the federal level have provided funds for specific education programs and have passed many laws and regulations pertaining to schools. Presidents have created programs and regulations affecting schools, and federal courts have handed down decisions that have had great ramifications for our schools. And various federal agencies have created programs and regulations for our schools. You can find much more contemporary information on the federal role in education, school law, educational politics, and school finance later in this book and on the Web.

The 1940s saw the nation at war, which provided the impetus for the federal government to pass a number of laws that affected education. The Vocational Education for National Defense Act was a crash program to prepare workers needed in industry to produce goods for national defense. The program operated through state educational agencies and trained more than 7 million workers. In 1941, the Lanham Act provided funds for building, maintaining, and operating community facilities in areas where local communities had unusual burdens because of defense and war initiatives.

GI BILL. The federal government recognized a need to help young people whose careers had been interrupted by military service. The GI Bill of 1944 helped to provide education of veterans of World War II, and later similar bills assisted veterans of the Korean, Vietnam, and other conflicts. These federal acts afforded education to more than 10 million veterans at a cost of almost $20 billion. Payments were made directly to veterans and/or to the colleges and schools the veterans attended.

The initial cost of these acts amounted to a wonderful national investment because the government was repaid many times over by the increased taxes eventually paid by veterans who received this financial aid and later were employed.

NATIONAL SCIENCE FOUNDATION. The National Science Foundation, established in 1950, emphasized the need for continued support of basic scientific research. It was created to "promote the progress of science; to advance the national health, prosperity, and welfare; to secure the national defense; and for other purposes" (*The NSF Statutory Mission, National Science Foundation, 1950.*) The Cooperative Research Program of 1954 authorized the U.S. commissioner of education to enter into contracts with universities, colleges, and state education agencies to carry on educational research.

CATEGORICAL FEDERAL AID. Beginning in 1957, when the first Soviet space vehicle was launched, the federal government further increased its participation in education. The NDEA, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, and the International Education Act of 1966 are examples of increased federal participation in educational affairs. Federally supported educational programs such as Project Head Start, the National Teacher Corps, and Upward Bound are further indications of such federal participation in education.

All of these acts and programs have involved categorical federal aid to education—that is, aid for specific uses. Some people believe that the federal influence on education has recently been greater than either state or local influence. There can be no denying that through federal legislation, U.S. Supreme Court decisions, and federal administrative influence, the total federal effect on education is indeed great. Indications are that this effect will be even more pronounced in the future. It will remain for historians to determine whether this trend in U.S. education is a beneficial one.

THE STRUGGLE FOR EQUAL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY. The past half century has also been characterized by an increasing struggle for **equal educational opportunity** for all children regardless of race, creed, religion, or gender.

This struggle was initiated by the African American activism movement, given additional momentum by the women's rights movement, and eventually joined by many other groups such as Hispanic Americans, Native Americans, and Asian Americans. Other chapters of this book will discuss the details of this relatively recent quest for equal educational opportunity. We mention the need for equal educational opportunity briefly at this point simply to emphasize that the struggle for it represents an important but often under-recognized recent historical movement in education. Today, many observers are pointing out that with the accelerated growth of minority subcultures within this nation, our economic and political survival depends to a great degree on educational opportunities and achievement for all segments of U.S. society.

Equal educational opportunity: Access to a similar education for all students, regardless of their cultural background or family circumstances.

NCLB & ESSA. Two of the federal government's more recent major efforts to improve education and to help children learn are the sweeping laws commonly referred to as No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and it's more recent replacement, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA). While the goals of these laws are admirable, they have been widely criticized, especially by the education profession. Examples of this criticism are that (1) sufficient funds have not been made available to effectively implement the law, (2) the mandated testing required by the laws is not sufficiently valid or reliable and are too time consuming, and (3) these laws and required testing do not take into account the extremely varied abilities of students. The more recent, currently effective, ESSA will be discussed in more detail elsewhere in this book, The accompanying "Perspectives on Diversity" feature pertaining to student testing presents a thought-provoking challenge for a hypothetical teacher.

The Professionalization of Teaching

Formal teacher training is a relatively recent historical phenomenon. Teacher-training programs were developed during the late nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth century. By the midpoint of the twentieth century, each state had established teacher certification requirements. Since then, teacher training and certification have been characterized by a "refinement" or "professionalization" movement.

In addition to teacher education, this professionalization movement has touched just about all facets of education: curriculum, teaching methodology, training of school service personnel (administrators, counselors, librarians, and media and other specialists), in-service teacher training, teacher organizations, and even school-building construction. To understand clearly this professionalization movement, one need only compare pictures of an old one-room country school with a modern school building, read both a 1940 and a current publication of the American Federation of Teachers or National Education Association, contrast a mid-twentieth-century high school curriculum with one from today, or compile a list of the teaching materials found in a 1940 school and a similar list for a typical contemporary school.

PERSPECTIVES on DIVERSITY

Testing Students

Because Dwayne has a learning disability, he is eligible for a special accommodation for the state tests that are conducted annually. Annette Beckett, a new teacher, has agreed to serve as the writer for the fourth grader during the next round of state assessments. She feels comfortable with this assignment because she had a dual elementary and special education major even though she is currently teaching in a second-grade classroom that does not have any students with disabilities. She also participated in an online training program for faculty who would be serving in this role for English-language learners and students with disabilities. She felt ready for the assignment.

During the test, Ms. Beckett sat next to Dwayne so that she could read to him from his test booklet. The process was working well. When they reached the section on comprehension, she read the passage, followed by the questions and possible answers from which Dwayne would have to choose. She paused to provide him time to respond. Dwayne, however, says, "Ms. Beckett, I didn't understand it. Please read it again."

Ms. Beckett thinks, "Does he really want me to read the whole passage again? He probably only needs to hear the middle section to respond to the question."

WHAT IS YOUR PERSPECTIVE?

1. If you were in Ms. Beckett's position, what would you do? Check the Web to find what you are required to do as the teacher providing the accommodation that Dwayne needs. What did you learn?
2. Could, and should, teachers or test prompters guide students to the correct answers? What might happen to a teacher who provided inappropriate assistance to a student?
3. What is the purpose of the annual testing of student achievement? Do you agree with these purposes, and why or why not?
4. Why are many teachers and parents concerned about the annual testing requirements?

It is the concerted opinion of the authors of this book, as well as other educators, that educators have, for a long time, clearly been members of a true and proud profession, fully as much as any other profession. We sincerely congratulate you on your considering to join this true and proud profession. We also wish you good luck and success on your educational journey.

Continued Importance of Private Schools

Nearly all early schools in colonial America were private, and religion was the main purpose of education at that time. Children were taught to read primarily so that they could study the Bible, and most early colleges were private and existed primarily to train ministers.

As the public school system developed, however, the religious nature of education gradually diminished to the point that relatively few U.S. children attended religious schools. There have always been certain religious groups, however, that have labored to create and maintain their own private schools so that religious instruction could permeate all areas of the curriculum. The most notable of these religious groups has long been the Roman Catholic Church. During the past twenty-five years, though, enrollment in non-Catholic religious schools has grown dramatically, whereas Catholic school enrollment has declined somewhat.

Despite this recent trend, some Roman Catholic dioceses operate extremely large school systems, sometimes larger than the public school system in the same geographical area. One example is the Chicago archdiocese, which operates one of the largest Roman Catholic school systems in the United States.

With rare exceptions, private and parochial schools struggle to raise the funds they need to exist. They typically must charge a tuition fee, rely on private contributions, and conduct various fund-raising activities to do so. In recent years, some school districts have made tuition vouchers available to parents who choose not to send their children to public schools.

Home Schooling

Many years ago, with few exceptions, the only parents who taught their children at home were those who lived so far from a school that it was impossible for their children to attend. In the past several decades, however, a growing number of parents have been choosing to educate their children at home—at least through the elementary grades and sometimes even through high school. The motivation for **home schooling** varies, but often it stems from a concern that children in the public schools may be exposed to problems such as drugs, alcohol, smoking, or gangs.

Other parents have religious motives, wanting their children to be taught in a particular religious context. Still other parents, who may have had bad experiences with public schools, simply feel they can provide a better education for their children at home. Recent laws and court cases have generally upheld the right within certain parameters of parents to educate their children if they choose to do so. The number of parents providing home schooling has grown each year in the last decade. A recent development among a minority of those who home school is a philosophy sometimes referred to as *unschooling* or *non-schooling*, in which parents provide no formal instruction but allow their children to learn through whatever they naturally do. As one would expect, there are many different perspectives on the value of home schooling in our society.

Continuing/Adult Education

Many forms of education for adults have existed for at least two centuries in this country. Shortly after the United States became a nation, the need to help new immigrants learn English caused schools, churches, and various groups to offer English language instruction; factories found a need to offer job and safety training; churches taught adult religious instruction; and so forth. The New York public schools, as well as many other large school systems, developed extensive English language programs as well as adult vocational programs for people who were unemployed. Adult education took a great variety of forms and quickly grew into a vast network of programs dealing with nearly all aspects of life in the United States.

An example of a large early adult education development can be found in the Chautauqua movement at Lake Chautauqua, New York. Started in 1874 by the Methodist Sunday school, this adult education effort expanded to include correspondence courses, lecture classes, music

Home schooling: Teaching children at home rather than in formal schools.

education, and literary study on a wide variety of subjects throughout the eastern part of the nation.

Public schools increasingly offered adult education classes during the nineteenth century. Some of the larger public school systems, such as the one in Gary, Indiana, developed adult educational programs with an emphasis on vocational and technical training. Gradually, nearly all schools serving rural areas developed adult agricultural education programs to improve farming methods.

In 1964, the Economic Opportunity Act provided adult basic education funding to help adults learn to read and write. Since that time, there has been a proliferation of continuing/adult education programs of all types throughout the United States. These programs serve an increasingly important purpose in our rapidly changing society, helping adults meet the challenges they face. They help new immigrants learn the English language, provide job training for people who are unemployed, update job skills, teach parenting skills, enable people to move to higher level employment, help people explore new hobbies, provide enrichment programs for retired folks, and generally make the world of education available to nearly all citizens regardless of age. The exploding popularity of the Elderhostel programs (as they were then called) and other activities now offered for senior citizens and the crowded evening parking lots at high schools and colleges throughout the country attest to the popularity and success of continuing/adult education programs. In the future, as the world becomes increasingly complex and as more people remain active and healthy in old age, we predict that such adult/continuing education programs will continue to grow. You will likely have opportunities to eventually teach and/or enroll in such programs, as many teachers now do.

Evolution of Educational Testing

Educators have undoubtedly attempted to measure and assess student learning from the very beginning of formal education. However, it is only in the last sixty years that educational assessment has taken on vastly more importance, to the point in contemporary education that many feel that assessment has become the proverbial "tail that wags the dog" in education decision making. Let's briefly review this recent evolution of educational assessment.

Many historians suggest that the increased attention given to educational testing in the past sixty years was sparked by James Conant, who had become president of Harvard University in 1933. Conant and his colleagues were influenced by the developments in mental ability testing done by Alfred Binet in France and by Lewis Terman in the United States, which were first used extensively by the U.S. Army to test recruits.

Conant seized on a relatively new test called the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), developed by Carl Bright at Princeton University, as a way to assess a student's potential for success at Harvard. He also helped to create a new organization, called the Educational Testing Service (ETS), which became—and remains—one of the major powers in the educational assessment area. By the 1960s, more than a million high school students were taking the SAT, which most colleges used as one criterion for admission.

Many so-called standardized tests have been developed during the past sixty years in an attempt to measure different kinds of aptitude, learning, motivation, and virtually every aspect of education. These standardized tests have come under much criticism from many educators, parents, and others who question their fairness and accuracy. Even so, they continue to be heavily used today.

Educators have faced increasing pressure in recent years to develop improved ways to assess student learning. Much of this pressure has come from taxpayers, government, and the industrial world, often in the form of a demand for greater accountability. Most states have implemented a required system of achievement testing. The results of these achievement tests are commonly used to evaluate and compare schools—a controversial and unfair practice, according to many educators. Although highly debatable, the results of these tests are even sometimes used as one criterion for funding schools and for teacher salaries. You may likely be involved in this debate at some time during your educational career.

In fact, while agreeing that accurate educational assessment is absolutely essential to the educational enterprise, a growing number of educators are questioning many aspects of the increasing emphasis on educational assessment. This important topic will be discussed in various

places throughout the text. Suffice it to point out here that educational assessment has grown rapidly and taken on increasing importance, for better or worse, in the past sixty years.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING 3.2

Complete Check Your Understanding 3.2 to gauge your understanding of the concepts in this section.

Changing Aims of Education

The aims of education in the United States have reflected changing perspectives on education over the years. During colonial times, the overriding aim of education at all levels was to enable students to read and understand the Bible, to gain salvation, and to spread the gospel.

After the colonies won independence from England, educational objectives—such as providing U.S. citizens with a common language, attempting to instill a sense of patriotism, developing a national feeling of unity and common purpose, and providing the technical and agricultural training the developing nation needed—became important tasks for the schools.

Committee of Ten

In 1892, a committee was established by the National Education Association (NEA) to study the function of the U.S. high school. This committee, known as the **Committee of Ten**, made an effort to set down the purposes of the high school at that time and made the following recommendations: (1) High school should consist of grades 7 through 12; (2) courses should be arranged sequentially; (3) students should be given very few electives in high school; and (4) one unit, called a Carnegie unit, should be awarded for each separate course that a student takes each year provided that the course meets four or five times each week all year long.

The Committee of Ten also recommended trying to graduate high school students earlier to permit them to attend college sooner. At that time, the recommendation implied that high schools had a college preparatory function. These recommendations became powerful influences in shaping secondary education.

Seven Cardinal Principles

Before 1900, teachers had relatively little direction in their work because most educational goals were not precisely stated. This problem was partly overcome in 1918 when the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education published the report cardinal principles of secondary education, usually just referred to as the *Seven Cardinal Principles*. In reality, the Seven Cardinal Principles constitute only one section of the basic principles discussed in the original text, but that is the part that has become famous. These principles stated that the student should receive an education in the following seven fields: health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocation, civic education, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character.

The Eight-Year Study

The following goals of education, or "needs of youth," were listed by the Progressive Education Association in 1938 and grew out of the Eight-Year Study of thirty high schools conducted by the association from 1932 to 1940:

1. Physical and mental health
2. Self-assurance
3. Assurance of growth toward adult status
4. Philosophy of life
5. Wide range of personal interests
6. Aesthetic appreciations

Committee of Ten: An historic National Education Association (NEA) committee that studied secondary education in 1892.

7. Intelligent self-direction
8. Progress toward maturity in social relations with age-mates and adults
9. Wise use of goods and services
10. Vocational orientation
11. Vocational competence.[1]

"Purposes of Education in American Democracy"

Also in 1938, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association set forth the "Purposes of Education in American Democracy." These objectives stated that students should receive an education in the four broad areas of self-realization, human relations, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

"Education for All American Youth"

In 1944, this same commission of the NEA published another statement of educational objectives, entitled "Education for All American Youth":

> Schools should be dedicated to the proposition that every youth in these United States—regardless of sex, economic status, geographic location, or race—should experience a broad and balanced education which will;
>
> 1. equip him/her to enter an occupation suited to his abilities and offering reasonable opportunity for personal growth and social usefulness;
> 2. prepare her/him to assume full responsibilities of American citizenship;
> 3. give him/her a fair chance to exercise his right to the pursuit of happiness through the attainment and preservation of mental and physical health;
> 4. stimulate intellectual curiosity, engender satisfaction in intellectual achievement, and cultivate the ability to think rationally; and
> 5. help to develop an appreciation of the ethical values which should undergird all life in a democratic society.[2]

"Imperative Needs of Youth"

In 1952, the Educational Policies Commission made yet another statement of educational objectives, entitled "Imperative Needs of Youth":

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent productive participant in economic life. To this end most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.
2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.
3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.
4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.
5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.
6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.
7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.
8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

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[1] The Story of The Eight-Year Study With Conclusions And Recommendations, Vol 1 by the Progressive Education Association Publications Commission on the Relations of Schools and Colleges by Wilford M. Aikin. Published by Harper Brothers in 1942.

[2] From 1944 NEA Statement in NEA Today. Copyright © 1944 by National Education Association. Reprinted by permission of the National Education Association.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.
10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.[3]

These various statements concerning educational objectives made during the last century sum up fairly well the historical aims of U.S. public education. These changing aims also show how perspectives on the purposes of education have evolved over time.

The following "Differing Perspectives" feature shows that differing perspectives on the aims of education still exist today.

DIFFERING PERSPECTIVES

IS TEACHING MANNERS A GOOD USE OF CLASSROOM TIME?

Historically, schools emphasized the teaching of manners, but schools today have tended to place less emphasis on this subject, a trend that some believe to be unfortunate.

YES

Kirk Hollinbeck teaches fourth grade at Procter Elementary in Independence, Missouri.

When children aren't taught manners at home, I believe the responsibility falls to the school. Teaching students how to respond when greeted, to say please and thank you, and to make eye contact are skills that last a lifetime. In recent years, mounting expectations, additional responsibilities, and dwindling resources have made teaching more stressful. How can we find time to teach manners and courtesy? I incorporate them into my student behavior expectations. I teach the importance of good manners and courtesy the first day and model positive behaviors all year. I teach "please" and "thank you" when I pass out pretzels or cereal for snack time. Students have two choices when I offer a snack: they can say "thank you" or "no thank you." Mouths drop when I take the snack back because a student forgot to say "thank you." I model courtesy through my interactions with students, colleagues, and parents. We practice how to make eye contact and discuss ways to respond when greeted.

I was surprised that many students have never been taught what to do when someone says "good morning." When I talk with a student or another adult, my students have learned that they must wait until our conversation has finished before I will talk to them. Is teaching manners and courtesy a good use of classroom time? Do you prefer adults who are polite or rude?

NO

Carolyn Cowgill is a retired teacher from the Central Bucks School District in Doylestown, Pennsylvania.

School is a social experience, and teachers will always spend some time each day dealing with manners. However, with so many academic subjects to thoroughly introduce, discuss, and lock in (especially with testing requirements), it should not be the teacher's responsibility to teach basic manners as part of the formal curriculum. Manners should be taught at home from the time a parent begins the dialogue while feeding and diapering the baby!

Before a child enters school, caretakers, parents, or relatives need to define traditional boundaries and reward courteous interactions with others. Before starting school, children must learn patience, to consider others' space and feelings, how to communicate their needs politely, and to treat each other with kindness. If parents have done their job, teachers only need to reinforce manners in the classroom and on the playground. Most children will accept the rules at school because they have already heard them at home, and having sets of rules makes children feel safe.

Further, because children pick up somewhat different cues for manners in each unique culture, families are the best teachers of manners. When children begin school, they then have a basis for observing their classmates and teachers and adapting to appropriate classroom manners.

WHAT IS YOUR PERSPECTIVE ON THIS ISSUE?

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING 3.3

Complete Check Your Understanding 3.3 to gauge your understanding of the concepts in this section.

[3] From Educational Policies Commission 1952 in NEA Today. Copyright © 1952 by National Education Association. Reprinted by permission of the National Education Association.

Preparation of Teachers

Because most present-day teachers have excellent preparation including at least four—and often five or more years of college education, it is difficult to believe that teachers have historically had little or no training.

European Beginnings of Teacher Training

The first formal teacher-training school in the Western world of which we have any record was mentioned in a request to the king of England, written by William Bynghamin 1438, requesting that "he may yeve withouten fyn or fee (the) mansion ycalled Goddeshous the which he hath made and edified in your towne of Cambridge for the free herbigage of poure scolers of Gramer" Armytage, 1951.[4]

Bynghamwas granted his request and established Goddeshous College as a teacher-training institution on June 13, 1439. Students at this college gave demonstration lectures to fellow students to gain practice teaching. Classes were even conducted during vacations so that country schoolmasters could also attend. Bynghamm's college still exists today as Christ's College of Cambridge University. At that early date of 1439, Bynghamm made provision for two features that are still considered important in teacher education today: scheduling classes in the summer so that teachers in service can attend and providing some kind of student teaching experience. Many present-day educators would probably be surprised to learn that these ideas are nearly 600 years old.

Teachers in the various kinds of colonial elementary schools typically had only an elementary education themselves, but a few had attended a Latin grammar school or a private academy. It was commonly believed that to be a teacher required only that the instructor know something about the subject matter to be taught; therefore, no teacher, regardless of the level taught, received training in the methodology of teaching in Colonial America.

Because many colonial schools were conducted in connection with a church, the teacher was often considered an assistant to the minister. Besides teaching, other duties of some early colonial teachers were "to act as court messenger, to serve summonses, to conduct certain ceremonial services of the church, to lead the Sunday choir, to ring the bell for public worship, to dig the graves, and to perform other occasional duties."

Colonial Teachers

As you can see, elementary school teachers in colonial America were very poorly prepared; in fact, more often than not, they had received no special training at all. The single qualification of most teachers was that they themselves had been students. On the other hand, most colonial college teachers, private tutors, Latin grammar school teachers, and academy teachers had received some kind of additional education, usually at one of the well-established colleges or universities in Europe. As time passed, however, a few received their education at an American colonial college.

Teachers as Indentured Servants

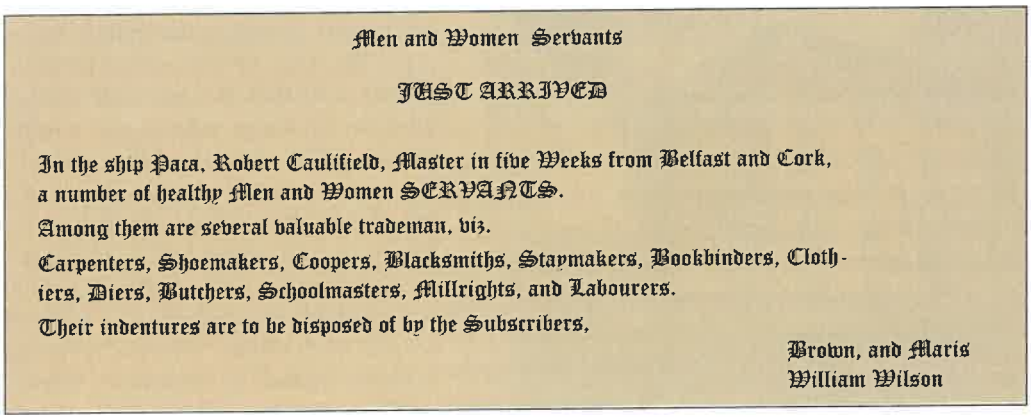
One of the first forms of teacher training grew out of the medieval guild system, in which a young man who wished to enter a certain field of work served a lengthy period of apprenticeship with a master in the field.

Sometimes the colonies used white indentured servants as teachers. Many people who came to the United States bought passage by agreeing to work for some years as indentured servants. The ship's captain would then sell the indentured servant's services, more often than not by placing an ad in a newspaper. Such an ad, shown in Figure 3.1, appeared in a May 1786 edition of the *Maryland Gazette*.

Records reveal that among early immigrants who were advertised and sold as teachers, there were many indentured servants and convicted felons. In fact, it has been estimated that at least one-half of all the teachers in colonial America may have come from these sources. This is not necessarily a derogatory description of these early teachers when we consider that many poor people bought their passage to the colonies by agreeing to serve as indentured servants for a period of years and that in England at that time, hungry and desperate people could be convicted as felons and deported for simply stealing a loaf of bread.

[4] Excerpt from *An Interim Report on Salmon Restoration in the St. Croix, Aroostook, and St. John Rivers by Scott H. Bair, George Armytage Rounsefell*. Published by U.S. Department of the Interior, 1951.

FIGURE 3.1 1786 Advertisement for Indentured Servants—some as schoolmasters



Men and Women Servants

JUST ARRIVED

In the ship Paca, Robert Caulifield, Master in five Weeks from Belfast and Cork, a number of healthy Men and Women SERVANTS.

Among them are several valuable trademan, viz.

Carpenters, Shoemakers, Coopers, Blacksmiths, Staymakers, Bookbinders, Clothiers, Diers, Butchers, Schoolmasters, Millrights, and Labourers.

Their indentures are to be disposed of by the Subscribers,

Brown, and Maris
William Wilson

Teaching Apprenticeships

Some colonial teachers learned their trade by serving as apprentices to schoolmasters. Court records reveal numerous such indentures of apprenticeship; the following was recorded in New York City in 1772:

> This Indenture witnesseth that John Campbel Son of Robert Campbel of the City of New York with the Consent of his father and mother hath put himself and by these presents doth Voluntarily put and bind himself Apprentice to George Brownell of the Same City Schoolmaster to learn the Art Trade or Mastery—for and during the term of ten years And the said George Brownell Doth hereby Covenant and Promise to teach and instruct or Cause the said Apprentice to be taught and instructed in the Art Trade or Calling of a Schoolmaster by the best way or means he or his wife may or can. (From Court Records New York City, © 1772.)[5]

Teacher Training in Academies

One of Benjamin Franklin's justifications for proposing an academy in Philadelphia was that some of the graduates would make good teachers. Speculating on the need for such graduates, Franklin wrote,

> A number of the poorer sort [of academy graduates] will be hereby qualified to act as Schoolmasters in the Country, to teach children Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, and the Grammar of their Mother Tongue, and being of good morals and known character, may be recommended from the Academy to Country Schools for that purpose; the Country suffering at present very much for want of good Schoolmasters, and obliged frequently to employ in their schools, vicious imported servants, or concealed Papists, who by their bad Examples and Instructions often deprave the Morals and corrupt the Principles of the children under their Care. (From Academy of Philadelphia: Paper on the Academy by Benjamin Franklin. Published by University of Pennsylvania, © 1750.)[6]

The fact that Franklin said some of the "poorer" graduates would make suitable teachers reflects the low regard for teachers typical of the time. The academy that Franklin proposed was established in 1751 in Philadelphia, and many graduates of academies after that time did indeed become teachers.

Normal Schools

Many early educators recognized this country's need for better-qualified teachers; however, it was not until 1823 that the first teacher-training institution was established in the United States. This private school, called a **normal school** after its European prototype, which had existed since the late seventeenth century, was established by the Reverend Mr. Samuel Hall in Concord, Vermont.

Normal school: The first type of American institution devoted exclusively to teacher training.

[5] Court records, New York City, 1772.

[6] Benjamin Franklin, "Paper on the academy," July 31, 1750.

Source: Universal Images Group North America LLC (Lake County Discovery Museum)/Alamy Stock Photo.

The first state normal school was adopted from European teacher training schools and is still standing in Lexington, Massachusetts.

Hall's school did not produce many teachers, but it did signal the beginning of formal teacher training in the United States.

The early normal school program usually consisted of a two-year course. Students typically entered the normal school right after finishing elementary school; most normal schools did not require high school graduation for entrance until about 1900. The nineteenth-century normal school curriculum was much like the curriculum of the high schools of that time. Students reviewed subjects studied in elementary school, studied high school subjects, had a course in teaching (or "pedagogy," as it was then called), and did some student teaching in a model school, usually operated in conjunction with the normal school. The subjects offered by a normal school in Albany, New York, in 1845 included English grammar, English composition, history, geography, reading, writing, orthography, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, human physiology, surveying, natural philosophy, chemistry, intellectual philosophy, moral philosophy, government, rhetoric, theory and practice of teaching, drawing, music, astronomy, and practice teaching.

Horace Mann was instrumental in establishing the first state-supported normal school, which opened in 1839 in Lexington, Massachusetts. Other public normal schools, established shortly afterward, also typically offered a two-year teacher-training program. Some of the students came directly from elementary school; others had completed secondary school. Some states did not establish state-supported normal schools until the early 1900s.

State Teachers' Colleges

During the early part of the twentieth century, several factors caused a significant change in normal schools. For one thing, as the population of the United States increased, so did the enrollment in elementary schools, thereby creating an ever-increasing demand for elementary school teachers. Likewise, as more people attended high school, more high school teachers were needed. To meet this demand, normal schools eventually expanded their curriculum to include secondary teacher education. The growth of high schools also created a need for teachers who were highly specialized in particular academic subjects, so normal schools gradually established subject matter departments and developed more diversified programs. The length of the teacher education program was expanded to two, three, and finally four years; this longer duration fostered development and diversification of the normal school curriculum. The demand for teachers increased from about 20,000 in 1900 to more than 200,000 in 1930, only thirty years later.

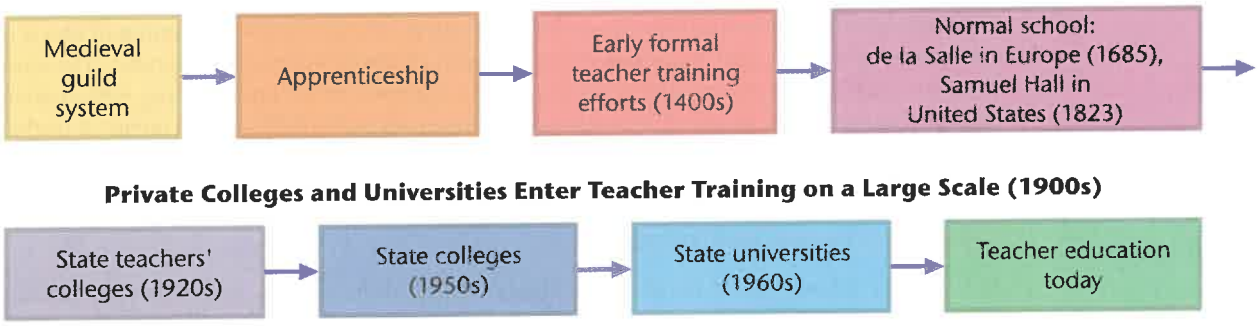
The United States gradually advanced technologically to the point at which more college-educated citizens were needed. The normal schools assumed a responsibility to help meet this need by establishing many other academic programs in addition to teacher training. As normal schools extended their programs to four years and began granting baccalaureate degrees, they also began to call themselves *state teachers'* colleges. For most institutions, the change in name took place during the 1930s.

Changes in Mid-Twentieth-Century Teacher Education

Universities entered the teacher preparation business on a large scale around 1900. Before then, some graduates of universities had become high school teachers or college teachers, but not until about 1900 did universities begin to establish departments of education and add a full range of teacher education programs to the curriculum.

Just as the normal schools expanded in size, scope, and function until they became state teachers' colleges, so the state teachers' colleges expanded to become state colleges. This change in name and scope took place for most institutions around 1950. The elimination of the word *teacher* really explains the story behind this transition. The new *state colleges* gradually expanded their programs beyond teacher education and became multipurpose institutions. One of the main

FIGURE 3.2 Evolution of Teacher Preparation Institutions



reasons for this transition was that a growing number of students coming to the colleges demanded a more varied education. The state teachers' colleges developed diversified programs to try to meet students' demands.

Many of these state colleges later became state universities, offering doctoral degrees in a wide range of fields. Some of our largest and most highly regarded universities evolved from normal schools. Figure 3.2 diagrams the evolution of U.S. teacher preparation institutions.

Obviously, developing our teaching profession has been a long and difficult task. Preparation of teachers has greatly improved over the years from colonial times—when anyone could be a teacher—to the present, when people (only the best and the brightest) such as you must meet rigorous requirements for permanent teacher certification.

JOURNAL FOR REFLECTION 3.2

1. Describe and evaluate a learning experience you remember from early in your own school days.
2. What made the experience memorable, and what role did the teacher play in the learning process?

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING 3.4

Complete Check Your Understanding 3.4 to gauge your understanding of the concepts in this section.

Recent Trends in Education

Education experienced major changes and a wide variety of perspectives following World War II as John Dewey, George Counts, William Bagley, W. W. Charters, Lewis Terman, and other intellectuals who had held sway during the first half of the twentieth century yielded to a somewhat less philosophically oriented breed of researchers represented by Abraham Maslow, Robert Havighurst, Benjamin Bloom, J. P. Guilford, Lee Cronbach, Jerome Bruner, Marshall McLuhan, Noam Chomsky, and Jean Piaget.[7] The Progressive Education Association closed its doors, and a series of White House conferences on children, youth, and education were inaugurated in an attempt to improve education.

No school system on earth has been scrutinized, analyzed, and dissected as profoundly and as mercilessly as that in the United States. From the late 1940s to the mid-1950s, educational institutions at all levels were not only flooded with unprecedented numbers of students but also censored and flailed unmercifully by self-ordained critics (including Hyman Rickover, Arthur Bestor, and Rudolph Flesch, to name just a few). In retrospect, this frantic rush to simultaneously patronize and criticize the institution seems a curious contradiction. The public schools were

[7] We thank Dr. Donald Barnes for many of the ideas presented in this section.

characterized as godless, soft, undisciplined, uncultured, wasteful, and disorganized. Critics who remembered the high failure rates on tests given to World War II draftees were determined to raise the public's levels of physical fitness and literacy; others who detected a weakening of moral and spiritual values were eager to initiate citizenship and character education programs. The enrollment in nonpublic schools doubled, correspondence schools of all kinds sprang into existence, and the popular press carried articles about programs designed to help parents augment the basic skills taught within the school program. In 1955, there were an estimated 450 correspondence schools serving 700,000 students throughout the country.

New Emphases in Education

Fortunately, although some people were highly critical of the schools, not everybody panicked. There were physical fitness programs, character education projects, a general tightening of educational standards, and much more. J. P. Guilford, E. Paul Torrence, Jacob Getzels, and others explored the boundaries of creativity; Alfred Barr and D. G. Ryans carried out exhaustive studies of teacher characteristics; and just about everybody experimented with new patterns of organization. There were primary block programs, multi-age groupings, plans devised by and named for George Stoddard and J. Lloyd Trump, core programs, and a host of other patterns or combinations of plans structured around subject areas, broad groupings of subjects, or pupil characteristics. There were programs for the gifted and the not-so-gifted, and there was a new concern for foreign language instruction as well as the functional use of English. There was also a limited resurgence of Montessori schools and several one-of-a-kind experimental schools such as Amidon and Summerhill. While all this was taking place within the schools, the school systems themselves were consolidating; by 1960 there were only about one-third as many school districts as had existed twenty years earlier.

ANALYSIS OF TEACHING. Another emphasis found expression in the **analysis of teaching**. For half a century, researchers had been attempting to identify the characteristics and teaching styles that were most closely associated with effective instruction. Hundreds of studies had been initiated, and correlations had been done among them. During the 1950s, the focus began changing from identification of what ought to occur in teaching to scrutiny of what actually did occur. Ned Flanders and other researchers developed observational scales for assessing verbal communications between and among teachers and students. The scales permitted observers to categorize and summarize specific actions by teachers and students. These analyses were followed by studies of *nonverbal classroom behaviors*.

Another series of investigations involving the wider range of instructional protocols was patterned after the time-and-motion studies used earlier for industrial processes. Dwight Allen and several other educators attempted to analyze teacher behaviors, delineate the components of effective teaching, and introduce teacher candidates to the elements judged most important to good teaching. The change in focus from studies of teacher characteristics to analyses of what actually occurs in classrooms has offered educators highly fruitful insights into teaching and learning and has provided usable instruments for further investigations of classroom behavior. It is now possible to assess the logical, verbal, nonverbal, affective, and attitudinal dimensions of instruction, as well as the intricate aspects of cognition and concept development.

Analysis of teaching: Procedures used to enable teachers to critique their own performance in the classroom.

TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS. During the past fifty years, research has focused even more closely on the instructional patterns of effective teachers. The **effective teaching** movement that is based on this research offers today's teachers important skills. In common with the schoolteachers of sixty years ago, today's teachers learn to be strong leaders who direct classroom activities, maximize the use of instructional time, and teach in a clear, businesslike manner.

Effective teaching: A movement to improve teaching performance based on the outcomes of educational research.

Effective teachers now employ structured, carefully delineated lessons. They break larger topics into smaller, more easily grasped components, and they focus on one thought, point, or direction at a time. They check prerequisite skills before introducing new skills or concepts. They accompany step-by-step presentations with many probing questions. Teachers offer detailed explanations of difficult points and test students on one point before moving on to the next. They provide corrective feedback where needed and stay with the topic under study until students comprehend the major points or issues. Effective teachers use prompts and cues to assist students through the initial stages of acquisition.

This recent emphasis on demonstration, prompting, and practice is a far cry from the relatively unstructured classroom activities of the recent past. We now emphasize carefully created learning goals and lesson sequences. It is likely that the educational pendulum may swing to a new focus on teaching strategies, student concerns, and initiatives at some time in the future.

THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY. In some sense, even very early educators made use of what might be considered forms of basic educational technology. For instance, if a caveman or cavewoman used a stick or a finger to draw a symbol of something in the dirt or sand in an effort to teach a child something, that might be considered a rudimentary form of educational technology. Printed words are a form of educational technology, just as hornbooks used as early as the Middle Ages contained printed words. The use of pictures, such as those included in the form of woodcuts in early books, are also forms of early educational technology.

Needless to say, technology has evolved over time to the advanced forms that we are familiar with today—technological advancements that early educators undoubtedly never dreamed of. One wonders what forms of educational technology—that we, during this age, cannot even imagine—might be developed at some point in the future. What do you think might happen in future technology?

STUDY OF THE LEARNING PROCESS. Several leading educational researchers in the United States and Europe have sought to analyze and describe how children learn. All of these investigators have stressed the importance of successful early learning patterns and the problems associated with serious learning deficits. They also believe that important elements within the environment may be changed or modified to promote learning. Lev Vygotsky, a Russian, developed a social development theory in the late 1800s that suggested social interaction among children plays a major role in cognitive development. His work contributed significantly to the founding of *constructionist psychology*.

Robert Havighurst, a University of Chicago professor, identified specific developmental tasks that he believes children must master if they are to develop normally. He even suggests there may be periods during which certain tasks must be mastered if they are to become an integral part of children's repertoire of responses. There may also be "teachable moments" (periods of peak efficiency for the acquisition of specific concepts/skills) during which receptivity is particularly high. Havighurst has caused educators to look carefully at the motivations and needs of children (Havighurst & Neugarten, 1962).

Jean Piaget. A Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget (1896–1980) was educated at the University of Paris. Through his work with Alfred Binet, who developed one of the first intelligence tests, Piaget became interested in how children learn. He spent long hours observing children of different ages and eventually created a theory of mental or **cognitive development**.

Cognitive development: A learner's acquisition of facts, concepts, and principles through mental activity.

Piaget believed that children learn facts, concepts, and principles in four major stages.

- Stage 1: Up until about age two, he suggested, a child is at the *sensorimotor stage* and learns mainly through the hands, mouth, and eyes.
- Stage 2: From about two to seven years of age, a child is at the *preoperational stage* and learns primarily through language and concepts.
- Stage 3: Between ages seven and eleven, a child's learning is characterized by *concrete operations*, which involve the use of more complex concepts such as numbers.
- Stage 4: The final learning stage identified by Piaget is called the *formal operations* stage. This stage typically begins between ages eleven and fifteen and continues throughout adulthood. During this final stage, the learner employs the most sophisticated and abstract learning processes. Although children do not all fit neatly into these categories, Piaget's work has contributed much to educators' understanding of the learning process and has helped teachers develop more appropriate teaching strategies for students at different developmental stages.

Source: Bettmann/Corbis

Jean Piaget, French child psychologist.

Many important educators were concerned about providing good education for all children, including those of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds. The authors of this textbook believe that knowledge of educational history can help contemporary educators better serve students in

TEACHING IN CHALLENGING TIMES

Can a Knowledge of History Help to Improve Multicultural Education?

When you become a teacher, you will be expected to provide multicultural education for your students, regardless of the age level or subjects you teach. Most teachers today face the dilemma of wanting to provide their students with a high-quality multicultural program but being frustrated by the lack of time and support for doing so.

As you will learn, racial and ethnic prejudice and injustice have been present throughout U.S. educational history. Unfortunately, there is still considerable racial and ethnic strife in the United States today, and much of this strife has filtered into the halls of education. Debates rage about how schools should meet the educational demands of a complex multicultural society. As a teacher, you will be expected to join in this debate and help search for answers.

James Banks, a leading researcher in multicultural education at the University of Washington, feels past efforts have been too superficial. He asserts that "additive approaches" treat multicultural material as "an appendage to the main story of the development of the nation and to the core curriculum." Instead, multicultural education should integrate multicultural perspectives throughout the curriculum, on an equal footing with white European perspectives.

Despite the lack of both time and adequate school district encouragement and support, there are many things that a determined and creative teacher can do to integrate multicultural education throughout the curriculum. Teachers can also encourage the school district to develop and support comprehensive programs for multicultural education and then participate in developing those plans.

WHAT ARE MY CHALLENGES?

1. What are the historical antecedents that have contributed to the lack of racial and ethnic understanding in U.S. society?
2. Should education programs seek to eliminate cultural differences among individuals or to preserve and perhaps celebrate them?
3. What can you do in your classroom to improve multicultural education? Why and how?
4. What additional information would you like about multicultural education, and where might you find such information?

general and, for example, can help them improve multicultural education, which is especially challenging to educators today. The accompanying "Teaching in Challenging Times" feature explores this possibility.

A contemporary of Havighurst, Jerome Bruner of Harvard, has also postulated a series of developmental steps or stages that he believes children encounter as they mature. These involve action, imagery, and symbolism. Bruner's cognitive views have stressed student inquiry and the breaking down of larger tasks into components.

Benjamin Bloom, author of *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* and distinguished service professor at the University of Chicago, has attempted to identify and weigh the factors that control learning. He believes that one can predict learning outcomes by assessing three factors: (1) the cognitive entry behaviors of a student (the extent to which the pupil has mastered prerequisite skills), (2) the affective entry characteristics (the student's interest in learning the material), and (3) the quality of instruction (the degree to which the instruction offered is appropriate for the learner). Bloom's research is reflected in models of direct instruction, particularly mastery learning, in which teachers carefully explain, illustrate, and demonstrate skills and provide practice, reinforcement, corrective feedback, and remediation.

B. F. SKINNER. Burrhus Frederic (B. F.) Skinner (1904–1990) became one of the foremost early educational psychologists in U.S. education. He developed **behavioral theory**, which was a theory focusing on outward behavior that suggested students could be successfully trained and conditioned to learn just about anything a teacher desired.

Behavioral theory: A theory that considers the outward behavior of students to be the main target for change.

This required the teacher to break down the learning into small sequential steps. Skinner even experimented with teaching machines that presented the learner with small sequential bits of information—an idea that has been revived today in the form of computer-assisted instruction. Skinner published many works, including *The Technology of Teaching, Beyond Freedom and Dignity*, and *Walden Two*. He contributed much to our present-day understanding of human learning and helped to advance the technology of teaching.

Educational Critics

Another change in education was pointed out by yet another phalanx of critics—all holding differing perspectives but all focusing on low educational standards—including Edgar Friedenberg (*Coming of Age in America*), Charles Silberman (*Crisis in the Classroom*), Jonathan Kozol (*Death at an Early Age*), Ivan Illich (*Deschooling Society*), John Holt (*How Children Fail*), and even the federal government (*A Nation at Risk*, 1983). Some critics, such as Silberman, urged schools to refurbish what they already have; others, including Illich, wanted to abandon the schools altogether. These critics have not gone unnoticed: Friedenberg's call for alternatives to traditional education, Silberman's endorsement of open education, and Kozol's plea for equal opportunity are all reflected to some degree in innovative programs currently being used from coast to coast.

JOURNAL FOR REFLECTION 3.3

What are your perspectives on some of the relatively recent trends in education that you have observed or experienced? Record your responses in your journal.

Some Major Educational Events of the Past Century

As we moved into the twenty-first century, many people reflected on educational accomplishments in the United States during the past hundred years. As would be expected, perspectives differ considerably on this subject. Ben Brodinsky, an education journalist, has suggested that the WWII GI Bill of Rights should perhaps be considered the single most important educational event of the past century. He lists the desegregation of schools as the second most important and the federal Education for All Handicapped Children Act as the third most important educational event of the twentieth century.

As you just now have read, many important educational events and accomplishments occurred during the twentieth century—the list could go on and on. One example of significant progress made by the U.S. educational system in the past seventy-five years is reflected in the increased percentage of students completing high school—from about 50 percent in 1940 to about 70 percent in 1990. What would you put on your list of the most important educational changes, events, and/or accomplishments of the last century?

Figure 3.3 shows a timeline of yet other efforts that have influenced education over the past half-century.

It is difficult to draw meaningful inferences from recent events that have not yet stood the test of time. The results of recent educational events will eventually be found in the answers to questions such as these: What should be the role of the federal government in education? How can equal educational opportunity be achieved in the United States? How much autonomy and freedom should teachers and school systems have? To what degree should educational policy and practice be influenced by litigation? How will school reform movements change the practice of education? What will be the expanding and evolving future role of technology in our schools? The answers to these questions—and other questions you may have in mind—will be colored by the perspectives through which people view the world, children, and schools. We believe that viewing all educational questions through well-informed historical perspectives yields more valid answers.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING 3.5

Complete Check Your Understanding 3.5 to gauge your understanding of the concepts in this section.

LOOKING BACK TO HELP US LOOK AHEAD!

As we have pointed out a number of times, perspectives on education have changed throughout history and are now changing ever more rapidly. This makes predicting the future of education very difficult—likely impossible, and probably foolhardy. Rather than attempting to do so, our best advice to you is that you should expect to experience many changes, challenges, and ever

FIGURE 3.3 Timeline of Selective Efforts to Improve Schools

	1953–61	1961–69	1969–74	1974–77	1977–81	1981–89	1989–93	1993–2001	2000s	2008–
Presidents	Eisenhower	Kennedy, Johnson	Nixon	Ford	Carter	Reagan	G. H. W. Bush	Clinton	G. W. Bush	Obama
Crisis	*Sputnik*	Civil rights	Vietnam			Ending the Cold War			Two wars and declining economy	Stimulating economic recovery
Federal Office for Education	U.S. Office of Education	U.S. Office of Education	U.S. Office of Education, National Institute of Education	U.S. Office of Education	U.S. Department of Education	U.S. Department of Education	U.S. Department of Education	U.S. Department of Education	U.S. Department of Education	U.S. Department of Education
Policies	Build state and local capacity to educate people with disabilities	Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)	Reauthorization of ESEA linking federal aid to student achievement	Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142)	Reauthorization of ESEA with federal aid dependent on rising test scores	Education summit; first meeting of president and governors	Reauthorization of ESEA, with high-stakes testing	Reauthorization of ESEA; called No Child Left Behind (NCLB), response to intervention (RTI)		American Recovery and Reinvestment Act
Related Reports and Publications						*A Nation at Risk*		*Goals 2000*	Public posting of test scores for all public schools	
Change Initiatives Based on Research		Major curriculum development projects: science and math	Effective teachers: direct instruction and classroom management			Effective schools: whole school and principals		School reform programs, school improvement, and value added	Standards, data-driven decision making, professional learning communities (PLCs)	Early childhood, reform and investment in K–12, restore leadership in higher education
Teacher Challenge					Effectively Help Students Learn					

diverse perspectives on education during your career as an educator. Of course, you will need to try to understand and adapt to these rapid changes and the challenges they present to you as an educator. Knowing and understanding educational history will help you do this better.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING 3.6

Complete Check Your Understanding 3.6 to gauge your understanding of the concepts in this section.

SUMMARY

MORE STUDENTS AND BIGGER SCHOOLS

- During the past seventy-five years, the U.S. education system has experienced unprecedented changes and growth in both size and complexity.
- The great increase in numbers of students over these years has created a challenging need for more school buildings and many more teachers.
- Population increases and shifts from rural settings to cities required bigger schools and large, elaborate school busing systems.
- There has also been an amazing expansion of educational curricula and program diversification for different types of students at all levels during the past sixty years.
- All of this growth in size and programs have resulted in a tremendous increase in school budgets.
- Programs for students with special needs have increased tremendously in recent history.
- There has also been notable growth in other educational programs designed to better serve the needs of the increasingly diverse student populations now found in our schools.

MORE CHANGES, CHALLENGES, AND PERSPECTIVES

- There have been many changes and improvements in the teaching profession during the past seventy-five years as U.S. educational systems have grown in complexity, especially in funding and control.
- The federal government has increased its involvement in public education through legislation and agencies such as the GI Bill, the National Science Foundation, the National Defense Education Act, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Project Head Start, Upward Bound, and the National Teacher Corps, to name just a few.
- Each of these federal acts, while providing funds for specific school programs, has also placed new demands and regulations on our schools.

CHANGING AIMS OF EDUCATION

- An impressive series of important statements has been made over the years in an attempt to determine and articulate the essential aims of education in the United States.
- These statements clearly show how perspectives on education have changed over time.

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

- The history of teacher preparation shows an evolution from very meager and humble beginnings centuries ago to a complex and professional state today.
- Educators should be proud of the history of advancement in the preparation of educators and be mindful and proud of the current rigorous professional training they receive.

RECENT TRENDS IN EDUCATION

- Many recent trends in education include professional advancements such as analysis of the teaching act, teacher effectiveness research, sociological studies, the development of new learning theories, and other research efforts designed to help us better understand and improve student learning.
- Widely read critics of our schools during the past sixty years include Friedenberg, Silberman, Kozol, Illich, and Holt.
- Various governmental agencies at the state and national levels have also been critical of our schools in recent years, resulting in many reports and calls for school reforms.

LOOKING BACK TO HELP US LOOK AHEAD!

- We live in a rapidly changing world that challenges teachers to "keep up-to-date."
- Even our understanding of the history of education changes.
- Every current educational challenge can be informed by educational history.

DISCUSSION STARTERS

1. Other than those mentioned in this chapter, what additional recent educational developments seem particularly important to you? Why are they important?
2. Has the increased federal involvement in education been good or bad for schools? How so?
3. In your opinion, in what respect, if any, has education become professionalized?
4. In your opinion, how much progress has the United States really made in providing equal educational opportunity? Defend your answer.
5. What is happening in education at this very moment that is likely to be written about in future history of education books?

SCHOOL-BASED OBSERVATIONS

1. As you work in the schools, look to see how the continuing struggle for equal educational opportunity is progressing. Also analyze what you observe in order to determine the degree to which teaching has been professionalized—a movement that has gained impetus during the last sixty years. Finally, as you participate in classrooms, look for evidence that the work of the educational pioneers discussed in this chapter (such as Bloom, Skinner, and Piaget) has made an impact in U.S. classrooms.
2. Discuss with experienced educators the changes they have observed during their careers. Visit with veteran educational administrators to discuss changes they have seen in education over the years.

PORTFOLIO DEVELOPMENT

1. Prepare a creative educational history project (using a poster, videotape, audio recording, slide presentation, or some other creative medium) dealing with a topic, person, or idea that is of interest to you. Design your project so that it can be used as part of your job placement credentials.
2. Create a list of the most useful outcomes of U.S. education during the past sixty years. What can you as a beginning teacher learn, if anything, from your list?

WEB SOLUTIONS

You are doing a PowerPoint presentation for a group of faculty in order to show how best practices have evolved throughout the years. You want to be able to show the classroom environment, organization, and materials that teachers have used in order to show that education is dynamic and adapts to changes over time. However, there are still contentious issues that remain; they are reflected in school curricula, lesson plans, and policies throughout the country. Go to the following websites, and do word searches to find others to help develop your presentation:

The *Scholastic Instructor* site contains a variety of educational materials such as articles, contests, free materials for teachers, and chats with other educators on many subjects, including the history of education.

The website of the *Smithsonian Institution* in Washington, D.C., includes much historical information.

A word search on *Dick and Jane Readers* yields much information about these books that were used in many early schools. They have now become popular collector items.

Source: Hero Images/Getty Images

4

Philosophy: Reflections on the Essence of Education

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After reading and studying this chapter, you should be able to:

1. List major philosophical questions associated with the three major branches of philosophy: metaphysics, epistemology, and axiology and describe different approaches to philosophical thinking. (InTASC 4: Content Knowledge)
2. Elaborate on the major tenets of idealism, realism, pragmatism, and existentialism and relate philosophical concepts to teaching and learning. (InTASC 1: Learner Development; InTASC 3: Learning Environments; InTASC 8: Instructional Strategies)
3. Describe the characteristics of Eastern and Native North American ways of knowing. (InTASC 2: Learning Differences; InTASC 9: Professional Learning and Ethical Practice)

EDUCATION in the NEWS

UK PARENTS WORRY SOCIAL MEDIA HINDERS KIDS' MORAL DEVELOPMENT

BY TRACI PEDERSEN

More than half of parents in the U.K. believe that popular social media sites, such as Facebook and Instagram, are hindering their children's moral development, according to a poll commissioned by researchers at the University of Birmingham.

The survey points to widespread parental anxieties regarding the influence of online networks on children as young as 11, who are often using the sites despite age limits.

The findings show that only 15 percent of parents think that popular social media sites offer a positive influence on young people's character. In contrast, 40 percent of parents said they were "concerned" or "extremely concerned" about the negative and potentially harmful impact of social media.

The U.K.-wide poll questioned over 1,700 parents of children aged 11 to 17. Researchers carried out this poll to investigate parents' perceptions around the influence of social media on children's character.

"There are some surprising findings in the poll, not the least the low level of agreement that social media can enhance or support a young person's character or moral development," said Dr. Blaire Morgan at the University of Birmingham.

Respondents pointed out a number of character strengths that they believed were lacking on social media: 24 percent said forgiveness and self-control was least present, followed by honesty (21 percent), fairness (20 percent), and humility (18 percent).

However, a bleaker picture emerged when parents were asked to name the negative character traits, or vices, they saw on social media at least once a month: 60 percent of parents named anger and hostility as the most negative trait displayed, followed by arrogance (51 percent); ignorance (43 percent); bad judgment (41 percent); and hatred (36 percent).

Vanity, commonly perceived to be a major negative character trait in the "selfie" generation, came further down at ninth place in the league table of social media vices, comprising of 30 percent of respondents.

"Social media is not going away, so by learning more about this relationship we should be able to maximise the benefits of its use and avoid the pitfalls," said Morgan.

Although the negative aspects of social media got the most attention, the poll findings suggest some cause for optimism: 72 percent of responding parents said they saw content with a positive moral message at least once a day. (Of all responding parents, 93 percent said they were regular social media users.)

This figure is higher than the percentage of respondents who said they regularly saw negative moral messages, suggesting social media is not purely an environment for moral misconduct.

The top five character strengths promoted at least once a month on social media sites were identified as the following: humor (52 percent), appreciation of beauty (51 percent), creativity (44 percent), love (39 percent), and courage (39 percent).

QUESTIONS FOR REFLECTION

1. UK parents cited anger, hostility, ignorance, bad judgment and hatred as vices that they saw at least once a month on social media. What classroom activity might you use that would help your learners recognize these negative traits within social media?
2. Philosophers study ethical behavior in light of big ideas such as goodness, justice, equity, and honesty. In what ways might you use social media to help students consider one or more of these big ideas?
3. Dr. Blaire Morgan contends that social media is not going away so parents and teachers need to maximize it benefits and avoid its pitfalls. How might you use media within your classroom so as to maximize its benefits?

Structure and Methodology of Philosophy

Philosophy provides a way to examine and interpret the world—to ask basic questions about human nature, beauty, principles of right and wrong, and how knowledge and reality are defined. Philosophical thinking helps to uncover the essentials—the basic principles that undergird teaching and learning.

The philosophical perspective is especially important because our personal philosophy of life is seldom explicit. Rather, philosophy resides in people's minds and hearts and is seldom expressed in words or specific ideas. Our personal philosophy becomes evident in the manner in which we respond to everyday problems and questions. The perspective of philosophy helps us to focus on the underlying issues and assumptions and beliefs that are not always evident to us in the hectic pace of contemporary life.

Because philosophy deals with underlying values and beliefs, it naturally pervades all aspects of education. The perspective of philosophy presents opposing views about human nature, knowledge, and the world in which we live. By examining these different, often opposing views, you will be able to identify your own philosophical position and state it in clear language and concepts.

Although philosophy can be defined in many different ways, it is best thought of as a passion to uncover and reflect on the underlying meaning of things. Derived from the Greek *philos*, which means "love," and *sophos*, which means "wisdom," the word *philosophy* means "love of wisdom." Early philosophers did not claim to be wise; rather, they viewed themselves as reflective thinkers in search of wisdom. To many contemporary philosophers, conveying information or wisdom is not as important as helping others in their own search for wisdom.

Education presupposes ideas and questions about the world in which we live, human nature, knowledge and how we know things, and ethics. Questions that focus on these big ideas are ultimately of a philosophical character. Teachers must constantly confront the underlying assumptions that guide conduct, determine values, and ultimately explain that which influences the direction of all existence. Philosophy reminds teachers to continue the search for truth and not be satisfied with pat answers, even answers that are provided by so-called experts. To a philosopher, an expert is not one who professes truth; an expert is one who searches, questions, and reflects. Hence, the study of philosophy is at the heart of education.

The Branches of Philosophy

Philosophy includes branches that investigate large and difficult questions—questions about reality or being, about knowledge, and about goodness and beauty and living a good life. Throughout the centuries, entire branches of philosophy have evolved that specialize in and center on major questions. For example, questions about the nature of reality or existence are examined in metaphysics, questions about knowledge and truth are considered in epistemology, and questions about values and goodness are central to axiology.

METAPHYSICS. Metaphysics is a branch of philosophy that is concerned with questions about the nature of reality and the world in which we live. Literally, metaphysics means "beyond the physical." It deals with such questions as "What is reality?" "What is existence?" and "Is the universe rationally designed or ultimately meaningless?" Metaphysics is a search for order and wholeness—a search applied not to particular items or experiences but to all reality and to all existence.

The questions in metaphysics, especially those about humanity and the universe, are extremely relevant to teachers and students of education. Theories about how the universe came to be and about what causes events in the universe are crucial if scholars are to interpret the physical sciences properly.

A teacher's classroom approach will be linked to the teacher's metaphysical beliefs. If, for example, the teacher believes that very specific basic knowledge is crucial to the child's intellectual development, it is likely that this teacher will focus on the subject matter. If, on the other hand, the teacher holds that the child is more important than any specific subject matter, it is likely that this teacher will focus on the child and allow the child to provide clues as to how he or she should be instructed.

EPISTEMOLOGY. Epistemology is a branch of philosophy that examines questions about how and what we know. What knowledge is true, and how does knowledge take place? The epistemologist attempts to discover what is involved in the process of knowing: Is knowing a special sort of mental act? Is there a difference between knowledge and belief? Can people know anything beyond the objects with which their senses acquaint them? Does knowing make any difference to the object that is known?

Because epistemological questions deal with the essence of knowledge, they are central to education. Teachers must be able to assess what is knowledge to determine whether a particular piece of information should be included in the curriculum. How people know is of paramount importance to teachers because their beliefs about learning influence their classroom methods. Should teachers train students in scientific methods, deductive reasoning, or both? Should students study logic and fallacies or follow intuition? Teachers' knowledge of how students learn influences how they will teach.

AXIOLOGY. Axiology is a branch of philosophy that deals with the nature of values. It includes such questions as "What is good?" and "What is beautiful?" Questions about what should be or what values we hold are highlighted in axiology. This study of values is divided into ethics (moral values and conduct) and aesthetics (values in the realm of beauty and art). Ethics deals with such questions as "What is the good life?" and "How should we behave?" One major question to be examined is "When does the end justify any means of achieving it?" Aesthetics deals with the theory of beauty and examines such questions as "Is art public and representative, or is it the product of private creative imagination?" Good citizenship, honesty, and correct human relations are all learned in schools. Sometimes these concepts are taught explicitly, but often students learn ethics from *who* the teacher is as well as from *what* the teacher says.

Both ethics and aesthetics are important issues in education. Should a system of ethics be taught in the public schools? If so, which system of ethics should be taught? Aesthetics questions in education involve deciding which artistic works should or should not be included in the curriculum and what kind of subject matter should be allowed or encouraged in a writing, drawing, or painting class. Should teachers compromise their own attitudes toward a piece of artwork if their opinion differs from that of a parent or a school board? Take a moment to consider the "Teaching in Challenging Times" feature regarding the complexities that surround teaching morals and values in public schools.

Metaphysics: A branch of philosophy that is concerned with questions about the nature of reality and the world in which we live.

Epistemology: A branch of philosophy that examines questions about how and what we know.

Axiology: A branch of philosophy that deals with the nature of values. It includes questions such as "What is good?" and "What is beautiful?"

VIDEO NOTE 4.1

Teachers sometimes pose axiological questions as part of students reading. In this video, the teacher uses a lesson about character traits to pose questions about the nature of integrity. How might you pose axiological questions while teaching students academic content in your preferred grade level and subject area?

TEACHING IN CHALLENGING TIMES

Teaching Morals and Values in Public School

So often we consider schools as a place where students learn to be good citizens. Even though this is a common assumption held by many, it is difficult to determine what values are the important ones. Living in a society that encourages diversity and free speech, the question of what values should be taught in public schools can be difficult to answer. Even more difficult is the question of how one would teach these values in a classroom setting.

One school of thought, influenced by the work of Lawrence Kohlberg (1981), suggests that there is a body of morals that spans all cultures. These morals can be taught through the use of dilemmas that children are asked to first consider and then discuss the reasoning behind their thinking. By so doing, students may develop increasingly more sophisticated understandings about the moral component of everyday dilemmas.

For example, a teacher could ask students to consider an incident on the playground where they witnessed her or his best friend laugh at another child because that child was obese. The teacher would then provide various responses to this event including, for example, reporting the incident to the teacher, talking directly to the friend, or ignoring the event. After students selected what action they would take, the teacher would ask students to discuss why they chose their different responses. One reason that there is continued interest in having schools focus on developing morals is that children are faced with an increasingly more complex society and cannot be expected to simply absorb and develop values on their own.

In contrast to this emphasis on teaching values, there is another school of thought that rejects direct instruction of values on the grounds that democracy demands that its citizens be free to clarify their own sets of values. This school of thought, influenced by the ideas of Syd Simon's text *Values Clarification*, encourages teachers to refrain from direct instruction of morals and asks teachers to help students define their own sets of individually selected values. The teacher's role is to simply assist students in the clarification of the consequences of selecting any one set of morals or values.

WHAT ARE MY CHALLENGES?

1. What values could you defend as worthy for all students to acquire across different cultures, religions, and so on?
2. How would you approach the teaching of values if required to do so by your school district?

Thinking as a Philosopher

Philosophy provides the tools people need to think clearly. As with any discipline, philosophy has a style of thinking as well as a set of terms and methodologies that distinguish it from other disciplines. Philosophers spend much of their energy developing symbols or terms that are both abstract (apply to many individual cases) and precise (distinguish clearly). Developing ideas that embrace more and more instances (abstraction) while maintaining a clear and accurate meaning (precision) is difficult, but this tension is at the heart of the philosopher's task. The entire process is what is meant by *understanding*: uncovering the underlying, the foundational, and the essential principles of reality.

Analytic Thinking: A philosophical thinking strategy that focuses on questions of the "what seems to be" type; includes abstractions, imagination, generalization, and logic.

Abstraction: A thought process that involves drawing away from experiences to a conceptual plane.

There is great variety in the ways philosophers think. Hence, it is difficult to set forth a simple set of rules or thinking steps that can accurately be labeled philosophical thinking. To give you a sense of philosophical thinking, it is easier (and more accurate) to describe two different thinking styles that philosophers use interchangeably as they wrestle with large, unstructured questions. The first way of thinking can be labeled **analytic thinking**. Philosophers employ this style when they attempt to examine questions of the "what seems to be" type. A second philosophical style of thinking is called prophetic thinking. This style focuses on questions of the "what ought to be" type.

ANALYTIC WAYS OF THINKING IN PHILOSOPHY. When philosophers encounter a contemporary problem, they often spend time analyzing it in an attempt to clarify or find the "real" problem, not just the surface issues. To do so, philosophers use abstraction, imagination, generalization, and logic. These analytic thinking processes help focus the problem clearly and precisely.

Abstraction. The notion of **abstraction** covers a multitude of meanings. The word *abstract* is derived from the Latin verb *abstrahere*, meaning to "draw away." Abstraction, then, involves

drawing away from a concrete level of experience to a conceptual plane of principles or ideas. The process of abstraction can be thought of as a three-step process that moves thinking from singular concrete instances to more general, universal ideas. The three steps involve (1) focusing attention on some feature within one's experience, (2) examining the precise characteristics of the feature, and (3) remembering the feature and its characteristics later so as to apply them to other instances or combine them with other ideas.

When teachers are asked to examine a new textbook series, for example, they will often be presented with promotional material about the important subject matter and learning tools that the series contains. The process of abstraction helps teachers pull away from the "bells and whistles" or the concrete examples in the text. Abstraction enables teachers to consider the underlying themes that are implicit and that provide a cohesive structure to the entire text series. Abstraction helps teachers uncover hidden messages.

VIDEO ANALYSIS 4.1

Watch a second-grade teacher use a graphic organizer to teach students how to abstract the underlying sequence that is used to play a game of dominos in the classroom. Then answer the question that follows the video in your Pearson eText.

Imagination and Generalization. According to Herbert G. Alexander (1987), the second step of analytic thinking is the use of imagination. **Imagination** can be thought of as the altering of abstractions. In philosophy, the use of imagination assists the process of abstraction by filling in the details of an idea, selecting details, and relating ideas to one another.

Imaginative explorations occur in many different ways. Usually, they occur when a person first focuses on some abstraction or idea. Ideas come when one makes observations, reflects about past experiences, reads, views a dramatic work or piece of art, or converses with others. Once ideas are selected, imaginative explorations can be made about them. Basic assumptions about things can be examined, arguments can be justified or clarified, and ideas can be distinguished from or related to other ideas. Experiential evidence, logical consistency, and a host of other criteria can be employed. The outcome of the whole imaginative process is the development of a system of ideas that has greater clarity and more interrelationships to other ideas or sets of propositions. This last step of the imaginative exploration process is sometimes referred to as generalization because it ultimately results in the development of a comprehensive set of ideas.

Generalization sets ranges and limits to the abstractions that have been altered by imagination. As one's imagination relates more and more ideas to one another, the process of generalization determines which relationships should be emphasized or de-emphasized.

When teachers consider new ways to support student motivation, they can use these same processes. For example, teachers often imagine different types of mathematics contests or science Olympiads that might spur students' interests. As they imaginatively apply these contests to the classroom setting, teachers might abstract the competitiveness component as a necessary aspect of contests and Olympiads. Teachers might then wonder about the hidden messages of winning at the expense of others' losses. Teachers might generalize that the competitive approach could bring about knowledge wars, knowledge contests might make students less willing to share what they know with others. To complete this inquiry, teachers need to use logic.

Logic. Philosophy deals with the nature of reasoning and has designated a set of principles called logic. **Logic** examines and proposes reasoning principles that allow us to move from one argument to the next. There are many types of logic, but the two most commonly studied are deductive and inductive logic. **Deduction** is a type of reasoning that moves from a general statement to a specific conclusion. **Induction** is a type of reasoning that moves in the opposite direction, from the particular instance to a general conclusion.

Philosophy provides tools that help people think clearly. It is important for educators to have a philosophy, both as a means of developing their ability to think clearly about what they do

Imagination & Generalization: A thought process that alters abstractions by filling in the details of an idea, focusing on these details, and using these details to relate ideas to one another.

Logic: A thought process that focuses on reasoning principles that us to move from one argument to the next.

Deduction: A logical type of logical reasoning that moves from a general statement to a specific conclusion.

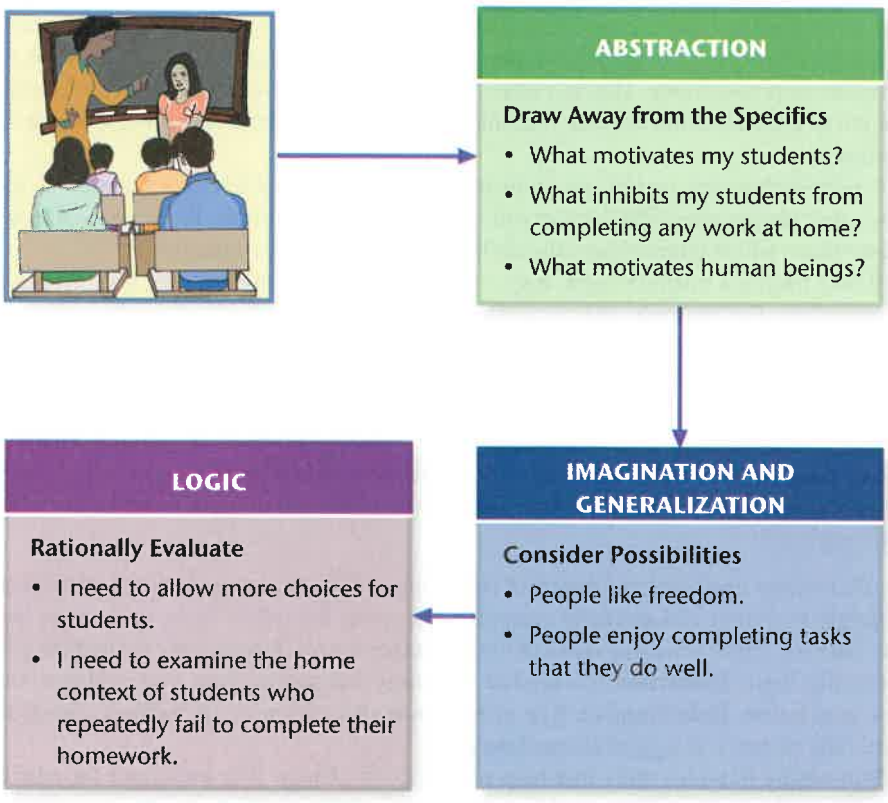
Induction: A logical type of logical reasoning that moves from the particular instance to a general conclusion.

on a day-to-day basis and as a means of seeing how their workaday principles and values extend beyond the classroom to the whole of humanity and society. Figure 4.1 describes how analytic ways of thinking help teachers solve a classroom problem. Studying philosophy enables you to recognize the underlying assumptions and principles of things so you can determine what is significant.

PROPHETIC WAYS OF THINKING IN PHILOSOPHY. In contrast to the search for underlying universal principles that is the focus of an analytic way of thinking, **prophetic thinking** seeks to uncover multiple, even divergent realities or principles. Prophetic thinking has emerged as a counterpoint to the highly successful—but rigid—analytic thinking style. According to Cornel West (1993), a prophetic thinker is one who goes beyond abstraction. A prophetic thinker lives in multiple realities, feeling and touching these realities to such a degree that understanding is ultimately achieved. And a prophetic thinker understands multiple realities so well that bridges can be built between and among the multiple worlds. In his book *Prophetic Thought in Postmodern Times*, West identifies four basic components of prophetic thinking: discernment, connection, tracking hypocrisy, and hope. (Four Basic Components Of Prophetic Thinking: Discernment, Connection, Tracking Hypocrisy, And Hope from Prophetic Thought in Postmodern Times, Volume 1 by Cornel West. Published by Common Courage Press, © 1993.)

1. *Discernment.* Discernment is the capacity to develop a vision of "what should be" out of a sophisticated understanding of what has been and is. This first component of prophetic thought is quite different from the abstract approach of the analytic thinker. The prophetic thinker is more concerned with the concrete, specific aspects of reality. To discern a situation is to take the entire situation into account to get beyond abstract principles. A discerning teacher is one who sees beyond mere test scores, beyond simple classroom rules. A discerning teacher examines the total content of a child's life and makes decisions based

FIGURE 4.1 Analytic Ways of Thinking: Focus and Solve Problems Clearly and Precisely



Prophetic Thinking: A thinking strategy that focuses on questions of the "what ought to be" type; includes discernment, connection, tracking hypocrisy, and hope.

on this content. An outsider could criticize a discerning teacher for bending rules or being inconsistent. Yet a prophetic thinker would applaud the teacher for being wise. The prophetic thinker is a bit of a historian, building the future on the best of the past and present.

2. *Connection.* A prophetic thinker must relate to or connect with others. Rather than considering humankind in the abstract, prophetic thinkers value and have empathy for other human beings. They show empathy, the capacity to get in contact with the anxieties and frustrations of others. Many teachers really do care and work hard to help students. However, they are often unable to make the connection that would complete caring relations with their students. Teachers' willingness to empathize with students is often thwarted by society's desire to establish teaching on a firm scientific footing. But to students, the failure to connect means that teachers sometimes look as though they simply do not care. According to Nel Noddings (1993, 2005) both teachers and students have become victims in the search for the one best method of instruction.

Source: Hero Images/Getty Images

Teacher and elementary students in laboratory Teachers not only teach content but also find ways to help students seek connections to the world around them and apply ideas to their daily lives.

3. *Tracking Hypocrisy.* Although the relationship between empathy and teaching is important, it is equally important for the prophetic teacher to identify and make known "the gap between principles and practice, between promise and performance, between rhetoric and reality" (West, 1993, p. 5). Tracking hypocrisy ought to be done in a self-critical rather than in a self-righteous manner. It takes boldness as well as courage to point out inconsistencies between school policies and practices, but when doing so, a prophetic teacher remains open to others' points of view. New evidence might reveal that one's position is no longer valid, or it might enhance one's original thinking. Figure 4.2 describes how prophetic ways of thinking help teachers solve a classroom problem.
4. *Hope.* The fourth and perhaps most important component of prophetic thought is simply hope. West admits that given the numerous and horrific examples of people's inhumanity to one another, it is hard to take hope seriously. Still, without it, all thought is meaningless. He says:

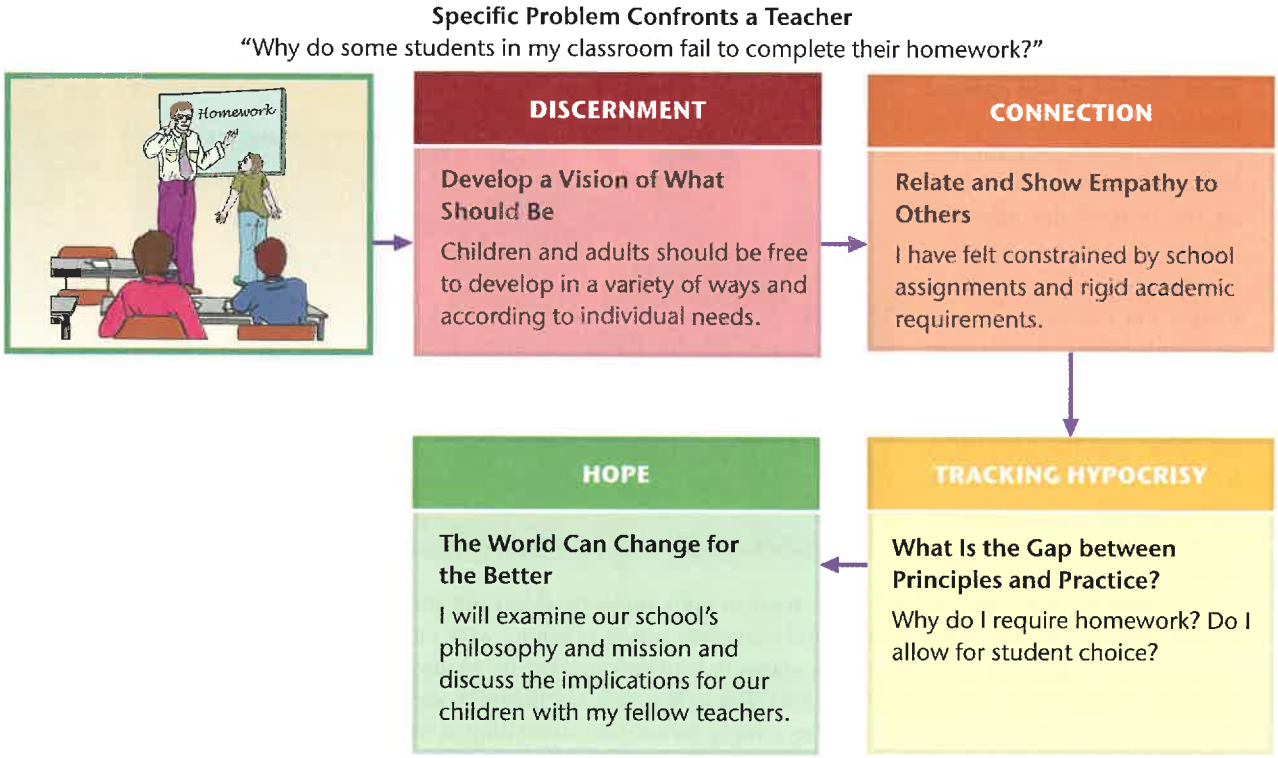
> To talk about human hope is to engage in an audacious attempt to galvanize and energize, to inspire and to invigorate world-weary people. Because that is what we are. We are world-weary; we are tired. For some of us there are misanthropic skeletons hanging in our closet. And by misanthropic I mean the notion that we have given up on the capacity to do anything right; the capacity of human communities to solve any problem. (From Prophetic Thought in Postmodern Times, Volume 1 by Cornel West. Published by Common Courage Press, © 1993.)

West challenges educators to see "skeletons" as challenges, not as conclusions. Even when confronted with educators' failures at creating a better community of scholars, the prophetic teacher must remember that the world is unfinished, that the future is open ended, and that what teachers think and do can make a difference.

Technology and Philosophy

Most of the time, we think of technology as a tool that helps us work efficiently or improve the quality of a product. Philosophers of technology take a broader look at technology by asking questions about the consequences that technology has on the physical and human condition. For

FIGURE 4.2 Prophetic Ways of Thinking: Uncover Multiple Realities or Principles



example, the philosopher Martin Heidegger (1993) believed technology provided the greatest danger yet the greatest possibility for humankind. Heidegger was concerned about technology because it has the power to present information by emphasizing the worth of an object while de-emphasizing its dangers. He called this power of technology *enframing,* and he was concerned that humans' ability to present things in a specific way could hide the actual essence of a thing.

With the release of new technologies increasing exponentially, other philosophers struggle to determine whether any one technology enhances or detracts from the essence of life and the natural order. Some philosophers contend that technology is developing so quickly that mankind no longer controls its direction. They contend that technology now has the power to develop autonomously because humans have become so dependent on it.

John Dewey considered technology a natural component of the changing world. Because change is natural, then technology is natural. The key is to use our rational minds and inquiry to determine the effects of a technology and use it in ways that enhance but do not detract from the needs of all members in society.

No matter what you may think about technology, it is here to stay. Using the analytic and prophetic tools of philosophy can help direct the use of technology in ways that nourish society and schools. By constantly asking broader questions and encouraging students to do the same, schools can provide a forum for controlling and encouraging the development of technology.

The Teacher as Philosopher

Philosophic thinking can look daunting and out of reach. In our ever-expanding world, who has the time to reflect on such big ideas? Yet, when you consider that teachers are charged with the task of preparing students for life in this complex world, it would seem that they, more than any other member of society, are obligated to assume the role of philosopher. Even if teachers do not consciously reflect or discuss ideas about the nature of human existence, what knowledge is of most worth, how learning should be provided, and what values should direct behavior, they live

out their answers to these big questions. They answer these questions by the way they set up their classrooms, by the way they teach students, by the rules they impose, and by the way they relate to others. No teacher can escape the role of a philosopher because each lives out his or her personal philosophies every time he or she enters the classroom.

So, which is better? You can choose to ignore the need to reflect on your own views about the world, human nature, knowledge, and ethical behavior, or you can take the time to constantly examine these large questions and clarify your personal understanding. To do so takes courage because thinking about these bigger questions can sometimes clarify your own imperfections. Yet, is this not what learning is all about, constantly reconsidering what we do and how we do it in light of new information? Clearly the reflective teacher is a natural philosopher.

VIDEO NOTE 4.2

Teachers often think that philosophy is a subject that belongs to college-level learners. This video shows a different way of thinking about philosophy in the elementary classroom. In what ways do you think you could implement this approach to teaching philosophy to children?

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tk_B32HtnWg

JOURNAL FOR REFLECTION 4.1

Classroom activities that deal with what is good (right) or evil (wrong) are in the realm of axiology. Prepare lists of the goods and the evils of the U.S. educational system. Then, propose recommendations for change that might counteract as many of the evils as possible.

CHECK YOUR UNDERSTANDING 4.1

Complete Check Your Understanding 4.1 to gauge your understanding of the concepts in this section.

Schools of Philosophy and Their Influence on Education

As philosophers attempt to answer questions, they develop answers that are clustered into different schools of thought. These schools of philosophical thought are somewhat contrived; they are merely labels developed by others who have attempted to show the similarities and differences among the many answers philosophers develop. As you examine the schools of thought described in this section, keep in mind that the individual philosophers who represent these schools are individual thinkers, like yourself, who do not limit their thinking to the characteristics of any one label or school of thought. The four well-known schools of thought that we discuss next are idealism, realism, pragmatism, and existentialism. In addition to these, we will touch on Eastern thought and Native North American thought. Technically, these two final clusters of thought are not termed schools because they encompass greater diversity and often extend beyond the limits of philosophy into beliefs, customs, and group values.

Idealism

Idealism's roots are found in the writings of Plato. **Idealism** is a school of philosophy that holds that ideas or concepts are the essence of all that is worth knowing. The physical world we know through our senses is only a manifestation or imperfect representation of the spiritual world. The spiritual world is everlasting and is not subject to change because it is perfect (metaphysics).

Idealists believe in the power of reasoning but de-emphasize both the scientific method and sense perception, which they hold suspect. Rather, idealists contend that the rational mind has the ability to reason its way to the underlying ideas that support the physical world. All that is necessary is for the individual, through introspection, to search for these universal ideas that are lodged deep in our minds (epistemology).

Idealism: A school of philosophy that considers ideas to be the only true reality. Physical entities are only shadows of the true reality.

Idealists search and value universal or absolute truths or ideas that remain constant throughout the centuries. Idealists contend that truth, goodness, and beauty transcend and connect all other ideas and, hence, they are important to all cultures and peoples. Idealists contend that values are unchanging because they underlie all aspects of existence and are perfect (axiology).

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF IDEALISM. The educational philosophy of the idealist is idea centered rather than subject centered or child centered because the ideal, or the idea, is the foundation of all things. Knowledge is directed toward self-consciousness and self-direction and is centered in the growth of rational processes about big ideas. Some idealists note that the individual, who is created in God's image, has free will and that it is this free will that makes learning possible. The idealist believes that learning comes from within the individual rather than from without. Hence, real mental growth and spiritual growth do not occur until they are self-initiated.

What Should We Teach? Idealists' educational beliefs include an emphasis on the study of ideas or great works that persist throughout the ages. They also emphasize the importance of great leaders as examples for us to imitate. For idealists, the teacher is the ideal model or example for the student. Teachers pass on the cultural heritage and the unchanging content of education, such as knowledge about great figures of the past, the humanities, and a rigorous curriculum.

How Should We Teach? Idealists emphasize the methods of lecture, discussion, and imitation. They believe that thinking clearly and accurately is critical to uncovering the big ideas that account for the universe. So, there is an emphasis on asking questions that spark thought. No one philosopher is an idealist. Rather, philosophers answer questions, and some of their answers are similar. These similarities are what make up the different schools of philosophy. To describe adequately any one school of philosophy, such as idealism, one needs to go beyond these general similarities to examine the subtle differences posed by individual thinkers. Plato and Socrates, Immanuel Kant, and Jane Roland Martin represent different aspects of the idealist tradition.

Matching Ideas from Philosophical Schools to Your Own. Studying the schools of philosophy can guide you in the development of your own philosophy of education. Throughout this chapter, simply jot down any ideas presented by a philosophical school (like idealism) that match your own. Then write down why these ideas make sense to you.

You will probably find that ideas from different philosophical schools match your own thinking. So keep track of the school that relates to each idea you select. Because you have just reviewed the ideas of idealism concerning what and how to teach, it would be wise to start recording your personal list based on these questions:

- What important knowledge and skills do I think should be taught?
- How should I teach these ideas and skills?

PLATO AND SOCRATES. According to Plato (427–347 BCE), truth is the central reality. Truth is perfect; it cannot, therefore, be found in the world of matter because the material world is both imperfect and constantly changing. Plato did not think that people create knowledge; rather, they discover it. In one of his dialogues, he conjectures that humanity once had true knowledge but lost it by being placed in a material body that distorts and corrupts that knowledge. Thus, humans have the arduous task of trying to remember what they once knew.

The modern world knows the philosophy of Socrates only through Plato, who wrote about him in a series of texts called *dialogues*. Socrates (470–399 BCE) spoke of himself as a midwife who found humans pregnant with knowledge—knowledge that had not been born or realized. This Socratic "Doctrine of Reminiscence" speaks directly to the role of the educator. Teachers need to question students in such a way as to help them remember what they have forgotten. In the dialogue *Meno*, Plato describes Socrates' meeting a slave boy and through skillful questions leading the boy to realize that he knows the Pythagorean theorem, even though he does not know that he knows it. This emphasis on bringing forth knowledge from students through artful questioning is sometimes called the Socratic method.

IMMANUEL KANT. The German philosopher Immanuel Kant (1724–1804), in the *Metaphysics of Morals and the Critique of Practical Reason*, spelled out his idealistic philosophy. Kant

believed in freedom, the immortality of the soul, and the existence of God. He wrote extensively on human reason and noted that the only way humankind can know things is through the process of reason. Hence, reality is not a thing unto itself but the interaction of reason and external sensations. Reason fits perceived objects into classes or categories according to similarities and differences. It is only through reason that we acquire knowledge of the world. Once again, it is the idea or the way that the mind works that precedes the understanding of reality.

JANE ROLAND MARTIN. Often labeled a feminist scholar, Jane Roland Martin (1929–) is a contemporary disciple of Plato's dialogues. In *Reclaiming a Conversation*, Martin (1985) describes how women have historically been excluded from the "conversation" that constitutes Western educational thought. Martin advocates a return to Plato's approach. Dialogues such as the *Apology*, the *Crito*, and the *Phaedo* illustrate educated persons—well-meaning people of good faith, people who trust and like one another, people who might even be called friends—getting together and trying to talk ideas through to a reasonable conclusion. They engage in conversation, learning something from one another and from the conversation itself.

For Martin, to be educated is to engage in a conversation that stretches back in time. Education is not simply something that occurs in a specific building at a specific time. Nor is it simply training or preparation for the next stage in life. Education is the development of the intellectual and moral habits, through the give-and-take of the conversation, that ultimately give "place and character to every human activity and utterance." Education—the conversation—is the place where one comes to learn what it is to be a person.

SOCRATIC DIALOGUE TO ENHANCE REFLECTIVE LEARNING. The ancient philosophers Socrates and Plato believed that learning is best achieved through dialogue. When using Socratic dialogue, the teacher does not teach a subject by direct exposition. Instead, learners' beliefs are challenged by the teacher through a series of questions that lead learners to reflect on their beliefs, induce general principles, and discover gaps and contradictions in their beliefs. Using this type of questioning strategy is difficult when attempting to teach precise mathematical, scientific relationships, so researchers set up a study in a science class to see if Socratic dialogue was effective in teaching science concepts (Kor, Self, & Tait, 2001).

In the Kor et al. (2001) study, students were asked to investigate a spring balance system on their own. The spring balance system models an experimental apparatus that verifies Archimedes' principle in a physics laboratory. One group of students investigated the spring balance system with the help of a teacher who assumed the role of a Socratic tutor and who prescribed immediate and intelligent feedback based on the Socratic questioning method. A second group of students investigated the spring balance system with the help of a Socratic tutor as well as the assistance of an articulation tool that provided direct instruction about problems similar to the spring balance system problem. After both groups of students investigated the spring balance system, students were post-tested. Results showed that all students improved their understanding of Archimedes' principle. However, students who received only the help of Socratic dialogue improved their understanding on a surface level and did not achieve a more abstract understanding of critical attributes. In contrast, students who were assisted by both Socratic dialogue and carefully structured problems significantly improved both surface level and abstract understanding concerning Archimedes' principle.

This research shows that Socratic dialogue is an effective teaching tool even in science. When teachers guide the development of students' understandings, learning occurs. However, when teachers wish to help students understand technical, abstract principles, Socratic dialogue needs to be enhanced by carefully structured, supporting problems that are designed to make explicit to the learner underlying critical entities that might be missed.

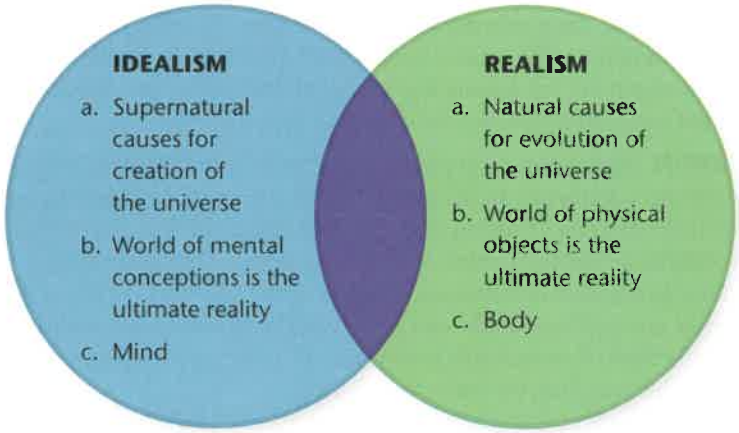
Realism

Realism's roots lie in the thinking of Aristotle. **Realism** is a school of philosophy that holds that reality, knowledge, and value exist independently of the human mind. In other words, realists reject the idealist notion that ideas are the ultimate reality. Figure 4.3 illustrates the dualistic positions of idealism and realism.

Every piece of the physical world is composed of matter. Matter takes on many forms or structures, and this is what accounts for the different components that compose the world.

Realism: A school of philosophy that holds that reality, knowledge, and value exist independently of the human mind. In contrast to the idealist, the realist contends that physical entities are the true reality.

FIGURE 4.3 Dualistic Positions of Idealism and Realism



The reason things look different from one another is due to the form that structures their matter (metaphysics).

Realists endorse the use of the senses and scientific investigation (reason) to find truth in the physical world. Knowing involves both sensation (taking in information through the senses) and abstraction (pulling out the underlying principles). By pulling out these underlying characteristics or principles, one can then classify things into different groups. Aristotle claims that the art of thinking well is to be able to distinguish things based on essential differences (epistemology).

Values and norms come from rights and responsibilities that derive from rational thinking. Because human beings have the ability to reason, their values and norms are those that are logical and consistent with the physical nature of the world. By studying the world logically, natural laws can be uncovered and values are derived from these natural laws (axiology).

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF REALISM. Contemporary realists emphasize the importance of scientific research and development. Curriculum has reflected the impact of these realist thinkers through the appearance of standardized tests, serialized textbooks, and a specialized curriculum in which the disciplines are seen as separate areas of investigation.

What Should We Teach? Realists contend that the ultimate goal of education is advancement of human rationality. Schools can promote rationality by requiring students to study organized bodies of knowledge, by teaching methods of arriving at this knowledge, and by assisting students to reason critically through observation and experimentation. Teachers must have specific knowledge about a subject so that they can order it in such a way as to teach it rationally. They must also have a broad background to show relationships that exist among all fields of knowledge. Thus, the realist curriculum would be a subject-centered curriculum and would include natural science, social science, humanities, and instrumental subjects such as logic and inductive reasoning.

How Should We Teach? Realists place considerable importance on the role of the teacher in the educational process. The teacher should be a person who presents content in a systematic and organized way and should promote the idea that there are clearly defined criteria one can use in making judgments (axiology). Realist teachers would emphasize the importance of teaching students to use experimental and observational techniques. In the school setting, they would teach logical, clear content and clarify how things differ from one another by classifying them. Realists would support careful testing of students' knowledge.

Matching Ideas from Realism to Your Own. As noted earlier in this chapter, studying the schools of philosophy can guide you in the development of your own philosophy of education. As you review the educational implications for realism, you will see that there are similarities between what realists say is important and what idealists also say is important. What differs is that realists recognize that ideas change, whereas idealists contend that ideas remain the same. Therefore,