	1891	1046
1842	418	1867	461	1892	1168
1843	482	1868	553	1893	1206
1844	453	1869	629	1894	1191
1845	436	1870	605	1895	63
				1896	16

In order to see clearly the increase in Baccalaureat Diplomas granted from 1809 to 1935 the totals of the above table are graphically presented on the following chart:

CHART V

Total Baccalaureat Diplomas Granted 1809-1935



(Since this material was approved for final copy the French Ministry of Education has just released the first post-war figures (May 6, 1947). These figures indicate that in 1945, 27,315 candidates passed both parts of the baccalaureate. 65,544 took the second part of this examination and 17,229 passed in philosophy-letters, 2,414 in philosophy-sciences and 6,229 in mathematics. 1,443 passed in Algiers for the total of 27,315, an increase in degrees granted of nearly 100 percent since 1935.)

It is noted that whether a student receives his academic preparation in a private or public secondary school he must take the State examinations for the Baccalaureat. Hence, the preceding tables and chart cover all academic diplomas issued from 1809 to 1935. With a few minor exceptions the student entering a University must possess both parts of the Baccalaureat.

In recent years French educators have looked with alarm at two trends which can be noted in the above tables. One is the rapidly increasing number of candidates who successfully obtain the coveted diploma, and the other is that candidates in letters and philosophy usually outnumber the science and mathematics majors two to one. In the first forty years during which statistics were kept the ratio was often as much as ten to one. This means that in the universities and higher normal schools there will be many more candidates who will become teachers in letters and philosophy than in mathematics and science.<sup>31</sup>

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<sup>31</sup> During the past year numerous articles in French educational publications have viewed this situation with considerable alarm, pointing out that France has been blessed with sufficient philosophers while its need has always been for scientists and engineers.

## CHAPTER IV

### THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Since its origin, the lycée has been, for the most part, an academic university-preparatory institution. Vocational or technical subjects have been offered only in the secondary schools named Collèges Techniques. When the French refer to professional schools, they are speaking about vocational, commercial, and trade schools in the American sense of the word and not to law or medical schools. To take care of this vocational training at the secondary level, a system of technical colleges was developed.

As indicated by the description of the Sixièmes Nouvelles in the previous chapter, there is a likelihood that the course of study in the lycées will be broadened to include some vocational subjects. The past twenty years have also seen general cultural subjects introduced in the technical colleges. If the present trend continues, the two types of secondary schools may become more alike than different. The traditional prestige of the lycée continues to make it more sought after than the technical college, however, and this prestige will probably hold for some years to come.

Very little change has occurred in the course of study in the lycées since their founding in 1802. Although it was hoped by some that Leon Berard, who became Minister of Education in 1921, would meet many of the demands for reform,

his first requirement for four years of Latin and two years of Greek did much to uphold the wishes of the traditionalists.<sup>1</sup> It was Gerard's idea that the way to assure democracy in education was to make more scholarships available in order that more students could avail themselves of the opportunity of the academic and classical education offered in the lycée.

It was not until the middle of the last decade that important changes in the program were made with the introduction of physical education, health and hygiene, music, drawing and social studies.

With the exception of seminars and short courses as already reported in the preceding chapter, there is no special training for the social studies teachers. These are chosen on a voluntary basis from among teachers prepared to teach history and geography or morals, ethics and sociology in the secondary schools. The only definite program of non-academic teacher training is for the fields of physical education, health and hygiene, and recreation.

#### 1. Normal Schools for Training Teachers of Physical Education and Recreation.

The first normal school for training physical education teachers was founded in 1933. It was officially named L'Ecole Normale d'Education Physique. Its purpose

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<sup>1</sup> I. L. Kandel, Comparative Education. New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933. p. 677.

was to prepare men and women as teachers of physical education and recreation for the lycées, classical and technical colleges, as well as for institutions of higher learning. In its early days the school was co-educational and it was located in the Paris University center. As enrollment increased and its quarters became too small, it was necessary to move to larger quarters and the school was divided into two: one for women and the other for men. The men's school remained in Paris, while the school for women was developed on a 42-acre campus at Chatenay-Malabry.<sup>2</sup>

Since 1933 the program of training has been of two-year duration. Beginning with the academic year 1947-48, it will require a three-year program. To date, the extended program is not available. At the beginning of World War II the school for men in Paris was closed, and, at this writing, it has only partially resumed its program awaiting the completion of a new school plant on the outskirts of the city.

The purpose of the schools is described by Madame Y. Surrel, the director of the women's schools, as the formation of professors of physical education who are both athletes and educators, capable of directing the physical education and well being of the nation. Physical education is interpreted as being not only muscular development but also the training of character and spirit.

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2. Y. Surrell, L'Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Éducation Physique de Jeunes Filles. Typewritten. Chatenay-Malabry: 1946. p. 1.



Hence, the course of study at these normal schools includes anatomy, physiology, psychology, sociology, pedagogy, and history.<sup>3</sup>

## 2. Entrance Requirements for the Physical Education Normal Schools.

Like all other institutions of higher learning in France, entrance is obtained by proving the proper preparation, as indicated by previously earned credentials, and by entrance examinations. Present entrance requirements are based on the official decree number 45-438 of March 17, 1945; which refers to the certificate of aptitude for teachers of physical education and sports; to the examinations for admission to the physical education normal schools; and, to the examinations for the recruitment of physical education teachers. The following articles of the decree set the conditions for application, examination, and admittance to the schools:<sup>4</sup>

### Article 1.

There is created a certificate of aptitude for teachers of physical education and sports for which the examinations are divided into two parts.

### Article 2.

No one may apply for examination for the first part (of the certificate) if he is not:

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<sup>3</sup> Y. Surrel, Ibid. p. 1.

<sup>4</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Notice Sur la Preparation de la Première Partie du Professorat d'Education Physique et Sportive. Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1946. pp. 5-6.

at least 19 years of age the 31st of December the year of the examination;

holder of the certificate of the superior elementary school, the diploma of secondary education (baccalaureate), or the diploma of secondary education for young women.

No one may present himself for the second part of the certificate if he has not followed with success the courses of the first part for at least two years.

### Article 3.

The students of the physical education normal schools are recruited from those examined and in the order of their scores on the condition that: they are of French nationality; they are less than 30 years of age on the 31st of December the year of the examination; they have certified their intention to serve public education for at least 10 years.

The holders of the certificate of aptitude for physical education teachers (first part) may be authorized to participate in the examinations on the basis of their admission to the normal school.

Foreigners may be admitted to the normal school under conditions determined by the Minister of National Education.

### Article 4.

The teachers of physical education and sports are recruited from among the successful candidates taking the examination in the order of their scores, providing that:

they are of French nationality;

they are less than 30 years of age the 31st of December the year of the examination.

Candidates who have been in the civil service may have the age limit extended to the extent of the time spent in physical and sports education which is valid toward retirement.

The above decree exemplifies the extent of selection and control of student teachers by national authority. This is held justifiable in view of the fact that all expenses,

including tuition, board and room, plus spending money, and all nature of maintenance are borne by the state. Preparation for the entrance examinations is suggested, and candidates have a choice of attending preparatory courses at Aix-en-Provence, Reims and Strasbourg for men and Toulouse and Nancy for women. Preparatory courses are available for both men and women in Paris.<sup>5</sup> Although attendance at these centers is not necessary, the difficulty of the examinations makes it highly desirable.

Because of the recent emphasis on the importance of physical education, health and sports, and in view of the high priority now assigned to this phase of the education program on a national basis, it is important to give a detailed analysis of examinations and the course of study. Everywhere directors of educational institutions seem to be giving much attention to this non-academic educational program. Where ten or fifteen years ago the student participated in non-organized games on the school grounds if he wished, he is now compelled to participate in all aspects of physical education and sports.

The official decree of March 28, 1945, modified by the decree of October 25, 1945, determines the nature of the program of studies and examination for the teaching certificates in physical education and sports.<sup>6</sup> This decree, as modified,

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<sup>5</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. p. 6.

<sup>6</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Textes Officiels Relatifs au Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat d'Education Physique et Sportive (1re et 2e Parties). Paris: Vuibert, 1946. pp. 7-82.

concerns itself with all aspects of the selection of students, examinations, and course of studies for preparing physical education teachers.

### Matriculation of Students.

#### Article 1.

The candidates for certificate of aptitude for teaching physical education and sports (first and second part) must be registered at least two months before the opening of the session. This registration must be with the regional directors of physical education and sports. The papers of each candidate must include:

1. A request for registration on official paper;
2. A certified copy of his birth certificate;
3. A certificate of his nationality;
4. A certified copy of his police book not over three months old;
5. A certified statement of the applicant's diplomas and titles;
6. A medical certificate attesting to the applicant's ability to take the examination;
7. A statement indicating his profession, his place of residence, the date and place he obtained his diplomas, the number of years of military service he completed, the various schools in which he has studied, positions he has held and any sports titles he may hold;
8. An identification photograph.

Candidates must submit an agreement to enlist in the service of public education for at least ten years.

Examinations of the First Part  
(of the certificate of aptitude)

Article 2.

The examinations for the first part of the certificate of aptitude for teachers of physical education and sports are based on a course of study annexed (to be described later in this chapter). The examinations are divided as follows: written examinations; individual technical examinations; oral examinations; examinations in practical pedagogy. The candidates must also submit to a test of physical measurements and coordination, and a medical examination. The list of admissible candidates will be posted after the written and individual technical examinations have been taken.

(I) Written Examinations

The written examinations are taken at the regional centers. They are composed of three compositions to be graded from 0 to 20:

- (1) Anatomy (lasting 4 hours, coefficient of 1);
- (2) Physiology (lasting 4 hours, coefficient of 1);
- (3) Educational Psychology (lasting 4 hours, coefficient of 1).

All scores of 5 or below may eliminate a candidate upon decision of the jury. The jury shall post the list of candidates to be admitted to the individual technical examination.

(II) Individual Technical Examinations

The individual technical examination shall be taken at the national echelon. They are composed of nine examinations to be graded from 0 to 20:

- (1) Swimming test (coefficient of 1);
- (2) Life-saving test (coefficient of  $\frac{1}{2}$ );
- (3)-(6) Four tests of athletic prowess (each with a coefficient of 1);

- (7) Climbing test (coefficient of  $\frac{1}{2}$ );
- (8) A hand exercise (coefficient of 1);
- (9) Two exercises on apparatus, one imposed, the other chosen (coefficient of  $\frac{1}{2}$  each).

All tests are scored on the basis of charts of expectation. All grades of five or below may eliminate a candidate upon the decision of the jury. The jury shall post the list of candidates to be admitted to the oral pedagogical examinations.

### (III) Oral Examinations

The oral examinations are to be taken at the national echelon. They shall be composed of interrogations on four subjects and scored from 0 to 20:

- (1) An interrogation in anatomy (coefficient of 1);
- (2) An interrogation in physiology (coefficient of 1);
- (3) An interrogation in general pedagogy (coefficient of 1);
- (4) An interrogation on regulations and techniques (coefficient of 1).

All scores of 5 or below may eliminate a candidate upon the decision of the jury.

### (IV) Examinations in Practical Pedagogy

The examinations in practical pedagogy are taken at the national echelon and are scored from 0 to 20:

- (1) A composition on a lesson in physical education and the presentation of this lesson in whole or in part (coefficient of 2). The candidate has one-half hour to prepare his lesson which he submits to the examining commission.
- (2) The teaching and directing of a group game or cooperative team game (coefficient of 1). (An example of a group

game would be "prisoner's goal," and of a cooperative team game, basketball. All grades of eight or below may eliminate a candidate upon the decision of the jury.

(V) Physical Measurements and Coordination Examination

No candidate may be admitted to oral or applied pedagogical examinations who has not been declared fit after an examination of coordination and physical measurements. The examining commission shall be composed of at least two physicians and one professor of physical education. A report on all candidates declared unfit shall be made available to those concerned.

(VI) Medical Examination

No candidate can be accepted without a certificate of physical aptitude. He must justify this aptitude to a medical commission by submitting a dossier including: A medical certificate less than six months old testifying that he is free of all organic and visceral defects; a certificate from a chest specialist testifying that the candidate is free of all lung infections; a certificate from an ophthalmologist indicating sight in each eye; a certificate from an ear, nose and throat specialist indicating the state of these organs.

Examinations of the Second Part  
(of the certificate of aptitude)

Article 3.

The examinations of the second part of the certificate of aptitude for teachers of physical education and sports is taken after the completion of the program of studies (to be discussed later in this chapter). The examinations are divided into written examinations, individual technical examinations, oral examinations, and examinations in applied pedagogy. The candidates must also pass a medical examination and eventually one in morphology.

### (I) Written Examinations

The written examinations are taken at the regional echelon. They are composed of three tests, each scored from 0 to 20:

- (1) Science applied to physical education (lasting four hours, coefficient of 1);
- (2) Pedagogy (lasting four hours, coefficient of 1);
- (3) Techniques of sports (lasting three hours, coefficient of 1).

All scores of five or less may eliminate the candidate upon decision of the jury. The jury posts the list of candidates to be admitted to the individual technical examination.

### (II) Individual Technical Examination

The individual technical examinations are taken at the national echelon. They are the same, though slightly more difficult than the individual examinations for the first part of the certificate, with the exception of an additional one in dance rhythm for women candidates.

The successful candidates in this examination are then admitted to the examination of applied or practical pedagogy.

### (III) Oral Examinations

The oral examinations are taken at the national echelon and are scored from 0 to 20:

- (1) An interrogation on anatomy, physiology, or hygiene (coefficient of 2);
- (2) The candidate is given one hour to prepare a fifteen-minute oral presentation of a problem concerning psychology, sociology, methods and techniques, the organization of physical education and sports, or on outdoor activities (coefficient of 2).

All scores of five or less may bar a candidate from further examination upon decision of the jury.



#### (IV) Examinations in Practical Pedagogy

The examinations in practical pedagogy are taken at the national echelon. They are scored from 0 to 20 and concern the following subjects:

- (1) A composition of a training lesson and its presentation in whole or in part, followed by the direction of group singing (coefficient of 3). The candidate is given one-half hour to prepare his lesson which he submits in writing to the examining commission. Each candidate is responsible for ten marching songs, six resting songs, and six playing songs.
- (2) The teaching of a popular dance to a group of students (coefficient of  $\frac{1}{2}$  for men and 1 for women). Each candidate is responsible for a repertoire of ten dances representing at least three provinces of France.
- (3) The selection and direction of corrective exercises for a group of students. The examining commission shall indicate the ailment to be corrected (coefficient of 1).
- (4) The preparation and presentation, in whole or in part, of a lesson on sports (games), athletics, or an apparatus (coefficient of 2). A demonstration of techniques of sports may be required of the candidate.
- (5) (For women) An examination of rhythmic games and songs.

All scores of eight or less on any one test may eliminate candidates from further competition upon decision of the jury.

- (V) The same medical and physical measurements examinations are required as for candidates for the first part of the certificate of aptitude for teachers of physical education and sports.

#### Article 4.

The standards which students are expected to attain in the individual technical examinations are found in the annex to the official publication, Textes Officiels Relatifs au Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat d'Education Physique et Sportive (1re et 2e Parties) (published in 1946 by the Ministère of National Education).

The outstanding purpose of the two-part examination outlined in the preceding pages is to select candidates who are mentally and physically strong and eliminate weak ones both previous to enrollment and at approximately the half-way mark.<sup>7</sup> A great many of the men and women who are admitted hold national ratings in competitive sports or are stars on regional or national teams.<sup>8</sup>

#### 3. Course of Study in the Physical Education Normal Schools

The course of study for teachers of physical education, sports, and health is outlined in detail by the ministerial decree of March 28, 1945, and modified by the decree of October 25, 1945. The following is a detailed outline of the complete course of study for both the first and second part of the certificate of aptitude for physical education teachers.<sup>9</sup>

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7 As told to the writer by Y. Surrel, the Director of the Normal School for Women Physical Education Teachers, in December, 1946.

8 As told by Surrel, Ibid.

9. Ministère de L'Education Nationale, Programme de la Première Partie du Certificat d'Aptitude au Professorat d'Education Physique et Sportive, Paris: Vuibert, 1946. pp. 15-26.

(I) Program of Biological Sciences  
(First Part)

The program of biological science for the first part of the examination for teachers of physical education and sports is very similar to the program annexed to the degree of July 31, 1933. As in the case of the earlier decree, this one is based on a thorough knowledge of human anatomy and physiology. This knowledge must be acquired in such a way that it will be unnecessary to further study it in a formal way.

Anatomy

A general study of the human body to include descriptive and topographical anatomy, the various systems and organs, the general nature of human beings, the cells, tissues, and the phenomena of reproduction.

Physiology

Muscular functions: contractibility, elasticity and excitability of muscle tissue. The chemical, thermal, and electrical phenomena of muscular contraction. Agonistic and antagonistic muscles. The role of muscles in controlling movements.

Circulatory functions: the blood and lymph, the cardiac, the beat of the heart and its function. Arterial pressure points, measuring arterial pressure. Brain and motor connections. The reaction of the circulatory system to exercise.

Respiratory functions: the relationship of the respiratory system to the blood, its mechanism and physiological modifications. The chemical phenomena of pulmonary respiration. The mechanical phenomena of pulmonary respiration, respiratory movements. Inspiration and expiration. The respiratory nervous system and its method of functioning. Respiratory difficulties. The reaction of the respiratory organs to exercise.

Digestive functions: the digestive organs. Mechanical and chemical phenomena of digestion. Absorption and excretion. Secretion.

Body heat: the regulation of body temperature.

First aid: general rules in case of accidents.

(II) Program of Pedagogy and Individual Physical Achievements (First Part)

As in the case of the study of biological sciences and in line with the program annexed to the decree of July 31, 1933, the pedagogical preparation of the candidates must have the tendency to acquaint him with the knowledge basic to all educators.

This program will therefore tend to give him the essential notions on the mental evolution of the child and the adolescent. General pedagogy and modern educational methods shall be studied in the light of their application to physical education and sports.

Instead of imposing on future teachers a rigid system of education, it is proposed that they be directed by giving them an acquaintance with the different activities which can be taught to students.

Program of Pedagogy  
(First Part)

Psychology

- (1) The relationship of psychological life to physical and moral life.
- (2) The child (active organism), his need for exercise.
- (3) The child, his physical growth, puberty, adolescence.
- (4) Characteristic traits in the psychology of the child and the adolescent.
- (5) The movements, sensations, voluntary and instructive or automatic reflexes, the nature of movements.

- (6) Imitations.
- (7) Instincts and habits.
- (8) Games: the evolution of children and adolescent games.
- (9) The adolescent.
- (10) Physical pleasure and pain.
- (11) The emotions: fear, anger, and joy.
- (12) The sentiments: love, comradeship, friendship.
- (13) Attention; intellectual and physical fatigue.
- (14) Memory; acquisition, conservation, forgetting, repetition, training.
- (15) Intelligence: imagination, judgment, physical intelligence.
- (16) Temperament and character.
- (17) The moral life in the child: his moral conscience, principles of moral education.
- (18) The social tendencies of the child and the adolescent: nature, manifestations, evolution.

#### General Pedagogy

- (1) The methodology and terminology of physical education (indispensable before all other pedagogical study).
- (2) Education and pedagogy, the art of pedagogy.
- (3) The basis of pedagogy, pedagogy as applied to physical education in particular.
- (4) Advantages and disadvantages of the laws of pedagogy in education.
- (5) The adaptation of methods of teaching to the domain of physical education.
- (6) The adaptation of educational processes to the domain of physical education.
- (7) The development of interest and desire to learn.

- (8) The activity methods: group work, the student projects, the role of the instruction.
- (9) Discipline: necessity, methods, sanctions. Discipline in physical education.
- (10) The authority of the teacher.
- (11) Professional consciousness of the teacher.
- (12) Pedagogical organization and the program of instruction. The adaptation of the instructional program. The observation and understanding of the students. Controlling the results of instruction.

#### General Notions on Sports and Physical Education

- (1) Sports and physical education.
- (2) The role of sports and physical education in the school program.
- (3) The social and national importance of sports and physical education.
- (4) Physical and moral hygiene. Health, life (vigor) and happiness. Healthful living.
- (5) The acquisition of moral qualities through sports and physical education.
- (6) The formation of character and personality through sports.
- (7) The intellectual values of sports.

#### History of Physical Education

The various doctrines and developments in physical education during the 19th and 20th centuries.

#### Pedagogy Applied to Sports and Physical Education

- (1) Basic physical activities. The essentials of natural exercise. Exercises in work and play activities. The adaptation of natural exercises to maturity.
- (2) Training exercises. The importance of gradual and preparatory physical training. The development of rhythm. The coordination of muscles and organs in exercise.

- (3) Body maintenance exercises. Gymnastics. Cooperation with medical science. Corrective and postural exercises. Respiratory exercises.
  - (4) Games. Educational value of games. The choice and preparation of games. The rules and regulations of various group games.
  - (5) Sports as physical education activities. The purpose and techniques of various track and field activities. Collective sports such as football, basketball, volley-ball, and hand-ball. The value of competition.
  - (6) Outdoor activities. Training for life in the outdoors. Camping, hiking, cooking, swimming, and other out-of-doors activities. The intellectual enrichment of the personality by outdoor activities. The adaptation of outdoor activities to various age groups and to the sexes.
- (III) Weekly Schedule of the Course of Study  
(First Part)

The above-described course of study for the biological sciences, pedagogy, and physical education consists of one year. The weekly schedule of classes and activities is as follows:<sup>10</sup> (Note: The program is based on a nine-month school year totaling 300 hours in 30 weeks. Thursday afternoons are reserved for competition in individual sports. Saturday afternoons are reserved for seminars, conferences, and group singing.)

Theory Courses: 8 hours per week

Psychology, general pedagogy and history of physical education	2 hours
Science (anatomy and physiology)	3 hours
The teaching of sports and physical education	3 hours

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<sup>10</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Notice sur la Preparation de la Première Partie du Professorat d'Education Physique et Sportive. Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1946. p. 9.

Practical Activities: 22 hours per week

Games and physical education	7 hours
Sports education (six hours for girls)	7 hours
Outdoor activities	3 hours
Popular dancing	1 hour
Coaching and umpiring	3 hours
(Rhythmic dancing for girls	1 hour)
Group singing	1 hour

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(IV) Program for Biological Sciences  
(Second Part)

The general principles to be observed in the teaching of the biological sciences are set forth in the preamble to the program of 1933. It emphasizes that these subjects must be learned so that the teacher will understand individual differences in all their ramifications. It further states that these subjects (anatomy, physiology, and hygiene) must be studied with the view of their practical application in the program of sports and physical education. The program of studies is planned to give the future teachers a complete understanding of the human beings who will be entrusted to them. The effect of exercise on the anatomy and the physiology of the organism must be thoroughly understood by all teachers. The following is a detailed description of the subject matter to be studied in the biological sciences:

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11 Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Textes Officiels Relatifs au Professorat d'Éducation Physique et Sportive. Paris: Vuibert, 1943. pp. 26-32.



## Anatomy

- (1) The anatomy and movements: the parts of the skeleton and the function of each. The relationship of the skeleton to the muscles. The nature of bone tissues. An analysis of the effect of movements and exercise on the anatomy. The relationship of the anatomy and the nervous system. The various positions of the anatomy. The anatomy in specific movements such as: walking, running, jumping, throwing, climbing, carrying, lifting, standing, pushing, pulling, suspending, swimming, cycling, and rowing.
- (2) Comparative study of the anatomy of the male, the female, and the child: characteristics of the anatomy and morphology of the two sexes. Various anthropological types in the human race. The different types found in the various provinces of France. The aptitudes of athletes depending on certain physical types. The anatomical evolution of the human being from birth to manhood with particular attention to the childhood, adolescent, and post-adolescent period. Anatomical characteristics of middle age and old age with the limitations these characteristics place on old age.

## Physiology

- (1) The physiology of movements: the nature and functions of the nervous system. Reflex movements. Voluntary movements. Automatic movements. Static and dynamic contraction. Equilibrium. The muscles, their location, and use. The relationship of the nervous system to movements.
- (2) The repercussions of effort and exercise on the various systems and organs: the effect of exercise on the development of muscles. Muscular strength and flexibility. The effect of exercise on the respiratory organs. Breathing exercises. Exercise and the circulatory system. The effect of training on the heart. The effect of exercise on nutrition and metabolism. Types of diets necessary for various forms of work and exercise. Over-nourishment and under-nourishment. The effect of exercise on fatty tissues. The necessity of exercise for the proper functioning of the excretory systems.
- (3) The effect of exercise on the organism in general: methods of physical training; form and conditioning. Fatigue; muscular fatigue, and its effect on general

Health. Nervous fatigue and its relationship to muscular fatigue. Causes of fatigue. Overwork in the child and adolescent. Preventative and curative therapeutics for fatigue. The dangers of over-exercising or of wrong exercises.

- (4) Physiological effects on specific exercises and sports: Hiking. Running. Jumping. Throwing. Gymnastics. Boxing. Wrestling. Swimming. Cycling. Rowing.
- (5) The adaptation of the organism to work and environment; the hygiene of training; intoxicants, doping, alcoholism, and tobacco. Hygiene of the body and of clothing. Rest and sleep. Thirst and hunger. Hydrotherapy and heliotherapy. adaptation to high and low altitudes; to heat and cold; and to various climates.
- (6) Physiological development of glandular secretions: the factors of growth. Physiological ages. The nature and adaptation of exercises to various age groups. Physical values. Medical examinations. The evaluation of physiological growth. The physiology of endocrine glands. The nature, function, and physiology of all glands.
- (7) Care and first aid in physical education in case of accidents: the technique and forms of massage. Physiological effects of massage. First aid while awaiting a physician. Life-saving in case of drowning, freezing, electrocutions, or poisonous bites.
- (V) Program of Pedagogy and Individual Physical Achievements (Second Part)<sup>12/</sup>

The preamble to the specific course of study outlined by the Ministry of Education defines the principles upon which this aspect of the training program for future teachers of physical education is based. The preamble reads as follows: 13

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<sup>12</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ibid. pp. 32-45.

<sup>13</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ibid. pp. 32-33.

The teachers of sports and physical education must be more than good technicians in their specialty. They must be capable of collaborating with the directors and the teachers of academic or intellectual subjects in order to assure a complete and harmonious education for the students.

It is, therefore, necessary that the problems concerned with the mental life and the health of the human being should be studied not only as functions of sports and physical education, but also in such a way as to bring to light the relationship which exists between the intellectual, social, physical, and moral life of the individual. It is necessary to acquaint future teachers with the students who will come to them on the playground, in the gymnasium, and on trips to the out-of-doors. The teachers must be prepared to observe and understand the students' reaction to the various exercises to which they will be exposed.

Sports and physical education does not rest solely on indisputable physiological laws, they must also take account of the psychological life of the human being. . . . The development of character and the acquisition of social direction must be engaged in on the playing field along with physical development. This simple aim must be present always in the mind of the teacher.

The professors responsible for the preparation of candidates for the second part of certificate of aptitude for teachers of sports and physical education must pay particular attention to the pedagogical development of their students, as well as to the acquisition of techniques which will develop good demonstrators and teachers of physical education.

The technical competence of physical education teachers must be above reproach. The teacher must be able to give physical education instruction to students of all ages. His superiority must be evident in all forms of athletics, gymnastics, sports, and games. Women teachers must know the different methods of harmonious gymnastics and must possess the qualities of suppleness, grace, and strength, which will make them eloquent examples of physical culture. They must never forget the importance of esthetic role in gymnastics. They must teach their students to avoid all forms of vulgarity in gestures and movements. They must teach them to walk elegantly and to acquire beautiful

movements without affect. Form in sports is as important as the sport itself. The development of good form assures proper physical development. . . .

Today, the teacher must be the initiator of sports for children, the organizer of his recreation, the physical counselor and, if necessary, the coach in all sports.

The above directions and instructions from the Ministry of Education leave little to the imagination as to what is expected of the training of physical education teachers. It must be remembered that prior to 1933 nothing had been done to promote physical or health education in the schools and sports other than on the post-school and highly professional level were hardly known. Up to 1939, little had been done to implement these directions. It is possible that the war did much to awaken the country to the physical deterioration of its population. At any rate, it is now augmenting on a large scale the training of physical education leaders and teachers.

The course of study in pedagogy for students preparing for the second part of the certificate of aptitude for teachers of sports and physical education is outlined in detail by the Ministry of Education as follows:<sup>14</sup>

(VI) Program of Pedagogy (Second Part)

Psychology - Review and analysis of the program of the first part.

(1) Physiological basis of psychology.

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<sup>14</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ibid. pp. 35-43.

- (2) Sensations and perceptions of movements. Learning and acquiring movements. Mental operations. Repetition. The value of demonstration. Coordination. Equilibrium. Posture. Rhythm.
- (3) The utilization, guidance, and domination of reflex; automatic and voluntary movements in physical education. Expression in gymnastics.
- (4) The manifestation of altruism in the child and the adolescent and its utilization in physical education.
- (5) Factors that influence attention; interest, physical fatigue, mental fatigue, and intelligence. Acquiring desirable movements in physical education through practical exercises and games. The role of physical education in developing esthetic physical movements, spirit, and pride.
- (6) The formation of character and personality through sports and physical education. The nature of personality. The role of heredity, sex, environment, education, profession, etc., in developing character and personality. The influence of physical education on the temperament and character of the child and the adolescent. The training of will through physical education.
- (7) The values of physical education in developing moral living.

#### Pedagogy

- (1) The principles of education advocated by the best known writers and educators.
- (2) The progressive school and the activity methods. The various systems of education.
- (3) Sports and physical education, and group education.
- (4) The methods in physical education and the directives of the Ministry, dated October 1, 1945.
- (5) Interest, recreation, and happiness in physical education.
- (6) Conducting a lesson; discipline, the authority and duty of the teacher in physical education, the responsibility of the student.
- (7) The development of character and culture through physical education.

- (8) Social and moral development in physical education. The role of altruism, team spirit, and integrity.
- (9) The role of the teacher of physical education.
- (10) Professional duty, consciousness, and culture.
- (11) The responsibilities of the teacher of physical education.

### Sociology

- (1) Elements of social actions. Influence of social life on the individual.
- (2) Elementary social groups. Primitive societies. Human groupings.
- (3) Organized and complex societies. Different types of societies. Sovereignty. The functions of the State.
- (4) Moral rights, responsibilities, and sanctions.
- (5) Economic life. The division of labor.
- (6) Intellectual life.
- (7) Civilization and social values.

### General History and Critique of Methods in Physical Education

- (1) Physical education during various epochs in history: Oriental, Greek, Ancient Rome, Middle Ages, Renaissance, XVII and XVIII centuries, the modern and contemporary periods.
  - (a) The influence of physical education on civil and political institutions.
  - (b) The role of physical education in military training.
  - (c) Art in relation to exercise and physical education.
  - (d) Literature on physical education. The role of physical education in the works of great writers.

- (2) A critical study of methods in sports and physical education in the 19th and 20th centuries in France, Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Czechoslovakia, and England. 15/

### The Present Organization of Sports and Physical Education

#### (1) In France.

- (a) The organization of physical education in the course of study. Schedules in the various branches of education (primary, secondary, technical, higher, and private).
  - (b) The organization of physical education outside of schools: workers groups, in commerce, young farmers, and with civil servants.
  - (c) Societies for sports and physical education: school and post-school societies, youth organizations, tourist clubs, unions and federations, summer vacation camps, large national festivals.
  - (d) The equipment of the State, fields, and materials: stadiums, playgrounds, gymnasiums, swimming pools, camps, school colonies, tourist organizations.
  - (e) Medical control: health teaching in school, in post-school societies, sports organizations, workers groups, etc. The cadre of inspecting and supervising physicians.
  - (f) The organization of cadres for physical education: the schools, institutions, centers. The entrance examinations and the course of study.
- (2) Sports and physical education in other countries. The organization of sports and physical education in other important nations. Outstanding and exceptional organizations. International

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15 It is interesting to note that the United States is not mentioned in this field. As a matter of fact, in the reading, observations, and conferences with French educators for this study, education in the United States was never found to have been given much consideration. In only one publication, and that an unofficial one, was the name of an American educator mentioned. This was a biographical reference to John Dewey.

federations. The modern Olympics. The relationship of sports to the needs and desires of children, workers, and intellectuals. The place of sports and physical education in workers' organizations.

### Pedagogical Organization

- (1) The adaptation of physical activity to the physiology and psychology of the child and the adolescent.
- (2) The school-year program of sports and physical education.
- (3) The understanding, observation, and counseling of students.
- (4) The organization of a physical education class; the methods of grouping, determining activities, and assigning group leaders.
- (5) Controlling results of physical education classes.
- (6) Adapting teaching to various age groups both in and out of school.
- (7) Cooperation between the physical education teacher and the school physician.
- (8) Professional orientation. Physical education adapted to the activities in various occupations.
- (9) Corrective physical education.
- (10) The teaching area, equipment, and material. Clothing for sports and physical education.
- (11) The teacher of physical education and school life.

The course of study of pedagogy applied to sports and physical education is a review of the various types of exercises, games, sports, and gymnastics covered during the period of preparation for the first part of the certificate of aptitude for teachers of sports and physical education. The course places emphasis on the methods and values of teaching the various exercises, games, and sports. During



the second part of the preparation, somewhat more emphasis is placed on what is called corrective and maintenance exercises. The student must learn to recognize malformations and their causes and cures.<sup>16</sup>

Also, considerable emphasis is placed on the teaching of track and field events as well as the popular sports. The teacher must himself become an outstanding athlete in the various sports and track and field events. Group singing, popular dancing, and rhythmic dancing also come in for greater emphasis, both as to method of teaching and personal achievement by the student-teacher. By way of polishing off the training of student-teachers, considerable time is devoted to learning to guide and direct outdoor activities, country tours, summer camps, and mountain sports, as well as seaside recreation and physical education programs. These activities include: scouting, skiing, canoeing, map-making and reading, cycling, camping, and first aid.<sup>17</sup>

Practice teaching forms an important part of the training of physical education teachers; however, it is not as well regulated as in the practice teaching for the academic secondary school teachers. The normal schools for physical education teachers do not have annexed training schools where the student-teachers may practice. For the most part, practice teaching is done with the cooperation of the

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<sup>16</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. p. 39.

<sup>17</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 42-3.

student-teacher's own colleagues. Occasionally, a student-teacher is placed in a nearby school for a few days.

Beginning with the academic year 1947-48, when the length of the physical education normal school program will be extended from two to three years, student-teachers will be sent out to schools in their own locality for periods of from six to ten weeks for practice teaching.<sup>18</sup>

(VII) Weekly Schedule of the Course of Study (Second Part)

All students at the normal schools of physical education are in residence at the school. As the students for the second part of the certificate of aptitude have already proven themselves physically and athletically, more time is spent in theory courses and in directing the activities of their junior colleagues than was the case of the first year students. The following is the weekly program of the course of study for the second part of the certificate:<sup>19</sup>

Theory courses: 17 hours.

Psychology, pedagogy, sociology, and the history and methods of sports and physical education	5 hours
Sciences (anatomy, physiology, health, hygiene)	6 hours
Methods of teaching sports and physical education and practice teaching	6 hours

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18 As told to the writer by Y. Surrel, Director, L'Ecole Normale Supérieure d'Education Physique de Jeunes Filles, Chatenay-Malabry, December 3, 1946.

19 As copied by the writer from the typewritten schedule at the school at Chatenay-Malabry, near Paris, on December 3, 1946.

Practical course: 15 hours.

Physical education and games	5 hours
Sports	5 hours
Outdoor activities	1 hour
Summer camps, scouting, etc.	1 hour
Popular dance	1 hour
Rhythmic dancing	1 hour
Choral singing	1 hour

4. Individual Accomplishments Required of Sports and Physical Education Teachers.

As was indicated earlier in this chapter, the recruiting of students for the physical education normal schools is highly selective. Only a superior, mentally alert athlete could possibly be accepted. The two years of training and education which follow recruitment tend to turn out a teacher who can perform all of the skills and feats that he is required to teach.

The tests of physical and athletic ability are scored from 0 to 20 and the following tables indicate the speed or perfection required of prospective teachers of sports and physical education.<sup>20</sup>

On all timed and measured events the students must average a score of 10 or better. All events are scored from 0 to 20, except as otherwise indicated. This is the usual system of scoring in France.

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<sup>20</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Op. Cit. pp. 68-72.

TABLE 22  
TABLE OF SCORED ACHIEVEMENTS  
(Masculine)

Rope		R a c e s			J u m p i n g			Score
Climbing				200	running	running		
5	4	100	1500	meter	high	broad	pole	
meters	meters	meters	meters	hurdles	jump	jump	vault	
secs.	secs.	secs.	min.s.	secs.	meters	meters	meters	
4.5	3.7	11.0	4:15	28.0	1.80	6.90	3.50	20
5.0	4.1	11.2	4:20	28.3	1.78	6.74	3.40	19
5.5	4.5	11.3	4:25	29.2	1.73	6.58	3.30	18
6.0	4.9	11.5	4:30	29.6	1.69	6.42	3.20	17
6.5	5.3	11.6	4:35	30.4	1.66	6.26	3.10	16
7.0	5.7	11.8	4:40	31.0	1.62	6.10	3.00	15
7.5	6.1	11.9	4:45	31.6	1.58	5.94	2.90	14
8.0	6.5	12.1	4:50	32.2	1.55	5.78	2.80	13
8.5	6.9	12.2	4:55	32.8	1.51	5.62	2.70	12
9.0	7.3	12.4	5:00	33.4	1.48	5.46	2.60	11
9.5	7.7	12.5	5:05	34.0	1.44	5.30	2.50	10
10.0	8.1	12.7	5:10	34.3	1.40	5.14	2.40	9
10.5	8.5	12.8	5:15	35.2	1.37	4.98	2.30	8
11.0	8.9	13.0	5:20	35.8	1.33	4.82	2.20	7
11.5	9.3	13.1	5:25	36.4	1.30	4.66	2.10	6
12.0	9.7	13.3	5:30	37.0	1.26	4.50	2.00	5
12.5	10.1	13.4	5:35	37.6	1.22	4.34	1.90	4
13.0	10.5	13.6	5:40	38.2	1.19	4.18	1.80	3
13.5	10.9	13.7	5:45	38.8	1.15	4.02	1.70	2
14.0	11.3	13.9	5:50	39.4	1.12	3.86	1.60	1
14.5	11.7	14.0	5:55	40.0	1.08	3.70	1.50	0

Besides the athletic test shown on this and the three following tables the students are tested and scored on all types of physical education exercises, games and sport. In all scoring, form and technique are given equal weight with strength, speed and endurance.<sup>21</sup>

#### 5. The Duties of Teachers of Sports and Physical Education.

Almost overnight the importance and responsibility of the physical education teacher has come to the attention of

<sup>21</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 44-65.

TABLE 23

## TABLE OF SCORED ACHIEVEMENTS

(Masculine Table Continued)

T h r o w i n g			S w i m m i n g			L i f e S a v i n g		
weight			crawl	back st.	breast			
7257			50	50	50			
grams	discus	javelin	meters	meters	meters	speed	technique	Score
			min.	min.	min.			
meters	meters	meters	sec.	sec.	sec.			
13.00	58.00	47.00	0:32	0:38	0:40			20
12.62	56.80	45.60	0:35	0:41.5	0:43.5			19
12.24	55.60	44.20	0:38	0:45	0:47			18
11.86	54.40	42.80	0:41	0:48.5	0:50.5			17
11.48	53.20	41.40	0:44	0:52	0:54			16
11.10	52.00	40.00	0:47	0:55.5	0:57.5			15
10.72	50.80	38.60	0:50	0:59	1:01			14
10.34	49.60	37.20	0:53	1:02.5	1:04.5			13
9.96	48.40	35.80	0:56	1:06	1:08			12
9.58	47.20	34.40	0:59	1:09.5	1:11.5			11
9.20	46.00	33.00	1:02	1:13	1:15	Sec.		10
8.82	44.80	31.60	1:05	1:16.5	1:18.5	:35	Very	9
8.44	43.60	30.20	1:08	1:20	1:22	:40	good	8
8.06	42.40	28.80	1:11	1:23.5	1:25.5	:45		7
7.68	41.20	27.40	1:14	1:27	1:29	:50	good	6
7.30	40.00	26.00	1:17	1:30.5	1:32.5	:55		5
6.92	38.80	24.60	1:20	1:34	1:36	:60	All	4
6.54	37.60	23.20	1:23	1:37.5	1:39.5	or below		3
6.16	36.40	21.80	1:26	1:41	1:43	more fail.		2
5.78	35.20	20.40	1:29	1:44.5	1:46.5			1
5.40	34.00	19.00	1:32	1:48	1:50			0

all other school personnel in France. As pointed out earlier, physical education and sports were not recognized as part of the school's activities until 1933. At first this new phase of educational development progressed very slowly. Since the war the demands for expansion in this area have been many times greater than could possibly be met because of the shortage of trained personnel and equipment. Both are still very short in

TABLE 24  
TABLE OF SCORED ACHIEVEMENTS

(Feminine)								
R a c e s			J u m p i n g		T h r o w i n g			Score
60 meter secs.	600 meter mins.	80 meter hurdle secs.	running high meters	running broad meters	weight 4000 grams	discus meters	javelin meters	
8.0	1:45	13.0	1.50	5.40	10.61	32	31	20
8.2	1:47.2	13.2	1.47	5.28	10.32	31	30	19
8.3	1:49.4	13.4	1.44	5.16	10.04	30	29	18
8.5	1:51.6	13.6	1.41	5.04	9.76	29	28	17
8.6	1:53.8	13.8	1.38	4.92	9.48	28	27	16
8.8	1:56	14.0	1.35	4.80	9.20	27	26	15
8.9	1:58.2	14.2	1.32	4.68	8.92	26	25	14
9.1	2:00.4	14.4	1.29	4.56	8.64	25	24	13
9.2	2:02.6	14.6	1.26	4.44	8.36	24	23	12
9.4	2:04.8	14.8	1.23	4.32	8.08	23	22	11
9.5	2:07	15.0	1.20	4.20	7.80	22	21	10
9.7	2:09.2	15.2	1.17	4.08	7.52	21	20	9
9.8	2:11.4	15.4	1.14	3.96	7.24	20	19	8
10.0	2:13.6	15.6	1.11	3.84	6.96	19	18	7
10.1	2:15.8	15.8	1.08	3.72	6.68	18	17	6
10.3	2:18	16.0	1.05	3.60	6.40	17	16	5
10.4	2:20.2	16.2	1.02	3.48	6.12	16	15	4
10.6	2:22.4	16.4	0.99	3.36	5.84	15	14	3
10.7	2:24.6	16.6	0.96	3.24	5.56	14	13	2
10.9	2:26.8	16.8	0.93	3.12	5.28	13	12	1
11.0	2:29	17.0	0.90	3.00	5.00	12	11	0

France. Playgrounds are practically nonexistent, school gymnasiums almost unknown, and the lack of teachers is more apparent than their presence.<sup>22</sup>

In order to make the use of teachers in sports and physical education as effective as possible the Ministry of Education issued the following instructions regarding their duties and assignment effective October 1, 1945.<sup>23</sup>

<sup>22</sup> As told to the writer on many occasions by various French educators during November and December, 1946.

<sup>23</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Op. Cit., pp. 74-

TABLE 25

## TABLE OF SCORED ACHIEVEMENTS

(Examinee Table Continued)

(Remaining Table Continued)

R o p e		S w i m m i n g			L i f e		Score
C l i m b i n g		Brawl	Back	Breast	S a v i n g		
			Stroke	Stroke			
5 meters	3.5 meters	50 meters	50 meters	50 meters	Speed	Technique	
secs.	secs.	min.	min.	min.	min.		
5.5	4.5	0:35	0:42	0:44			20
6.1	5.1	0:38	0:45.5	0:47.5		In life sav-	19
6.7	5.7	0:41	0:49	0:51		ing 10 points	18
7.3	6.3	0:44	0:53.5	0:54-5		are given for	17
7.9	6.9	0:47	0:56	0:58		speed and 10	16
8.5	7.5	0:50	0:59.5	1:01.5		for technique.	15
9.1	8.1	0:53	1:03	1:05		The two are	14
9.7	8.7	0:56	1:06.5	1:08.5		added for the	13
10.3	8.3	0:59	1:10	1:12		total score.	12
11.9	9.9	1:02	1:13.5	1:15.5			11
12.5	10.5	1:05	1:17	1:19	Min.		10
13.1	11.1	1:08	1:20.5	1:22.5	0:40	Very	9
13.7	11.7	1:11	1:24	1:26	0:45	good	8
14.3	12.3	1:14	1:27.5	1:29.5	0:50		7
14.9	12.9	1:17	1:31	1:33	0:55	Good	6
15.5	13.5	1:20	1:33.5	1:36.5	1:00		5
16.1	14.1	1:23	1:36	1:40	1:05	All	4
16.7	14.7	1:26	1:41.5	1:43.5		below	3
17.3	15.3	1:29	1:45	1:47		this	2
17.9	15.9	1:32	1:48.5	1:50.5		point	1
18.5	16.5	1:35	1:52	1:54		fail	0

## Instructions of the Ministry

The 1st of October 1945

## On the Use of Teachers of Sports and Physical Education

Physical education, like all other education, has suffered the consequences of the occupation and school politics during the years 1940 to 1944 . . .

These instructions do not intend to correct all the problems that exist, many of which will be with us for some time. Their essential purpose is:

- (1) To put an end to the obligations imposed on teachers to use but one method imposed uniformly on all;
- (2) To proclaim the value of the principles unanimously admitted by all educators responsible for physical education;

- (3) To recognize that, these principles being firmly respected, all teaching personnel can, in the organization and conduct of their lessons, give free run to their personalities and initiative, in such a way as to obtain the best possible results; these, in the end, are more important, for the teacher and for the student than impersonal supervision, often sterile, and based on doctrinal orthodoxy.

The methodology and the pedagogy of physical education has permitted the selection from various schools and processes a certain number of basic principles generally accepted, fruits of research and experience, and which, at this time, permits a conception and practice of physical education conforming to reality and adopted to modern life. Better than a theoretical doctrine, the product of a single brain, imposed upon those who must apply it, these principles fit to inspire and guide the teachers along rational, logical and useful lines.

Within broad general lines the latest directives of the ministry indicate the plan for sports and physical education according to age groups.<sup>24</sup>

Up to 6 years of age: Exercises should be used which tend to satisfy the child's need for activity and movement. Much use should be made of coordination exercises, exercises which develop the initiation of movements, group games and singing.

Age group 6 to 10:

- (1) Games and natural exercises directed by the teacher;
- (2) Preparatory exercises;
- (3) Corrective and maintenance exercises.

Age group 10 to 13:

- (1) Natural and useful exercises;
- (2) Games for small and large groups, games preparatory to collective sports, and for girls, popular dancing;
- (3) Maintenance exercises;
- (4) Preparatory and corrective exercises.

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<sup>24</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid., pp. 77-78.



Age group 13 to 16:

- (1) Maintenance and corrective exercises;
- (2) Advanced group games;
- (3) Natural and useful exercises;
- (4) Preparatory exercises;
- (5) Sports, including group competitive games and rhythmic dancing for girls.

Age group 16 to 18:

- (1) The training, preparation and perfection of technique for collective and competitive sports;
- (2) Natural and useful exercises;
- (3) Group games and popular dancing;
- (4) Preparatory and corrective exercises;
- (5) Gymnastics and rhythmic dancing for girls.

At all times the physical education teacher has the duty of checking on the children's health and growth. Charts must be kept up to date on each child's progress and accomplishments.

As indicated earlier in this chapter the program of sports and physical education is new. Although it had its beginning in 1934 in that a program for training teachers of sports and physical education was established at that time, it was slow in getting started. In 1934 there were no teachers of sports and physical education and in general enthusiasm for physical training was lacking. In 1939 and 1940 many educators who had been at least passive if not antagonistic to such a program realized that popular demand was forcing the issue. The war years made people more conscious of the need for sports and physical education throughout the school system but lack of personnel postponed its implementation.

Since 1945 the program to train teachers has gone forward rapidly. However, as late as December 1946 the school to train men physical education teachers was not yet in full operation.<sup>25</sup> Most of the buildings were not ready and the grounds were still in the stage of being developed into the needed athletic fields.

On the other hand, the women's physical education normal school was fully operating and can be expected to turn out about 130 teachers annually.<sup>26</sup> The playing fields are well laid out on expansive grounds. Most of the classroom buildings are new and adequate. An indoor swimming pool is available nearby. There seems to be an abundance of equipment for all types of games and gymnastics.

On the basis of the many elementary and secondary schools visited nothing seems to have been done since 1934 to equip them with playing fields or gymnasiums. Gymnasiums as they are known in schools of the United States are unknown in France. It is planned that for the most part all physical training will be held out-of-doors.<sup>27</sup> In view of the great shortage of materials of all kinds it is doubtful that much will be done in the way of providing swimming pools, showers, dressing rooms and gymnasiums in the near future.

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<sup>25</sup> As seen by the writer at that time.

<sup>26</sup> As told to the writer by Y. Surrel, the director of the school.

<sup>27</sup> As told to the writer by numerous physical education teachers and school directors.

Physical education and organized sports within the institutions of higher learning is completely unknown. At the present time there are no plans for developing physical education at the university level.<sup>28</sup> The directives of the ministry of national education refer only to sports and physical education through the secondary schools.

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<sup>28</sup> Questions on this point were raised by the writer in conversation with several university educators, in each case they indicate that physical education for university students had never occurred to them.

## CHAPTER V

### THE PREPARATION OF UNIVERSITY TEACHERS

In chapter III an extensive description was given of various means by which one might become a teacher in the academic secondary schools of France. One of these methods was by obtaining the French degree agrégation. This degree also qualifies a person to teach in the university either immediately or after a few years of successful teaching in the upper years of the lycée.

As is the case in the United States, exceptional ability in a given field may be sufficient to receive an appointment to the university teaching staff. However, such appointments are seldom in the academic fields but rather in areas requiring special skills such as fine arts or music. The majority of the professors in the seventeen universities of France have received their appointments after the completion of a considerable period of academic study and after receiving the agrégation or doctorat. Eighty percent of the professors in French universities are graduates of the Ecole Normale Supérieure.<sup>1</sup> This is the only institution in France which specifically prepares teachers for the French universities.

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<sup>1</sup> As told to the writer by Albert Pauphillet, Director of the Superior Normal School of France, 45 Rue d'Ulm, Paris, 19 November 1946. The writer visited the school for two days and consulted for several hours with its director and other members of its staff. Very little has been published on this school; hence, much of the material in this chapter is a result of notes made immediately following the conversations and observations referred to above.

# 1. L'Ecole Normale Supérieure (The Superior Normal School)

The first normal school in France was formed through the cooperation of the various colleges of Louis-le-Grand on November 21, 1763.<sup>2</sup> The parliament of Paris had requested this cooperation after the expulsion of the Jesuits to "form professors through public education for the University of Paris and teachers for the children of citizens and also to offer courses useful to the nation".<sup>3</sup>

Hence, at its earliest beginning the first normal school under complete control of the state had the task of preparing teachers for all levels of instruction. In 1766 the normal school thus formed from the various colleges of Louis-le-Grand was authorized to grant the degree agrégation, and regulations for the recruitment of students and the establishment of scholarships were established. For the next 114 years, or until 1880, the purpose and the control of the first normal school was to change many times. At times it trained only elementary teachers and at other times only secondary or university teachers. Sometimes it was state-controlled and sometimes church-controlled. Generally speaking, its purpose and control changed with each revolution or counter-revolution. When in February, 1848, a few of its students participated in the revolution, all

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2 C. Bouglé, L'Ecole Normale Supérieure. (Paris) Librairie Hachette, 1934. p. 10.

3 C. Bouglé, Ibid, p. 10.

students were put into the uniform of the army. This lasted for one year. Its directors held short terms of office as they were usually found too liberal or too reactionary, depending on the government in power. In 1845 the school was officially established as L'Ecole Normale Supérieure at its present location.<sup>4</sup>

The idea of the Revolutionary Assembly in 1794 was that the state should be the teacher. Hence, a central normal school under direct control of the state would assure the selection and training of a sufficient number of professors for the universities and teachers for other schools. Although, as pointed out above, the purpose and control of the school changed many times, by 1880 it returned to its original status, and the position it holds today, except that it is limited to the selection and training of professors for institutions of higher learning. Present day official publications recognize the school as having been founded in 1794.

The purpose of the school today is stated as follows: "The Superior Normal School, founded in 1794, definitely established in 1808 and re-attached to the university system in 1903 has the purpose of training professors and scholars for all literary and scientific fields. The courses of study are organized with the view of preparing for the agrégation of secondary instruction; but the Normal

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<sup>4</sup> C. Bouglé, Ibid. pp. 11-13.

school is at the same time a center of higher studies, training laboratory technicians and future doctors and professors for the faculties of letters and sciences." <sup>5</sup>

With few exceptions the students of the Superior Normal School live in residences which facilitates the close supervision considered necessary by the school authorities. Married students admitted to the school must live outside. <sup>6</sup> Much emphasis is placed on the necessity for constant observation and supervision of students training to become the future professors in the universities. It is rare indeed that a single student is permitted to live outside the school. There have been few women students permitted to enter and they were admitted as external students. The first woman permitted to attend a class was in 1910, however, she was given the rank of "observer" rather than of "student". The first woman with the rank of "student" was admitted in 1927. <sup>7</sup> In the Fall of 1946 there were no women enrolled at this school in any rank.

The Superior Normal School is divided into two sections: The section of letters and the section of sciences. The section of letters prepares students for the agrégation

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<sup>5</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ecole Normale Supérieure, Paris: Beresniak, 1946. p. 1.

<sup>6</sup> See footnote (1), this chapter.

<sup>7</sup> C. Bouglé, Op. cit., p. 17.

degrees in letters, history, geography, philosophy, grammar and modern languages. The science section prepares students for the agrégation degrees in mathematics, physical sciences and natural sciences.<sup>8</sup> The course of study usually lasts four years and prepares professors for all academic fields found in any of the French universities.

Tuition, as well as board and lodging, is entirely free. Lodging includes furnished rooms, heat, light and laundry. All necessary books, paper, laboratory supplies and all school supplies are also furnished free of charge. Medical care and hospitalization are furnished when necessary and the student receives an allowance for personal expenses.<sup>9</sup> The complete elimination of financial obligations make competition exceedingly keen and permits the educational authorities to exercise minute control of the student and the course of study.

## 2. Methods of Selecting Students for this School.

The student must make application to the secretary of his academy between the 15th of January and the 14th of March and must submit the following materials:<sup>10</sup>

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<sup>8</sup> See footnote (1), this chapter.

<sup>9</sup> See footnote (1), this chapter.

<sup>10</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ecole Normale Supérieure, Paris: Beresniak, 1946. p. 2.



- (1) A request for permission to enroll.
- (2) A statement indicating:
  - a. the field in which the student wishes to be examined for entrance (letters or sciences),
  - b. in case he is successful he should indicate whether he wishes to be enrolled at the Superior Normal School or whether he wishes a scholarship to study in a university.
- (3) A birth certificate.
- (4) A certificate from the mayor of his community indicating his military status.
- (5) His diploma of the baccalaureate or a certified copy. If he has begun his studies for a licence in a university he must submit a statement from the faculty with which he is enrolled indicating the certificates he has earned.
- (6) A signed statement giving his father's profession, his family home, the places where he has lived since the age of fifteen and the schools where he has studied.
- (7) A certified statement from the mayor indicating the financial situation of his family.
- (8) A statement signed by himself, and by his father if he is a minor, stating that he will repay the State the total cost of his education if he does not remain in the service of the government for at least ten years.
- (9) A sealed statement from the medical examiner of the secondary school he attended addressed to the chief medical officer of the Superior Normal School giving his medical history accompanied by a medical examination indicating that the candidate is not tubercular.
- (10) Certificates attesting to the candidates active participation in the resistance against the occupying army.
- (11) All candidates must be at least 18 and not over 23 years of age the first of January the year of the examination.

On the basis of the above applications which are carefully scrutinized, students may be admitted to take the

entrance examinations or they may be rejected. Applications are not quite as impersonal as might be assumed. Professors in French lycées or universities who are graduates of the Superior Normal School are on the lookout for students in their classes whom they might recommend as candidates for the examinations. Such a recommendation usually assures the candidate of the opportunity to take the examination, however, he is on his own when it comes to passing the tests and competing for the highest scores which alone would assure entrance.<sup>11</sup> The professor's recommendation serves only as a character reference indicating that from his personal knowledge of the Superior Normal school the candidate would be a good prospect.

If the candidates credentials indicate that he is qualified by maturity, education and experience to compete for entrance to the Superior Normal School he is so notified. Tables 26A and B, and tables 27A, 27B and 27C below indicate the written and oral entrance examinations the candidate must take. Tables 26A and B are for the letters section while tables 27A, B and C are for the science section.<sup>12</sup>

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<sup>11</sup> See footnote (1), this chapter.

<sup>12</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. pp. 3-4

TABLE 26A

## WRITTEN EXAMINATION - Letters Section

For all Candidates	Time	Coefficient
A French composition	6 hrs.	3
A Latin theme	4 hrs.	3
A Latin translation	4 hrs.	2
A composition in philosophy	6 hrs.	3
A composition in modern history on subjects assigned by the Minister of National Education	6 hrs.	3
One of the groups below to be chosen by the candidate.		
I. A Greek translation	4 hrs.	3
II. A composition in German, English, Spanish, Italian, Russian, Chinese or Arabic.	6 hrs.	3

The examining commission scores the papers and submits the list of all passing candidates in the order of their rank on the tests to the director of higher education in the minister's cabinet. Candidates are notified and report to the school for admission. However, admission is not assured until the candidate has passed the medical examination at the school. Barring failure of the final medical examination, candidates are admitted in the order of their rank on the test until the quota for the school is filled. Candidates who pass the test but who cannot enter because of the limited quota may

TABLE 26B

## ORAL EXAMINATION - Letters Section

For all candidates	Coefficient
Explanation of a French text	2
Explanation of a Latin text	2
Interrogation on philosophy	2
Interrogation on modern history	1
Explanation of a modern foreign language text.	2
Candidates in group I (classics) will select a modern foreign language in which they wish to be examined, while candidates in group II (modern languages) will select a second foreign language in which they wish to be examined. (One of the two languages in which they will be examined must be English or German.)	1
One of the two groups below to be chosen by the candidate.	
Group I: Explanation of a Greek Text.	2
Group II: Explanation of a modern foreign language text.	2

TABLE 27A

## WRITTEN EXAMINATION - Science Section, Group I

	Time	Coefficient
Special mathematics composition	6 hrs.	6
Second mathematics composition	4 hrs.	4
Physics composition	6 hrs.	7
French composition	3 hrs.	1
A choice of two translations chosen by the candidate from seven modern languages and Latin.	2 hrs.	2

TABLE 27B

## WRITTEN EXAMINATION - Science Section, Group II

	Time	Coefficient
Special mathematics composition	4 hrs.	4
Physics composition	6 hrs.	4
Chemistry composition	4 hrs.	4
Natural science composition	4 hrs.	5
French composition (same as Group I)	3 hrs.	1
Two translations (same as Group I)	2 hrs.	2

TABLE 27C

## ORAL EXAMINATION - Science Section, Group I and II

	Coefficient	
	Group I	Group II
Mathematics	40	15
Applied mathematics	5	--
Physics	25	25
Chemistry	10	15
Natural sciences	--	25

begin their academic studies at any one of the seventeen universities. In any event, all of their expenses, including a small stipend for spending money, are paid by the State.<sup>13</sup>

Another factor in the selection of students for the Superior Normal School is the recommendation of his professors in the last year of the Lycée or at the university if he is

<sup>13</sup> Ministère de l'Education Nationale, Ibid. p. 5.

already enrolled as a general student. As approximately eighty percent of the professors in the universities and in the last year of the lycée are themselves graduates of the Superior Normal School, and, as they are constantly on the lookout for students whom they believe capable of becoming good professors, their recommendation to permit a student to take the entrance examination carries much weight. Students so recommended do receive preference because of the difficult-to-measure factor of teaching personality. Many students admitted to the Superior Normal School have been personally recommended by professors who have observed them for a year or more.<sup>14</sup>

Statistics on admissions to the school from 1941 through 1945 indicate the high degree of selection which is made. As at all other levels of professional preparation there are always more candidates than the quota of the school can satisfy. The entrance examination serves as the selection machinery. Table 28, below, indicates the number of candidates who were permitted to take the test and the number admitted over the last five-year period.<sup>15</sup>

The difficulty of qualifying for the entrance examination and of the examination itself is further emphasized by an official notice of the Ministry of Education which states that students wishing to take the examination should prepare themselves by two or three years of study beyond the Baccalaureate.

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<sup>14</sup> See footnote (1), this chapter.

<sup>15</sup> Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, Ibid. p. 5.

TABLE 28

STATISTICS ON ADMISSIONS TO THE SUPERIOR NORMAL SCHOOL OR  
TO THE UNIVERSITY FOR THE PREPARATION OF THE HIGHEST  
TEACHING DEGREE

Year	Candidates Applying		Admitted to exam.		Candidates Admitted*		Admitted to a university**	
	letters	science	letters	science	letters	science	letters	science
1941	270	306	70	120	30	22	30	69
1942	318	295	94	105	38	20	56	67
1943	258	221	78	94	28	20	40	49
1944	190	140	64	56	24	14	33	24
1945	200	112	62	62	25	18	31	42

\* Candidates admitted to the Superior Normal School.

\*\* Candidates who received a high passing score but for whom there was not room, hence, they were admitted to the University of Paris and permitted to do observation and demonstration at the Superior Normal School.

Thirty-four lycées throughout France offer this special post graduate program to prepare for the Superior Normal School entrance examinations. They are:<sup>16</sup>

In letters and science -

Paris: Condorcet, Henri IV, Louis-le-Grand.

Marseille: Lycée Thiers, and Lycées at: Besancon, Bordeaux, Lille, Lyon (Lycee du Parc), Montpellier, Nancy Portiers, Rennes, Toulouse, Alger.

Letters only -

Lycée Kleber at Strasbourg.

Science only -

Lycées Buffons, Charlemagne, Janson, Jacques Decour, Saint Louis, Chaptal, Verdun, Nice, Nimes, Tours, Douai, Orleans, Metz, Grenoble, Nantes.

<sup>16</sup> List furnished the writer by the secretariate of the Ministry of Education.

### 3. Course of Study at the Superior Normal School.

During their period of study at the school the students prepare themselves for the examinations of the licence, the diploma of higher studies (diplôme d'études supérieures), and the agrégation under the same conditions as students in the universities.<sup>17</sup>

The students in the letters section study in the faculty of letters and receive instruction designed to verify and confirm their ability in their chosen profession. The courses are such as to develop their general culture and to give the future professors a thorough grounding in the practices and methods of research as well as in the method of critical analysis.

The first two years are used to prepare the student for the licence in his chosen major. The third year is used to acquire the subject matter knowledge necessary for the diploma of higher education. The fourth year is used to prepare for the agrégation. Students desiring to take the examination for the agrégation in modern foreign languages spend two of the above four years of study in foreign countries where their two major foreign languages are the vernacular. Students who plan to take the doctorate may spend an additional year in research for their thesis at the Superior Normal School.

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<sup>17</sup> There is no published official program and the description of subject matter which follows was given to the writer by the director of the Superior Normal School. See footnote (1), this chapter. All examinations are the same as described in Chapter III for similar degrees.



Students in the science section follow the courses in the faculty of science and receive instruction aimed to give them a knowledge of the field indispensable to future professors. It is further aimed to give them a thorough understanding of the methods of scientific research and critical analysis. Their subject matter knowledge is further amplified by considerable laboratory experimentation and demonstration.

As in the case of the students in the letters section, those who wish to take the agrégation examination are indoctrinated in the theories and methods of teaching.

The first two years are spent in preparing for a licence es science while the third year is used to acquire further subject matter knowledge for the diploma of higher studies. Mathematics majors prepare for their diploma at the same time they are preparing for their licence, hence spend one year less in preparation than do other students. A fourth year is spent in the science section by those students who wish to prepare themselves for the agrégation majoring in science.

Those students who eventually wish to receive the doctorate may spend an additional year at the Superior Normal School in scientific research for their thesis.

All examinations for both sections are the same as those given for the teaching degrees described in Chapter III, hence, the subject matter preparation must be identical.

The only real difference is orientation and indoctrination for teaching at a higher level. All practice teaching is done with classes at the Superior Normal School.

#### 4. Duties of Students Graduating from the Superior Normal School.

As the sole purpose of the Superior Normal School is the preparation of future professors for institutions of higher learning, the assignment of the graduates is always in the last year of the lycée or in the lycées offering post-graduate courses to prepare students for entrance examinations to the Superior Normal Schools or other institutions of higher learning.

Eventually many of the professors receive assignments in the universities themselves but usually not until after they have completed five years as professors in the upper and post-graduate years of the academic secondary schools. Approximately eighty percent of the university professors received their training in the Superior Normal School.<sup>18</sup>

#### 5. Collaboration with other Institutions of Higher Learning.

The Superior Normal School, located within a five-minutes walk of the University of Paris and the Sorbonne, is actually a cooperative enterprise with these two institutions. Students registered in the Superior Normal School take many subject matter courses at the University of Paris and the

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<sup>18</sup> See footnote (1), this chapter.

Sorbonne while professors from these two institutions give courses at the normal school.<sup>19</sup> Although the school itself has excellent laboratories these are used for demonstration teaching, practice teaching and experimentation in methods of teaching as well as for the usual laboratory science work.<sup>20</sup>

#### 6. Statistics on Graduates of the Superior Normal School.

Statistics are available on the profession of the fathers of students in the Superior Normal School as well as on the previous scholastic preparation of the students and on the positions occupied by them since graduation. As all of these statistics were first published in 1934 and as there are no more up to date figures available, it is reasonable to believe that some difference may exist today in the positions held by the students who graduate in the years covered in the table.

On the basis of figures compiled from 1927 through 1933, table 29 below indicates the parent's professions of students entering in residence during those years.<sup>21</sup>

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19 C. Prichard, L'Enseignement en France, (Paris) Librairie Armand Colin, 1925. pp. 143-144.

20 Ecole Normale Supérieure, Inauguration des Nouveaux Laboratoires, Paris: Dumoulin, 1937. p. 15.

21 C. Bouglé, L'Ecole Normale Supérieure, Paris: Hachette, 1934. p. 107.

TABLE 29

## PROFESSION OF THE STUDENT'S PARENTS

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Professors	8	10	17	13	11	7	11
Teachers	8	9	0	8	12	4	1
Other Civil Servants (professional)	7	3	4	4	5	3	2
Military Officers	3	2	4	2	2	1	1
Engineers	3	2	2	0	0	3	3
Industrialists	4	0	0	2	1	1	2
Doctors and Pharmacists	1	2	2	0	4	0	3
Lawyers	2	1	0	1	1	0	0
Bankers	0	1	1	0	1	0	1
Farmers	1	1	0	0	0	3	0
Non-Prof. Civil Servants	2	3	6	8	3	14	15
Architects and Artists	2	1	1	0	0	0	0
Protestant Minister	1	2	0	0	1	0	1
Laborers	1	4	3	1	1	1	2
Proprietors (rentors)	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Unknown	2	0	3	4	6	10	2

The above table indicates that sons of professors, teachers and all types of civil servants predominate in the make-up of the student body. There is not a sufficient number to permit any definite conclusion.

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Table 30 below gives the educational background of students entering the Superior Normal School and is a good indication of the preparation students must have in order to pass the entrance examinations.

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22 C. Bouglé, *Ibid.* p. 108. With modification to give total number of students entered.

TABLE 30

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND OF STUDENTS  
ENTERING THE SUPERIOR NORMAL SCHOOL

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Attended primary school until 10 or 12 yrs. of age	27	18	29	32	34	22 2
Attended upper elemen- tary school	1	3	1	3	3	2
Prepared for the baccalaureate in a college (i.e. other than a <u>lycee</u> )	9	7	10	5	12	10
Total admitted to Superior Normal School	49	48	52	50	51	49
Number of years of preparation beyond the baccalaureate:						
1 year	4	4	2	1	2	1
2 years	21	15	24	23	20	21
3 years	22	24	25	17	22	13
4 years	2	5	1	3	7	14
5 years	--	--	--	1	--	--

The third and last table in this series of three gives details as to the types of activities in which the graduates engaged upon graduation.

As the statistics in Table 31 were gathered in 1934 the graduates included would have been out of the Superior

23 C. Fouglé, Ibid. p. 109.

TABLE 31

POSITIONS OCCUPIED BY GRADUATES  
OF THE SUPERIOR NORMAL SCHOOL

Position in 1934	Graduated					
	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928
Candidates for the <u>agrégation</u>	-	1	1	-	3	1
Assistants at the school	3	3	1	1	1	2
Prof. French Sch. Athens	-	-	-	-	3	1
Prof. French Sch. Rome	-	-	-	-	1	1
Educ. Foundation Thiers	-	-	1	1	1	2
Candidates for the doctorate	7	6	8	6	2	8
Prof. in <u>Lycées</u> and Colleges	28	25	23	30	29	30
Adv. post in Higher Educ.	2	1	1	3	2	-
Prof. in Higher Educ.	6	6	-	1	1	-
Prof. in Foreign Univ.	-	5	4	2	1	-
In private schools	1	1	-	1	-	-
Others	4	1	4	4	2	3
Deceased	-	2	1	4	3	1

Normal School anywhere from six to eleven years. It is reasonable to assume that in 1947 many graduates, particularly those who had finished the agrégation or the doctorate, now have positions in the universities or positions of high rank in the Civil Service.

The Director of the Superior Normal School stated that graduates held many important permanent offices in the government and many important elective offices. In November 1946, Leon Blum, then President of France, was the most illustrious graduate of the Ecole Normale Supérieure.<sup>24</sup>

<sup>24</sup> See footnote 1, this chapter.

## CHAPTER VI

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The system of selection and examination in the teacher-training program of France along with the detailed course of study is rather definite. The high degree of centralization permits standardization of results in such a way that a diploma, degree, or license obtained in one school is of much the same value as one obtained in another.

On the basis of post-war articles in French educational journals and the stated opinion of many French educators, it is possible that the present system of French teacher training as well as the whole system of education will experience more changes in the next ten years than have occurred since the founding of the first Republic. The original basic laws establishing the French educational system are such that major adjustments are difficult. However, there is little evidence to lead one to believe that, up to 1940, the majority of French educators or laymen would have welcomed any important major changes.

The Langevin Report mentioned in Chapter I was made in 1945. Among other points at issue, it recommended a unilateral system through the secondary school. The opposition to such a scheme was such that it was not adopted. However, the chief criticism made in the Report, namely, that the lycée was too selective and tended to segregate too few from too many, was met in part by the introduction of a new course

of study in the lycée which would be less academic, permitting more students to acquire the prestige of a lycée education.

The French system of teacher training is one which reflects the needs of the subject-matter offerings of the French schools. By tradition, importance is attached to an education along academic lines. This may well be the reason why so little opportunity is available to the student who does not fit the pattern. In many departments, there are no technical or vocational schools. Where such schools do exist, the teachers of vocational subjects are often practicing craftsmen with no opportunity for training as teachers of their art. The teachers of cultural or general subjects in the vocational school usually come from the normal schools that train academic teachers and are commonly those who passed their examinations but whose scores were not high enough to warrant their being placed in a lycée.

One of the plans for the immediate future is to set up a group of permanent institutions to train teachers for vocational subjects and for general education. As was noted in Chapter III, this has been started on a small scale through summer institutes at Sèvres.

One of the most important problems faced by French educational reformers is to get the present corps of teachers to accept the idea of general education in the same school along with the more academic and classical course of study.

At least one important change of recent years should be noted. Prior to World War II there were two types of public



elementary schools. One prepared students for the lycées and the other prepared them for the upper elementary and continuation schools. These two elementary schools have now been consolidated, and all students receive the same education for the first five years at least. This has simplified the training of elementary school teachers, and it is generally believed that it has raised the standards of the primary normal school as well as of the elementary school.

One outstanding feature is common to all levels of teacher-training institutions. With few exceptions, all students must be in residence. The belief is advanced that this method permits much more thorough training and orientation of future teachers. It allows for closer regulation of the student-teacher's life in the normal schools and makes possible more constant observation by the faculty.

The basic principle regarding education in the constitution of the first Republic is that "the State is the teacher". This being the case today, the national government assumes all responsibility for training and certifying teachers for all of France and the Empire. The State recognizes its obligation by paying the salaries of the faculty at all normal schools, as well as the expenses of the students including board, room, tuition, and spending money.

Beginning with the first examination at the end of the fifth year of the elementary school and continuing through the highest examination, all students are tested on an equal basis. For the most part, there is no geographical variation in the examinations.

All teachers for each level or type of instruction receive the same orientation, method, and content courses. As they will be in charge of preparing students for the same examinations, this is necessary. Over and above the subject-matter content of teaching, teachers receive considerable direction in aims and purposes of education for the citizens of the State. However, it would be erroneous to draw the conclusion that such a highly centralized system must of necessity turn out teachers whose social, political, economic, or religious points of view are in complete harmony.

On the contrary, French education encourages discussion and criticism at all levels. French students are specifically taught to read and listen with the view of finding errors in the principles expressed or in the logic of the writer or speaker. It has often been stated by many French educators and laymen that the schools go to an extreme in developing the critical faculties of students. This may account in part for the diversity of political opinions found in France since the beginning of the Third Republic.

French examinations above the secondary school level are not entirely on objective and factual material, calling only for memory. In both oral and written examinations the student is often given credit for the logic of his reasoning and for critical analysis. For the most part, however, it is usually memory that brings the highest score on examinations.

As pointed out in a previous chapter, the public school teachers at all levels of education are civil servants. Their

position is secure and their promotion is based on the passing of examinations. The only practicing public educator in France who is a political appointee is the Minister of National Education. All the inspector generals in his cabinet, the directors of special branches of education, university professors, school directors, academy and departmental directors and inspectors, and all school teachers are under civil service tenure.

Although it is true that the State gives the examinations and licenses the teachers, it must be noted that the educators themselves actually prepare the examinations, determine the course of study, pass judgment on the students, determine the percentage to be passed, and finally score all written and oral examinations. All scores are published, and assignments to teaching positions are made beginning with the highest score first. All promotions are on the same basis. This method of selection, examination and promotion is required by law.

Since the liberation of France, its educational journals, both official and otherwise, have carried numerous articles making suggestions for reforms within the framework of the present system of education. These suggested reforms have been along the lines of extending educational opportunity, improving the conditions of teaching, raising personnel standards and securing better schools and teaching equipment.

To improve any system, it is desirable to improve all aspects at one and the same time. To extend educational

opportunity, a more varied curriculum must be made available beginning with the sixth year. This necessitates training more teachers along new lines, building more schools, and furnishing more educational equipment and teaching materials. It further necessitates making it economically possible to extend the present school-leaving age beyond thirteen. Even though all school expenses are free, many families have to rely on the wage earning power of the child at an early age. Before its educational opportunities can be extended and improved, all these conditions must be met in a country which is short of manpower, short of raw materials and manufactured goods, and short of the necessities of life.

In considering the extension of educational opportunity in France, one must also consider the fact that educational tradition is well-rooted. French educators are divided between those who favor keeping the present prestige of academic and classical education and those who see in this prestige the continued limitation of educational opportunity. To one who is prone to criticize the indoctrination of teachers in French normal schools on the grounds that there is little room for initiative, it should be pointed out that teachers of the academic subjects trained in these schools have taken their battle stations on both sides of this issue. Hence, indoctrination has not been complete.

There are teachers of the classics and of pure sciences who wish to see additional courses of study added in order that students with limited mental abilities may not burden

their classes and may have the opportunity of working for an equivalent diploma in other fields of study within the same school. On the other hand, there is another group of traditionalists who believe that the lycée must be kept pure of any infiltration by general content courses. Such courses, they believe, should be given in technical-vocational schools along with trade courses leading to certificates of graduation which would not be identified with the coveted baccalaureat or any similar diplomas which are associated chiefly with academic achievement.

Evidence that French education in general and teacher training in particular encourages the development of the critical approach was made obvious by the results and proposals of the Langevin Commission for educational reform.<sup>1</sup>

This Commission, appointed immediately after the liberation, set out to study and tabulate the various French educators' and laymen's criticisms of their own educational system. Although the suggestions for reform made by the Commission have not been adopted, possibly because of the basic conservatism of French educational organization, they have nevertheless caused much thinking on the problem.

The report of the Langevin Commission represents the point of view of educators who want educational reforms. It

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<sup>1</sup> See pages 15-18, Chapter I.

sets forth the reasons why reforms are needed and proposes a plan of educational reorganization and reorientation.<sup>2</sup>

The report recognizes that the principles of educational reform must be based on two considerations: one, social, and the other, pedagogical and psychological.<sup>3</sup>

The social consideration emphasizes that any educational system must assure each individual the possibility of developing his capacities to the fullest extent whether these be intellectual, physical, or artistic. In order to achieve social wholesomeness, it would avoid segregation of the students on the basis of ability before the age of fifteen, and it would extend the school-leaving age to eighteen. The Commission sees great social dangers in the present system which sets students apart at the age of ten. From a purely selfish and nationalistic point of view, the report points out that the nation owes it to itself to assure cultural democracy and equality of educational opportunity.

The commission wishes to correct the Napoleonic uniformity of the present educational system which has the tendency to pull all students through the same educational mold. It proposes to adapt the educational organization and methodology to meet the needs of the whole child to include the development of his social, emotional, physical, cultural, and intellectual self. The suggestions for reform

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<sup>2</sup> Gal, Roger, L'Ecole et l'Enfant de Notre Temps, La Reforme de l'Enseignement. Paris: Presse d'Ile-de-France, 1946. p. 6.

<sup>3</sup> Gal, Roger, Ibid. p. 9.

would give all students some practical-vocational training up to the age of fifteen. Particularly does it emphasize the desire to use the "learning-by-doing method of the Americans."<sup>4</sup>

Another suggestion made by the Langevin Commission is for a system of adult education. Unlike England and the Scandinavian countries, France has given very little attention to education at the adult level. However, the Commission does not propose a specific program; it only mentions its desirability. Should a program of adult education be developed, it would necessitate the training of teachers in methods of teaching adults. It would also mean the development of courses which would meet the specific needs of adult learner groups. In view of the fact that France has a high percentage of literacy, adult education would probably need to be above the mere deficiency repairing level and along lines which would improve the adult's life. It would likely need to be cultural, social, and vocational.

In a country preoccupied in meeting the bare necessities to sustain human existence, it is difficult to expect any radical extension of educational opportunity. To both the student and the teacher it may seem more important to spend the day foraging in the country for a few potatoes than spending the time in the classroom discussing Plato's Republic in the original Greek or in the vernacular. It was Danton who cried out, "After bread, education is the first need of the people."

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<sup>4</sup> Gal, Roger, Ibid. p. 17.

On the other hand, it is reasonable to believe that in France, as well as in any other country, education may well be the key to improving the cultural and material standard of living for all the people. In this functional approach, many French educators see the answer to their hopes in an extended system of education and in a reorientation or reinterpretation of the aims and purposes of education.

It goes without saying that the school teachers of France are well aware that their own needs are the same as those of their children and those of all peoples in their community. Even the traditionalists may be expected to see cultural values in functional education.



## A P P E N D I X

## CABINET

du MINISTRE

Paris, le 3 Dec 1946

de l'Education Nationale

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Section des Affaires  
Generales

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LE MINISTRE DE L'EDUCATION NATIONALE

CAB/SAG N° 4805  
G.R.a MM. les Recteurs,  
les Inspecteurs d'Academie,  
et Chefs d'Etablissements.

J'ai l'honneur de vous presenter Mr. George J. KABAT, Conseiller Technique de la Delegation Americaine a l'U.N.E.S.C.O. et principal representant et observateur en France du Service Federal de l'Education aux Etats-Unis.

Mr. KABAT desire profiter de son sejour pour se renseigner sur les methodes nouvelles, particulierement dans l'Enseignement du Second Degre et dans les Ecoles Techniques, et sur la preparation pedagogique des maitres dans les Ecoles Normales.

Je vous serais reconnaissant de vouloir bien lui apporter toute l'aide possible dans l'accomplissement de sa mission.

Pour le Ministre et par autorisation  
l'Inspecteur General - Charge de Mission

(Signed) G. Roger.

G. ROGER.

(SEAL)

MINISTRE DE L'EDUCATION  
NATIONALE

Cabinet

Of the Minister

Paris, 3 Dec. 1946

of National Education

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General Service Section

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CAB/SAG No. 4805

G.R.

The Minister of National Education

To: The Directors  
The Inspectors of Academies  
and Chiefs of Schools

I have the honor to introduce Mr. George J. Kabat, Technical Advisor of the United States Delegation to UNESCO and principal representative and observer of the United States Office of Education in France.

Mr. Kabat desires to take advantage of his visit in France to observe the new methods, particularly of secondary education and in the technical-vocational schools, and of the methods to training teachers in the normal schools.

I should be much obliged to you if you would render him all possible aid in the accomplishment of his mission.

For the Minister and by authorization  
The Inspector General in Charge of  
the Mission

(Signed) G. Roger.

G. ROGER.

(Seal)

Minister of National  
Education

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(Translation is mine. G.J.K.)

CABINET

du Ministre

Paris, le 3 Dec 1946

de l'Education Nationale

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Section des Affaires  
Generales

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CAE/SAG N° 4806  
R. G.

L'Inspecteur General G. ROGER

a Monsieur LEBRUN  
Directeur du Musée Pédagogique  
29, rue d'Ulm - PARIS.

J'ai l'honneur de vous presenter Mr. George  
J. KABAT, Conseiller Technique de la Delegation Ameri-  
caine a l'U.N.E.S.C.O.

Il desire se documenter sur notre enseigne-  
ment dans les etablissements du Second Degre et les ecoles  
techniques ainsi que sur la preparation pedagogique des  
maitres.

Je vous serais tres reconnaissant de vouloir  
bien guider ses recherches et de lui fournir tous les  
renseignements d'ordre bibliographique dont il pourrait  
avoir besoin.

(Signed) G. ROGER.

G. ROGER.

(SEAL)

Ministère de l'Education  
Nationale

Paris, 3 Dec. 1946

Cabinet

of the Minister

of National Education

General Service Section

CAB/SAG No. 4806

Inspector General, G. Roger

To: Mr. Lebrun  
Director of the Pedagogical  
Library  
29, Rue d'Ulm - Paris.

I have the honor to introduce to you Mr. George J. Kabat, Technical Advisor to the United States Delegation to UNESCO.

He is interested in obtaining bibliographies and documents on our education in secondary and technical schools, as well as on the teacher-training methods in normal schools.

I would be very much obliged to you if you would be willing to guide his research and furnish him all the bibliographical references which he may need.

(Signed) G. Roger

G. ROGER.

(Seal)

Minister of National  
Education

(Translation is mine. G.J.K.)

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